



JRC SCIENCE FOR POLICY REPORT

Merkblatt über die Besten Verfügbaren Techniken (BVT) für die **Nichteisenmetallindustrie**

*Richtlinie über Industrieemissionen 2010/75/EU
(Integrierte Vermeidung und Verminderung der Umweltverschmutzung)*

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Mit ausgewählten Kapiteln in deutscher Sprache

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Best Available Techniques (BAT) Reference Document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries

Industrial Emissions Directive 2010/75/EU
Integrated Pollution Prevention and control

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Title Best Available Techniques (BAT) Reference Document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries

Abstract:

The BAT reference document (BREF) entitled 'Non-Ferrous Metals Industries' forms part of a series presenting the results of an exchange of information between EU Member States, the industries concerned, non-governmental organisations promoting environmental protection, and the Commission, to draw up, review and, where necessary, update BAT reference documents as required by Article 13(1) of the Directive 2010/75/EU on industrial emissions. This document is published by the European Commission pursuant to Article 13(6) of the Directive. This BREF for 'Non-Ferrous Metals Industries' concerns the activities specified in Sections 2 and 6.8 of Annex I to Directive 2010/75/EU, namely:

- 2.1: Metal ore (including sulphide ore) roasting or sintering;
- 2.5: Processing of non-ferrous metals:
 - (a) production of non-ferrous crude metals from ore, concentrates or secondary raw materials by metallurgical, chemical or electrolytic processes;
 - (b) melting, including the alloyage, of non-ferrous metals, including recovered products and operation of non-ferrous metal foundries, with a melting capacity exceeding 4 tonnes per day for lead and cadmium or 20 tonnes per day for all other metals;
- 6.8: Production of carbon (hard-burnt coal) or electrographite by means of incineration or graphitisation.

This document also covers:

- the production of zinc oxide from fumes during the production of other metals;
- the production of nickel compounds from liquors during the production of a metal;
- the production of silicon-calcium (CaSi) and silicon (Si) in the same furnace as the production of ferro-silicon;
- the production of aluminium oxide from bauxite prior to the production of primary aluminium, where this is an integral part of the production of the metal;
- the recycling of aluminium salt slag.

Important issues for the implementation of Directive 2010/75/EU in the non-ferrous metals industries are the emissions to air of dust, metals, organic compounds (which can result in the formation of PCDD/F) and sulphur dioxide; diffuse air emissions; emissions to water of metals (e.g. Hg, Cd, Cu, Pb, Zn); resource efficiency; and the prevention of emissions to soil and groundwater. This BREF contains 12 chapters. Chapters 1 and 2 provide general information on the non-ferrous metals industry and on the common industrial processes and techniques used within the whole sector. Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 correspond to the following specific production sectors: copper, aluminium, lead and/or tin, zinc and/or cadmium, precious metals, ferro-alloys, nickel and/or cobalt, and carbon and graphite. For each specific production sector, these eight chapters provide information and data concerning the applied processes and techniques; the environmental performance of installations in terms of current emissions, consumption of raw materials, water and energy, and generation of waste; the techniques to prevent or, where this is not practicable, to reduce the environmental impact of operating installations in these sectors that were considered in determining the BAT; and the emerging techniques as defined in Article 3(14) of the Directive. Chapter 11 presents the BAT conclusions as defined in Article 3(12) of the Directive. Chapter 12 is dedicated to concluding remarks and recommendations for future work.

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The authors of this BREF were Gianluca Cusano, Miguel Rodrigo Gonzalo, Frank Farrell and Rainer Remus.

This report was drawn up in the framework of the implementation of the Industrial Emissions Directive (2010/75/EU) and is the result of the exchange of information provided for in Article 13 of the Directive.

Major contributors of information were:

- among EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, The Netherlands and the United Kingdom; Norway also provided valuable information.
- among industry: Association of European Ferro-alloy Producers (Euroalliages), European Aluminium Association (EAA), European association of mining industries, metal ores and industrial minerals (Euromines), European Carbon and Graphite Association (ECGA), European copper institute (ECI), European non-ferrous metals association (Eurometaux), European Precious Metals Federation (EPMF), International Lead Association (ILA), International Zinc Association (IZA), Nickel Institute.

The whole EIPPCB team provided contributions and peer reviewing.

This document is one from the series of documents listed below (at the time of writing, not all documents have been drafted):

Reference Document on Best Available Techniques	Code
Ceramic Manufacturing Industry	CER
Common Waste Gas Treatment in the Chemical Sector	WGC
Common Waste Water and Waste Gas Treatment/Management Systems in the Chemical Sector	CWW
Emissions from Storage	EFS
Energy Efficiency	ENE
Ferrous Metals Processing Industry	FMP
Food, Drink and Milk Industries	FDM
Industrial Cooling Systems	ICS
Intensive Rearing of Poultry and Pigs	IRPP
Iron and Steel Production	IS
Large Combustion Plants	LCP
Large Volume Inorganic Chemicals – Ammonia, Acids and Fertilisers	LVIC-AAF
Large Volume Inorganic Chemicals – Solids and Others industry	LVIC-S
Large Volume Organic Chemical Industry	LVOC
Management of Tailings and Waste-rock in Mining Activities	MTWR
Manufacture of Glass	GLS
Manufacture of Organic Fine Chemicals	OFC
<i>Non-ferrous Metals Industries</i>	<i>NFM</i>
Production of Cement, Lime and Magnesium Oxide	CLM
Production of Chlor-alkali	CAK
Production of Polymers	POL
Production of Pulp, Paper and Board	PP
Production of Speciality Inorganic Chemicals	SIC
Refining of Mineral Oil and Gas	REF
Slaughterhouses and Animals By-products Industries	SA
Smitheries and Foundries Industry	SF
Surface Treatment of Metals and Plastics	STM
Surface Treatment Using Organic Solvents including Wood Preservation with Chemicals	STS
Tanning of Hides and Skins	TAN
Textiles Industry	TXT
Waste Incineration	WI
Waste Treatment	WT
Wood-based Panels Production	WBP
Reference Document	
Economics and Cross-media Effects	ECM
Monitoring of emissions from IED-installations	ROM

Electronic versions of draft and finalised documents are publicly available and can be downloaded from <http://eippcb.jrc.ec.europa.eu>.

Das Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz und nukleare Sicherheit (BMU) und die 16 Bundesländer haben eine Verwaltungsvereinbarung geschlossen, um gemeinsam eine auszugsweise Übersetzung der BVT-Merkblätter ins Deutsche zu organisieren und zu finanzieren, die im Rahmen des Informationsaustausches nach Artikel 13 (3) der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU über Industrieemissionen erarbeitet werden. Die Vereinbarung ist bereits für die Vorgängerrichtlinie (IVU-Richtlinie) am 10.1.2003 in Kraft getreten. Von den BVT-Merkblättern sollen die für die Genehmigungsbehörden wesentlichen Kapitel übersetzt werden.

Als Nationale Koordinierungsstelle für die BVT-Arbeiten wurde das Umweltbundesamt (UBA) mit der Organisation und fachlichen Begleitung dieser Übersetzungsarbeiten beauftragt. Die Kapitel des von der Europäischen Kommission veröffentlichten BVT-Merkblattes „Nichteisenmetallindustrie“, in denen die Besten Verfügbaren Techniken beschrieben sind (Kapitel 3.3, 3.4, 4.3, 4.4, 5.3, 5.4, 6.3, 6.4, 7.3, 7.4, 8.3, 8.4, 9.3, 9.4 und 10.3), wurden im Rahmen dieser Verwaltungsvereinbarung in Auftrag des Umweltbundesamtes übersetzt. Desweiteren wurden das *Vorwort*, das *Inhaltsverzeichnis*, der *Anwendungsbereich* und das *Glossar* übersetzt.

Die nicht übersetzten Kapitel liegen in diesem Dokument in der englischsprachigen Originalfassung vor. Diese englischsprachigen Teile des Dokumentes enthalten weitere Informationen (u.a. Emissionssituation der Branche, Technikbeschreibungen etc.), die nicht übersetzt worden sind. In Ausnahmefällen gibt es in der deutschen Übersetzung Verweise auf nicht übersetzten Textpassagen. Die deutsche Übersetzung sollte daher immer in Verbindung mit dem englischen Text verwendet werden.

Für das Kapitel 11 (Schlussfolgerungen für die Nichteisenmetallindustrie) hat der Sprachendienst der Europäischen Kommission die offizielle Übersetzung angefertigt. Wie in Artikel 13 (5) der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU dargelegt, wurde am 13. Juni 2016 der Durchführungsbeschluss (2016/1032/EU) über die BVT-Schlussfolgerungen, wie sie hier in Kapitel 11 enthalten sind, angenommen und am 30. Juni 2016 veröffentlicht.

Diese deutschen Übersetzungen stellen keine rechtsverbindliche Übersetzung des englischen Originaltextes dar. Bei Zweifelsfragen muss deshalb immer auf die von der Kommission veröffentlichte englischsprachige Version zurückgegriffen werden. Dieses Dokument ist auf der Homepage des Umweltbundesamtes (<http://www.umweltbundesamt.de/themen/wirtschaft-konsum/beste-verfuegbare-techniken/sevilla-prozess/bvt-download-bereich>) abrufbar.

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VORWORT

1. Status dieses Dokuments

Sofern nicht anders angegeben, beziehen sich alle Hinweise auf die Richtlinie im vorliegenden Dokument auf Richtlinie 2010/75/EU des Europäischen Parlaments und des Rats über Industrieemissionen (Integrierte Vermeidung und Verminderung der Umweltverschmutzung (Neufassung)).

Das ursprüngliche Merkblatt über die Besten Verfügbaren Techniken (BVT) für die Nichteisenmetallindustrie wurde 2001 von der EU-Kommission verabschiedet. Das vorliegende Dokument ist das Ergebnis einer Überarbeitung des Merkblatts, die 2007 begann.

Das vorliegende BVT-Merkblatt für die Nichteisenmetallindustrie ist Teil einer Reihe, in der die Ergebnisse des Informationsaustauschs zwischen den EU-Mitgliedstaaten, den betroffenen Industriezweigen, Umweltverbänden und der Europäischen Kommission zur Überarbeitung und Überprüfung und erforderlichenfalls Aktualisierung der entsprechenden BVT-Merkblätter, wie in Artikel 13(1) der Richtlinie vorgesehen. Gemäß Artikel 13(6) der Richtlinie wird dieses Dokument von der Europäischen Kommission veröffentlicht.

Entsprechend Artikel 13(5) der Richtlinie wurde der Durchführungsbeschluss der Kommission 2016/1032/EU über die Schlussfolgerungen zu den Besten Verfügbaren Techniken (BVT) – wie in Kapitel 11 dieses Dokuments enthalten – am 13. Juni 2016 verabschiedet und am 30. Juni 2016¹ veröffentlicht.

2. Teilnehmer am Informationsaustausch

Entsprechend Artikel 13(3) der Richtlinie hat die Europäische Kommission ein Informationsaustauschforum geschaffen, das sich aus Vertretern der Mitgliedstaaten, den betreffenden Industriebranchen und Umweltverbänden zusammensetzt (Beschluss der Kommission vom 16. Mai 2011 zur Einrichtung eines Forums für den Informationsaustausch gemäß Artikel 13 der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU über Industrieemissionen (2011/C 146/03), Amtsblatt der Europäischen Union C 146, 17.05.2011, S. 3).

Die Mitglieder des Forums haben technische Experten für die Technische Arbeitsgruppe (TWG) nominiert, die bei der Erstellung dieses Dokuments als wichtigste Informationsquelle diente. Die Arbeit der TWG wurde durch das Europäische IVU-Büro (der Gemeinsamen Forschungsstelle der Kommission) geleitet.

3. Struktur und Inhalt des Dokuments

In den Ländern, die zur Umsetzung der IE-Richtlinie verpflichtet sind, werden neben Ferrolegierungen 42 verschiedene Nichteisenmetalle erzeugt. Ausgehend von Gemeinsamkeiten in den Herstellungsverfahren wurden diese Nichteisenmetalle in acht Gruppen unterteilt. Auf dieser Grundlage erfolgten die Datenerhebung und ebenso die Gliederung des vorliegenden Dokuments. Berücksichtigt wurden ferner die wichtige Rolle der Herstellungsverfahren im Nichteisenmetallsektor und deren Umweltverschmutzungspotenzial. Insofern war der Informationsaustausch zwischen den Anlagenbetreibern und Regulierungsbehörden besonders wertvoll.

¹ Amtsblatt der Europäischen Union L 174, 30.6.2016, S. 32.

Bei den betrachteten Metallgruppen handelt es sich um:

- Kupfer und seine Verbindungen
- Aluminium und Aluminiumlegierungen und Salz- und Aluminiumrückgewinnung aus Salzschlacken
- Blei und Zinn
- Zink und Cadmium
- Edelmetalle
- Ferrolegierungen (z.B. FeCr, FeSi, FeMn, SiMn, FeTi, FeMo, FeV, FeB)
- Nickel und Kobalt
- Kohlenstoff- und Grafitelektroden

Das BVT-Merkblatt für die Nichteisenmetallindustrie ist wie folgt aufgebaut:

Kapitel 1 gibt allgemeine Informationen über die betreffenden Nichteisenmetallbranchen. Kapitel 2 befasst sich mit allgemeinen Industrieprozessen, Emissionsminderungseinrichtungen und Techniken, die allen Nichteisenmetallbranchen gemeinsam sind. Allgemeine bei der Bestimmung der BVT in Betracht zu ziehende Techniken (d.h. Techniken, die breite Anwendung im betrachteten Sektor finden) sind in Kapitel 2 aufgeführt. In den Kapiteln 3 bis 10 werden die angewandten Verfahren, aktuelle Emissions- und Verbrauchswerte, die bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigenden Techniken sowie in Entwicklung befindliche Techniken für die jeweils betrachteten Metallgruppen dargestellt. Kapitel 11 präsentiert die BVT-Schlussfolgerungen, wie in Artikel 3(12) der Richtlinie vorgesehen, für den Nichteisenmetallsektor insgesamt und für die einzelnen Metalle.

Die Gliederung der Informationen zu den einzelnen Metallgruppen in Kapitel 3 bis 10 folgt dem folgenden Schema:

Unterkapitel 1 beschreibt die für die jeweilige Metallgruppe zum Einsatz kommenden Verfahren und Techniken.

Unterkapitel 2 enthält Daten und Angaben zu den aktuellen Emissions- und Verbrauchswerten entsprechend dem Stand zum Zeitpunkt der Erarbeitung dieses Dokuments.

In Unterkapitel 3 werden die bei der Bestimmung der BVT in Betracht gezogenen Techniken zur Vermeidung und, wo dies nicht möglich ist, zur Verminderung nachteiliger Umwelteinwirkungen der Anlagen im betrachteten Sektor näher beschrieben einschließlich, soweit relevant, der mit dem Einsatz der Techniken erreichbaren Umweltleistung (z.B. Emissions- und Verbrauchswerte), zugehörigen Überwachungsmethoden und Angaben zu den mit der jeweiligen Technik verbundenen Kosten und medienübergreifenden Aspekten.

Unterkapitel 4 stellt "Technologien in Entwicklung" entsprechend der Definition in Artikel 3(14) der Richtlinie vor.

Abschließende Bemerkungen und Empfehlungen für die weitere Arbeit sind Gegenstand von Kapitel 12.

4. Verwendete Informationsquellen und Ableitung der BVT

Dieses Dokument basiert auf Informationen, die aus einer Vielzahl von Quellen stammen, insbesondere der TWG, die eigens für den Informationsaustausch nach Artikel 13 der Richtlinie eingerichtet wurde. Die Informationen wurden vom Europäischen IVU-Büro (der Gemeinsamen Forschungsstelle der Kommission) zusammengetragen und ausgewertet, das die Arbeiten zur Festlegung der BVT nach den Prinzipien von Sachstand, Transparenz und Neutralität geleitet hat. Die Beiträge der TWG und aller anderen Beteiligten werden dankend anerkannt.

Die BVT Schlussfolgerungen wurden in einem iterativen Prozess abgeleitet, der die folgenden Schritte beinhaltet:

- Ermittlung der wichtigsten Umweltprobleme in der Nichteisenmetallindustrie
- Sichtung der relevantesten Techniken, die auf diese Umweltprobleme abzielen
- Ermittlung der besten Umweltschutzleistungen auf der Grundlage der in der Europäischen Union und weltweit verfügbaren Daten
- Prüfung der Bedingungen, unter denen diese Leistungen erreicht wurden, z.B. Kosten, medienübergreifende Auswirkungen und wesentliche Motivationsgründe für die Einführung dieser Techniken
- Auswahl der Besten Verfügbaren Techniken (BVT) für diesen Sektor entsprechend Artikel 3(10) und Anhang III der Richtlinie, der damit assoziierten Emissionswerte (und andere Umweltleistungswerte) sowie der entsprechenden Überwachungsverfahren

Die Beurteilung durch Sachverständige des Europäischen IVU-Büros und der TWG hat bei jedem dieser Schritte und der Wahl der Darstellungsform eine Schlüsselrolle gespielt.

Soweit Daten zur Wirtschaftlichkeit vorlagen, werden diese zusammen mit der Beschreibung der jeweiligen Technik in den Unterkapiteln "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" aufgeführt. Sie geben einen groben Anhaltspunkt zur Größenordnung von Kosten und Nutzen. Die tatsächlichen Kosten bzw. der tatsächliche Nutzen der Anwendung einer Technik hängen jedoch stark von standortspezifischen Faktoren ab, die in diesem Dokument nicht erschöpfend behandelt werden können. Liegen keine Kostendaten vor, dann beruhen die Schlussfolgerungen über die wirtschaftliche Vertretbarkeit der Techniken auf Beobachtungen bei bestehenden Anlagen.

Die Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure als Nebenprodukt in der Nichteisenmetallindustrie fällt in den Anwendungsbereich des BVT-Merkblatts zur Herstellung anorganischer Grundchemikalien – Ammoniak, Säuren und Düngemittel. Ungeachtet dessen wurden im Rahmen der Überarbeitung des vorliegenden BVT-Merkblatts auch Informationen zu den in der Nichteisenmetallindustrie angewandten Techniken zur Schwefelsäureproduktion zusammengetragen. Die Auswertung der erhobenen Daten ist vorwiegend in den Kapiteln 2, 3, 5 und 6 wiedergegeben. Es hat sich gezeigt, dass die im BVT-Merkblatt zur Herstellung anorganischer Grundchemikalien (verabschiedet in 2007), Tabelle 4.24 „Umsatzraten und BVT-assozierte SO₂-Emissionswerte“ angegebenen oberen Werte der BVT-assozierten SO₂-Emissionsbandbreite für die Schwefelsäureerzeugung in Doppelkontakanlagen berichtigt werden müssen.

5. Überarbeitung von BVT-Merkblättern (engl. BREFs)

BVT ist ein dynamisches Konzept, und somit ist auch die Überarbeitung der BVT-Merkblätter ein kontinuierlicher Prozess. So können zum Beispiel neue Maßnahmen und Techniken auftauchen, Wissenschaft und Technologie entwickeln sich stetig weiter und neue in Entwicklung befindliche Verfahren werden erfolgreich in den Branchen eingeführt. Um solchen Entwicklungen und deren Konsequenzen für BVT Rechnung zu tragen, wird dieses Dokument in regelmäßigen Abständen überprüft und, soweit erforderlich, aktualisiert.

6. Kontaktadresse

Stellungnahmen und Vorschläge sind über die nachfolgende Adresse an das Europäische IVU-Büro beim Joint Research Centre (JRC) zu richten:

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Best Available Techniques Reference Document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries

VORWORT	I
SCOPE	XLIX
1 GENERAL INFORMATION	1
1.1 INDUSTRY OVERVIEW	1
1.1.1 Non-ferrous metals and alloys.....	1
1.1.2 Scope of the industry	1
1.1.3 Structure of the industry	2
1.1.4 Economics of the industry.....	2
1.1.5 Environmental performance	3
1.2 COPPER AND ITS ALLOYS	4
1.2.1 General information	4
1.2.2 Sources of materials	4
1.2.3 Production and use	5
1.2.4 Production sites	8
1.2.5 Key environmental issues.....	10
1.3 ALUMINIUM	11
1.3.1 General information	11
1.3.2 Sources of materials	11
1.3.3 Production and use	11
1.3.4 Production sites	13
1.3.5 Key environmental issues.....	13
1.4 LEAD AND TIN.....	14
1.4.1 Lead.....	14
1.4.1.1 General information	14
1.4.1.2 Sources of materials	15
1.4.1.3 Production and use	15
1.4.1.4 Production sites	15
1.4.1.5 Key environmental issues.....	17
1.4.2 Tin	18
1.4.2.1 General information	18
1.4.2.2 Sources of material.....	18
1.4.2.3 Production and use	19
1.4.2.4 Production sites	19
1.4.2.5 Key environmental issues.....	20
1.5 ZINC AND CADMIUM	21
1.5.1 Zinc	21
1.5.1.1 General information	21
1.5.1.2 Sources of materials	22
1.5.1.3 Production and use	22
1.5.1.4 Production sites	24
1.5.1.5 Key environmental issues.....	25
1.5.2 Cadmium	25
1.5.2.1 General information	25
1.5.2.2 Source of materials.....	25
1.5.2.3 Production and use	26
1.5.2.4 Production sites	27
1.5.2.5 Key environmental issues.....	28
1.6 PRECIOUS METALS	29

1.6.1	General information.....	29
1.6.2	Sources of materials.....	29
1.6.3	Production and use.....	30
1.6.4	Production sites.....	31
1.6.5	Environmental issues	31
1.7	FERRO-ALLOYS	32
1.7.1	General information.....	32
1.7.2	Sources of materials.....	32
1.7.3	Production and use.....	33
1.7.4	Production sites.....	35
1.7.5	Key environmental issues	36
1.8	NICKEL AND COBALT	37
1.8.1	Nickel.....	37
1.8.1.1	General information.....	37
1.8.1.2	Sources of materials.....	37
1.8.1.3	Production and use.....	38
1.8.1.4	Production sites.....	39
1.8.1.5	Key environmental issues	40
1.8.2	Cobalt.....	41
1.8.2.1	General information.....	41
1.8.2.2	Sources of materials.....	41
1.8.2.3	Production and use.....	42
1.8.2.4	Production sites.....	43
1.8.2.5	Key environmental issues	43
1.9	CARBON AND GRAPHITE.....	44
1.9.1	General information.....	44
1.9.2	Sources of materials.....	44
1.9.3	Production and use.....	45
1.9.4	Production sites.....	45
1.9.5	Key environmental issues	46
2	GENERAL PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	47
2.1	MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS.....	49
2.1.1	Management policy and commitment.....	49
2.1.2	Design and maintenance	50
2.1.3	Training.....	50
2.2	ENERGY MANAGEMENT.....	51
2.2.1	Applied processes and techniques	51
2.3	MONITORING	55
2.3.1	Sampling locations.....	55
2.3.2	Components and parameters.....	56
2.3.3	Reference conditions.....	56
2.3.4	Continuous and periodic measurement of channelled emissions.....	56
2.3.5	Diffuse emissions measurement	57
2.4	DIFFUSE EMISSIONS.....	60
2.4.1	Sources of diffuse emissions.....	60
2.4.2	Applied processes and techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from storage and handling of input materials.....	61
2.4.2.1	Applied processes and techniques for ores and concentrates.....	61
2.4.2.2	Applied processes and techniques for secondary raw materials	63
2.4.2.3	Applied processes and techniques for fuels	63

2.4.2.4	Applied processes and techniques for process chemicals and gases	65
2.4.3	Applied processes and techniques to prevent diffuse emissions and collect off-gases from metal production processes	66
2.5	RAW MATERIAL MANAGEMENT	68
2.5.1	Applied processes and techniques	68
2.5.1.1	Thawing	68
2.5.1.2	Drying	68
2.5.1.3	Crushing, size reduction and screening	69
2.5.1.4	Battery breaking	69
2.5.1.5	Blending	69
2.5.1.6	Briquetting, pelletising and other agglomeration methods	70
2.5.1.7	Sintering and calcination	70
2.5.1.8	Fuming processes	71
2.5.1.9	Decoating and de-oiling	71
2.5.1.10	Incineration and pyrolysis	71
2.5.1.11	Leaching and washing procedures	72
2.5.1.12	Separation techniques	72
2.5.1.13	Transfer and charging systems	73
2.6	METAL PRODUCTION PROCESSES	74
2.7	SULPHUR DIOXIDE	75
2.7.1	Applied processes and techniques	75
2.7.2	Current emission and consumption levels	80
2.8	WATER AND WASTE WATER MANAGEMENT	85
2.8.1	Main sources of liquid effluent	85
2.8.1.1	Effluents from off-gas cleaning	86
2.8.1.2	Effluent from matte or slag granulation and the production of metal shot and density separation	87
2.8.1.3	Cooling water	88
2.8.1.4	Surface run-off water	89
2.8.1.5	Effluents from the hydrometallurgical process	89
2.8.1.6	Other process waters	90
2.8.1.7	Miscellaneous sources	91
2.8.2	Applied processes and techniques	91
2.9	RESIDUE MANAGEMENT	92
2.9.1	Applied processes and techniques for residues from the smelting process	93
2.9.2	Applied processes and techniques for residues from abatement systems	95
2.9.3	Applied processes and techniques for residues from liquid effluent treatment	96
2.9.4	Applied processes and techniques for residues from the non-ferrous metals hydrometallurgical processes	96
2.9.5	Applied processes and techniques for other residues from the production of non-ferrous metals	97
2.9.6	Examples of recycling and reuse	97
2.10	DECOMMISSIONING	100
2.11	SAFETY ISSUES	101
2.11.1	Prevention principle	101
2.11.2	Consideration of complex systems in process industries	101
2.11.3	Appropriateness of means	101
2.12	GENERAL TECHNIQUES TO CONSIDER IN THE DETERMINATION OF BAT	102
2.12.1	Environmental management systems	102
2.12.2	Energy management	105
2.12.2.1	Use of oxygen enrichment in combustion air	105
2.12.2.2	Use of a regenerative burner	107

2.12.2.3	Use of a regenerative afterburner.....	109
2.12.2.4	Use of low-grade heat.....	110
2.12.2.5	Use of waste as a fuel or reducing agent.....	112
2.12.3	Monitoring and process control.....	113
2.12.3.1	Process control techniques.....	113
2.12.3.2	Design and control techniques for an abatement plant.....	115
2.12.3.3	Process control techniques for effluent treatment.....	117
2.12.4	Diffuse emissions.....	118
2.12.4.1	Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from raw material storage, handling and transport.....	118
2.12.4.2	Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from the pretreatment of raw materials.....	121
2.12.4.3	Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions and collect off-gases from metal production processes.....	122
2.12.5	Channelled emissions to air.....	128
2.12.5.1	Techniques to reduce dust, metal and particle emissions.....	128
2.12.5.1.1	Electrostatic precipitators.....	128
2.12.5.1.2	Wet electrostatic precipitator.....	130
2.12.5.1.3	Cyclones.....	132
2.12.5.1.4	Fabric or bag filters.....	133
2.12.5.1.5	Ceramic and metal mesh filters.....	138
2.12.5.1.6	Wet dust scrubber.....	140
2.12.5.1.7	Overview of dust abatement techniques.....	142
2.12.5.2	Techniques to reduce gaseous compounds emissions.....	143
2.12.5.2.1	Afterburners/Afterburning chambers.....	143
2.12.5.2.2	Wet gas scrubber.....	145
2.12.5.2.3	Dry and semi-dry scrubbers.....	146
2.12.5.2.4	Gas recovery systems.....	147
2.12.5.2.5	Oxy-fuel firing.....	148
2.12.5.2.6	Techniques to remove hydrocarbons and VOCs.....	150
2.12.5.2.7	Removal of other impurities.....	151
2.12.5.2.7.1	Other metals.....	151
2.12.5.3	Techniques to reduce PCDD/F emissions.....	152
2.12.5.4	Techniques to reduce sulphur dioxide emissions.....	155
2.12.5.4.1	Double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plants operating under varying gas conditions.....	155
2.12.5.4.2	Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO ₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metal production.....	158
2.12.5.4.3	Production of liquid sulphur dioxide from off-gases with a high SO ₂ content.....	160
2.12.5.4.4	Use of flue-gas desulphurisation for off-gases with a low SO ₂ content.....	162
2.12.5.4.5	Polyether-based absorption/desorption process for sulphur capture from off-gases with a low SO ₂ content (< 1 %).....	163
2.12.5.5	Techniques to reduce mercury emissions.....	164
2.12.6	Water and waste water management.....	168
2.12.6.1	Process-integrated measures.....	168
2.12.6.2	Waste water treatment techniques.....	171
2.12.6.2.1	Chemical precipitation.....	174
2.12.6.2.2	Treatment of weak acid and process water.....	176
2.12.6.2.3	Biological treatment.....	179
2.12.6.2.4	Sedimentation and flotation.....	180
2.12.6.2.5	Filtration.....	181
2.12.6.2.6	Electrolysis.....	182
2.12.6.2.7	Reverse osmosis.....	183
2.12.6.2.8	Ion exchange.....	184
2.12.6.2.9	Activated carbon.....	185
2.12.7	Residues management.....	186
2.12.8	Noise and vibration.....	188

2.12.9	Odour.....	188
2.12.10	Decommissioning.....	189
2.13	EMERGING TECHNIQUES	192
2.13.1	The LUREC and BAYQIK processes	192
3	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE COPPER AND ITS ALLOYS FROM PRIMARY AND SECONDARY RAW MATERIALS	195
3.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	195
3.1.1	Primary copper production.....	195
3.1.1.1	The pyrometallurgical route	195
3.1.1.1.1	Concentrate to matte smelting	195
3.1.1.1.2	Converting	200
3.1.1.1.3	Fire refining (anode furnace).....	202
3.1.1.1.4	Electrolytic refining.....	203
3.1.1.1.5	Treatment of copper-rich slags	204
3.1.1.2	The hydrometallurgical route	205
3.1.2	Secondary copper production.....	206
3.1.2.1	Secondary copper smelting stage	207
3.1.2.2	Converting, fire refining, slag treatment and the electrorefining and processing of pure alloy scrap	207
3.1.3	Wire rod production	209
3.1.3.1	Southwire process	209
3.1.3.2	Contirod process.....	211
3.1.3.3	Properzi and Secor processes	211
3.1.3.4	Upcast process.....	211
3.1.3.5	Dip-forming process.....	212
3.1.4	Production of semi-finished products of copper and copper alloys	212
3.1.4.1	Melting processes.....	213
3.1.4.2	Casting	213
3.1.4.3	Fabrication of tubes, sections and rods	215
3.1.4.4	Fabrication of sheets and strips	216
3.1.5	Production of copper and copper alloy ingots.....	217
3.1.5.1	Master alloys	218
3.1.6	Pickling operations.....	219
3.1.6.1	Non-acid pickling of copper rods.....	219
3.1.6.2	Acid pickling of copper rods and semis of copper and copper alloys	219
3.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	220
3.2.1	Energy consumption in copper production	220
3.2.2	Emissions and consumption data	221
3.2.2.1	Primary copper input and output	221
3.2.2.2	Secondary copper input and output data	223
3.2.2.3	Emissions to air	225
3.2.2.3.1	Carbon monoxide	226
3.2.2.3.2	Dust and metal compounds	227
3.2.2.3.3	Organic carbon compounds	229
3.2.2.3.4	PCDD/F.....	229
3.2.2.3.5	Sulphur dioxide	230
3.2.2.3.6	Diffuse emissions	231
3.2.2.3.7	Nitrogen oxides	232
3.2.2.3.8	Summary of emissions to air	232
3.2.2.4	Emissions to water	234
3.2.2.4.1	Suspended solids and metal compounds	235
3.2.2.4.2	Oil.....	237
3.2.2.5	Process residues	237
3.2.2.6	Operating data from some copper production processes.....	242

3.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	248
3.3.1	Materialanlieferung, Lagerung und Umschlag	248
3.3.1.1	Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von feinkörnigem und staubendem Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen	248
3.3.1.2	Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen beim Fördern feinkörniger und staubender Materialien.....	252
3.3.2	Materialvorbereitung	255
3.3.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen, wie z.B. Zusammenstellen der Einsatzmischung, Trocknen, Mischen, Homogenisieren, Sieben und Pelletieren.....	255
3.3.2.2	Techniken zur Entölung von Metallspänen vor dem Einschmelzen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	260
3.3.2.3	Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Konzentrattrocknung ..	262
3.3.2.4	Techniken zur Verminderung von Primärabgasemissionen bei der Kupferkonzentratröstung	267
3.3.3	Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	269
3.3.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Ofen-/Konverterbeschickung in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	269
3.3.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzöfen in der Primärkupfererzeugung	272
3.3.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Konvertern in der Primärkupfererzeugung	281
3.3.3.4	Aufbereitung kupferreicher Schlacke.....	289
3.3.3.4.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke durch langsames Abkühlen, Brechen, Mahlen und Flotation (Schlackenkonzentrator)	289
3.3.3.4.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen (Elektroofen oder Verblaseofen)	292
3.3.3.5	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen und Feuerraffinieren von Kupfer (Anodenofen) in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	298
3.3.3.6	Zentrale Erfassung und Minderung von Sekundäremissionen aus Öfen und Nebeneinrichtungen in Primärkupferhütten	306
3.3.3.7	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Anodengießen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	310
3.3.3.8	<i>Optimierte Elektrolyse in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung</i>	<i>312</i>
3.3.3.9	Entschwefelung SO ₂ -armer Abgase in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	317
3.3.3.10	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Solventextraktionsanlagen bei der hydrometallurgischen Kupfergewinnung aus Konzentrat oder Sekundärrohstoffen	323
3.3.4	Sekundärkupfererzeugung	326
3.3.4.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzöfen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	326
3.3.4.1.1	Verminderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen durch Primär- und Sekundärmaßnahmen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	335
3.3.4.1.2	Verminderung von Emissionen durch regenerative Nachverbrennung von Ofenabgasen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	338
3.3.4.1.3	Verminderung von NO _x -Emissionen aus Öfen durch Primär- und Sekundärmaßnahmen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	339
3.3.4.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Warmhalteöfen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	342
3.3.4.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Konvertern in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung.....	344

3.3.4.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Sekundäremissionen aus Nebeneinrichtungen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung.....	349
3.3.5	Kupferverarbeitung	351
3.3.5.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Einschmelz- und Gießanlagen zur Erzeugung von Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungs-formaten, Blockmetallen und Gießwalzdraht	351
3.3.5.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem säurefreien Beizen und dem Säurebeizen von Kupfergieß-walzdraht und Halbzeugen aus Kupfer und Kupferlegierungen.....	357
3.3.5.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Blei- und Zinnrückgewinnung aus Zwischen-produkten der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	362
3.3.6	Abwasser	364
3.3.6.1	Abwasservermeidung.....	364
3.3.6.2	Abwasserbehandlung und -nutzung in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	366
3.3.7	Prozessrückstände.....	380
3.3.7.1	Verwertung oder Aufbereitung von Prozessrückständen.....	380
3.3.8	Energie	383
3.3.8.1	Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs in der Primärkupfererzeugung	383
3.3.8.2	Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	386
3.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	390
4	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE ALUMINIUM FROM PRIMARY AND SECONDARY RAW MATERIALS INCLUDING THE PRODUCTION OF ALUMINA AND ANODES FABRICATED FOR ALUMINIUM PRODUCTION	391
4.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	391
4.1.1	Alumina.....	391
4.1.2	Anodes for aluminium production	393
4.1.3	Primary aluminium.....	397
4.1.3.1	Melting and molten metal treatment	400
4.1.3.2	Casting	401
4.1.4	Secondary aluminium.....	401
4.1.4.1	Production processes.....	401
4.1.4.1.1	Pretreatment	402
4.1.4.1.2	Melting process	403
4.1.4.1.3	Molten metal treatment and casting process.....	404
4.1.5	Salt slag	404
4.1.5.1	Salt slag recovery	405
4.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	406
4.2.1	Alumina.....	406
4.2.1.1	Emissions to air from alumina production	406
4.2.1.2	Red mud	406
4.2.1.3	Emissions to water	407
4.2.2	Anodes for aluminium production	407
4.2.2.1	Mass stream overview and input/output data	407
4.2.2.2	Emissions to air from anode production.....	407
4.2.2.2.1	VOCs, hydrocarbons and PAH.....	409
4.2.2.2.2	Dust	410
4.2.2.2.3	Combustion gases.....	410
4.2.2.2.4	Sulphur dioxide	410
4.2.2.2.5	Fluorides (anode production if anode butts are used).....	410

4.2.2.2.6	PCDD/F	410
4.2.2.3	Emissions to water	410
4.2.2.4	Process residues	411
4.2.3	Primary aluminium	411
4.2.3.1	Mass stream overview and input/output data.....	411
4.2.3.2	Emissions to air	412
4.2.3.2.1	Capture of the gases	413
4.2.3.2.2	Fluorides	414
4.2.3.2.3	PFCs (polyfluorocarbons).....	415
4.2.3.2.4	Tar and PAH	415
4.2.3.2.5	Sulphur dioxide and sulphur compounds	416
4.2.3.2.6	Dust.....	417
4.2.3.2.7	Metals	418
4.2.3.2.8	Oxides of nitrogen	418
4.2.3.2.9	Carbon monoxide.....	418
4.2.3.2.10	Carbon dioxide.....	418
4.2.3.2.11	Summary of main air pollutants.....	418
4.2.3.3	Emissions to water.....	420
4.2.3.4	Process residues	420
4.2.3.4.1	Spent pot lining.....	421
4.2.3.4.2	Other materials.....	422
4.2.4	Secondary aluminium	423
4.2.4.1	Emissions to air	424
4.2.4.1.1	Collection and prevention of emissions	424
4.2.4.1.2	Dust and metals.....	425
4.2.4.1.3	Organic compounds (TOC, PCDD/F) and CO	425
4.2.4.1.4	Sulphur dioxide and oxides of nitrogen	426
4.2.4.1.5	HF, HCl and chlorine.....	427
4.2.4.2	Emissions to water.....	427
4.2.4.3	Process residues	428
4.2.4.4	Energy consumption	430
4.2.4.5	Mass stream overview and input/output data.....	431
4.2.5	Salt slag.....	434
4.2.5.1	Dust and other emissions to air.....	435
4.2.5.2	Water and solid waste	435
4.2.5.3	Energy use	436
4.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	437
4.3.1	Tonerde	437
4.3.1.1	Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Bauxit und Tonerde.....	437
4.3.1.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Trocknern, Dampferzeugern und Kalzinieröfen in der Tonerdeproduktion	438
4.3.1.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung des bei der Tonerdeerzeugung anfallenden Rotschlammes	440
4.3.1.4	Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs bei der Erzeugung von Tonerde aus Bauxit.....	442
4.3.2	Anodenproduktion für die Aluminiumerzeugung	444
4.3.2.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen.....	444
4.3.2.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen aus der Mahlung, Mischung und Formgebung	445
4.3.2.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Anodenbrennerei....	450
4.3.3	Primäraluminium	457
4.3.3.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Lagerung, beim Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Primär- aluminiumerzeugung.....	457

4.3.3.2	Techniken zur Verringerung von Perfluorkohlenwasserstoff-emissionen aus der Primäraluminiumerzeugung.....	458
4.3.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus den Elektrolysezellen und der Elektrolysehalle in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung nach dem Söderberg-Verfahren	459
4.3.3.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung mit vorgebrannten Anoden	461
4.3.3.5	Techniken zur Staub- und Fluoridabscheidung aus dem Zellenabgas	463
4.3.3.6	Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und Fluoridemissionen über das Zellenabgas und die Prozessgase der Anodenproduktion	471
4.3.3.7	Techniken zur Vermeidung von SO ₂ -Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen	471
4.3.3.8	Techniken zur Verminderung von SO ₂ -Emissionen über das Zellenabgas und die Elektrolysehallenabluft	475
4.3.3.9	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzprozessen, der Schmelzebehandlung und Gießprozessen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung	478
4.3.3.10	Techniken zur Verwertung des Ofenausbruchs	479
4.3.4	Sekundäraluminium.....	480
4.3.4.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Lagerung, beim Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	480
4.3.4.2	Techniken zur Abtrennung von nichtmetallischen Komponenten und Fremdmetallen sowie zur Schrottzerkleinerung vor Aufgabe in die Schmelzanlage	481
4.3.4.3	Techniken zum Entfernen von Öl und organischen Verbindungen vor Späneaufgabe in den Schmelzöfen.....	483
4.3.4.4	Auswahl geeigneter Sekundärschmelzöfen	487
4.3.4.5	Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzöfen in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	491
4.3.4.6	Techniken zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzprozess.....	495
4.3.4.7	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzofen	497
4.3.4.8	Techniken zur Verminderung von Sauer gas- und organischen Emissionen einschl. PCDD/F in die Luft	499
4.3.4.9	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Schmelzebehandlung in der Sekundäraluminium-erzeugung	502
4.3.4.10	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschmelzen	504
4.3.4.11	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Skimmings-/Krätzeaufbereitung	507
4.3.4.12	Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von Salzschlackeanfall.....	508
4.3.4.12.1	Einsatz von Metallpump- oder Rührsystemen zur Steigerung des Metallausbringens und Reduzierung des Salzverbrauchs	508
4.3.4.12.2	Technik zur Steigerung der Effizienz und Minimierung des Schmelzsalzeinsatzes	509
4.3.5	Salzschlacke	510
4.3.5.1	Vollständiges Recycling der Salzschlacke	510
4.3.5.2	Teil-Recycling der Salzschlacke	513
4.3.5.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Salzschlackenaufarbeitung.....	514
4.3.5.3.1	Filter zur Enstaubung der Abluft aus der Brech- und Trockenmahlstufe.....	514
4.3.5.3.2	Aktivkohlefilter.....	516
4.3.5.3.3	Sauer Wäscher.....	517
4.3.5.3.4	Nachverbrennungseinrichtung.....	518
4.3.6	Abwasser	519
4.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	520

5	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE LEAD AND TIN.....	523
5.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES.....	523
5.1.1	Primary lead.....	523
5.1.1.1	Sintering/smelting using a blast furnace or Imperial Smelting Furnace	524
5.1.1.2	Direct smelting	524
5.1.2	Primary tin	525
5.1.3	Secondary lead and tin production.....	525
5.1.3.1	Recovery of lead from lead-acid batteries	526
5.1.3.2	Recovery of lead from residues and scrap	528
5.1.3.3	Recovery of lead and tin from residues and from flue-dusts from copper smelting	529
5.1.3.4	Recovery of tin from steel scrap	530
5.1.3.5	Recovery of lead, tin and other metals from secondary raw materials and wastes.....	530
5.1.4	Refining of primary and secondary lead and tin	530
5.1.5	Melting and alloying processes for lead	533
5.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	534
5.2.1	Energy	536
5.2.2	Emissions to air.....	536
5.2.2.1	Sulphur dioxide and other sulphur compounds.....	538
5.2.2.2	Nitrogen oxides.....	539
5.2.2.3	Dust and metals	539
5.2.2.4	Organic compounds (VOCs, PCDD/F) and CO	541
5.2.3	Emissions to water	541
5.2.3.1	Waste waters from abatement plants	541
5.2.3.2	Waste waters from battery recovery	542
5.2.4	Process residues	544
5.2.4.1	Pyrometallurgical slags and residues	545
5.2.4.2	Plastics from battery processing	548
5.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	549
5.3.1	Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung.....	549
5.3.2	Materialvorbereitung	549
5.3.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbereitung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen (außer Batterien)	549
5.3.2.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Trocknung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen	553
5.3.2.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Zerlegung, Sinterung, Brikettierung und Pelletierung.....	557
5.3.2.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung von Batterien	559
5.3.2.5	Techniken zur Verminderung von SO ₂ -Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess	563
5.3.3	Bleierzzeugung aus Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen (Primärhütten).....	566
5.3.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Primärschmelzöfen	566
5.3.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei Beschickungs-/Abstichvorgängen und der Vorentkupferung in der Primärbleierzzeugung	571
5.3.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der Schlackenreinigung in der Primärbleierzzeugung	574
5.3.4	Blei- und Zinnerzeugung aus Sekundärrohstoffen (Sekundärhütten).....	575
5.3.4.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der sekundären Blei- und Zinnerzeugung	575
5.3.4.2	Techniken zur Verminderung gefasster Staubemissionen aus Sekundärschmelzanlagen.....	579

5.3.4.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von SO ₂ -Emissionen aus Sekundärschmelzöfen	586
5.3.4.4	Einsatz von Nachverbrennungskammern zur thermischen Oxidation von Kohlenstoffmonoxid und organischen Kohlenstoffverbindungen einschl. PCDD/F	592
5.3.4.5	Einsatz regenerativer Nachverbrennungsanlagen (RNV) zur Oxidation organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen einschl. PCDD/F	595
5.3.4.6	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft.....	597
5.3.5	Umschmelzen, Raffinieren, Legieren und Gießen in der Blei- und Zinnerzeugung.....	602
5.3.5.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Umschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und Zinn.....	602
5.3.6	Abwasser	608
5.3.6.1	Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung	608
5.3.6.2	Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserbehandlung	609
5.3.7	Prozessrückstände.....	615
5.3.7.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus der Primärerzeugung.....	615
5.3.7.2	Externe oder interne Verwertung von Batteriesäure und Kunststoffen aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung	617
5.3.7.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus der Sekundärerzeugung.....	620
5.3.8	Energie	621
5.3.8.1	Wärmerückgewinnung aus den Prozessabgasen in der Primärbleierzeugung und Sekundär-Blei-/Zinnerzeugung	621
5.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	623
6	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE ZINC AND CADMIUM	625
6.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	625
6.1.1	Primary zinc	625
6.1.1.1	Environmental issues	625
6.1.1.2	The pyrometallurgical route	625
6.1.1.3	The hydrometallurgical route	629
6.1.1.3.1	Roasting.....	631
6.1.1.3.2	Calcine processing.....	632
6.1.1.3.3	Leaching.....	633
6.1.1.3.4	Purification.....	635
6.1.1.3.4.1	Purification using chemicals.....	636
6.1.1.3.4.2	Purification using solvent extraction	638
6.1.1.3.5	Electrolysis	639
6.1.1.3.6	Neutral leach residue treatment and disposal of iron residues.....	640
6.1.1.3.6.1	Pyrometallurgical treatment of neutral leach residue	640
6.1.1.3.6.2	Hydrometallurgical treatment of neutral leach residue.....	640
6.1.2	Secondary zinc	644
6.1.2.1	General processes.....	644
6.1.2.2	Solvent extraction processes for secondary zinc	646
6.1.2.3	Waelz kilns.....	646
6.1.2.4	Slag fuming processes.....	648
6.1.2.4.1	The plasma arc fuming process	648
6.1.2.4.2	The fuming furnace process for the production of secondary ZnO from the copper smelter	649
6.1.2.5	Remelting and refining.....	649
6.1.3	Melting, alloying and casting processes for zinc	649
6.1.3.1	Melting and alloying processes for zinc	649
6.1.3.2	Casting processes for zinc	650

6.1.3.3	Production of zinc powder ('zinc dust').....	650
6.1.4	Cadmium.....	651
6.1.4.1	Production of cadmium from primary zinc processes	651
6.1.4.2	Production of secondary cadmium, mainly from batteries	656
6.1.4.3	Production of other metals (In, Ge, Ga).....	657
6.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	658
6.2.1	Energy.....	660
6.2.2	Emissions to air.....	661
6.2.2.1	Sulphur dioxide and other sulphur compounds.....	663
6.2.2.2	Nitrogen oxides.....	663
6.2.2.3	Dust and metals	664
6.2.2.4	PCDD/F	665
6.2.3	Emissions to water	666
6.2.3.1	Waste waters from abatement plants	666
6.2.3.2	Electrolyte bleed effluent.....	667
6.2.3.3	Waste waters from miscellaneous sources.....	667
6.2.4	Process residues	668
6.2.4.1	Leaching residues	671
6.2.4.2	Pyrometallurgical slags and residues	672
6.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	674
6.3.1	Zinkerzeugung aus Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen	674
6.3.1.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Rohstoffen	674
6.3.1.2	Hydrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung	675
6.3.1.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der Röstung von Primärrohstoffen	675
6.3.1.2.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Röstgutmahlung/-förderung/-zwischenlagerung	679
6.3.1.2.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Laugung und Fest-Flüssig-Trennung	682
6.3.1.2.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der Laugenreinigung durch Zementation mit Zinkstaub und chemischen Additiven.....	687
6.3.1.2.5	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Elektrolyse	690
6.3.1.2.5.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Elektrolytkühlern.....	690
6.3.1.2.5.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Hallenatmosphäre bei der Gewinnungselektrolyse	692
6.3.1.2.5.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in das Wasser aus dem Elektrolyseprozess	694
6.3.1.2.6	Techniken zur Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	695
6.3.1.2.7	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung.....	698
6.3.1.2.8	Techniken zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung ..	701
6.3.1.2.8.1	Pyrometallurgische Behandlung zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	701
6.3.1.2.8.2	Inertisierungs- und Verdichtungstechniken zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	704
6.3.1.2.8.2.1	Jarofix-Verfahren	704
6.3.1.2.8.2.2	Sulfidierungsverfahren.....	707
6.3.1.2.8.2.3	Verdichtung von Eisenrückständen	709

6.3.1.2.9	Techniken zur Wärmerückgewinnung in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	711
6.3.1.3	Pyrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung.....	713
6.3.1.3.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	713
6.3.1.3.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von SO ₂ - und Dioxinmissionen aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung	716
6.3.2	Primär- und Sekundärzinkerzeugung über Recycling-Routen	717
6.3.2.1	Recycling metallischer Stoffströme	717
6.3.2.1.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme.....	717
6.3.2.2	Recycling von oxidischen Rohstoffen	718
6.3.2.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Verblaseöfen	718
6.3.2.2.1.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Plasmalichtbogen-Verblaseprozess	718
6.3.2.2.1.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Verblaseofen in einem Prozess zur Gewinnung von sekundärem ZnO aus einem Zwischenprodukt der Kupferverhüttung	720
6.3.2.2.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Etagenöfen	722
6.3.2.2.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Wälzverfahren.....	722
6.3.2.2.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Pelletierung von Sekundärrohstoffen	722
6.3.2.2.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen in Wälzöfen	723
6.3.2.2.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Schlackenaufbereitung	726
6.3.2.2.3.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Abwasseranfall beim Wälzprozess.....	726
6.3.2.2.3.5	Behandlung von Abwasser aus dem Wälzprozess	728
6.3.2.2.3.6	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus dem Wälzprozess.....	731
6.3.3	Schmelzen, Legieren und Vergießen zu Zinkbarren (primäre, sekundäre, hydrometallurgische und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung) ..	731
6.3.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelz- Umschmelz-, Legierungs-, Warmhalte- und Gießöfen sowie aus der Zinkstauberzeugung.....	731
6.3.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus Schmelzprozessen.....	734
6.3.3.3	Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung	736
6.3.4	Abwasserbehandlung in Zinkhütten (primäre, sekundäre, hydro- und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung).....	737
6.3.4.1	Behandlung von Abwässern aus der hydro- und pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung.....	738
6.3.5	Cadmiumerzeugung und Recycling-Routen	744
6.3.5.1	Hydrometallurgische Cadmiumerzeugung	744
6.3.5.1.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Laugung und Fest-Flüssig-Trennung.....	744
6.3.5.1.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus der Elektrolyse.....	745
6.3.5.1.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der hydrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung	745
6.3.5.2	Pyrometallurgische Cadmiumerzeugung.....	747
6.3.5.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Cadmiumanlage in der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (IS-Verfahren).....	747

6.3.5.2.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Brikettierung und Pelletierung von Cadmiummetallzementaten	747
6.3.5.2.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Cadmiumrückgewinnung durch Verdampfung/Kondensation	748
6.3.5.2.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der pyrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung.....	749
6.3.5.3	Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Cadmiumbarren (Primär- und Sekundärkreisläufe)	750
6.3.5.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelz-, Umschmelz-, Legierungs-, Warmhalte- und Gießöfen.....	750
6.3.5.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus dem Schmelzprozess	751
6.3.5.3.3	Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung.....	751
6.3.5.4	Behandlung von Abwässern aus der Cadmiumerzeugung (primäre, sekundäre, hydro- und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung).....	752
6.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG.....	753
7	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE PRECIOUS METALS	755
7.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	755
7.1.1	Silver.....	758
7.1.1.1	Photographic materials	758
7.1.1.2	Ashes, sweeps, etc.	758
7.1.1.3	Recovery from base metal production	759
7.1.1.4	Refining	761
7.1.2	Gold	761
7.1.2.1	The Miller process	761
7.1.2.2	Electrorefining	762
7.1.2.3	Other processes for gold recovery	762
7.1.3	Platinum group metals (PGMs)	762
7.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	764
7.2.1	Material loops in the precious metal recycling industry	764
7.2.1.1	The non-metallic cycles	764
7.2.1.2	The non-PM loops	765
7.2.2	Environmental issues for precious metal production processes.....	766
7.2.2.1	Emissions to air	766
7.2.2.1.1	Dust and metals.....	767
7.2.2.1.2	Sulphur dioxide.....	767
7.2.2.1.3	Chlorine and HCl.....	767
7.2.2.1.4	Nitrogen oxides.....	768
7.2.2.1.5	VOCs and PCDD/F.....	768
7.2.2.1.6	Summary of emissions to air.....	768
7.2.2.2	Emissions to water.....	770
7.2.2.3	Process residues	771
7.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	772
7.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub-emissionen aus der Aufbereitung (z.B. Brechen, Sieben und Mischen) und dem Umschlag von Vorstoffen zur Edelmetall-gewinnung	772
7.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Edelmetallschmelz- und -umschmelzprozessen (ausgenommen Prozesse zur Erzeugung von Doré-Metall).....	775
7.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der pyrometallurgischen Erzeugung von Doré-Metall	779
7.3.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der (elektrolytischen) Silber- und Goldraffination.....	786

7.3.5	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der hydrometallurgischen Edelmetall-gewinnung	790
7.3.6	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus Verbrennungs-, Kalzinier- und Trocknungs-prozessen zur Edelmetallgewinnung.....	798
7.3.7	Techniken zur Vermeidung, Behandlung, Ableitung oder Rückgewinnung von verbrauchten Prozesslösungen aus der Edelmetallraffination	803
7.3.8	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen von Metallendprodukten der Edelmetallraffination .	808
7.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	810
8	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE FERRO-ALLOYS	813
8.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	814
8.1.1	Ferro-chrome	814
8.1.1.1	Raw materials.....	814
8.1.1.2	Pretreatment techniques	815
8.1.1.3	Production of ferro-chrome and silico-chromium	816
8.1.1.3.1	High-carbon ferro-chrome.....	816
8.1.1.3.2	Medium-carbon ferro-chrome	819
8.1.1.3.3	Low-carbon ferro-chrome	819
8.1.1.3.4	Silico-chromium.....	820
8.1.2	Ferro-silicon and silicon alloys	820
8.1.2.1	Raw materials.....	820
8.1.2.2	Production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium.....	821
8.1.3	Ferro-manganese and manganese alloys	823
8.1.3.1	Raw materials.....	823
8.1.3.2	Pretreatment techniques	824
8.1.3.3	Production of ferro-manganese and silico-manganese	824
8.1.3.3.1	High-carbon ferro-manganese	824
8.1.3.3.2	Medium-carbon ferro-manganese	825
8.1.3.3.3	Low-carbon ferro-manganese.....	826
8.1.3.3.4	Silico-manganese	826
8.1.4	Ferro-nickel	827
8.1.4.1	Raw materials.....	827
8.1.4.2	Production of ferro-nickel from primary raw materials	827
8.1.4.3	Production of ferro-nickel from secondary raw materials.....	828
8.1.5	Ferro-vanadium	828
8.1.5.1	Raw materials.....	828
8.1.5.2	Production of ferro-vanadium	829
8.1.5.3	Post-production operations.....	831
8.1.6	Molybdenite roasting and the production of ferro-molybdenum	831
8.1.6.1	Molybdenite roasting	831
8.1.6.2	Production of ferro-molybdenum.....	833
8.1.6.2.1	Raw materials.....	834
8.1.6.2.2	Metallothermic production of ferro-molybdenum.....	834
8.1.7	Ferro-tungsten	837
8.1.7.1	Production of ferro-tungsten and tungsten melting base	837
8.1.8	Ferro-titanium	837
8.1.9	Ferro-boron	840
8.1.10	Ferro-niobium	841
8.1.11	Production of ferro-alloys from secondary raw materials.....	841
8.1.11.1	Raw material and its preparation.....	841
8.1.11.2	Preprocessing	843

8.1.11.2.1	Mixing and drying (plasma dust process only)	843
8.1.11.3	Submerged arc furnace process	843
8.1.11.4	Plasma dust process	844
8.1.12	Summary of the smelting systems used in the ferro-alloy industry	845
8.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	848
8.2.1	Consumption of raw material and energy	848
8.2.2	Emissions to air.....	853
8.2.2.1	Dust and fume emissions	853
8.2.2.2	Other emissions to air	859
8.2.3	Emissions of noise and vibrations	863
8.2.4	Emissions to water	864
8.2.5	Process residues	865
8.2.6	Energy recovery	869
8.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	872
8.3.1	Rohstoffanlieferung, - umschlag und -lagerung.....	872
8.3.1.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär-rohstoffen	872
8.3.2	Materialvorbereitung	873
8.3.2.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Brechen und Mahlen der Einsatzmaterialien	873
8.3.2.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Dosieren, Mischen und der Mischungszusammenstellung	875
8.3.2.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Brikettierung, Pelletierung und Sinterung der Einsatzmaterialien	876
8.3.2.4	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Trocknung von Erzen und sonstigen Einsatzmaterialien.....	879
8.3.2.5	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Kokstrocknung	879
8.3.2.6	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der thermischen Vorbehandlung von Walzzunder oder Metallspänen.....	880
8.3.2.7	Erzvorwärmung und -vorreduktion zur Reduzierung des Energieaufwands.....	881
8.3.3	Erschmelzen von Ferrolegierungen.....	883
8.3.3.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzöfen.....	883
8.3.3.1.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus oben offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen	883
8.3.3.1.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus halbgeschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen	888
8.3.3.1.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus geschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen	891
8.3.3.1.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem geschlossenen Plasmadust-Prozess.....	895
8.3.3.1.5	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Etagenöfen	896
8.3.3.1.6	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus feuerfest ausgekleideten Reaktionstiegeln	898
8.3.3.1.7	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Drehrohröfen.....	900
8.3.3.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Abstichvorgängen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen	901
8.3.4	Gießen, Raffination und Legieren	904
8.3.4.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Gieß-, Transport und Nachfüllvorgängen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen.....	904
8.3.4.2	Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Raffinations- und Legierungsprozessen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen.....	905

8.3.5	Aufbereitung der Produkte und Nebenprodukte	906
8.3.5.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Produktzerkleinerung	906
8.3.5.2	Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Handhabung, Lagerung und dem Transport von Fines	909
8.3.5.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Verpackungsprozess bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen	910
8.3.5.4	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Schlackenbehandlung bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen	911
8.3.6	Abwasser	912
8.3.6.1	Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung	912
8.3.6.2	Abwasserbehandlung	913
8.3.7	Prozessrückstände	921
8.3.7.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen	921
8.3.8	Energie	922
8.3.8.1	Techniken zur Energierückgewinnung aus halbgeschlossenen Öfen	922
8.3.8.2	Energierückgewinnung aus geschlossenen Elektrolichtbogenöfen	925
8.3.8.3	Energierückgewinnung aus sonstigen Öfen	926
8.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	928
9	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE NICKEL AND COBALT	929
9.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES	929
9.1.1	Nickel production	929
9.1.1.1	Oxidic ores	929
9.1.1.2	Sulphidic ores	931
9.1.1.2.1	Conventional flash smelting process	932
9.1.1.2.2	Direct Outotec Nickel (DON) process	933
9.1.1.3	Matte refining processes	934
9.1.1.3.1	Chloride leaching of matte followed by electrowinning	935
9.1.1.3.2	Sulphate-based atmospheric pressure leaching followed by electrowinning/hydrogen reduction	936
9.1.1.3.3	Ammonia pressure leach and hydrogen reduction	939
9.1.1.3.4	Ferric chloride leaching	939
9.1.1.3.5	Carbonyl process	939
9.1.1.3.6	Matte electrorefining	940
9.1.1.3.7	Solvent extraction	940
9.1.1.3.8	Nickel matte refining process	940
9.1.1.4	Nickel alloy production from secondary materials	942
9.1.2	Cobalt production	943
9.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	945
9.2.1	Energy consumption	945
9.2.2	Emissions to air	945
9.2.2.1	Sulphur dioxide and other acid gases	946
9.2.2.2	VOCs	946
9.2.2.3	Dust and metals	947
9.2.2.4	Chlorine	948
9.2.2.5	Hydrogen, carbon monoxide and carbonyls	948
9.2.2.6	Nitrogen oxides	948
9.2.2.7	Diffuse emissions	948
9.2.3	Emissions to water	949
9.2.3.1	Waste waters from abatement plants	950
9.2.3.2	Miscellaneous sources	950
9.2.4	Process residues	952
9.2.4.1	Precipitates from purification processes	952
9.2.4.2	Pyrometallurgical slags and residues	953

9.2.4.3	Other materials	953
9.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN	954
9.3.1	Nickelerzeugung.....	954
9.3.1.1	Materialanlieferung, Lagerung und Umschlag	954
9.3.1.1.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen bei der Materialanlieferung, -lagerung und dem -umschlag.....	954
9.3.1.2	Materialvorbereitung	956
9.3.1.2.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Erzvorbereitung und -aufbereitung	956
9.3.1.2.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Nickelerz- und Konzentrat Trocknung	957
9.3.1.3	Pyrometallurgische Umwandlungsprozesse	959
9.3.1.3.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Ofenbeschickung in der Primärnickelerzeugung.....	959
9.3.1.3.2	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Direct Outotec Nickel (DON)-Prozess.....	960
9.3.1.3.3	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Elektrolichtbogenofen	963
9.3.1.3.4	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Nickelkonverterprozess.....	965
9.3.1.4	Hydrometallurgische Nickelraffination	966
9.3.1.4.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung	966
9.3.1.4.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Solventextraktions-Raffination (Sulfatroute).....	968
9.3.1.4.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Nickelfeinsteinraffination mittels Eisensalzaugung unter Einleitung von Chlorgas (Chlorroute)	969
9.3.1.4.4	Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Gewinnungselektrolyse.....	971
9.3.1.4.5	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Carbonyl-Prozess	972
9.3.1.4.6	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts durch Reduktion mit Wasserstoff unter Druck	975
9.3.1.5	Abwasser.....	976
9.3.1.5.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall	976
9.3.1.5.2	Abwasserbehandlung.....	976
9.3.1.6	Prozessrückstände	983
9.3.1.6.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen	983
9.3.1.7	Energieeffizienz und Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs	985
9.3.2	Kobalterzeugung.....	988
9.3.2.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Solventextraktionsprozess zur Kobaltgewinnung.....	988
9.3.2.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Mischhydroxid- und Mischsulfidfällung.....	989
9.3.2.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Gewinnungselektrolyse.....	991
9.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG.....	993
9.4.1	Thermische Zersetzung von Nickelkomplexen	993
10	PROCESSES TO PRODUCE CARBON AND GRAPHITE ELECTRODES, CATHODES AND SHAPES.....	995
10.1	APPLIED PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES.....	995
10.1.1	Processes to produce calcined materials	996
10.1.2	Processes to produce paste, green powders and green shapes	997

10.1.3	Processes to produce baked shapes	998
10.1.4	Processes to produce impregnated shapes.....	1001
10.1.5	Processes to produce rebaked shapes from impregnated shapes.....	1001
10.1.6	Processes to produce graphitised shapes	1001
10.1.7	Processes to produce machine baked, rebaked or graphitised products	1003
10.1.8	Processes to produce speciality carbon and graphite products.....	1003
10.2	CURRENT EMISSION AND CONSUMPTION LEVELS	1004
10.2.1	Emissions to air	1004
10.2.1.1	Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons	1005
10.2.1.2	Dust	1006
10.2.1.3	Combustion gases.....	1007
10.2.1.4	Sulphur dioxide	1007
10.2.1.5	VOCs (from the manufacture of special carbon and graphite products)	1007
10.2.1.6	Cyanides (polyacrylonitrile (PAN)-based carbon fibre production)	1007
10.2.1.7	PCDD/F.....	1007
10.2.1.8	Summary of the main air pollutants	1007
10.2.2	Emissions to water	1011
10.2.3	Process residues.....	1011
10.3	BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN.....	1013
10.3.1	Rohstoffannahme, - umschlag und -lagerung.....	1013
10.3.1.1	Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von festen Einsatzstoffe.....	1013
10.3.1.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Lagern, Verarbeiten und Transport von Flüssigpech.....	1014
10.3.2	Materialvorbereitung.....	1015
10.3.2.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Kohle- und Kokskalziniierung	1015
10.3.2.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der mechanischen Aufbereitung (z.B. Mahlung und Siebung) der Einsatzstoffe.....	1015
10.3.3	Herstellung von Kohlenstoff- und Grafitwerkstoffen	1015
10.3.3.1	Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in den Prozessschritten Mischen und Formgebung (Herstellung von grüner Masse und grünen Formkörpern).....	1015
10.3.3.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Brenn- und Abglühbetrieb	1019
10.3.3.3	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Imprägnierung.....	1024
10.3.3.4	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Grafitierung	1027
10.3.3.5	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der maschinellen Oberflächenbearbeitung.....	1028
10.3.3.6	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Herstellung von Werkstoffen aus Spezialkohlenstoff.....	1028
10.3.4	Abwasser	1029
10.3.4.1	Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen über das Abwasser	1029
10.3.4.2	Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in das Wasser.....	1029
10.3.5	Prozessrückstände.....	1029
10.4	TECHNOLOGIEN IN ENTWICKLUNG	1030
11	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN.....	1031
11.1	ALLGEMEINE BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN.....	1034
11.1.1	Umweltmanagementsysteme (UMS).....	1034
11.1.2	Energiemanagement.....	1036
11.1.3	Prozesssteuerung	1037

11.1.4	Diffuse Emissionen.....	1037
11.1.4.1	Allgemeiner Ansatz für die Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen.....	1037
11.1.4.2	Diffuse Emissionen aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen.....	1038
11.1.4.3	Diffuse Emissionen aus der Metallherzeugung	1040
11.1.5	Überwachung von Emissionen in die Luft.....	1041
11.1.6	Quecksilberemissionen	1044
11.1.7	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1045
11.1.8	NO _x -Emissionen.....	1045
11.1.9	Emissionen in Wasser sowie Überwachung dieser Emissionen.....	1046
11.1.10	Lärm.....	1049
11.1.11	Geruch	1049
11.2	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE KUPFERERZEUGUNG	1050
11.2.1	Sekundärrohstoffe	1050
11.2.2	Energie	1050
11.2.3	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1051
11.2.3.1	Diffuse Emissionen.....	1052
11.2.3.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1056
11.2.3.3	Emissionen organischer Verbindungen	1059
11.2.3.4	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1060
11.2.3.5	Säureemissionen.....	1061
11.2.4	Boden und Grundwasser	1061
11.2.5	Abwasseranfall.....	1062
11.2.6	Abfall.....	1063
11.3	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE ALUMINIUMERZEUGUNG EINSCHLIEßLICH ALUMINIUMOXIDERZEUGUNG UND DIE ANODENPRODUKTION	1064
11.3.1	Aluminiumoxiderzeugung.....	1064
11.3.1.1	Energie.....	1064
11.3.1.2	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1064
11.3.1.3	Abfall	1065
11.3.2	Anodenproduktion.....	1065
11.3.2.1	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1065
11.3.2.1.1	Staub-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen aus der Rohanodenanlage	1065
11.3.2.1.2	Staub-, Schwefeldioxid-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen aus der Anodenbrennanlage.....	1066
11.3.2.2	Abwasseranfall.....	1067
11.3.2.3	Abfall	1067
11.3.3	Primäraluminiumherzeugung.....	1067
11.3.3.1	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1067
11.3.3.1.1	Gefasste Staub- und Fluoridemissionen	1068
11.3.3.1.2	Gesamte Staub- und Fluoridemissionen	1069
11.3.3.1.3	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1070
11.3.3.1.4	Perfluorkohlenwasserstoff-Emissionen.....	1071
11.3.3.1.5	PAK- und CO-Emissionen	1071
11.3.3.2	Abwasseranfall.....	1071
11.3.3.3	Abfall	1071
11.3.4	Sekundäraluminiumherzeugung	1072
11.3.4.1	Sekundärrohstoffe	1072
11.3.4.2	Energie.....	1072
11.3.4.3	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1072
11.3.4.3.1	Diffuse Emissionen.....	1072
11.3.4.3.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1073
11.3.4.3.3	Emissionen organischer Verbindungen	1074
11.3.4.3.4	Säureemissionen.....	1075

11.3.4.4	Abfall.....	1076
11.3.5	Recycling von Salzschlacke	1076
11.3.5.1	Diffuse Emissionen	1076
11.3.5.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen.....	1077
11.3.5.3	Gasförmige Verbindungen	1077
11.4	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE BLEI- UND/ODER ZINNERZEUGUNG	1078
11.4.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1078
11.4.1.1	Diffuse Emissionen	1078
11.4.1.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen.....	1079
11.4.1.3	Emissionen organischer Verbindungen.....	1081
11.4.1.4	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1083
11.4.2	Boden- und Grundwasserschutz	1083
11.4.3	Abwasseraufkommen und -behandlung.....	1084
11.4.4	Abfall	1084
11.5	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE ZINK- UND/ODER CADMIUMERZEUGUNG.....	1086
11.5.1	Primärzinkerzeugung	1086
11.5.1.1	Hydrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung.....	1086
11.5.1.1.1	Energie	1086
11.5.1.1.2	Emissionen in die Luft	1086
11.5.1.1.2.1	Diffuse Emissionen	1086
11.5.1.1.2.2	Gefasste Emissionen	1087
11.5.1.1.3	Boden- und Grundwasserschutz	1088
11.5.1.1.4	Abwasseranfall	1088
11.5.1.1.5	Abfall	1088
11.5.1.2	Pyrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung.....	1089
11.5.1.2.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1089
11.5.1.2.1.1	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1089
11.5.2	Sekundärzinkerzeugung	1090
11.5.2.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1090
11.5.2.1.1	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1090
11.5.2.1.2	Emissionen organischer Verbindungen.....	1091
11.5.2.1.3	Säureemissionen	1091
11.5.2.2	Abwasseranfall und -behandlung	1092
11.5.3	Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren und Erzeugung von Zinkpulver	1092
11.5.3.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1092
11.5.3.1.1	Diffuse Staubemissionen	1092
11.5.3.1.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1092
11.5.3.2	Abwasser	1093
11.5.3.3	Abfall.....	1093
11.5.4	Cadmiumerzeugung	1093
11.5.4.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1093
11.5.4.1.1	Diffuse Emissionen	1093
11.5.4.1.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1093
11.5.4.2	Abfall.....	1094
11.6	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE EDELMETALLERZEUGUNG	1095
11.6.1	Emissionen in die Luft	1095
11.6.1.1	Diffuse Emissionen	1095
11.6.1.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen.....	1096
11.6.1.3	NO _x -Emissionen	1097
11.6.1.4	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1097
11.6.1.5	HCl- und Cl ₂ -Emissionen.....	1098
11.6.1.6	NH ₃ -Emissionen.....	1098
11.6.1.7	PCDD/F-Emissionen	1099

11.6.2	Boden- und Grundwasserschutz.....	1099
11.6.3	Abwasseranfall.....	1099
11.6.4	Abfall.....	1100
11.7	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE ERZEUGUNG VON FERROLEGIERUNGEN	1101
11.7.1	Energie.....	1101
11.7.2	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1101
11.7.2.1	Diffuse Staubemissionen	1101
11.7.2.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1102
11.7.2.3	PCDD/F-Emissionen.....	1103
11.7.2.4	Emissionen von PAK und organischen Verbindungen.....	1103
11.7.3	Abfall.....	1104
11.8	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE NICKEL- UND/ODER KOBALTERZEUGUNG	1105
11.8.1	Energie.....	1105
11.8.2	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1105
11.8.2.1	Diffuse Emissionen.....	1105
11.8.2.2	Gefasste Staubemissionen	1106
11.8.2.3	Nickel- und Chloremissionen.....	1106
11.8.2.4	Schwefeldioxidemissionen	1107
11.8.2.5	NH ₃ -Emissionen	1107
11.8.3	Abfall.....	1107
11.9	BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN FÜR DIE KOHLENSTOFF- UND/ODER GRAPHITERZEUGUNG	1109
11.9.1	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1109
11.9.1.1	Diffuse Emissionen.....	1109
11.9.1.2	Staub- und PAK-Emissionen	1109
11.9.1.3	Schwefeldioxidemissionen.....	1111
11.9.1.4	Emissionen organischer Verbindungen	1111
11.9.2	Abfall.....	1111
11.10	BESCHREIBUNG DER TECHNIKEN	1113
11.10.1	Emissionen in die Luft.....	1113
11.10.1.1	Staubemissionen.....	1113
11.10.1.2	NO _x -Emissionen.....	1113
11.10.1.3	SO ₂ -, HCl- und HF-Emissionen	1114
11.10.1.4	Quecksilberemissionen	1114
11.10.1.5	VOC-, PAK- und PCDD/F-Emissionen	1114
11.10.2	Emissionen in Wasser	1115
11.10.3	Andere.....	1116
12	CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK	1117
13	ANNEXES	1123
13.1	METAL PRODUCTION PROCESSES	1123
13.1.1	Furnaces for roasting and calcining	1125
13.1.1.1	Rotary kilns.....	1125
13.1.1.2	Fluidised bed reactors	1125
13.1.1.3	Multiple hearth or Herreshoff furnace	1126
13.1.1.4	Sintering furnaces	1127
13.1.2	Smelting furnaces	1128
13.1.2.1	Reverberatory, hearth or closed well furnaces	1128
13.1.2.2	Blast furnaces (and the Imperial Smelting Furnace).....	1129
13.1.2.3	Electric reduction furnaces	1131
13.1.2.4	Electric (resistance) furnaces	1134

13.1.2.5	Rotary furnace.....	1135
13.1.2.6	Refractory-lined pits and crucibles.....	1135
13.1.2.7	Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnaces and the KRS furnace	1136
13.1.2.8	Top-blown rotary converter (TBRC) and tilting rotary oxy-fuel furnace (TROF).....	1137
13.1.2.9	The Noranda, El Teniente, Baiyin and Vanyukov processes	1138
13.1.2.10	The Mitsubishi process	1140
13.1.2.11	The QSL furnace	1140
13.1.2.12	Cyclone smelting furnaces	1141
13.1.2.13	The Outotec flash furnace	1142
13.1.2.14	The INCO furnace.....	1143
13.1.2.15	The Kivcet (KSS) furnace.....	1144
13.1.3	Converters	1144
13.1.3.1	The Peirce-Smith converter.....	1144
13.1.3.2	The Hoboken converter	1146
13.1.3.3	The Kennecott-Outotec flash converter	1147
13.1.3.4	Other converters.....	1147
13.1.4	Melting and refining furnaces	1148
13.1.4.1	Induction furnaces	1148
13.1.4.2	Indirectly heated kettles	1148
13.1.4.3	Shaft furnaces for melting metal	1149
13.1.4.4	The Continelt process.....	1149
13.1.4.5	Electron beam furnaces	1150
13.1.4.6	Rotary furnace.....	1150
13.1.4.7	Reverberatory (closed well) furnaces	1151
13.1.5	Summary of furnaces in common use	1152
13.1.6	Electrochemical processes.....	1154
13.1.6.1	Electrowinning	1154
13.1.6.2	Electrorefining.....	1154
13.1.6.3	Molten salt electrolysis	1155
13.1.7	Hydrometallurgical processes	1155
13.1.7.1	Heap leaching.....	1155
13.1.7.2	Atmospheric leaching (open tank)	1156
13.1.7.3	Pressure leaching (autoclaving)	1156
13.1.7.4	Solvent extraction.....	1156
13.2	ENVIRONMENTAL MONITORING PRACTICES	1158
13.2.1	Examples of environmental monitoring practices	1158
13.2.1.1	Examples from the Nordic countries.....	1158
13.2.1.2	Examples from other countries.....	1160
13.2.1.3	Studies in Austria	1161
13.2.1.4	Studies in Belgium	1161
13.2.2	Ecotoxicity and bioavailability.....	1162
13.3	SPECIFIC COST DATA FOR METAL PRODUCTION AND ABATEMENT.....	1165
13.3.1	Influences on cost data	1165
13.3.2	Specific investment costs for copper process plants	1167
13.3.3	Specific investment costs for primary and secondary aluminium processes..	1170
13.3.4	Specific investment costs for lead-zinc processes.....	1171
13.3.5	Cost data for abatement techniques.....	1173
13.3.5.1	Air emissions abatement in the copper industry.....	1173
13.3.5.2	Air emissions abatement - aluminium industry.....	1182
13.3.5.2.1	Costs associated with deSO _x	1187
13.3.5.3	Sulphuric acid plants	1189
13.3.5.4	Effluent treatment systems	1190
14	GLOSSAR.....	1191
I.	ISO- LÄNDERSCHLÜSSEL	1191

II.	WÄHRUNGSEINHEITEN	1192
III.	PRÄFIXE VOR MAßEINHEITEN, DEZIMALTRENNZEICHEN UND FORMELZEICHEN	1192
IV.	MAßEINHEITEN.....	1193
V.	CHEMISCHE ELEMENTE	1194
VI.	VERWENDETE CHEMISCHE FORMELN	1195
VII.	AKRONYME UND BEGRIFFSFESTLEGUNGEN	1196
REFERENCES.....		1216

List of Figures

Figure 1.1:	Worldwide copper production in 2005	6
Figure 1.2:	Copper semis products produced in 2003	7
Figure 1.3:	End uses for semis produced in the EU in 2003	8
Figure 1.4:	European lead refining capacity in 2007	17
Figure 1.5:	World production of zinc from concentrates in 2007 excluding China	23
Figure 1.6:	European uses of nickel in 2005	38
Figure 1.7:	European nickel production in 2006	40
Figure 2.1:	Energy balance of the Contimelt process	54
Figure 2.2:	House-in-house collection system	67
Figure 2.3:	Typical gas-cleaning train for a sulphuric acid plant	77
Figure 2.4:	Typical double absorption sulphuric acid plant	78
Figure 2.5:	Comparison of the effect of steady- and non-steady-state SO ₂ inlet concentrations on conversion efficiency	79
Figure 2.6:	Equation for the calculation of the outlet concentration and the conversion rate	79
Figure 2.7:	Conversion of SO ₂ to sulphuric acid	80
Figure 2.8:	Effluent classification	85
Figure 2.9:	Granulation of molten metal	87
Figure 2.10:	Closed water loop in granulation systems	88
Figure 2.11:	Different recycling routes according to the amount of residues generated by some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia	93
Figure 2.12:	Electric furnace cleaning of copper slags	94
Figure 2.13:	Continuous improvement in an EMS model	103
Figure 2.14:	First half of the regenerative burner cycle	108
Figure 2.15:	Second half of the regenerative burner cycle	108
Figure 2.16:	Regenerative afterburner	109
Figure 2.17:	Electricity generation from low-grade heat	111
Figure 2.18:	Fourth hole fume collection	123
Figure 2.19:	Coinciding charging and tapping system	124
Figure 2.20:	Outline of a secondary fume collection system for a primary copper process	125
Figure 2.21:	Secondary hooding system for a converter	126
Figure 2.22:	Taphole fume collection	126
Figure 2.23:	Typical arrangement of an electrostatic precipitator (only two zones shown)	129
Figure 2.24:	Wet electrostatic precipitator	131
Figure 2.25:	Arrangement of a cyclone	132
Figure 2.26:	Reverse airflow bag filter (with one compartment in the cleaning cycle)	134
Figure 2.27:	Reverse pulse jet cleaning system	135
Figure 2.28:	Low-pressure air pulsing cleaning system	136
Figure 2.29:	Radial flow wet scrubber	140
Figure 2.30:	The process to produce liquid sulphur dioxide	161
Figure 2.31:	Mercury emissions to air from different non-ferrous metals production processes	167
Figure 2.32:	Example of a cooling water recirculation system	170
Figure 2.33:	Treatment of weak acid	177
Figure 2.34:	Schematic of a sand filter	181
Figure 2.35:	Arrangement of a simple biofilter	189
Figure 2.36:	The BAYQIK process	192
Figure 3.1:	Primary copper production	200
Figure 3.2:	Flowsheet of a hydrometallurgical process	205
Figure 3.3:	Generic flowsheet for secondary copper production	208
Figure 3.4:	Example of the Southwire process	210
Figure 3.5:	Example of the Contirod process	211
Figure 3.6:	General flowsheet for semi-finished product fabrication	212
Figure 3.7:	Principle of continuous or semi-continuous casting	214
Figure 3.8:	Generic input and output diagram for primary copper smelting	221
Figure 3.9:	Treatment of smelter and converter gases	222
Figure 3.10:	Generic input and output diagram for secondary copper smelting	223
Figure 3.11:	Example of an input and output diagram from a secondary copper production site with a tin/lead recovery process	224
Figure 3.12:	Metallo-Chimique – Material storage and drying	258
Figure 3.13:	Flowsheet of a fluidised bed roaster furnace and gas treatment system	268
Figure 3.14:	Local hood for matte tapping at the Toyo smelter	274
Figure 3.15:	Secondary hooding system for a converter	282

Figure 3.16:	Continuous pickling process	358
Figure 4.1:	General principle of the Bayer process	391
Figure 4.2:	The Bayer process	393
Figure 4.3:	Production of green anodes	394
Figure 4.4:	Anode baking furnace configurations and approximated number of plants	396
Figure 4.5:	Primary aluminium electrolytic cells	398
Figure 4.6:	Generic secondary aluminium production process.....	402
Figure 4.7:	Anode baking process and fume treatment	408
Figure 4.8:	Input and output from primary aluminium production.....	411
Figure 4.9:	Input and output from secondary aluminium production	423
Figure 4.10:	Skimmings/dross recovery processes	429
Figure 4.11:	Mass flow of a salt slag full recycling process	434
Figure 4.12:	An illustration of an integral fume collection system.....	493
Figure 4.13:	Dust emissions from the melting process in secondary aluminium production plants	495
Figure 4.14:	TVOC emissions in secondary aluminium production plants	498
Figure 4.15:	HCl emissions in secondary aluminium production plants	500
Figure 4.16:	Cl ₂ emissions in secondary aluminium production plants	501
Figure 4.17:	HF emissions in secondary aluminium production plants	501
Figure 4.18:	PCDD/F emissions in secondary aluminium production plants	502
Figure 4.19:	An example of a metal-pumping system	508
Figure 4.20:	An example of the full salt slag recycling process	511
Figure 5.1:	Outline of a typical shaft furnace lead-acid battery recovery process.....	526
Figure 5.2:	Outline of a typical lead-acid battery recovery process.....	527
Figure 5.3:	Example diagram of lead refining processes.....	532
Figure 5.4:	Flow diagram of desulphurisation of battery paste by alkaline leaching	563
Figure 5.5:	Afterburner system used with a whole battery smelter (VARTA process)	593
Figure 5.6:	General plant layout with a RTO	596
Figure 5.7:	Flow chart showing PCDD/F abatement techniques at Metallo-Chimique Beerse	599
Figure 5.8:	Comparison between lead and tin vapour pressures.....	603
Figure 6.1:	Diagram of a typical Imperial Smelting Process	626
Figure 6.2:	Diagram of zinc-cadmium distillation.....	629
Figure 6.3:	Simplified diagram of the hydrometallurgical route	630
Figure 6.4:	Roasting gas cleaning stage 1: dry gas cleaning (cyclone optional).....	631
Figure 6.5:	Roasting gas cleaning stage 2: wet gas cleaning	632
Figure 6.6:	Simplified flowsheet of the leaching process	633
Figure 6.7:	Flowsheet of the leaching process with an integrated atmospheric direct leach to increase the plant capacity.....	635
Figure 6.8:	Example flowsheet for an As-based purification process for removal of Co and Ni	636
Figure 6.9:	Flowsheet of the Sb-based purification process at Plant D	637
Figure 6.10:	Simplified flowsheet of the Modified Zincex™ Process SX	638
Figure 6.11:	Example flowsheet for leach residue treatment in the goethite process	641
Figure 6.12:	Example flowsheet for leach residue treatment in the jarosite process	642
Figure 6.13:	Simplified flowsheets of some iron removal processes.....	643
Figure 6.14:	Flowsheet of the Waelz process	647
Figure 6.15:	Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant A	652
Figure 6.16:	Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant B	653
Figure 6.17:	Purification flowsheet including cadmium production: Plant C.....	654
Figure 6.18:	Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant D	654
Figure 6.19:	Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant E.....	655
Figure 6.20:	Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant F.....	656
Figure 6.21:	Collection and abatement of emissions from the roaster feed preparation and the roaster	676
Figure 6.22:	Collection and abatement of emissions from calcine processing	680
Figure 6.23:	Single tank abatement system	684
Figure 6.24:	Central abatement system with centrifugal-type mist collector.....	688
Figure 6.25:	Landscape restoration with Jarofix.....	705
Figure 6.26:	Flowsheet of the sulphidation process.....	707
Figure 6.27:	Flowsheet of the plasma arc fuming process.....	719
Figure 6.28:	Fuming furnace integrated with a clinker furnace in a copper smelter process.....	721
Figure 6.29:	Diagram of a Waelz oxide three-stage countercurrent washing circuit.....	727
Figure 6.30:	Diagram of a Waelz oxide two-stage countercurrent washing circuit.....	727
Figure 6.31:	Flowsheet of a generic treatment for waste/residues produced during zinc melting	735
Figure 7.1:	Example of a general flowsheet for precious metal recovery.....	756
Figure 7.2:	Example flowsheet for anode slime treatment	757

Figure 7.3:	Recovery of silver from zinc and lead production	760
Figure 7.4:	Metallurgical process flowsheet	811
Figure 8.1:	Steel belt sintering process	816
Figure 8.2:	Slag granulation process	817
Figure 8.3:	High-carbon ferro-chrome production using a closed submerged electric arc furnace.....	818
Figure 8.4:	Ferro-chrome production using a semi-closed submerged arc furnace.....	819
Figure 8.5:	Energy balance for a silicon production process with energy recovery	822
Figure 8.6:	Energy balance for a silicon production process without energy recovery.....	823
Figure 8.7:	Closed electric arc ferro-manganese furnace operating with Søderberg electrodes.....	825
Figure 8.8:	Ferro-vanadium production flowsheet.....	830
Figure 8.9:	Molybdenite roasting flowsheet.....	831
Figure 8.10:	Molybdenite roasting and gas cleaning (the Netherlands).....	832
Figure 8.11:	Molybdenite roasting and waste water treatment (the Netherlands).....	833
Figure 8.12:	Ferro-molybdenum production flowsheet.....	834
Figure 8.13:	Metallothermic firing arrangement	835
Figure 8.14:	Production of ferro-molybdenum by metallothermic reduction	836
Figure 8.15:	Gas-cleaning system for a degreasing plant.....	838
Figure 8.16:	Flow diagram for ferro-titanium production.....	839
Figure 8.17:	Process for ferro-boron and boron alloy production.....	840
Figure 8.18:	Plasma dust processing smelter (Sweden)	845
Figure 8.19:	Ferro-alloy production flow diagram showing potential points of emissions to air.....	854
Figure 8.20:	Energy flowsheet (in MW _{th}) in a 10 MW _e silicon furnace.....	869
Figure 8.21:	Hooding system used in some silicon and ferro-silicon furnaces	902
Figure 8.22:	Energy recovery from a semi-closed furnace	923
Figure 8.23:	Direct use of the CO gas for the production of electrical energy.....	925
Figure 9.1:	Generic flowsheet for nickel production from laterite ores	930
Figure 9.2:	Generic flowsheet for the production of nickel from sulphidic concentrates	932
Figure 9.3:	Conventional flash smelting process	933
Figure 9.4:	The DON process	934
Figure 9.5:	Generic flowsheet for nickel matte refining processes	935
Figure 9.6:	The Falconbridge process	936
Figure 9.7:	Sulphate-based leaching process	937
Figure 9.8:	Flowsheet of the DON refining process.....	938
Figure 9.9:	The Sherritt ammonia leach process	939
Figure 9.10:	Solvent extraction (SX) process outline	940
Figure 9.11:	Flowsheet of the Eramet refining process.....	942
Figure 9.12:	Generic flowsheet for cobalt production.....	944
Figure 9.13:	A practical cobalt flowsheet	944
Figure 10.1:	Overview of carbon and graphite production	996
Figure 10.2:	General view of a multi-chamber furnace (open ring furnace).....	999
Figure 10.3:	General view of a single chamber furnace (car bottom furnace)	1000
Figure 10.4:	Castner graphitising furnace	1002
Figure 10.5:	Acheson graphitising furnace	1002
Figure 10.6:	Generic emission diagram of the carbon and graphite production processes	1004
Figure 10.7:	Dry adsorption scrubber with dust injection and dust removal.....	1016
Figure 10.8:	Biofilter and bioscrubber	1025
Figure 13.1:	Rotary kiln	1125
Figure 13.2:	Fluidised bed reactors.....	1126
Figure 13.3:	The Herreshoff or multiple hearth furnace	1127
Figure 13.4:	Steel belt sintering furnace	1128
Figure 13.5:	An example of a tilting reverberatory hearth furnace used for secondary materials.....	1129
Figure 13.6:	Blast furnace for primary copper smelting	1130
Figure 13.7:	Blast furnace for secondary copper production	1131
Figure 13.8:	Electric reduction furnace process and auxiliary equipment	1132
Figure 13.9:	Søderberg electrode system in an electric arc furnace	1133
Figure 13.10:	Rotary electric reduction furnace.....	1134
Figure 13.11:	Electric furnace for concentrate or calcine smelting.....	1135
Figure 13.12:	The Ausmelt (Siros melt)/ISASMELT furnace	1136
Figure 13.13:	TBRC and TROF.....	1138
Figure 13.14:	The Noranda reactor	1139
Figure 13.15:	The El Teniente reactor	1139
Figure 13.16:	The Mitsubishi process	1140
Figure 13.17:	The QSL furnace.....	1141

Figure 13.18: The Contop process.....	1141
Figure 13.19: The Outotec flash furnace	1142
Figure 13.20: The INCO furnace.....	1143
Figure 13.21: The Kivcet furnace.....	1144
Figure 13.22: The Peirce-Smith converter.....	1145
Figure 13.23: The Hoboken converter.....	1146
Figure 13.24: Induction furnaces	1148
Figure 13.25: The Contimelt Process	1150
Figure 13.26: Solvent extraction (SX) processing stages	1156
Figure 13.27: Process diagram of the modified Zincex process	1157
Figure 13.28: Trend of zinc concentrations in seawater over time near a zinc smelter	1159
Figure 13.29: Trends of the concentration of As and Cd in the air measured at Elbe island in Hamburg (DE).....	1160
Figure 13.30: The trend in lead concentrations in PM ₁₀ from 2002 to 2011 for some sampling stations in Flanders.....	1162

List of Tables

Table 1.1:	Maximum tolerable impurities.....	4
Table 1.2:	European production of copper and its alloys in 2011.....	7
Table 1.3:	Production of aluminium in the EU-27 in 2007 and 2012.....	11
Table 1.4:	Primary aluminium production and consumption by country in 2007 and 2012.....	12
Table 1.5:	Imports of primary aluminium to the EU-27 in 2007 and 2012.....	12
Table 1.6:	Chemical composition of the grades of lead according to the European Standard.....	14
Table 1.7:	Uses of lead worldwide.....	14
Table 1.8:	Annual capacities for lead processes in the EU-27 in 2006.....	16
Table 1.9:	Annual world production of tin (mined) in 2006 and 2012.....	19
Table 1.10:	Annual world production of tin (smelter) in 2006 and 2012.....	20
Table 1.11:	World and European uses of zinc.....	21
Table 1.12:	Primary zinc grades.....	21
Table 1.13:	Secondary zinc grades.....	22
Table 1.14:	World production of zinc concentrates in 2007.....	23
Table 1.15:	World production of refined zinc.....	24
Table 1.16:	Production of zinc in Europe from primary raw materials in 2007.....	24
Table 1.17:	Recycling units for zinc from end-of-life products in the EU (2007).....	25
Table 1.18:	Main cadmium producers and users in 2007.....	26
Table 1.19:	Main European primary and secondary cadmium producers in 2007.....	27
Table 1.20:	Precious metal mine production in 2005 and 2012.....	29
Table 1.21:	Annual capacities of European refineries in 2006.....	30
Table 1.22:	Precious metal demand in 2006.....	31
Table 1.23:	European production of bulk ferro-alloys from 2006 to 2012 in tonnes per year.....	34
Table 1.24:	Global ferro-alloy production by furnace type and alloy type from 2003 to 2007 in tonnes per year (gross weight).....	35
Table 1.25:	Nickel production sites in Europe in 2006.....	39
Table 1.26:	European production of nickel from 2006 to 2012 in tonnes per year.....	39
Table 1.27:	Breakdown of the total cobalt production to the different sectors of use.....	42
Table 1.28:	Worldwide cobalt production.....	43
Table 1.29:	Production of some major carbon and graphite products in Europe in 2012 (tonnes).....	45
Table 2.1:	Processes that may form integrated installations.....	48
Table 2.2:	Comparison of abated and diffuse dust loads at a primary copper smelter.....	58
Table 2.3:	Double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plants associated with non-ferrous metals production.....	81
Table 2.4:	Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO ₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metals production.....	83
Table 2.5:	Single contact sulphuric acid plants associated with non-ferrous metals production.....	84
Table 2.6:	Potential sources of liquid effluents from the hydrometallurgical production of non-ferrous metals.....	89
Table 2.7:	Amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues reported in 1996 for some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia.....	95
Table 2.8:	Amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues reported in 1996 for some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia.....	96
Table 2.9:	Residues and potential uses.....	98
Table 2.10:	Information for each technique.....	102
Table 2.11:	Techno-economic comparison of an oxy-fuel burner compared to an air-fuel burner.....	107
Table 2.12:	Comparison between different fabric filter systems.....	138
Table 2.13:	Overview of dust abatement techniques.....	142
Table 2.14:	Emissions of nitrogen oxide from several processes.....	149
Table 2.15:	Data on costs involved in oxy-fuel firing for secondary aluminium production.....	150
Table 2.16:	Sulphuric acid plants operating under varying gas conditions.....	156
Table 2.17:	Performance data for a sulphuric acid plant operating under variable conditions.....	157
Table 2.18:	Costs for changes to existing sulphuric acid plants.....	158
Table 2.19:	Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO ₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metal production.....	159
Table 2.20:	The yearly average emissions of sulphur dioxide from Boliden.....	161
Table 2.21:	Performance of the Hg removal techniques applied at Boliden Rönnskär.....	166
Table 2.22:	Overview of waste water streams and the treatment and minimisation techniques.....	169
Table 2.23:	Examples of recycling and reuse.....	169
Table 2.24:	Summary of advantages and disadvantages of common waste water treatment techniques.....	172

Table 2.25:	Performance data for the treatment of weak acid.....	178
Table 2.26:	Typical passage of ions across a reverse osmosis membrane.....	184
Table 2.27:	The capital cost comparison between the LUREC® add-on module and a conventional plant.....	193
Table 3.1:	Primary copper smelting technologies	197
Table 3.2:	Worldwide use of the smelting technologies for primary copper production	199
Table 3.3:	Example of impurity removal levels during electrorefining.....	203
Table 3.4:	Secondary raw materials for copper production.....	206
Table 3.5:	Comparison of the plant data for typical vertical and horizontal continuous casting installations	215
Table 3.6:	Typical data for a process to produce brass strip.....	217
Table 3.7:	Comparison of abated and diffuse dust loads at a primary copper smelter	220
Table 3.8:	Example input and output data for a primary copper smelter/refinery	222
Table 3.9:	Input and output data for the secondary copper process shown in Figure 3.11	225
Table 3.10:	Differences in the operating parameters between a KRS furnace and a shaft furnace	225
Table 3.11:	Significance of potential emissions to air from copper production process	226
Table 3.12:	Main constituents of dust from copper processes.....	228
Table 3.13:	Concentrations of dust constituents and PCDD/F in the clean gas of all unit processes from a secondary copper smelter.....	229
Table 3.14:	Specific emissions to air from some primary and secondary processes	232
Table 3.15:	Achievable emissions from some secondary smelting and remelting/refining processes (with semis fabrication).....	233
Table 3.16:	Emissions and operating data from converters in secondary copper production.....	234
Table 3.17:	Significance of potential emissions to water from copper production processes	234
Table 3.18:	Annual concentrations of the main constituents in the untreated waste water from a primary copper smelter.....	235
Table 3.19:	Example of the metal content in various waste waters after treatment	236
Table 3.20:	Overall pollutant rate of waste water discharges from two complex primary copper plants	236
Table 3.21:	Annual loads discharged to water from a copper semis production plant	236
Table 3.22:	Residues from the production of copper	237
Table 3.23:	Residues from primary and secondary smelting processes in Germany	238
Table 3.24:	Residues from some remelting/refining processes (with semis fabrication)	239
Table 3.25:	Potential uses and examples of the quantity of residues produced by a complex primary and secondary installation	240
Table 3.26:	Potential uses and examples of the quantity of residues produced by a secondary installation.....	241
Table 3.27:	Composition of some copper smelting slags before slag cleaning treatment	241
Table 3.28:	Operating data for a copper electrorefining unit	242
Table 3.29:	Operating data for an electric furnace	242
Table 3.30:	Operating data for a KRS furnace	243
Table 3.31:	Operating data for an anode reverberatory furnace	243
Table 3.32:	Operating data for a rotary drum furnace	244
Table 3.33:	Operating data for a shaft furnace of a continuous casting installation.....	244
Table 3.34:	Operating data for a shaft furnace of a cast-and-rolled wire installation.....	245
Table 3.35:	Operating data for crucible induction furnaces for the production of copper alloys	245
Table 3.36:	Operating data for channel induction furnaces for the production of copper alloys.....	246
Table 3.37:	Operating data for a secondary copper process (remelting)	247
Tabelle 3.38:	Betriebsdaten der Trocknungsanlage bei Metallo-Chimique	258
Tabelle 3.39:	Emissionswerte der vier Spänetrockner (2010).....	261
Tabelle 3.40:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konzentrattrocknungsanlagen (Teil 1).....	264
Tabelle 3.41:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konzentrattrocknungsanlagen (Teil 2).....	265
Tabelle 3.42:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Primärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 1).....	278
Tabelle 3.43:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Primärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 2).....	279
Tabelle 3.44:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konvertern in der Primärkupfererzeugung	286
Tabelle 3.45:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Schlackereinigungsöfen	297
Tabelle 3.46:	TVOC-Emissionen der Hütte Aurubis Olen in 2013.....	300
Tabelle 3.47:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Primärkupfererzeugung (Teil 1).....	302
Tabelle 3.48:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Primärkupfererzeugung (Teil 2).....	303
Tabelle 3.49:	Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung.....	304

Tabelle 3.50: Relevante Parameter der zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage in der Hütte Aurubis Hamburg	307
Tabelle 3.51: Relevante Parameter der zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage in der Hütte Aurubis Pirdop.....	308
Tabelle 3.52: Emissionen der zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage in der Hütte Boliden Harjavalta.....	309
Tabelle 3.53: Typische Kennwerte des Sekundärrefinats bei Cobre Las Cruces	324
Tabelle 3.54: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 1).....	331
Tabelle 3.55: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 2).....	333
Tabelle 3.56: NO _x -Emissionswerte und Betriebsdaten von Sekundärkupferhütten.....	341
Tabelle 3.57: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkonvertern	347
Tabelle 3.58: Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem säurefreien und Säurebeizen von Kupfergießwulst und Halbzeugen aus Kupfer und Kupferlegierungen	360
Tabelle 3.59: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten einer Anlage zur Blei- und Zinnrückgewinnung aus Zwischenprodukten der Sekundärkupferverhüttung	363
Tabelle 3.60: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten des Mischzinnofens (Drehtrommelofen).....	363
Tabelle 3.61: Reinigungsleistung einer Abwasserreinigungsanlage.....	367
Tabelle 3.62: Zusammensetzung des Prozessabwassers vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Pirdop.....	368
Tabelle 3.63: Zusammensetzung des Prozessabwassers vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg	369
Tabelle 3.64: Zusammensetzung des Oberflächenwassers im Werk Ost und des Abschläm- wassers aus der Direktkühlung der Anodengießanlage vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg	370
Tabelle 3.65: Zusammensetzung des Oberflächenwassers aus dem Bereich der sekundären Kupferproduktion, der Stranggussanlagen und der Bleiraffinationsanlage vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg	370
Tabelle 3.66: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Olen	371
Tabelle 3.67: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg	372
Tabelle 3.68: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Umicore Hoboken.....	374
Tabelle 3.69: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse.....	375
Tabelle 3.70: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung in den Hütten Legnica, Głogów 1 und 2.....	376
Tabelle 3.71: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Atlantic Copper	377
Tabelle 3.72: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Boliden Harjavalta.....	378
Tabelle 3.73: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Boliden Rönnskär	378
Table 3.74: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Cobre Las Cruces	379
Tabelle 3.75: Zwischenprodukte, Rückstände und Abfälle aus der Kupfererzeugung	381
Tabelle 3.76: In Entwicklung befindliche Badschmelzverfahren	390
Table 4.1: Comparison of baking processes	394
Table 4.2: Aluminium smelting categories	400
Table 4.3: Typical composition of the salt slag	404
Table 4.4: Typical contents of the insoluble non-metallic portion of salt slag	405
Table 4.5: Input ranges for alumina production.....	406
Table 4.6: Raw gas from anode production in a plant associated with a primary aluminium smelter.....	408
Table 4.7: Emission concentration ranges for anode production processes.....	409
Table 4.8: Emission specific load ranges from the production of prebaked anodes	409
Table 4.9: Input ranges for electrolysis.....	412
Table 4.10: Casthouse consumption data.....	412
Table 4.11: Primary aluminium casthouse emissions to air.....	417
Table 4.12: Significance of potential emissions from primary aluminium production.....	419
Table 4.13: Total emissions (roof + stack) to air from primary aluminium smelters with direct emissions of roof vents to the atmosphere and without wet scrubbing	419
Table 4.14: Total emissions (roof + stack) to air from primary aluminium smelters with BSS for pot gas (prebake plants) or roof vent wet scrubbing (modified Sørderberg).....	419
Table 4.15: SO ₂ emissions to air from primary aluminium smelters with wet scrubbing applied to pot gas.....	419
Table 4.16: Process emissions to water from the primary aluminium electrolysis plants using ventilation air wet scrubbers or SO ₂ wet scrubbers	420
Table 4.17: Composition of spent pot lining.....	421
Table 4.18: Options to reduce waste in a primary aluminium smelter.....	422
Table 4.19: Specific waste quantities from primary aluminium production	422
Table 4.20: Significance of potential emissions to air	424
Table 4.21: Dust emissions from secondary aluminium production.....	425

Table 4.22:	PCDD/F and TVOC emissions from secondary aluminium production	426
Table 4.23:	NO _x (measured as NO ₂) emissions from secondary aluminium production	427
Table 4.24:	HCl, Cl ₂ and HF emissions from secondary aluminium production	427
Table 4.25:	Typical residues from secondary aluminium production	428
Table 4.26:	Emissions from skimmings/dross treatment.....	430
Table 4.27:	Typical composition of filter dust from secondary aluminium production	430
Table 4.28:	Range of the typical plant, process and emission parameters (raw gas) of secondary aluminium production plants.....	432
Table 4.29:	Typical outputs from salt slag recovery	434
Table 4.30:	Collected air and dust emissions from salt slag recycling plants	435
Tabelle 4.31:	Emissionswerte von Tonerdekalzinieranlagen	439
Tabelle 4.32:	Bandbreite der Staubemissionen aus Rohstoffumschlag, -lagerung und -transport	445
Tabelle 4.33:	Reingaswerte nach Koksstaubminderungseinrichtungen	447
Tabelle 4.34:	Reingaswerte nach Pechminderungseinrichtungen	448
Tabelle 4.35:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in Anlage E	452
Tabelle 4.36:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptions-stufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in einer Anlage in Deutschland	452
Tabelle 4.37:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptions- stufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in einer Anlage in Frankreich.....	453
Tabelle 4.38:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher und Trockensorptionsverfahren in einer integrierten Aluminiumhütte	453
Tabelle 4.39:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher, EGR und Trockensorptionsstufe in einer integrierten Aluminiumhütte.....	454
Tabelle 4.40:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in Kombination mit einem Meerwasserwäscher und EGR.....	454
Tabelle 4.41:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in einem eigenständigen Anodenwerk (Teil 1)	455
Tabelle 4.42:	Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in einem eigenständigen Anodenwerk (Teil 2)	455
Tabelle 4.43:	Erfasste Abgasmengen zur Reinigung und Hallenabluftmengen in einigen europäischen Primäraluminiumhütten.....	462
Tabelle 4.44:	Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) aus PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter	464
Tabelle 4.45:	Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2013	465
Tabelle 4.46:	Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2012	465
Tabelle 4.47:	Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2011	465
Tabelle 4.48:	Anlage UK 1 - Gefasste Emissionen (Emissionsfrachten) in 2012.....	466
Tabelle 4.49:	Gefasste Staubemissionen (Konzentrationen) deutscher PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter	466
Tabelle 4.50:	Gefasste HF-Emissionen (Konzentrationen) deutscher PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter	466
Tabelle 4.51:	Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) von PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe, Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher.....	467
Tabelle 4.52:	Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) von Söderberg-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter	468
Tabelle 4.53:	Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) einer Söderberg-Elektrolyseanlage mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe, Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher.....	468
Tabelle 4.54:	Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter.....	469
Tabelle 4.55:	Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen	470
Tabelle 4.56:	Staub- und HF-Emissionen über das Hallendach in deutschen PFPB-Anlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter	470
Tabelle 4.57:	Gefasste SO ₂ -Emissionen von PFPB-Anlagen, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind)	473
Tabelle 4.58:	Gefasste SO ₂ -Emissionen von Söderberg-Anlagen, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind)	473
Tabelle 4.59:	Gesamt-SO ₂ -Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind).....	474
Tabelle 4.60:	SO ₂ -Emissionen von PFPB-Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen.....	476

Tabelle 4.61: SO ₂ -Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Söderberg-Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen	476
Tabelle 4.62: Gesamt- SO ₂ -Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen.....	477
Tabelle 4.63: Staubemissionen beim Transport und Verladen von Einsatzstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	481
Tabelle 4.64: Staubemissionen aus der Schrottzerkleinerungsstufe in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	482
Tabelle 4.65: Emissionen von Spänetrocknern.....	484
Tabelle 4.66: Vor- und Nachteile von Sekundärschmelzöfen	489
Tabelle 4.67: Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess in einer österreichischen Sekundärhütte	496
Tabelle 4.68: Kontinuierlich gemessene TVOC-Emissionswerte einer Sekundäraluminiumhütte	497
Tabelle 4.69: HCl-, Cl ₂ - und HF-Emissionen aus der Schmelzebehandlung in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	503
Tabelle 4.70: Staubemissionswerte am Standort 1	505
Tabelle 4.71: Staubemissionswerte am Standort 2	506
Tabelle 4.72: Staubemissionswerte an den Standorten 3 und 4	506
Tabelle 4.73: Staubemissionen aus der Salzschlackenvorzerkleinerung und Trockenmahlung	515
Tabelle 4.74: Emissionswerte nach dem Aktivkohlefilter der Nassmahlanlage	516
Tabelle 4.75: Emissionen aus der Salzschlackenaufbereitung (Mahl-, Löse-, Filtrations- und Waschstufen)	519
Table 5.1: Composition ranges for the main constituents of lead concentrate.....	523
Table 5.2: Summary of direct smelting processes	525
Table 5.3: Raw materials used in different direct smelting processes	525
Table 5.4: Composition of typical lead-acid battery scrap.....	526
Table 5.5: Input and output data for an Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace	534
Table 5.6: Input and output data for a QSL plant	534
Table 5.7: Input and output data for a battery recovery plant with desulphurisation (preparation and short rotary furnace)	535
Table 5.8: Input and output data for a battery recovery plant with whole battery smelting (shaft furnace).....	535
Table 5.9: Energy requirement of various lead processes.....	536
Table 5.10: Significance of potential emissions to air from lead production.....	537
Table 5.11: Significance of the diffuse emissions	538
Table 5.12: Sulphur dioxide production from several lead processes.....	539
Table 5.13: Mass release of metals from some European processes.....	540
Table 5.14: Typical gas-cleaning effluents before treatment.....	542
Table 5.15: Typical waste water analyses.....	543
Table 5.16: Potential waste water sources and treatment techniques.....	544
Table 5.17: Solid material from the refining of lead bullion	545
Table 5.18: Residues from lead processes	546
Table 5.19: Residues from direct lead smelting processes.....	547
Tabelle 5.20: Staubemissionen aus der Materialvorbereitung	551
Tabelle 5.21: Emissionen der Materialtrocknungsanlage bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse	554
Tabelle 5.22: Emissionen der Materialtrocknungsanlage bei Aurubis Hamburg	555
Tabelle 5.23: Emissionswerte von Materialtrocknungsanlagen in der primären und sekundären Blei-/Zinnerzeugung	556
Tabelle 5.24: Emissionen in die Luft aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung	561
Tabelle 5.25: Emissionen in das Wasser aus der Batterieaufbereitung in Anlage 5	561
Tabelle 5.26: Emissionen von Trommelöfen, in denen vorentschwefelte Einsatzstoffe verarbeitet werden	564
Tabelle 5.27: Emissionen aus dem Schmelzofen in Hütte 8.....	568
Tabelle 5.28: SO ₂ -Emissionswerte der Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage in der neuen KCM-Bleihütte in Plovdiv.....	569
Tabelle 5.29: Sekundäremissionen des Elektroofens in Anlage 18	572
Tabelle 5.30: Sekundäremissionen der Schmelzaggregate in Anlage 17.....	573
Tabelle 5.31: Staubemissionen nach Sekundärabgasreinigung bei Metallo-Chimique	576
Tabelle 5.32: Staub- und SO ₂ -Emissionen nach Abgaserfassung über ein Haus-in-Haus-System und Reinigung in einem Gewebefilter nach vorheriger Kalkdosierung.....	577
Tabelle 5.33: Sekundäremissionen eines Elektroofens mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	577
Tabelle 5.34: Staub- und Metallemissionen der Anlagen 6, 15 und 19	578

Tabelle 5.35: Staubemissionen am Beispiel unterschiedlicher Sekundärschmelzöfen	580
Tabelle 5.36: Staubemissionen am Beispiel der ISASMELT- und Schachtofenanlagen zur Gewinnung von Sekundärblei und -zinn bei Umicore Hoboken	581
Tabelle 5.37: Staub- und Metallemissionen von Bleischmelzöfen in Sekundärhütten	582
Tabelle 5.38: Leistungsdaten von Beispielanlagen	588
Tabelle 5.39: SO ₂ -Emissionen von Sekundär-Blei- und Zinnhütten in der EU-28	590
Tabelle 5.40: Emissionswerte einer Schachtofenanlage mit Nachverbrennungskammer	594
Tabelle 5.41: Emissionen aus Nachverbrennungskammern in der Sekundär-Blei- und Zinnerzeugung	594
Tabelle 5.42: Gesamt C- und B[a]P-Emissionen am Hauptkamin	597
Tabelle 5.43: PCDD/F-Emissionen von Blei- und Zinnschmelzöfen	600
Tabelle 5.44: Emissionen aus dem Raffinationsprozess bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse	604
Tabelle 5.45: Emissionen aus dem Raffinations- und Gießprozess	605
Tabelle 5.46: Emissionen in das Wasser aus der Blei- und Zinnerzeugung	611
Table 6.1: Main reagent and utilities consumption in the Modified Zincex™ Process	639
Table 6.2: Typical data for a German RLE plant with integration of secondary raw material	658
Table 6.3: Typical composition of feed and products for a zinc RLE plant with integration of secondary raw material	659
Table 6.4: Input and output data for a Waelz plant using the SDHL process	659
Table 6.5: Input and output data for a Waelz oxide washing process	659
Table 6.6: Material balance of the plasma arc fuming process	660
Table 6.7: Average throughput of zinc and consumables	660
Table 6.8: Energy requirements of various zinc processes	661
Table 6.9: Significance of potential emissions to air from zinc and cadmium production	662
Table 6.10: Emissions to air from different RLE plants in Europe	662
Table 6.11: Sulphur dioxide production from several zinc processes	663
Table 6.12: Mass release of metals from some primary and secondary zinc plants in Europe	665
Table 6.13: Typical gas-cleaning effluents before treatment	667
Table 6.14: Typical waste water analyses	668
Table 6.15: Potential waste water sources and treatment techniques	668
Table 6.16: Residues from zinc processes	670
Table 6.17: Example compositions of different types of residues	671
Table 6.18: Zinc refining energy consumption in function of the applied residue treatment process ..	672
Table 6.19: Eluate values of granulated ISF slag	672
Table 6.20: Eluate values for acidic Waelz slag	673
Tabelle 6.21: Staubemissionen aus der Materialvorbereitung und dem Röstprozess	677
Tabelle 6.22: Staubkonzentrationen in der Trockengasreinigung der Röstanlage (Rostfläche ca. 120 m ²) vor Eintritt in die Nassgasreinigungsstufe	678
Tabelle 6.23: Staubkonzentration nach der Nassgasreinigung vor Weiterverarbeitung des Röstgases in der Schwefelsäureanlage	678
Tabelle 6.24: Emissionswerte für die Röstgutmahlung, -förderung und -zwischenlagerung	681
Tabelle 6.25: Emissionswerte eines Absetzbehälters in der Neutrallaugung mit und ohne Tropfenabscheider	685
Tabelle 6.26: Emissionswerte für die Laugungsbehälterentlüftung	685
Tabelle 6.27: Emissionswerte für die Direktlaugung	686
Tabelle 6.28: Emissionswerte für die Jarositfällung in Anlage A	686
Tabelle 6.29: Emissionswerte für die Laugenreinigung	689
Tabelle 6.30: Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen in der Laugenreinigung	689
Tabelle 6.31: Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen zur Elektrolytkühlung	691
Tabelle 6.32: Emissionskonzentrationen in der Elektrolysehallenabluft	693
Tabelle 6.33: Nutzungsmöglichkeiten für Abwässer aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung	696
Tabelle 6.34: Typische Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung	699
Tabelle 6.35: Zusammensetzung des Rückstands aus der Neutrallaugung	701
Tabelle 6.36: Zusammensetzung von Wälzoxid aus der Aufarbeitung von Laugungsrückständen	702
Tabelle 6.37: Zusammensetzung von Wälzschlacke aus der Aufarbeitung von Laugungsrückständen ..	702
Tabelle 6.38: Emissionen des Wälzprozesses	703
Tabelle 6.39: Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Deponien für nichtgefährliche Abfälle und typische Eluatwerte für Jarofix-Abfall (Analysemethode gemäß Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EC)	706
Tabelle 6.40: Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Deponien für gefährliche Abfälle und typische Eluatwerte für sulfidierte Abfälle (Jarosit- + Schwefelrückstand)	708
Tabelle 6.41: Kriterien für das Auslaugungsverhalten und Eluatwerte für verdichtete Eisenrückstände ..	710

Tabelle 6.42: Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Abgasreinigung in Venturiwäschern.....	714
Tabelle 6.43: Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Abgasreinigung in Gewebefiltern	715
Tabelle 6.44: SO ₂ -Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Entschwefelung des SO ₂ -armen Abgases in einem Halbtrockenabscheider	716
Tabelle 6.45: Emissionswerte nach dem Aktivkohlefilter in Anlage N.....	718
Tabelle 6.46: Zusammensetzung des Abgases aus dem Plasmalichtbogen-Zinkverblaseprozesses	720
Tabelle 6.47: Relevante gasförmige Emissionen des Zinkverblaseprozesses.....	721
Tabelle 6.48: Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte von Wälzöfen.....	724
Tabelle 6.49: Luftgetragene Emissionen des Wälzprozesses vor und nach Umrüstung auf SDHL-Technologie	725
Tabelle 6.50: Aufreinigungseffekt der Wälzoxidwäsche	729
Tabelle 6.51: Abwasser der Wälzoxidwäsche	729
Tabelle 6.52: Abwasser der Wälzoxidwäsche	730
Tabelle 6.53: Diffuse und gefasste Emissionen der pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung	731
Tabelle 6.54: Emissionen aus dem Zinkeinschmelzen und -vergießen in Zinkgießereien (Teil 1)	733
Tabelle 6.55: Emissionen aus dem Zinkeinschmelzen und -vergießen in Zinkgießereien (Teil 2)	733
Tabelle 6.56: Emissionen aus der Zinkstauberzeugung	734
Tabelle 6.57: Emissionen aus der Zinkkrätzemahlung in Zinkgießereien	736
Tabelle 6.58: Wasserseitige Emissionen von Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Teil 1).....	741
Tabelle 6.59: Wasserseitige Emissionen von Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Teil 2).....	742
Tabelle 6.60: Wasserseitige Emissionen einer IS-Anlage	742
Tabelle 6.61: Wasserseitige Emissionen einer Sekundärzinkhütte, in der das Solventextraktionsverfahren eingesetzt wird	743
Tabelle 6.62: Cadmiumverteilung über die Outputströme europäischer Zinkhütten	749
Tabelle 6.63: Emissionswerte von Cadmiumschmelz-, Umschmelz-, Legierungs- Warmhalte- und Gießöfen	750
Table 7.1: Homogenisation categories of raw materials	755
Table 7.2: Relevance of potential emissions to air from the major sources in precious metals production.....	767
Table 7.3: Specific emissions to air from a range of precious metal production processes	768
Table 7.4: Concentrations of emissions to air from three different processes in precious metal production.....	769
Table 7.5: Captured emissions to air from two PM plants for different process steps	769
Table 7.6: Sources of potential emissions to water from precious metals production	770
Table 7.7: Emissions to water from five large plants.....	770
Table 7.8: Emissions to water from two PM plants	771
Table 7.9: Example of filter cake waste quantities	771
Tabelle 7.10: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221	773
Tabelle 7.11: Staubemissionswerte der Schlackennachzerkleinerungsstation in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117.....	774
Tabelle 7.12: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221	776
Tabelle 7.13: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2426.....	777
Tabelle 7.14: Emissionswerte des Drehtrommelofens in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 112	778
Tabelle 7.15: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117.....	782
Tabelle 7.16: Emissionswerte der zentralen Abgaserfassung- und -reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117	782
Tabelle 7.17: Staubemissionen über das Sekundärabgas nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 121.....	783
Tabelle 7.18: Staubemissionen aus diversen Quellen (Treibofen und Sekundärabgas) nach Abgasreinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 121	784
Tabelle 7.19: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 27.....	784
Tabelle 7.20: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 219.....	784
Tabelle 7.21: Emissionen über das Prozessabgas nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113	785
Tabelle 7.22: Emissionen über die Hallenabluft nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113.....	785
Tabelle 7.23: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallanlage 221	794
Tabelle 7.24: Emissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113	796
Tabelle 7.25: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 113.....	796
Tabelle 7.26: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 112.....	797

Tabelle 7.27: Emissionswerte der Kehrichtverbrennungsanlage in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage	112.800
Tabelle 7.28: Emissionswerte der Altkatalysatorverbrennungsanlage in Edelmetall-gewinnungsanlage	
102.....	802
Tabelle 7.29: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221 – Emissionen in das Wasser	804
Tabelle 7.30: Metallkonzentrationen des anfallenden Endfiltrats in Edelmetall- gewinnungsanlage	221805
Tabelle 7.31: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 113 – Emissionen in das Wasser	805
Tabelle 7.32: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117 – Emissionen in das Wasser	806
Tabelle 7.33: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 1019 – Emissionen in das Wasser	806
Tabelle 7.34: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 205 – Emissionen in das Wasser	807
Table 8.1: Raw materials for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium.....	821
Table 8.2: Fines generation due to free fall	821
Table 8.3: Typical amounts of metal oxides in secondary raw materials.....	842
Table 8.4: Summary of the smelting systems used in the ferro-alloy industry.....	846
Table 8.5: Gross consumption data for the production of ferro-chrome as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced	850
Table 8.6: Consumption data for the recovery of ferro-alloys from steel mill residues as specific input of raw materials per tonne of recovered metal	851
Table 8.7: Consumption data for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon and silico-calcium as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced	851
Table 8.8: Consumption data for the production of manganese ore sinter, ferro-manganese and silico-manganese as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced.....	852
Table 8.9: Consumption data for the production of ferro-nickel alloy as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced	853
Table 8.10: Consumption data for the production of special ferro-alloys as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced	853
Table 8.11: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-chrome based on the production of one tonne of alloy.....	855
Table 8.12: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-silicon and silicon metal based on the production of one tonne of alloy	856
Table 8.13: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-manganese and silico-manganese based on the production of one tonne of alloy.....	857
Table 8.14: Dust emissions to air (after abatement) from the production of ferro-alloys	857
Table 8.15: Ferro-nickel emissions to air	858
Table 8.16: Sources of ferro-nickel emissions	858
Table 8.17: Emissions from the production of ferro-vanadium and ferro-molybdenum.....	858
Table 8.18: Emissions to air (after abatement) when producing bulk ferro-alloys.....	861
Table 8.19: Emission of metals from ferro-manganese and silico-manganese production	862
Table 8.20: Emissions to air from primary ferro-nickel production.....	862
Table 8.21: Characterisation of the emissions to air from primary ferro-nickel production	863
Table 8.22: Emission from a secondary ferro-alloys production process.....	863
Table 8.23: Emissions to water from the recovery of ferro-alloys from steel mill residues using the plasma dust process with a wet scrubber followed by a wet ESP as the abatement technique	865
Table 8.24: Emissions to water from roasting molybdenite and ferro-molybdenum in one plant.....	865
Table 8.25: Generation, recycling, reuse and discharge of ferro-alloy slag	866
Table 8.26: Generation, recycling, reuse and discharge of dust and sludge from the air emissions abatement system	868
Table 8.27: Energy recovery efficiency for silicon and ferro-silicon furnaces	870
Table 8.28: Overview of energy recovery in the Norwegian ferro-alloys industry	871
Table 8.29: Energy reuse when producing bulk ferro-alloys.....	871
Tabelle 8.30: Staubemissionswerte für den Prozessschritt Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung.....	873
Tabelle 8.31: Staubemissionswerte von Brech- und Mahlanlagen in der Materialvorbereitung	874
Tabelle 8.32: Staubemissionswerte für die Prozessschritte Dosieren, Mischen und Mischungszusammenstellung.....	876
Tabelle 8.33: Emissionswerte von Brikettier-, Pelletier- und Sinteranlagen.....	877
Tabelle 8.34: Emissionswerte von offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen (Emissionskonzentrationen)	885
Tabelle 8.35: Emissionswerte von offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen (Emissionsfrachten)	887
Tabelle 8.36: Emissionswerte halbgeschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	889
Tabelle 8.37: Emissionswerte halbgeschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und Adsorbenszugabe	890

Tabelle 8.38: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher (Emissionskonzentrationen).....	892
Tabelle 8.39: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher (Emissionsfrachten)	893
Tabelle 8.40: Zusammenhang zwischen Konzentrationen und Frachten in Anlagen mit geschlossenen Öfen	893
Tabelle 8.41: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher und Hg-Abscheider	894
Tabelle 8.42: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	894
Tabelle 8.43: Emissionswerte des geschlossenen Plasmadust-Prozesses	896
Tabelle 8.44: Emissionswerte feuerfest ausgekleideter Reaktionstiegel	899
Tabelle 8.45: Herkunft der Stäube im Prozess.....	900
Tabelle 8.46: Staubemissionen aus Abstichvorgängen.....	903
Tabelle 8.47: Staubemissionen aus Gießvorgängen	905
Tabelle 8.48: Rückgewinnung von Fines aus der Brech- und Siebstation einer Ferrochromhütte	907
Tabelle 8.49: Staubemissionswerte der Produktnachzerkleinerungsanlagen.....	908
Tabelle 8.50: Staubemissionen aus dem Produktverpackungsprozess.....	911
Tabelle 8.51: Anlage AB – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrochrom)	914
Tabelle 8.52: Anlage AC – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrochrom)	915
Tabelle 8.53: Anlage N – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrosilicium)	915
Tabelle 8.54: Anlage U – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silicium)	916
Tabelle 8.55: Anlage V – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silicium)	916
Tabelle 8.56: Anlage J – Emissionen in das Wasser (HC FeMn).....	916
Tabelle 8.57: Anlage Z – Emissionen in das Wasser (HC FeMn)	917
Tabelle 8.58: Anlage K – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC FeMn + MC FeMn + SiMn)	917
Tabelle 8.59: Anlage M – Emissionen in das Wasser (FeMn + SiMn)	918
Tabelle 8.60: Anlage O – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC SiMn + LC FeMn + MC FeMn)	918
Tabelle 8.61: Anlage I – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC SiMn + HC SiMn).....	919
Tabelle 8.62: Anlage Y – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silico-Mangan).....	919
Tabelle 8.63: Anlage B – Emissionen in das Wasser (Molybdänit-Röstanlage)	920
Tabelle 8.64: Anlage X – Emissionen in das Wasser (Röstanlage und Ferromolybdänproduktion)	920
Tabelle 8.65: Eluatwerte von Ferrochromschlacke.....	922
Tabelle 8.66: Beispiele für die Wärmerückgewinnung bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen	924
Table 9.1: Composition of some ores	929
Table 9.2: Processes used in the EU-28.....	931
Table 9.3: Significance of potential emissions to air from cobalt and nickel production	945
Table 9.4: Sulphur dioxide production from some nickel and cobalt processes	946
Table 9.5: Dust and metal emissions from some European processes	947
Table 9.6: Emissions to air from some process stages of cobalt production.....	947
Table 9.7: Significance of secondary fume capture and diffuse emissions.....	949
Table 9.8: Typical composition of gas-cleaning effluents	950
Table 9.9: Summary of potential waste water sources and treatment options	951
Table 9.10: Examples of waste water analyses.....	951
Table 9.11: Mass emissions of nickel per tonne produced for European processes	952
Table 9.12: Example compositions of different types of residues	952
Table 9.13: Example compositions of typical nickel slags	953
Table 9.14: Some treatment or reuse options for solid residues from nickel and cobalt production processes.....	953
Tabelle 9.15: Staubemissionen aus der Verladung und dem innerbetrieblichen Transport in einer Nickelhütte.....	955
Tabelle 9.16: Emissionen eines Trommeltrockners in einer Nickelhütte	958
Tabelle 9.17: Emissionen des DON-Prozesses.....	962
Tabelle 9.18: Emissionen des Elektrolichtbogenofens	964
Tabelle 9.19: Emissionen aus der Absaugung der Schlacke- und Steinabstich- und -granulierungsbereiche.....	964
Tabelle 9.20: Emissionen der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung mit Schwefelsäure	967
Tabelle 9.21: Emissionen aus der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung mit Chlorgas	967
Tabelle 9.22: VOC-Emissionen der Solventextraktionsraffination	969
Tabelle 9.23: Staubemissionen des Nickelfeinstein-Raffinationsprozesses (Chloroute) in Anlage B	970
Tabelle 9.24: Emissionen der Gewinnungselektrolyse	972
Tabelle 9.25: Emissionen des Carbonylprozesses	974

Tabelle 9.26: Emissionen aus Wasserstoffreduktionsprozessen bei der Herstellung von Nickelstaub und -briketts.	976
Tabelle 9.27: Anlage D – Emissionen in das Wasser	979
Tabelle 9.28: Anlage A – Emissionen in das Wasser	980
Tabelle 9.29: Anlage C – Emissionen in das Wasser	981
Tabelle 9.30: Anlage B – Emissionen in das Wasser	981
Tabelle 9.31: Anlage E – Emissionen in das Wasser	982
Tabelle 9.32: Typische Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der pyro- und hydrometallurgischen Prozessstufen der Nickelgewinnung	984
Tabelle 9.33: Emissionswerte der Kobaltgewinnungsanlage Kokkola	990
Table 10.1: Overview of materials and process steps for carbon and graphite products	995
Table 10.2: Reporting conventions for PAH	1006
Table 10.3: Relative significance of potential emissions to air from carbon and graphite production	1008
Table 10.4: Emissions from electrically calcined coke and coal	1008
Table 10.5: Emissions from natural gas-calcined coke and coal	1008
Table 10.6: Examples of emission ranges for a number of carbon and graphite production processes	1009
Table 10.7: Rate of destruction of some PAH in a RTO	1010
Table 10.8: Example of emissions from RTOs operating in carbon and graphite baking and rebaking processes	1011
Tabelle 10.9: Bandbreite der Staubemissionen aus Umschlag, Lagerung und Transport basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten	1014
Tabelle 10.10: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters	1017
Tabelle 10.11: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Trockensorptionsverfahrens mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	1017
Tabelle 10.12: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Aktivkoksfilters	1017
Tabelle 10.13: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV	1018
Tabelle 10.14: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz einer RNV	1018
Tabelle 10.15: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Handhabung von Koks-Schüttmaterial	1021
Tabelle 10.16: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR	1021
Tabelle 10.17: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer TNV	1021
Tabelle 10.18: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer RNV	1021
Tabelle 10.19: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer TNV und eines Nasswäschers	1021
Tabelle 10.20: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR und einer RNV	1022
Tabelle 10.21: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer RNV und Trockensorptionsstufe	1022
Tabelle 10.22: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR und Aktivkoksfilters	1022
Tabelle 10.23: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Nachglühstufe bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters	1022
Tabelle 10.24: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Nachglühstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV	1023
Tabelle 10.25: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz eines Trockensorptionsverfahrens	1026
Tabelle 10.26: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV	1026
Tabelle 10.27: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz von Biofiltern und Biowäschern	1026
Tabelle 10.28: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für Spezialimprägnierprozesse	1026
Tabelle 10.29: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Grafittierung bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters	1027

Tabelle 10.30: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Grafittierung bei Einsatz eines Nasswäschers	1028
Tabelle 10.31: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die maschinelle Oberflächenbearbeitung	1028
Tabelle 11.1: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Quecksilberemissionen in die Luft aus pyrometallurgischen Prozessen mit quecksilberhaltigen Rohstoffen (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)	1045
Tabelle 11.2: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für direkte Emissionen aus der Erzeugung von Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink (einschließlich Abwasser aus der Waschstufe des Wälzrohrprozesses), Cadmium, Edelmetallen, Nickel, Kobalt und Ferrolegierungen in ein Aufnahmegewässer	1048
Tabelle 11.3: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen aus der Kupfererzeugung in die Luft	1058
Tabelle 11.4: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen und aus dem Trocknen, Einschmelzen und Schmelzen von Sekundärrohstoffen	1059
Tabelle 11.5: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen sowie aus dem Schmelzen, Einschmelzen, der Feuerraffination und der Konvertierung in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung	1060
Tabelle 11.6: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die einer Schwefelsäureanlage, einer Anlage für flüssiges SO ₂ oder einem Kraftwerk zugeführt werden).....	1061
Tabelle 11.7: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus einer Rohanodenanlage	1065
Tabelle 11.8: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub-, BaP- (als Indikator für PAK) und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem Anodenproduktionswerk mit integrierter Primäraluminiumerzeugung	1066
Tabelle 11.9: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub-, BaP- (als Indikator für PAK) und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem nicht integrierten Anodenproduktionswerk.....	1067
Tabelle 11.10: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen	1068
Tabelle 11.11: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen.....	1069
Tabelle 11.12: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für die gesamten Staub- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus der Elektrolyseanlage (erfasst an den Elektrolysezellen und an den Dachreitern)	1069
Tabelle 11.13: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzprozessen, aus der Flüssigmetallbehandlung und aus Gießprozessen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung.....	1070
Tabelle 11.14: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen.....	1070
Tabelle 11.15: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Trocknung von Metallspänen, aus der Entfernung von Öl und organischen Verbindungen von den Spänen, aus dem Brechen, Mahlen und Trockenabscheiden von Nichtmetallkomponenten und anderen Metallen als Aluminium sowie aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	1073
Tabelle 11.16: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Ofenprozessen wie Beschickung, Schmelzen, Abstich und Behandlung des flüssigen Metalls in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	1074
Tabelle 11.17: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung	1074
Tabelle 11.18: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für TVOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne) und aus dem Schmelzofen	1075
Tabelle 11.19: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für HCl-, Cl ₂ - und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne), aus dem Schmelzofen sowie aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen und aus der Behandlung von flüssigem Metall	1076
Tabelle 11.20: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Brech- und Trockenmahlprozessen im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke..	1077

Tabelle 11.21:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für gasförmige Emissionen in die Luft aus Nassmahl- und Laugungsprozessen im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke	1077
Tabelle 11.22:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Rohstoffvorbehandlung in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn	1080
Tabelle 11.23:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Vorbehandlung von Batterien (Aufbrechen, Sieben und Klassifizierung)	1080
Tabelle 11.24:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Bleiemissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Schmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage oder der Anlage für flüssiges SO ₂ zugeführt werden)	1080
Tabelle 11.25:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Bleiemissionen in die Luft aus Wiedereinschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn	1081
Tabelle 11.26:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Rohstofftrocknung und dem Schmelzprozess in der Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnerzeugung	1081
Tabelle 11.27:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen von Blei- und/oder Zinn-Sekundärrohstoffen	1082
Tabelle 11.28:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Einschmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die einer Schwefelsäureanlage oder einer Anlage für flüssiges SO ₂ zugeführt werden)	1083
Tabelle 11.29:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung von Rohstoffen, aus der Vorbehandlung trockener Einsatzmaterialien für die Röstanlage, aus der Zuführung trockener Einsatzmaterialien und aus dem Kalzinierungsprozess	1087
Tabelle 11.30:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Zink- und Schwefelsäureemissionen in die Luft aus Laugungs-, Laugenreinigungs- und Elektrolyseprozessen und für Arsenwasserstoff- und Stibanemissionen aus Laugenreinigungsprozessen	1088
Tabelle 11.31:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)	1089
Tabelle 11.32:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)	1090
Tabelle 11.33:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Pelletierung und Schlackebearbeitung	1090
Tabelle 11.34:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen	1091
Tabelle 11.35:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für TVOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen	1091
Tabelle 11.36:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für HCl- und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen	1092
Tabelle 11.37:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren sowie aus der Erzeugung von Zinkpulver	1093
Tabelle 11.38:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub und Cadmium in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung und aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Cadmiumbarren	1094
Tabelle 11.39:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus allen staubenden Prozessen wie Brechen, Sieben, Mischen, Schmelzen, Einschmelzen, Verbrennung, Kalzinierung, Trocknung und Raffination	1096
Tabelle 11.40:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für NO _x -Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, in denen Salpetersäure zur Auflösung/Laugung eingesetzt wird	1097
Tabelle 11.41:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelz- und Einschmelzprozessen zur Herstellung von Doré-Metall, einschließlich der zugehörigen	

	Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)	1097
Tabelle 11.42:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge	1098
Tabelle 11.43:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für HCl- und Cl ₂ -Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge	1098
Tabelle 11.44:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für NH ₃ -Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen unter Verwendung von Ammoniak oder Ammoniumchlorid	1098
Tabelle 11.45:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus Trocknungsprozessen, bei denen die Rohstoffe organische Verbindungen, Halogene oder andere PCDD/F-Vorläufersubstanzen enthalten, sowie aus Verbrennungs- und Kalzinierungsprozessen	1099
Tabelle 11.46:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen	1103
Tabelle 11.47:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen aus einem Ofen zur Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen in die Luft	1103
Tabelle 11.48:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung von Rohstoffen, aus den Materialvorbehandlungsprozessen (wie Erzvorbehandlung und Erz-/Konzentrattrocknung), aus der Ofenbeschickung, dem Einschmelzen, der Konvertierung, der thermischen Raffination und der Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts bei der Verarbeitung sulfidischer Erze	1106
Tabelle 11.49:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Nickel- und Chloremissionen aus der atmosphärischen Laugung oder der Drucklaugung in die Luft	1107
Tabelle 11.50:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Nickelemissionen in die Luft aus der Nickelstein-Raffination unter Verwendung von Eisen(III)-chlorid mit Chlor	1107
Tabelle 11.51:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Koks und Pech, aus mechanischen Prozessen (wie Feinzerkleinerung) sowie aus Graphitierung und maschineller Bearbeitung	1109
Tabelle 11.52:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus der Herstellung von Frischpaste (Grünpaste) und unbehandelten Formen (Grünformen)	1110
Tabelle 11.53:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Brenn-/Back- und Nachbrenn-/ Nachbackprozessen	1110
Tabelle 11.54:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Imprägnierungsprozessen	1111
Tabelle 11.55:	BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus Misch-, Brenn-/Back- und Imprägnierungsprozessen	1111
Table 12.1:	Key milestones of the review process of the BREF for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries	1117
Table 12.2:	Split views	1119
Table 13.1:	Typical furnace applications	1124
Table 13.2:	Drying, roasting, sintering and calcining furnaces	1152
Table 13.3:	Smelting and converting furnaces	1153
Table 13.4:	Melting furnaces	1154
Table 13.5:	Yearly average metal concentrations in ambient air from a complex industrial area which includes a primary zinc smelter	1158
Table 13.6:	Environmental concentrations of some metals in PM ₁₀ at sampling stations in Flanders	1161
Table 13.7:	Some currency exchange rates	1165
Table 13.8:	Primary copper smelter/acid plant complexes	1168
Table 13.9:	Rönnskär Project	1169
Table 13.10:	Secondary copper smelters	1169
Table 13.11:	Electrolytic copper refineries	1170
Table 13.12:	Copper wire rod plants	1170
Table 13.13:	Lead processes	1172
Table 13.14:	Zinc processes	1172
Table 13.15:	Zinc and lead processes	1172
Table 13.16:	Zinc residues	1173
Table 13.17:	Indirect gas cooling - energy recovery	1173
Table 13.18:	Dry ESP	1173

Table 13.19: Bag filter	1174
Table 13.20: Wet ESP	1174
Table 13.21: Wet ESP	1175
Table 13.22: Afterburner, reactor and bag filter	1176
Table 13.23: Afterburner	1177
Table 13.24: Wet desulphurisation	1178
Table 13.25: Semi-dry scrubber	1179
Table 13.26: Activated carbon filter	1180
Table 13.27: SCR	1181
Table 13.28: Dry scrubber and bag filter	1183
Table 13.29: Semi-dry scrubber and bag filter	1184
Table 13.30: Semi-dry scrubber and bag filter	1185
Table 13.31: Wet scrubber and ESP	1186
Table 13.32: Semi-dry scrubber, activated carbon injection and bag filter	1187
Table 13.33: Cost-effectiveness according to NeR methodology	1188
Table 13.34: Copper smelter sulphuric acid plants	1189
Table 13.35: Sulphuric acid plants	1190
Table 13.36: Weak acid neutralisation	1190

SCOPE

This BREF for the non-ferrous metal industries covers certain industrial activities specified in Section 2.5 (a) and (b) of Annex I to Directive 2010/75/EU, namely:

'2.5. Processing of non-ferrous metals:

(a) production of non-ferrous crude metals from ore, concentrates or secondary raw materials by metallurgical, chemical or electrolytic processes;

(b) melting, including the alloyage, of non-ferrous metals, including recovered products and operation of non-ferrous metals foundries, with a melting capacity exceeding 4 tonnes per day for lead and cadmium or 20 tonnes per day for all other metals.'

There are many similarities between primary and secondary production of non-ferrous metals and in some cases it is impossible to distinguish between the techniques used. In some cases, primary production of non-ferrous metals includes the integration of secondary raw material into common production processes to save energy, minimise production costs and recover important materials. Secondary production of non-ferrous metals includes the production of metal from secondary raw materials (including scrap and metal-bearing materials) and the remelting and alloying processes. This document covers the techniques for the production of both primary and secondary non-ferrous metals. Mining and ore treatment at the mine site are not covered.

The production of carbon and graphite anodes (Section 6.8 of Annex I to Directive 2010/75/EU (IED)) is included because of the similarity of part of the process to the production of anodes at some aluminium smelters as an integral part of the production process.

Activities under Section 2.1 of Annex I to the IED – sintering and roasting – are covered by this document in two parts of the Annex:

- those which are part of Section 2.5 (a) processes to produce the metal;
- where roasting and sintering are carried out independently, for example the roasting of molybdenum sulphide.

The production of radioactive metals is excluded from this document. The production of components such as semiconductors is also excluded.

There are interfaces with the chemical sector but there are specific issues and differences that should be taken into account when these processes are associated with metal production, or when metal compounds are produced as by-products of the production of metal. The following processes are included in the scope of this work.

- The production of zinc oxide from fume during the production of other metals.
- The production of nickel compounds from liquors produced during the production of a metal.
- The production of CaSi and Si which takes place in the same furnace as the production of ferro-silicon.
- The production of aluminium oxide from bauxite prior to the production of primary aluminium. This is an integral part of the production of the metal when performed at the smelter and is therefore included in this document.
- The recycling of aluminium salt slag when integrated with non-ferrous metals production.

The rolling, drawing and pressing of non-ferrous metals, when directly integrated with the production of metal, are therefore included in this document. Foundry processes are not included in this document and are covered in the BREF for the Smitheries and Foundries Industry [428, COM 2005]

Scope

In addition to basic manufacturing activities, this document covers the associated activities which could have an effect on emissions or pollution. Thus, this document includes activities from the preparation of raw materials to the dispatch of the finished products.

The main operations covered are:

- raw materials storage and preparation;
- fuels storage and preparation;
- the production processes, i.e. the pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical processes;
- emission prevention and reduction techniques;
- products, storage and preparation.

It should be noted that in 2000, for the industrial sectors covered by the NFM BREF 2001, data were collected for the EU-15. Furthermore in 2008 and in 2012, information and data have been updated for the EU-27 as far as possible.

Other reference documents which are relevant for the activities covered in this document are the following:

Reference documents	Activity
Energy Efficiency (ENE)	General energy efficiency
Common Waste Water and Waste Gas Treatment/Management Systems in the Chemical Sector (CWW)	Waste water treatment techniques to reduce emissions of metals to water
Large Volume Inorganic Chemicals - Ammonia, Acids and Fertiliser (LVIC-AAF)	Sulphuric acid production
Industrial Cooling Systems (ICS)	Industrial cooling systems, e.g. cooling towers, plate heat exchangers
Emissions from Storage (EFS)	Storage and handling of materials
Economics and Cross-Media Effects (ECM)	Economics and cross-media effects of techniques
Monitoring of emissions to air and water from IED installations (ROM)	Monitoring of emissions to air and water
Waste Treatment (WT)	Waste handling and treatment
Large Combustion Plants (LCP)	Generation of steam and electricity by combustion plants with a rated thermal input of $\geq 50 \text{ MW}_{\text{th}}$
Surface treatment using organic solvents (STS)	Non-acid pickling of copper rod, copper semis and copper alloy
Surface treatment of metals and plastics (STM)	Acid pickling of copper rod, copper semis and copper alloy

The scope of this document does not include matters that only concern safety in the workplace or the safety of products because these matters are not covered by the Directive. They are discussed only where they affect matters within the scope of the Directive.

1 GENERAL INFORMATION

1.1 Industry overview

The European non-ferrous metals industry has an economic and strategic importance greater than its employment, capital and turnover statistics indicate. For example, high-purity copper is essential for electricity generation and distribution, and small amounts of nickel improve the corrosion resistance of steel.

Non-ferrous metals and their alloys therefore lie at the heart of modern life and many high-technology developments, particularly in the energy generation, computing, electronic, telecommunications and transport industries depend upon them.

1.1.1 Non-ferrous metals and alloys

All the non-ferrous metals considered in this document have their own individual properties and applications. In several cases however, e.g. copper and aluminium, alloys are used in more applications than pure metals because they can be designed to have a specific strength, toughness, etc. to meet the requirements of particular applications.

Metals are inherently recyclable and can be recycled time after time without losing any of their properties. They thus make a significant contribution to sustainable development. It is normally not possible to distinguish between refined metal that has been produced from primary raw materials and metal that has been produced from secondary raw materials (e.g. scrap).

1.1.2 Scope of the industry

The output of the industry is derived from a variety of primary and secondary raw materials. Primary raw materials are derived from ores that are mined and then further treated, for example by washing and jigging, to reduce waste material before they are metallurgically processed to produce crude metal. The treatment of ores is carried out close to the mines as, increasingly, is metal production. Secondary raw materials are indigenous scrap and residues.

Most metal concentrates are imported into Europe from a variety of sources worldwide. The importance of using indigenous secondary raw materials such as scrap metal and other residues cannot be emphasised enough. Recycled metal constitutes an important component of the raw material supplies of the industry.

In the copper sector, secondary raw materials account for the production of about 40 % of EU copper but in some cases, such as brass rods, the product is made entirely from recycled copper and brass, with only a small input of primary zinc. When copper cathodes are produced from recycled materials there are savings of approximately 650 000 tonnes of CO₂ because specific direct emissions of secondary smelters are four times lower than those of primary smelters.

In the aluminium sector, the production and refining of secondary aluminium are also much less demanding in terms of energy, accounting for a consumption per kg of Al produced of about 5 % of the energy needed to produce primary aluminium.

The output of the industry is either refined metal or what is known as semis manufactures, i.e. metal and metal alloy cast ingots or wrought shapes, extruded shapes, foils, strips, rods, etc.

The non-ferrous foundries that produce cast metal products have not been included in this document but are covered by the Smitheries and Foundries Industry BREF. The collection,

sorting and supply of secondary raw materials for the industry lies within the metal recycling industry, which is also not considered in this document.

Although an apparent contradiction in terms, the production of ferro-alloys, which are mainly used as master alloys in the iron and steel industry, is considered part of the non-ferrous metals industry. Their alloying elements, i.e. refractory metals, chromium, silicon, manganese and nickel, are all non-ferrous metals.

The precious metals sector is also considered part of the non-ferrous metals industry for the purposes of this document.

1.1.3 Structure of the industry

The structure of the industry varies by metal. There are no companies that produce all or even a majority of non-ferrous metals although there are a few pan-European companies producing several metals, e.g. copper, lead, zinc and cadmium.

The size of the companies producing non-ferrous metals and non-ferrous metal alloys in Europe varies from a few employing more than 5000 people to a large number having between 50 and 200 employees.

Ownership varies between pan-European and national metals groups, industrial holdings groups, stand-alone public companies and private companies.

1.1.4 Economics of the industry

The key statistics of the European non-ferrous metals industry as defined for the purpose of this document are:

- turnover: EUR 120 billion (77 % fabrication/transformation, 21 % refineries, 2 % mining);
- jobs (direct): 500 000 (direct) (> 2 million indirect);
- world market position: 1/5 of global production:
 - o 30 % of global first stage processing,
 - o 22 % of global refined metal production,
 - o 4 % of global mining production. [429, [Eurometaux 2016](#)]

Many refined non-ferrous metals are international commodities. The major metals (aluminium, copper, lead, nickel, tin and zinc) are traded on one of two futures markets, the London Metal Exchange or COMEX in New York. In addition to the New York Commodity Exchange (NYMEX), precious metals can also be traded on the London Bullion Market (LBMA), the Tokyo Commodity Exchange (TOCOM), the Zurich Gold Pool, the Dubai Multi Commodities Centre (DMCC) and the Bullion Vault. The collectively named 'minor' metals have no central marketplace; price levels are imposed either by producers or by merchants trading on the free market. In most applications, a particular non-ferrous metal is in competition with other materials, notably ceramics, plastics and other ferrous and non-ferrous metals.

The profitability of each metal or metals group, and thus the economic viability of the industry both absolutely and on a short-term basis, depends upon a wide range of other economic factors such as the agreed processing (treatment and refining) fee applied in some sectors between the mine and the smelter.

The general economic rule applies however, i.e. the nearer a material or product comes to global market conditions and international commodity status, the lower the return on the capital invested.

1.1.5 Environmental performance

There has been a steady improvement in the environmental performance and energy efficiency of the industry over the last 30 years since the adoption of Directive 84/360/EEC on the combating of air pollution from industrial plants.

The recycling rate of the industry is very high. Metals are often produced at lower energy costs using the recycling route. For copper for example, secondary smelting compared to primary smelting emits 4 times less carbon dioxide, consumes 3 times less electricity and 2.5 times less fuel for combustion. Additional efforts to recycle low-quality, metal-bearing residues are however required to protect the environment and improve energy efficiency even further.

1.2 Copper and its alloys

1.2.1 General information

Copper has been used for many centuries; it has a very high thermal and electrical conductivity and is relatively corrosion-resistant. Used copper can be recycled without loss of quality. Copper is frequently alloyed with Zn, Sn, Ni, Al and other metals to make a range of brasses and bronzes [35, COM 1997].

Copper production is based on grade A copper cathodes, i.e. 99.95 % Cu. The grade A designation comes from the London Metal Exchange vocabulary for cathodes and refers to a British Standard. This has been replaced by a European CEN standard, EN 1978, where the quality is designated as Cu CATH1 or, in the new European alphanumeric system, CR001A.

The maximum tolerable impurities in percentages are in Table 1.1 as follows:

Table 1.1: Maximum tolerable impurities

Element/s	Percentage (%)
Ag	0.0025
As	0.0005
Bi	0.00020
Fe	0.0010
Pb	0.0005
S	0.0015
Sb	0.0004
Se	0.00020
Te 0.00020 with As+Cd+Cr+Mn+P+Sb	0.0015
Bi+Se+Te	0.0003
Se+Te	0.0003
Ag+As+Bi+Cd+Co+Cr+Fe+Mn+Ni+P+Pb+S+Sb+Se+Si+Sn+Te+Zn	0.0065

1.2.2 Sources of materials

Refined copper is produced from primary and secondary raw materials by a relatively small number of copper refineries; their product is copper cathode. This is melted, alloyed and further processed to produce rods, profiles, wires, sheets, strips, tubes, etc. This step may be integrated with the refinery but is frequently carried out at another site.

Important copper mine production can be found in Poland (KGHM Polska Miedź S.A. in Lubin, Polkowice-Sieroszowice and Rudna) with 426 700 tonnes of copper extracted in 2011. Other sizeable EU mining countries are Spain (start-up of mining and hydrometallurgical production of copper cathodes at Las Cruces in 2009, with a capacity of 72 000 tonnes of copper), Portugal (start-up of mining at Neves-Corvo in 1989, with 80 000 tonnes of copper in 2011), Sweden (83 000 tonnes) and Bulgaria (115 000 tonnes) [363, Brown et al. 2013].

With about 835 000 tonnes of copper extracted from domestic ores in 2011, the EU-28 countries account for around 5 % of the total worldwide copper mine output. [363, Brown et al. 2013].

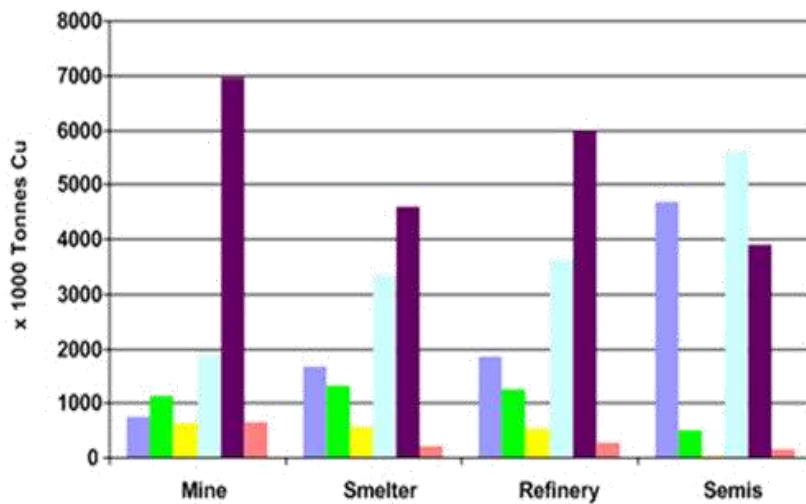
1.2.3 Production and use

The products of the refineries are the major raw materials for the manufacturers of semi-fabricated products. With an output twice that of EU refinery output, the EU-28 semis manufacturers directly use a significant amount of scrap in the range of one million tonnes per year. They must also turn to the international market to secure adequate supplies of refined copper. It is estimated that around 60 % of their raw materials come from primary sources, the remaining 40 % from the direct use of scrap and other secondary materials [238, ECI 2012].

The 2005 output of the copper and copper alloy semis industry in the EU-27 exceeded 5.2 million tonnes (about 4.8 million tonnes copper equivalent). This represented more than one quarter of global production. Despite this relatively large percentage, this was the lowest level this century, 10 % lower than the average of the previous six years, and 20 % less than the peak in 2000. Germany, Italy and France account for about two thirds of the EU-28 output. The range of products supplied by the semis manufacturers is very wide, but consists primarily of rods, profiles, wires, sheets, strips and tubes. Applications are equally diverse, with semis used in sectors such as electrical engineering, automobiles, construction, plumbing, machinery, shipbuilding, aircraft, precision instruments, watches and clocks, etc.

The production capacity of the EU semis industry exceeds demand. While figures from 2005 show the EU to be a net exporter of about 500 000 tonnes per year, this overcapacity makes the industry, and its economic well-being, very sensitive to cyclical movements in demand.

The electrical wire rod sector accounts for around half of semis production. Some 20 companies, employing around 3000 people in total, are involved in this sector. Whilst part of this is the integrated downstream output of copper refiners (e.g. KGHM and Aurubis AG), a significant part is upstream integration by wire and cable producers (e.g. Nexans and Prysmian). Figure 1.1 shows the worldwide production of copper in 2005, and semis include billets, cakes, ingots and plates, as well as wire rods.



EU	751	1662	1854	4700
Non-EU	1135	1310	1271	500
Africa	642	562	531	20
Asia	1884	3330	3630	5600
America	6952	4586	6000	3900
Oceania	672	208	271	150

Source: [238, ECI 2012].

Figure 1.1: Worldwide copper production in 2005

Far more companies participate in the other copper semis manufacturing industries. About 80 companies, employing some 35 000 people throughout the EU-28, produce copper and copper alloy rods, bars, wires, sections, tubes, plates, sheets and strips. This sector is led by two large companies, KME Group SpA (IT), with major manufacturing activities in France, Germany, Italy and Spain, and Wieland-Werke (DE), with operations in Austria, Germany and the UK. The semis activities of Boliden (SE) were acquired by Outokumpu (FI) in 2004. A major part of these were then demerged into a new company, Luvata, in 2006. Other large companies include Diehl (DE), Carlo Gnutti (IT) and Halcor (EL). About 30 companies in this sector have integrated foundries for the production of cakes, billets and other primary shapes for further processing. The others purchase these either from the smelters/refiners or from other semis manufacturers [238, ECI 2012].

Table 1.2 shows the copper production in the EU (and EAA) and Figure 1.2 and Figure 1.3 show the products.

Table 1.2: European production of copper and its alloys in 2011

Country	Production of copper, mine (kt)	Production of copper, smelter (kt)	Production of copper, refined (kt)
Austria	0	0	95
Belgium	0	0	402
Bulgaria	118	264	226
Cyprus	4	0	4
Finland	25	125	129
Germany	0	352	686
Italy	0	0	8
Norway	0	38	38
Poland	427	467	566
Portugal	74	0	0
Romania	6	0	0
Spain	98	295	407
Sweden	82	207	214
Total	835	1748	2774

Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]

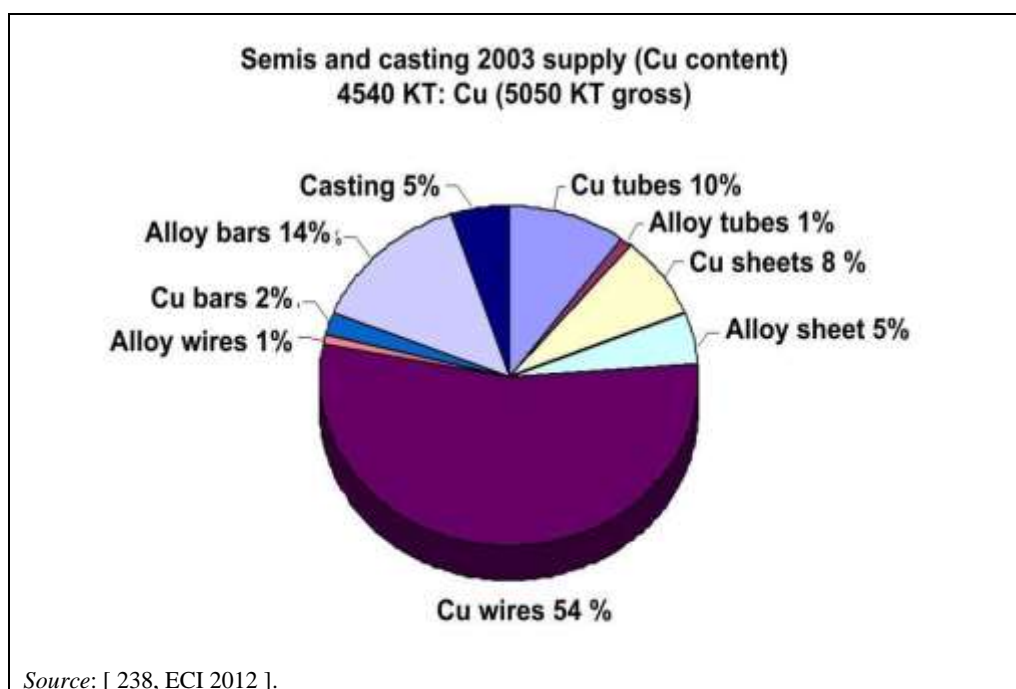


Figure 1.2: Copper semis products produced in 2003

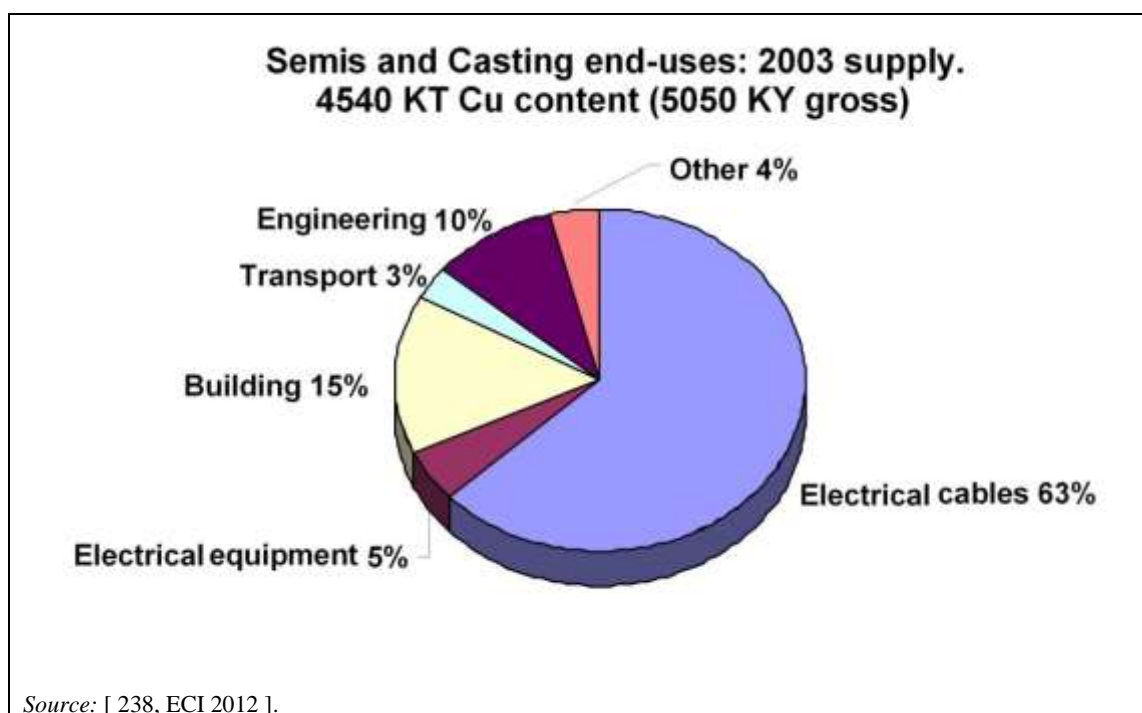


Figure 1.3: End uses for semis produced in the EU in 2003

1.2.4 Production sites

Annual refined copper production in the EU-28 reached 2.7 million tonnes in 2011, representing 13.6 % of worldwide production. The largest facilities are located in Germany, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Finland, Belgium and Bulgaria. The final refinery products, copper cathodes, are made through electrolytic processes. These are often melted and cast on the premises into 'refinery shapes', referred to as billets and cakes. Some copper refiners also produce wire rod, either at the refinery location or elsewhere [238, ECI 2012]

About 45 % of feed supplies to the EU-28 copper refineries are purchased on the international market in the form of copper concentrates, blister, anodes or scrap. The remaining 55 % come from EU-produced copper concentrates, copper-bearing residues and scrap.

European copper smelting and refining activity has been able to grow primarily by securing raw materials on the international market and by making use of 'domestic mining'. This consists of copper scrap and residues generated by consumers and processors, as well as by building demolition and end-of-life waste (e.g. vehicles and electric and electronic waste). Access to primary and secondary supplies has become increasingly difficult. This has partly been due to copper mining countries developing their own smelting and refining facilities, but mainly due to much stronger competition from countries such as China and India, seeking copper raw materials to meet the needs of their rapid industrialisation.

In 2007, there were 15 major copper refineries in the EU-27, employing around 10 000 people.

The major changes have been [238, ECI 2012]:

- the inclusion of KGHM Poland;
- the demerger of the Olen and Pirdop copper activities of Umicore (Union Minière) to the new company Cumerio;
- the merger of Hüttenwerke Kayser into Norddeutsche Affinerie AG;
- the merger of Norddeutsche Affinerie AG and Cumerio into Aurubis AG;
- the merger of Outokumpu Harjavalta and Pori into New Boliden AB;

- the merger of Krompachy into Montanwerke Brixlegg;
- the closure of the secondary copper smelters of IMI Refiners and MKM.

The resulting structure of the European copper smelting and refining industry is as follows:

- Atlantic Copper S.A. in Huelva, Spain;
- New Boliden AB with sites in Harjavalta and Pori, Finland and Rönnskär, Sweden;
- Aurubis AG with sites in Hamburg and Lünen, Germany; Pirdop, Bulgaria and Olen, Belgium;
- KGHM Polska Miedź S.A. with sites in Głogów (1 and 2) and Legnica, Poland;
- Metallo-Chimique in Beerse, Belgium with its daughter company Elmet S.L. in Berango, Spain;
- Montanwerke Brixlegg, Austria with its daughter company Krompachy, Slovakia;
- Umicore S.A. in Hoboken, Belgium.

Some of these are clear primary smelters (Atlantic Copper, KGHM, Pirdop and Harjavalta) which use copper concentrates as their primary feedstock. Others are clear secondary smelters (Metallo-Chimique, Montanwerke Brixlegg, and Aurubis Lünen), where the main feedstocks are scrap from the downstream value chain plus recycled products at the end of their life. Some have the flexibility to process both primary and secondary feedstocks, like Boliden Rönnskär, KGHM Legnica and Aurubis AG Hamburg.

New installations, facilities and technology innovations that have been developed since 2000 [238, ECI 2012] are:

- the KRS smelter for secondary copper materials in Lünen;
- the ISASMELT furnace in combination with a leaching and electrowinning plant in Hoboken;
- the house-in-house concept to capture diffuse emissions in Hamburg;
- chemical gypsum plants in primary smelting in a multistage process (Huelva and Pirdop);
- new fayalite slag tailings pond (Pirdop).

Two companies have capacities of around or over 500 000 tonnes of refined copper per year: KGHM, with three sites in Poland, Głogów I and II and Legnica; and Aurubis AG with sites in Hamburg and Lünen (Germany) and Olen (Belgium) and Pirdop (Bulgaria).

Two others have capacities of around 300 000 tonnes: Boliden in Rönnskär (Sweden) and Harjavalta/Pori (Finland), bought from Outokumpu in 2003, and Atlantic Copper in Huelva (Spain).

Montanwerke in Brixlegg (Austria) and Krompachy (Slovakia) produce around 100 000 tonnes and Metallo-Chimique at Beerse, in Belgium, and at Elmet in Berango, Spain, account for less than 50 000 tonnes (as cathodes but more than 100 000 tonnes as anodes).

Umicore (formerly Union Minière) in Hoboken (Belgium), OMG in Kokkola (FI) and Cyprus Copper, Cyprus also produce refined copper using a direct electrochemical route, with capacities of between 5000 tonnes and 50 000 tonnes.

There are some other, smaller facilities in the new Member States (e.g. Baia Mare, Romania) but no information was made available.

Not all companies have balanced capacities between smelting and electrolytic refining. Some ship a large part of their anodes (> 99 % copper) to refineries for final cathode (> 99.9 % copper) production.

Depending on the sources of scrap, EU versus imports, EU copper smelting and refining capacities can meet less than half of end-user demand. This structural shortage of EU-refined copper production is expected to continue, with the EU remaining a large net importer.

1.2.5 Key environmental issues

Historically, the major environmental problem associated with the production of copper from primary sources was the emission of sulphur dioxide to air from the roasting and smelting of sulphidic concentrates. This problem has been effectively solved by the EU smelters which now achieve on average a 98.9 % fixation of the sulphur and produce sulphuric acid and liquid sulphur dioxide.

The main environmental issues associated with the production of secondary copper are also related to the flue-gases from the various furnaces in use. There is also potential for the formation of PCDD/F due to the presence of small amounts of chlorine in the secondary raw materials, and the destruction of PCDD/F is an issue that is being pursued [219, VDI 2007].

Diffuse or uncaptured emissions are also becoming increasingly important for both primary and secondary production. Careful plant design and process operation is needed to capture process gases.

Recycled material constitutes an important component of the raw material supplies of the copper refining and manufacturing facilities. Copper can be recovered from the majority of its applications and returned to the production process without loss of quality in recycling. Having very limited access to domestic primary sources of copper, the EU industry has traditionally given much attention to so-called surface mines, relying, to a large extent, on scrap feed to reduce the large deficit of its copper raw materials trade balance.

Almost 100 % of new or process copper scrap is recycled and, according to some studies, it has been estimated that 95 % of old copper scrap that becomes available is also recycled.

Overall, secondary raw materials account for the production of about 40 % of EU copper, but in some cases, such as brass rods, the product is made entirely from recycled copper and brass, with only a small input of primary zinc.

The quality of secondary raw materials varies greatly and many sources of these materials are not suitable for direct use by the semis manufacturers. The scrap industry is relied upon to provide graded material of adequate cleanliness for the industry and, although there are agreed specifications for scrap, wide variations are encountered. Additional treatment or abatement systems may be needed.

The EU copper industry has developed advanced technologies and made considerable investments to be able to process a wide range of copper scrap, including complex, low-grade residues, and to comply at the same time with increasingly stringent environmental standards.

The ability of the industry to increase this high recycling rate depends on a number of complex factors.

1.3 Aluminium

1.3.1 General information

Aluminium [35, COM 1997] is a material with a large range of applications, notably in the transportation, construction and packaging industries, the electricity sector, in all high-voltage electricity distribution systems, household appliances, and in the mechanical and agricultural sectors. It is light, has good electrical conductivity and forms a surface oxide layer when exposed to air that prevents further corrosion. Aluminium is highly reactive, particularly in the form of powder, and is used in aluminothermic reactions to produce a variety of other metals.

The aluminium industry is the youngest and largest of the non-ferrous metals industries; aluminium smelting only began at the end of 19th century. The EU aluminium industry directly represents a workforce of about 255 000 people and its annual turnover was in the order of EUR 40 000 million in 2013.

1.3.2 Sources of materials

Primary aluminium is produced from bauxite that is converted into alumina; 100 tonnes of bauxite produces 40 to 50 tonnes of alumina (aluminium oxide), which can then produce 20 to 25 tonnes of aluminium. Most of the bauxite is mined outside Europe, but there are several alumina production facilities within Europe.

The secondary industry depends on the sources of scrap. Scrap can be termed 'new scrap' which is generated during the production and fabrication of wrought and cast products or 'old scrap' which is recovered from articles at the end of their useful life. The recycling rate of 'new scrap' is 100 % of the amount produced.

1.3.3 Production and use

The European aluminium industry includes mining and alumina production, primary and secondary smelting, and metal processing into semi-finished products (e.g. bars, profiles, wires, sheets, foils, tubes, pipes) and speciality products (e.g. powders, special alloys). Table 1.3 shows the various materials produced by the aluminium sector in the EU-27.

Table 1.3: Production of aluminium in the EU-27 in 2007 and 2012

Material produced	2007 (Mt)	2012 (Mt)
Metal production		
Bauxite mining	2.81	2.2
Alumina refining	6.9	5.8
Primary metal production	3.1	2.1
Secondary metal production (refining + remelting)	5.1	4.1
Semis		
Rolled	4.5	3.9
Extruded	3.2	2.5
Other	1	1.2
Total semis	8.7	7.6
Castings	33	2.9
<i>Source: [380, European Aluminium Association 2012]</i>		

In 2007, the EU-27 accounted for about 8 % of the total world production of primary aluminium but was a net importer of aluminium. Table 1.4 shows the production and consumption in world areas.

Table 1.4: Primary aluminium production and consumption by country in 2007 and 2012

	Production (kt)		Consumption (kt)	
	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU-27	3093	2070	7739	6486
Rest of Europe	2058	2111	528	469
US	2560	2070	5774	4869
Russia	3949	4028	1130	934
Canada	3083	2781	742	517
China	12 559	22 197	12 100	21 674
Australia	1963	1855	410	359
Brazil	1655	1436	854	1033
India	1223	1714	1150	1784
Middle East	1738	3709	NA	1143
Rest of the world	4154	3907	7642	8080
Total	41 128	47 878	45 808	47 348
NB: NA = Not available.				
Source: [380, European Aluminium Association 2012]				

Table 1.5 shows the sources of imported primary aluminium to the EU-27 as a percentage of the total imports.

Table 1.5: Imports of primary aluminium to the EU-27 in 2007 and 2012

	Imports to the EU-27 (% of total imports)	
	2007	2012
Asia	3	5
North America	5	4
Middle East	6	11
Latin America	9	1
Africa	16	15
Russia	17	12
Rest of Europe (without Russia)	44	52
Source: [380, European Aluminium Association 2012]		

The EU-27 production of aluminium from secondary raw materials in 2007 represents about one third of global secondary aluminium production.

1.3.4 Production sites

In 2007, a total of 25 primary aluminium smelters were operating in the EU-27 (18 in 2012), and a further 10 in the EEA. The number of companies is much smaller, and they consist of Rio Tinto Alcan (UK, France and Iceland), Alcoa Europe (Spain, Italy and Iceland), Hydro Aluminium (Norway and Germany), Zalco (the Netherlands), Trimet (Germany), Alro (Romania), Slovalco (Slovakia), Talum (Slovenia), Mytilineos (Greece), Rusal (Sweden) and Century (Iceland). Some of these companies have subsidiaries or branches in other parts of the world, or are part of international corporations.

The situation is different for the secondary aluminium sector, in which over 130 companies produce more than 1000 tonnes per year of secondary aluminium each. There is a good integration of the rolling activity with the production processes but the extrusion industry is much less integrated, with about 300 production sites scattered over the EU territory. Many production activities are integrated, but a number of EU manufacturers focus their activity on one particular segment only, such as recycling and secondary smelting or semis fabrication.

1.3.5 Key environmental issues

The main environmental issues for primary aluminium are the generation of polyfluorinated hydrocarbons and fluorides during electrolysis, the production of solid waste from the cells and the production of solid waste during the production of alumina. The generation of SO₂ from the sulphur content of the anodes is an issue in the Netherlands. The industry has made progress to reduce these emissions, in particular by adopting the Prebake technology for most of the smelters and upgrading the remaining Søderberg smelters in order to improve their environmental and energy performances.

Regarding the production of secondary aluminium, there are potential emissions of dust and PCDD/F from poorly operated furnaces and poor combustion and the production of solid wastes (salt slag, spent furnace linings, dross and filter dust).

The main cost of producing primary aluminium is electricity, and as a consequence production has tended to concentrate where low-cost electricity is available, this being one of the prime determinants for the geographical distribution of the production sites. The European aluminium industry has made considerable efforts to reduce its electricity consumption, currently achieving an average use of 15 kWh per kg. The production and refining of secondary aluminium is much less demanding in terms of energy, accounting for a consumption per kg of about 5 % of the energy needed to produce primary aluminium.

There are many initiatives involved in improving the return of scrap aluminium and the industry is an active player in this area. The recycling of used beverage cans (UBCs) is an example of this. Collected material is recycled in a closed loop to produce more beverage cans to the same alloy specification. Much attention is paid by the secondary industry to producing the correct alloy composition and presorting of scrap types is important. An example of this is the segregation of extrusion scrap to preserve the particular alloy.

1.4 Lead and tin

1.4.1 Lead

1.4.1.1 General information

Lead [35, COM 1997], is an abundant metal in the earth's crust and has been used for many centuries. It is found in pure sulphide ores or in mixed ores where it is associated with zinc and small amounts of silver and copper. Lead is a soft metal; it has a low melting point and is resistant to corrosion. These properties give it great functional value, both in its pure form and as alloys or compounds.

Lead is classified in terms of the composition of the product. Table 1.6 shows the chemical composition of the grades of lead according to the European Standard.

Table 1.6: Chemical composition of the grades of lead according to the European Standard

Grade designation	Pb min.	1 Bi max.	2 Ag max.	3 Cu max.	4 Zn Max.	5 Ni max.	6 Cd max.	7 Sb max.	8 Sn max.	9 As max.	Total of 1 to 9 max.
PB 990R	99.990	0.010	0.0015	0.0005	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0005	0.0005	0.0005	0.010
PB 985R	99.985	0.015	0.0025	0.0010	0.0002	0.0005	0.0002	0.0005	0.0005	0.0005	0.015
PB 970R	99.970	0.030	0.0050	0.0030	0.0005	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.030
PB 940R	99.940	0.060	0.0080	0.0050	0.0005	0.0020	0.0020	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.060

NB: The German standard DIN 1719 is the basis for the European Standard EN 12659.

There have been major changes in the pattern of use of lead. The battery industry currently consumes around 85 % of the refined lead metal, and has been steadily increasing over the years. Other uses for lead, which include pigments and compounds, cable sheathing, shots and petroleum additives, have been in decline. The use of lead metal in rolled and extruded products such as lead sheets has been fairly stable over the years (see Table 1.7).

Table 1.7: Uses of lead worldwide

Commercial use	1973 (%)	1983 (%)	1993 (%)	2003 (%)	2011 (%)
Batteries	29	36	60	66	82
Lead sheet	8	6	5	5	6
Cable sheathing	7	4	3	1	0.9
Shot/Ammunition	2	2	2	2	1
Alloys	5	3	3	2	1
Pigments and other compounds	9	9	10	8	5
Gasoline additives	7	3	1	0.2	0.1
Other	2	2	4	3	2

Source: [377, ILA 2013]

1.4.1.2 Sources of materials

Refined lead is derived from primary material in the form of lead or mixed metal ores and concentrates, and secondary material in the form of scrap and residue. The balance between primary and secondary production has shifted since 1998, and in 2011 secondary sources accounted for more than 77 % of EU production. [377, ILA 2013]

Primary production requires the smelting of lead-bearing ores to produce lead bullion which is then refined. The economics of primary lead ore production are linked to the silver and zinc contents of the ore bodies. Since most ore bodies consist of compounds with sulphur (ore bodies containing lead carbonate also exist), lead metal production requires the sulphur content of the ores to be treated to produce sulphuric acid. Most primary lead smelters have a complex refining process associated with them and also processes to recover the silver content as a silver-gold alloy (where gold occurs, as many ore bodies are low in gold). Primary refining is therefore linked to the economics of mining lead-zinc ore bodies.

EU-27 countries produced 200 000 tonnes of lead concentrate in 2012 compared to 350 000 tonnes in 1996, the main producers being Ireland, Sweden and Poland. The main worldwide producers of lead ore are China, Australia, the US, Peru and Mexico. Total world mine production in 2012 was reported as 5.2 million tonnes. World refined lead metal production in 2012 was reported as 10.6 million tonnes. [377, ILA 2013]

The secondary refining industry now supplies the majority of lead consumed. Lead-acid batteries are the main source of scrap for secondary refining. The industry is making positive steps to encourage the recycling of these batteries; this proportion is increasing as the world car population increases and the return rate of old batteries increases. Secondary production also requires sulphur removal and other refining facilities as the secondary raw materials may contain unwanted compounds.

1.4.1.3 Production and use

In 2012, 1 770 000 tonnes of refined lead metal were produced in the EU-27, with approximately 77 % of this originating from secondary lead production. [377, ILA 2013]

Lead consumption is linked to the manufacture and use of lead-acid batteries and is estimated to account for 80–85 % of production. Other applications for lead include roofing materials and radiation protection. The use of lead in certain applications is limited by several EU regulations.

1.4.1.4 Production sites

There has been a major change in the processes used for lead production in the EU since 1998. All two-stage sintering/shaft furnace processes have now closed and all Imperial Smelting Furnaces have also closed except for one in Poland which is operated on a campaign basis to smelt sulphidic and then oxidic materials to recover lead and zinc. In 2008, there were only three direct smelting processes in use in the EU-27 with two in Germany and one in Italy. Lead production that is part of a complex metallurgical process to recover copper and precious metals remains unaffected.

Table 1.8 gives the annual capacities for lead processes in the EU-27 for 2006.

Table 1.8: Annual capacities for lead processes in the EU-27 in 2006

	Primary or combined primary and secondary smelting (t/yr)	Secondary smelting		Total lead
		Shaft furnace (t/yr)	Rotary or other furnace (t/yr)	Refining stage (t/yr)
Austria	0	0	32 000	32 000
Belgium	30 000	50 000	40 000	120 000
Bulgaria	70 000	30 000	0	100 000
Czech	0	35 000	0	35 000
France	0	0	120 000	120 000
Germany	210 000	50 000	100 000	360 000
Italy	100 000	0	160 000	260 000
Netherlands	0	0	20 000	20 000
Poland	35 000	0	55 000	90 000
Portugal	0	0	10 000	10 000
Romania	40 000	0	0	40 000
Spain	15 000	0	110 000	125 000
Sweden	65 000	45 000	0	110 000
UK ⁽¹⁾	180 000	0	85 000	265 000
Other	30 000	0	30 000	60 000
Total	775 000	210 000	762 000	1 747 000

(¹) Includes non-EU bullion in primary smelting.

Production capacity has decreased by 500 000 t/yr since 1997 and the remaining direct smelters take in more and more secondary raw materials to increase their capacities to between 50 000 t/yr and greater than 100 000 t/yr.

The secondary lead industry is characterised by a large number of smaller installations, many of which are independent. There are approximately 30 secondary smelters/refiners in the EU producing from 5000 t/yr to 65 000 t/yr. They recycle and refine scrap generated in their local area. The number of these refineries is decreasing as the large multinational companies, and the major battery manufacturing groups as well, acquire the smaller secondary facilities or set up their own recycling operations. Figure 1.4 shows the European lead refining capacity in 2007.

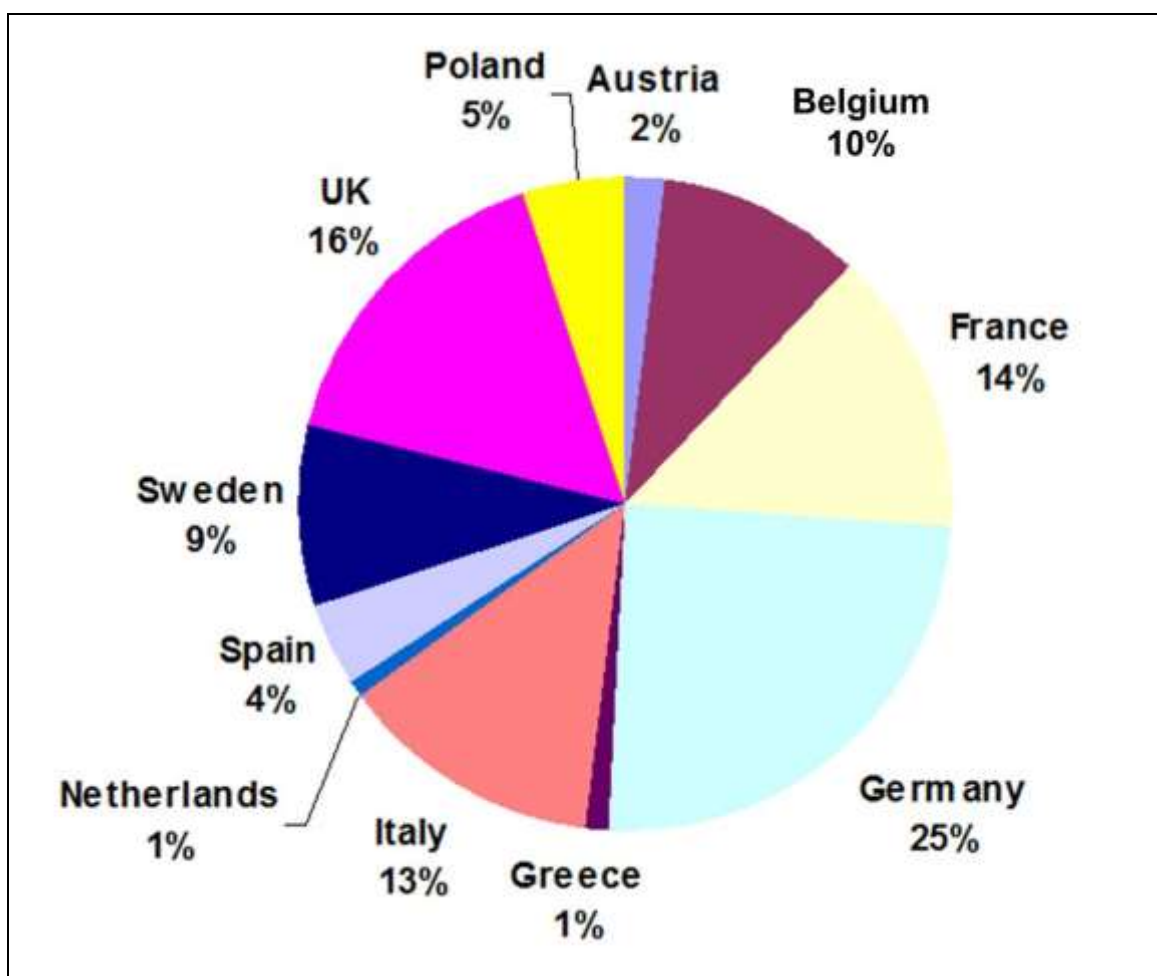


Figure 1.4: European lead refining capacity in 2007

The number of production sites has decreased and the total production capacity has fallen by 200 000 t/yr since 1998.

1.4.1.5 Key environmental issues

Historically, the major environmental problem associated with the production of lead from primary sources was the emission of sulphur dioxide to air from the roasting and smelting of sulphidic concentrates. This problem has been effectively solved by the EU smelters which now achieve a high fixation of the sulphur and produce sulphuric acid and/or liquid sulphur dioxide. Emissions of dust and metals from roads, storage areas and old waste deposits are also a potential problem. [254, VDI 2004].

The main environmental issues associated with the production of secondary lead are also related to the exhaust gases from the various furnaces in use. There is also the potential for the formation of PCDD/F due to the presence of small amounts of chlorine in the secondary raw materials and the destruction of PCDD/F is an issue that is being pursued [254, VDI 2004].

Lead is of great environmental concern and many lead compounds are classified as toxic. General policy is normally to restrict emissions to the lowest practicable levels given the state of technology, and recycling is normally conducted whenever appropriate and economic. Most control measures are concerned principally with human and animal exposure. Measures to protect children living in the vicinity of smelting plants are of particular significance. Environmental legislation requires investment to reduce lead in emissions to air. In recent years several new technologies have been developed and implemented which offer more efficient methods of smelting lead concentrates. These processes have also reduced emissions to the

environment. Existing processes have been improved using state-of-the-art control and abatement systems.

Batteries, which accounted for more than 80 % of the refined lead metal used in the EU-27 in 2012, are recycled with very high efficiency. The EU Battery Directive, 2006/66/EC, of September 2006 encourages high collection rates, prohibits disposal of lead batteries and prescribes from 2010 onwards a recovery rate of 65 % of the average weight of lead-acid batteries. Regulations for end-of-life vehicles (2000/53/EC) and electric and electronic goods (2002/96/EC) limit the use of lead in certain articles.

Regulations affecting lead fall into four main categories: occupational exposure, emissions (ambient air quality), controls on food and water, and product control. The limit values are complemented by rules on the protection of the workforce by providing the use of protective clothing, respirators, washing facilities or specifying rules on eating, drinking, smoking, etc.

Lead in the general atmosphere is limited by Directive 2008/50/EC on ambient air quality and cleaner air for Europe, which sets a limit for levels of lead in air throughout the EU. These limit values are being revised. Levels of lead in water are also controlled in a number of directives relating to water depending on its type and use, e.g. water intended for human consumption, water for bathing, fishing waters and on material in contact with food and drinking water. Specifically, lead is identified as a priority substance in Annex X to Directive 2000/60/EC establishing a framework for Community action in the field of water policy.

1.4.2 Tin

1.4.2.1 General information

Tin is one of the world's most ancient metals with references to its use dating back to 3500 BC. Of the different tin-bearing minerals found in the earth's crust, only cassiterite (SnO_2) is of importance. Cassiterite occurs both in deep hard rock mines and in shallow alluvial deposits and can be mined relatively easily, using industrial methods or basic and simple tools. Unlike many other metals, mining of cassiterite is carried out by artisanal and small mines, as well as by larger scale producers.

Tin is a soft, pliable metal easily adaptable to cold working by rolling, extrusion and spinning. It readily forms alloys with other metals, imparting hardness and strength. Because of its amphoteric nature, tin reacts with strong acids and strong bases but remains relatively resistant to neutral solutions.

The major uses for tin in 2011 were: solder, 52 %; tinfoil, 17 %; tin chemicals, 15 %; and other, 16 % [294, ITRI 2012]. In most cases, tin is used on or in a manufactured material in small amounts. Tin is used in various industrial applications in cast and wrought forms obtained by rolling, drawing, extrusion, atomising and casting; tinfoil, e.g. low-carbon steel sheets or strips rolled to 0.15–0.25 mm thick and thinly coated with pure tin; tin coatings and tin alloy coatings applied to fabricated articles (as opposed to sheets or strips) of steel, cast iron, copper, copper-base alloys, and aluminium; tin alloys; and tin compounds.

1.4.2.2 Sources of material

About 253 000 tonnes of tin were mined in 2011, mostly in China (110 000 t), Indonesia (51 000 t), Peru (34 600 t), Bolivia (20 700 t) and Brazil (12 000 t) [294, ITRI 2012]. Secondary or scrap tin is also an important source of the metal. The recovery of tin through secondary production, or recycling of scrap tin, is increasing rapidly.

Taking into account the reuse of recovered tin alloys, notably solders, brass and bronzes and lead alloys, secondary materials contribute to over 30 % of total tin use in any typical year. These alloys can be reused without the need for re-refining to pure tin. However, there has also been recent growth in secondary re-refined tin production which has exceeded 50 000 tonnes per year, equivalent to around 16–17 % of total refined metal production, and amounted to over 65 000 tonnes in 2011.

Alloy scrap containing tin is handled by secondary smelters as part of their production of primary metals and alloys; lead refineries accept solder, tin drosses, babbitt, and type metal. This type of scrap is remelted, impurities such as iron, copper, antimony and zinc are removed, and the scrap is returned to the market as binary or ternary alloy. The dross obtained by cleaning up the scrap metal is returned to the primary refining process.

1.4.2.3 Production and use

Spain and Portugal are the only EU-28 countries that produce mined tin, and even then only in minor quantities. Table 1.9 gives an overview of the quantity of tin extracted from mines worldwide.

Table 1.9: Annual world production of tin (mined) in 2006 and 2012

Country	Production of tin (tonnes of tin content in the ore)	
	2006	2012
Australia	2783	6158
Bolivia	17 669	19 700
Brazil	9528	10 800
Burma	900	700
Burundi	44	69
China	126 300	115 900
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5485	2462
Indonesia	80 933	91 000
Laos	600	965
Malaysia	2398	3726
Niger	13	0
Nigeria	1400	1800
Peru	38 470	26 105
Portugal	25	42
Russia	2600	600
Rwanda	3013	3500
Spain	0	69
Thailand	225	199
Vietnam	5400	5400
<i>Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]</i>		

1.4.2.4 Production sites

Regarding smelter tin production, Belgium is the only EU-28 producer, with a world share of 3.5 %. Table 1.10 gives an overview of smelter tin production worldwide.

Table 1.10: Annual world production of tin (smelter) in 2006 and 2012

Country	Production of tin (tonnes)	
	2006	2012
Australia	572	0
Belgium	8000	11 400
Bolivia	14 089	14 300
Brazil	8780	9600
China	132 100	148 100
Indonesia	65 357	50 000
Japan	854	1133
Malaysia	22 850	37 822
Peru	40 495	24 811
Russia	3700	1400
Thailand	27 540	19 996
Vietnam	2665	4000

Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]

1.4.2.5 Key environmental issues

The melting point of tin (232 °C) is low compared with those of the common structural metals, whereas the boiling point (2625 °C) exceeds that of most metals except tungsten and the platinum group. Loss by volatilisation during melting and alloying with other metals is insignificant. Tin oxide is insoluble and the ore strongly resists weathering so the amount of tin in soils and natural waters is low. The concentrations in soils are in the 1–4 ppm range but some soils have less than 0.1 ppm and others such as peat have 300 ppm [295, Gaver C. Jr 2013]. Tin as single atoms or molecules is not very toxic to organisms; the toxic form is the organic form. Organic tin compounds can stay in the environment for long periods of time. Organic tin can spread through water and can cause harm to aquatic ecosystems. They are very toxic to fungi, algae and phytoplankton.

1.5 Zinc and cadmium

1.5.1 Zinc

1.5.1.1 General information

Zinc [35, COM 1997], [117, Krüger, J. 1999] has the third highest usage of the non-ferrous metals, behind aluminium and copper. It has a relatively low melting point and is used in the production of a number of alloys such as brass. It can be easily applied to the surface of other metals such as steel (galvanising) and, when it is used as a metal coating, zinc corrodes preferentially as a sacrificial coating. Zinc is also used in the pharmaceutical, nutrient, construction, battery and chemical industries. See Table 1.11.

Table 1.11: World and European uses of zinc

Commercial use of zinc	Worldwide 1995 (%)	Worldwide 2000 (%)	Worldwide 2005 (%)	Europe 2005 (%)
Galvanising	47.9	48.6	51.4	44.4
Zinc alloying	12.9	15.7	16.4	14.5
Brass and bronze	20.7	19.3	17.0	20.4
Zinc semi-finished products	6.5	6.2	5.7	12.6
Chemicals	8.5	7.0	6.1	6.5
Zinc dust or powder	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2
Miscellaneous	3.1	3.0	1.4	1.4
<i>Source:</i> [229, IZA plant data 2008]				

Zinc is supplied to the market in various qualities, the highest quality being special high-grade (SHG) or Z1 which contains 99.995 % zinc while the lowest quality good ordinary brand (GOB) or Z5 is about 98 % pure. The sector produces extrusion products such as bars, rods and wires (mainly brass); rolling products such as sheets and strips; casting alloys; and powders and chemical compounds, such as oxides (see Table 1.12 and Table 1.13).

Table 1.12: Primary zinc grades

Grade classification	Colour code	Nominal zinc content	1 Pb max.	2 Cd max.	3 Fe max.	4 Sn max.	5 Cu max.	6 Al max.	Total of 1 to 6 max.
Z1	White	99.995	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.005
Z2	Yellow	99.99	0.005	0.003	0.003	0.001	0.002	-	0.01
Z3	Green	99.95	0.03	0.005	0.02	0.001	0.002	-	0.05
Z4	Blue	99.5	0.45	0.005	0.05	-	-	-	0.5
Z5	Black	98.5	1.4	0.005	0.05	-	-	-	1.5
<i>Source:</i> [1, CEN 2003]									

Table 1.13: Secondary zinc grades

Grade	Nominal zinc content	1 Pb max.	2 Cd max.	3 Fe max.	4 Sn max.	5 Cu max.	6 Al max.	Total of 1 to 6 max.	Remarks
ZSA	98.5	1.3	0.02	0.05	- ⁽¹⁾	-	0.05	1.5	Obtained mainly by zinc-bearing process scrap (e.g. Zn ashes)
ZS1	98.0	1.3	0.04	0.05	0.7 ⁽¹⁾	-	0.1	2.0 ⁽²⁾ 1.5	Obtained mainly by recycling of scrap
ZS2	97.5	1.5	0.05	0.12	0.7 ⁽¹⁾	-	-	2.5 ⁽²⁾ 2.0	Also used products

⁽¹⁾ Sn max. 0.3 % for brass making.
⁽²⁾ For galvanising applications, EN ISO 1461: zinc bath must contain less than 1.5 % alloying elements (excluding Fe & Sn) and 2.0 % (including Fe & Sn).
Source: [1, CEN 2003.]

End uses include a wide range of applications, the most important being steel protection against rust for the automobile, appliance and building industries. Zinc alloys (e.g. brass, bronze, die-casting alloys) and zinc semis are respectively the second and third major consumption areas with applications also in the building, appliance and car industries.

1.5.1.2 Sources of materials

Metal is produced from a range of zinc concentrates by pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical processes. Some concentrates contain high proportions of lead and these metals are also recovered. Zinc is also associated with cadmium and the concentrates are a source of this metal.

EU concentrates used to meet more than 45 % of the EU refinery demand towards the end of the 1980s. This fell to 25 % over the next decade. After the accession of 12 new Member States (2004), EU concentrates accounted for 38 % of the demand. The deficit is filled by increased imports, as mine production capacity is increasing in North America, Australia and some South American countries.

Secondary raw materials such as galvanising residues (ashes, skimmings, sludges, etc.), and recycled products (e.g. Waelz oxide) from zinc-containing residues (e.g. flue-dust from steel plants) are used. Brass processing and die-casting scrap, and end-of-life roofing products are also sources of zinc. Metal production from secondary sources accounted for more than 8 % of the total EU refined zinc output in 1994. The recycling of zinc and zinc products is a key issue for the industry.

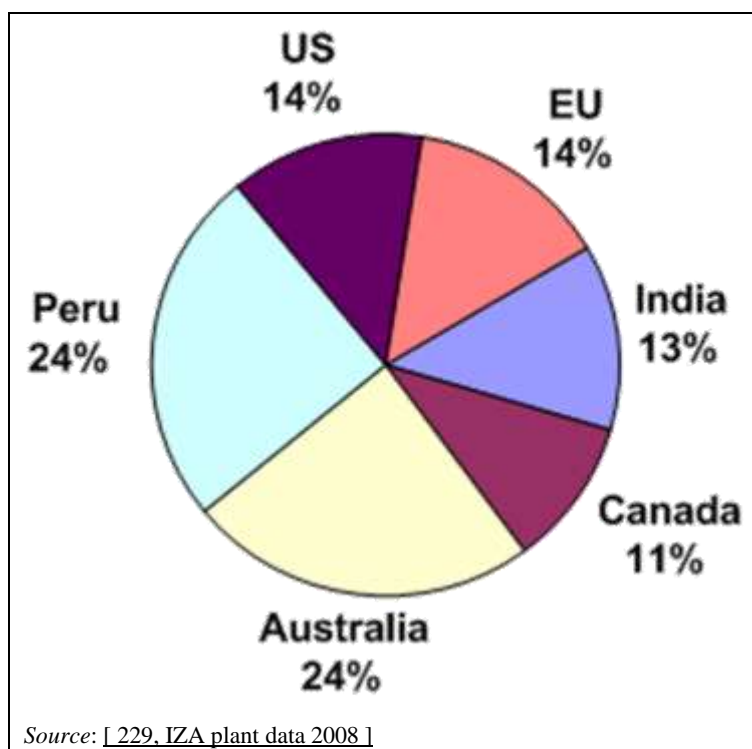
1.5.1.3 Production and use

The EU mine output is essentially accounted for by Ireland, Sweden and Poland and was 818 000 tonnes of zinc concentrates in 2007. This increase from 400 000 tonnes in 1998 is a result of process optimisation, opening of new mining operations and the accession of Poland. Metal production stepped back below the 1.8 million tonnes mark which it had overstepped in 1992, while consumption of refined zinc increased from 1 640 000 tonnes to 1 770 000 tonnes, accounting for 30 % of the demand for zinc in the market economy countries. See Table 1.14, Table 1.15 and Figure 1.5.

Table 1.14: World production of zinc concentrates in 2007

	Production in 1995 (kt)	Production in 2000 (kt)	Production in 2005 (kt)	Production in 2007 (kt)
India	NA	NA	NA	745
Canada	1121	1002	667	619
Australia	882	1380	1329	1402
Peru	692	910	1202	1444
US	644	852	748	787
EU	555	676	841	818

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [229, IZA plant data 2008]

**Figure 1.5: World production of zinc from concentrates in 2007 excluding China**

After China, the EU stands as the second in the world for zinc production, far ahead of Canada and Japan, which rank third and fourth, respectively. In 2007, EU output was recorded at 2 160 000 tonnes of primary metal production, accounting for nearly 20 % of the market economy total of 11 million tonnes. Also after China, the EU is the major consumer area for zinc among the market economy countries. The 2 500 000 tonnes of zinc consumed in 2007 was 30 % below the reported Chinese market and more than double the third largest consumer market, the US.

Table 1.15: World production of refined zinc

	Production in 1995 (kt)	Production in 2000 (kt)	Production in 2005 (kt)	Production in 2007 (kt)
China	NA	NA	NA	3700
EU	1999	2016	2034	2160
Canada	720	780	724	802
India	NA	NA	NA	745
Japan	664	654	638	598
US	363	371	350	266
Australia	322	494	457	502
CIS	410	538	608	668

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [229, IZA plant data 2008]

1.5.1.4 Production sites

Primary zinc is essentially produced by roast-leach-electrowin (RLE) processes and by the Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF) distillation process. Table 1.16 shows the location and capacities of the sites in Europe.

Table 1.16: Production of zinc in Europe from primary raw materials in 2007

Country	Company	Location	Process	Capacity (t/yr)
Belgium	Nyrstar	Balen-Overpelt	RLE	260 000
Bulgaria	KCM OCK	Plovdiv	RLE	75 000
		Kardjali	RLE	45 000
Finland	Boliden	Kokkola	RLE	305 000
France	Nyrstar	Auby	RLE	130 000
Germany	Ruhr-Zink ⁽¹⁾ Xstrata	Datteln	RLE	150 000
		Nordenham	RLE	140 000
Italy	Glencore	Portovesme (Sardinia)	RLE	100 000
Netherlands	Nyrstar	Budel-Dorplein	RLE	240 000
Norway	Boliden	Odda	RLE	165 000
Poland	ZGH Bolesław HC Miasteczko Slaskie	Bolesław	RLE	90 000
		Miasteczko	ISF	80 000
Romania	Mytilineos	Copsa Mica	ISF	45 000
Spain	Xstrata Española del Zinc	San Juan de Nieva	RLE	490 000
		Cartagena	RLE	NA

⁽¹⁾ Ruhr-Zink ceased operation on 31.12.2008.
NB:
RLE: Roast-leach-electrowin.
ISF: Imperial Smelting Furnace.
NA = Not available.
Source: [229, IZA plant data 2008]

Zinc is recycled from end-of-life products such as sheets, brass and die-casting parts which are remelted and reused. It is also recycled from the remelting of scrap steel in electric arc furnaces (EAF) where the zinc is fumed and captured with the flue-dust and recovered in specialised facilities.

Table 1.17 shows the location and capacities of the sites in Europe.

Table 1.17: Recycling units for zinc from end-of-life products in the EU (2007)

Country	Company	Location	Process	Average production as Zn (kt/yr)
Bulgaria	KCM	Plovdiv	Waelz	20
France	Arcelor-Mittal Recytech	Isbergues	MHF ⁽¹⁾	20
		Fouquières	Waelz	25
Germany	Befesa	Duisburg	Waelz	20
	Befesa	Freiberg	Waelz	45
	Recylex	Gosslar	Waelz	15
Italy	Pontenossa, SpA Glencore	Pontenossa	Waelz	20
		Portovesme	Waelz	20
Luxemburg	Arcelor-Mittal	Waiver	MHF ⁽¹⁾	25
Norway	Eras Metal	Hoyanger	Plasma	15
Poland	Boleslaw recycling	Boleslaw	Waelz	25
Spain	Befesa	Bilbao	Waelz	35

⁽¹⁾ MHF: Multiple hearth furnace.
Source: [229, IZA plant data 2008]

1.5.1.5 Key environmental issues

Historically, the major environmental problem associated with the production of zinc from primary sources was the emission of sulphur dioxide to air from the roasting and smelting of sulphidic concentrates. This problem has been effectively solved by the EU smelters which now achieve a high fixation of the sulphur and produce sulphuric acid and liquid sulphur dioxide.

The leaching of calcine and other material produces liquor that contains iron. The removal of iron results in the production of significant quantities of solid waste that contain a variety of metals. The disposal of this waste requires a very high standard of containment and monitoring.

Diffuse emissions from roasting and calcining are also very important and need to be considered for all of the process stages. The diffuse emissions of acid mists from the electrowinning of zinc are a particular example of this.

Zinc and zinc products can be largely recycled. Estimates based on historical consumption and product life cycles indicate that a recovery rate of 80 % of recoverable zinc has been reached. The recycling system for zinc is far advanced, not only for zinc metal but also for several different forms.

1.5.2 Cadmium

1.5.2.1 General information

Cadmium belongs to the zinc subgroup of the periodic table and was discovered by Friedrich Strohmeyer in 1817 during an investigation into $ZnCO_3$. It is associated with zinc in minerals at a ratio of 1:300 Cd to Zn. It is physically similar to zinc but is softer and denser and can be polished. Unlike zinc, it is resistant to alkalis. Cadmium is also a good absorber of neutrons and is therefore often used in nuclear reactors. In its compounds it has an oxidation state of 2+. Cadmium is distributed worldwide with a content between 0.1 ppm and 1 ppm in the topsoil.

1.5.2.2 Source of materials

There are only a few cadmium-specific minerals, such as greenockite (CdS) or otavite ($CdCO_3$) and CdO . None of these minerals are industrially important. Zinc minerals which contain

cadmium as an isomorphic component at concentrations of about 0.2 % have economic significance for cadmium recovery. In addition, lead and copper ores may contain small amounts of cadmium.

1.5.2.3 Production and use

Unlike other metals, cadmium has been refined and utilised only relatively recently; production and use have arisen only during the last 50 to 60 years. The main uses today are:

- electroplated cadmium coatings;
- nickel-cadmium batteries;
- some pigments and stabilisers for plastics;
- alloys for specialised thermal and electrical conductivity applications, electrical contact alloys and nuclear control rods;
- small amounts are used for solar cells.

Since 1988, global cadmium production has decreased fairly constantly from 20 000 t/yr to 18 000 t/yr. The use of cadmium in various applications has varied since 1970 and has been affected by technical, economic and environmental factors. This has influenced the metal prices. Metal prices in the 1970s reached USD 3 per lb, and in the 1980s varied between USD 1.1 and USD 6.9 per lb. Since that time the cadmium price has fallen to USD 1 per lb and even went as low as USD 0.45 per lb, which is equivalent to the zinc price level.

The main cadmium producer and user countries are shown in Table 1.18.

Table 1.18: Main cadmium producers and users in 2007

Country	Production (t/yr) (Cd and Cd compounds)	Use (t/yr) (Cd and Cd compounds)
Korea	3704	100
China	3000	5407
Canada	1388	107
Japan	1934	2210
Belgium	0	4799 (as CdO)
Mexico	1584	140
United States	700	441
Germany	575	666
France	300	268

Cadmium is recovered:

- from pyrometallurgical Pb-Cu recovery from the flue-dust from the smelting operation;
- from pyrometallurgical Pb-Zn recovery from the flue-dust from the sinter/roast operation and from crude zinc;
- from hydrometallurgical extraction from zinc in the cadmium cementate produced in electrolyte purification.

Flue-dusts are generally leached with H₂SO₄ to separate the cadmium which is afterwards precipitated as CdCO₃ or reduced to cadmium sponge with more than 90 % cadmium. The sponge may be either smelted under NaOH and vacuum distilled, or dissolved and electrolysed.

Crude zinc may be distilled in New Jersey columns to produce pure zinc and a Cd-Zn alloy with more than 60 % cadmium. The Cd-Zn alloy from the New Jersey distillation operation is distilled twice before pure cadmium is produced.

Cements are usually dissolved and electrolysed to produce cadmium of a high purity (≥ 99.99 % cadmium).

1.5.2.4 Production sites

In the 1990s, several EU operations ceased activity. Cadmium is still extracted from the main zinc processes under controlled conditions and the residue is safely deposited according to the waste legislation. Recycling takes place, but very few companies take part. Mainly, used batteries are recycled to recover cadmium and nickel (see Table 1.19).

Table 1.19: Main European primary and secondary cadmium producers in 2007

Country	Company	Location	Process	Capacity (t/yr)
Bulgaria	KCM	Plovdiv	RLE	320
	OCK	Kardjali		100
France	SNAM	Viviez	Recycling	300
Germany	Xstrata	Nordenham	RLE	475
	Accurec	Mülheim	Recycling	100
Italy	Glencore	Portovesme	RLE	450
Netherlands	Nyrstar	Budel	RLE	575
Norway	Boliden	Odda	RLE	100
Poland	H.C. Miasteczko Sl.	Miasteczko Slą	ISF	350
Sweden	SAFT	Oskarshamn	Recycling	300
Romania	Mytilneos	Copsa Mica	ISF	100

1.5.2.5 Key environmental issues

The status of legislation of cadmium compounds has a significant impact on emissions. The level of cadmium in the atmosphere is limited by Directive 2004/107/EC relating to arsenic, cadmium, mercury, nickel and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in ambient air. Cadmium is also identified as a priority hazardous substance in Annex X to Directive 2000/60/EC establishing a framework for Community action in the field of water policy.

A typical zinc production process can produce 600 t/yr of cadmium. Cadmium production is closely controlled to prevent diffuse emissions and remove dust to a very high standard. Less than 2 % of the exposure of the general population to cadmium is due to emissions to the environment from cadmium-bearing products in their total life cycle.

In many applications, cadmium alloys are essential and cannot be substituted with other materials. Similarly the use of cadmium in rechargeable batteries can also be an environmental benefit.

The critical effect of cadmium in human beings is renal tubular dysfunction. The tubular damage is irreversible at advanced stages, so prevention is more important than diagnosis. The long biological half-life of cadmium can lead to a continuous increase in renal levels over many years and so past exposure is often more important than present exposure. In that perspective, most of the EU operations apply risk prevention and risk management measures contained in the EMI/CdA guidance document updated in 2006.

1.6 Precious metals

1.6.1 General information

Precious metals [35, COM 1997] include such well-known metals as gold and silver as well as the six platinum group metals (PGMs): platinum, palladium, rhodium, iridium, ruthenium and osmium. They are termed precious metals because of their rarity and intrinsic value.

The EU has the largest refining and fabricating capacity for precious metals in the world, even though its actual mineral resources of such metals are limited. The recycling of precious metals from scrap and industrial residues has always been an important raw material source for the EU precious metals industry.

Consumption of gold in the EU is mainly for jewellery, with smaller amounts used in electronics and other industrial and decorative applications. The principal users of silver are industrial applications (47 %), with the photographic and jewellery industries accounting for 6 % and 15 % respectively. The platinum group metals are used extensively as catalysts and the imposition of emission limits on vehicles sold in the EU has stimulated demand for their use in catalytic converters.

1.6.2 Sources of materials

Mines in all parts of the world consign large quantities of precious metals, in crude ore or by-product forms, to EU refineries. Refineries with significant precious metal capacities are found in Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Finland and the United Kingdom. Bulgaria, Poland and Romania have considerable mining activities either in precious metals or base metals with precious metal content. These activities typically recover precious metals from lead and zinc, copper or nickel ores, as well as low-grade scrap materials of all kinds, and they supply the pure metals in bars or plates, grain or sponge.

There are small deposits of precious metal ores in Europe; Table 1.20 shows the mine production in 2005 and 2012. Poland is the world's second largest producer of silver after Mexico. These resources account for approximately 25 % of the world's primary silver, 1.1 % of the world's primary gold and 0.08 % of the world's primary PGMs. Deposits of gold are being developed in Greece and their contribution will be significant in years to come.

Table 1.20: Precious metal mine production in 2005 and 2012

Country	Silver (t) 2005	Silver (t) 2012	Gold (t) 2005	Gold (t) 2012	PGMs (t) 2005	PGMs (t) 2012
Finland	15.0	128.2	0.5	10.8	0.1	0
France	1.0	NR	3.5	NR	NR	NR
Greece	25	31	NR	NR	NR	NR
Ireland	4.0	9.4	NR	NR	NR	NR
Italy	5.0	0	NR	NR	NR	NR
Poland	1244	1149	0.71	0.92	0.07	0.05
Portugal	24	29.9	NR	NR	NR	NR
Romania	20	18	0.5	0.5	0.01	NR
Spain	5.0	32.6	5.4	1.3	NR	NR
Sweden	268	309.3	6.3	6.0	NR	NR

NB: NR = Not reported.
Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]

Europe has a number of companies that specialise in the collection, preprocessing and trading of scrap and secondary materials before the actual assay and refining stages take place. Typical items are discarded catalysts, printed circuit boards, obsolete computers, old photographic film, X-ray plates and solutions, spent electroplating baths, etc.

1.6.3 Production and use

The cost of recovery and recycling is more than justified by the high intrinsic value of the precious metals contained in these scrap and residues. It is not just the economic aspects that encourage the recycling of precious metals but also the environmental issues where stricter limits on the tolerable metal content of waste materials sent for dumping are being set.

The refining of gold, silver and the platinum group metals in the EU takes place either at specialist precious metal refining and fabricating companies or at base metal refineries. The total precious metal refining capacity of the EU firms is the largest in the world (see Table 1.21).

Table 1.21: Annual capacities of European refineries in 2006

Country	Silver (t/yr)	Gold (t/yr)	PGMs (t/yr)
Austria	190	70	1
Belgium	2440	60	45
France	1520	135	12
Germany	2700	193	92
Italy	1050	115	15
Netherlands	130	15	1
Poland	1500	3	0
Spain	830	30	5
Sweden	250	15	1
UK	2320	300	100
Switzerland	620	565	14
Other EU countries	50	10	5

The refinery capacity is approximately double the amount actually processed so a rapid turnaround of processed metal can be maintained.

Most of the precious metals are fairly easily fabricated either as pure metals or as alloys. Gold and silver in particular are usually turned into specific alloys for jewellery or dental purposes in order to improve wear resistance or colour. Because of the high intrinsic value and the wide range of forms and alloys required, such metals are usually fabricated or processed in relatively small quantities compared with base metals. One of the few precious metal products manufactured in tonnage quantities is silver nitrate for the photographic industry.

European demand for precious metals is high. The jewellery trade has the highest consumption of gold, and the industrial applications of silver. The highest consumption of platinum is in the production of auto catalysts. Other principal uses are in chemicals, dentistry and investment such as coinage. The demand in 2006 for precious metals is shown in Table 1.22 below.

Table 1.22: Precious metal demand in 2006

Total demand	Silver (t/yr)	Gold (t/yr)	PGMs (t/yr)
European	5710	881	85
World	26142	3692	488

1.6.4 Production sites

The principal precious metals refiners and fabricators of the EU operate on an international scale and are world leaders in their field. Prominent names are Umicore and Heraeus in Germany and Johnson Matthey and Vale in the United Kingdom. The US precious metals firm, Engelhard Corporation, operated in the EU for a number of years. The catalyst manufacturing and refining sites of Engelhard were acquired by BASF in 2008.

Major EU base metal refiners with significant precious metal involvement include Umicore in Belgium, Aurubis in Germany, Norilsk Nickel in Finland, KGHM Polska Miedź in Poland and New Boliden in Sweden.

1.6.5 Environmental issues

The EU precious metal refineries form a technically advanced, high-performance industry that is very strongly focused on research and development. The processes often use hazardous reagents such as HCl, HNO₃, Cl₂ and organic solvents. Advanced processing techniques are used to contain these materials and the small scale of production allows these techniques to be used effectively to minimise and abate potential emissions. This encompasses not merely new uses for the precious metals but also the discovery of techniques for economising the quantities of precious metals used in existing applications. The raw materials are subject to intensive sampling and assay and any process wastes are analysed to the same standard.

The recovery of these metals from secondary raw materials is particularly important and many of these materials are classified as wastes by other industries.

1.7 Ferro-alloys

1.7.1 General information

Ferro-alloys are master alloys that contain some iron and one or more non-ferrous metals as alloying elements. Silicon metal is produced in the same metallurgical process as ferro-silicon and is therefore considered a ferro-alloy. Ferro-alloys are used as deoxidising elements in steelmaking and enable alloying elements such as chromium, silicon, manganese, nickel, vanadium and molybdenum to be safely and economically introduced into metallurgical processes, thus giving certain desirable properties to the alloyed metal, for instance increased corrosion resistance, hardness or wear resistance.

The importance of ferro-alloys increased with the progress of steel metallurgy, which demanded diversified alloying elements to achieve better controlled quantities in purer and more advanced steel qualities. The ferro-alloy industry became a key supplier to the steel industry.

Silicon metal is used as an alloying element in aluminium and in the chemical and electronic industries, solar cells, etc.

Ferro-alloys are usually classified in two groups:

- bulk ferro-alloys (ferro-chrome, ferro-silicon together with silicon metal, ferro-manganese, silico-manganese and ferro-nickel), which are produced in large quantities in electric arc furnaces;
- special ferro-alloys (ferro-titanium, ferro-vanadium, ferro-tungsten, ferro-niobium, ferro-molybdenum, ferro-boron, alloyed or refined ferro-silicon, silicon metal and ternary/quaternary alloys) which are produced in smaller quantities, but with growing importance.

Bulk ferro-alloys are used mainly in steelmaking and steel or iron foundries. The uses of special ferro-alloys are far more varied, and the proportion used in steelmaking has diminished over recent years in favour of those used in the aluminium and chemical industries, especially silicon products.

1.7.2 Sources of materials

The raw materials (alloying elements) for the production of ferro-alloys are either the main products (quartzite for silicon, chromite for chrome, matte for nickel, etc.) or the by-products of mining (molybdenite from copper mining). Of course, the two sources can exist simultaneously. In most cases for FeCr and FeMn production, the iron part is also received from ore and no iron is added.

The raw materials can also be recovered from scrap, which is most often the case for the iron share of the composition, which comes from iron and steel scrap, but also for the alloying element itself, titanium for example. Residues from steel mills like electric arc furnace and converter filter dust, as well as shot blasting and grinding dust, are important secondary raw materials which have increasing significance. The main raw material sources and mineral deposits for the alloying elements are given below.

- Chromite is mostly concentrated in two large deposits, which are located in South Africa and Kazakhstan. Smaller deposits are found in other places such as India, Brazil and Europe (Finland, Turkey, Albania and Greece).
- Raw material for producing ferro-silicon and silicon metal is available everywhere in the world, although not all sources allow the production, under acceptable economic and quality conditions, of all the ranges of silicon alloys.

- Ore that contains manganese is mainly found in South Africa, Ukraine, Gabon and Australia. Smaller occurrences are found in Brazil, India, Mexico and Myanmar. The quality (content of manganese and level/nature of the impurities) of the ore can greatly influence the economics of the ferro-alloy production.
- Ore that contains nickel is mainly found in Australia, New Caledonia, Indonesia, the Philippines, China, Brazil, Colombia, Canada, Kazakhstan, Russia and Africa. The concentration of nickel in the ore has a significant bearing on the type of metallurgical process used, which in turn influences the economics of production.
- The special alloying elements are very often concentrated in a few countries (molybdenum in North America, Chile and China; niobium in Brazil) and prices and availability are very sensitive to economic conditions.
- Rich slags are also a significant raw material and come from FeMn processes and battery recovery.

1.7.3 Production and use

Since around 1978, the ferro-alloy market has changed significantly worldwide. Consumption in developing countries has vastly increased with the development of their steel production industries, and they have now taken over an increasing share of the traditional markets of the industrialised countries, where steel production was stagnant or growing at a slow rate. The EU ferro-alloy industry is hence facing a growing proportion of imports, at first from the new industrialised countries and in recent years from the countries of eastern Europe, the CIS and China.

As a consequence, EU ferro-alloy production has been subject to challenging competition that has resulted in a decreasing trend of the total amount of ferro-alloys produced in the EU. The actual total European production of bulk ferro-alloys split into the different alloys and the countries where they are being produced can be seen in Table 1.23. While global production of ferro-alloys increased between 2003 and 2007 from 22.6 million tonnes to 31.8 million tonnes (see Table 1.24) European ferro-alloy production decreased from 3 billion tonnes to 2.1 million tonnes. The leading ferro-alloy producing countries in 2007 were, in descending order of production, China, South Africa, Ukraine, Russia and Kazakhstan. These countries account for 78 % of world ferro-alloy production.

The last European blast furnace used for bulk ferro-alloys production was closed in 2003 and now all bulk ferro-alloys in Europe are produced in electric arc furnaces.

Table 1.23: European production of bulk ferro-alloys from 2006 to 2012 in tonnes per year

Country	Sub-commodity	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Austria	Ferro-molybdenum	5000	5000	5000	4500	4000	4000	4000	4000
	Ferro-nickel ⁽¹⁾	2500	2500	3000	2000	2500	2500	2500	2500
	Ferro-vanadium	6250	6250	6500	6300	6200	8000	8000	8000
Bulgaria	Ferro-silicon	10 000	10 000	10 000	6000	3000	0	0	0
Czech Republic	Ferro-vanadium	2600	2800	1700	2800	1900	3400	4600	5700
Finland	Ferro-chrome	234 881	243 350	241 760	233 550	123 310	238 000	231 000	229 000
France	Ferro-manganese	NA	NA	144 000	46 600	46 000	138 100	130 500	131 000
	Ferro-manganese & spiegeleisen	109 111	139 533	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Ferro-silico-manganese	52 300	63 300	65 400	60 200	54 100	62 400	63 400	64 000
	Ferro-silicon	67 000	34 000	31 000	30 000	18 300	27 000	59 000	60 000
	Silicon metal	100 000	100 000	120 000	118 000	80 000	112 000	128 000	130 000
Germany	Ferro-chrome	22 672	26 710	22 030	26 960	13 667	17 300	17 800	17 800
	Other ferro-alloys	25 400	24 100	5000	5000	6336	9200	9000	9000
	Silicon metal	29 349	29 865	29 379	29 092	27 620	30 105	30 134	28 574
Greece	Ferro-nickel	96 000	89 000	93 300	83 200	42 400	69 600	94 000	96 435
Iceland	Ferro-silicon	114 844	113 798	114 886	107 882	112 992	114 230	120 076	131 818
Italy	Ferro-manganese	32 000	30 000	30 000	30 000	20 000	25 000	25 000	27 000
	Ferro-silico-manganese	99 000	96 600	87 000	87 000	56 000	108 000	14 5000	110 000
Norway	Ferro-manganese	130 000	130 000	130 000	130 000	130 000	130 000	130 000	130 000
	Ferro-silico-manganese	288 137	325 708	293 699	273 485	247 615	281 266	248 700	266 000
	Ferro-silicon	329 316	123 819	170 024	185 344	233 974	200 000	170 102	203 886
	Other ferro-alloys	60 000	60 000	62 000	60 000	150 000	150 000	150 000	150 000
	Silicon metal	178 572	150 000	140 000	180 135	169 643	170 000	170 000	170 000
Poland	Ferro-manganese	7782	4089	2093	8475	1736	800	800	800
	Ferro-silico-manganese	10 242	3310	15 590	2 5061	72	100	400	200
	Ferro-silicon	65 118	13 034	58 538	56 031	9673	53 206	72 668	79 400
	Other ferro-alloys	3663	4488	6255	2948	4190	200	300	300
Romania	Ferro-chrome	0	0	0	6179	15 377	14 353	0	0
	Ferro-manganese	18 625	3777	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Ferro-silico-manganese	100 957	66 476	26 868	9979	0	20 605	30 000	30 000
Slovakia	Ferro-chrome	867	19	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Ferro-silico-manganese	47 843	59 128	71 587	59 940	32 000	34 960	25 036	50 089
	Ferro-silicon	16 512	16 155	8583	10 844	4600	26 419	32 304	32 726
	Other ferro-alloys	48 161	65 498	74 065	61 194	22 250	38 860	18 575	12 862
Slovenia	Ferro-silicon	15 529	12 550	6000	0	0	0	0	0
Spain	Ferro-manganese	35 000	148 000	155 000	161 000	60 100	134 000	108 000	108 000
	Ferro-silico-manganese	100 000	100 000	153 000	158 000	59 200	132 000	164 000	165 000
	Ferro-silicon	70 000	67 000	71 000	74 000	44 000	64 400	57 000	57 000
	Silicon metal	32 000	32 000	32 000	33 000	23 000	32 500	43 000	45 000
Sweden	Ferro-chrome	127 500	136 400	124 400	118 700	31 100	64 400	80 140	35 800
	Ferro-silicon	9800	4600	4300	0	0	0	0	0

NB: NA = Not available.

(¹) Austria stopped producing ferro-nickel in 2013.

Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]

Table 1.24: Global ferro-alloy production by furnace type and alloy type from 2003 to 2007 in tonnes per year (gross weight)

Furnace type	Alloy type	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Blast furnace	Ferro-manganese	899 000	826 000	648 000	764 000	774 000
	Spiegeleisen	12 000	12 000	12 000	12 000	12 000
	Other	104 000	104 000	63 500	63 500	83 500
Electric furnace	Ferro-chrome	6 070 000	6 590 000	6 910 000	7 340 000	8 370 000
	Ferro-chrome silicon	123 000	131 000	128 000	129 000	133 000
	Ferro-manganese	3 130 000	3 840 000	3 770 000	4 190 000	4 420 000
	Ferro-nickel	983 000	1 050 000	1 080 000	1 140 000	1 170 000
	Ferro-niobium (ferrocolumbium)	37 000	26 200	39 900	42 600	43 100
	Ferro-silicon	4 950 000	5 660 000	5 800 000	6 480 000	6 760 000
	Silico-manganese	4 620 000	6 020 000	6 080 000	6 930 000	7 310 000
	Silicon metal	703 000	760 000	811 000	628 000	641 000
	Other 27	1 000 000	1 360 000	2 330 000	4 100 000	4 630 000

Due to technical and metallurgical developments and changes in iron and steel production, the consumption pattern of ferro-alloys has also changed, especially in industrialised countries:

- carbon steel is increasingly produced in electric arc furnaces from scrap, which allows recovery of the alloying elements, reducing the relative consumption of ferro-alloys;
- more efficient carbon steel production (continuous casting, for example) and a more advanced metallurgy have led to a significant drop in the specific consumption of manganese (from 7 kg/tonne of steel to 5 kg/tonne in 20 years) and of ferro-silicon (from 5 kg/tonne of steel to 3.5 kg/tonne in 20 years);
- a growing need for metallurgically sophisticated alloying elements (niobium, molybdenum), and for treatment elements (calcium), has led to an increased consumption of special alloys;
- an increasing production of stainless steel has led to a significant increase in the consumption of chromium alloys (mainly high-carbon ferro-chrome).

Western European consumption has been more or less stagnant, around 4.2 million tonnes per year, and its production has fallen from 4 million tonnes to 3 million tonnes since 1988.

1.7.4 Production sites

There are a number of companies producing different ferro-alloys in about 60 industrial production sites in Europe. The largest European ferro-alloy producing countries are Norway for the production of bulk ferro-alloys and France and Spain especially for the production of manganese and silicon alloys. Finland is a major producer of ferro-chrome from a local chrome ore mine. In Sweden, mainly ferro-chrome and ferro-silicon are produced. Special ferro-alloys like ferro-molybdenum, ferro-vanadium and ferro-titanium are produced in Austria and Germany.

1.7.5 Key environmental issues

Production of ferro-alloys generally involves the use of electric arc furnaces and reaction crucibles into which natural products (e.g. quartz, lime, various ores, and wood) with relatively fluctuating physical compositions are loaded. For this reason, the main environmental impacts of producing ferro-alloys are the emissions of dust and fume from the smelting processes. Dust emissions also occur from the storage, handling and pretreatment of raw materials where diffuse dust emissions play an important role. Depending on the raw material and the process used, other emissions to air are SO₂, NO_x, CO, CO₂, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and metals such as Hg, As and Cr. The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the flue-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible [[226, Nordic Report 2008](#)].

Significant process residues and by-products are slag, filter dust and sludge and spent refractories. These materials are already recycled and reused to a large extent where possible. Rich slag, meaning slag with a relatively high proportion of metal oxides, is used as raw material in the production of other ferro-alloys. For instance, rich slag from the production of ferro-manganese is one of the most important raw materials for the production of silico-manganese. Waste water is generated from cooling, granulation and other processes.

The ferro-alloys industry, whose basic tool is an electric arc furnace in which metal oxides are reduced by carbon, is a major consumer of energy and a producer of carbon dioxide (CO₂). It has therefore always regarded the reduction of energy consumption as a vital priority. The laws of thermodynamics, which govern the reactions used, limit the possible reduction of energy necessary for the smelting process. The reduction of the overall energy consumption is therefore in most cases only possible using an efficient energy recovery system. The recovered energy can be transferred into electrical energy or used as heat for various purposes. CO-rich exhaust gas from closed furnaces can also be used as secondary fuel or as a raw material for chemical processes. The recovery of energy reduces the use of other natural energy resources and therefore the impact of global warming.

1.8 Nickel and cobalt

1.8.1 Nickel

1.8.1.1 General information

Nickel [35, COM 1997], [92, Laine, L. 1998] is a silver-white metal with typical metallic properties. Although it was only discovered as a metal in 1751 its alloys have been used for several centuries, e.g. the Chinese had been making 'white copper' which resembled silver in appearance. Between 1870 and 1880, nickel's use in alloy steels was demonstrated and electrolytic nickel plating was successfully developed.

The great importance of nickel lies in its ability, when alloyed with other elements, to increase a metal's strength, toughness and corrosion resistance over a wide temperature range. Nickel is therefore an extremely important commercial element. Given these beneficial properties, nickel is used in a wide variety of products. Most primary nickel is used in alloys; the most important of which is stainless steel. Other uses include electroplating, foundries, catalysts, batteries, coinage and other miscellaneous applications. Nickel is found in transportation products, electronic equipment, chemicals, construction materials, petroleum products, aircraft and aerospace parts and equipment, and durable consumer goods. Nickel is a vital metal for industrialised societies.

Chemically, nickel resembles iron and cobalt, as well as copper. Nickel can form several compounds, e.g. sulphate, chloride, oxide and hydroxide. One property of nickel is its ability to react directly with carbon monoxide to form a binary carbonyl complex that is volatile at ambient temperatures. At moderate temperatures, nickel is corrosion-resistant against air, seawater and non-oxidising acids. Another property of nickel is its corrosion resistance to alkalis. In contrast, nickel is attacked by aqueous ammonia solutions.

1.8.1.2 Sources of materials

Nickel is a naturally occurring element that exists in nature mainly in the form of sulphide, oxide and silicate minerals. The deposits are of two main types.

- Nickel sulphides often occur together with economically recoverable amounts of copper, cobalt, gold, silver, platinum group metals and several other metals. The most important occurrences are in Africa, Australia, Canada and Siberia.
- Nickel laterites are products of the weathering of ultra-basic rocks that originally contained very small amounts of nickel. Over time impurities are washed out of the deposits and nickel is present as a complex oxide of silicon, iron and magnesium. Cobalt and iron are commonly associated with nickel, but laterites do not contain other valuable constituents. The most important occurrences are in the tropical areas of Southeast Asia, Australia, New Caledonia, South America, the Caribbean Sea and the Balkans area especially Greece, which is the only source of nickel ore in Europe at the time of writing (2014).

The complex metallurgy of nickel is reflected in the wide range of extraction and refining processes in operation. Every plant presents a unique set of process features and environmental issues. The nickel content of sulphidic ores can usually be concentrated several times by relatively economical ore-dressing techniques before the concentrate is smelted and refined to nickel products.

Laterite ores, in contrast, are amenable to only limited beneficiation by physical methods, e.g. magnetic or heavy media techniques, and therefore almost the entire volume of ore must go directly to metallurgical plants. Thus, laterite processing tends to be more cost-intensive, but mining costs are usually much lower than for sulphidic ores. These differences, plus the

availability of by-product value, can have an important influence on the viability of a specific deposit and whether refined metal or ferro-nickel is produced from it.

1.8.1.3 Production and use

Nickel products can be divided into three groups based on the industry classification that is recognised internationally:

Class I - refined nickel, nickel content of 99 % or more. The group includes electrolytic nickel, pellets, briquettes, granules, rondelles and powder/flakes.

Class II - charge nickel, nickel content of less than 99 %. The group includes ferro-nickel, nickel oxide sinter and utility nickel.

Class III - chemicals: nickel oxides, sulphate, chloride, carbonate, acetate, hydroxide, etc.

Global primary nickel production in 2005 was approximately 1.3 million tonnes and the production capacity approximately 1.45 million tonnes. In Europe the production capacity was approximately 229 000 tonnes and the consumption was approximately 410 000 tonnes in 2005 (see Figure 1.6). The actual production in total from the sites given in Table 1.25 was around 279 000 tonnes in 2008 compared to 182 000 tonnes in 2000.

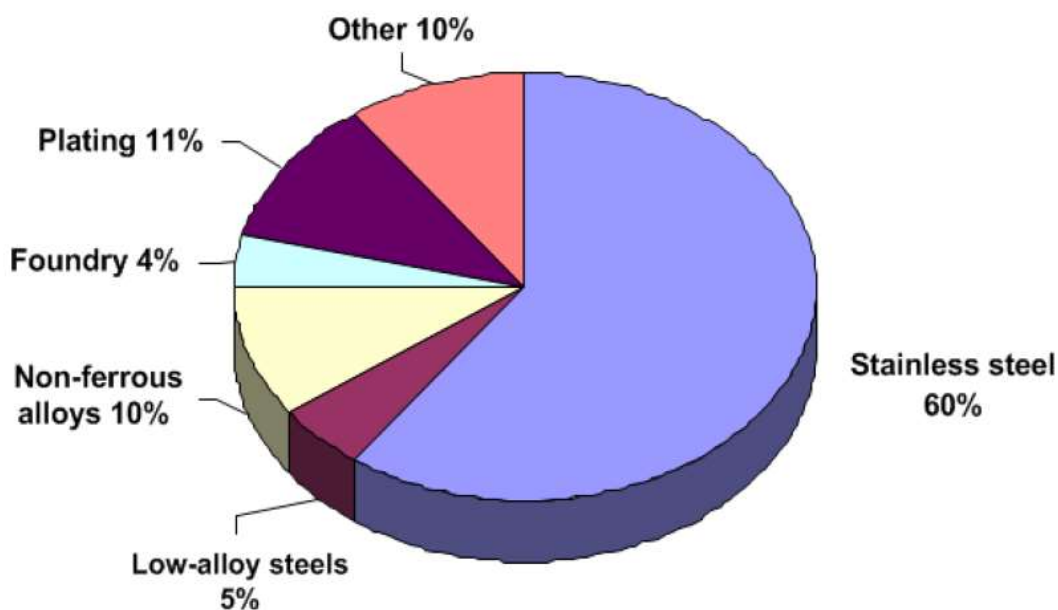


Figure 1.6: European uses of nickel in 2005

Growth in primary nickel use in western Europe between 1950 and 2005 (4.7 % yearly) exceeded the increase in global use but the rise since 2000 has been very subdued (slightly below 1 % yearly). The share of western Europe in global primary nickel use has been gradually declining, from its peak in 1998 (38 %) to 33 % in 2005.

1.8.1.4 Production sites

Table 1.25, Table 1.26 and Figure 1.7 show the production sites where nickel is produced in Europe (in 2013 it was reported that Treibacher is no longer producing nickel).

Table 1.25: Nickel production sites in Europe in 2006

Producer	Source of raw materials	Production capacity (t Ni/yr)	By-products
Boliden, Finland and Norilsk Nickel, Finland	Finland, Brazil and Australia	66 000	Cu precipitate Sulphuric acid Co sulphate solution Ni sulphate Ni hydroxycarbonate
Eramet, France	New Caledonia ⁽¹⁾	16 000	Cobalt chloride Ferric chloride
Xstrata, Norway	Canada and Botswana	86 000	Cu, Co, Sulphuric acid
Vale, United Kingdom	Canada ⁽¹⁾	41 000	Nickel metal
Treibacher, Austria	Secondary raw materials	< 1000	FeNi
Larco, Greece	Greece, Turkey	25 000	FeNi
Total		235 000	
⁽¹⁾ Nickel in matte.			

Table 1.26: European production of nickel from 2006 to 2012 in tonnes per year

Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Finland	47 469	55 000	51 963	41 556	49 772	49 823	46 275
France	13 700	14 800	13 700	13 900	14 400	13 700	14 500
Greece	17 700	18 668	16 640	8269	13 960	18 530	18 630
New Caledonia	48 723	44 954	37 467	38 230	39 802	40 513	43 030
Norway	82 257	87 600	88 700	88 577	92 185	92 000	92 000
United Kingdom	36 750	34 050	40 800	17 800	31 600	37 400	34 300
Total	247 499	255 972	249 770	209 032	242 719	252 966	249 735
NB: Data relate to refined nickel plus the nickel content of ferro-nickel, nickel oxide and nickel salts. Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]							

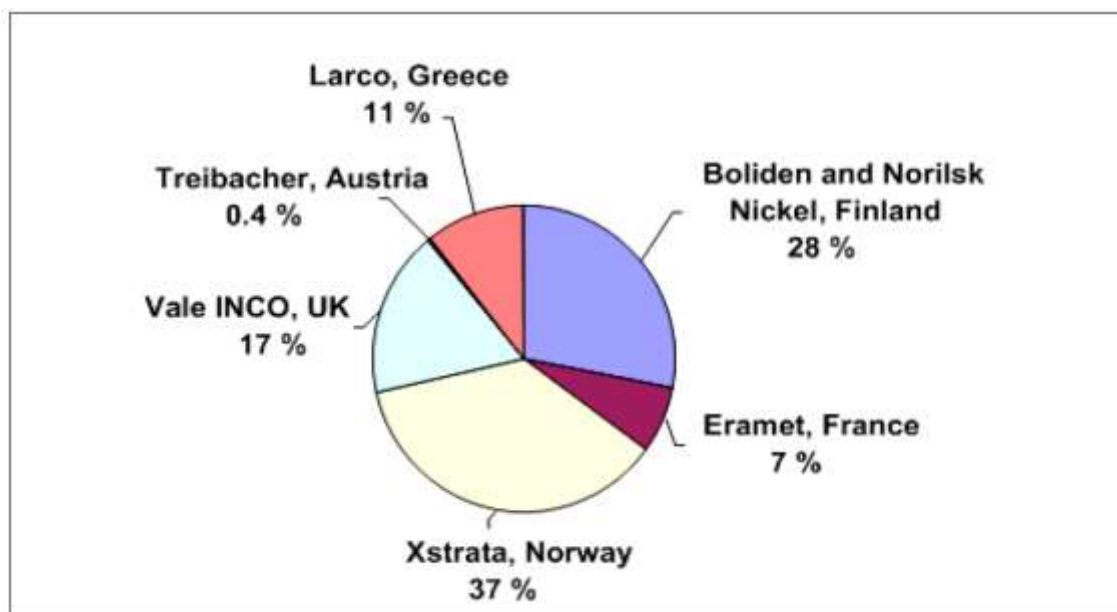


Figure 1.7: European nickel production in 2006

1.8.1.5 Key environmental issues

The emission of sulphur dioxide to air from the roasting and smelting of sulphidic concentrates is a potentially serious environmental issue. This problem has been effectively solved by the EU smelters which now achieve, on average, a 98.9 % fixation of the sulphur and produce sulphuric acid and liquid sulphur dioxide. Diffuse emissions of dust, metals and solvents are also an issue and need to be prevented or controlled. The use of chlorine in some processes is coupled with robust leak prevention measures and alarms.

The main environmental issues associated with the production of secondary nickel are also related to the exhaust gases from the various furnaces in use. These gases are cleaned in fabric filters and so can reduce the emissions of dust and metal compounds such as lead. There is also the potential for the formation of PCDD/F due to the presence of small amounts of chlorine in the secondary raw materials, and the destruction of PCDD/F is an issue that is being pursued.

Nickel is a sustainable commodity. Stainless steel and other nickel-bearing alloys are the primary sources of secondary nickel. It is estimated that around 80 % of the nickel produced is recycled from new and old stainless steel scrap and returns to that end use. Other nickel-bearing materials such as precipitates and residues are recycled to primary production.

In many applications, nickel alloys are essential and cannot be substituted with other materials. The use of nickel in applications where its strength, corrosion resistance, high conductivity, magnetic characteristics and catalytic properties are exploited is seen as a positive environmental benefit. Similarly the use of nickel in rechargeable batteries is also of environmental benefit.

The level of nickel in the atmosphere is limited by Directive 2004/107/EC relating to arsenic, cadmium, mercury, nickel and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in ambient air. Nickel is also identified as a priority substance in Annex X to Directive 2000/60/EC establishing a framework for Community action in the field of water policy.

1.8.2 Cobalt

1.8.2.1 General information

Cobalt [35, COM 1997], [92, Laine, L. 1998] is a silver-white metal with typical metallic properties and it was first isolated in 1735. Pure metallic cobalt has few applications, but its use as an alloying element for heat- or wear-resistant applications and as a source of chemicals makes it a strategically important metal.

Although very little cobalt metal was used until the 20th century, its ores have been used for thousands of years as blue colouring agents for glass and pottery, e.g. on Egyptian pottery around 2600 BC and on Chinese pottery around 700 AD. The use of cobalt as metal dates from 1907 when E. Haynes patented a series of cobalt-chromium alloys named stellites that were the forerunners of modern superalloys. The ability of cobalt to enhance the properties of permanent magnets was shown in 1930.

Cobalt is used in alloys including superalloys for aircraft engines, magnetic alloys for powerful permanent magnets, hard metal alloys for cutting tool materials, cemented carbides, wear- or corrosion-resistant alloys, and electro-deposited alloys to provide wear- and corrosion-resistant metal coatings. Its use in rechargeable batteries has been a fast-growing application over the last few years.

Cobalt chemicals are used in rechargeable batteries; as pigments in the glass, ceramics and paint industries; as catalysts in the petroleum industry; as paint dryers; and as trace metal additives for agricultural and medical use.

1.8.2.2 Sources of materials

From the beginning of the 20th century, the world's main supply of cobalt moved from Europe to Africa, Australia, Russia and Canada. Production in 2007 was around 60 000 t/yr.

Cobalt is produced mainly as a by-product of the mining and processing of copper and nickel ores. Silver, gold, lead and zinc ores may also contain considerable amounts of cobalt but their processing does not always lead to its recovery. The sources of ores are:

- the copper-cobalt deposits in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Zambia;
- the nickel sulphide ore bodies in Australia, Canada, Finland and Russia;
- the nickel oxide ore bodies in Cuba, New Caledonia, Australia and Russia.

Recovery from secondary sources can occur through the introduction of the recycled material at an appropriate stage in a primary refining or transformation process, depending on its technical and economical capabilities. Additional or pretreatment steps may be necessary. The final products can be cathodes, powders, oxides, salts or solutions.

Production comes from the following sources:

- nickel industry 43 %;
- copper industry & other 32 %;
- primary cobalt operations 25 %.

1.8.2.3 Production and use

Primary cobalt always occurs associated with other metals, particularly copper and nickel, and these are usually predominant. Depending on the feed material, several processes have been developed which can involve pyrometallurgical, as well as hydrometallurgical, steps. These steps produce either:

- a cobalt-rich solution in integrated plants;
- a cobalt-rich sulphide, hydroxide or carbonate if further refining is done elsewhere;
- a cobalt-rich alloy.

Further refining is hydrometallurgical although the final stage, the production of a commercial product, can be a high-temperature process; especially when the product is a powder and the refining activity is integrated into the transformation process. Worldwide production of refined cobalt in 2012 was approximately 77 505 tonnes.

Cobalt has a number of important applications which are summarised in Table 1.27.

Table 1.27: Breakdown of the total cobalt production to the different sectors of use

Uses	Breakdown of the total cobalt production
Batteries	25 %
Superalloys	22 %
Catalysts	9 %
Hard metals	12 %
Pigments	10 %
Tyre adhesives/ soaps/driers	6 %
Magnets	6 %
Others	10 %

The worldwide demand for cobalt in 2007 was around 55 500 t/yr and may be broken down on a regional basis as follows:

- Africa < 1 %;
- Asia 39 %;
- Europe 19 %;
- China 21 %;
- Americas 18 %;
- Oceania < 1 %;
- other 1 %.

The chemical sector is the largest consumer of cobalt accounting for about 50 % of total usage. The main application is in rechargeable batteries, a sector which has grown considerably in recent years. Other uses include cobalt for catalysts, paint/ink dryers, pigments and colours, electroplating, rubber adhesives, animal supplements and medical applications. Because cobalt confers both strength and surface stability to the metallic form, it plays an important part in superalloys, which account for about 22 % of cobalt consumption. These alloys are found in the turbine section of jet engines as they have properties which make them resistant to the conditions found in hostile environments, particularly when associated with heat and oxidation. Up until 2007, this was the largest single use sector for cobalt, but this has now been overtaken by rechargeable batteries. Cobalt is also used to produce industrial cutting tools (high-speed steels and diamond tools) and in special metallic applications where resistance to wear is required. Cobalt is also an important constituent in the special surgical alloys used to make

prosthetic hip and knee joints. The metal also has remarkable magnetic and paramagnetic qualities and is used in this application to a limited extent and also in magnetic tapes, though this application is now less important.

1.8.2.4 Production sites

Cobalt production is particularly associated with sites that produce nickel and also sites where copper is found. The most significant source of cobalt can be found in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Zambia. Significant cobalt abundance is also found in association with the nickel operations in Canada and Russia. Finland, Norway, Belgium and China show significant production of refined cobalt, but this results mainly from the processing of imported ore and concentrate.

The worldwide production of cobalt is shown in Table 1.28.

Table 1.28: Worldwide cobalt production

Source	Refined cobalt production in 2007 (%)	Refined cobalt production in 2012 (%)
Africa	14.3	15
Australia	6.8	6.2
Belgium ⁽¹⁾	5.3	5.4
Brazil	2.3	2.3
Canada	10.6	7.7
China	25.0	38.4
Finland	17.1	13.6
France	0.6	0.4
India	1.8	1.1
Japan	2.0	3.3
Norway	7.4	3.8
Russia	6.8	2.8
⁽¹⁾ Includes refined production from Umicore's Chinese plant. Source: [363, Brown et al. 2013]		

1.8.2.5 Key environmental issues

The status of some cobalt compounds has a significant impact on the assessment of emissions. There are potential dust and metal emissions from grinding operations, and to a lesser extent from hydrometallurgical operations; chlorine in electrowinning and VOCs in solvent extraction; metals in water effluents of hydrometallurgical purification and recovery operations; and solid waste from purification and effluent treatment. The industry endeavours to work in a sustainable manner and uses a variety of techniques to recover and produce cobalt essentially depending on the raw materials and end-products mix, and so the actual occurrence and significance of these issues are therefore site-specific.

1.9 Carbon and graphite

1.9.1 General information

Carbon and graphite materials are mainly applied for the conduction of electrical power (cathodes and graphite electrodes) and as chemical reducing agents in the aluminium industry (anodes).

Carbon and graphite products can basically be divided into five product groups.

- Green mix and paste: mainly used in the aluminium and ferro-alloy steel industries.
- Anodes, mostly used in the aluminium industry as a reducing agent.
- Carbon and graphite, mostly used for the recycling of steel in the arc steel furnace and as cathodes in the aluminium industry.
- Speciality carbon and graphite: a wide range of products ranging from very high purity to very high mechanical strength and thermal resistance.
- Calcined anthracite and petroleum coke used as a re-carburiser in steel production.

The application of carbon specialities can be roughly divided into:

- high-purity carbon and graphite;
- highly mechanical and thermal applications;
- engineered products like carbon and graphite fibres;
- graphite foils and process equipment.

Carbon or graphite electrodes and furnace linings are produced for a variety of ferrous and non-ferrous metals production processes and are consumed during the production of the metals. More than 2000 other products of varying sizes, shapes and properties are produced for other applications. Carbon and high-purity graphite materials are essential for the production of semi-conductors and microchips, graphite electrodes for the recycling of steel scrap and highly chemical-resistant carbon and graphite are used for the recovery of residuals and the treatment of pollutants.

1.9.2 Sources of materials

The production of carbon and graphite materials are mainly based on petroleum coke and coal (anthracite) and a highly annealed coke based on coal tar. Petroleum pitch and coal tar pitch are used as a binder material, which is finally converted to inert solid carbon, coke or graphite during calcination, manufacture or use. Resin-based binder systems are used, which are cured before application.

The quality of coke and coal (anthracite) varies depending on the source but the most important factor is the sulphur content of the coke as this will be emitted as sulphur dioxide during calcination, manufacture or use. Normally, petroleum-based cokes or coal of a low or medium sulphur content are used for the major products like paste, anodes and electrodes.

The properties of the raw materials should be very consistent and are controlled by physical and chemical tests. New raw materials are tested in production trials to check their suitability and to adjust the production parameters to the new material. The final quality of raw materials is only based on the performance and acceptance of the manufactured carbon and graphite product.

Other materials are used in the production of specialist carbons and include metal and metal powders and a variety of resins.

1.9.3 Production and use

Coke or coal (anthracite) is usually bound with pitch (14–18 wt-%) to produce a green paste. For electrode paste production, calcined anthracite or petroleum coke is bound with pitch (20–30 wt-%). This paste then undergoes a number of shaping, baking, impregnation and graphitising stages to produce the final product. Green paste is also used directly for Søderberg electrodes. The baking process results in a loss in weight of ~ 5 % of the mass of the material. Packing coke is used in certain furnaces and in these cases is consumed at the rate of ~ 14 kg per tonne of product.

Carbon, calcined anthracite and graphite are mostly consumed during their application and converted into carbon dioxide (i.e. anodes for aluminium and steel electrodes). Steel production consumes electrodes at a rate of 1.5 kg to 3 kg per tonne of steel. Due to the significant reduction of the consumption rates in some industries, the quantities of carbon and graphite used for the production of aluminium and steel have been reduced.

The processing stage and size of the process varies depending on the product. The aluminium industry is by far the largest user of carbon materials in the form of prebaked anodes, Søderberg paste and cathode blocks. Generally, the specialist graphite products are smaller in scale than electrode products.

1.9.4 Production sites

Carbon and graphite products are made at 88 sites in Europe with an annual capacity of ~ 2 million tonnes (see Table 1.29).

Table 1.29: Production of some major carbon and graphite products in Europe in 2012 (tonnes)

	Unbaked green materials (including calcined anthracite + ramming paste)	Carbon electrodes	Graphite electrodes	Cathodes	Speciality graphite
Austria	35 000	0	30 000	0	0
France	0	0	45 000	45 000	0
Germany	134 500	0	79 000	0	9700
Italy	25 000	0	20 000	0	0
Netherlands	0	0	0	0	0
Norway	100 000	0	0	0	12 000
Spain	60 000	0	115 000	0	0
Poland	0	15 000	0	40 000	0
Sweden	0	0	0	0	36 000
UK	10 000	0	0	13 000	0
TOTAL	364 500	15 000	289 000	98 000	57 700
<i>Source: [381, ECGA 2012]</i>					

There is a strong tendency to close on-site anode production and to switch to an off-site supply. Some of the larger on-site producers with capacities of up to 150 000 t/yr also supply smaller primary aluminium smelters with anodes. The biggest carbon-producing plant in Europe and probably in the world is located in the Netherlands with a production capacity of 565 000 t/yr. Nevertheless, the majority of anodes are still produced in numerous on-site units.

Only a few companies produce cathodes due to the fact that there is a very long life cycle demanded by the aluminium industry. The life cycle of a cathode block ranges from 6 to 10 years. The properties have to guarantee a very good performance with respect to lifetime, electrical resistance and abrasion.

1.9.5 Key environmental issues

The main environmental impacts of these processes are the impacts of emissions to air of tars and PAH from the complex mixtures of binder and impregnation pitches, sulphur dioxide from coke and fuels and VOCs from impregnating agents. A variety of new abatement processes have been developed to destroy tars and PAH using novel afterburning systems. [116, VDI 1998].

The pitches release polycyclic hydrocarbon compounds while being carbonised. Benzo(a)pyrene or the PAH are used as a guideline substance to monitor the character of the emissions. Emissions occur during the storage of pitch, mixing and shaping, while carbonising in the baking furnaces and during impregnation. PAH in the atmosphere are limited by Directive 2004/107/EC relating to arsenic, cadmium, mercury, nickel and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in ambient air.

If cokes with an increased sulphur content or sulphur additives are used during the production of speciality carbon products, sulphur dioxide might be formed and released.

Dust or particulate emissions are potentially significant. Fine-grained materials are normally not used for paste, anode or electrode production, but are for other products.

Water pollution is, in general, a minor issue for the carbon industry. Production processes are dry and generally use contained cooling water systems. Exceptionally, surface water for cooling may be used where it is suitable due to local conditions.

The most successful efforts are those of the carbon and graphite industry in recycling carbon materials (used and unused) and in finding new fields of applications for these materials, replacing other natural sources.

2 GENERAL PROCESSES AND TECHNIQUES

There are many processes, variations in equipment, and techniques used in the production of non-ferrous metals. Many of the techniques and individual stages of the production processes are common for most of the non-ferrous metals produced, and therefore, to avoid excessive repetition, these common stages are described together. These common stages are:

- management systems;
- energy management;
- monitoring;
- diffuse emissions;
- raw material management;
- metal production processes;
- channelled emissions to air;
- water and waste water management;
- residue management;
- decommissioning;
- safety issues.

Techniques for reducing the environmental impact of an installation can be described in three categories:

1. management techniques: relating to the systems and procedures for designing and operating a process and for training operators and other staff;
2. process-integrated techniques: relating to the use of techniques to prevent or reduce emissions from activities such as storage, reaction, separation and purification;
3. energy reduction and abatement techniques: relating to end-of-pipe techniques to reduce emissions to air, water and land.

This chapter briefly describes the general techniques that are used in this sector. An indication is given (where possible) of the techniques that are able to prevent or reduce emissions to each environmental medium. This chapter also indicates where these techniques can be used in the various process stages to improve existing processes. This theme is developed in the metal-specific chapters that follow.

The metallurgical production processes for the eight groups identified by the Technical Working Group are covered individually in Chapters 3 to 10. The techniques to consider in the determination of BAT in these chapters include more detailed process descriptions, examples and diagrams. They also provide more detail of how the integrated process operates and where the variations in the techniques to consider in the determination of BAT described in Chapter 2 are used.

A significant number of installations produce a number of metals from different groups or may have associated processes integrated with them. Examples are the processing of bauxite at an aluminium smelter; the presence of an anode production plant at an aluminium smelter; or the production of a range of different metals from complex raw materials, in particular copper, lead, zinc and precious metals.

Table 2.1 shows processes that may form integrated installations and explains where these sections and chapters are, and this shows how a complex plant can be approached.

Table 2.1: Processes that may form integrated installations

Materials produced in the same installation	Chapters that contain process and other details	Chapters that contain overview of the processes	Comments
Alumina from bauxite in an Al smelter	Chapter 4	Chapter 4	Integrated with a few installations
Prebaked anodes produced in an aluminium smelter	Chapter 4	Chapter 4	Factors of common storage and mixing techniques taken into account
Lead, zinc or precious metals with the production of copper	Chapters 5, 6 and 7	Chapter 3	Some duplication between Chapter 3 and the other chapters
Nickel, cobalt and copper	Chapters 3 and 9	Chapter 9	
Mercury during the production of other metals	Chapter 2	Chapters 3 and 5	Mercury removal from smelter gases before acid plant
Ferro-alloys (FeCr, FeSi, FeMn, etc.)	Chapter 8	Chapter 8	Factors of common abatement techniques. Common energy recovery techniques

Chapter 2 should be used in conjunction with Chapters 3 to 10 to give the complete production cycle, e.g. Chapters 2 and 3 will give the overall process stages for the production of copper and its alloys.

2.1 Management systems

Effective management is important for achieving good environmental performance. It is an important component of BAT and forms part of the definition of techniques given in Article 3 of the Directive.

The work undertaken in preparing this document has shown that there are many significant differences between the environmental performance of a process that is managed and operated well and an identical process that is managed and operated poorly. Management and communication systems are some of the most significant factors in this difference.

Achievement of a good performance requires commitment at all levels within a company, starting at board or policy level, and includes the site management, supervisors and operators. The system should establish objectives, set targets and communicate instructions and results. Environmental management systems such as ISO 14001 and EMAS, management systems for occupational health and safety such as OHSAS 18001, or a quality management system such as ISO 9000 can assist by formalising the system.

Although they are not a requirement of the IED, an installation should consider the benefits that can arise from adopting such a system. The techniques used can also improve economic performance by improving operating efficiency, reducing costs such as energy or disposal costs and improving metal yields. These techniques are therefore essential factors for a modern installation.

2.1.1 Management policy and commitment

An effective management system can include the following factors.

- Identification of all health, safety and environmental impacts of activities, products and processes, e.g. OHSAS 18001.
- A commitment to develop and implement the measures identified.
- Communication of the policy to employees and contractors to ensure that they are aware of the commitment and are involved in its delivery.
- Use of a clear structure for managing environmental issues that is fully integrated with the wider company and site decision-making systems.
- The environmental performance of the process is highly dependent on the attention and awareness of the process operator.
- The overall environmental performance can be monitored on a regular basis and the results can form part of the management assessment process. Environmental performance indicators can be devised and disseminated to operators, and feedback from operators can be obtained and used.
- Contingency plans can be prepared which identify the potential types of incident that can occur and provide clear guidance on how they will be managed and who is responsible. Procedures can be prepared to identify, respond to and learn from all complaints and incidents.
- Where new processes are being commissioned, or where existing processes are being recommissioned after alterations, a commissioning plan can be prepared that clearly identifies the issues and the person(s) responsible for the environmental performance of the process during the commissioning period.

2.1.2 Design and maintenance

Good design and maintenance are key for the achievement of a high level of protection of the environment as a whole, and can help highlight the effect of existing plants and any new or substantially changed processes on the protection of air, water and land. An adequate supply of critical spare parts for security and for the environment should be kept, to fix problems and therefore to minimise accidental emissions and their impact. Several companies specialise in design and maintenance. Good design and maintenance procedures include the following steps.

- Considering the environmental implications (including noise) of a new or substantially modified process or raw material at the earliest stages of the project, and continuing to review this at regular intervals thereafter. Formal methods such as design failure mode and effects analysis (dFMEA) and process failure mode and effects analysis (pFMEA) can be useful in ensuring robust and effective control of risks. This is the most cost-effective time to introduce improvements to the overall environmental performance. An audit trail of the design and decision-making process is a useful method to show how various process and abatement options were considered. Commissioning issues should be planned for new or modified plants.
- Considering potential diffuse emissions at all stages.
- Using and recording a programme of preventive maintenance. This should be coupled with diagnostic testing where appropriate.
- Holding spare parts of equipment important for safety and for environmental protection. [243, France 2008]
- Examining local extraction systems regularly and repairing defects or damage promptly.
- Making all staff aware of the role they can play by being vigilant, for example, in relation to damage to hoods and ductwork or plant failures. Appropriate procedures should be used to encourage staff involvement and to encourage them to respond to reports.
- Using an internal procedure to authorise modifications and to undertake checks after modifications before a process starts up.

2.1.3 Training

Training is an important factor and the following points should be included in training schedules.

- All staff should be aware of the implications for the environment of the process and their work activities.
- There should be a clear statement of the skills and competencies required for each job.
- Training given to staff involved in a process operation should include the environmental implications of their work and the procedures for dealing with incidents.
- Records of the training given to process operation staff can be very useful in ensuring progressive and complete training.
- Training other departments about environmental issues and the consequences that can affect the installation can also be effective in preventing conflicts that might affect environmental performance. For example, finance and sales teams can have significant influences on environmental performance. Full accounting measures can identify excess raw material usage and can identify true energy and disposal costs for process stages; unplanned deliveries and sales can lead to production short cuts and cause incidents.

2.2 Energy management

Article 11(f) of the IED requires that energy is used efficiently. This document includes comments on energy use and its place in the assessment of BAT under each of the metal production chapters. Energy use in the non-ferrous metals industry is covered by a series of reports prepared by the Centre for the Analysis and Dissemination of Demonstrated Energy Technologies (CADDET). These reports have been used extensively in comparing techniques. The BREF on Energy Efficiency [333, EC 2008] should also be referred to.

For non-ferrous metals production, most concentrates are imported into Europe from a variety of sources worldwide, and therefore energy is used for transport. It is important then to use indigenous secondary raw materials, such as scrap metal and other residues, due to the benefits of reduced energy consumption.

In the copper sector, secondary raw materials account for the production of about 45 % of EU copper, but in some cases, such as brass rods, the product is made almost entirely from recycled copper and brass, with only a small input of primary zinc. When copper cathodes are produced from recycled materials, there is a saving of approximately 650 000 tonnes of CO₂, because specific direct emissions of secondary smelters are four times lower than those from primary smelters.

In the aluminium sector, the production and refining of secondary aluminium is also much less demanding in terms of energy; accounting for a consumption per kg of about 5 % of the energy needed to produce primary aluminium.

2.2.1 Applied processes and techniques

Energy and heat recovery is practised extensively during the production and casting of non-ferrous metals. A technique reported in the Energy Efficiency BREF [333, EC 2008] is the use of an energy efficiency management system. There are also international standards (e.g. ISO 50001) providing a framework for an energy-efficient management system.

Pyrometallurgical processes are normally highly heat-intensive and the process gases contain a lot of heat energy. As a consequence, regenerative burners, recuperative burners, heat exchangers and boilers are used to recover this heat. Steam or electricity can be generated for use on or off site, for example in district heating schemes or to preheat process or fuel gases [115, ETSU (UK) 1996]. The techniques used to recover heat vary from site to site and are governed by a number of factors, such as the exergetic content, the potential uses for the heat and energy on or near the site, the scale of operation and the potential for gases or their constituents to foul or coat heat exchangers.

The following examples are typical and constitute techniques to consider for use in the processes to produce non-ferrous metals [115, ETSU (UK) 1996]. The techniques described can be incorporated into many existing processes.

The hot gases produced during the smelting or roasting of sulphidic ores are almost always passed through steam-raising boilers. The steam produced can be used to produce electricity and/or for heating requirements. An example of this is where a copper smelter produces 25 % of its electrical requirements (10.5 MWe) from the steam produced by the waste heat boiler (WHB) of a flash furnace. In addition to electricity generation, steam is used as process steam in the concentrate dryer, and residual waste heat is used to preheat the combustion air.

Other pyrometallurgical processes are also strongly exothermic, particularly when oxygen enrichment of combustion air is used. Many processes use the excess heat that is produced during the smelting or conversion stages to melt secondary materials without the use of additional fuel. For example, the heat given off in the Peirce-Smith converter is used to melt

anode scrap. In this case, the scrap material is used for process cooling and the additions are carefully controlled. This avoids the need for cooling the converter by other means at various times of the cycle. Many other converters can use scrap additions for cooling, and those that cannot can be subjected to process developments to allow it.

The use of oxygen-enriched air or oxygen in the burners reduces energy consumption by allowing autogenous smelting or the complete combustion of carbonaceous material. Waste gas volumes are significantly reduced, allowing smaller fans, etc. to be used.

Furnace lining material can also influence the energy balance of a melting operation. In this case, low-mass refractories are reported to have a beneficial effect, by reducing the thermal conductivity and storage in an installation [103, COM 1998]. This factor must be balanced against the durability of the furnace lining, and metal infiltration into the lining and may not be applicable in all cases.

The separate drying of concentrates and raw materials at low temperatures reduces the energy requirements. This is due to the energy required to superheat the steam within a smelter and the significant increase in the overall gas volume due to the steam produced. The larger gas volume increases the heat removed from the furnace and, consequently, the fan that is needed to deal with the increased gas volume must be increased in size. This drying might be conditioned in some cases by the need to maintain a minimum moisture content in order to prevent dust emissions and/or avoid autoignition.

The production of sulphuric acid from the sulphur dioxide emitted from the roasting and smelting stages is an exothermic process and involves a number of gas cooling stages. The heat generated in the gases during conversion, and the heat contained in the acid produced, can be used to generate steam and/or hot water.

Heat is recovered by using the hot gases from the melting stages to preheat the furnace charge. In a similar way, the fuel gas and combustion air can be preheated, or a recuperative burner can be used in the furnace. Thermal efficiency is improved in these cases. For example, nearly all cathode/copper scrap melting shaft furnaces are fired with natural gas; the design offers a thermal efficiency (fuel utilisation) of 58 % to 60 %, depending on the diameter and height of the furnace. Gas consumption is approximately 330 kWh/tonne of metal. The efficiency of a shaft furnace is high, principally due to the charge preheating within the furnace. There may be sufficient residual heat in the exhaust gas to be recovered and reused to heat combustion air and gas. The heat recovery arrangement requires the diversion of the furnace stack gases through a suitably sized heat exchanger, transfer fan and ductwork. The heat recovered is approximately 4 % to 6 % of the furnace fuel consumption.

Cooling prior to a fabric filter installation is an important technique as it provides temperature protection for the filter and allows a wider choice of fabric. It is sometimes possible to recover heat at this stage. For example, in a typical arrangement of a shaft furnace to melt metal, gases from the top of the furnace are ducted to the first of two heat exchangers that produces preheated furnace combustion air. The temperature of the gases after this heat exchanger can be between 200 °C and 450 °C. The second heat exchanger reduces the gas temperature to 130 °C before the fabric filter. The heat exchangers are normally followed by a cyclone, which removes larger particles and acts as a spark arrestor.

Carbon monoxide produced in an electric or shaft/blast furnace is collected and burnt as a fuel for several different processes or to produce steam, e.g. for district heating or other energy purposes. Significant quantities of the gas can be produced and examples exist where a major proportion of the energy used by an installation is produced from the CO collected from an electric arc furnace installation. In other cases, the CO formed in an electric furnace is burnt in the furnace and provides part of the heat required for the melting process. The applicability of this technique might be restricted by the composition of the exhaust gas and by the type of process (e.g. batch production).

The recirculation of contaminated exhaust gas back through an oxy-fuel burner also gives significant energy savings. The burner recovers the waste heat in the gas, uses the energy content of the contaminants and removes them [113, ALFED 1998]. Such a process can also reduce nitrogen oxides.

The use of the heat content of process gases or steam to raise the temperature of leaching liquors is practised frequently. In some cases, part of the gas flow can be diverted to a scrubber to return heat to the water, which is then used for leaching purposes. The cooled gas is then returned to the main flow for further abatement.

During the smelting of electronic scrap or battery scrap, the combustible plastic content contributes to the energy that is used in the smelting process and reduces the amount of fossil fuel that is needed.

The advantage of preheating the combustion air used in burners is well documented. If an air preheat of 400 °C is used, there is an increase in flame temperature of 200 °C, while if the preheat is 500 °C, the flame temperature increases by 300 °C. This increase in flame temperature results in a higher melting efficiency and a reduction in energy consumption. It has been reported that regenerative burners can be used to preheat the combustion air to 900 °C, which reduces the energy consumption by 70 %. This is well established and payback times of less than one year are achieved.

The alternative to preheating the combustion air is to preheat the material charged to the furnace. Theoretically 8 % energy savings can be obtained for every 100 °C preheat, and in practice it is claimed that preheating to 400 °C leads to 25 % energy savings while a preheat of 500 °C leads to 30 % energy savings. Preheating is practised in a variety of processes, for example preheating of the furnace charge using the hot furnace exhaust gases during the production of ferro-chrome and secondary aluminium. In the latter case, the use of a charge preheating chamber is very effective. Hydrocarbons are emitted during charge preheating, as the contents are pyrolysed from the scrap. The gases that are produced are directed to the furnace burner system, which destroys the hydrocarbons and utilises the energy content for melting.

Under many circumstances, the predrying of raw materials offers energy savings because the latent heat added to the steam produced is not wasted, and also gas volumes are lower and so fans and abatement plants need do not need to be too large and need not have higher energy consumption.

Gases from anode furnaces should be considered for use in drying or other process stages. Hot gases extracted from launders can be used as preheated combustion air.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the energy balance of the Contimelt process, which uses the rising, hot gases in a shaft furnace to preheat the charge.

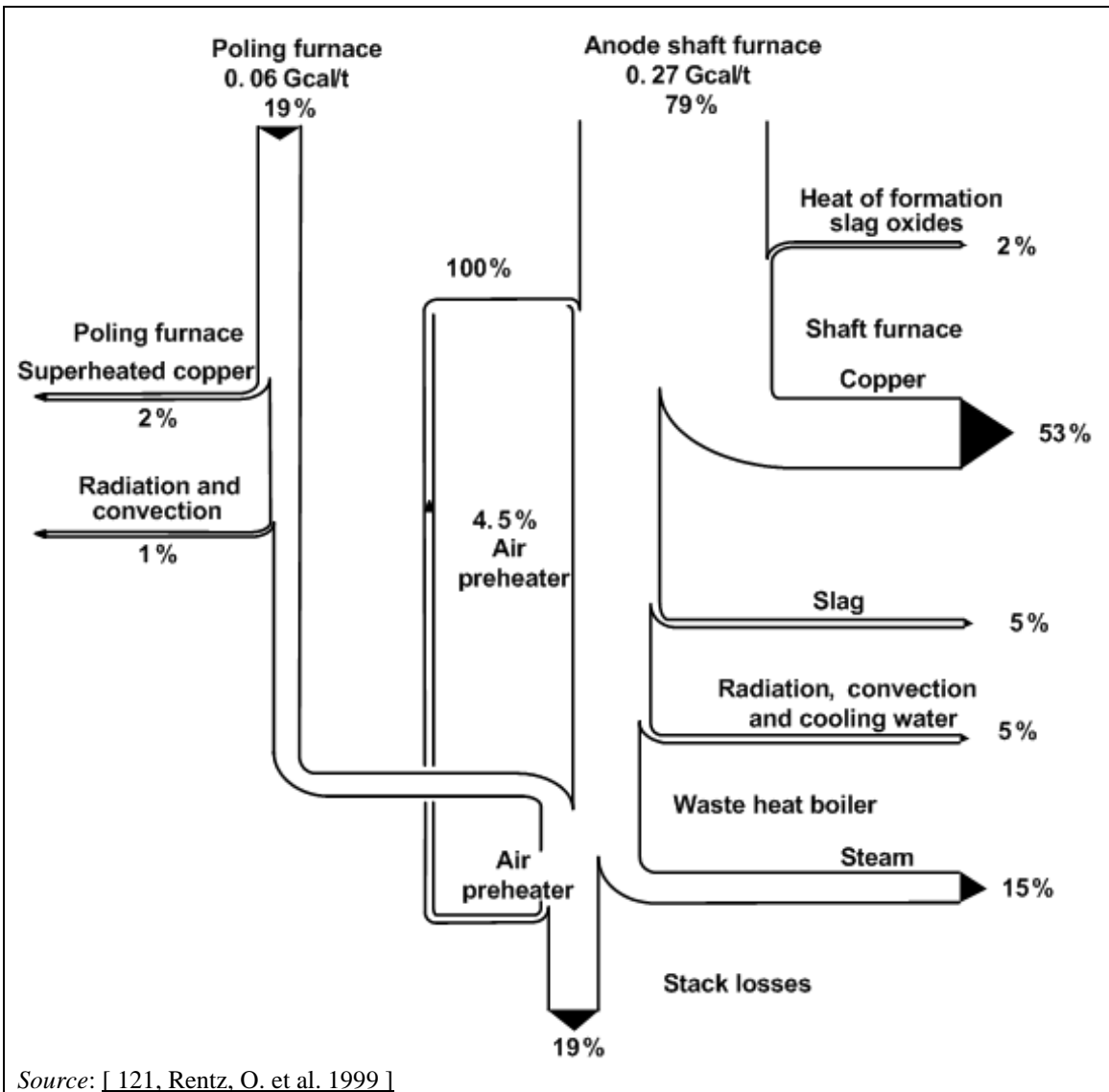


Figure 2.1: Energy balance of the Contimelt process

Heat and energy recovery is clearly an important factor in the non-ferrous metals industries, and reflects the high proportion of costs that energy represents. Many techniques for energy recovery are relatively easy to retrofit [115, ETSU (UK) 1996], but occasionally there may be problems of deposition of metal compounds in heat exchangers. Good design therefore incorporates sound knowledge of the compounds released and their behaviour at various temperatures. Heat exchanger cleaning mechanisms are also used to maintain thermal efficiency.

Whilst these savings are examples of savings in individual components of installations, the application and the economics are dependent upon the site- and process-specific conditions.

2.3 Monitoring

This section is intended to ensure that the emissions reported in this document are measured in such a way that the results are representative, mutually comparable and clearly describe the relevant operating state of the plant. The methods and instruments used for sampling and analysis are the relevant European, national or international methods (e.g. European Committee for Standardisation (CEN); ISO) [293, COM 2017]. General principles are given below.

The measurement of emissions is used to determine the substances in the clean gas or waste water so that they can be reported, used to control the process or abatement plant, or used to predict environmental impacts. The techniques are generally covered in the Reference Report on Monitoring (ROM) [293, COM 2017].

Prior to measurement, plans can be made to take account of:

- the mode of operation;
- the operating state of off-gas purification or effluent treatment plants;
- operating conditions in the plant (continuous, discontinuous, start-up and shutdown operations, load change); and
- the effect of thermodynamic interference factors.

Dilution of the gases or waste water is not considered acceptable. Factors should be taken into account such as variations of the process, the nature and potential hazardousness of the emissions, and the time needed to obtain a measurable amount of pollutant or representative information. These factors can then form the basis for the selection of operating conditions at which the highest emissions may be recorded, the number and duration of measurements, the most appropriate method of measurement and the position of the measurement locations. For waste water emissions, qualified random samples can be used or 24-hour composite samples based on flow-proportional or time-averaged samples can be taken.

For continuous operations, a minimum sample collection time or measurement time of half an hour (half-hourly mean value) is usually necessary. If dust contents are low or if PCDD/PCDF are to be determined, longer measurement times and, consequently, other reference times may be necessary because of the limitation of detection. Sampling or measuring should take place only during the operation of the process and dilution air should be excluded. For continuous operation when there are only slight fluctuations in the emission characteristics, three individual measurements can be performed at the highest emission level. If it is anticipated that the emission levels will be very variable during continuous operation, more measurements can be carried out; the sampling and averaging time being limited to the emissions phase.

For batch operations, the measurement time and the averaging time should be modified so that a sample or samples over the whole batch can be taken. These results can be used to calculate averages or to show where peaks occur during the cycle. Again, sampling or measurements should only be taken during periods of operation and dilution air should be excluded.

2.3.1 Sampling locations

The sampling points should meet the requirements of the relevant national guidelines. The sampling points should normally:

- be clearly marked;
- if possible, have a disturbance-free flow in the measurement section;
- have monitoring points that can be closed;
- have the required energy supplies;
- have sufficiently large working platforms; and

- ensure that the requirements for safety at work are met.

2.3.2 Components and parameters

The components that are measured in the non-ferrous metals sector include dust, metals, sulphur dioxide, total carbon (also VOCs, tars and hydrocarbons), PCDD/F, oxides of carbon and nitrogen oxides. Acids such as HCl and HF are monitored for some processes, as are chlorides and fluorides. Specific determinants include PFCs for primary aluminium and PAH for anode baking, primary aluminium using Söderberg technology, and carbon and graphite. Some determinants are specific to some of the reagents used for precious metals production. The components are reported in the metal-specific chapters and the methods of sampling and analysis are given in the relevant national and international guidelines on monitoring and analysis [317, UBA (D) 2009].

The analysis of some parameters may be covered by methods established by other bodies, for example OSPARCOM. The measurement and detection of PAH in certain sectors (e.g. anode, primary aluminium using Söderberg technology and carbon and graphite) is done using BaP as a marker.

2.3.3 Reference conditions

For emissions to air, the following off-gas parameters should also be determined to convert the emission concentrations obtained to standard conditions of 273 K, 101.3 kPa, measured oxygen content and dry gas:

- the volumetric off-gas flow (in order to calculate the concentration and emission mass flow);
- the off-gas temperature;
- the water vapour content of the off-gas;
- the static pressure in the off-gas duct; and
- the atmospheric pressure.

The production rate can also be reported so that the emissions can be reported as specific emissions per tonne of metal. The specific gas volume in Nm³ per tonne of metal can also be calculated.

2.3.4 Continuous and periodic measurement of channelled emissions

Continuous monitoring of emissions involves measurement with an automated measuring system (AMS) permanently installed on site.

The continuous measurement of several components in gases or in waste water is possible and in several cases accurate concentrations can be reported continuously or as mean values over agreed time periods (half-hourly, daily, etc.). In these cases, an analysis of the averages and the use of percentiles can provide a flexible method of demonstrating compliance with permit conditions and the averages can be easily and automatically assessed. Member States usually have their own methods of assessing compliance which, for example, allow for short-term peak emissions.

For emission sources and components that can have a significant environmental impact, continuous monitoring should be specified. Dust can have significant environmental and health effects. In the metals sectors, dusts can contain toxic components and the continuous monitoring of dust is important not only for compliance assessment but also to assess whether any failures

of the abatement plants have taken place (e.g. bag bursts). To detect bag failures, concentration trends can be analysed or peak emissions, e.g. during reverse jet cleaning of the bags, can be observed. Modern dust monitors can interface with the cleaning system to identify which section of the filter contains leaking bags, so that maintenance of the filter can take place.

Methods are available to continuously measure:

- dust;
- SO₂;
- NO_x;
- CO;
- gaseous fluorine and its compounds;
- gaseous chlorine and its compounds;
- total organic carbon;
- mercury in the vapour phase.

Competent authorities may require continuous measurement depending on the mass flow of the pollutant. Conductivity, turbidity, pH, flow rate, temperature and some ionic species can be continuously monitored for water.

Even in cases where absolute values may not be considered reliable, the use of continuous monitoring can be used to give trends in emissions and as control parameters for the process or abatement plant and are therefore very important.

Periodic measurements involve the determination of a measurand at specified time intervals using manual or automated methods. The specified time intervals in general are regular (e.g. once a month or once/twice a year). The sampling duration is defined as the period of time over which the sample is taken. In practice, sometimes the expression 'spot sampling' is used in a similar way to 'periodic measurement'.

Some physical parameters can also be used as surrogate parameters to give an indication of the presence of certain components in the gas stream. For example, the presence of an anode effect can indicate the production of PFCs in primary aluminium production and the temperature, oxygen and dust content of the gas can give an indication of the destruction of PCDD/F. The pH can also be used to indicate the effective precipitation of metals.

2.3.5 Diffuse emissions measurement

It is generally recognised that diffuse emissions pose a particular challenge due to their nature. Measurement methodologies [323, VDI 2008], [324, VDI 2008] have been used in order to determine the following:

- The global effect of the diffuse emissions from a specific plant. Measuring the emissions near a plant can give useful information, although the variations in wind direction can make the results difficult to interpret. When enough measurement devices are in place near a plant, an estimate can be made of the global amount of emitted substances that can be uniquely linked with the plant under consideration (metals, acid mist, etc., but not for example dust). The accuracy of such an exercise, however, is no better than 50 %, making this method only suited for evaluations over longer time periods. Also, the accuracy of this method at lower levels is very questionable.
- The relevant sources of diffuse emissions. Diffuse emissions arise from various sources, and the quantification of diffuse emissions depends on the type of emissions source.

Several methods that have been used to estimate diffuse emissions have been reported [229, IZA plant data 2008], as detailed below.

- For diffuse emissions from buildings, including measurements to determine the flow rate and concentration through vents and windows. One reliable method has been used for a number of years at one site [160, Steudtner 1998]. Another method used to measure the volume and composition of diffuse dust emissions has proven to be relatively reliable at a primary copper smelter [158, Petersen, K. 1999], with the monitoring results given in Table 2.2. The results show that the magnitude of diffuse emissions can be much more significant than collected and abated emissions. The lower the controlled emissions, the more significant the diffuse emissions.

Table 2.2: Comparison of abated and diffuse dust loads at a primary copper smelter

	Dust emission (kg/yr)	
	Before additional secondary gas collection (1992)	After additional secondary gas collection (1996) ⁽¹⁾
Anode production (t/yr)	220 000	325 000
Diffuse emissions:		
Total smelter	66 490	32 200
Smelter roof line	56 160	17 020
Controlled emissions (primary smelter):	7990	7600
Smelter/Acid plant	2547	2116
Secondary hoods stack		
⁽¹⁾ Emissions after an investment of EUR 10 million to install an improved diffuse gas capture and treatment system. Additional energy = 13.6 GWh/yr. Source: [158, Petersen, K. 1999]		

The flow conditions of the sources of diffuse emissions are not stable, and so sampling emissions from roof vents is not accurate. Accuracy can be improved if the cross-section of the measurement plane of roof-line vents is subdivided into sectors of identical surface area (grid measurement). During the measurements, sampling probes are installed at selected locations. The sampling equipment employed must be designed for infinitely variable suction control. By selecting different sampling probe diameters, the sample flow rate can be adapted to the prevailing off-gas flow velocity. The dust content of the sample gas streams is collected on a filter medium and determined by gravimetric methods [293, COM 2017].

- Continuously monitoring the dust concentration in the workplace using fixed or portable samplers can identify the main sources of diffuse emissions. The results can then identify and provide information on the critical steps in the processes, if the results are correlated with the process operations that are taking place during sampling [229, IZA plant data 2008].
- Using emissions characteristics (emission factors) as a basis for estimating diffuse dust emissions occurring during storage, handling and transportation of bulk materials (input materials, scrap, etc.). The use of emission factors in this context can only give a rough guide to the magnitude of the emission.
- Using reverse dispersion modelling (RDM) [322, CEN 2008] to predict the relevant dust sources. Generally, the results obtained are valuable within the particular installation and for the components measured. Some examples of good application have been reported in Belgium [298, Mensink 2005]. The application of this method becomes difficult in situations where the amount of dust generated at the plant is small compared to the background dust. This method can be both costly and time-consuming. RDM is described in the CEN methodology EN 15445-2008.
- Release of tracers (marker gases) at a known rate from certain points in an installation and measuring them downwind along with the pollutants. The results can be used to estimate pollutant emissions based on assumptions of diffusion and absorption.

Some installations use these measurement methodologies to estimate diffuse emissions at their sites. These methodologies have been developed on a trial and error basis with local expertise, knowledge of local conditions, experience, specific configuration of the plant, etc. They are not at a stage where they can yield accurate and reliable actual figures, but they can show indicative emission levels or the emission trends over a certain period of time.

There are no measurement methodologies applicable for general use by all sites, and no measurement methodology is the same from one site to another. There are significant effects from other sources in the vicinity of a site, such as other operations, traffic and other sources that make extrapolation very difficult. The results obtained are therefore relative or benchmark values that can indicate the reductions achieved by measures taken to reduce diffuse emissions.

The assessment of the impact of diffuse emissions and their reduction over time should be compared with the relative proportion of diffuse and point source emissions from the particular site. Comparison of these results with environmental quality standards (EQS), occupational exposure limit (OEL) or predicted no effect concentration (PNEC) values which are based on sound science is used to assess the share or impact of diffuse emissions in the surrounding environment.

The sampling locations must meet occupational health and safety standards, be readily accessible and adequately sized.

The measurement of diffuse emissions from area sources is more complex and requires more elaborate techniques because:

- the emissions source can be a large area and may only be roughly defined;
- the emissions characteristics are governed by meteorological conditions and are subject to major fluctuations;
- the uncertainties associated with the measured data can be substantial.

Light detection and ranging techniques (LIDAR) may also be used to measure dust, fumes and some diffuse gaseous components, such as SO₂ and VOCs.

2.4 Diffuse emissions

Diffuse emissions are a very important source of emissions in the NFM sector. Their magnitude can be much more significant than collected and abated emissions (some sources estimate that diffuse emissions can be more than two to three times the quantity of controlled emissions [219, VDI 2007], although this is very site-specific and time-related).

Diffuse and fugitive emissions have been defined in the Reference Report on Monitoring (ROM) [293, COM 2017]

Diffuse emissions are emissions arising from the direct (non-channelled) contact of volatile compounds or dust with the environment under normal operating conditions. These can result from:

- inherent design of the equipment (e.g. filters, dryers);
- operating conditions (e.g. during transfer of material between containers);
- type of operation (e.g. maintenance activities);
- or from a gradual release to other media (e.g. to cooling water or waste water).

Diffuse emission sources can be point, linear, surface or volume sources. Multiple emissions inside a building are normally considered to contribute to diffuse emissions when the pollutants leave the building by natural ventilation, whereas a forced ventilation system exhaust is classed as a channelled emission.

Examples of diffuse emissions include emissions from storage facilities during loading and unloading, storage of dusty solid matter in the open air, emissions from furnace operations such as charging and tapping, and emissions from electrolytic cells, processes involving solvents, etc.

Fugitive emissions are emissions into the environment resulting from a gradual loss of tightness of a piece of equipment designed to contain an enclosed fluid (gaseous or liquid). Typically this could be caused by a pressure difference and a resulting leak. Fugitive emissions are a subset of diffuse emissions.

Examples of fugitive emissions include leakages from a flange, a pump or a piece of equipment and losses from the storage facilities of gaseous or liquid products.

For the prevention of diffuse emissions from metal production processes, an indication is given in Section 2.4.3, while a detailed description can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

2.4.1 Sources of diffuse emissions

In metallurgical plants, diffuse emissions may arise from the following sources.

- transport, unloading, storage and handling systems, with the emissions directly related to wind velocity;
- suspension of dust from roadways due to traffic movements and contamination of vehicle wheels and chassis;
- the resuspension of dusty materials from abandoned workings, storage areas or disposal points due to wind action, which is related to wind velocity cubed;
- the production processes themselves.

The Emissions from Storage BREF [290, EC 2006] and Section 2.4.2 of this document report on the first three sources of diffuse emissions.

There are potential emissions of VOCs to air and of oils to water or land during loading, storage, unloading and the transfer of liquids and gases. VOCs can also be emitted to air from tank breathing and pipeline leaks. There are potential emissions of dust and metals to air and land from the loading and unloading operations, the transfer and storage of solid material and the resuspension of dust from the storage areas and conveyors. Suspended solids, metals, oil and various anions such as sulphate (depending on the ore and its treatment) can be emitted to water.

Process sources, reported in Section 2.4.3, are also important [219, VDI 2007]. since diffuse emissions may also occur from unsealed processes and during charging, smelting and tapping operations, as well as during the transfer of the molten products or intermediates from one operation to another. It is of particular importance that the prevailing temperatures of the various metal, slag or matte fractions are above the volatilisation points of the low-boiling accompanying metals (e.g. zinc) and oxides (e.g. SnO and PbO), so that the latter accumulate in the emitted vapours. As far as possible, diffuse emissions should be captured at the source via secondary hoods and the extracted off-gas should be routed to the gas-cleaning system.

Ventilation air with dust leaving through openings in the walls and roofs of buildings is also a source of diffuse emissions from a plant. When considering prevention measures, particular consideration should be given to employee conditions. Minimising diffuse emissions from a building by, for example, closing windows or otherwise containing them in the building is not a suitable approach because of considerations that need to be given to the exposure of the employees in the building. The collection of diffuse emissions in a building should therefore focus on preventing emissions at source (e.g. by measures such as a smoother feeding into the smelter, or improving the slag tapping hood, where feasible and appropriate). Workplace measurements and monitoring blood and urine levels in employees could also indicate the success of improved diffuse emissions capture [229, IZA plant data 2008]

2.4.2 Applied processes and techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from storage and handling of input materials

The main raw materials used in the production of non-ferrous metals are ores and concentrates, secondary raw materials, fuels (oil, gases and solid fuel) and process gases (such as oxygen, chlorine and inert gases). Other materials such as fluxes, additives and process chemicals (e.g. for abatement systems) are also used. This variety of materials possesses many handling and storage problems and the specific technique used depends on the physical and chemical properties of the material (see also the Emissions from Storage BREF [290, EC 2006]). In general, the storage of dusty material in open spaces should be avoided. Conveying systems should be equipped with enclosures. Fabric filters need to be examined and maintained regularly [307, Austria 2006]. The following applied processes and techniques can be used to prevent emissions to the environment.

2.4.2.1 Applied processes and techniques for ores and concentrates

Ores and concentrates may be delivered to the site by road, rail, barge or ship. Dust prevention techniques and dust collection and abatement systems are used extensively at the discharge points.

Process control is becoming more important for improving conversion efficiency, reducing energy consumption and reducing emissions, and is frequently based on effective sampling, analysis and recording of raw materials to establish optimum process operating conditions. This influences the choice of techniques for storage and handling.

The unloading, storage and distribution of solid material is carried out by similar techniques to those used for solid fuels. Usually, more stringent containment methods are adopted for these materials as they are generally more reactive, have a smaller particle size and are more easily

suspended in air or washed into water. Automatic quick-sealing devices are commonly used. Fluxing and slagging agents are also received on site and are handled in a similar manner to ores and concentrates.

Ores or concentrates (if they form dust) and other dusty materials are usually stored in enclosed buildings. Closed, covered stockpiles and silos are also used. Open stockpiles are used for large, lumpy material but are usually situated on a hard impervious surface, such as concrete, to prevent material losses, land contamination and contamination of the ore. Some large materials are not stored on a hard surface as damage can frequently occur and cause hidden problems. Bays are often used to segregate different grades of ore.

Ores and concentrates are normally used by large installations and therefore silos are not frequently used for primary storage but can be used for intermediate storage and the preparation of ore/flux blends. 'Loss-in-weight' dosing systems and belt weighers, etc. are used to meter ores and fluxes to achieve effective optimum blends and improved process control.

Water sprays are frequently used to suppress dust, but some operators require dry feed to the processes and are reticent about using water sprays. Alternative methods, such as using atomising sprays to give fine water mists, are used for dust suppression without over-wetting the material. Some concentrates naturally contain sufficient water to prevent dust formation.

Sealing agents (such as molasses, lime or polyvinyl acetate) can be used to prevent dust formation in windy conditions. Sealing can prevent the oxidation of surface layers and the subsequent leaching of material to ground or surface waters.

Unloading of minerals may be a potential source of significant dust emissions. The main problem occurs when a rail car or other tipping vehicle discharges by gravity. The rate of discharge is not controlled and results in a high volume of displaced air and dust, which can overwhelm dust extraction systems. Enclosed delivery halls using an automatic door closure are used.

Transparent plastic screens which seal against the tipping car are used. In this case, displaced air is passed to a sprung section and surge container to absorb the energy of the discharge; the increase in air volume is damped, allowing the extraction system to cope.

Material can be reclaimed by an underfeed conveyor, grab crane or a front-end loader, with totally enclosed conveyors used to transport dusty material. Transfer by pneumatic, dense phase systems are also used. For dusty materials extraction, filter systems may be used to deal with dust from static offloading points and conveyor transfer points. In the case of using open conveyors, dust can be produced if the belt is running too fast (i.e. more than 3.5 m/s). When a front-end loader is used, dust can be generated during the whole transporting distance.

Solids may adhere to wheels and other parts of vehicles and will contaminate roadways both on and off site, and the use of wheel and under-body washes (or other cleaning techniques if freezing temperatures are encountered) to decontaminate vehicles is frequently employed. The use of front-end loaders that are bigger than necessary can aggravate this problem.

Road sweepers or other specialised equipment using a combination of water jets and vacuum collection are commonly used to remove deposited dust, including that from old storage areas, to keep internal roads clean and prevent resuspension of the dusts.

Depending on the local topography, precautions against flooding and the consequent emissions of toxic materials need to be taken.

2.4.2.2 Applied processes and techniques for secondary raw materials

This industry is particularly active in recovering metal from a variety of sources and consequently uses a wide range of secondary raw materials. Scrap metal, skimmings/dross and flue or filter dust are used as sources of non-ferrous metals and these materials contain a number of metals or metal compounds. An integrated approach within an installation or between a group of companies in close proximity can encourage the use of secondary raw materials [277, Heino 2004]. Secondary raw materials are also used in some primary processes.

The source of the secondary raw material may give information on the potential emissions due to the presence of acids, oils, organic contaminants (that can produce PCDD/F during melting processes), anions and components such as ammonia from the reaction of skimmings/dross with moisture. This directly influences the potential emissions to air, water and land, and any of the components of these materials can be emitted. Materials are checked (e.g. by inspection and sorting) for unforeseen impurities and contamination, and this can be cost-effective for maintaining a cleaner product and reducing emissions.

The physical state of the material also affects the storage and handling methods. These materials can be dusty or oily and range in size from fine dusts to entire components. These factors affect the delivery, handling and storage methods used. The techniques used for primary raw materials are used together with those given below.

Secondary raw materials can be delivered to the site as loose material, in big bags or in drums. The physical state of the material dictates the delivery method and the storage method used. The source of the material also has a significant impact, and there are several methods available for grading material. Quality control and analysis of the feed material is practised in most cases.

Large components and material such as swarf or grindings are stored on concrete areas that may be in the open, covered or inside buildings. Some large materials though are not stored on a hard surface if damage to the surface can occur. The material is usually stored in segregated piles to keep different grades and alloy compositions separate.

Dusty materials and skimmings/dross are also stored in segregated piles, which may be in the open, covered, or inside buildings. These materials can be pyrophoric or may react with moisture to form ammonia or other gases such as arsane or stibane, depending on the composition. The storage method applied therefore takes these factors into account. Cold dusty material can be coated with material such as molasses to form a dry crumb, which is not dust-forming. The coating material does not affect pyrometallurgical processes.

Secondary raw materials may be contaminated with a variety of other materials such as oils, acids and organic matter, which could be washed into drainage systems. The potential contamination of rainwater and other water by such contaminants is taken into account in the design of storage methods and the treatment of run-off water from these areas. Bunded areas, sealed floors and oil interceptors are used to prevent emissions to water.

Materials are handled by a variety of methods depending on the storage. Grabs, conveyors and shovels are used. Secondary materials frequently need to be blended prior to processing or pretreatment, and intermediate storage is then used.

2.4.2.3 Applied processes and techniques for fuels

The fuel may be used directly as a heat source, as a reducing agent or both. This should be identified for each installation. Fuels may be delivered to the site by pipeline, road, rail or ship. The methods used for delivery are outside the scope of this document, but the use of road transport for frequent deliveries can give rise to noise and congestion at the site or its locality.

The delivery and storage of fuel is usually controlled by the operator to prevent spillage and leaks, and the techniques used include the following:

Liquid fuels

- Road and rail tankers are most commonly used for delivery. Site storage systems feature the use of vented or floating roof storage tanks, which are sited in sealed areas or bunds with sufficient capacity to contain the contents of the largest storage tank (or 10 % of the total volume of individual tanks if that is greater). Efficient oil interceptors are used to prevent the discharge of oil in site run-off water.
- The venting of gases from the storage tank back into the delivery tank is frequently practised unless floating roof storage tanks are used. Automatic resealing of connecting hoses is used when liquids and liquefied gases are delivered. Delivery connections are sited inside the bund.
- Regular checks of the tank contents to identify leaks and the safe volume for receipt is common practice. Alarms are used. Occasionally inert atmospheres are used.
- Pipelines may also be used for liquid fuel delivery and may incorporate intermediate tank storage. Fuel distribution from the site storage tanks to the process is usually by overhead pipeline, by service trenches, or less commonly by buried pipeline. Barriers are used to protect overhead pipelines against damage. The use of underground pipes could hinder the prompt identification of fuel leaks, which could cause contamination of the ground and subsurface water.
- If there is a risk of groundwater contamination, the storage area should be impermeable and resistant to the material stored.

Gaseous fuels

- Pipelines are the most common delivery system for gaseous fuels. Although liquid petroleum gases (LPG) can be classified as a liquid, the same techniques as for gases are used.
- Some pyrometallurgical processes (i.e. the carbothermic production of ferro-alloys in closed submerged electric arc furnaces) produce a carbon-monoxide-rich exhaust gas as a by-product. The amount of CO varies a great deal, depending on the metal and the production process. The exhaust gas can contain CO, from lower amounts (low CV gas) up to 90 % (high CV gas). The gas is cleaned in a cascade wet scrubber and then distributed throughout the site as a secondary fuel, or sold to neighbouring mills. Excess gas may be used for the production of electricity or flared off.
- The delivery of gases is often associated with pressure reduction equipment or, occasionally, compression equipment. In all cases, the use of pressure and volume monitoring is frequently practised to identify leaks, and gas monitors are sometimes used to monitor the workplace and in the vicinity of storage tanks.
- Distribution by overhead pipeline or pipelines in service trenches is common and damage protection methods are adopted.

Solid fuels

- Road, rail or ship deliveries are used for solid fuel transport. Storage in silos, closed stockpiles, open stockpiles and in buildings are used depending on the type of fuel (e.g. coke, coal) and its tendency to form dust.
- Open stockpiles are not frequently used, but those that do exist are designed to give an even, sloping face to the wind and can have retaining walls to reduce the effect of wind and to contain the material. Material can be reclaimed using an underfeed conveyor, a grab crane or a front-end loader.
- Conveyor systems are designed with a minimum number of direction changes and minimum drop height at these changes to reduce spillage and dust formation. Closed, covered or open conveyors are used depending on the potential for dust formation;

extraction and dust filtration is used if needed. In the case of open conveyors, dust can be produced if the belt is running too quickly (i.e. more than 3.5 m/s). Belt scrapers are used to clean the return section of the belt to prevent spillage.

- The moisture content of the fuel can be controlled to prevent the release of dust. Dust explosions are possible with dry and fine material. A contract specification for the fuel and the acceptable fines content can help to reduce the impact [243, France 2008].
- Some open stockpiles are treated with water sprays or sealing agents (such as polyvinyl acetate or molasses) to prevent dust formation in windy conditions and surface oxidation of the fuel. Solid matter can be washed into drainage systems and efficient settlement is often used to prevent emissions to water from open stockpiles.
- Solid fuel can be distributed on site by truck, conveyor or by pneumatic systems. Day storage or surge storage, usually in silos or hoppers, is used frequently. These systems usually incorporate dust extraction and filtration equipment.

2.4.2.4 Applied processes and techniques for process chemicals and gases

Acids and alkalis and other chemical reagents are often used in the main process and in abatement equipment, and may be produced during the process. They may be used to leach metals, precipitate compounds or can be used for off-gas or effluent treatment processes. Chemical compounds may be produced as part of the main process.

The supplier generally specifies the appropriate storage of these materials. Many of these reagents can react together and the storage and handling methods usually take this into account by segregating reactive materials. Liquids are usually stored in drums or tanks in open or enclosed banded areas; acid- or chemical-resistant coatings are used. Solids are generally stored in drums or bags (big bags) internally with isolated drainage systems; silos are used for some materials such as lime. Pneumatic transport systems are used.

Gases are used for a variety of purposes in the production of non-ferrous metals. The industry can use large quantities of process gases. The consumption of particular gases influences the method used for transport and distribution.

Oxygen is used to improve combustion, provide oxidation and improve conversion processes and natural gas; butane or propane is used to reduce metal oxides. Carbon dioxide, nitrogen and argon are used to provide inert atmospheres and to degas molten metal. Chlorine is used in the chlorination step of electrolytic magnesium production to degas molten metal and to remove unwanted metallic components (e.g. magnesium) from aluminium and in the Boliden-Norzink process. Carbon monoxide and hydrogen are used in the main processes. Hydrogen and sulphur dioxide are used to reduce oxides and salts. Chlorine and oxygen are used in leaching processes and chlorine is also used in the Boliden-Norzink process. Specific applications are discussed under individual metal production processes in Chapters 3 to 9.

The operator can produce gases on site, although contract gas production is encountered and these installations also supply other sites. Several sites use oxygen to improve combustion, and nitrogen for the spark suppression of pyrophoric materials. The same cryogenic or pressure swing process produces both gases, and the low-grade nitrogen produced can be suitable for some inerting operations. In a similar way, combustion gases which have a low oxygen content can be used to prevent autoignition.

Gases can be transported by tanker and pipelines. Chlorine is usually stored as a liquid in drums or tanks and is distributed by evaporation and a suction line, therefore gas leakage is prevented. Inventory and pressure control and monitoring can provide leakage detection for all gases.

Flow balancing and pressure decanting are used for the mixing of gases (e.g. argon/chlorine mixtures). For small volumes, premixed gases can be supplied.

The distribution of gases within the site is normally achieved by pipelines, which are sited overhead using good damage protection systems. Health and safety regulations govern the use and distribution of chlorine.

2.4.3 Applied processes and techniques to prevent diffuse emissions and collect off-gases from metal production processes

This section deals with the prevention of diffuse emissions and the collection of off-gases from metal production processes, including diffuse emissions caused by poorly designed or inadequately maintained gas collection systems. Gases and fumes that escape from the processes are released into the working area and then escape into the surrounding environment. They therefore affect operator health and safety, as well as contributing to the environmental impact of the process. Process gas collection techniques are used to prevent and minimise these diffuse emissions.

Dust, fumes and gases from metal production processes are collected using enclosed furnace systems, by total or partial enclosure of launders, furnace tapping systems, transfer points and other handling systems or by hooding [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992]. Hot gases from launders can be collected and transferred as combustion air, so that the heat content is also recovered. Sealed furnaces can be charged from sealed lance or burner systems, through hollow electrodes, through hoods or tuyères, or by docking systems that seal onto the furnace during charging. Hoods are designed to be as close as possible to the source emissions while still leaving room for process operations. Movable hoods are used in some applications, and some processes use hoods to collect primary and secondary fumes. Separate tertiary collection systems designed to collect all remaining emissions are also used; they are often called 'house-in-house' or 'doghouse' systems (Figure 2.2).

Besides the aforementioned techniques, the following measures to prevent diffuse emissions and collect off-gases from metal production processes have also been reported.

- Increasing the burden of the furnace or cell to provide a better seal and to improve the collection of off-gas.
- Renewal or optimisation of off-gas collection and filter units.
- Reduction of furnace downtime by improving the refractory lining (thereby reducing start-up and shutdown times, which cause higher emissions for a limited time).
- Closing the roofs of the process buildings and modernisation of the filters.
- Using computerised fluid dynamics (CFD) studies and tracers to model the flow of furnace gases and also the movement of fused electrolytes [233, COM 2008] so that diffuse emissions can be prevented or minimised. The use of these techniques has resulted in optimised gas collection systems. Modifications to furnaces or electrolyte charging systems to give small, even additions of raw materials have been developed in parallel and also contribute to the prevention of diffuse emissions [233, COM 2008].
- Design criteria. Collector systems and extraction rates are designed on the basis of good information about the characteristics of the material to be collected (size, concentration, etc.), the shape of the dust cloud at the extremes of operation, and the effects of volume, temperature and pressure changes on the system. Computational fluid dynamic studies can be used to achieve optimum design and extraction efficiencies [226, Nordic Report 2008]. Correct measurement or estimation of the gas volume, temperature and pressure are made to ensure that sufficient rates of extraction are maintained during peak gas flows. Some of the characteristics of the gas and dust are also critical to good design to avoid problems of abrasion, deposition, corrosion or condensation and these are measured. Another significant factor is the provision of access to furnace filling or tapping areas while maintaining good rates of collection; operator experience is used at the design stage to provide this.

- Other techniques are available to collect the diffuse emissions that are not preventable or contained [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [74, Startin, A. 1998], [76, Soud, H.N. 1993].
- Closing and decontamination of old storage or disposal areas.

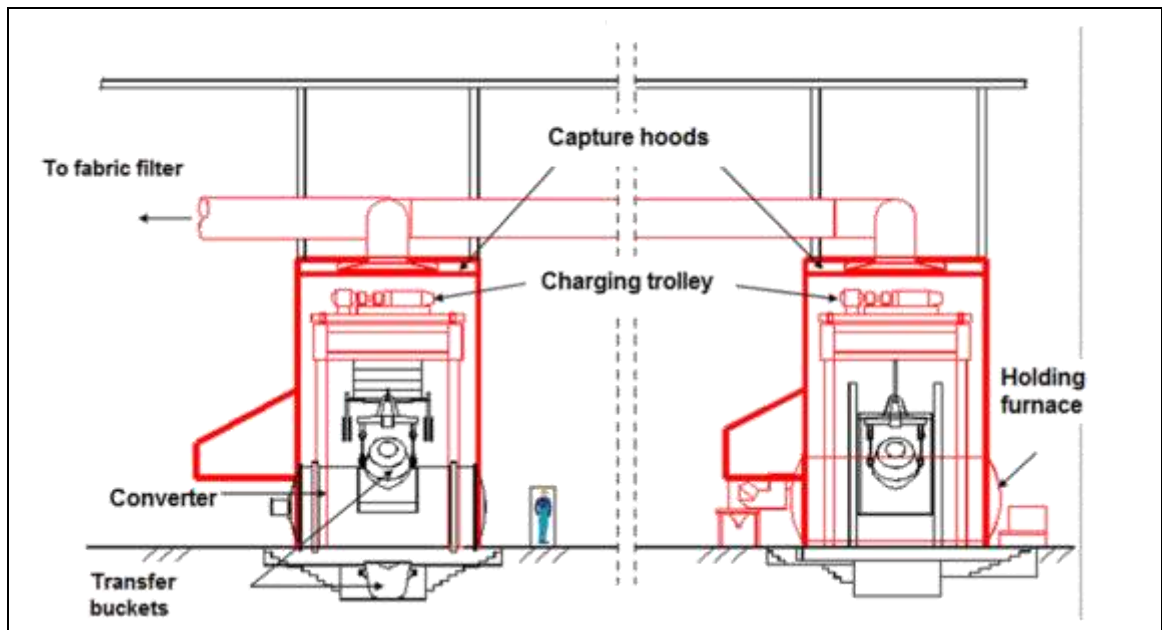


Figure 2.2: House-in-house collection system

The application of design criteria for the collector and extraction systems is useful not only for preventing emissions to air but also for reducing energy consumption, since gas collection requires the movement of significant volumes of air, and this can consume vast amounts of electrical power. Modern systems focus the design on capture systems to increase the rate of capture and to minimise the volume of air that is moved [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. The design of the collection or hood system is very important as this factor can maintain capture efficiency without excessive power consumption in the remainder of the system. Sealed systems such as sealed furnaces can allow a very high capture efficiency to be attained and have an advantage over semi-sealed furnaces. Batch processes such as converters have widely varying gas flow rates and are also difficult to seal and often secondary hoods are needed [243, France 2008].

Ducts and fans are used to convey the collected gases to abatement or treatment processes. The effectiveness of collection depends on the efficiency of the hoods, the integrity of the ducts and on the use of a good pressure/flow control system. Variable speed fans are used to provide extraction rates that are suitable for changing conditions such as gas volume, with minimum energy consumption. It is also possible to use an intelligent system to operate the fans automatically when process stages that produce fumes are operated, as in the aforementioned house-in-house system. The systems can also be designed to take account of the characteristics of the plant that it is associated with, e.g. the abatement plant or sulphuric acid plant. Good design and maintenance of the systems is practised.

2.5 Raw material management

Ores, concentrates and secondary raw materials are sometimes in a form that cannot be used directly in the main process. Drying/thawing may be needed for control or safety reasons. The material size may need to be increased or decreased to promote reactions or reduce oxidation. Reducing agents such as coal or coke and fluxes or other slag-forming materials may need to be added to control metallurgical process. Fluxes are added to optimise the recovery of the target metal and to separate impurities.

Coatings may need to be removed to avoid process abatement problems and improve melting rates. All of these techniques are used to produce a more controllable and reliable feed for the main process and are also used in precious metals recovery to assay the raw material so that toll recovery charges can be calculated.

2.5.1 Applied processes and techniques

2.5.1.1 Thawing

Thawing is performed to allow frozen material to be handled. This occurs, for instance, when ores or concentrates or solid fossil fuels such as coal are discharged from a train or ship in the wintertime. Thawing can be achieved by using steam jets in order to just melt the ice to enable unloading of the raw material.

2.5.1.2 Drying

Drying processes are used to produce a raw material that is suitable for the main production process. Rotary, steam coil and other indirect dryers are used and their economics, availability, reliability and source of energy used need to be taken into consideration.

The presence of water is often avoided, for several reasons.

- It is dangerous when large volumes of steam are produced rapidly in a very hot furnace as this could result in an explosion.
- Water can produce a variable heat demand in a concentrate burner, which upsets the process control and can inhibit autothermal operation.
- Separate drying at low temperatures reduces the energy requirements. This is due to the energy required to superheat the steam within a smelter and the significant increase in the overall smelter flue-gas volume, which increases the fan duty.
- Corrosion of plant and pipework, etc. can be caused.
- Water vapour may react with carbon to form H_2 and CO .
- Large volumes of steam can cause diffuse emissions, as the process gas offtake capacity may be insufficient to handle them.

Drying is usually achieved by the application of direct heat from a burner or by steam jets, or indirectly using steam or hot air in heat exchanger coils. The heat generated from pyrometallurgical processes, e.g. anode furnaces, is also often used for this purpose, as well as the CO -rich exhaust gas that can be burnt to dry the raw material. Rotary kilns and fluidised bed dryers are used. The dried material is usually very dusty and extraction and abatement systems are used to collect dusty gases. Collected dusts are returned to the process. Dried ores and concentrates can also be pyrophoric and the design of the abatement system usually takes this into account. Nitrogen blanketing (sometimes as a by-product from oxygen production) or the low residual oxygen in combustion gases can be used to suppress ignition. Dryer off-gases may contain SO_2 , and treatment of the gases may thus be considered.

2.5.1.3 Crushing, size reduction and screening

Crushing, size reduction and screening are practised to reduce the size of products, residues or raw material so that they are suitable for sale or further processing. Many types of crusher are used including cone crushers and ball crushers. Wet or dry materials are crushed, and a blending stage can be included. The specific equipment used will depend on the raw materials to be treated. Dry crushing is potentially a major source of dust emissions and extraction and abatement systems are used, with the collected dusts usually returned to the process. Damp materials can be crushed where dust formation can cause problems and where wet pelletising stages follow.

Granulation is used to produce small particles of slag, which are suitable as shot blasting material, road fill or a material that can be reprocessed to recover the metal content. Molten slag is cast into a water bath or poured through a stream of water. Granulation is also used to produce metal shot. Granulation processes have the potential to form fine dust and aerosols, which should be controlled.

Electronic components are a source of several non-ferrous metals and these may be ground in shredders or mills to liberate the circuit boards and other material from the metallic components, so that separation can take place.

2.5.1.4 Battery breaking

Battery breaking is used to recover lead, nickel, cadmium and other materials from batteries. For lead-acid batteries, hammer mills are used to break the battery cases to liberate lead (as grids) and lead compounds (as paste) and allow the recovery of the plastic case material (mainly polypropylene). The electrolyte is also removed and treated or used. Two-stage crushing can be used to control the particle size and prevent the lead oxide from being impacted into the plastic during a single stage mill. Plastic material is separated and washed to improve the quality and to produce plastic that is suitable for recycling. The acid content of the batteries can contaminate land and water if it is not collected and handled properly. Sealed acid-resistant drainage systems can be used with dedicated collection and storage tanks. The milling stages can produce an acid mist, and this can be collected in wet scrubbers or mist filters.

Nickel-cadmium batteries are pyrolysed to remove any plastic coating and to open the batteries. Pyrolysis is carried out at low temperatures and the gases are treated in an afterburner and then a fabric filter. Cadmium and nickel are recovered from the electrodes, and steel from the casing material.

2.5.1.5 Blending

Blending is performed to mix ores or concentrates of varying quality and to combine fluxes or reducing agents with the ore to produce a stable feed to the main process. Blending can be achieved in proprietary blending equipment, in the grinding stage, or during the conveying, drying and storage stages. Accurate blends are produced using bedding plants, loss-in-weight dosing systems, belt weighers or by volume from the loading equipment. Blending can be a very dusty operation and high levels of containment, extraction and dedusting are used. Collected dusts are returned to the process. Wet mixing is also used to avoid the production of dusts; slurry is produced that is then dewatered and used in a pelletising process. Coating and binding agents may also be used for this purpose. Depending on the process, it may be necessary to pelletise the blended material before further processing such as sintering.

2.5.1.6 Briquetting, pelletising and other agglomeration methods

Many techniques are used to treat concentrates, flue-dusts and other secondary material and they include the baling of wire or small scrap, compressing briquettes of material as mentioned before and extruding or rolling pastes to produce even-sized balls of material. Coating and binding agents are used for this purpose to reduce dust development in subsequent process steps.

Briquettes and pellets which contain a mixture of fine ore or concentrate, recycled dust and additional material such as reducing agents are often produced to ensure efficient smelting conditions. After adding binders or water, the mixture is fed into a press to produce a pillow-shaped briquette or into a rotary pelletising drum, pelletising disc or mixing machine to produce pellets. The binding material should have such properties that the briquettes have sufficient green strength to enable them to be handled easily and to remain unbroken when they are charged to the furnace. Various types of binders can be used, such as black liquor (from the paper pulping industry), molasses and lime, sodium silicate, steel slag or cement, and they also reduce dust formation. Pitch can be added to improve the green strength. Coarse fractions of filter dust from the furnace bag filter and filter dust from crushing and screening operations can be mixed with the other materials to be briquetted.

2.5.1.7 Sintering and calcination

These processes are used to increase the size of the raw material or the chemical composition so that it is suitable for further processing. Agglomeration and sintering allow a more even gas flow through a furnace bed and reduce dust formation, gas volume and diffuse emissions [[106](#), [Raffinot, P. 1993](#)].

Sintering and calcining are also used for this purpose and additionally are used to adjust the chemical form of the mix or to convert any sulphur present, e.g. the calcination of dolomite into dolime in the production of magnesium. The main binding mechanism in ore sintering is achieved by bringing the ore up to a temperature where the gangue minerals start to melt, whereby individual particles are fused together in a matrix of molten slag. In some cases, the formation of new crystals across former grain boundaries will play some role in the sintering process. The sinter is usually crushed and classified and the fine materials are returned to the sintering process. Sometimes the returned material is two to four times larger than the sinter produced. The feed particles are then sent to the smelter.

The sintering and roasting of sulphidic ores are often carried out together at high temperatures and in this case the gases produced are high in sulphur dioxide. The oxidation of sulphur provides the heat necessary for the process. Generally, the ore is blended with returned sinter and fluxing agents and may be pelletised before sintering. In the case of oxides, such as secondary raw materials, coke is also added.

Sinter plants use a moving grate, continuous grate or a steel belt to carry the material through heating and cooling zones; some plants use steel pallets to contain the feed. The gases are drawn upwards or downwards through the bed (updraught or downdraught sintering). A sintering machine that uses a combination of updraught and downdraught stages is also used and is capable of minimising gas volumes and diffuse emissions and recovers heat efficiently. Sometimes a layer of sintered material is used between the grate, and the blend is used to protect the steel grate.

The sintering of sulphidic ores is exothermic, though other materials use natural gas as a fuel. The hot gases are usually recycled to preheat the bed or the combustion air. The sinter is cooled by an air draught on the bed or in a water quench. The sinter is then sieved and sometimes crushed to produce a final feed material of a uniform size. The fine materials are returned to the sintering process.

Calcining is performed in rotary, fluidised bed or multiple hearth furnaces, and there is normally no addition of carbon during the process. The calcination of sulphidic concentrates performs the roasting stage and is discussed in Chapters 3 to 9 for metal production.

2.5.1.8 Fuming processes

These processes are used to fume volatile metals such as lead or zinc from a substrate. The processes use high temperatures and a source of carbon to produce an inert slag by fuming or volatilising metals from the material. This allows the metals to be recovered, usually as an oxide, for further processing. Waelz kilns, Herreshoff and slag fuming furnaces are used. Fuming is also achieved during batch converting processes when volatile metals are removed during the process.

2.5.1.9 Decoating and de-oiling

Decoating and de-oiling operations are usually performed on secondary raw materials to reduce the organic content of the feed to some main processes. Washing and pyrolysis processes are used. Centrifuging can recover oil and reduce the load of the thermal system. Major variations in organic content can cause inefficient combustion in some furnaces and produce high volumes of combustion gases that contain residual organic compounds. The presence of coatings can also reduce the melting rate significantly [122, ETSU 1994], [118, Laheye, R. et al. 1998]. These events can cause significant emissions of smoke, PCDD/F and metal dusts to air unless the gas collection and combustion systems are sufficiently robust. Sparks or burning particles can be produced and can cause significant damage to abatement equipment. The in-furnace decoating of contaminated scrap is also less efficient in most cases than decoating shredded material in a separate kiln, due to the production of more dross [122, ETSU 1994], but some furnaces are especially designed to receive organic contaminants.

The removal of oil and some coatings is achieved in a specially designed furnace such as a swarf dryer. In most cases, a rotary furnace is used at a low temperature to volatilise oil and water. Direct and indirect heating of the material is used. An afterburner operated at a high temperature (more than 850 °C) is used to destroy the organic products produced in the furnace, and the gases are usually filtered in a fabric filter.

Mechanical stripping is also used frequently to remove insulation from cables and coatings from other materials. Some processes use cryogenic techniques to make the coating brittle and therefore easier to remove. Washing with solvents (sometimes chlorinated) or with detergents can also be used. Solvent vapour systems with integral condensers are the most common. These processes are also used to degrease production items. Treatment systems to prevent water contamination are used in these cases.

2.5.1.10 Incineration and pyrolysis

Incineration and pyrolysis processes are normally used to treat photographic film, sweepings, catalysts and other materials to concentrate the precious metals content or to recover nickel. They are also used to pretreat catalysts to remove the organic content before further treatment. These processes are usually carried out at low temperatures to prevent the carryover of the metals. The gases produced from the incinerator are then treated in an afterburner and fabric filter. The potential formation of PCDD/F should be noted for these processes.

Simple box kilns and rotary furnaces are used for the incineration or pyrolysis stage. Raw materials are fed into the box kilns in trays. The metal-rich ashes are collected or quenched before they are processed further.

2.5.1.11 Leaching and washing procedures

Leaching or washing procedures are used to concentrate metal from ores or concentrates in a liquid phase. Washing is used to remove impurities such as alkali and alkaline earth compounds from some concentrates and secondary raw materials before further processing. Washing is also used to reduce the content of cadmium, chloride and sulphate, etc. in residues to meet the processes' requirements or to recover them.

Examples of leaching and washing procedures are given below:

- Waelz oxide can be washed to produce material that is suitable for use in a primary process;
- cadmium in filter dust can be removed before the dust is recycled to a smelter;
- secondary lead materials are leached to remove chlorides, alkalis and zinc before resmelting.

Leaching is also used to remove metals from complex matrices or to concentrate the precious metals that are used to coat catalysts. Ores such as quartz are washed and screened before use. Open or closed circuit washing processes are used and a bleed of liquor is used in a closed circuit system. Waste water is treated before discharge.

2.5.1.12 Separation techniques

These processes are used to remove impurities from raw materials prior to their use.

In non-ferrous metals plants, separation techniques are more frequently used for secondary raw materials and the most common is magnetic separation to remove items of iron. Manual and mechanical separation techniques are used to pretreat waste streams, such as the removal of batteries, mercury contacts, etc. from electronic equipment according to the WEEE Directive, or the separation of the car catalyst from the steel casing. The separation makes it possible to recover more metals in dedicated processes. Heavy media and relative density separation (sink/swim) is used by the scrap processing industry but may be encountered in the non-ferrous metals industry, for example in the processing of battery scrap to remove plastic material. In this case, the density and size difference of the various fractions is used to separate metal, metal oxides and plastic components using a water carrier. Air classification is also used to separate metals from less dense materials, such as the plastic and fibres from electronic scrap. Flotation is also used to enrich leach residues and is used in the copper sector to recover copper from furnace slag. The use of water pulses, called jigging, is used for solids separation [243, France 2008].

Magnetic separation is used to remove pieces of iron to reduce the contamination of alloys. Generally, overband magnets are used above conveyors. Sloping hearths in a reverberatory furnace are used to melt zinc, lead and aluminium to leave higher melting point impurities (e.g. iron) on the hearth for further processing.

Moving electromagnetic fields (eddy current separation) are used to separate aluminium from other material. A variation on this technique uses this moving electromagnetic field to pump molten aluminium or other metals, without there being a direct contact between the metal and mechanical components.

Other separation techniques involve the use of colour, UV, IR, X-ray, laser and other detection systems in combination with mechanical or pneumatic sorters. These are used, for example, to separate nickel-cadmium batteries from other battery types, though the techniques are still being further developed for other applications.

2.5.1.13 Transfer and charging systems

These systems are used to convey the raw materials between pretreatment stages and then into the main process. Techniques similar to those used for raw materials are used and similar problems of dust production, containment and extraction exist. Pneumatic, dense air and air slide systems are also used and can even out variations in feed quality. Collected material is reused.

Pretreated materials may be drier than raw materials, and more stringent methods are used to prevent dust emissions. Water spray systems are generally not used but high standards of housekeeping are needed. Conveyors for the transport of dust-forming materials are generally enclosed and, in these cases, efficient extraction and abatement systems are employed at exposed, sensitive areas such as conveyor change points. An alternative is the use of fine water sprays or mists. Bottom scrapers are used on conveyors to prevent the carryover of material on the return section of the belt. Dense phase, pneumatic conveying systems are also used frequently.

Some materials arrive in drums, big bags or other packaging. If the material is dusty, the emptying of these containers should be done in dust-capturing systems, e.g. sealed devices under aspiration, under sprinkling, or in enclosed buildings. In some cases, mixing these materials with water or with wet raw materials is appropriate depending on the material as long as no reactions can occur. In other cases, handling them separately in closed systems is preferable.

2.6 Metal production processes

There are several processes or combinations of processes used to produce and melt metals. These processes are mostly metal-specific, and therefore they are described in depth in the corresponding metal-specific chapters. Nevertheless, a general overview of pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical processes and a combination of both can be found in Annex 13.1.

Controlled emissions from metal production processes have known sources and can be captured and treated.

The techniques used to remove dust, gaseous compounds (such as NH_3 , SO_2 , SO_3 , HF, HCl and NO_x), dioxins, sulphur dioxide and mercury are described in Section 2.12.5. Dust and acid gases are commonly removed and valuable or toxic metal components are recovered for use in other processes. The design of the abatement process is critical, and factors such as efficiency, suitability of the method, and the input and output loading of the material to be collected are used.

2.7 Sulphur dioxide

Sulphur dioxide is produced during the drying and smelting of sulphidic concentrates and other material. Calcining, smelting, converting and other operations produce sulphur dioxide at varying concentrations and the removal systems used depend on the concentration encountered.

Sulphur that is present in raw materials can be incorporated into slags or mattes using appropriate reagents, and the mattes can be used in the processes. Sulphur that is not captured in the matte or slag from a smelting process is usually present as SO_2 and can be recovered as elemental sulphur, liquid SO_2 , gypsum or sulphuric acid. The presence of markets for these products influences the choice of the end-product but the most environmentally safe option is to produce gypsum or elemental sulphur in the absence of reliable outlets for the other products. Sulphur dioxide is produced from the roasting and smelting of sulphidic concentrates and the associated conversion processes. These processes are operated so that the maximum concentration of sulphur dioxide is produced to improve the efficiency of sulphur recovery. The recovery of sulphur eliminates cross-media issues.

2.7.1 Applied processes and techniques

A distinction can be made between techniques applied to reduce SO_2 emissions from off-gases with less than 1 % SO_2 and for gases with a higher SO_2 content.

Techniques for off-gases with up to 1 % sulphur dioxide

1. Lime injection followed by a fabric filter.
2. Reaction of weak gases with sodium sulphite and water to produce sodium bisulphite. Concentrated sulphur dioxide can be stripped from this solution, and liquid sulphur dioxide produced or other products such as sulphur (Wellman-Lord regenerable process).
3. Scrubbing with an amine or polyether-based solvent which can absorb sulphur dioxide, which is then desorbed and sent as a side-stream to a sulphuric acid plant or removed by reaction with water to produce sulphuric acid or liquid sulphur dioxide.
4. Oxidation with hydrogen peroxide to produce sulphuric acid.
5. Oxidation with an activated carbon catalyst to produce sulphuric acid.
6. Flue-gas desulphurisation (FGD) in a dry or semi-dry scrubber using lime, NaHCO_3 or wet limestone to produce gypsum or other desulphurisation products. This technique is used extensively in power plants.
7. Double alkaline scrubbing with caustic soda absorption and gypsum precipitation.
8. Scrubbing with seawater.
9. Alumina absorption and gypsum precipitation (Dowa process).
10. Scrubber with $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ and the crystallisation of magnesium sulphate.
11. Wet or dry scrubbing with zinc oxide to produce zinc sulphite or sulphate which can be treated in a zinc leaching stage.

Techniques for off-gases with a high SO_2 content (> 1 %)

Sulphur dioxide is produced at higher concentrations during the sintering, roasting and smelting of a wide range of sulphidic ores and concentrates. The metals produced are copper, nickel, lead, zinc, molybdenum and several mixed metal streams. The techniques used to treat these off-gases are listed below.

1. Absorption of sulphur dioxide in cold water (e.g. cold seawater) followed by vacuum stripping and recovery as liquid sulphur dioxide. This process is used in conjunction with a sulphuric acid plant to recover sulphur dioxide that is not dissolved. The potential for the production of liquid sulphur dioxide depends on the existence of a local market.
2. Production of sulphuric acid. The production of sulphuric acid by burning sulphur to produce sulphur dioxide is a well-established chemical process. These installations

benefit from a constant, high concentration of the gas and therefore have fewer process limitations. Gases from a roaster or smelter do not have these characteristics and are more difficult to operate and may not achieve the same level or consistency of conversion.

The smelter gases from the furnace are cleaned and cooled and may be dried, as shown in Figure 2.3 (see also Section 4.4.11 of the LVIC-AAF BREF). The sulphur dioxide in the gas is then converted to sulphur trioxide in a contact process when the gases are passed through a vanadium pentoxide catalyst bed. Sometimes the catalyst is doped with caesium oxide, which improves performance particularly when the SO₂ concentration is low and variable or when the temperature is low. The plant design should allow operation at lower temperatures (depending on the heat exchange performance). See Section 4.4.4 of the LVIC-AAF BREF. Improved catalysts are used to increase the conversion efficiency in single and double contact/double absorption plants [339, COM 2007]

In a **single contact plant**, the gases pass through a series of three or more catalyst beds to obtain a high conversion efficiency. The production of sulphur trioxide is exothermic and if the sulphur dioxide content is high enough to generate sufficient heat, the gases are cooled between each pass. With gases that have a low sulphur dioxide content, heat may have to be added before the passes. The sulphur trioxide formed is then absorbed in 98 % sulphuric acid, which is then diluted to give sulphuric acid.

The wet sulphuric acid (WSA) process is based on condensation of the acid (and not on absorption), which is especially suitable for gases containing 1–4 % SO₂. It can achieve up to 99 % conversion.

The presence of sulphur trioxide inhibits the conversion of sulphur dioxide and a **double contact/double absorption process** is therefore most commonly used to achieve more efficient sulphur dioxide conversion when the sulphur dioxide content of the gas is sufficiently high. In this case, sulphur trioxide is absorbed into 98 % sulphuric acid after the second or third pass, allowing conversion of more sulphur dioxide in the subsequent passes. This is followed by a further sulphur trioxide absorption stage. The use of a double contact/double absorption plant increases the removal efficiency of sulphur dioxide from 98 % to > 99.7 % [130, Eurometaux 1998]. It has also been reported that if the plant design allows operation at a lower temperature (depending on the heat exchanger performance) the use of a caesium-doped catalyst can improve this to greater than 99.9 % [137, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999]. A conversion rate of up to 99.97 % was observed under very special conditions [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008]. Catalysts decrease in effectiveness as they age and the effect can lead to a 0.1 % reduction in conversion over a three-year operating period [339, COM 2007]. The double contact/double absorption plant is shown in Figure 2.4.

Conversion to double contact/double absorption is complex and expensive but it is possible to use a single contact plant with tail gas desulphurisation to achieve lower residual SO₂ concentrations. Gypsum can be produced for external sale or alternatively zinc sulphite (or sulphate) can be produced which can be used in the zinc leaching stage. These options can allow energy savings and lower waste generation but the cost must be compared to conversion under local conditions. If there is no market for gypsum, the costs for landfilling gypsum need to be considered.

Dust removal before the contact process is essential to protect the catalyst and to produce a pure acid. This reduces the concentration of most metals, for example zinc, to acceptable levels in the acid that is produced and prevents the poisoning of the catalyst. The pretreatment of the gas stream usually involves several stages depending on the contaminants present in the gas stream. The stages can include cooling with heat recovery, a hot electrostatic precipitator, scrubbing to remove mercury, etc. and a wet electrostatic precipitator. The weak acid generated in the gas-cleaning section typically contains 1–50 % H₂SO₄. Halides will also be present as HCl (10–5000 ppm) and HF (10–1000 ppm including H₂SiF₆). In the Polish plant Głogów 2, there is a high level of fluoride in the gas entering the cooling and washing scrubber (500–2000 ppm). A

system is used to remove fluoride from the gas stream by dosing a solution of sodium silicate into the scrubber circuits. The acid may also contain metals such as copper, zinc and iron (individually up to 2500 ppm), mercury (up to 1900 ppm) and lead (up to 50 ppm). Arsenic may be present up to levels of 10 000 ppm. Other elements, such as aluminium, nickel, chromium, cadmium, bismuth, antimony, etc., may also be present depending on the contaminants present in the smelter feed. The weak acid will also be saturated with SO₂ (typically between 2000 ppm and 5000 ppm depending on the SO₂ content). This acid can be decomposed and the gases passed to the acid plant can be neutralised to produce gypsum for sale, or to be treated and disposed of, or used, e.g. if there is a leaching process nearby.

The sulphuric acid production process removes any residual dust and metals before the contact stage so that they are not transferred to the acid that is produced. The removal of dust and metals before the contact process (see Figure 2.3) means that these are not significant components in the gases emitted to air [234, UBA (D) 2007]. Acid mists can be emitted from the stack, and candle filters or wet scrubbers can be used where needed to eliminate these mists. It is reported that high fluoride levels in the gas reduce the mist elimination efficiency of candle filters [103, COM 1998] (see also the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007]).

Any NO_x that is present in the gases treated in the sulphuric acid plant is absorbed in the acid that is produced. If the concentrations are high then a brown acid is produced and this may not be acceptable to potential customers. The problem is therefore one of potential sales. When sulphuric acid is brown due to organic compounds, hydrogen peroxide can be added to remove the colour.

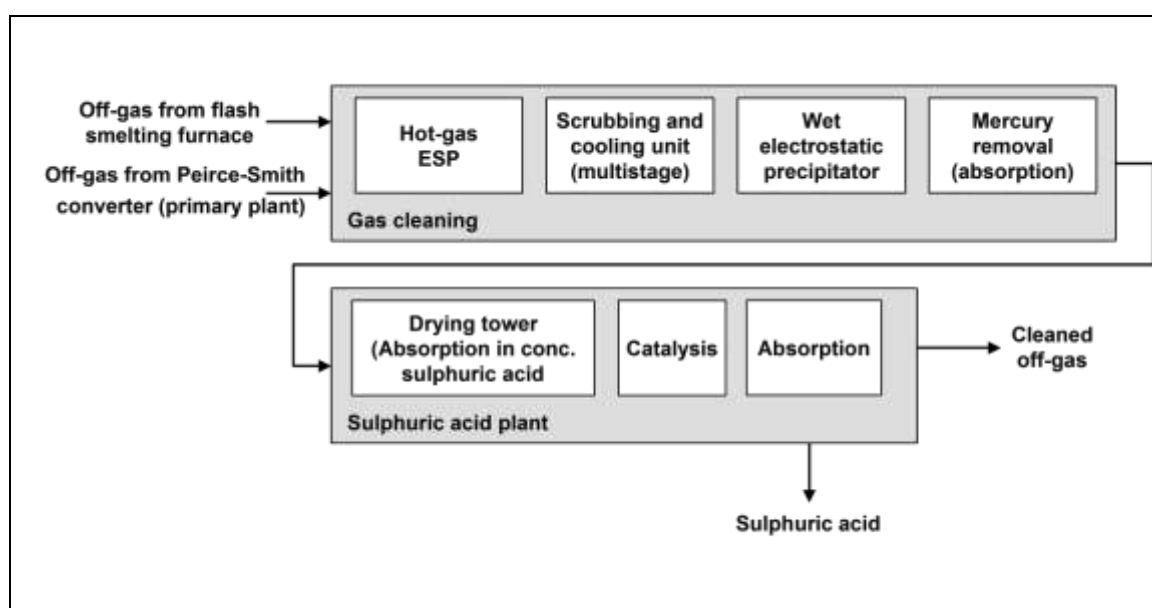


Figure 2.3: Typical gas-cleaning train for a sulphuric acid plant

The flue-gas from the flash furnace entering the acid plant of Głogów 2 in Poland contains a high level of NO_x (up to 1000 ppm) so, to maintain the required level of 5 ppm in the produced acid, there are two systems for decomposing the nitrogen oxides. One of them doses hydrazine to the drying and absorbing acid circuits, the other one decomposes nitrogen compounds from the mist eliminators condensate by diluting and blowing with SO₂-rich gas (Lurgi method) [238, ECI 2012]. A plant in the Netherlands uses SCR in the first pass to achieve the same quality of acid and the final emission of NO_x is quoted as 12 mg/Nm³ [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008].

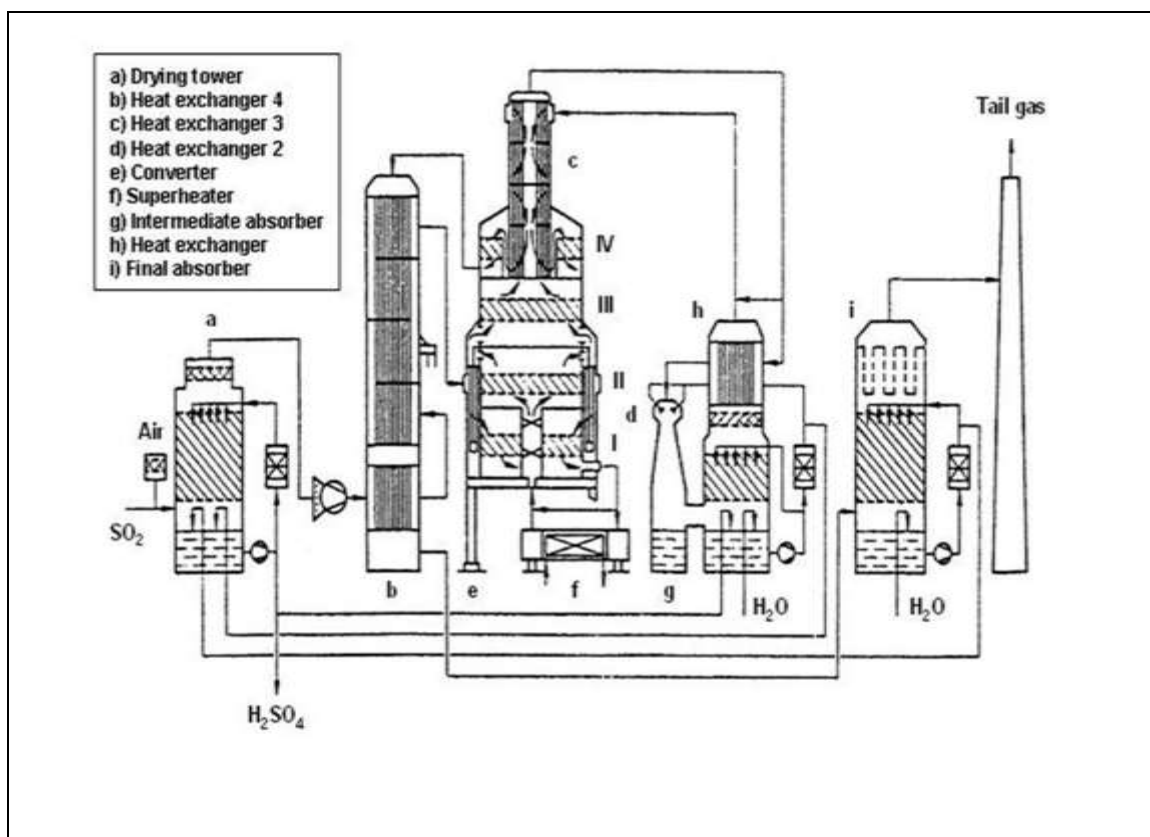
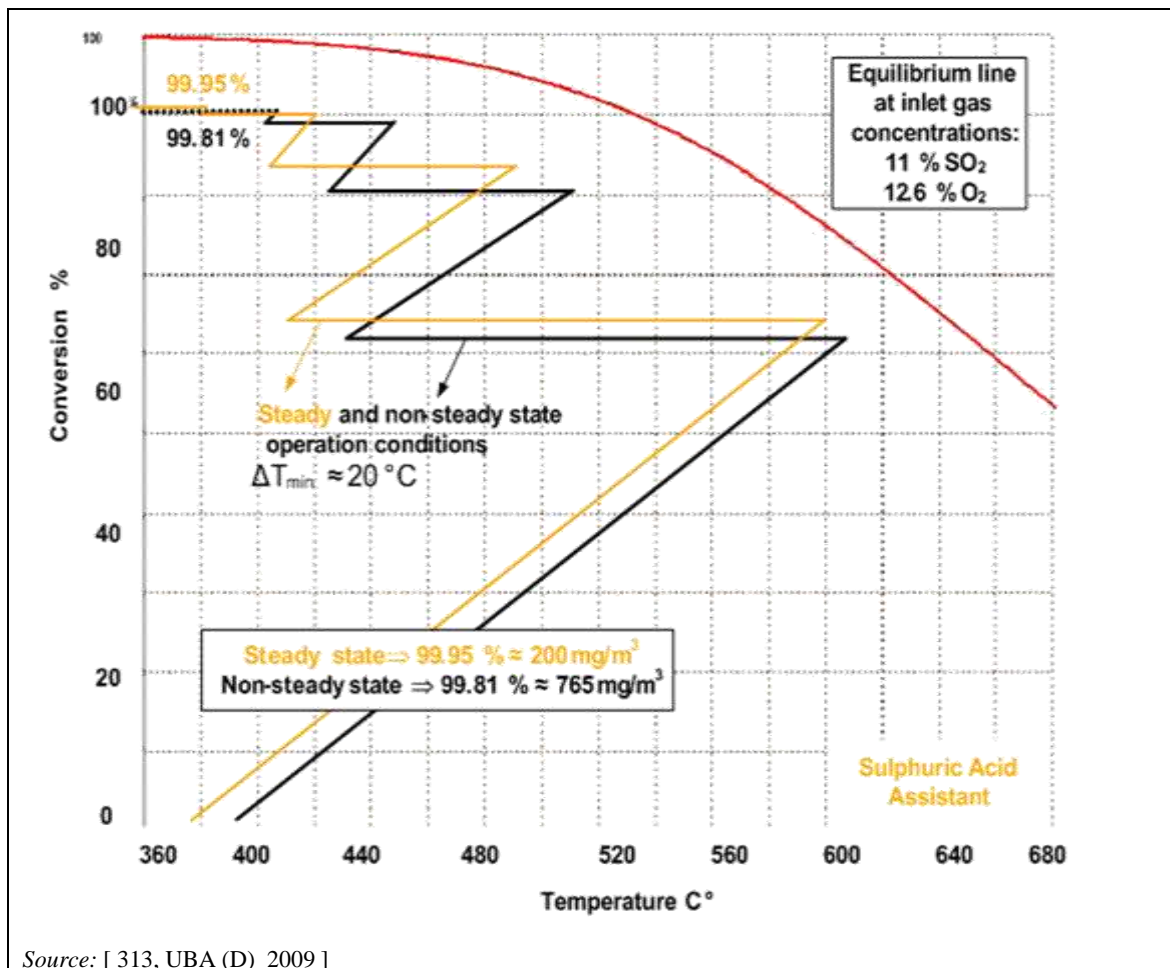


Figure 2.4: Typical double absorption sulphuric acid plant

Process control based on the measurement of SO₂ in the off-gas leads to a delayed reaction of the process. In the non-ferrous metals sector, the oxygen level can be used for process control, but makes the control of the sulphuric acid plant far more complex than for sulphur burning [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Sulphuric acid plants in this sector that have highly variable SO₂ inlet concentrations need to be operated at temperatures that are 20 °C below the maximum catalyst temperatures, so that the catalyst is not deactivated. The effect is shown in Figure 2.5. Catalysts can also fail if the temperature is too low and, therefore, it is very important to keep the temperature level sufficiently high to prevent the catalysis from stopping quickly, which occurs at low SO₂ inputs. The temperature is about 10–30 °C higher than in steady-state operation, causing a significant decrease in the conversion rate. The temperature operating window for a sulphuric acid plant in this sector, used as a sulphur recovery technique, is therefore more restricted than in a sulphur burning plant that is used as a H₂SO₄ production plant. For the same reasons, the SO₂ conversion yield is lower than the yield of a H₂SO₄ production plant.



Source: [313, UBA (D) 2009]

Figure 2.5: Comparison of the effect of steady- and non-steady-state SO₂ inlet concentrations on conversion efficiency

The emission of sulphur dioxide from sulphuric acid plants is proportional to the conversion rate, provided that the sulphur dioxide content of the feed gas is constant (respectively proportional to the sulphur dioxide content of the feed gas) [313, UBA (D) 2009]. Data are given in the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007] for the conversion rate and outlet SO₂ concentrations for a number of inlet gas content. However, because of information missing from the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007], the calculated number for other double contact/double absorption plants (680 mg/Nm³) does not take into account the reduction in gas volume that results from the absorption of SO₃ during the process. The correct equation for the calculation of the outlet concentration and the conversion rate is given in Figure 2.6, where η is the conversion rate and ρ is the density:

$$C_{\text{SO}_2, \text{out}} = \frac{(1 - \eta_{\text{SO}_2}) \times \rho_{\text{SO}_2} \times C_{\text{SO}_2, \text{inlet}} \times 10^6}{(1 - 1.5 \times C_{\text{SO}_2, \text{inlet}})}$$

Figure 2.6: Equation for the calculation of the outlet concentration and the conversion rate

The data for existing plants in the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007] were calculated at 99.8 % conversion using an inlet SO₂ concentration of 11 %, and a waste gas concentration of 680 mg/Nm³ was predicted. The equivalent result when using the correct graph gives a predicted waste gas concentration of 770 mg/Nm³ using the same conversion rate and inlet gas concentration [313, UBA (D) 2009], [314, UBA (D) 2009]. As a consequence, the concentration given in Table 4.24 of the LVIC-AAF BREF for other double contact/double

absorption plants (680 mg/Nm^3) is now 770 mg/Nm^3 . The missing data have now been provided and the corrected graph is shown as Figure 2.7.

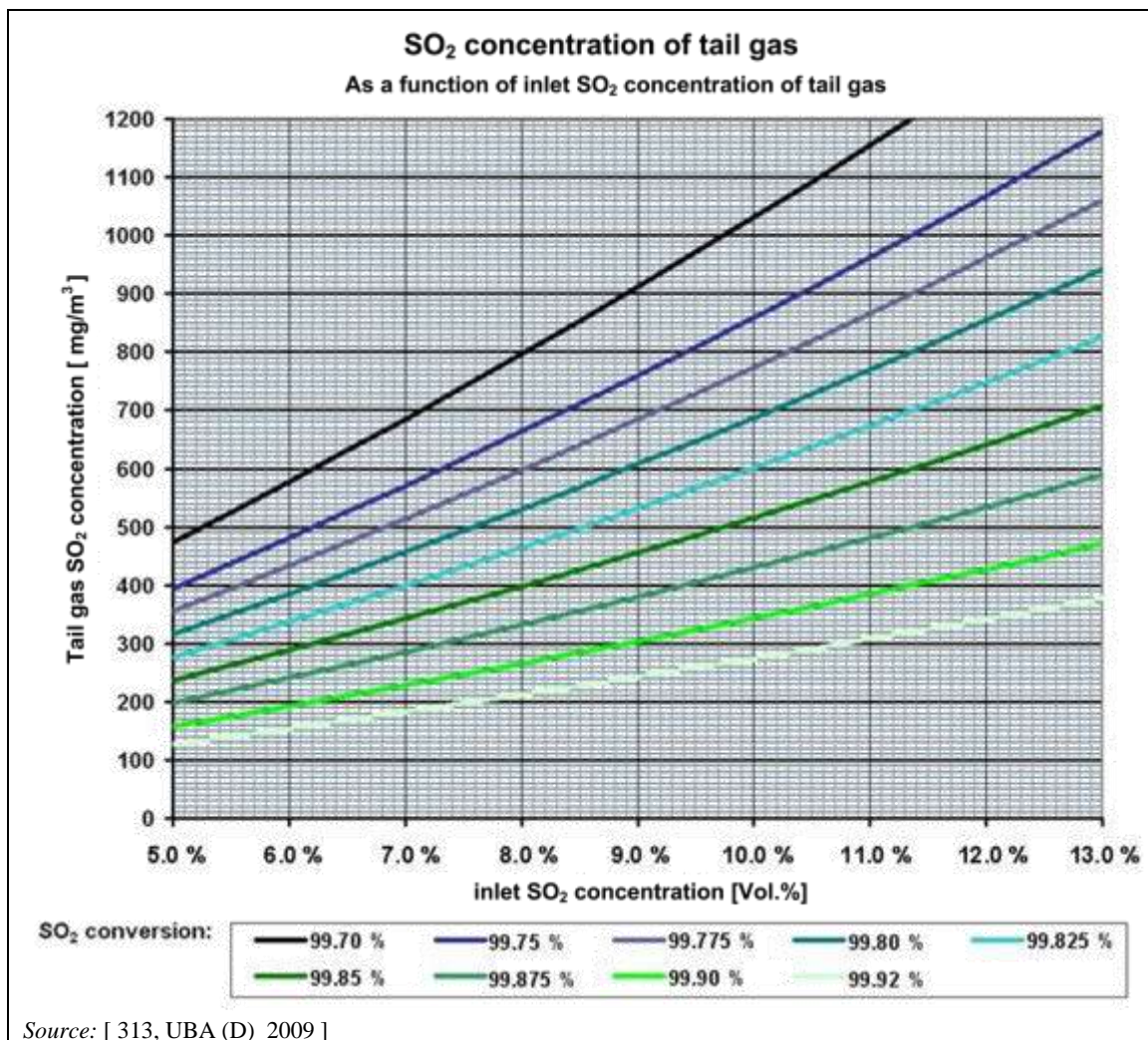


Figure 2.7: Conversion of SO₂ to sulphuric acid

2.7.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The performance of the EU-28 sulphuric acid plants associated with the production of non-ferrous metals is shown in Table 2.3, Table 2.4 and Table 2.5 [238, ECI 2012], [230, COM 2007], [229, Umicore etc. 2007], [233, COM 2008], [231, COM 2007]. Other relevant data are reported in the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007].

Table 2.3: Double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plants associated with non-ferrous metals production

Sulphuric acid plant data (with additional abatement measures where shown in Process type and plants operating normally)											
Company	SO ₂ source	Line	Capacity (t/d)	Process type	Number of beds	Cs-promoted catalyst	Inlet SO ₂ vol. (%)	Conversion rate (%)	SO ₂ year avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ day avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ max. 1/2 h avg. (mg/m ³)
Atlantic Copper, Huelva	Flash smelter and PS converter	1	2200	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Partial fourth bed	5–11.5	99.7–99.83	500–700	400–800	Up to 1000
		2	600		4	Last bed	5.5–8.5	99.7	500–700	400–800	Up to 1200
		3	1300		5	None	5–10	99.7–99.8	500–800	Up to 900	Up to 1200
Aurubis AG, Pirdop	Flash smelter and PS converter	1	1862	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed	7.4–11.3	99.7–99.8	864	600–1000	Up to 1150
		2	1862		4	First and last bed	7.4–11.3	99.7–99.8			
KGHM Głogów 1	Hoboken converter	NR	700	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	None	4.5–8	99.8	NR	250–800	NR
KGHM Głogów 2	Flash furnace (for Cu), Kaldo furnace (for Ag)	NR	900	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	None	6–8	99.9	NR	140–800	NR
Boliden Harjavalta	Cu: flash smelter + PS converters, Ni: Flash smelter	1	2400	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	First bed	7–12	99.8–99.9	350	500	Up to 600
		2	1000		4	First bed	8–13	99.7–99.8	800	1000	Up to 1200
Aurubis AG, Hamburg	Flash smelter and PS converter	1	1300	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	First and last bed	5–12	99.7–99.8	500–800	270–1080	330–1980
		2	1300		4	First and last bed	5–12	99.7–99.8			
		3	1300		5	First bed	5–12	99.8			
Asturiana de zinc Xstrata zinc	Roaster	1	300	Double contact/ Double	4	None	7–8	99.5	1015	992–1365	NR
		2	450		4	None	7–8	99.5	1398	716–1320	NR

		3	850	absorption	4	None	7–8	99.7	1014	476–936	NR
		4	900		4	Last bed	7–8	99.7	715	441–894	NR
Xstrata Zink Nordenham	ZnS roaster	1	590	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Partial first and third bed	5–8.5	99.5–99.7	NR	522	Up to 1300
Nyrstar Balen	Fluidised bed roaster (zinc conc.)	F5	850	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed + top layer third bed	8–9.5	99.5–99.6	800–1200	NR	Up to 1500
Nyrstar Auby	Fluidised bed roaster (zinc conc.)	1	570	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	NR	8–8.5	99.5–99.7	900–1200	NR	NR
Kemira Kokkola	Boliden Kokkola roaster,	1	1000	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	None	6–9	99.6–99.8	600–1000	NR	Up to 400
Boliden Odda	Zn-Smelter	1	370	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Partial first and third bed	7–8	99.2	900–1500	NR	NR
				Wet scrubber with seawater	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	50–300 Based on two spot samples per year
BBH Stolberg	QSL-Pb smelter	NR	360	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Top layer first bed + complete fourth bed	5–12	99.6–99.7	1000	NR	490
Weser-Metall, Nordenham	Ausmelt Pb smelter	1	300	Double contact/ double absorption	5	First bed partial fourth	2–8	99.4–99.7	600–1100	200–800	Up to 1300
NB: NR = Not reported. Source: [238, ECI 2012], [230, COM 2007], [229, IZA plant data 2008], [233, COM 2008] [231, COM 2007], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]											

Table 2.4: Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metals production

Sulphuric acid plant data (plants operating normally)										
Company	SO ₂ source	Capacity (t/d)	Process type	Number of beds	Cs-promoted catalyst	Inlet SO ₂ vol. (%)	Conversion rate (%)	SO ₂ year avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ day avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ max 1/2 h avg. (mg/m ³)
Boliden Rönnskär	Roaster, smelter, flash smelter, PS converter	2000	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Last bed	7–10.5	99.97	100–160	NR	NR
Boliden Rönnskär	Roaster, smelter, flash smelter, PS converter	NR	Cold seawater plant	NA	NA	7–10.5	NR	120–220	NR	NR
Umicore Hoboken	ISASMELT	360	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed	Min. < 1 Max. 7–10	> 99.7	80	55–246	Up to 300
KCM Plovdiv	Zn roaster	440	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed	6–7.5	99.8–99.85	140–280	NR	Up to 360
Nyrstar Budel	Fluidised bed roaster (zinc conc.)	1000	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Yes	5–7.2 (low variation inlet conc.)	Up to 99.97	50–80	NR	39–193
NB: NA = Not applicable; NR = Not reported.										
Source: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [238, ECI 2012], [230, COM 2007], [229, IZA plant data 2008], [233, COM 2008], [231, COM 2007], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]										

Table 2.5: Single contact sulphuric acid plants associated with non-ferrous metals production

Sulphuric acid plant data (with additional abatement measures and plants operating normally)											
Company	SO ₂ source	Line	Capacity (t/d)	Process type	Number of beds	Cs-promoted catalyst	Inlet SO ₂ vol. (%)	Conversion rate (%)	SO ₂ year avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ day avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ max. 1/2 h avg. (mg/m ³)
KGHM Legnica	Shaft furnace, Hoboken converter	1	210	Single contact/ Single absorption and Solinox plant	4	None	5–12	96–98	NR	200–600	NR
		2	210		4	None	5–12	96–98	NR	200–600	NR
Nyrstar Balen	Fluidised bed roaster (zinc conc.)	F4	320	Single absorption with ZnO scrubber	4	Last bed	4.5–7	98.8–99.1	NR	600–900	Up to 1700
Sadaci	Molybdenite roaster	1	115	WSA condenser	3	First two beds	1–3.5	99	NR	320–450	100–700

NB: NR = Not reported.

Source: [238, ECI 2012], [230, COM 2007], [229, IZA plant data 2008], [233, COM 2008], [231, COM 2007], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

2.8 Water and waste water management

This section gives an overview of the generation of liquid effluents in a common process. The ways to reduce the volume of waste water and the practice of recycling water are discussed to give an understanding of some of the concepts that may be transferred between the metal groups [27, M. Barry et al. 1993]. The effluent treatment in a waste water treatment plant is described in Section 2.12.6

2.8.1 Main sources of liquid effluent

The production of non-ferrous metals by pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical methods is associated with the generation of different liquid effluents. The main sources of the most important effluent streams can be classified as shown in Figure 2.8.

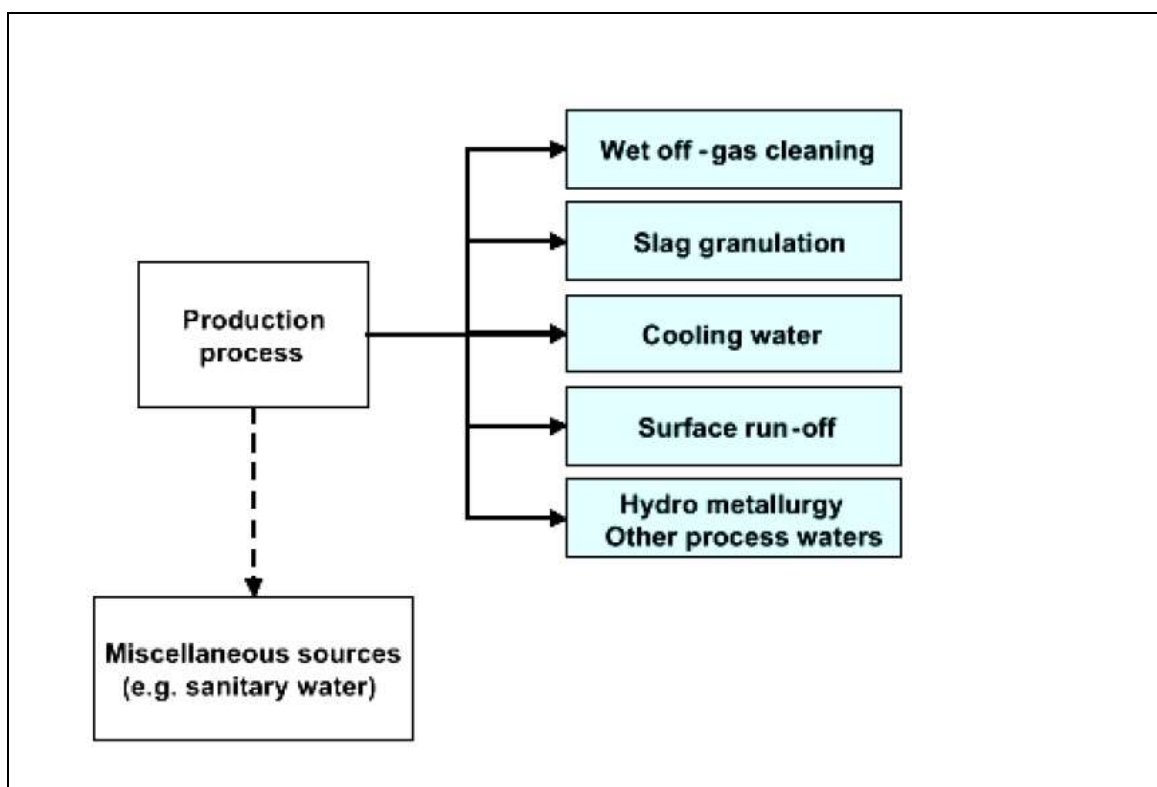


Figure 2.8: Effluent classification

The above waste water streams can be contaminated by metal compounds from the production processes and may have a high environmental impact. Even at low concentrations, some metals like mercury and cadmium are very toxic. This can be illustrated by the fact that mercury and cadmium head the list of priority hazardous substances drawn up at the North Sea Conference of 1984, which called for a 50 % reduction of emissions into the North Sea. The toxic effect of some metal compounds is also due to the fact that, under the correct chemical conditions, metals can easily enter natural watercourses as soluble species and be quickly and irreversibly assimilated into the food chain [166, Clark, J.H. 1995] (see also Annex 13.2.2 for the MERAG methodology [301, MERAG 2007]).

2.8.1.1 Effluents from off-gas cleaning

Wet air pollution control equipment is gradually being replaced by dry control techniques. Dry abatement techniques like fabric filters have the advantage that no sludge or waste water are treated and the collected dust can often be recycled directly back into the main process, and so the cross-media issues are therefore reduced in comparison to wet systems.

There are certain cases when wet air cleaning techniques, e.g. wet scrubbers or wet electrostatic precipitators, need to be applied. These are used especially when other abatement systems are not suitable, where there is a risk of explosion or combustion from flammable particles, and if gaseous substances (for example, sulphur dioxide or trioxide) as well as particles have to be removed from the off-gas stream. Wet electrostatic precipitators are necessary when humid, saturated gases with a high dust content have to be cleaned. For example, during the production of primary zinc and copper, the off-gas from the process, which contains dust and sulphur dioxide, is cleaned using a scrubber and a wet electrostatic precipitator. Wet electrostatic precipitators are also used to collect the tar mist in the off-gases from an electrode-baking furnace. In wet scrubbers, acceleration and deceleration of the gas stream and the atomised scrubbing liquid produces high turbulence between the gases, the dust and the droplets of liquid. The dust particles are very quickly wetted and chemical reactions are speeded up. A subsequent collector extracts the droplets of liquid and the wetted dust from the gas steam. The contaminated effluent can then be removed for further treatment. If there is no enrichment of soluble components in the scrubbing liquid, removal of the suspended solids by a thickener makes it possible to reuse the scrubbing liquid. However, in some cases, precipitation of soluble components should be carried out in order to reuse the spent scrubbing liquid.

The liquid effluent generally requires further treatment, for instance by neutralisation and/or sedimentation for solid-liquid separation. Sometimes specific treatment measures like ion exchange are used to remove very harmful or valuable metal compounds. For example, ion exchange is used to recover rhenium from the scrubber effluent that is generated by cleaning the off-gas from a molybdenite roaster. This process is used for both removing a metal compound from the waste water and serves as the most important source for the production of rhenium metal.

Weak acid produced in wet electrostatic precipitators can be treated in a number of ways:

- by concentration and then decomposition in the smelting furnace, when SO_2 can be recovered in the acid plant;
- the treated liquid can normally be sent back to the wet cleaning system, but a bleed is required to control the composition of the scrubbing liquid;
- weak acid from these processes can also be reused in other processes if they are available.

It has been reported that in several cases the process water from the wet scrubbing system of a smelting furnace contains cyanides formed by the reaction of carbon with atmospheric nitrogen. The cyanide level can be reduced by using the scrubbing water for slag granulation, which leads to evaporation and oxidation of most of the cyanides.

Another main effluent stream arises from the removal of mercury from some roaster off-gases. The mercury removal step involves a gas-liquid contact tank with a solution of mercury chloride (HgCl_2). This mercury chloride reacts with metallic mercury from the gas to form a solid Hg_2Cl_2 precipitate (calomel). The precipitated slurry is removed and oxidised with Cl_2 to form the HgCl_2 washing solution. Some of the slurry is dewatered by a filter press and sold as Hg_2Cl_2 for mercury recovery or disposed of as a special waste.

Effluents from the process are pretreated locally for mercury removal by reaction with zinc dust or by precipitation as HgS , before processing in a final effluent treatment plant.

2.8.1.2 Effluent from matte or slag granulation and the production of metal shot and density separation

During the production of non-ferrous metals, the matte, slag and produced metal will be tapped off from the furnaces. The materials can be granulated separately by pouring them into water, using a high-pressure water jet or other quench systems to form evenly sized particles. The granulated metal can then be sold as metal shot. The granulated slag may be used for other purposes and granulated matte can be used in a converter stage. A typical granulation stage is shown in Figure 2.9.

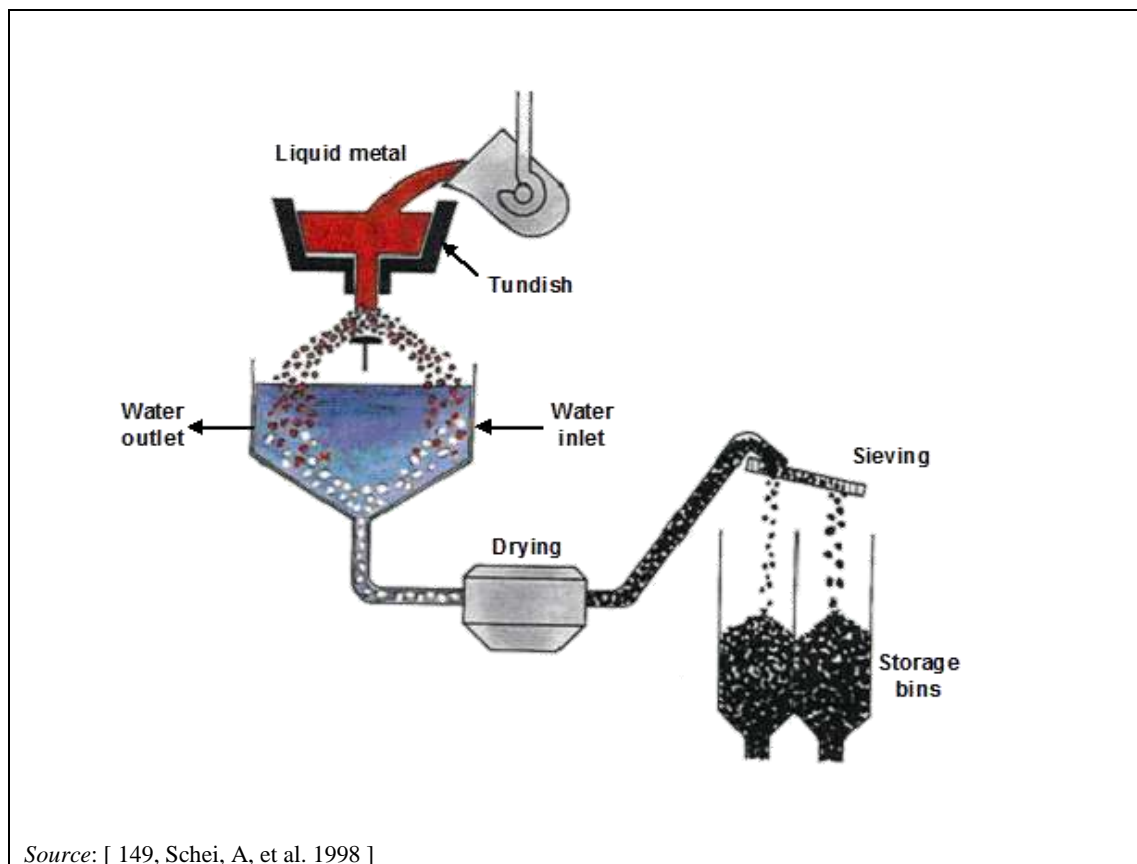


Figure 2.9: Granulation of molten metal

The liquid effluent that arises from the granulation step is usually recycled in a closed circuit (see Figure 2.10). To prevent the build-up of suspended solids and metal compounds, the blowdown should be removed from the water circulation system continuously.

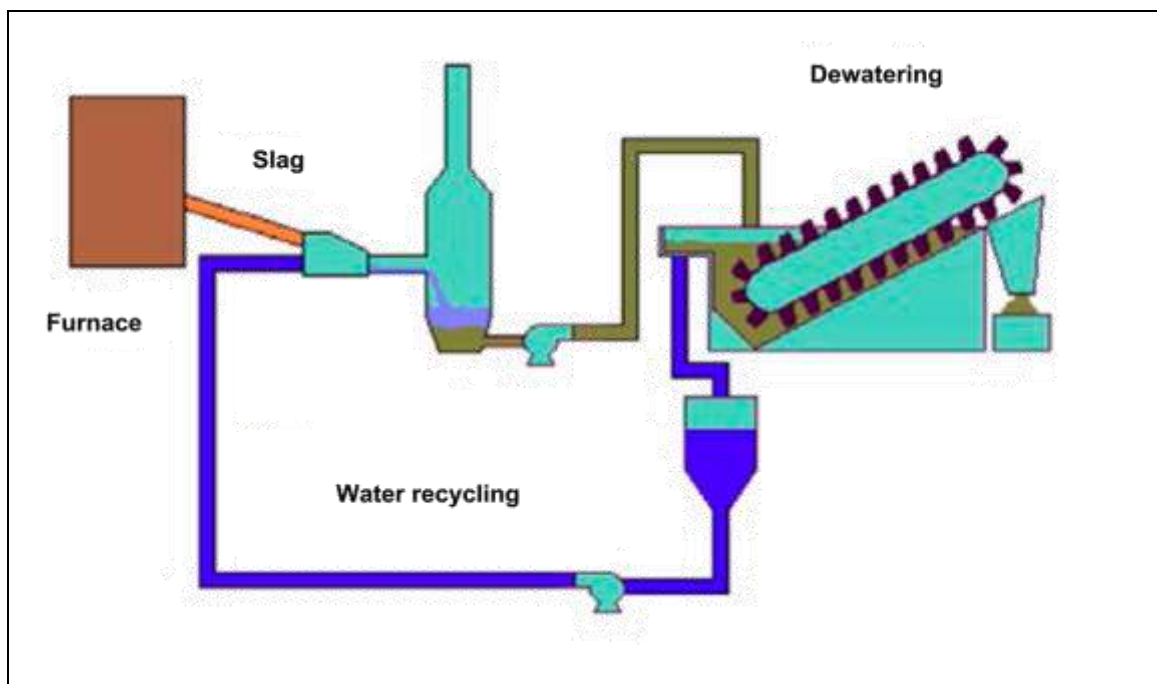


Figure 2.10: Closed water loop in granulation systems

Relative density separation (sink or swim) is also used to separate metals and compounds from light contaminants, for example the removal of plastic components after shredding. The liquid effluent that arises is usually recycled and floating material is removed. To prevent a build-up of suspended solids and metals, the blowdown should be removed from the water circulation system continuously.

The blowdown or effluent is usually sent to a central waste water treatment plant.

2.8.1.3 Cooling water

Cooling water is used on a large scale for the different cooling requirements in metal-producing industries. It can be divided into non-contact cooling water and direct-contact cooling water as detailed below.

- Non-contact cooling water is used for cooling furnaces, furnace hoods, casting machines, etc. Depending on the location of the plant, cooling can be achieved by a once-through system or a recirculation system with evaporative cooling towers. Water from a once-through cooling system is normally discharged back to the natural source, for instance a river or a cooling pond. In this case, the potential increase in temperature should be considered before the water is discharged to the natural water body. Non-contact cooling water may also be recycled via cooling towers.
- Direct-contact cooling is used during some casting operations. This cooling water is normally contaminated with metals and suspended solids and often arises in large quantities. Due to the specific matrix and in order to avoid dilution effects, direct-contact cooling water should principally be treated separately from other waste water.

The amount of heat emissions and maximum discharge temperatures depend on local conditions. Specifically, the impact on the aquatic environment has to be considered on a case-by-case basis. If needed, cooling of the processes has to be expressly designed. If process cooling is required, it can be applied by:

- heat exchange with water (surface water or similar);
- heat exchange with air;
- evaporation cooling towers.

In order to minimise the impact of cooling on the environment as a whole, the BREF on Industrial Cooling Systems should be used.

2.8.1.4 Surface run-off water

Surface run-off water arises from the contamination of rainwater that is collected from building roofs and paved areas at the production facility. Contamination of rainwater occurs when materials such as dust that contain metals from storage, surface deposition, etc. or oils are washed into the drainage system. Contamination of surface water can be prevented or minimised by using good practice for the storage of raw materials, as well as by good maintenance and cleaning of the whole production plant.

Surface run-off water may be collected separately. After a sedimentation step or chemical treatment, it can be reused for other purposes in the production process, for instance as cooling water or for water sprays to prevent dust formation.

2.8.1.5 Effluents from the hydrometallurgical process

The main liquid effluents arising from the hydrometallurgical production of non-ferrous metals are listed in Table 2.6 below.

Table 2.6: Potential sources of liquid effluents from the hydrometallurgical production of non-ferrous metals

Process unit	Operation/source	Use options
Roaster gas cleaning	Wet cleaning of roaster gases	Waste water treatment plant consisting of precipitation steps, sometimes with removal of metals using ion exchangers
Leaching	General operations including wet gas cleaning	Return to leaching
Purification	General operations	Return to leaching or next process step
Electrolysis	Cleaning of cells, anodes and cathodes. Spent electrolyte. Electrolyte bleed	Return to leaching. Return to electrolysis after treatment

The hydrometallurgical production process usually starts with a leaching operation. During leaching, the desired metal and other elements will be liberated from the mineral and dissolve into the liquid phase.

Typical leaching reagents and reactions are shown below [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]:

- water for water-soluble compounds (copper sulphate);
- sulphuric, hydrochloric and nitric acids or sodium hydroxide for metal oxides;
- complexing agents, e.g. cyanide (gold, silver) or ammonia (copper and nickel minerals);
- reduction of a mineral by a suitable gas or oxidation, for example, manganese dioxide by sulphur dioxide, and nickel matte by chlorine;
- acid-base reactions, e.g. recovery of a tungsten complex from tungsten at a high pH.

To increase the amount of the desired metal in the leach liquor, a number of hydrometallurgical purification and enrichment techniques may be used. The target metal may be recovered from the purified solution using different techniques such as cementation, gaseous reactions, selective precipitation, ion exchange, solvent extraction, crystallisation, evaporative concentration or electrolysis. To ensure a correct balance in some of these processes, it is normally necessary to constantly remove part of the liquor.

During the production of zinc for instance, the electrolyte may be bled to control the build-up of magnesium, which otherwise may have a detrimental impact on the operation of the electrolytic cells. The flows in the electrolytic cells belong to the same (closed) water circuit as the leaching and purification stages: the sulphuric acid formed during electrolysis is fed to the leaching process and the remaining liquid is purified and fed to the electrolytic process.

The effluent bleed of the electrolysis-leaching-purification circuit is strongly acidic and contains high concentrations of zinc and suspended solids. The volume of the bleed depends strongly on the composition of the zinc concentrates that are used in the roasting. Components that tend to build up (i.e. are not sufficiently removed from the solution) in the circuit, especially magnesium, will determine the bleed flow.

Many facilities have already demonstrated that effluents generated as electrolyte bleed may be recycled to the leaching operation depending on the contaminants that are present. Electrolyte bleed may also be recycled to electrolysis after the removal of contaminants or low-value elements.

2.8.1.6 Other process waters

There are other sources of effluent in this sector. The most important are:

- the liquors produced during the Bayer process to produce alumina;
- acidic waste waters produced during lead-acid battery processing or the processing of precious metals;
- weak sulphuric acid from sulphuric acid plants;
- waste waters from the refining of germanium, gallium, etc.

These waste waters are covered in more detail in the metal-specific chapters but the processes used are sometimes capable of recycling the liquors back into the process or using the acid value in other processes.

Pickling operations are also sources of process waters and the following two examples show how non-acid pickling can be used and how the impact of acid pickling can be minimised.

Non-acid pickling

This process operates in a sealed circuit. Rods can be pickled in an in-line system that consists of a compartmentalised horizontal steel pipe. A 2.5–5 % solution of isopropanol (IPA) in water is used. In copper, the process of converting the cuprous oxide scale in the vapour phase to form copper (left on the rod) is known as the Burns process [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. The spent pickling solution could be processed for IPA recovery or vacuum distilled. The sludges/solids separated from pickling solutions are used for metal recovery. Water from the IPA recovery and spent pickling solution distillation could be recycled for emulsion preparation or sent for waste water treatment.

Acid pickling

Acid pickling uses a compartmentalised horizontal system [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. In the first stage, the material is pickled with diluted sulphuric acid; then the residual acid is washed in several stages from the metal surface by water sprays, followed by drying using compressed air. Surface pickling is usually performed with sulphuric acid, but for some alloys and for metals

such as titanium, nitric acid, sometimes as a mixture with sulphuric acid, is used in continuous lines or automatic systems. Gas cleaning is used to recover or remove nitric acid fumes; the acid is changed from time to time. Spent acid is sent for treatment and the recovery of metal. The pickling systems are vented for worker protection.

The products are rinsed, the rinse water is sent for treatment, and the sludges are recycled if possible. For surface degreasing of rolled products, detergents are used. The spent water is cleaned by ultrafiltration. If organic solvents are used for surface degreasing, a vapour degreasing system is used. In this case, chlorinated hydrocarbons may be present in any waste water treatment sludge that is produced.

An alternative process is used for some copper rod production. After partial cooling in a long water-filled tube, the rod is formed into spirals corresponding to the diameter of the coil. These spirals are spread onto a roller table where the temperature is reduced to 20 °C by water sprinklers. An acid-resistant alloy conveyor carries these spirals into the pickling tanks where the rod is pickled with a 20 % sulphuric acid solution. The acid pickling system ensures a perfect removal of all oxides from the rod surface. The loops are then washed with rinsing water and finally protected by a wax solution.

Electrowinning can be used to recover the metal dissolved by the pickling acid. The wash solution may also be treated by ion exchange.

2.8.1.7 Miscellaneous sources

In an industrial plant for producing non-ferrous metals, a great number of other sources are involved. Examples are liquid effluents from cleaning stations for trucks delivering raw material; sealing water from pumps; and general operations, including the cleaning of equipment, floors, etc. These liquid effluents are normally collected and treated. Water from the sanitary system is normally discharged to the public sewerage system.

2.8.2 Applied processes and techniques

Process-integrated measures and waste water treatment techniques are described

2.9 Residue management

The production of non-ferrous metals from primary and secondary raw material is related to the potential generation of a wide variety of by-products, intermediate products and wastes. The focus should always be on the minimisation of waste by optimising the process and by utilising residues and wastes as far as possible, provided there are no negative cross-media effects. These residues arise from different stages of the production process such as from the metallurgical operations and the smelting process as well as from the off-gas and waste water treatment [83, NRW (D) 1997]. The content and value of the elements contained in the residue influence its potential for reuse, e.g. anode slime is a viable raw material for the recovery of precious metals. Any designation of a residue as waste for disposal should take this into account. Also, some filter dust such as silica fumes that arise from the smelting process of ferro-silicon and silicon metal can be used as a by-product [226, Nordic Report 2008].

According to current EU legislation (Directive 2008/98/EC on waste (Waste Framework Directive)), many of these residues are regarded as wastes. However, the non-ferrous metals industry has for many decades used numerous residues as raw materials for other processes and an extensive network of metallurgical operators has long been established to increase the recovery of metals and reduce the quantities of waste for disposal. It has been reported that some legislative measures to control waste movements are inhibiting the recycling of residues from metallurgical operations [96, Bontoux, L. et al. 1997]. It is also well known that the metal-producing industries obtain one of the highest recycling rates in all industrial sectors: most of the materials listed above are recycled or reused within the non-ferrous metals industries themselves as well as in other industries, for example in the cement, abrasives manufacturing and construction industries (see Figure 2.11). It is not the intention to discard or dispose of them. They are the result of the metal separation that is necessary for their recovery and the production of pure metals from complex sources. This helps to reduce cross-media issues to a minimum. Nevertheless, the problem of residues from production facilities and the designation of some of these materials will also play an important role in future permits and the techniques tend to concentrate on this aspect. A substance may however be described as a waste, or as a secondary raw material, depending on the context of its production, transport, and use or recovery.

According to a research project on the avoidance and recycling of waste from a large number of non-ferrous metals smelting plants in North Rhine-Westphalia, the following breakdown in Figure 2.11 demonstrates the importance of the different recycling routes.

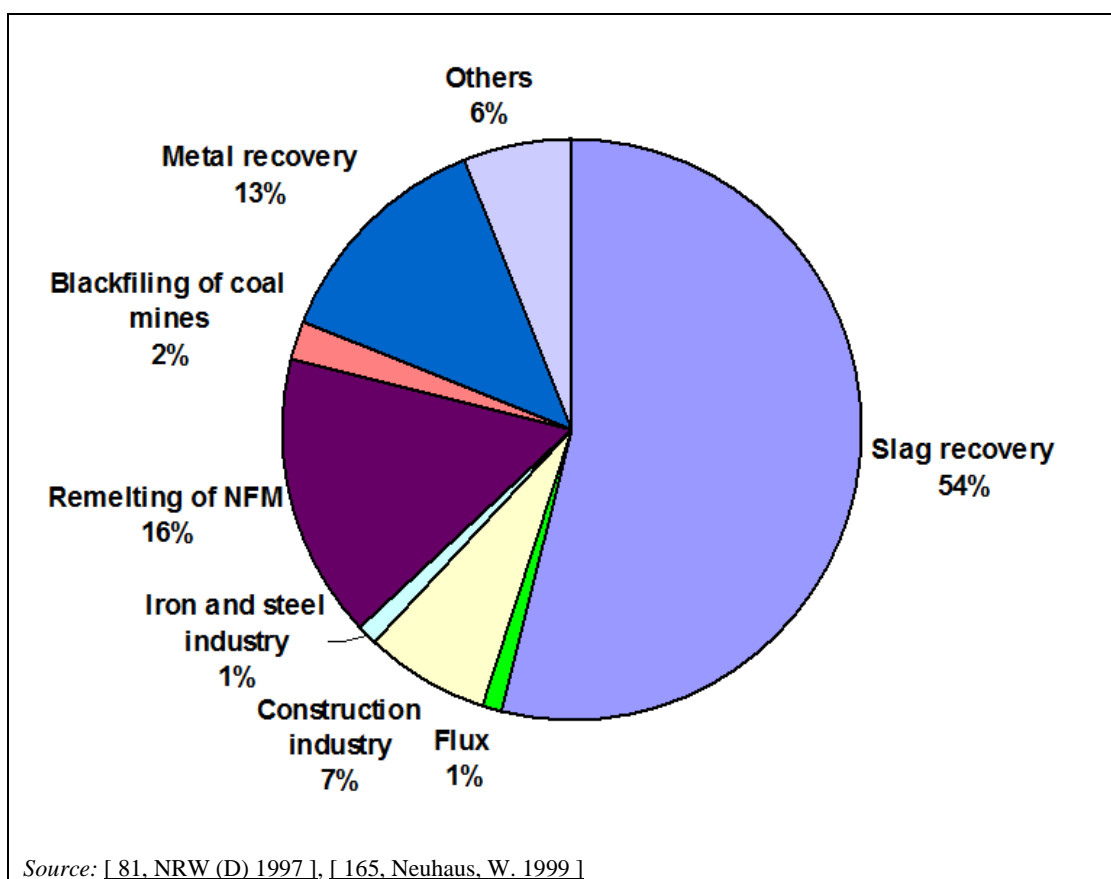


Figure 2.11: Different recycling routes according to the amount of residues generated by some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia

An indication of the most commonly applied processes and techniques is given in the following sections. Detailed information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

2.9.1 Applied processes and techniques for residues from the smelting process

The main residues arising from the smelting of non-ferrous metals are slag, dross and skimmings removed during the pyrometallurgical processes. Slag is generated by the reaction of slag-forming accompanying elements (e.g. Fe) with added fluxes. In the smelting process, the slag is liquid and has a different density to the melted metal and can therefore be tapped off separately.

Most of the slag generated by downstream or refining operations in non-ferrous metals production processes can usually be recycled or used for further metal recovery. Figure 2.12 shows the electric furnace cleaning of copper slags to achieve the internal recycling of the slag. In this example, molten slag obtained from the converter, which has a high copper content, is returned to the smelter. The slag leaving the smelter is decopperised in an electric slag cleaning furnace. This furnace is operated continuously with an almost continuous flow of slag. Depending on local facilities, the resulting clean slag is either granulated to produce abrasives or cooled slowly and broken into lumps for filling or construction material.

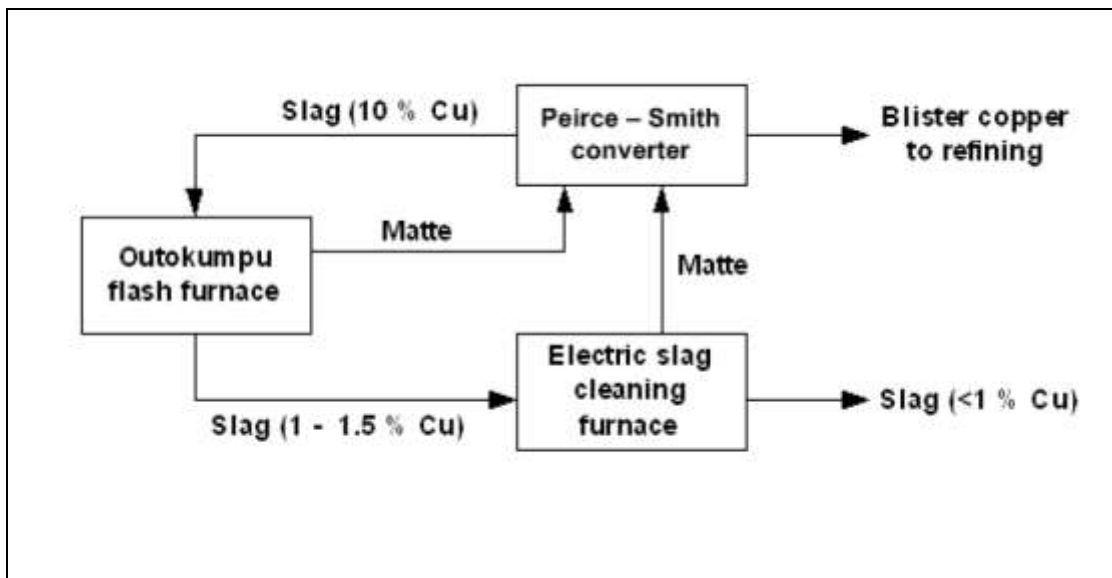


Figure 2.12: Electric furnace cleaning of copper slags

There is a distinction between slag with a high metal content, which is recycled within the process or transferred to another process or site for recovery, and final slag with a low metal content.

Several facilities in the non-ferrous metals industries have demonstrated that there is a market in which they are able to sell slag for further beneficial use. The use of slag as a construction material to replace aggregates is only possible if the amount of leachable metal compounds is low. There are various tests to demonstrate this, such as [268, Belgium 2008], [289, USEPA 2008]. Slag that cannot be used as an abrasive or in civil engineering and construction is used for recycling, or used as construction material in special cases (e.g. construction of disposal areas), or sent for disposal.

Salt slag is generated by melting light metals (aluminium, magnesium). The use of a salt flux prevents the melted metal from oxidising and binds the impurities from the process. There are different ways to minimise the amount of salt flux used, as well as different treatment techniques for salt and metal recovery and they are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

Dross and skimmings are generated by the oxidation of metals at the bath surface or by reactions with fireproof material used as furnace linings. The metal content of skimmings/dross is relatively high (between 20 % and 80 %), therefore they can normally be recycled to the main process or supplied to other non-ferrous metal plants for recovery of metals.

Another source of residues is spent linings and refractories. These arise when refractory material falls out of the furnace linings or during the complete renewal of the furnace lining. The durability of a furnace lining is between a few weeks and several years depending on the process and metal (e.g. for the Outotec flash furnace in primary copper production, 6 to 10 years is possible). The amount of spent furnace lining material arising could be up to 5 kg per tonne of metal produced depending on the melted metal [83, NRW (D) 1997]. The following practices are used for furnace linings: treatment in a smelter to form an inert slag, e.g. linings from a brass melting process are sent directly to a local secondary copper smelter; use as a component in the taphole mass; disposal of inert linings. Table 2.7 gives an overview of the amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues from some non-ferrous metal smelting furnaces in Germany. In this sense, recycling means that the residue is returned to the process in which it was produced. Reuse means that the residue is used for another purpose, e.g. slag may be reused as a construction material

Table 2.7: Amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues reported in 1996 for some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia

Residue	Amount of residue reported in tonnes in 1996		
	Recycled or reused	Disposed of	Total amount
Refractory waste (silicon dioxide)	21	188	209
Refractory waste	1655	1145	2800
Refractory waste with harmful components	637	728	1365
Slag	16 869	3	16 872
Dross from lead smelting	1903	0	1903
Aluminium-containing skimmings/dross	45 904	927	46 831
Magnesium-containing dross	615	81	696
Salt slag from aluminium smelting	112 438	0	112 438
Other residues	348	0	348

Source: [81, NRW (D) 1997]

2.9.2 Applied processes and techniques for residues from abatement systems

Abatement systems are another major source of solid materials. These are flue-gas dust and sludge recovered from the air pollution control equipment, as well as other solid waste like spent filter material such as filter bags.

Dust from the storage and handling of raw material or from preprocessing unit operations is collected by the dedusting system (usually a fabric filter) and sent back to the main process or another smelter. In some cases, the dust should be agglomerated before it can be recycled to the raw material storage and handling station.

Dust-laden off-gas from the smelting and refining facilities can be cleaned (as described in Section 2.12.5) using different abatement techniques. The material collected as dust by the off-gas cleaning can be agglomerated and sent back to the smelter or supplied as a raw material for further metal recovery in other facilities. An example is the zinc-rich dust from a converter or an electric slag cleaning furnace in the primary copper smelting process, which can be treated as a by-product and reused as a raw material in a zinc recovery plant [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. Another example is the use of silica fumes (micro-silica), which are collected in the fabric filter by smelting silicon metal or ferro-silicon and sold as a valuable by-product to the construction industry.

The sludge from a scrubber that contains metal is normally drained, for instance in a chamber filter press, and sent back to the smelter.

When off-gas cleaning takes place in a dry dedusting system, the filter material should occasionally be replaced. The filters contain metal compounds and particles from the process. There are a number of examples where filter material is used in the pyrometallurgical process. If this is not possible, it is sent for final disposal to an incinerator or another disposal site. Table 2.8 gives some information about the amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues from abatement systems in some non-ferrous metals plants in Germany.

Table 2.8: Amount of recycled, reused and discharged residues reported in 1996 for some non-ferrous metals plants in North Rhine-Westphalia

Residue	Amount of residue reported in tonnes in 1996		
	Recycled or reused	Disposed of	Total amount
Dust that contains metals	6550	1886	8436
Dust	201	13	214
Mineral residues from the abatement system	2638	1752	4390
Sludge	508	4	512
Dust that contains aluminium	1477	66	1543
<i>Source: [82, NRW (D) 1997]</i>			

The quantity of spent filter bags may be decreased by using modern filter materials that are more robust. Fabric filters are characterised as an abatement technique that does not need very much maintenance. In the case of bag damage, the appropriate filter compartment can be isolated with cover plates until repairs can be carried out safely. A filter change is normally only necessary if 10–20 % of the filter compartments have been taken out of service.

The replacement of filter bags with modern, reliable fabrics is often easy but the technical requirements and the related investment costs of individual cases should be considered. In the case of a conversion or renewal of the filter system, the service life and the filter susceptibility can mean fewer bags are necessary. If this results in additional installation costs, they can usually be compensated for by the decrease in the number of bag failures.

2.9.3 Applied processes and techniques for residues from liquid effluent treatment

Pyrometallurgical processes for the production of non-ferrous metals do not normally produce harmful waste water. The water is used for the direct or indirect cooling of furnaces, blowing lances and casting machines, e.g. for copper anode or continuous casting. This water is warmed up by cooling the equipment but is normally not polluted with chemical impurities or metal particles. Therefore cooling water is usually discharged directly back into the receiving source after settlement or another treatment step. Solid material that is removed is returned to the smelter.

If a wet scrubber is used for cleaning the process off-gas, waste water is generated. This stream of waste water should be treated to reduce the amount of metal compounds. This treatment produces sludge that may be rich in metal and can sometimes be recycled to the process if the metal content is high enough.

Process water arises from hydrometallurgical operations and presents a high risk of water pollution. It should therefore be cleaned in a waste water treatment plant. The cleaning takes place by the neutralisation or precipitation of specific ions. The main residues from these effluent treatment systems are gypsum (CaSO_4), metal hydroxides and sulphides. The sludge is sometimes recycled back to the main production process.

2.9.4 Applied processes and techniques for residues from the non-ferrous metals hydrometallurgical processes

The production of non-ferrous metals by hydrometallurgical processes is another significant source of solid residues. The leaching process can generate relatively large quantities of sludge (e.g. approximately 0.3–0.5 tonnes of iron-based solids per tonne of zinc depending on the quality of the concentrate). These residues are normally disposed of in specially sealed lagoons or underground deposits, e.g. blasted mountain caverns. Some residues are also compacted or treated in the Jarofix process before disposal.

The leaching and purification process and electrolytic process also generate other metal-rich solids. They are usually rich in a specific metal and can sometimes be recycled to the production process or sent for metal recovery to other non-ferrous metals facilities (e.g. for the production of precious metals, lead, copper and cadmium). The anode slime from the copper tank house for instance is one of the most important raw materials for the recovery of precious metals and is therefore considered a valuable by-product of copper production. These issues are discussed in the chapters dealing with the individual metal groups.

2.9.5 Applied processes and techniques for other residues from the production of non-ferrous metals

Wherever practicable, waste streams incidental to the main processes should be segregated for recovery or appropriate safe disposal.

All machinery that is operated in an industrial installation uses oil as a lubricant. This should be changed, due to metal pick-up and chemical reactions in the oil. Regular maintenance, repairs and preventive maintenance can minimise oil loss by leakage and increases the intervals between the oil changes. A reduction in the quantity of oil used is also achieved using filtration, which gives an extension of the service life. For example, bypass filters may be installed to continuously clean a small part of the oil. These measures cause result in an extension of the service life by up to a factor of 10 depending on the specific filter system. If used oil filters are collected separately, they can be crushed in a shredder. The metal can be reused in a smelter as secondary raw material, and the oil can be centrifuged and then sent to a used oil refinery (or in some countries, e.g. Italy, it is compulsory to send it to a consortium or agency).

In some circumstances, these oil residues can be used as a source of energy on site, but since this technique involves the (co)incineration of waste, the installation should comply with Chapter IV of the IED.

2.9.6 Examples of recycling and reuse

As already shown in this section, residues from the production of non-ferrous metals can be recycled and reused to a large extent. Table 2.9 summarises the different possibilities for recycling and reusing these residues. More information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Table 2.9: Residues and potential uses

Source of the residues	Associated metals	Intermediate product or residue	Options for recycling or reuse
Raw material handling, etc.	All metals	Dust, sweepings	Feed for the main process
Smelting furnace	All metals	Slag	Return to smelting; construction material; abrasive industry; part of the slag may be used as refractory material, e.g. slag from the production of chromium metal
	Some ferro-alloys	Rich slag	Raw material for other ferro-alloy processes
Converting furnace	Cu	Slag	Recycle to smelter
Refining furnaces	Cu	Slag	Recycle to smelter
	Pb	Skimmings/dross	Recovery of other valuable metals
	Precious metals	Skimmings/dross and slag	Internal or external recycling
Slag treatment	Cu and Ni	Cleaned slag	Construction material, abrasives, drainage filling material, filler in cement production
		Matte	Metal recovery
Melting furnace	All metals	Skimmings/dross	Return to process after treatment
		Slag	Metal recovery
	Secondary Al	Salt slag	Metal, salt and oxide recovery
Electrorefining	Cu	Electrolyte bleed	Recovery of Ni
		Anode remnants	Return to converter
		Anode slime	Recovery of precious metals
Electrowinning	Zn, Ni, Co, PMs	Spent electrolyte	Reuse in leaching process
Fused salt electrolysis	Al	SPL	Carburant or disposal
		Excess bath	Sale as electrolyte
		Anode stubs	Recovery
	Na and Li	Cell material	Scrap iron after cleaning
Distillation	Hg	Residues	Reuse as process feed
	Zn, Cd	Residues	Return to ISF
Leaching	Zn	Ferrite residues	Disposal, reuse of liquor
	Cu	Residues	Disposal
	Ni	Cu/Fe residues	Recovery, disposal
Sulphuric acid plant		Catalyst	Regeneration, recycling or disposal
		Acid sludges	Metal recovery, disposal
		Weak acid	Leaching, decomposition, neutralisation, gypsum production
Furnace linings	All metals	Refractory	Use as slagging agent, disposal; reuse as a refractory
Milling, grinding	Carbon	Carbon and graphite dusts	Use as raw material in other processes
Pickling	Cu, Ti	Spent acid	Recovery

Dry abatement systems	Most metals (using fabric filters or ESPs)	Filter dust	Return to process; recovery of other metals
Wet abatement systems	Most metals (using scrubbers or wet ESPs)	Filter sludge	Return to process or recovery of other metals; disposal (e.g. Hg)
Waste water treatment sludge	Most metals	Hydroxide or sulphide sludges	Disposal, reuse
Digestion	Alumina	Red mud	Disposal, reuse of liquor

2.10 Decommissioning

Article 11(h) of the IED requires that the necessary measures be taken upon definitive cessation of activities to avoid any pollution risk and to return the site of operation to a satisfactory state. Soil and water protection are of major importance and the resuspension of soil and dust to air should be prevented so that they do not form diffuse emissions once an installation or part of an installation is closed [237, UBA (A) 2004]. An integrated approach means that at least the following measures are taken.

- Minimise the amount of soil that should be excavated or replaced due to construction and make sure that excavated soil material is treated carefully (in order to avoid harmful changes to soil properties).
- Minimise the input of substances into the soil by leakage, aerial deposition and inappropriate storage of raw materials, products or process residues during the operational phase of a facility.
- Assess historical contamination to take account of conditions prior to regulation to ensure a clean closure when a facility is shut down, e.g. clean-up and rehabilitation to allow future use of the area. Natural soil functions should be safeguarded, if feasible.

Site reports can be made at the earliest opportunity to establish a baseline against which further site contamination can be assessed. This baseline report can then be compared to later reports when the installation is sold, closed or redeveloped. The baseline report can also be used to prioritise action to be taken at the installation.

The remediation measures that could be taken are specific to individual sites, but could include intermediate cover, leachate collection, surface cover, removal of contaminated earth and the provision of geological barriers [237, UBA (A) 2004], [248, UBA (A) 2009].

For new plants, decommissioning should be considered at the design stage to prevent contamination. The UK Environment Agency has published a guide that describes the techniques to be used at the design stage so that decommissioning forms part of the total concept. The guide was prepared by the University of Bath [288, UK 2002]. The UK Environment Agency also requires operators of the activities listed in IED Annex I to submit a decommissioning plan to supplement their permits. For existing installations, the operator is asked to produce the plan as part of an Improvement Programme.

2.11 Safety Issues

Safety issues can be covered in a management system based on OHSAS 18001 or in an Integrated Management System standard such as PAS 99. The general policy for the prevention of, preparation for, and response to industrial accidents is based on the principles described below.

2.11.1 Prevention principle

The construction and operation of a plant should be carried out:

- in such a way as to prevent the uncontrolled development of abnormal operation;
- in such a way that the consequences of accidents are reduced;
- according to the best available safety techniques (state-of-the-art safety technology).

2.11.2 Consideration of complex systems in process industries

Complex systems can only be examined sufficiently by means of systematic, logical methods. This is taken into account by applying:

- systematic analytical investigation methods such as hazard and operability studies (HAZOP) or failure mode and effects analysis (FMEA);
- a detailed safety analysis considering the conditions of the individual case.

2.11.3 Appropriateness of means

Safety requirements are graded according to 'type and scope of hazards to be expected'. To this end, rules within Member States are usually set for:

- substances relevant to accidents (substance criteria, list of substances);
- industrial activities relevant to accidents (list of plants).

The relationship between the disaster potential and the quantity of hazardous substances is considered by a quantity threshold concept that defines different levels of safety requirements as a function of quantity.

2.12 General techniques to consider in the determination of BAT

This section describes techniques (or combinations thereof), and associated monitoring, considered to have the potential for achieving a high level of environmental protection in the activities within the scope of this document. The techniques described will include both the technology used and the way in which the installations are designed, built, maintained, operated and decommissioned.

It covers environmental management systems, process-integrated techniques and end-of-pipe measures. Waste prevention and management, including waste minimisation and recycling procedures are also considered, as well as techniques that reduce the consumption of raw materials, water and energy by optimising use and reuse. The techniques described also cover measures used to prevent or to limit the environmental consequences of accidents and incidents, as well as site remediation measures. They also cover measures taken to prevent or reduce emissions under other than normal operating conditions (such as start-up and shutdown operations, leaks, malfunctions, momentary stoppages and the definitive cessation of operations).

Annex III to the Directive lists a number of criteria for determining BAT, and the information within this chapter will address these considerations. As far as possible, the standard structure in Table 2.10 is used to outline the information on each technique, to enable a comparison of techniques and the assessment against the definition of BAT in the Directive.

This chapter does not necessarily provide an exhaustive list of techniques which could be applied in the sector. Other techniques may exist, or may be developed, which could be considered in the determination of BAT for an individual installation.

Table 2.10: Information for each technique

Headings within the sections
Description
Technical description
Achieved environmental benefits
Environmental performance and operational data
Cross-media effects
Technical considerations relevant to applicability
Economics
Driving force for implementation
Example plants
Reference literature

2.12.1 Environmental management systems

Description

A formal system to demonstrate compliance with environmental objectives.

Technical description

The Directive defines 'techniques' (under the definition of 'best available techniques') as 'both the technology used and the way in which the installation is designed, built, maintained, operated and decommissioned'.

In this respect, an environmental management system (EMS) is a technique allowing operators of installations to address environmental issues in a systematic and demonstrable way. EMSs are most effective and efficient where they form an inherent part of the overall management and operation of an installation.

An EMS focuses the attention of the operator on the environmental performance of the installation; in particular through the application of clear operating procedures for both normal and other than normal operating conditions, and by setting out the associated lines of responsibility.

All effective EMSs incorporate the concept of continuous improvement, meaning that environmental management is an ongoing process, not a project which eventually comes to an end. There are various process designs, but most EMSs are based on the plan-do-check-act cycle (which is widely used in other company management contexts). The cycle is an iterative dynamic model, where the completion of one cycle flows into the beginning of the next (see Figure 2.13).

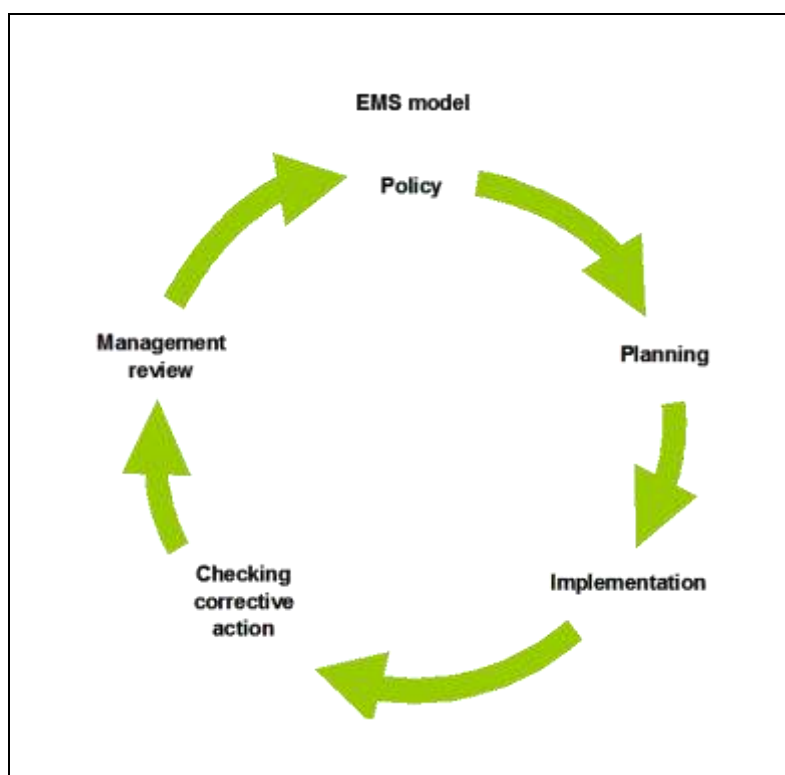


Figure 2.13: Continuous improvement in an EMS model

An EMS can take the form of a standardised or non-standardised ('customised') system. Implementation and adherence to an internationally accepted standardised system, such as EN ISO 14001:2015, can give higher credibility to the EMS especially when subjected to a properly performed external verification. EMAS provides additional credibility due to the interaction with the public through the environmental statement and the mechanism to ensure compliance with the applicable environmental legislation. However, non-standardised systems can, in principle, be equally effective provided that they are properly designed and implemented.

While both standardised systems (EN ISO 14001:2015 or EMAS) and non-standardised systems apply in principle to **organisations**, this document takes a narrower approach, not including all activities of an organisation, e.g. with regard to their products and services, due to the fact that the Directive only regulates **installations/plants**.

An EMS can contain the following components:

1. commitment of management, including senior management;
2. definition of an environmental policy that includes the continuous improvement of the installation by the management;
3. planning and establishing the necessary procedures, objectives and targets, in conjunction with financial planning and investment;
4. implementation of procedures paying particular attention to:
 - (a) structure and responsibility,
 - (b) recruitment, training, awareness and competence,
 - (c) communication,
 - (d) employee involvement,
 - (e) documentation,
 - (f) effective process control,
 - (g) maintenance programmes,
 - (h) emergency preparedness and response,
 - (i) safeguarding compliance with environmental legislation;
5. checking performance and taking corrective action paying particular attention to:
 - (a) monitoring and measurement (see also the Reference Report on Monitoring (ROM)),
 - (b) corrective and preventive action,
 - (c) maintenance of records,
 - (d) independent (where practicable) internal or external auditing in order to determine whether or not the EMS conforms to planned arrangements and has been properly implemented and maintained;
6. review of the EMS and its continuing suitability, adequacy and effectiveness by senior management;
7. preparation of a regular environmental statement;
8. validation by a certification body or an external EMS verifier;
9. following the development of cleaner technologies;
10. consideration for the environmental impacts from the eventual decommissioning of the installation at the stage of designing a new plant, and throughout its operating life;
11. application of sectoral benchmarking on a regular basis.

The set-up and implementation of an action plan on diffuse dust emissions (see BAT 5 ter) is also a part of the EMS.

Achieved environmental benefits

An EMS promotes and supports the continuous improvement of the environmental performance of the installation. If the installation already has a good overall environmental performance, an EMS helps the operator to maintain the high performance level.

Environmental performance and operational data

All significant consumption (including energy) and emissions are managed in a coordinated manner by the operator for the short, medium and long term, in conjunction with financial planning and investment cycles. This means for example that adapting short-term end-of-pipe solutions to emissions may tie the operator to long-term higher energy consumption, and postpone investment in potentially more environmentally beneficial solutions overall. This requires some consideration of the cross-media issues, and guidance on these and the costing and cost-benefit issues is given in the Reference Document on Economics and Cross-Media Effects [336, EC 2006] and in the BREF on Energy Efficiency. [333, EC 2008]

Cross-media effects

None reported. The systematic analysis of the initial environmental impacts and scope for improvements in the context of the EMS sets the basis for assessing the best solutions for all environmental media.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

The components described above can typically be applied to all installations within the scope of this document. The scope (e.g. level of detail) and nature of the EMS (e.g. standardised or non-standardised) will be related to the nature, scale and complexity of the installation, and the range of environmental impacts it may have.

Economics

It is difficult to determine accurately the costs and economic benefits of introducing and maintaining a good EMS. There are also economic benefits that are the result of using an EMS and these vary widely from sector to sector.

External costs relating to verification of the system can be estimated from guidance issued by the International Accreditation Forum [417, IAF 2010].

Driving forces for implementation

The driving forces for the implementation of an EMS include:

- improved environmental performance;
- improved insight into the environmental aspects of the company which can be used to fulfil the environmental requirements of customers, regulatory authorities, banks, insurance companies or other stakeholders (e.g. people living or working in the vicinity of the installation);
- improved basis for decision-making;
- improved motivation of personnel (e.g. managers can have confidence that environmental impacts are controlled and employees can feel that they are working for an environmentally responsible company);
- additional opportunities for operational cost reduction and product quality improvement;
- improved company image;
- reduced liability, insurance and non-compliance costs.

Example plants

EMSs are applied in a number of installations throughout the EU.

Reference literature

[333, COM 2009], [336, COM 2006], [417, IAF 2010], [420, EC 2009], [430, CEN 2015].

2.12.2 Energy management

Apart from the techniques listed below, the techniques described in Section 2.2.1 are also techniques to consider.

2.12.2.1 Use of oxygen enrichment in combustion air**Description**

Oxygen enrichment is used to allow the autothermal oxidation of sulphide-based ores, to increase the capacity or melting rate of particular furnaces and to provide discrete oxygen-rich areas in a furnace to allow complete combustion separately from a reducing zone.

Technical description

Oxygen enrichment of the combustion air is frequently used in the production processes for non-ferrous metals. The processes use tonnage oxygen directly or in the furnace body.

The use of oxygen can give both financial and environmental benefits provided that the plant can accommodate the extra heat released. There is a possibility that higher concentrations of

nitrogen oxides can be produced with oxygen enrichment, but the associated reduction in gas volume usually means that the mass is reduced. This is covered in more detail in the relevant metal chapters.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of metals, dust and other compounds emissions to air.

Environmental performance and operational data

Oxygen enrichment can achieve the following improvements.

- An increase in the heat released in the furnace body which allows an increase in the capacity or melting rate and a reduction in the quantity of fuel used, with the associated reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. It is possible to operate some processes autothermally and to vary the extent of oxygen enrichment 'on-line' to control the metallurgical process and prevent emissions.
- A significant reduction in the volume of process gases produced, as the nitrogen content is reduced, which allows a significant reduction in the size of downstream ducts and abatement systems and prevents the loss of energy otherwise needed to heat the nitrogen.
- An increase in the concentration of sulphur dioxide (or other products) in the process gases, which allows conversion and recovery processes to be more efficient without using special catalysts.
- The use of pure oxygen in a burner leads to a reduction in the partial pressure of nitrogen in the flame, and therefore thermal NO_x formation may be reduced.
- The production of tonnage oxygen on site is associated with the production of nitrogen gas separated from the air. This is used occasionally for inert gas requirements on site. Inert gases are used for abatement systems when pyrophoric materials are present (e.g. dry Cu concentrates), for degassing molten metal, for slag and dross cooling areas, and for fume control of tapping and pouring operations.
- The injection of oxygen at discrete points in a furnace downstream of the main burner allows temperature and oxidising conditions to be controlled in isolation from the main furnace operations. This allows the melting rate to be increased without an unacceptable increase in temperature. An example is the provision of an integral afterburning zone in a blast furnace.

Cross-media effects

No information provided.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

This is a technique that can be applied to most of the combustion and pyrometallurgical processes in use. The full benefit is best achieved with new plants, where the combustion chamber and abatement systems can also be designed for lower gas volumes. The technique is also applicable to existing plants though and can in many cases be retrofitted.

For furnaces that use raw materials containing sulphur or carbon, the use of oxygen-enriched air or pure oxygen in the burners could allow autogenous smelting or the complete combustion of carbonaceous material.

Economics

Some data on costs involved in oxy-fuel firing for secondary aluminium production are given in Table 2.11.

Gas consumption savings of EUR 12/t are reported which, on the basis of an expected production of 13 500 t/yr (one furnace), represents an annual saving of EUR 152 000. Oxygen consumption represents an additional cost of EUR 12/t, which represents an annual cost of EUR 152 000.

The economic advantages are therefore mainly related to improvements in terms of the production rate. In 1999, the fixed costs were around EUR 145/t for two furnaces (22 561 tonnes produced/year). The higher productivity allowed by using oxy-fuel burners would result in a cut in these costs to around EUR 122/t ($22\,561 \times 145/27\,000$). There is therefore a potential saving of EUR 23/t for a production rate of 27 000 t/yr.

Table 2.11: Techno-economic comparison of an oxy-fuel burner compared to an air-fuel burner

Parameter	Benefits/costs	Comment
Melting time	- 2.45 h/charge	Reduced batch melting time
Productivity	+ 0.84 t/h	Increased productivity of the furnace
Gas consumption	- 80 m ³ /t (tonne of oxygen)	Reduced consumption of gas
O ₂ consumption	+ 126 m ³ /t	Additional consumption of oxygen

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Energy savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and UK.

Reference literature

[122, ETSU 1994], [276, Schmitt G. 2008], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.2.2 Use of a regenerative burner

Description

In a regenerative burner, exhaust gas and combustion air alternately flow through a chamber filled with a heat storage medium; charging with the exhaust gas flow and discharging with the airflow.

Technical description

Regenerators, if constructed from materials which will accept the full exhaust gas temperature from the fired chamber and resist any corrosive elements contained therein, display none of the difficulties usually seen for recuperators.

A twin bed regenerative burner consists of an entirely ceramic high-temperature burner close coupled to a compact, fast-cycle, ceramic regenerator. The burner serves two purposes, acting as the inlet or the exhaust from the fired chamber depending on the cycle. One complete twin bed regenerative burner set comprises two burners, two regenerators, reversing valves and a control system.

- While one of the burners fires using cool air fed to the base of its regenerator, exhaust gas is drawn through the other burner and down into its associated regenerator to preheat the packing, then is discharged to the gas-cleaning plant. When the regenerator being heated is sufficiently charged, the airflow is reversed so that cool air flows to the newly heated regenerator and is preheated, the previously cooled regenerator being reheated by the exhaust gas generated by the other burner firing. The first and second halves of the cycle are shown in Figure 2.14 and Figure 2.15.

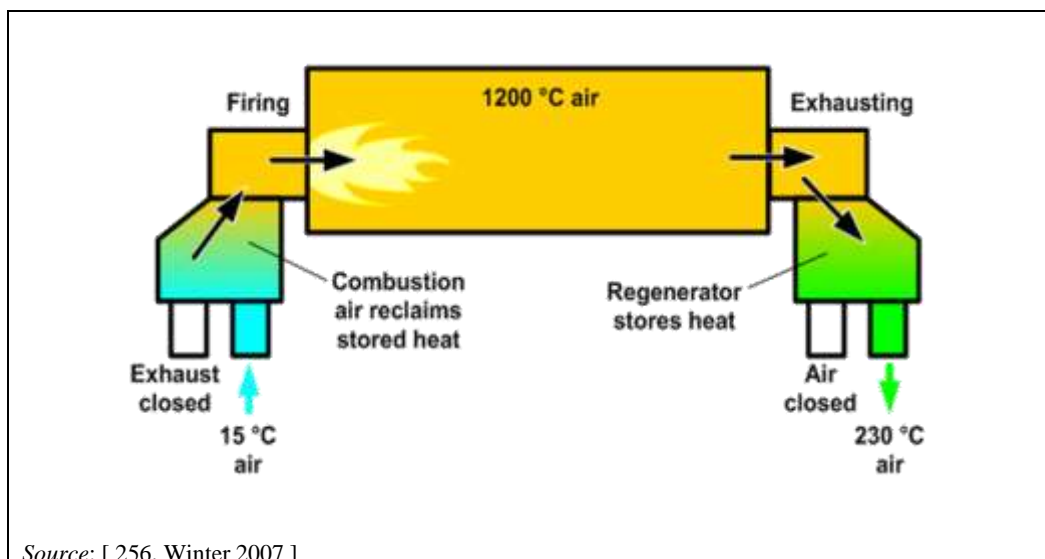


Figure 2.14: First half of the regenerative burner cycle

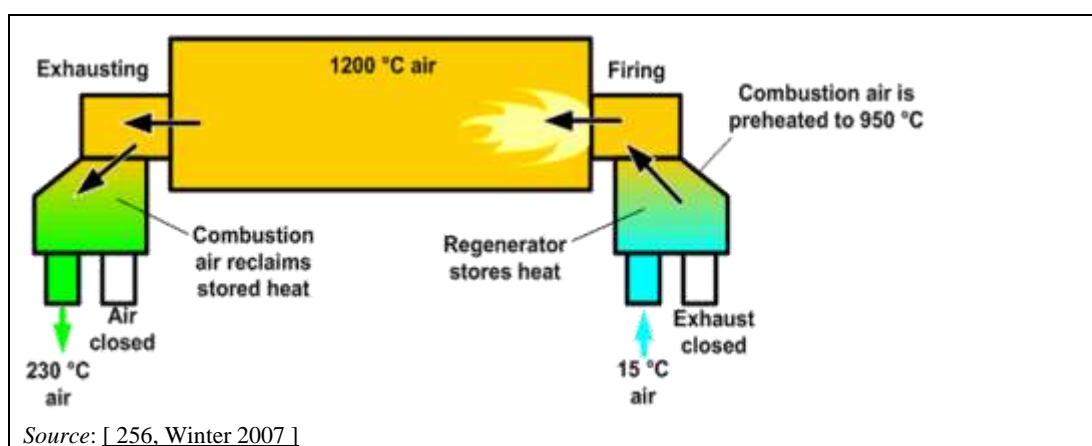


Figure 2.15: Second half of the regenerative burner cycle

Achieved environmental benefits

The energy content of the hot gases is used to heat the support materials and can reduce the energy consumption by 70 % compared to that of a normal burner. Regenerative burners are reported to use 30 % less energy than recuperative burners.

Environmental performance and operational data

Regenerative burners are used in a number of applications. The process depends on an alternating cycle of gases through a series of support zones using ceramic balls where heating and cooling cycles take place. Combustion air can be preheated to approximately 900 °C.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

This technique is applicable to a variety of new and existing processes. Additional post-treatment of the gases might be required depending on input material.

Economics

The payback time for regenerative burners in the secondary aluminium sector is reported to be less than one year.

Driving force for implementation

Improved energy efficiency.

Example plants

Plant in Austria.

Reference literature

[103, COM 1998], [256, Winter 2007]

2.12.2.3 Use of a regenerative afterburner**Description**

A combustion system that employs a regenerative process to utilise the thermal energy in the gas and carbon compounds by using refractory support beds. A manifold system is needed to change the direction of the gas flow to clean the bed.

Technical description

Regenerative afterburners, also known as regenerative thermal oxidisers (RTOs), serve to treat the off-gases. The process depends on an alternating cycle of gases through a series of support zones where heating, cooling and cleaning cycles take place. The combustible fraction is heated in the heating zone and passes to a common residence chamber where combustion is completed. The hot gases then pass into a cooling section, which is heated to become the next heating zone. The zones are changed using a manifold system to allow cleaning.

A regenerative afterburner is shown in Figure 2.16.

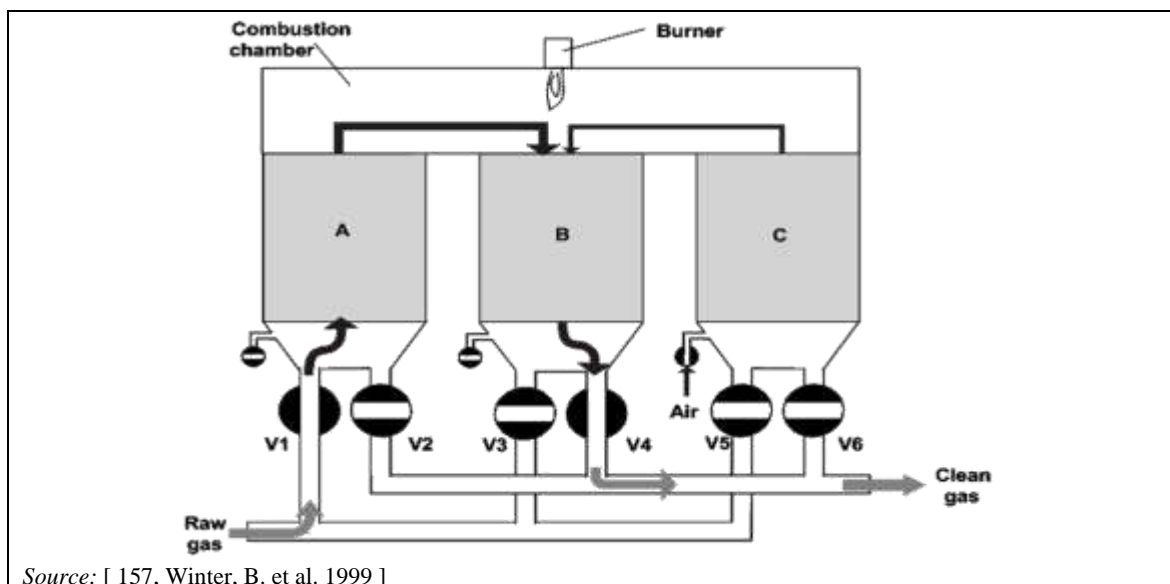


Figure 2.16: Regenerative afterburner

Achieved environmental benefits

The energy content of the hot gases and of the contaminants (hydrocarbons and PAH) is used to heat the support materials, and can thus reduce energy consumption by 70 % compared to that of a normal afterburner.

Environmental performance and operational data

Regenerative burners or afterburners are used in a number of applications. The process depends on an alternating cycle of gases through a series of support zones using ceramic chips where heating and cooling cycles take place. Combustion air can be preheated to approximately 900 °C. Emission levels associated with RTO performance can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

Increases in PCDD/F concentrations have been reported for a regenerative afterburner installation serving a blast furnace. This is thought to be due to the longer residence time of gases in the de novo synthesis temperature range.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

This technique is applicable to a variety of processes when the abatement of a combustible pollutant is required. The basic principle is good but the changeover to the cleaning phase and longer residence time of gases in the de novo synthesis temperature range may cause the emission of uncombusted material if the design is poor. Additional pre- and post-treatment of the gases might be required for the regenerative afterburner.

Economics

No information provided but several installations are operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions of TVOC, PAH and PCDD/F, and improved energy efficiency.

Example plants

Plants in AT, DE, UK and NL.

Reference literature

[103, COM 1998], [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999], [242, Infomil 2008].

2.12.2.4 Use of low-grade heat

Description

All pyrometallurgical processes produce heat either as hot gases or hot water. The options to recover low-grade heat have always been a difficult issue as they are limited. It is possible to recover heat from liquids at a temperature of about 55 °C, and two examples have been reported.

Technical description

The first example is the use of water from the spray cooling of metallurgical slag, which is collected in a sump and passed through a heat exchanger to heat a circuit that uses ethylene glycol. Users of low-grade heat can extract heat from the circuit through another heat exchanger [233, COM 2008].

In the second example low-grade heat is used to generate electrical power, and this provides the opportunity to produce electricity from heated waste water with temperatures of 85 °C and above.

Achieved environmental benefits

Recovery of heat and the prevention of emission of heat.

Environmental performance and operational data

The heat is exchanged and transferred into a closed loop, comprising a carrier fluid that expands and drives a turbine which in turn drives a generator, see Figure 2.17. The generator normally provides electrical power.

Small-capacity power plants use two container-mounted units. They are 12.2 metres in length, 2.3 metres in width, and 3.0 metres in height, with a gross weight of 25 tonnes.

The containers are equipped with connections to heat waste water flow lines, as well as connections to the inlet of required cooling water. The containers furthermore house the required appliances for connecting to existing power distribution grids. Larger plants can be constructed on site or alternatively may be established through the required number of container units connected in parallel.

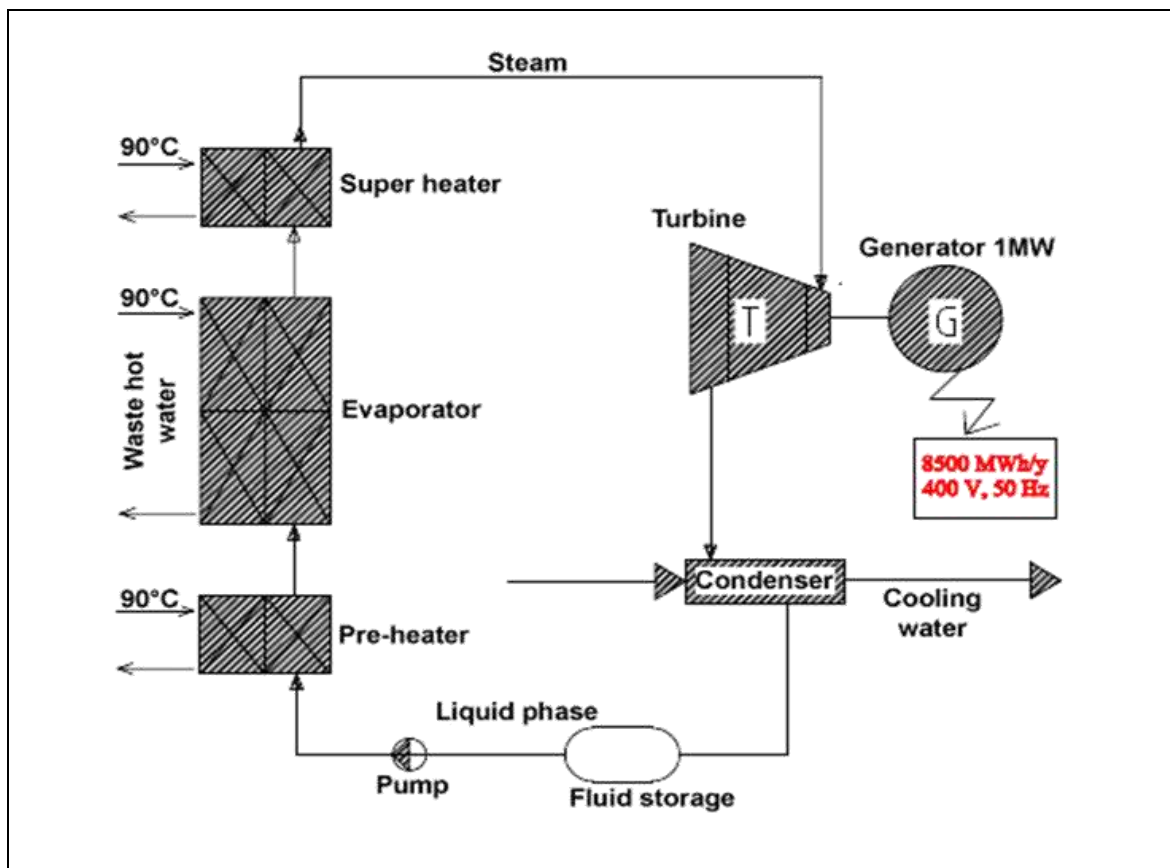


Figure 2.17: Electricity generation from low-grade heat

Cross-media effects

No information provided.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

This technique is applicable to a variety of processes.

Economics

No information provided but several installations are operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

Improved energy efficiency.

Example plants

Plants in Norway.

Reference literature

[233, COM 2008]

2.12.2.5 Use of waste as a fuel or reducing agent

Conventional fuels or reducing agents can be replaced by waste materials. Different types of waste are used as fuels or reducing agents in the non-ferrous metals industries. Since this technique involves the incineration of waste, the installation should comply with the Waste Incineration Directive (2000/76/EC).

Waste can often only be used after certain pretreatment stages to provide tailor-made fuels for the burning process. Since waste treatment operations are not covered by this document, more useful information can be found in the Waste Treatment Industries BREF [341, EC 2006].

Description

Selected wastes with recoverable net calorific values such as waste oil, solvents and plastics can be used as fuels, replacing conventional fossil fuels, provided that they meet certain specifications and characteristics. Different criteria play a decisive role in the selection of waste fuels as they can have an impact on kiln operation and on emissions.

To guarantee the characteristics of the waste fuel, a quality assurance system is required. In particular this should include provisions for sampling, sample preparation, analysis and external monitoring. More useful information can be found in the technical specifications of the European Committee for Standardisation, such as CEN/TC 343 'Solid recovered fuels'.

Achieved environmental benefits

The selection of waste fuels is driven by a number of interrelated considerations, including the following main points:

- the reduction of emissions, e.g. CO₂, derived from fossil fuels;
- the reduction in the use of natural resources, e.g. fossil fuels;
- the reduction of transportation distances;
- the avoidance of disposal to landfill;
- a safe recovery route for waste.

Cross-media effects

Depending on their characteristics, e.g. high metal concentrations, waste fuels may have an effect on emissions.

Operational data

The study 'Assessment of the application and possible development of community legislation for the control of waste incineration and co-incineration' identified six plants in the non-ferrous metals industry that use waste as a fuel. The study was conducted on behalf of the European Commission by Ökopol in 2007 [315, Okopol 2007].

Wastes that are used as fuel in the non-ferrous metals industry have a high net calorific value, e.g. waste oil with a net calorific value of 37 MJ/kg and solvents with a net calorific value of 26 MJ/kg.

In a rotary kiln of a nickel roasting plant in Austria, conventional fuels are replaced by waste oil and solvents.

Applicability

These fuels can, in principle, be used where complete combustion of organic matter is assured, and waste input control and emissions control guarantee a low level of emissions, e.g. metals and dioxins.

Economics

In comparison to the use of fossil fuels, the use of waste fuels can reduce operational costs.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of fuel costs and availability of resources.

Example plants

Plants in Austria.

Reference literature

[311, Mauschitz 2007], [315, Okopol 2007].

2.12.3 Monitoring and process control

2.12.3.1 Process control techniques

Description

Set of techniques to control the process and support a smooth and stable process operation.

Technical description

Process operation and control is applied to a variety of processes. The main techniques are described below.

- Inspection and selection of input materials according to the process and abatement techniques applied. Typical procedures include (most in written form):
 - o verification of the shipping papers;
 - o visual verification that the delivered material is the same as specified in the contract and is in accordance with the accompanying shipping documents;
 - o determination of mass;
 - o Inspection of the delivered material to identify if any foreign substances are present which could impact on the environment or plant equipment, or which are suspected to cause health and safety problems:
 - visual inspection,
 - random check analysis, depending on type of material,
 - radioactivity test;
 - o acceptance (or rejection) of input materials;
 - o allocation to a storage area;
 - o unloading check and cleaning of transport vehicles, where required;
 - o if needed and possible:
 - sorting of foreign substances: return to supplier or appropriate disposal,
 - appropriate processing – if necessary 'adaptation' process;
 - o taking representative samples to determine chemical composition (by analytical assay or by 'grading') for technical or commercial purposes.
- Good mixing of different feed materials should be achieved for optimum process performance, higher conversion efficiency, reduced emissions to all environmental media, reduced energy use, increased quality and reduced level of reject products. Small-scale pot furnaces are used to identify the correct raw material mixtures. Fluctuations in the moisture content of the feed of a furnace can cause process gas volumes that are too large for the designed aspiration capacity, resulting in diffuse emissions.
- Feed weighing and metering systems are used extensively. Loss-in-weight silos, belt weighers and scale weighers are widely used for this purpose.
- Processors are used to control material feed rate, critical process and combustion conditions, and the additions of gases. Several parameters listed below are measured to allow processes to be controlled, and alarms are used for critical parameters:

- o on-line monitoring of temperature, furnace pressure (or depression) and gas volume or flow;
 - o gas components (O₂, SO₂, CO);
 - o on-line monitoring of vibration to detect blockages and possible equipment failure;
 - o on-line monitoring of the current and voltage of electrolytic processes;
 - o on-line monitoring of emissions to control critical process parameters;
 - o on-line monitoring of acid strength and metal concentrations;
 - o on-line monitoring of parameters for hydrometallurgical processes (e.g. pH, redox potential, temperature);
 - o sampling and analysis of intermediate and end solutions in hydrometallurgical processes.
- Monitoring and control of the temperature in the melting furnaces to prevent the production of metal and metal oxide fumes by overheating.
 - Monitoring and control of the temperature of electrolytic cells to identify hot spots that indicate short circuiting in the cell.
 - The oxygen coefficient of a furnace can be automatically controlled by a mathematical model that predicts the changes in the composition of the feed and furnace temperatures; the model can be based on more than 50 process variables. In the primary aluminium industry, mathematical models are also used in conjunction with monitoring of cell operating conditions to prevent anode effects. An 80 % reduction in polyfluorocarbon (PFC) emissions has been achieved since 1990 according to one report [[299, COM 2007](#)]. In primary zinc production, an automatic control system in the roasting process is used to increase the bed stability and decrease operational problems, diffuse emissions and shutdowns.
 - Process gases are collected using sealed or semi-sealed furnace systems. Interactive variable speed fans are used to ensure that optimum gas collection rates are maintained and to minimise energy costs.
 - Solvent vapours are collected and recovered as far as possible using sealed reactors or local vapour collection in combination with chillers or condensers. Further removal and incineration of solvent vapours is practised to prevent the emission of VOCs and odours.
 - Operators, engineers and others should be regularly trained and assessed in the use of operating instructions, the use of the modern control techniques described and the significance of alarms and the actions to be taken when they go off.
 - Levels of supervision are optimised to take advantage of the above, while maintaining operator responsibility.
 - Environmental management and quality systems are used.
 - Hazard and operability studies are carried out at the design stages for all process changes.
 - Robust maintenance systems are used, including a growing use of dedicated maintenance staff as part of the operator teams, and supplementing dedicated maintenance teams.
 - Process design aspects are described in various sections of this document, as they are commonly used in this sector. Full process design is approached with care by professional engineers who have experience and knowledge of the process and of the environmental impact and requirements.
 - Slag, metal and matte are analysed on the basis of samples taken at intervals, so that the use of fluxes and other raw materials can be optimised, the metallurgical process conditions can be determined, and the metal content of the materials agreed upon.
 - For some processes, special regulations such as the Seveso or Waste Incineration Directives may have to be taken into account.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of metals, dust and other compounds emissions to air.

Environmental performance and operational data

No operational data have been reported but more information is available in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

These techniques are generally applicable to most plants.

Economics

No information provided but the processes are known to be operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings.
- Smooth operating process.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE, PL and NL.

Reference literature

[299, COM 2007] [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999].

2.12.3.2 Design and control techniques for an abatement plant**Description**

Set of techniques to support an appropriate functioning of the air emissions abatement plant.

Technical description

The choice and design of a suitable abatement technique is particularly important. Several techniques exist and, although some may seem to offer a very high performance, problems may be encountered unless characteristics such as the loading and nature of the gases, dust, and other components are fully considered. For example, a fabric filter using modern materials is considered to offer a better environmental performance than other techniques for dust removal; however, it cannot be considered to be universally applicable due to problems of stickiness and abrasion with some types of dust. These issues are specific to individual sites and materials and the operator should consider these factors in a professional design brief.

The volume, pressure, temperature and moisture content of the gas are important parameters and have a major influence on the techniques or combination of techniques used. In particular, the dew point will be affected by all of these parameters, and variations throughout a production cycle should be taken into account.

The characterisation of the nature of the dust or fume is very significant, so it is important to identify any unusual properties in the dust (hygroscopic, pyrophoric, sticky, abrasive, etc.). The particle size and shape, wettability and density of the material are also factors to optimise the choice of technique. The dust concentration and its variability should also be taken into account for producing a reliable, robust design.

Many operators have identified that performance may deteriorate over time as equipment wears and maintenance is needed. Modern systems should be used, if required, to continuously monitor performance by direct measurement of the gases emitted (e.g. for dust, CO, SO₂). For example, dust can be monitored using an electrodynamic technique. This is a technique based on a charge induction principle derived from particle interaction with a probe inserted into a stack or duct. Alternatively, critical control parameters can be monitored. Alarm systems should be incorporated into these systems.

The following techniques are techniques to consider:

- Use of reagent metering systems.

- Use of a processor control of reagent feed and plant performance. On-line monitoring can include temperature, pressure drop, dust or other pollutants emitted, ESP current and voltage, scrubbing liquid flow and pH. Alarms are provided to indicate operational problems.
- Training and assessment of operators in the use of operating instructions and the modern control techniques described.
- Optimisation of levels of supervision to take advantage of the above, but maintaining operator responsibility.
- Use of environmental management and quality systems.
- Use of predictive or other mathematical models to assess trends in operating conditions, for example in the copper and aluminium industries, to prevent emissions or to optimise the process.
- Use of robust maintenance systems, including a growing use of dedicated maintenance staff as part of the operator teams.
- Use of routines to check the reliability of weighing systems.
- Use of filter bag burst detection based on the interface between the dust monitor and the cleaning cycle.
- Use of small furnaces to smelt samples of the raw materials, so that optimum blends of raw materials and fluxes can be identified and the optimum furnace operation established. This technique is also used to determine the content of metals in each consignment, so that purchase prices can be agreed upon.

Good process control is used to achieve these gains and also to maintain safe conditions and to analyse past events and process responses. The implementation of a capable process control system is required for all modern non-ferrous smelting and operating processes; without a good process control system, an operation cannot be considered to be BAT.

There are a number of cases (e.g. blast furnaces) where the development and use of modern process controls is needed. More work is needed to identify the relevant control parameters and systems.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of metals, dust and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

No information provided.

Cross-media effects

Increase in energy use.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

The processes are operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Possible raw material savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and PL.

Reference literature

[226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.3.3 Process control techniques for effluent treatment

Description

Set of techniques to support an appropriate functioning of the effluent treatment plant.

Technical description

The following techniques are techniques to consider [103, COM 1998].

- Reagent metering systems.
- Processor control of reagent feed and plant performance. On-line monitoring can include (depending on the relevance of the process): temperature, turbidity, pH, conductivity, redox, TVOC, individual metals and flow.
- Environmental management and quality systems, including (see also Section 2.12.1):
 - training and assessment of operators in the use of operating instructions and the use of the modern control techniques described;
 - optimisation of levels of supervision to take advantage of the above, while maintaining operator responsibility;
 - use of robust maintenance systems, including a growing use of dedicated maintenance staff as part of the operator teams.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of metals, suspended solids and other compounds emissions.

The composition of the liquid effluents from pyrometallurgical and from hydrometallurgical methods depends very much on the metal being produced, the production process and the raw material that is used. However, the liquid effluents from a non-ferrous metal production plant normally contain metals, e.g. copper, lead, zinc, tin, nickel, cadmium, chromium, arsenic, molybdenum, mercury and suspended solids.

Environmental performance and operational data

The most important factors to minimise the amount of waste water and the concentration of the pollutants are:

- the process where the waste water is generated;
- the amount of water;
- the pollutants and their concentrations;
- the level of clean-up required, i.e. local or regional water quality standards;
- the availability of water resources.

Cross-media effects

There is the potential to produce a waste for disposal.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided but the processes are known to be operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

- Prevention of emissions.
- Raw material savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and PL.

Reference literature

[166, Clark, J.H. 1995].

2.12.4 Diffuse emissions

The techniques involved for abating diffuse emissions follow as far as possible the hierarchy of prevention, minimisation and the collection of fumes nearest to the source. An assessment of potential sources of diffuse emissions should lead to an action plan within the environmental management system (EMS). This assessment should also take into account the resuspension of dusty materials from abandoned workings, storage areas or disposal points due to wind action and vehicle movements.

An action plan on diffuse emissions may incorporate the following features:

- analysis and measurement of the actual emission sources and estimation of the total diffuse emissions (e.g. EN 15445);
- identification of appropriate actions and techniques to reduce diffuse emissions;
- elaboration of an emission minimisation plan, if needed, according to the results of the previous steps;
- implementation of the minimisation plan and monitoring of the results on a yearly basis.

2.12.4.1 Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from raw material storage, handling and transport

Description

Set of techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from raw material storage, handling and transport.

Technical description

The applied techniques discussed in Section 2.4.2 are capable of preventing emissions to all environmental media to a certain extent. The techniques that are used largely depend on the type of material that is being used. For example, large, heavy items are treated by a completely different range of techniques to fine, dusty material. These issues are specific to individual sites and materials. There are, however, many general techniques that are considered more effective in preventing emissions from raw material storage, handling and transport, as detailed below.

- Use of enclosed buildings or silos/bins for the storage of dust-forming materials, such as concentrates, fluxes and fine materials.
- Covered storage for dust-forming materials such as concentrates, fluxes, solid fuels and coke and secondary materials that contain water-soluble organic compounds.
- Sealed packaging for the storage of dust-forming materials or secondary materials that contain water-soluble organic compounds.
- Covered bays for the storage of materials that have been pelletised or agglomerated.
- Use of water sprays to suppress dust or alternative methods, such as fog sprays, to create fine water mists for dust suppression without over-wetting the material. The use of water sprays is not applicable for processes that require dry materials or for ores/concentrates that naturally contain sufficient water to prevent dust formation. The application is also limited in regions with water shortages or with very low winter temperatures. Sealing agents such as molasses and polyvinyl acetate (PVA) should be used where appropriate and compatible, to reduce the tendency of material to form dust.
- Liquid storage systems should be contained in impervious bunds that have a capacity capable of containing at least the volume of the largest storage tank within the bund.
- Storage areas should be designed so that leaks from the tanks and from delivery systems are intercepted and contained in the bund.

- The materials used for the construction of the tanks should be resistant to the materials stored. In some cases, double-walled tanks are appropriate.
- Leak detection systems should be used where appropriate.
- Tank contents should be displayed and associated alarms that indicate leaks should be used. Planned deliveries and automatic control systems to prevent the overfilling of storage tanks should also be used.
- The storage of sulphuric acid and other reactive materials should be carried out in double-walled tanks or tanks placed in chemical-resistant bunds of the same capacity. If there is a risk of groundwater contamination, the storage area should be impermeable and resistant to the material stored.
- Delivery points should be contained within the bund to collect spilled material. Displaced gases should be back-vented to the delivery vehicle to reduce the emission of VOCs. Automatic resealing of delivery connections should be used to prevent spillages.
- Incompatible materials are segregated (e.g. oxidising agents and organic materials), and inert gases should be used for storage tanks or areas if needed.
- Oil and solids interceptors are used for drainage from open storage areas. The storage of material that can release oil should be on concreted areas that have curbs or other containment devices. Effluent treatment methods for the chemical species that are stored should be used.
- Transfer conveyors and pipelines are placed in safe, open areas above ground, so that leaks can be detected quickly and damage from vehicles and other equipment can be prevented.
- If buried pipelines are used for non-hazardous materials, their course should be documented and marked, and safe excavation systems adopted.
- Well-designed, robust pressure vessels for gases (including LPG) should be used with pressure monitoring of the tanks and delivery pipework to indicate ruptures or leakages. Gas monitors should be used in confined areas and close to storage tanks.
- Enclosed conveyors or pneumatic transfer systems should be used for the transportation of fine and dusty materials with well-designed, robust extraction and filtration equipment to prevent the emissions of dust from delivery points, silo vents, pneumatic transfer systems and conveyor transfer points where dust emissions are possible. Covered conveyors could be used for non-dust-forming materials. When using open belt conveyors, the speed should be adjusted (< 3.5 m/s).
- Dusty material can also be transported in closed containers or other closed recipients. Emptying of recipients/containers takes place in a closed system with a vent system and air filtration by a bag filter. Materials with dispersible or water-soluble components are handled in closed bags or drums. Non-dusty materials are delivered and handled in bulk.
- Non-dusty, insoluble material should be stored on impervious and sealed surfaces such as concrete to prevent soil contamination, with drainage and drain collection.
- Swarf, turnings and other oily material should be stored under cover to prevent them being washed away by rainwater.
- Rationalised material transfer systems should be used to minimise the generation and transport of dust between processes and within a site. Rainwater that washes dust away should be collected and treated before discharge.
- Use of an enclosed tipping area for unloading of trucks or railway cars.
- Wheel and body washes or other cleaning systems should be used to clean vehicles used to deliver or handle dusty material. Local conditions, e.g. ice formation, will influence the method. Planned campaigns for road sweeping should be used.
- Wet road cleaning or other specialised equipment using a combination of water jets and vacuum collection can be used to remove deposited dust from traffic and handling areas to clean and prevent resuspension of dust.
- Inventory control and inspection systems should be used to prevent spillages and identify leaks.
- Material sampling and assay systems should be integrated into the material handling and storage system where possible, to identify raw material quality and plan the processing

method. These systems should be designed and operated to the same high standards as the handling and storage systems.

- Storage areas for reducing agents such as coal, coke or woodchips should be surveyed to detect fires caused by self-ignition.
- Good design and construction practices should be used and adequate maintenance practised.

For the outdoor storage of raw materials, the following techniques should also be considered, depending on their tendency to emit dust.

- Regular moistening of the heap surface with water, or the use of dust-binding substances, or covering with tarpaulins.
- Use of sealing agents such as molasses and polyvinyl acetate on fine materials stored outdoors, to reduce the tendency of material to form dust.
- Placing the longitudinal axis of the heap parallel to the prevailing wind direction.
- Use of protective planting, windbreak fences or upwind mounts to lower the wind speed.
- Use of one heap instead of several, where feasible.
- Use of retaining walls to form bays.
- Collection of surplus sprinkling water and rainwater and connection to a sewage system.
- Regular cleaning of the storage area and, when needed, moistening with water.
- Use of oil and solids interceptors for drainage from open storage areas. The storage of material that can release oil, such as swarf, should be on concreted areas that have curbs or other containment devices.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of diffuse metals, dust and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

No information provided.

Cross-media effects

Increase in energy use for operation of exhaust and filtration systems such as fans and bag filters.

If water is added to moisten the material, there may be a significant increase in energy consumption in the smelting process. The added water remains in the material and needs to be removed in the dryer or furnace during processing. This requires additional energy.

Treatment of large volumes of air and high energy consumption particularly associated with the roof extraction systems. Because of the relatively low dust load of the exhaust air, building filtration systems operate at a lower efficiency.

Water consumption for moistening materials, sprinkling roads, and wheel wash installation.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided but the processes are operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

- Prevention of emissions.
- Raw material savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE, PL and NL.

Reference literature

[196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [290, EC 2006].

2.12.4.2 Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from the pretreatment of raw materials**Description**

Set of techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from the pretreatment of raw materials.

Technical description

The techniques that are used depend to a large extent on the type of material that is being used. For example, large, heavy items are treated by a completely different range of techniques to fine, dusty material. These issues are specific to individual sites and materials. The preprocessing and transfer operations however often deal with materials that are dry or are likely to produce process emissions to any of the environmental media. A more detailed design of the process equipment used at this stage is therefore needed and the processes need to be monitored and controlled effectively. The nature of the material (e.g. dust-forming, pyrophoric) should be taken into account in the assessment of potential sources of diffuse emissions. Extraction and abatement systems in particular need to be carefully designed, constructed and maintained. The review of applied techniques in this section includes the issues that will be encountered in the various process options. The emissions of VOCs and PCDD/F in thermal processes should also be assessed as contamination of the raw materials is a significant potential source of these emissions, and so pretreatment is a technique to consider in order to reduce them. The techniques listed above for raw material handling (see Section 2.12.4.1) should also be referred to.

The following techniques, however, are considered to be the most important general techniques.

- The use of pretreatment and transfer processes with well-designed robust extraction and abatement equipment to prevent emissions of dust and other material. The design of this equipment should take into account the nature of the emissions, the maximum rate of emission and all the potential sources.
- Thermal or mechanical pretreatment to minimise organic contamination of the furnace feed.
- If required to minimise the generation of smoke and fumes and to improve the melting rates, separation processes should be designed to produce materials that are suitable for the subsequent processes.
- The collection and treatment of liquid effluents before discharge from the process to remove non-ferrous metals and other components.
- The use of good design and construction practices and adequate maintenance.

The following pretreatment techniques are considered metal-specific and will be further described in the metal-specific chapters.

- The use of wet grinding, blending and pelletising systems if other techniques for the control of dust are not possible or appropriate.
- Thermal cleaning and pyrolysis systems (e.g. swarf drying and decoating) that use robust afterburning equipment to destroy combustion products, e.g. VOCs and PCDD/F. The gases should be held at a temperature greater than 850 °C (1100 °C if they contain more than 1 % halogenated organic material), in the presence of at least 6 % oxygen for a minimum of two seconds. Lower residence times may also result in the complete destruction of VOCs and PCDD/F but this should be demonstrated at a local level. Gases should be cooled rapidly through the temperature window of PCDD/F reformation.
- Manual and mechanical separation techniques to pretreat waste streams, such as the removal of batteries, etc. out of electronic equipment according to the WEEE Directive or the separation of car catalysts from their steel casing.

- Reducing the potential for VOCs. Washing processes to remove oil or other contaminants should use benign solvents. Efficient solvent and vapour recovery systems should be used with these techniques.
- The use of steel belt, updraught or fully enclosed downdraught sintering processes. Steel belt sintering has several advantages for certain metal groups and can minimise gas volumes, reduce diffuse emissions and recover heat. Off-gas extraction systems should prevent diffuse emissions.
- The use of rotary kilns with wet ash quenching for processes involving the reduction in volume of material such as photographic film. Smaller installations may use a moving grate furnace. In both cases, the combustion gases should be cleaned to remove dust and acid gases if they are present.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of metals, dust and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

No information provided.

Cross-media effects

Increase in energy use.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided but the processes are known to be operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE, PL and NL.

Reference literature

[196, Finkeldei, L. 1999].

2.12.4.3 Techniques to prevent diffuse emissions and collect off-gases from metal production processes

Description

Set of techniques to prevent diffuse emissions from metal production processes.

Technical description

The techniques to consider are based on the application of the principles of techniques reported above in Section 2.4.2. These techniques rely on the professional design and maintenance of the collection systems, as well as on the on-line monitoring of emissions in the clean gas duct.

The techniques to consider are the following:

- Furnace sealing (or the use of sealed furnaces) combined with process control techniques is the technique that should be applied wherever possible to prevent or contain emissions from process plants. Annex 13.1, covering furnaces, indicates where furnace sealing is possible and where other collection techniques may be used to provide integral gas collection [246, France 2008]. Some examples include sealed smelting furnaces, sealed electric arc furnaces and the sealed point feed cell for primary aluminium production.

Furnace sealing still relies on sufficient gas extraction rates to prevent pressurisation of the furnace.

If sealed furnaces are not available, for example when retrofitting an existing open furnace, the maximum sealing possible to contain furnace gases can be used. An example of this is the use of a 'fourth hole' in the roof of an electric arc furnace to extract the process gases as efficiently as possible, see Figure 2.18.

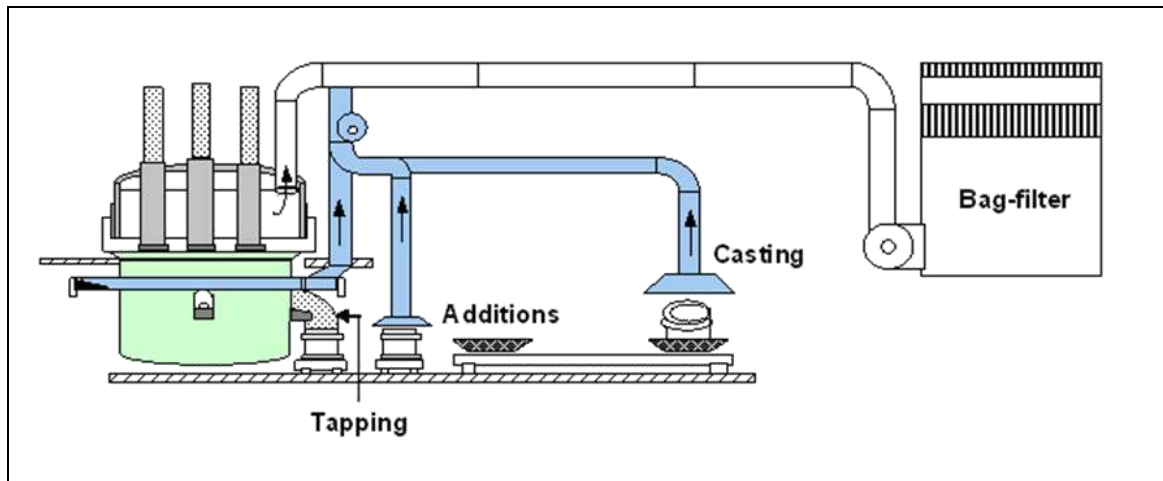


Figure 2.18: Fourth hole fume collection

- The use of sealed charging systems for the furnaces to prevent diffuse emissions during furnace opening, e.g. the use of charging skips that seal against a furnace feed door and the use of through-hood charging systems. These techniques may be applicable to all new and existing processes, particularly for non-continuous processes.
- Maintenance of the collector hood, the ducts, the filter system and the fan is vital to ensure that collection or extraction rates remain at the designed level. It is also important to use a system of dampers and alternative extraction points to direct suction to the points where fumes are being emitted. An example of this is when the furnace is tilted to tap off slag or metal and the fourth hole extraction point is not then connected to the ducting. Dampers should be used to direct suction to the tapping point. The automatic changeover of dampers is preferable.
- Regular inspection and preventative maintenance should be used to ensure that physical damage from collision or abrasion, deposition in ductwork and deposition on fan blades does not occur. This technique is applicable to all new and existing processes.
- An important established practice to achieve good extraction is the use of automatic controls for dampers so that it is possible to target the extraction effort to the source of the fumes without using too much energy. The controls enable the extraction point to be changed automatically during different stages of the process. For example, the charging and tapping of furnaces do not usually occur at the same time and so the charging and tapping points can be designed to be close together so that only one extraction point is needed. The extraction point is also designed to allow easy access to the furnace and give a good rate of extraction. The hooding is constructed robustly and is maintained adequately. This principle is easily applied to a short rotary furnace. An example of this is an adaptation of a short rotary furnace (see Figure 2.19). The feed door and tapholes are at the same end of the furnace. The fume collection hood allows full access for a slag ladle and feed conveyor. It is also robust enough to withstand minor impacts during use.

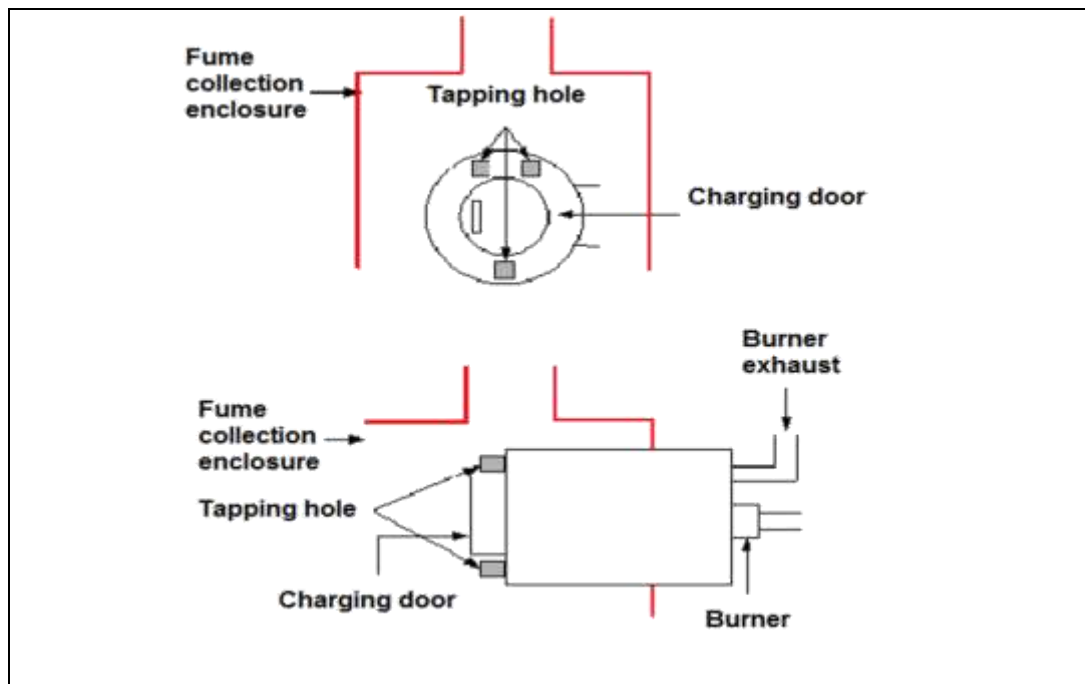


Figure 2.19: Coinciding charging and tapping system

The principle of targeting the extraction effort to a changing source of fumes can also be achieved though by automatically controlling dampers to extract the main source of fumes during the operating cycle, e.g. charging, tapping. The short rotary furnace and the top-blown rotary converter (TBRC) may also be totally enclosed.

- Use of computerised fluid dynamics (CFD) and tracers to model the flow of furnace gases. Improvements have been made to fume capture by applying CFD modelling to the furnace gases to assist in developing optimum fume collection. The deployment of a guided cover curtain to achieve maximum performance has resulted from this work to assess smoke patterns. Significant progress was also made by modifying the charging pattern to an electric reduction furnace by feeding small quantities of charge material on a regular basis rather than by full batch charging. The main effect was the reduction in the surge events that cause diffuse emissions, and the prevention of overcooling the furnace; the results on PCDD/F reduction in this case were significant. [233, COM 2008]
- Use of secondary hood gas collection. If diffuse emissions cannot be prevented or minimised to an acceptable level, secondary fume collection systems can be used. Some furnaces can be equipped with secondary hoods in order to collect diffuse emissions during charging or tapping. The fan suction is provided directly at the source of the fumes to optimise the reduction of diffuse emissions. It is possible to use an intelligent system to operate the fans automatically when process stages that produce fumes are operated. Alternatively, the air could be extracted at the roof ventilator, but a large volume of air would have to be handled which might not be cleaned effectively in a fabric filter. Other disadvantages are high energy consumption, high investment and more waste (used filter media). Secondary fume collection systems are designed for specific cases. Energy use can be minimised by automatically controlling the point of extraction using dampers and fan controls, so the systems are deployed when and where they are needed, for example during charging or during the roll-out of a converter.

Below are some examples of secondary hood gas collection.

- o In the process shown in Figure 2.20, the airflow rate is controlled via a closed-cycle control system by reducing dampers. Ventilator fans with speed controls are used in order to minimise the energy consumption; 875 000 Nm³/h of secondary

gases are captured and cleaned in fabric filters. And 13.6 GWh/yr of electrical energy is consumed and 700 kg of dust is collected per hour.

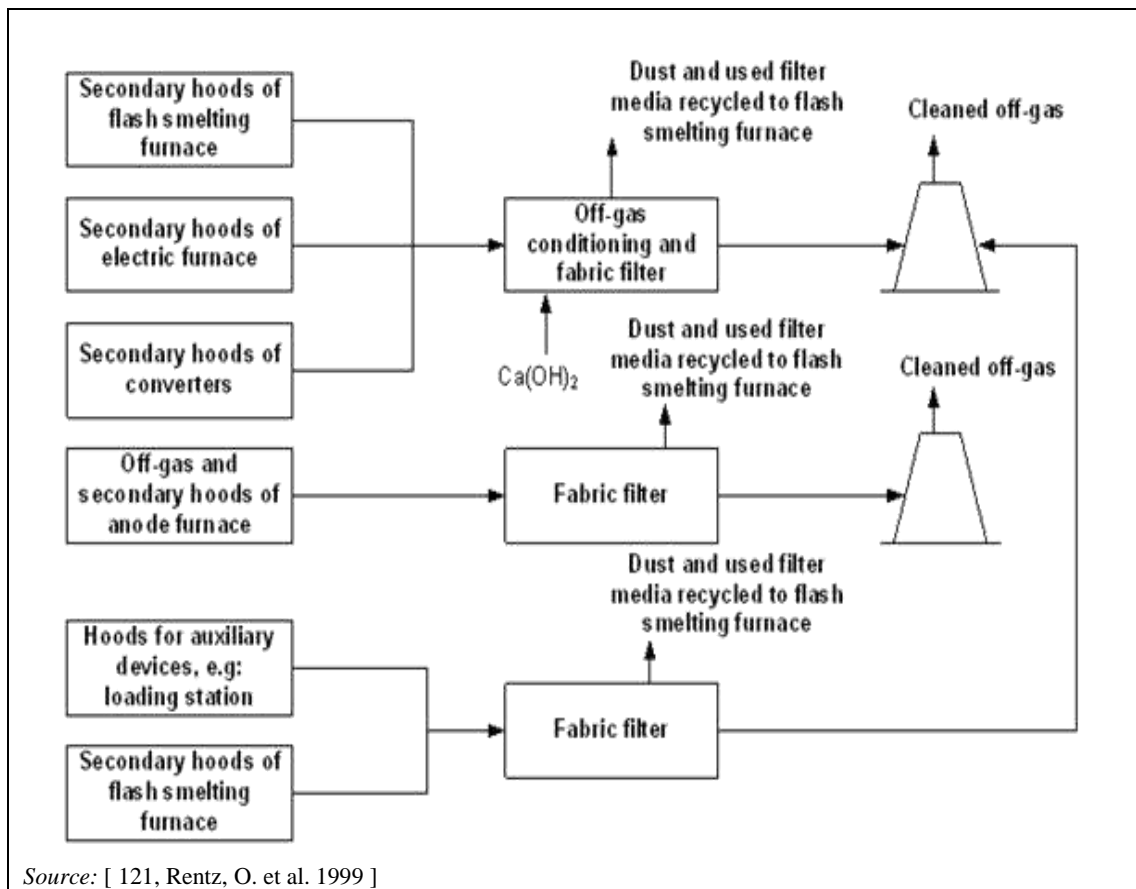
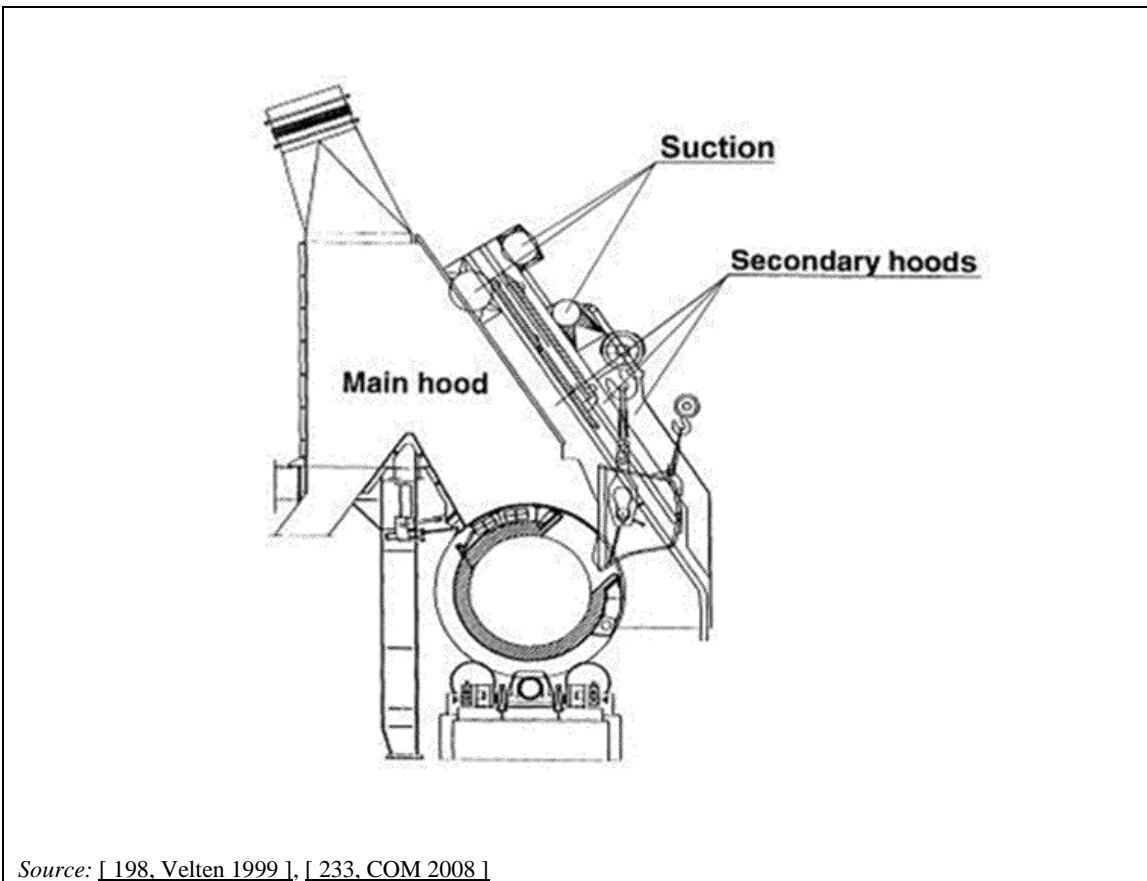


Figure 2.20: Outline of a secondary fume collection system for a primary copper process

- o The collection of gases from a batch converter can be difficult as ladle transfers interfere with the collection hoods. Some installations collect all of the fumes from the roof line, but at high energy costs. Another installation uses a system of up to three hoods, in addition to the main hood. These hoods can be connected either to the sulphuric acid plant (hood 1) or to the secondary cleaning system (hoods 2 and 3). During filling and pouring operations, the individual hoods are motor-driven to the positions that ensure optimal collection efficiency. The secondary hood gas collection system is shown in Figure 2.21.



Source: [198, Velten 1999], [233, COM 2008]

Figure 2.21: Secondary hooding system for a converter

- Another example shows how tapping fumes from a blast furnace can be collected by a secondary fume collection system. The dedusting equipment is composed of various hoods located above the taphole of a blast furnace, the main metal runner, and the device where the liquid metal is poured into the torpedo ladle. The collected fumes are cleaned in a separate fabric filter. The taphole fume collection system (viewed from the top of the blast furnace) is shown in Figure 2.22.

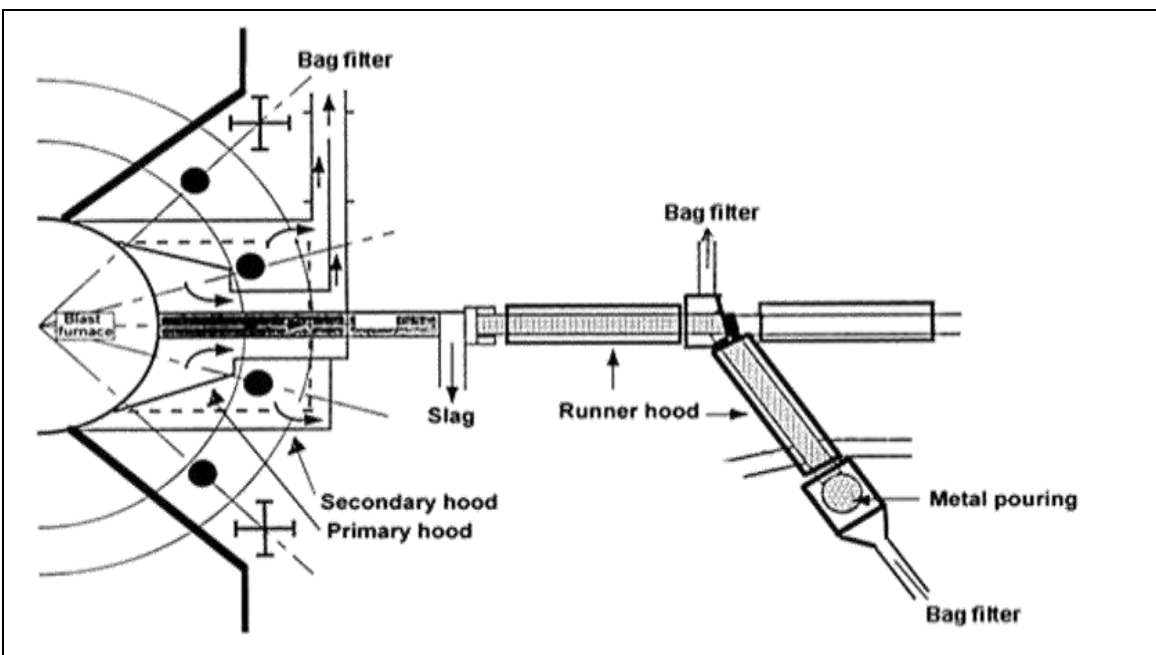


Figure 2.22: Taphole fume collection

- Use of tertiary collection systems. Gases that are not collected by the secondary hoods can be collected in a tertiary collection system that encloses the whole operating area such as the 'house-in-house' or 'doghouse' concept shown in Figure 2.2. An intelligent system is used to operate the fans automatically when process stages that produce fumes are operated. The 'house-in-house' concept uses this principle to prevent excessive energy consumption.

Achieved environmental benefits

- Efficient capture of diffuse emissions of metals, dust, sulphur dioxide and other compounds.
- Most dusts are returned to the processing stages or are sold to recover valuable metals.

Environmental performance and operational data

This is included where available in the examples given above.

Cross-media effects

Increase in energy use.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

These techniques are generally applicable.

A tertiary fume collection system such as 'house-in-house' is applicable to tapping and charging operations for new installations or major upgrades of existing installations due to the dimension of furnaces and space requirements.

Economics

No information provided but the examples are known to be operating economically.

Driving force for implementation

Capture of diffuse emissions.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and PL.

Reference literature

[121, Rentz, O. et al.1999], [160, Steudtner 1998], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999],
[233, COM 2008], [274, COM 2008].

2.12.5 Channelled emissions to air

Since these techniques are widely applied within the sector, general information about these techniques (such as 'Description' and 'Technical description') can be found in this section. Metal-specific information (such as 'Environmental performance and operational data' and 'Example plants') can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

2.12.5.1 Techniques to reduce dust, metal and particle emissions

The following techniques are used for the removal of particles such as dust, metals and fumes.

2.12.5.1.1 Electrostatic precipitators

Description

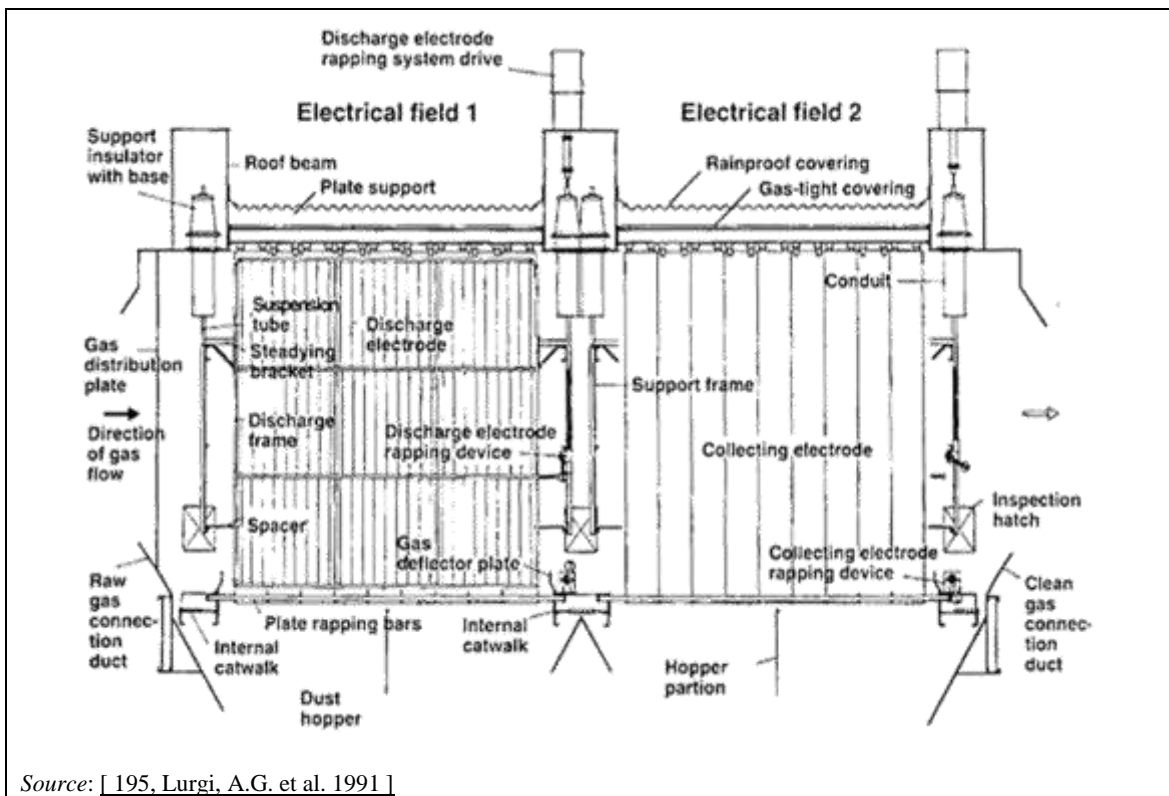
Electrostatic precipitators operate such that particles are charged and separated under the influence of an electrical field. They are capable of operating under a wide range of conditions.

Electrostatic precipitators specially designed to operate with high-temperature off-gases (> 300 °C) are known as hot electrostatic precipitators.

Technical description

The electrostatic precipitator (ESP) is used extensively in the industry and is capable of operating under a wide range of temperature, pressure and dust burden conditions. It is not particularly sensitive to particle size and collects dust in both wet and dry conditions. Corrosion and abrasion resistance is built into the design.

The ESP consists of a series of high-voltage discharge electrodes and corresponding collector electrodes. Particles are charged and subsequently separated from the gas stream under the influence of the electrical field generated between the electrodes. The electrical field is applied across the electrodes by a small direct current at a high voltage (100 kV). In practice, an ESP is divided into a number of discrete zones (up to five zones are commonly used). The ESP is shown in Figure 2.23.



Source: [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991]

Figure 2.23: Typical arrangement of an electrostatic precipitator (only two zones shown)

Particles are removed from the gas stream in four stages:

- application of an electrical charge to the dust;
- placement of the charged dust in an electrical field;
- capture of the dust on the collecting electrode;
- removal of the dust from the surface of the electrode.

The discharge electrodes must be rapped or vibrated to prevent dust build-up, and their mechanical strength must be compatible with the transmission of the rapping blow or vibration. The mechanical reliability of the discharge electrodes and their supporting frame is important, as even a single broken wire can short out an entire electrical field of the precipitator.

The performance of an ESP follows the Deutsch formula, which relates efficiency to the total surface area of the collector electrodes, the volumetric flow rate of the gases and the migration velocity of the particles. Therefore, for a given dust, maximising the surface area of the collector electrodes is very important, and so current practice is to use wide electrode spacing. This practice relies, in turn, on good rectifier design and control.

The industry uses rectifier designs which include the use of separate rectifier sections for each zone or portion of a zone of the ESP. This allows the applied voltage to be varied in the inlet and outlet zones to take account of the reduced dust load towards the outlet, and gives the ability to operate the zones at progressively higher voltages without sparking. Good design is also practised by using automatic control systems, which maintain the optimum high tension (HT) voltage applied to the electrodes in a particular zone without sparking. An automatic monitor is used to apply the maximum voltage without sparking and constantly varies the HT. Fixed HT power supplies are unlikely to provide optimal collection efficiencies.

The resistivity (the inverse of the conductivity) of the dust is particularly important. If it is too low, the particles reaching the collector electrode lose their charge easily and dust re-entrainment can occur. When the dust has a high resistivity, an insulating layer is formed on the electrode, which hinders normal corona discharge and leads to a reduction in the collection

efficiency. Most dusts have a resistivity within the operating range, though collection can be improved by conditioning the dust. Ammonia and sulphur trioxide are commonly used. The resistivity can also be reduced by lowering the gas temperature or by adding moisture to the gas.

An ESP usually does not achieve final dust concentrations as low as those achieved by a fabric filter. To achieve the best performance from a precipitator, the gas flows through the units are optimised to give a uniform flow to prevent gas from bypassing the electrical field. Correct design of inlet ducting and the use of flow distribution devices within the inlet mouthpiece are used to achieve a uniform flow at the inlet to the precipitator.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust and metals emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected dust cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [189, VDI 1998], [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991].

2.12.5.1.2 Wet electrostatic precipitator

Description

The technique consists of an electrostatic precipitator in which the collected material is removed from the plates of the collectors by flushing with a suitable liquid, usually water. A mechanism is usually installed to remove water droplets before discharge of the waste gas (e.g. a demister or a last dry field).

Technical description

Wet electrostatic precipitators operate on the same principles. In this case, the collected dust is removed from the collector plates or tubes by the liquid film formed by the condensing water and precipitated collected acid mist. In the case of a high solids content, built-in atomising nozzles can be used to spray water continuously into the precipitator to prevent the formation of sludge deposits on the collecting electrodes. The spray increases the liquid film on the collecting electrodes and reduces its solids content. In addition, wet precipitators are equipped with flushing systems. Flushing is carried out intermittently. The high-voltage supply is interrupted during the flushing process. They offer advantages for certain dusts that adhere to conventional plates or when other components in the gas stream interfere with the operation, for example in

the case of a cool, damp gas. A liquid effluent is produced that requires further treatment. A wet ESP is shown in Figure 2.24.

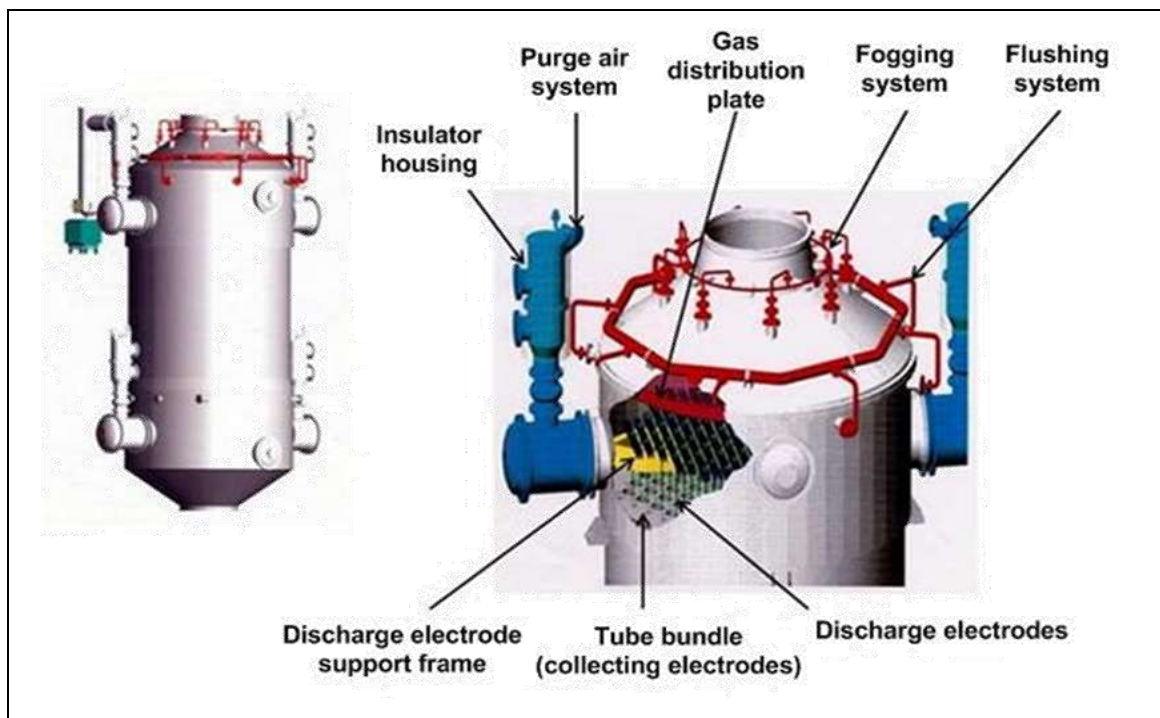


Figure 2.24: Wet electrostatic precipitator

Wet ESPs or moving electrode ESPs can be used for difficult dusts or moist gases.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust, metals and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste water is produced that should be treated to prevent the discharge of metals and other substances to water.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust and other compounds emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [189, VDI 1998].

2.12.5.1.3 Cyclones

Description

Cyclones use inertia to remove particles from the waste gas stream, imparting centrifugal forces, usually within a conical chamber.

Technical description

Cyclones were installed in many of the processes in the 1980s and are still in widespread use today (2014). The cyclone is an inertial gas-cleaning device. Dust becomes separated from the gas stream when the direction of the gas flow is changed and the dust continues in the original direction by virtue of its inertia and is deposited onto a collection surface. The cyclone is shown in Figure 2.25

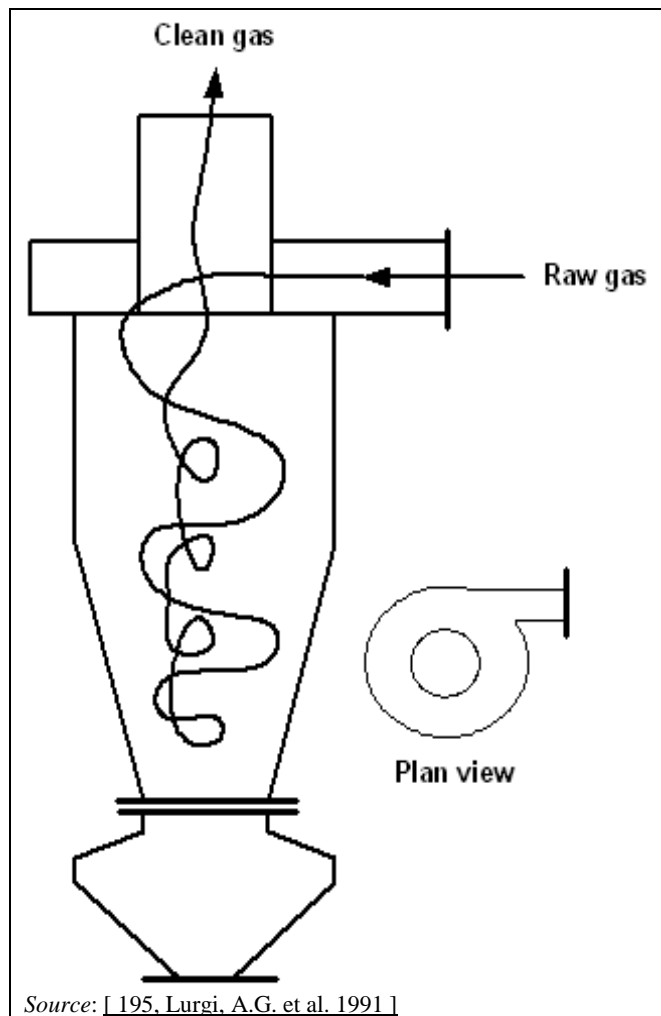


Figure 2.25: Arrangement of a cyclone

The inlet gas is channelled into a spiral flow. Centripetal forces operating within the spiral provide the change of direction, and the particles above a critical mass will be deposited onto the cyclone walls.

Cyclones are not used as a stand-alone technique in this industrial sector.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust and metals emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected dust cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999],

2.12.5.1.4 Fabric or bag filters**Description**

Bag filters are constructed from porous woven or felted fabric through which gases flow and particles are removed by use of a sieve or another mechanism. Use of a bag filter requires a fabric material selection suited to the characteristics of the waste gases and the maximum operating temperature. Cartridge filters are a variation of bag filter which uses cartridges instead of bags.

Technical description

Bag filter systems are used for many applications within this industry sector, due to their high efficiency in controlling the fine dust encountered in melting and smelting operations. Settling and cooling chambers, but also waste heat boilers, can be used before bag filters to reduce the likelihood of fires, to condition the particles, and to recover the heat content of the off-gas before dedusting.

Bag filters with various cleaning systems are shown in Figure 2.26, Figure 2.27 and Figure 2.28.

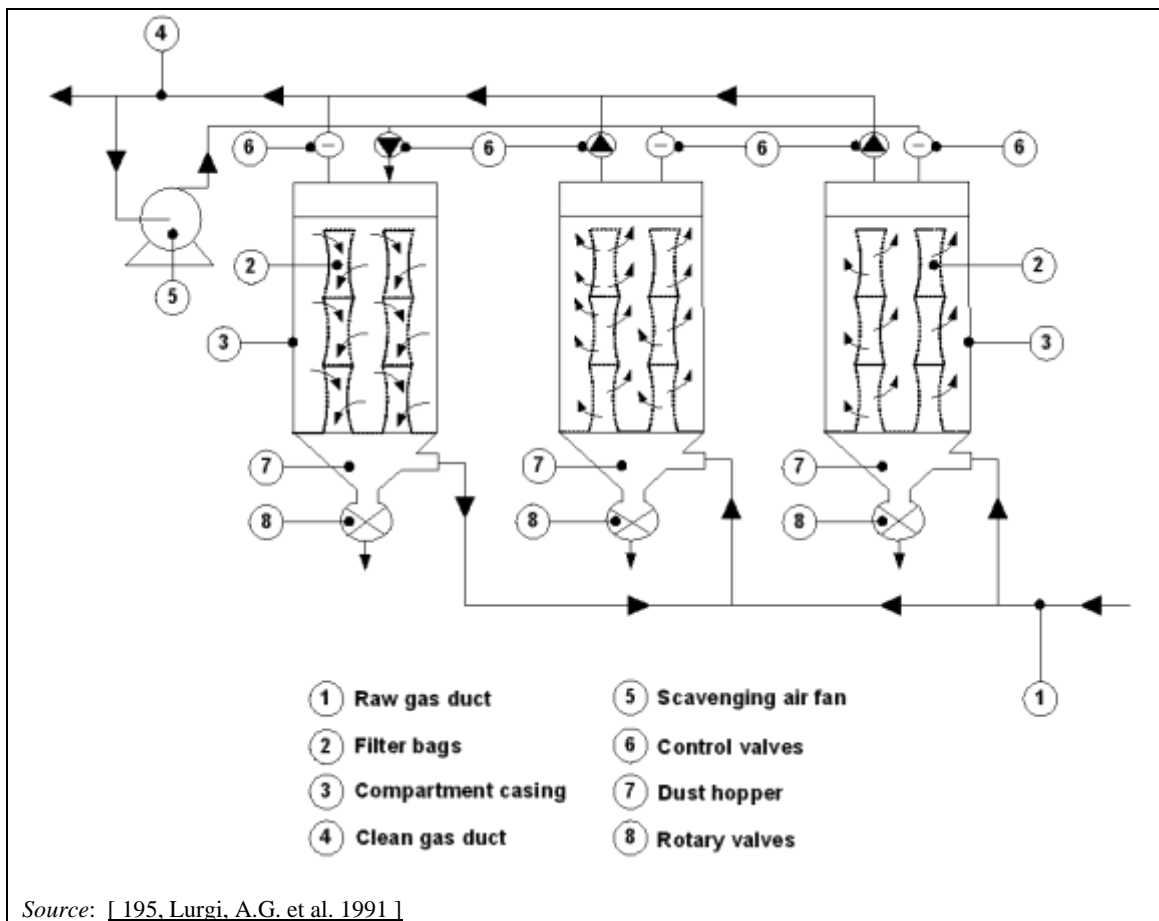


Figure 2.26: Reverse airflow bag filter (with one compartment in the cleaning cycle)

The basic principle of fabric filtration is to use a fabric membrane which is permeable to gas but which will retain the dust. The bags are usually supported on a metal frame and each bag will incorporate a method of sealing into the baghouse structure. Initially, dust is deposited both on the surface fibres and within the depth of the fabric, but as the surface layer builds up, it itself becomes the dominating filter medium. As the dust cake thickens, the resistance to gas flow is increased. Periodic cleaning of the filter media is therefore necessary to control the gas pressure drop across the filter. The direction of the gas flow to be treated can be either from the inside of the bag to the outside or from the outside of the bag to the inside.

Bag filters are normally classified according to the method by which the filter media are cleaned. Regular dust removal from the fabric is important in order to maintain effective extraction efficiency, but it also influences the operating life of the bag.

The most common cleaning methods include reverse airflow, mechanical shaking, vibration, low-pressure air pulsing and compressed air pulsing. Acoustic horns are also used for the cleaning of bags. The normal cleaning mechanisms do not result in the bag returning to pristine condition, as the particles deposited within the depth of the cloth reduce the pore size between the fibres, though this enables high efficiencies to be achieved for cleaning submicron fumes.

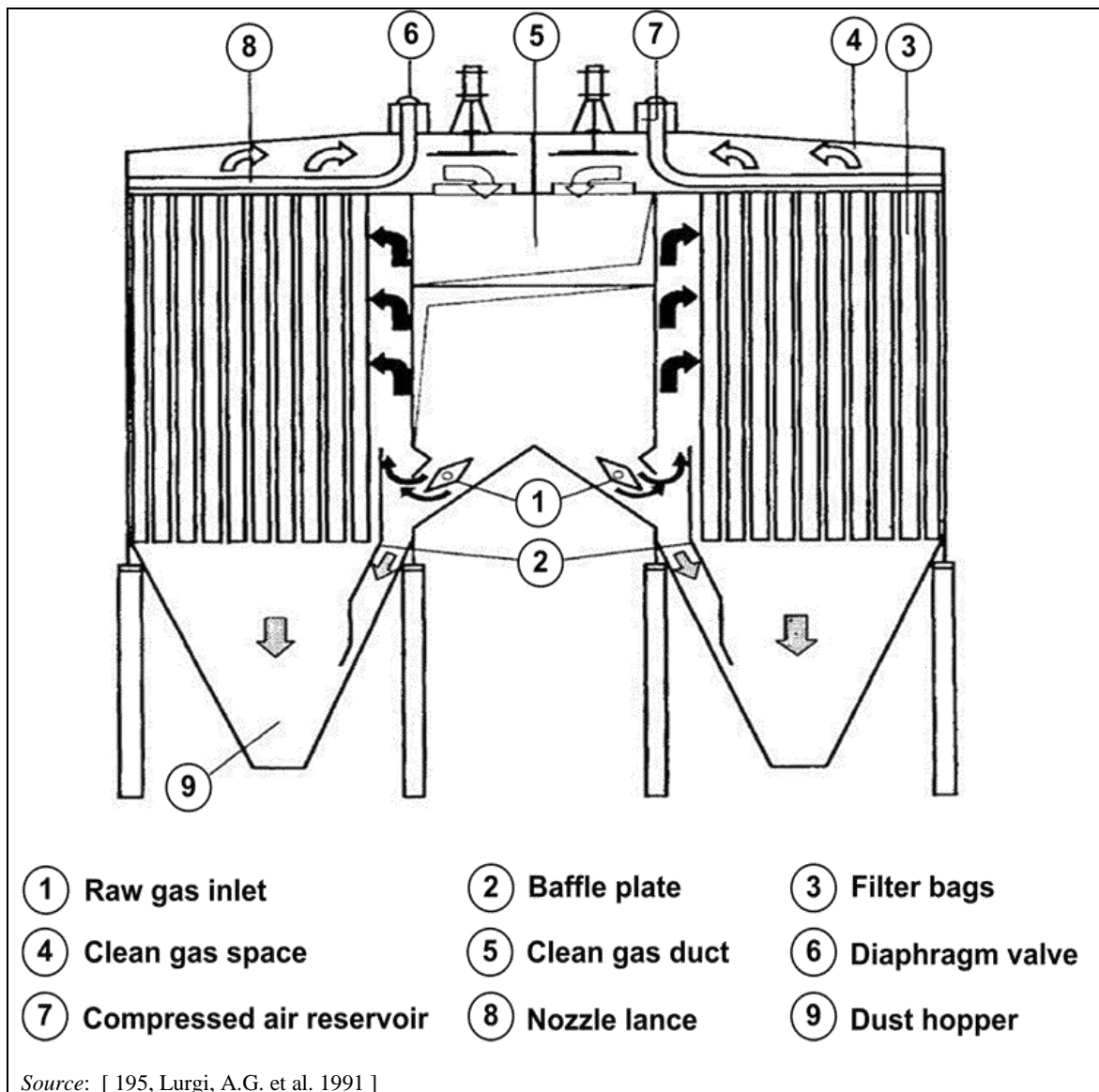


Figure 2.27: Reverse pulse jet cleaning system



- 1 Poppet damper
- 2 Clean gas out
- 3 Dirty gas in
- 4 Hopper inlet damper
- 5 Cell plate
- 6 Filter bags
- 7 External walkways
- 8 Hopper
- 9 Diaphragm valve
Manifold drive
- 10 Pulse tank
- 11 Clean air manifold
- 11 Cell ventilation

Figure 2.28: Low-pressure air pulsing cleaning system

Bag filters are designed on the basis of anticipated filtration velocity, which is defined as the maximum acceptable gas velocity flowing through a unit area of fabric ($\text{m}^3/\text{s} \div \text{m}^2$ expressed in m/s). Filtration velocities generally lie in the range of 0.01 m/s to 0.04 m/s depending on the application, the filter type and the cloth.

Fabric selection takes into account the composition of the gases, the nature and particle size of the dust, the method of cleaning to be employed, the required efficiency and economics. The gas temperature is also considered, together with the method of gas cooling, if any, and the resultant water vapour and acid dew point.

Characteristics of the fabric considered include chemical resistance, fibre form and type of yarn, fabric weave, fabric finish, abrasion and flex resistance, strength, collection efficiency, cloth finishes and cloth permeability.

Wear of the filter bags results in a gradual reduction in performance, which can be measured. Damage or catastrophic failure of several bags is a danger when corrosion occurs, abrasive material is filtered, or when there is a risk of fire. Simple on-line monitoring systems such as pressure drop indicators or dust tell-tale devices give only a rough indication of performance.

Triboelectric or optical devices are used to measure the trend in the dust emitted from the bag filter to identify possible failure, and they can also be used to detect dust peaks during a cleaning cycle. When these measurements are integrated with a zoned cleaning system, the zone that contains damaged bags can be identified and local repairs can be made [123, Robson, T.G. et al. 1998]. Temperature measurement and alarms are also used.

Bag filters in some ferro-alloy processes use pressure filters with fans on the dirty fume/gas side. Developments have led to a closed suction filter with fans on the clean gas side. This technique is used in most of the other metal sectors and combines the advantages of gentle bag cleaning, which means a longer bag life, low operating and maintenance costs, and, due to the closed filter, a defined gas volume.

For correct operation, one or more of the following features should be applied.

- Particular attention to the choice of filter material and the reliability of the mounting and sealing system. Good maintenance should be practised. Modern filter materials are generally more robust and have a longer life. The extra cost of modern materials is more than compensated for by the extra life in most cases.
- An operating temperature above the dew point of the gas. Temperature-resistant bags and mountings are used at higher operating temperatures.
- Continuous dust monitoring using dust impingement, optical or triboelectric devices can be used to detect a filter bag failure. The device should interact if possible with the filter cleaning system so that individual sections, which contain worn or damaged bags, can be identified.
- The use of gas cooling and spark arresting where necessary. Cyclones are considered to be suitable methods for spark arresting. Most modern filters are arranged in multiple compartments, so damaged compartments can be isolated if required.
- Temperature and spark monitoring can be used to detect fires. Inert gas systems can be provided or inert materials (e.g. lime) may be added to the off-gas where there is a danger of ignition. Excessive overheating beyond the design limits of the fabric may produce toxic gaseous emissions.
- Pressure drop can be monitored to control the cleaning mechanism.

A number of different bag filter designs using different kinds of filter materials exist. The use of membrane filtration techniques (surface filtration) results additionally in an increased bag life, a higher temperature limit (up to 260 °C) and relatively low maintenance costs. Membrane filter bags consist of an ultrafine expanded polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) membrane laminated to a backing material. The particles in the off-gas stream are captured on the bag surface. Rather than forming a cake on the inside or penetrating the bag fabric, particles are repelled from the membrane, thus forming a smaller cake. This technique is applicable for all new and existing plants and may also be used for the rehabilitation of existing bag filters [141, Elkem Asa 1998].

Synthetic filter cloths, such as Teflon/fibreglass, have enabled bag filters to be used in a wide range of applications and to have an extended life. The performance of modern filter materials at high temperatures or in abrasive conditions is good, and cloth manufacturers can even help to specify the material for particular applications. With the correct design and suitable type of dust, very low dust emissions may be achieved in special cases. Greater reliability and a longer life repays the expense of modern bags. Achieving these levels is important as the dusts can contain significant levels of metals. To prevent leakage of unpurified gases to the atmosphere, the effect of warping of the distribution manifolds and a correct sealing of the bags should be taken into account, in line with good practice.

Due to their tendency to bind in certain circumstances (i.e. with sticky dusts or in airstreams close to the dew point) and their sensitivity to fire, they are not suitable for all applications. They may also be applicable to existing bag filters and can be retrofitted. In particular, the bag sealing system can be improved during annual maintenance periods, and filter bags can be changed for more modern fabrics during normal replacement schedules, which can also reduce future costs.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust and metals emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

A comparison of the most commonly used parameters of different filter systems is shown in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12: Comparison between different fabric filter systems

Parameter	Pulse jet filter	Membrane fibreglass filter	Fibreglass filter
Air to cloth ratio	80 to 90 m/h	70 to 90 m/h	30 to 35 m/h
Temperature limits	250 °C	280 °C	280 °C
Bag type	Polyester	Membrane/fibreglass	Fibreglass
Bag size	0.126 × 6.0 m	0.292 × 10 m	0.292 × 10 m
Cloth area per bag	2.0 m ²	9.0 m ²	9.0 m ²
Cage	Yes	No	No
Pressure drop	2.0 kPa	2.0 kPa	2.5 kPa
Bag life	Up to 30 months	6 to 10 years	6 to 10 years
<i>Source: [141, Elkem Asa 1998]</i>			

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected dust cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [141, Elkem Asa 1998], [215, VDI 1997], [217, VDI 2004], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.1.5 Ceramic and metal mesh filters

Description

Low-density ceramic filters operate in a similar manner to fabric filters as far as operating principles, general arrangement and cleaning operations are concerned. Instead of cloth bags and their metal supports, rigid elements that resemble candle filters are used.

Technical description

There are several examples of these filters being used in this industry and very high dust removal efficiencies are achieved. Fine particles including PM₁₀ are removed.

They have a high degree of thermal resistance and it is often the limitations of the housings that determine the upper operating temperature. Expansion of the support system as the temperature rises is also a major factor as the sealing of the filter elements in the housing can be affected, resulting in leaks from the dirty gas stream into the clean gas stream. On-line failure detection

systems are used in the same way as fabric filters. Ceramic and mesh filters are not flexible like a fabric filter. When cleaning them with an air pulse, the fine dust will not be removed as effectively as with a cloth filter, resulting in a build-up of fines within the filter and thus reducing the capacity of the filter. This effect is more likely to happen with very fine dust.

Ceramic filters are made from aluminosilicates and can be precoated with a variety of materials to improve chemical or acid resistance or remove other pollutants. The filter elements are relatively easy to handle when new but become brittle after exposure to heat and there is therefore a risk that they may break during maintenance or rough attempts to clean them.

The presence of sticky dust or tar is a potential problem as this may not be cleaned from the element during the normal cleaning cycle and this could cause a significant increase in the pressure drop. The effect of temperature on the material to be collected is therefore an important factor in the design of a plant. With the correct design and suitable dust, very low dust emissions are achieved. Achieving low dust emissions is important as the dusts contain significant levels of metals.

Similar performances at high temperatures have also been reported using a redesigned metal mesh filter. The development allows the rapid establishment of a dust cake layer after cleaning while the zone is off-line.

Filters that are correctly designed, constructed and sized for the application incorporate the following features.

- The housing, mounting and sealing systems are appropriate for the chosen use, are reliable and temperature-resistant.
- Continuous dust monitoring using dust impingement, optical or triboelectric devices to detect filter failure. The device should interact with the filter cleaning system if possible so that individual sections that contain worn or damaged elements can be identified.
- Gas conditioning, where necessary.
- The use of pressure drop to monitor and control the cleaning mechanism.

Due to their tendency to blind in certain circumstances (i.e. with sticky dusts or in airstreams close to the dew point) they are not suitable for all applications. They may also be applicable to existing ceramic filters and can be retrofitted. In particular, the sealing system can often be improved during normal maintenance periods.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust and metals emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected dust cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [73, Theodore, L. et al. 1992], [77, Soud, H.N. 1995], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.1.6 Wet dust scrubber

Description

Wet dust scrubbing is a variation of wet gas scrubbing (see Section 2.12.5.2.2), which can additionally recover/abate dust. Wet dust scrubbing entails separating the dust by intensively mixing the incoming gas with water, mostly combined with the removal of the coarse particles through the use of centrifugal force. In order to achieve this, the gas is released inside tangentially. The removed solid dust is collected at the bottom of the dust scrubber. Aside from the dust, inorganic chemicals such as SO₂, NH₃, NH₄Cl, VOCs and metals that may be attached to the dust are removed.

Technical description

Particulate collection by wet scrubbing occurs by three main mechanisms: inertial impacting, interception and diffusion. The particle size to be collected is an important factor and the wettability of the material to be collected can also be significant.

A radial flow wet scrubber is shown in Figure 2.29.

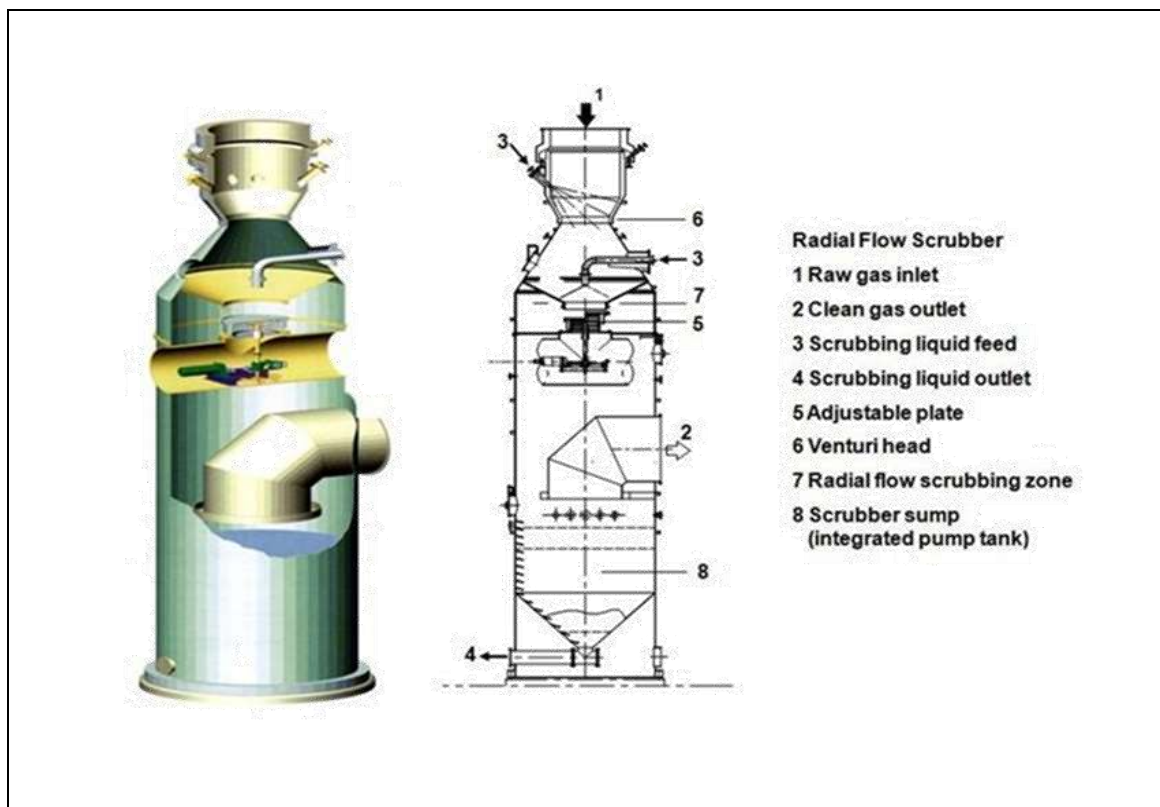


Figure 2.29: Radial flow wet scrubber

Wet scrubbers are used for cooling, saturating and precleaning gases, e.g. when arranged upstream of wet electrostatic precipitators. Typical examples are the Venturi scrubber or the radial flow scrubber with an adjustable pressure drop. Wet scrubbers are used in many different

non-ferrous metal production processes, for instance copper, zinc and lead and also in the production of ferro-manganese alloys in closed furnaces. Scrubber design is based on the relationship of gas and liquid velocity and of gas volume and liquid quantity. These parameters determine the pressure drop across the scrubber and thus the collection efficiency.

Cascade or Venturi wet scrubbers are often used for the dedusting of CO-rich off-gases from sealed electric arc furnaces. The gas is then used as high calorific value gas and is emitted after further treatment. It is also used to treat gases from a steel belt sintering machine, where the dust is very abrasive but easily wetted. Without this scrubber action, the fabric filter life would be severely restricted and rapid fabric wear would result in poor performance.

Scrubbers are used when the nature of the dust or the gas temperature precludes the use of other techniques or when the dust is particularly suitable for removal in a scrubber. Their use can also be considered when gases need to be removed simultaneously with dust or when they form part of a chain of abatement techniques, for example in dedusting prior to a sulphuric acid plant. Sufficient energy should be applied to ensure the wetting and interception of the particles.

Wet scrubbers should incorporate a monitoring system for pressure drop, scrubbing liquid flow and (if acid gases are being abated) pH. The scrubbed gases should exit the scrubber to a mist eliminator.

Experience shows that the efficiency of wet scrubbers is strongly dependent upon the particle size and their total energy usage, particularly upon the pressure drop across the collection zone. Moreover, provided the liquid is evenly dispersed within the scrubber, similar pressure drops will often give similar efficiencies on the same dust for quite different scrubber designs. Thus, it is not possible to design a wet scrubber that has high efficiencies without a high energy consumption, unless the dust concerned is particularly easy to wet. A variety of designs for high-energy scrubbers exist based on radial flow, jet, Venturi and cascade principles. Scrubbers have an application for dusts that are difficult to remove with other techniques. In general, the gases are then used in another process (e.g. as a fuel gas) and are not emitted. They are also used in conjunction with wet ESPs to cool and clean gases before conversion in sulphuric acid plants or to absorb acid gases.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust, metals and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected material cannot be returned to the process.
- Waste water is produced that needs additional treatment to prevent the discharge of metals to water.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of dust emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[196, Finkeldei, L. 1999] [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991], [216, VDI 1998] [226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.1.7 Overview of dust abatement techniques

An overview of dust abatement techniques is given in Table 2.13 below.

Table 2.13: Overview of dust abatement techniques

Description	Cross-media effects	Operational data (potential problems)	Applicability	Driving force for implementation
Fabric filters	None if dust is reused	Clogging, fires, sealing. Maximum operating temperature 250 °C	Most with good sealing and modern fabrics	Good performance for suitable dusts. Potential to recycle dust to process
Wet electrostatic precipitator	Source of effluent	Wire breakage and shorting. Maximum operating temperature 80 °C	Improved performance for wet gases	Good performance for suitable dusts, low pressure drop but effluent produced
Electrostatic precipitator	None if dust is reused	Variation in particles, wire breakage and shorting. Maximum operating temperature 450 °C	Most with good control systems and gas distribution	Low pressure drop, reliable, low maintenance
Wet dust scrubber	Source of effluent	Lower performance and blockages. Maximum operating temperature 1000 °C inlet	Cleaning or precleaning of gases prior to other methods. Only some dusts are suitable. Cleaning fuel gases for combustion or gases for acid plant	Removal of acid gases and mists
Ceramic filters	None if dust is reused	Fragility, clogging and sealing. Dust must be suitable. Maximum operating temperature 900 °C	Higher temperature operation	Very good performance for suitable dusts. Potential to recycle dust to process
Cyclones	None if dust is reused	Poor performance. Limited efficiency for fine particles. Maximum operating temperature 1100 °C	Pre-abatement	Precleaning of gases prior to other methods

2.12.5.2 Techniques to reduce gaseous compounds emissions

Gases such as NH_3 , SO_2 , SO_3 , HF, HCl and NO_x are produced in several processes, for example sulphur dioxide is produced during smelting and hydrogen fluoride is produced during electrolysis. Prevention and reduction techniques are available for these gases [213, VDI 1998]. Reduction of the emissions of these gases is often possible by process control or by fixing the material in a slag or matte. The use of low- NO_x burners and staged combustion air for furnaces and other combustion plants can prevent the formation of these gases.

Organic and metallic components can also be emitted from some processes and can be adsorbed using similar techniques.

The following techniques are used to remove gaseous components. More information is given in the metal-specific chapters (Chapters 3 to 10).

2.12.5.2.1 Afterburners/Afterburning chambers

Description

An afterburner or thermal oxidiser (TO) is a combustion system in which the pollutant within the exhaust gas stream reacts with oxygen in a controlled environment to create an oxidation reaction.

A regenerative afterburner or regenerative thermal oxidiser (RTO) is a combustion system that employs a regenerative process to utilise the thermal energy in the gas and carbon compounds using refractory support beds. A manifold system is needed to change the direction of the gas flow to clean the bed.

A catalytic afterburner or catalytic thermal oxidiser (CTO) is a combustion system where the decomposition is carried out on a metal catalyst surface at lower temperatures, typically from 350 °C to 400 °C.

Technical description

Combustion systems are used in the industry to oxidise CO, dust or gaseous carbonaceous material in a gas stream. Several types of combustion systems are used.

- High-temperature afterburners, also called thermal oxidisers, where the gases are typically heated to between 850 °C and 1000 °C and held for a minimum of 0.5 seconds (provided there are no chlorinated components) leading to the destruction of VOCs present. Afterburners employ a burner system (not necessarily used continuously).
- Regenerative afterburners, also called regenerative thermal oxidisers (RTOs), employ a regenerative system to utilise the thermal energy in the gas and carbon compounds using refractory support beds. A manifold system is needed to change the direction of the gas flow to clean the bed.
- In catalytic afterburners, also called catalytic thermal oxidisers (CTO), where the decomposition is carried out on a metal catalyst surface at lower temperatures, typically from 350 °C to 400 °C.
- Furnaces designed to burn off-gases, e.g. excess CO, to recover energy.
- The uptake shaft or exit portion of a furnace can be used as an afterburner if additional oxygen is added at this point.

Afterburners destroy organic compounds including PCDD/F by thermal oxidation. Further energy is needed, which results, depending on the source of energy used, in the emission of CO_2 , NO_x and SO_2 .

Afterburners are particularly useful in de-oiling and decoating operations, which can produce a high concentration of organic compounds. The presence of these components in a furnace

produces a high volume of combustion products and would result in a very short residence time in the furnace and therefore the emission of partially combusted gases.

Installations that are correctly designed, constructed and sized for the particular application are techniques to consider to remove VOCs, PCDD/F, organic or carbon particles or combustible gases such as CO or H₂. Heat recovery should be used where possible. The main requirements for effective combustion in an afterburner are as follows:

- Sufficient residence time in the combustion chamber or regenerative system; this must be long enough in the presence of sufficient oxygen to ensure complete combustion. A destruction efficiency of 99 % will usually require a residence time of two seconds at the relevant temperature, depending on the presence of chlorinated compounds. Lower residence times and temperatures may also result in the complete destruction of VOCs and PCDD/F, but this should then be demonstrated at a local level under real operating conditions. Gases should be cooled rapidly through the temperature window of PCDD/F reformation. Turbulence is necessary to provide efficient heat and mass transfer in the combustion zone, and to prevent cool spots. This is usually achieved using burners that generate a swirling combustion flame, and by incorporating baffles in the combustion chamber.
- An operating temperature of 200–400 °C above the autoignition temperature of the most stable substance, so minimum operating temperatures are above 850 °C. Where the gas stream contains chlorinated substances, temperatures must be increased to 1100–1200 °C, and rapid flue-gas cooling is required to prevent the reformation of PCDD/F.
- Operation of catalytic units at lower temperatures. Flares require turbulence, air, and an ignition source. If necessary, supplementary fuel can be added.
- Microprocessor control of the air to fuel ratio in the burners, to optimise combustion.
- Demonstration of the performance of the combination of equipment, operating temperature and residence time, to show that effective destruction of the materials present in the feed gas has taken place.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of organic compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

Potential increase in energy use if the heat generated cannot be used.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[196, Finkeldei, L. 1999], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [211, VDI 2003], [212, VDI 1995], [214, VDI 2005], [103, COM 1998], [233, COM 2008]

2.12.5.2.2 Wet gas scrubber

Description

In the wet scrubbing process, gaseous compounds are dissolved in a solution. Downstream of the wet scrubber, the flue-gases are saturated with water and a separation of the droplets is required before discharging the flue-gases. The resulting liquid has to be treated by a waste water process and the insoluble matter is collected by sedimentation or filtration.

Technical description

Wet scrubbing systems are used in the industry to remove gaseous components at low concentrations, primarily to remove particles (see Section 2.12.5.1.6) but also to control temperature (by adiabatic cooling). Whilst the basic technology for these applications is similar, the design criteria for dust and gaseous component removal are very different. Wet scrubbing systems are often used for all three processes simultaneously and so the design is inevitably a compromise and significant cross-media effects, such as the production of additional waste water, may result depending on the application.

Various scrubbing media are used ranging from seawater to alkali solutions. The application for which a scrubber is used determines the factors that should be measured to monitor performance. The parameters that are used include: pressure drop and scrubbing liquid flow, temperature, turbidity, conductivity and pH. Potentially significant cross-media effects exist and need to be taken into account locally.

Scrubbers that are correctly designed, constructed and sized for the particular application are techniques to consider to remove low concentrations of sulphur dioxide (less than 1 %) and other acid gases such as HF and HCl that may be produced.

Wet scrubbers should incorporate a monitoring system if possible for pressure drop, scrubbing liquid flow and pH, and the scrubbed gases should exit the scrubber to a mist eliminator. Weak acid scrubbing liquid produced by scrubbers should be reused, recovered if possible, or treated to reduce emissions to water.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust, metals and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste water is produced that needs additional treatment to prevent the discharge of metals to water.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [13, HMIP (UK) 1994], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.2.3 Dry and semi-dry scrubbers

Description

Dry powder or a suspension/solution of alkaline reagents is introduced and dispersed in the waste gas stream. The material reacts with the sulphur gaseous species to form a solid, which has to be removed by filtration (bag filter or electrostatic precipitator). The use of a reaction tower improves the removal efficiency of the scrubbing system.

Technical description

Adsorption techniques such as dry scrubbing are used to absorb acid gases and adsorb metallic or organic compounds. Lime, magnesium hydroxide, limestone, zinc oxide and alumina are frequently used for both applications. Dual alkaline scrubbers are used elsewhere in the world. Activated carbon (or coke) is used to remove metal (mercury) and organic substances, for which it is usually more effective.

Adsorption is achieved using packed towers or by injecting the reagent into the gas stream and using a reactor tower. Fabric filters are most frequently used downstream to collect the partially reacted scrubbing medium and provide a further surface area for further absorption to take place. The scrubbing medium can be recycled several times within the scrubbing network to allow full use of the absorptive and adsorptive capacity. In the case of alumina and zinc oxide, they are subsequently used in the main process. Fluorides absorbed by alumina are recovered by the electrolytic process.

A variant on dry scrubbing is semi-dry scrubbing. In this case, a slurry of the reactant (usually lime) is injected into a reactor with the gas stream. The water is evaporated, provided the gas temperature is high enough, and the gaseous components can react with the particles. The particles of the reacted reagent are then removed from the gas stream. Dry scrubbing is often less effective than wet or semi-dry scrubbing, particularly with less reactive gases such as SO₂. The effectiveness of the reactant is often related to the reactivity of the reagent and suppliers of lime can often produce material at a reactivity that is suitable for certain applications.

When these processes are used to remove SO₂, they are known as flue-gas desulphurisation (FGD) techniques. They are used to reduce the SO₂ content of gases from anode furnaces and other sources with a low SO₂ content and for tail gas scrubbing of the gases from a sulphuric acid plant. Gypsum is produced when wet methods are used and can be sold in some circumstances.

Scrubbers using the correct reagent that are correctly designed, constructed and sized for the particular application are techniques to consider to remove low concentrations of sulphur dioxide (less than 1 %) and other acid gases such as HF and HCl that may be produced. Dry scrubbers using activated carbon are techniques to consider to remove organic matter such as PCDD/F or to remove mercury. Scrubbers should also use one or more of the following techniques depending on the application.

- Dry and semi-dry scrubbers should incorporate suitable mixing and reaction chambers.
- Particles generated in the reaction chamber should be removed in a fabric filter or ESP.
- The partially reacted scrubbing medium can be recycled to the reactor.
- The spent scrubbing medium should be used in the main process, if possible. For example, alumina and zinc oxide can be used in their respective processes.
- Semi-dry scrubbers should incorporate a mist eliminator, if mists are produced.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of dust, metals and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste may be produced if the collected dust cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[11, Ltd 1993], [13, HMIP (UK) 1994], [217, VDI 2004], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998], [233, COM 2008]

2.12.5.2.4 Gas recovery systems

Description

In addition to the use of wet, dry and semi-dry scrubbing systems to remove the gaseous components reported above, this industry makes extensive use of recovery systems to recover gases from process gas streams.

Technical description

HCl can be absorbed in water, and SO₂ or NO_x can be absorbed in water or hydrogen peroxide.

The following examples are used in the industry to close the material cycles.

- The hydrochloric acid loop: for processes involving dissolution, where hydrochloric acid (HCl) is used in combination with excess chlorine. By using evaporation and collection in water, an azeotropic acid (in concentrations of about 20 wt-%) is obtained. This is reused in different parts of the process.
- The nitric acid loop: silver and palladium are often dissolved in nitric acid (HNO₃). A significant quantity of nitrogen oxide off-gases (NO and NO₂) can be captured with oxygen or hydrogen peroxide in special cascade scrubbers. The long time needed to oxidise small quantities of NO and the reduction of gas absorption by exothermic reactions cause problems. Therefore cooling and several combined scrubbers are

necessary to reach the limit values and to avoid brown fumes arising from the stack. The resulting nitric acid from the first scrubber usually has concentrations of about 45 wt-% and can be reused in several processes. Residual nitrogen oxides can be removed by catalytic means, such as selective or non-selective catalytic reduction, if very high NO_x concentrations occur continuously [161, Bobeth, A. 1999].

- The chlorine loop: chlorine is used in wet processes to dissolve metals, and in dry chlorination steps at elevated temperatures to refine them. In both cases, closed systems are used, e.g. using U-tubes with water and sealed electrolytic cells. Chlorine gas can be recovered or hypochlorite solutions produced. Hypochlorite is also used as an oxidising agent in scrubber solutions for various refining processes.
- The ammonium chloride loop: the relatively low solubility of ammonium chloride (NH₄Cl) in evaporated solutions at room temperature makes it possible to reuse crystalline precipitates of this salt.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of acid gases and other compounds emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste water is produced that needs additional treatment to prevent the discharge of metals to water.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings if dust can be returned to the process.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [13, HMIP (UK) 1994], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.2.5 Oxy-fuel firing

Description

The technique involves the replacement of the combustion air with oxygen, with the consequent elimination/reduction of thermal NO_x formation from the nitrogen entering the furnace. The residual nitrogen content in the furnace depends on the purity of the oxygen supplied, on the quality of the fuel, and on the potential air inlet.

Technical description

The production stages usually rely on high temperatures but are also associated with the use of oxygen. This reduces the partial pressure of nitrogen in the flame and reduces nitrogen oxide formation, provided that nitrogen is not present in great amounts in the very hot areas. Typical levels for the emissions of nitrogen oxides for secondary copper are reported to be in the range of 20 mg/Nm³ to 400 mg/Nm³, depending on the furnace and type of operation. For NO_x, the

use of highly efficient processes (e.g. Contimelt) requires a balance to be established locally between energy use and achieved value. Other furnaces in the secondary aluminium sector that use oxy-fuel burners can also show a reduction in NO_x, the range for these processes is 50 mg/Nm³ to 500 mg/Nm³.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of nitrogen oxides emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

The use of pure oxygen in a burner leads to a reduction in the partial pressure of nitrogen in the flame and therefore thermal NO_x formation may be reduced. This may not be the case with oxygen enrichment in or near the burner, or if there is significant leakage of air into the furnace, as the higher gas temperature may promote thermal NO_x formation. In the latter case, oxygen can be added downstream of the burner to reduce this effect and maintain the improvement in the melting rate. Table 2.14 shows emissions of NO_x from several processes.

Table 2.14: Emissions of nitrogen oxide from several processes

Production site	Emission source	NO _x range (mg/Nm ³ as NO ₂)	Comment
Aurubis, Lünen, DE Secondary copper	Anode furnace Cu	100–350	Upper range is the ELV
Aurubis, Lünen, DE Secondary copper	KRS furnace	10–100	Oxy-fuel
Brixlegg, AT Secondary copper	Shaft furnace	21–300	Oxy-fuel
AMAG, AT Aluminium	Reverberatory furnace	15–310	Oxy-fuel
AMAG, AT Aluminium	Rotary furnace	10–157	NR
Unnamed DE Aluminium	Swarf dryer	40–350	Upper range is the ELV
AMAG, AT Aluminium	Swarf dryer	69–101	NR
AMAG, AT Aluminium	Tilting rotary furnace	11–36	Oxy-fuel
Unnamed DE Secondary lead	Secondary smelter	< 50	NR
Affinage de Lorraine, FR Aluminium production	Rotary furnaces	28–160	Oxy-fuel
Elkem, Thamshavn, NO Ferro-alloys	EAF	230–400	NR

NB: NR = Not reported.
 Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [194, Mezger, G. 1999], [256, Winter 2007], [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007],
 [276, Schmitt G. 2008], [233, COM 2008]

Cross-media effects

No information provided.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Oxy-fuel firing is a technique that can be applied to most of the combustion and pyrometallurgical processes in use. The full benefit is achieved with new plants, where the combustion chamber and abatement systems can also be designed for lower gas volumes. The technique is also applicable to existing plants and can in many cases be retrofitted.

Economics

The economic advantages of oxy-fuel firing are mainly related to improvements in terms of the production rate. In the secondary aluminium sector in 1999, fixed costs were around EUR 145/t for two furnaces (22 561 tonnes produced/year). The higher productivity allowed by oxy-fuel burners would result in a cut in these costs to around EUR 122/t (22 651 x 145/27 000). There is therefore a potential saving of EUR 23/t for a production rate of 27 000 t/yr.

Some data on costs involved in oxy-fuel firing for secondary aluminium production are given in Table 2.15.

Table 2.15: Data on costs involved in oxy-fuel firing for secondary aluminium production

Parameter	Benefits/costs	Comment
Melting time	- 2.45 h/charge	Reduced batch melting time
Productivity	+ 0.84 t/h	Increased productivity of the furnace
Gas consumption	- 80 m ³ /t (tonne of oxygen)	Reduced consumption of gas
O ₂ consumption	+ 126 m ³ /t	Additional consumption of oxygen

Source: [276, Schmitt G. 2008]

Driving force for implementation

- Prevention of emissions.
- Energy savings.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and UK.

Reference literature

[234, UBA (D) 2007], [194, Mezger, G. 1999], [256, Winter 2007], [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007], [276, Schmitt G. 2008], [122, ETSU 1994], [103, COM 1998].

2.12.5.2.6 Techniques to remove hydrocarbons and VOCs

Description

The techniques used to remove or destroy VOCs are afterburners (see Section 2.12.5.2.1), wet scrubbers (see Section 2.12.5.2.2), dry scrubbers (see Section 2.12.5.2.3) biofilters and bioscrubbers.

A biofilter consists of a bed of organic material, where pollutants from waste gas streams are biologically oxidised by naturally occurring microorganisms.

A bioscrubber combines wet gas scrubbing (absorption) and biodegradation, the scrubbing water containing a population of microorganisms suitable to oxidise the noxious gas components.

Technical description

TVOC and VOCs are produced by poor combustion and during various operations such as storage of hydrocarbons, the removal of CO and hydrocarbons produced during process operations, degreasing of components, solvent extraction processes and from the breathing of tanks used to store solvents and fuel. Materials may be aromatic, aliphatic, chlorinated organic or water-based. The ecotoxicity varies and this needs to be taken into account in order to use the most benign material and to determine the correct abatement system that should be used on a site-by-site basis. Containment is practised to prevent emissions, and mixers/settlers can be used that minimise contact with air. Solvent or fuel vapours need to be extracted and removed from the exhaust gases.

Combinations of the techniques are used where there is a wide range of hydrocarbons present. Biofilters and reactors are also used [156, VDI 2008]. Activated carbon filters and chiller/condenser systems are used which allow the material to be recovered for reuse. In one solvent extraction process, ventilation air is cooled and removes the solvent down to a level of 0.2 kg per tonne of cobalt produced. VOCs can also be emitted during the delivery of solvents, etc. Back-venting of displaced gases is used to minimise the emission of VOCs.

Heat recovery should be used where possible.

VOCs can be emitted if oily material is used as feed. VOCs may also be emitted from solvent degreasing or solvent extraction processes.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of hydrocarbon and VOC emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

Increase in energy use if the heat generated cannot be used.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

Several RTOs are operating viably. Costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[212, VDI 1995], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [242, Infomil 2008], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999], [103, COM 1998], [233, COM 2008], [348, Solios 2010].

2.12.5.2.7 Removal of other impurities

In addition to their interference with the recovery of sulphuric acid and sulphur dioxide, other non-ferrous metals that are present in the ores and concentrates have an adverse environmental impact. They need to be removed if they have not been already. They also have a value and so they are recovered separately from the metal of prime interest. Additional purification stages are therefore used to remove and recover them and these are reported in the metal-specific chapters.

2.12.5.2.7.1 Other metals

Description

Technical description

Pyrometallurgical processes are used to remove impurities from the desired metal by volatilising and/or slagging other metals. For example, zinc, bismuth, lead, tin, cadmium, arsenic and gallium may be volatilised under the operating conditions in the furnace and are fumed from the melt. The choice of operating temperature influences this stage of the process, and these metal

oxides can be collected using an appropriate dust removal technique. The metals are then recovered from the collected flue-dusts in a number of ways. Slag cleaning furnaces and slag fuming processes are also operated to remove volatile metals that are collected as flue-dusts. These flue-dusts and other residues therefore form the raw materials for a variety of metals.

Volatile metals and their oxides are also found in dusts and residues from other processes, for example, in dust from steelmaking. These residues provide the raw material for other processes to recover zinc and other volatile metals. In these processes, a rotary kiln (Waelz kiln) or an Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace is used to fume the metal and enrich zinc and lead in a mixed oxide, which can then be recovered in other pyrometallurgical processes.

Tanks and other equipment used in hydrometallurgical plants are mostly ventilated to atmosphere to ensure a safe workplace. This ventilation air may contain an acid mist that contains metal compounds from the solution. Removal techniques comprise wet scrubbers or demisters. The demister elements are placed in the gas stream in the vent stack or on top of the cooling towers and the separated solution flows back into the main reservoir.

Achieved environmental benefits

- Prevention and reduction of metals emissions.
- Recovery of metals.

Environmental performance and operational data

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- Waste or waste water may be produced if the collected material cannot be returned to the process.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document and in the metal-specific chapters.

Driving force for implementation

- Prevention and reduction of emissions.
- Raw material savings.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[226, Nordic Report 2008], [103, COM 1998]

2.12.5.3 Techniques to reduce PCDD/F emissions

In this document, dioxins and furans are referred to together as PCDD/F.

Description

The techniques to consider include both primary techniques (such as improving the combustion conditions, removing organic compounds from the feed or modification of the furnace charging systems) and end-of-pipe techniques (such as efficient dust filtration, addition of activated carbon or afterburners).

Technical description

PCDD/F are formed by gas phase reactions with chlorinated organic precursors. Apart from a carbon source, which is always present, only small amounts of chlorine in the input materials (30–300 ppm in typical ores and a few ppm in metals) or in the fuels (commercial coke has, for example, a chlorine content of around 0.05 wt-%) are sufficient for PCDD/F to form. Processes prone to PCDD/F formation include, for instance, combustion processes, ore sintering, metal smelting and, hence, also pyrometallurgical processes. The greater part of PCDD/F formation occurs through de novo synthesis as the off-gas is being cooled through the temperature window of approximately 400 °C to 200 °C in the presence of reactive carbon, chlorine, oxygen and a catalytically active metal like copper.

The main sources of PCDD/F formation in non-ferrous metallurgy are [306, COM 2007]:

- smelting of secondary copper, aluminium and lead (via dirty input materials, which contain chlorine and organics, no adequate operation conditions or gas cleaning);
- melting and alloying of metals, in particular in the presence of copper and when heated with gas under substoichiometric conditions.

Minor sources of PCDD/F formation are:

- foundries;
- smelting of secondary copper, aluminium and lead (using clean input materials, optimised operation and/or flue-gas cleaning).

Sources that are not well-known are:

- other sintering processes, because they are applied on a relatively modest scale to non-ferrous ores;
- sources that are probably negligible, i.e. other processes fitted with well-designed, well-operated thermal or catalytic post-combustion or deNO_x catalysis, and without subsequent heat recovery.

However, whether and to what extent PCDD/F will be emitted with the off-gas not only depends on the fuels used and materials processed (e.g. metals with catalytic properties), but also primarily on the process control (mass transfer conditions) and the specific off-gas conditions (e.g. temperature, residence time in the different temperature windows, SO₂ content). PCDD/F are also relevant to the production of metals in processes that need chlorination, such as the electrolytic production of magnesium from seawater and dolomite.

This industry relies on sources of secondary raw materials from the scrap industry. Although there are agreed scrap grades, the impurities present may lead to the formation of PCDD/F during incomplete combustion or by de novo synthesis. The presence of PCDD/F in EAF dust and the presence of polychlorinated biphenyls on transformer scrap and other materials are potential direct sources of PCDD/F.

The presence of oils and other organic materials on scrap or other sources of carbon (partially burnt fuels and reducing agents, such as coke) can produce fine carbon particles which react with inorganic chlorides or organically bound chlorine in the temperature range of 250 °C to 500 °C to produce PCDD/F. This process is known as de novo synthesis and is catalysed by the presence of metals such as copper or iron. Preselection or treatment of the feed material to minimise the amount of precursors or organic matter is therefore a very important measure to prevent the formation of PCDD/F.

High levels of SO₂ are reported to inhibit de novo synthesis in municipal solid waste incinerators where the formation of CuCl₂, which is said to act as a catalyst for de novo synthesis, is inhibited by the formation of CuSO₄ [278, Hunsiger et al 2007]. This effect might be applicable in the non-ferrous metals sector and could influence the sequence of SO₂ removal.

Although PCDD/F are destroyed at high temperatures (above 850 °C) in the presence of oxygen, the process of de novo synthesis is still possible as the gases are cooled through the 'reformation window'. This window can be present in abatement systems and in cooler parts of the furnace, e.g. the feed area. Care is taken in the design of cooling systems to minimise the residence time in the window, to prevent de novo synthesis. Sufficient oxygen should be present in the hot gases and oxygen injection can be used to ensure complete combustion. PCDD/F are easily adsorbed onto solid matter and may be collected by all environmental media such as dust, scrubber solids and filter dust.

Possible methods for reducing the emissions of PCDD/F are given below.

- Active carbon technique: activated carbon added to calcium hydrate (or lime, sodium bicarbonate, etc.) has proven to be an effective adsorbent in secondary aluminium melting plants using feedstock that contains metal with organic contamination. Activated carbon is also used in a primary copper smelter where a number of other metals are also recovered, the fine-grained activated carbon binds the PCDD/F and is removed in fabric filters or ESPs. The quantity and composition of the additive depend to a large extent on the process conditions and the origin and composition of the input materials. To reduce the need for an adsorbent, it may be useful to return all or some of the filter dust to the process. Moreover, the adsorbent required must be adapted to the emission behaviour of the plant. With respect to sorbent consumption, optimised solutions must be individually tested in relation to the smelting technology employed in each case.
- Combustion conditions: improvements to the combustion conditions can include the use of enriched air or pure oxygen, enhanced or improved mixing of oxygen with combustibles, and raising of the combustion temperature or residence time at high temperatures.
- Thermal post-combustion or afterburner: incinerating the off-gas followed by a rapid quench of the hot gas also minimises PCDD/F formation. Catalytic oxidation systems are also available for the destruction of PCDD/F.
- Reduction of the organic contents: removing the organic contaminants (e.g. machining oil, coatings) of the feed is also a measure to reduce PCDD/F formation.
- Oxygen injection in the upper zone of a furnace: the process concerned has no room to allow an afterburner to be fitted. There are some restrictions on the degree of gas mixing achieved but the overall performance is acceptable.

Modification to furnace charging systems: modifications have been made to give small, even additions of raw materials in semi-closed furnaces. This reduces furnace cooling during charging, maintains higher gas temperatures, optimises the process and prevents the reformation of PCDD/F [233, COM 2008]

- High-efficiency dust filtration to remove the dust and PCDD/F: PCDD/F may be absorbed onto dust and can be removed using high-efficiency dust filtration. It has been reported that fabric filters that incorporate a catalytic layer are available.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of PCDD/F and CO emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use (needed to produce oxygen).
- The collected dusts may have high PCDD/F concentrations and may need to be disposed of or treated carefully by returning dusts to the furnace.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Economics

No data have been reported for all processes but the technique used in France for secondary aluminium reports the following costs:

- Total investment costs were around EUR 485 000 for both oxy-fuel burners and the lignite coke injection. The cost of coke injection alone was EUR 183 000.
- Measurement and control operational costs were EUR 36 400.
- There were also cost savings that amounted to EUR 23 per tonne, which represents EUR 300 000/year. Consequently, the payback time is less than two years.

Driving force for implementation

Compliance with environmental permits.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [256, Winter 2007], [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007], [276, Schmitt G. 2008], [178, UBA (A) 1998].

2.12.5.4 Techniques to reduce sulphur dioxide emissions

The following sections describe the techniques to consider in the determination of BAT for the removal of sulphur dioxide from non-ferrous metal smelter exhaust gas, in addition to those reported in the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007].

2.12.5.4.1 Double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plants operating under varying gas conditions**Description**

In this process, the sulphur dioxide in the gas is converted to sulphur trioxide in a contact process when the gases are passed through a vanadium pentoxide catalyst bed. Sometimes the catalyst is doped with caesium oxide, which improves performance, particularly when the SO₂ concentration is low and variable or when the temperature is low. Single and double contact/double absorption plants are used, the latter being the more commonly applied.

Technical description

The double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plant comprises a gas cleaning and washing section, and a contact plant with four passes. It uses a modern catalyst promoted by caesium oxide.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of SO₂ emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Data from some sulphuric acid plants operating under varying gas conditions are shown in Table 2.16. A high conversion rate for sulphur dioxide is achieved, resulting in reduced emissions (see Table 2.17). Conversion rates between 99.7 % and 99.85 % are achieved by a recently upgraded installation over a long averaging period.

[331, Chmielarz A. et al. 2009]

Table 2.16: Sulphuric acid plants operating under varying gas conditions

Sulphuric acid plant data (with additional abatement measures where shown in Process type and plants operating normally)											
Company	SO ₂ source	Line	Capacity (t/d)	Process type	Number of beds	Cs-promoted catalyst	Inlet SO ₂ vol. (%)	Conversion rate (%)	SO ₂ year avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ day avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ max. 1/2 h avg. (mg/m ³)
Atlantic Copper, Huelva	Flash smelter and PS converter	1	2200	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Partial fourth bed	5–11.5	99.7–99.83	500–00	400–800	Up to 1000
		2	600		4	Last bed	5.5–8.5	99.7	500–700	400–800	Up to 1200
		3	1300		5	None	5–10	99.7–99.8	500–800	Up to 900	Up to 1200
KGHM Głogów 1	Hoboken converter	NA	700	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	None	4.5–8	99.8	300–800	NR	800
KGHM Głogów 2	Flash furnace (for Cu), Kaldo furnace (for Ag)	NA	900	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	None	6–8	99.9	300–800	NR	800
Aurubis AG, Hamburg	Flash smelter and PS converter	1	1300	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	First and last bed	5–12	99.7–99.8	500–800	Up to 900	Up to 1200
		2	1300		4	First and last bed	5–12	99.7–99.8			
		3	1300		5	First bed	5–12	99.8			

NB: NA = Not applicable; NR = Not reported.

Operational data are given in Table 2.17. SO_x concentrations vary between 5 % and 12 %.

Table 2.17: Performance data for a sulphuric acid plant operating under variable conditions

Component	Measured values	
Off-gas volume:	320 000	(Nm ³ /h)
SO ₂	100–770	(mg/Nm ³)
SO ₃	20–50	(mg/Nm ³)
NO _x (as NO ₂)	20–45	(mg/Nm ³)
Cl ⁻ (as HCl)	2–7	(mg/Nm ³)
F ⁻ (as HF)	1–4	(mg/Nm ³)
Residual dust	< 2	(mg/Nm ³)
Residual dust range	1–7	(mg/Nm ³)
<u>Component ranges:</u>		
Cd	< 0.01–0.02	(mg/Nm ³)
Hg	< 0.01–0.07	(mg/Nm ³)
Tl	< 0.01–0.02	(mg/Nm ³)
As	< 0.01–0.1	(mg/Nm ³)
Se	< 0.01–0.02	(mg/Nm ³)
Sb	< 0.01–0.03	(mg/Nm ³)
Pb	< 0.01–0.15	(mg/Nm ³)
Cu	< 0.01–0.09	(mg/Nm ³)
PCDD/PCDF	0.001–0.01	(ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)
<i>Source:</i> [238, ECI 2012], [228, COM 2007] [233, COM 2008], [231, COM 2007]		

For existing plants with variable SO₂ inlet concentrations, > 99.7 % conversion is achieved. The techniques to upgrade existing sulphuric acid plants that were reported in the LVIC-AAF BREF [339, COM 2007] have been examined and new data have been supplied by Lurgi (Outotec) [344, Outotec 2010] They report that the addition of a fifth bed achieves a similar improvement to conversion as the change to a caesium-promoted catalyst in the final bed of a four-pass plant.

In the washing section 12–15 m³/h of weak acid (5 % H₂SO₄) is produced and it is usually sent for neutralisation, but in some circumstances it could be used for thermal decomposition of the acid bleed.

Cross-media effects

The production of solid wastes and a weak acid that require treatment and/or disposal.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

These techniques are applicable to most existing installations.

Economics

The cost in 2002 for a zinc concentrate roaster (550 t/d of zinc concentrate), a waste heat boiler and a water treatment plant, a gas-cleaning plant, weak acid treatment and a new double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plant producing 148 000 t/yr of acid was EUR 40 million.

Other costs for changes to existing plants in the copper sector are given in Table 2.18.

Table 2.18: Costs for changes to existing sulphuric acid plants

Year	Technique	Estimated costs	Source
2009	Addition of 5th bed (2+2 to 3+2) to an existing plant with a capacity of 120 000 m ³ /h and an 11 % SO ₂ inlet concentration with a blower capacity increase	EUR 10 million	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)
2009	Change of catalyst in the 4th bed to incorporate caesium-promoted catalyst to two existing plants with capacities of 120 000 m ³ /h and an 11 % SO ₂ inlet concentration – excluding costs for changing the heat exchanger	EUR 800 000	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)
2009	H ₂ O ₂ scrubber for an acid plant producing 1 000 000 t/yr of acid	EUR 30 million	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)

Driving force for implementation

- The production of sulphuric acid for sale.
- Required environmental performance.

Example plants

Hamburg (DE), Głogów (PL), and Huelva (ES).

Reference literature

[121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999], [331, Chmielarz A. et al. 2009], [253, Eurometaux 2008]

2.12.5.4.2 Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metal production

Description

See below.

Technical description

A double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plant is used to treat the off-gas from an Outotec flash smelting and flash converting furnace with an inlet concentration of 30–40 % SO₂. The plant has four passes, and intermediate absorption after the third pass. A modern catalyst is used. There is a heat recovery system, to recover heat in the form of steam, after the first pass.

Other installations in Sweden and the Netherlands use a five-pass acid plant. A significant reduction in the concentration of SO₂ is achieved (60–150 mg/Nm³ SO₂ in the tail gas, as an yearly average) without the use of tail gas scrubbing. The installations report that they are operating with a throughput that is below their designed capacity; the plant in the Netherlands reported emissions of 30–80 mg/Nm³ as an yearly average with an inlet gas concentration of 7 % SO₂. Other changes, such as optimising the sequence of gas flow through the passes and using a caesium catalyst in the first and final passes, optimise the performance [227, IZA Report 2008], [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008], [228, COM 2007], [233, COM 2008].

Some of the plants are reported to be operating below the designed capacity.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of SO₂ emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Data from some upgraded sulphuric acid plants associated with non-ferrous metal production are shown in Table 2.19.

Table 2.19: Upgraded sulphuric acid plants with lower SO₂ inlet concentration variations associated with non-ferrous metal production

Sulphuric acid plant data (with additional abatement measures where shown in Process type and plants operating normally)										
Company	SO ₂ source	Capacity (t/d)	Process type	Number of beds	Cs-promoted catalyst	Inlet SO ₂ vol. (%)	Conversion rate (%)	SO ₂ year avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ day avg. (mg/m ³)	SO ₂ max. 1/2 h avg. (mg/m ³)
Boliden Rönnskär	Roaster, smelter, flash smelter, PS converter	2000	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Last bed	7–10.5	99.97	100–160	NR	NR
Umicore Hoboken	ISASME LT	360	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed	Min. < 1 Max. 7–10	> 99.7	80	140–180	Up to 300
KCM Plovdiv	Zn roaster	440	Double contact/ Double absorption	4	Last bed	6–7.5	99.8–99.85	140–280	NR	Up to 360
Nyrstar Budel	Fluidised bed roaster (zinc conc.)	1000	Double contact/ Double absorption	5	Yes	5–7.2 (low variation inlet conc.)	≤ 99.97	50–80	NR	NR

NB: NR = Not reported.

The maximum conversion of sulphur dioxide gives emissions in the range of 60 mg/Nm³ to 150 mg/Nm³ SO₂ in tail gas, as an yearly average.

For dilution to 14 % SO₂ at the drying tower inlet, and an yearly average flow of 171 300 Nm³/h, over 99.9 % conversion is achieved in modern installations. These plants rely on high, constant sulphur dioxide feeds and use caesium-doped catalyst.

In the Dutch plant, the low iron concentrate allows the calciner to be operated under steady-state conditions and this, combined with a very low variation in the sulphur content, allows an even concentration of SO₂ to be produced. This constant gas content assists the operation of the associated sulphuric acid plant at a high conversion efficiency. The plant is reported to be operating below the designed capacity.

In the Swedish plant, liquid SO₂ is also produced and this allows an even gas content to be maintained. The plant is also reported to be operating below the designed capacity.

Cross-media effects

There is a production of solid wastes and weak acid that require treatment and disposal.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

These techniques are applicable to new or modernised installations with a low variation in inlet gas concentration.

Economics

No information provided but the plants are known to be operating viably.

Driving force for implementation

- The production of sulphuric acid for sale.
- Required environmental performance.

Example plants

Budel (NL), Rönnskär (SE), Hoboken (BE), and Plovdiv (BG).

Reference literature

[137, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999], [274, COM 2008], [253, Eurometaux 2008]

2.12.5.4.3 Production of liquid sulphur dioxide from off-gases with a high SO₂ content

Description

Sulphur dioxide is absorbed in cold water (e.g. cold seawater) followed by vacuum stripping and recovery as liquid sulphur dioxide.

Technical description

These processes are used in conjunction with a sulphuric acid plant to recover sulphur dioxide that is not dissolved. The potential for the production of liquid sulphur dioxide depends on the existence of a local market. The process to produce liquid sulphur dioxide is shown in Figure 2.30. Liquid sulphur dioxide is also produced in a cryogenic process.

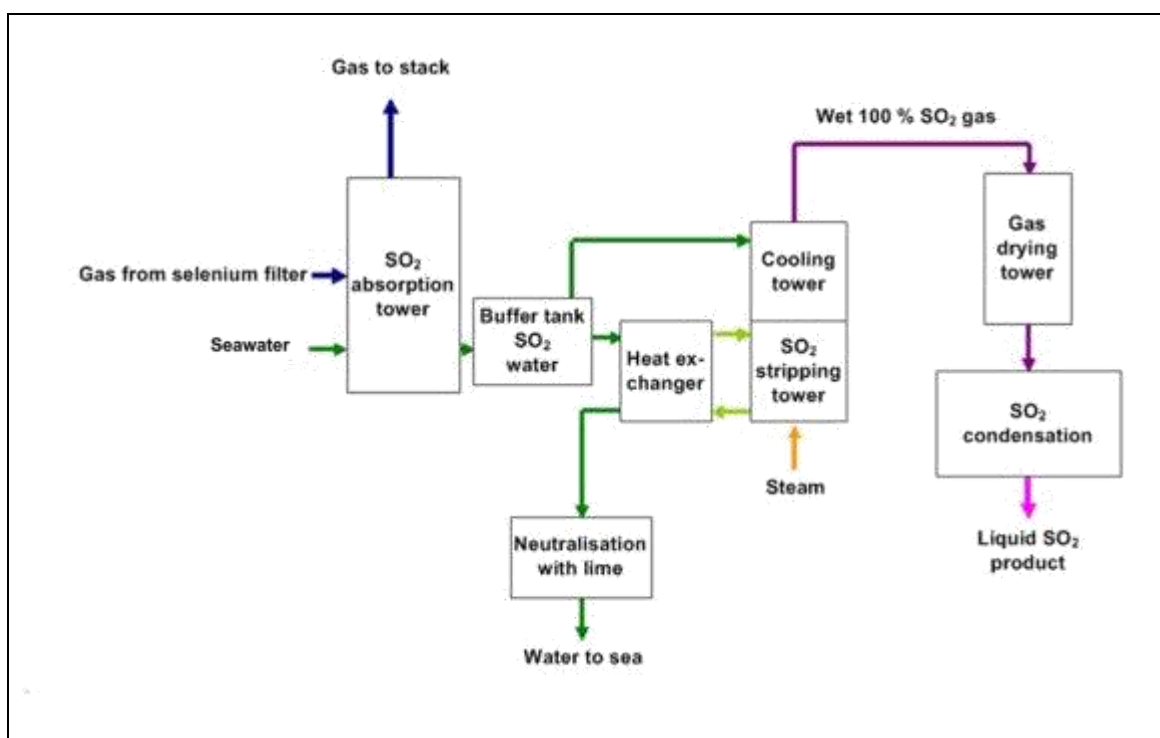


Figure 2.30: The process to produce liquid sulphur dioxide

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of SO₂ emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Provision of a supply of sulphur dioxide that can be used to maintain an even inlet concentration to a sulphuric acid plant. The yearly average emissions of sulphur dioxide are shown in Table 2.20.

Table 2.20: The yearly average emissions of sulphur dioxide from Boliden

Year	Tail gas concentration (mg/Nm ³)
2006	213
2007	155
2008	153
2009	124

Source: [233, COM 2008]

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Applicable to installations where there is a local market for liquid sulphur dioxide.

Economics

One plant is known to be operating viably.

Driving force for implementation

The production of sulphur dioxide for sale.

Example plants

Boliden (SE)

Reference literature

[233, COM 2008]

2.12.5.4.4 Use of flue-gas desulphurisation for off-gases with a low SO₂ content

Description

Dry and semi-dry scrubbers (see Section 2.12.5.2.3) used to remove SO₂ are known as flue-gas desulphurisation (FGD) techniques.

Technical description

One of the most commonly applied FGD techniques is lime injection (several examples are given in the metal-specific chapters, e.g. see Section 3.3.3.9).

In some cases (e.g. Waelz furnace installation or an ISF when using Waelz oxide), the use of another FGD system composed of a scrubber, absorber and a system to contact the gases with the circulating suspension of limestone was also reported. The scrubber operates in a co-current phase for cooling, moistening and partial desulphurisation of the gases. This is followed by a countercurrent absorption column to reduce the final SO₂ concentration to below the required level.

Gases containing sulphur dioxide are treated in a FGD unit that uses a slurry of milled calcium carbonate (limestone, < 40 microns) as a SO₂ sorbent to produce clean gypsum. Gases are cooled down, dedusted in a fabric filter and the gases are passed to the desulphurisation system. After desulphurisation, the gases are sent to a two-stage drift eliminator and then to the stack. Gypsum is recovered from the slurry produced by the FGD and is sold.

In this case, the circulating suspension of limestone is pumped from separate tanks equipped with mechanical stirrers; the scrubber tank also has an aeration system. The tanks are sized to allow complete reaction of the absorbed SO₂ with the CaCO₃ suspension, oxidation of sulphur compounds to sulphates, and the formation of a coarse crystalline residue of synthetic gypsum, CaSO₄·2H₂O. Compressed air is delivered to the scrubber tank through a pneumo-hydraulic aerator to improve the oxidation of sulphites to sulphates. The reaction slimes from the first absorption stage, containing mainly calcium sulphate (gypsum), are sent to a filtration system. The gypsum, after dehydration in a filtration press, is unloaded directly into a storage container located under the press, from where it is transported to a warehouse, and then sold.

Other scrubbing processes for gases with a low SO₂ content are described in Sections 2.12.5.2.2 and 2.12.5.2.3.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of SO₂ emissions. SO₂ removal efficiencies range from 50 % to 95 %. Removal rates at the higher end of this range are only possible in ideal conditions in newly designed, dedicated installations.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data are given in the metal-specific chapters.

For the FGD system reportedly used in a Waelz furnace installation and in an ISF when using Waelz oxide, a final SO₂ concentration range of 100–500 mg/Nm³ is achieved with an FGD input containing 2–6 g of SO₂/Nm³. A final SO₂ concentration of 50–400 mg/Nm³ is reported as the best performance, [331, Chmielarz A. et al. 2009], [346, Eurometaux 2010].

Cross-media effects

- Additional use of energy and calcium carbonate.
- If the sale of clean gypsum is not possible then waste will be produced.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Applicable to new plants. When using existing gas-cleaning equipment with a fabric filter that is designed to remove process dust, it can be used to capture gypsum if the filter capacity allows for this. When a filter is already used, direct injection is possible when temperature, moisture content and contact time are sufficient. An existing filter installation might be insufficient, as the amount of dust increases drastically and thus it might need to be replaced.

The FGD system reported to be used in a Waelz furnace installation and in an ISF when using Waelz oxide is applicable to all processes that have a FGD input that contains 2–15 g SO₂/Nm³ (approximately 0.05–0.5 %) provided that there is a market for the gypsum that is produced.

Economics

Lime injection plants' investment costs are reported in the metal-specific chapters.

For the FGD system reportedly used in a Waelz furnace installation and in an ISF when using Waelz oxide, with a capacity of 85 000 Nm³/h and an average inlet SO₂ content of 15 g/Nm³, the capital cost in 2008 was PLN 14 million which is equivalent to EUR 4 million. The operating cost is approximately EUR 2100 per day.

Driving forces for implementation

Reduction of SO₂ emissions.

Example plants

- Lime injection: Hoboken (BE), Beerse (BE), Hamburg (DE), and Bergsöe (SE).
- Other FGD techniques: Miasteczko Śląskie and Bolesław (PL).

Reference literature

[331, Chmielarz A. et al. 2009], [346, Eurometaux 2010]

2.12.5.4.5 Polyether-based absorption/desorption process for sulphur capture from off-gases with a low SO₂ content (< 1 %)

Description

See below.

Technical description

The combination of a power station, a single contact sulphuric acid plant and a sulphur dioxide recovery process are used to minimise emissions to air of SO₂ from both the fuel and the metal concentrate and to recover energy in the form of heat and carbon monoxide.

Achieved environmental benefits

- The recovery of heat and CO.
- Reduction of SO₂ emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Blast furnace exhaust gases from a copper smelter have a relatively high concentration of carbon monoxide (around 10 %) and also contain heat from the process. The exhaust gases are therefore a valuable energy source but also contain SO₂. The gases are transferred to local power plants as additional fuel and to recover the heat content. Flue-gases emitted from the power plant therefore contain SO₂ from both the blast furnace and the fuel, and are treated further in a polyether-based absorption/desorption plant, which uses an absorption/desorption process to produce a gas that is rich in SO₂. This gas is converted to sulphuric acid in a single contact plant. This process results in a waste gas that contains less than 200–600 mg/Nm³ of SO₂, and this is emitted to air [238, ECI 2012]

The exhaust gases from the smelter conversion stage have a SO₂ concentration ranging from 5 % to 12 %. These are cleaned and then mixed with the strong gas from the polyether-based

absorption/desorption plant and diluted to 12 % and passed to the sulphuric acid plant. This plant produces sulphuric acid and an off-gas that contains 6–8 g/Nm³ of SO₂ which is then passed to the polyether-based absorption/desorption plant for recovery.

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- The production of weak acid and waste water from the gas-cleaning section that require treatment.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

This technique is applicable to specific types of concentrates that have low sulphur contents. A power plant is required nearby.

Economics

No details provided but reported to be expensive.

Driving force for implementation

Required environmental performance.

Example plants

Legnica (PL).

Reference literature

[238, ECI 2012]

2.12.5.5 Techniques to reduce mercury emissions

Description

Set of techniques to reduce mercury emissions to air.

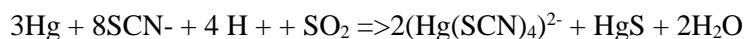
Technical description

Mercury is volatile at the temperatures encountered in most abatement processes, and hence other techniques may be needed to remove it [25, OSPARCOM 1996] [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999].

In the case of mercury removal before a sulphuric acid plant, any residual mercury will be present in the acid that is produced; the product specification is normally < 0.1 ppm to 0.5 ppm and is equivalent to ~ 0.02 mg/Nm³ in the cleaned gas. All processes listed below are reported to achieve this.

- Boliden-Norzink process: this process is based on a wet scrubber using the reaction between mercuric chloride and mercury to form mercurous chloride (calomel), which precipitates from the scrubbing liquid. The process is placed after the washing and cooling step in the acid plant, so the gas is dust- and SO₃-free and the temperature is about 30 °C. The gas is scrubbed in a packed bed tower with a solution of HgCl₂. This reacts with the metallic mercury in the gas and precipitates it as calomel (Hg₂Cl₂). The calomel is removed from the circulating scrubbing solution and partly regenerated by chlorine gas to HgCl₂, which is then recycled back to the washing stage. The mercury product bleed is either used for mercury production or stored. Mercury chloride is a very toxic mercury compound and great care should be taken when operating this process.
- Bolchem process: this process is located in the acid plant, as in the Boliden-Norzink process, but the removal is effected by 99 % sulphuric acid. This acid comes from the absorption part of the acid plant and it oxidises the mercury at ambient temperature. The resulting acid that contains mercury is diluted to 80 % and the mercury is precipitated as sulphide with thiosulphate. After filtering off the mercury sulphide, the acid is returned to the absorption stage. No acid is therefore consumed in the process.

- Outotec process: in this process the mercury is removed before the washing step in the acid plant. The gas, at about 350 °C, is led through a packed bed tower where it is washed countercurrently with 90 % sulphuric acid at about 190 °C. The acid is formed *in situ* from the SO₃ in the gas. The mercury is precipitated as a selenium chloride compound. The mercury sludge is removed from the cooled acid, filtered and washed and sent to the production of metallic mercury. Part of the acid is then recycled to the scrubbing step. In a revision to this process, mercury is removed from the gases by washing with a solution of selenium ions, and selenium metal is produced along with mercury selenide.
- Sodium thiocyanate process: this process is used at a zinc roaster. The SO₂ gas is washed with a solution of sodium thiocyanate and the mercury is removed as a sulphide. Sodium thiocyanate is regenerated, the reaction is shown in the following formula:



- Activated carbon filter (Lurgi process): this is an adsorption filter using activated carbon to remove mercury vapour from the gas stream.

The Boliden-Norzink and Outotec processes detailed above are most commonly used, but other processes have been reported elsewhere [25, OSPARCOM 1996] [330, Petola H. et al. 1985]

- Selenium scrubber: this is also based on a wet scrubber and uses the reaction between amorphous selenium in sulphuric acid and mercury to remove high concentrations of mercury vapour.
- Selenium filter: a dry scrubbing process which uses amorphous selenium to react with mercury vapour to form mercury selenide.
- Lead sulphide process: a dry scrubbing process using lead sulphide nodules to remove mercury from the gas stream.
- Tinfos/Miltec process: a mercury cleaning process, which is based on the oxidation of mercury in the off-gas using sodium hypochlorite. After oxidation in a washing tower, the mercury is precipitated as mercury sulphide (HgS) by the addition of disodium sulphide. The mercury sulphide is removed from the process in a press filter. The sludge that contains mercury is treated as hazardous waste and disposed of in a sealed disposal site. Mercury emissions are reduced by approximately 94 %. [226, Nordic Report 2008]
- Lurgi mercury cleaning process: the Lurgi mercury removal unit consists of an electrostatic precipitator to remove residual dust and tars, a gas heater, a packed bed absorber, a fan-damper system to control the gas flow through the unit, and extensive gas analysis nitrogen purge equipment to maintain low oxygen levels in the gas. The heater is required to warm the gases to the optimum temperature of 60–85 °C; lower gas temperatures result in lower reaction rates and moisture condensation in the packed bed, higher temperatures can result in sulphur being lost from the absorbent. Eramet commissioned a mercury removal unit in 2001 and reports trouble-free operation since then. Gas flow rates through the unit are around 15 000 Nm³/hour. The mercury absorption efficiency is 98 %. After allowing for plant start-ups, etc., 94 % of the total mercury in the raw gases is captured. The absorber mass is changed after about eight months of operation and is disposed securely. Only trace amounts of mercury are reported in the scrubber water [226, Nordic Report 2008]
- Boliden Contech process: selenium-coated spheres are used in a packed bed. The method works but experience is limited to the Scandinavian ferro-alloy industry.
- The Dow process: mercury is adsorbed onto pumice stones coated with lead sulphide.

Two other processes are available to reduce the mercury content in sulphuric acid produced during the production of non-ferrous metals, but their use is based on a need to improve the quality of the acid rather than on environmental effects.

- SuperLig ion exchange process: this process uses ion exchange to remove mercury from the product acid and achieves a concentration of mercury of < 0.5 ppm.

- Potassium iodide addition to the acid: this should be at least 93 % strength, at a temperature of about 0 °C. Mercury iodide, HgI₂, is then precipitated.

If the non-ferrous metal production does not include a sulphuric acid plant, the techniques usually applied to reduce mercury emissions are the selection of raw materials and the injection of activated carbon and/or another adsorbent upstream of a bag filter (described in Section 2.12.5.2.3). The Hg content in the input material as well as the cycles of the operation may result in higher or lower variations in the emission.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of Hg emissions.

Environmental performance and operational data

Mercury removal systems employed prior to a sulphuric acid plant aim to reduce the mercury content in the off-gases in order to ensure the production of good quality sulphuric acid. However, Hg removal systems can also be applied to reduce emissions of mercury before the stack.

The product specification is normally < 0.1 ppm to 0.5 ppm in sulphuric acid and is equivalent to < 0.02 mg/Nm³ in the cleaned gas. The aims are for the reduction of emissions and recovery of mercury, and the production of mercury-free sulphuric acid. In compliance with Regulation (EC) No 1102/2008, metallic mercury gained from non-ferrous mining, smelting operations and extracted from cinnabar ore in the European Union shall be considered as waste as from 15 March 2011.

Table 2.21 shows the mercury removal techniques applied at Boliden's Rönnskär copper, lead and zinc smelter and its performance.

Table 2.21: Performance of the Hg removal techniques applied at Boliden Rönnskär

Technique	Flow (Nm ³ /h)	Load	Before (µg/Nm ³)	After (µg/Nm ³)	Separation efficiency %
Chloride/Boliden-Norzink process	30 000	Maximum	9879	30	99.7
		Minimum	51	13	74
Dowa filter	170 000	Maximum	50	1.4	97
		Minimum	10.5	1.2	88
Selenium filter	80 000	Maximum	1008	48	95
		Minimum	42	12	71
Activated carbon filter	80 000	Maximum	1206	32	97
		Minimum	37.2	2.7	93

Source: [379, Sweden 2013]

Emissions of mercury associated to those non-ferrous metal plants that do not include sulphuric acid production are reported in the metal-specific chapters and range between 0.02 mg/Nm³ and 0.05 mg/Nm³. Figure 2.31 gives an overview of the performance of the techniques applied in order to reduce the mercury emissions to air [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

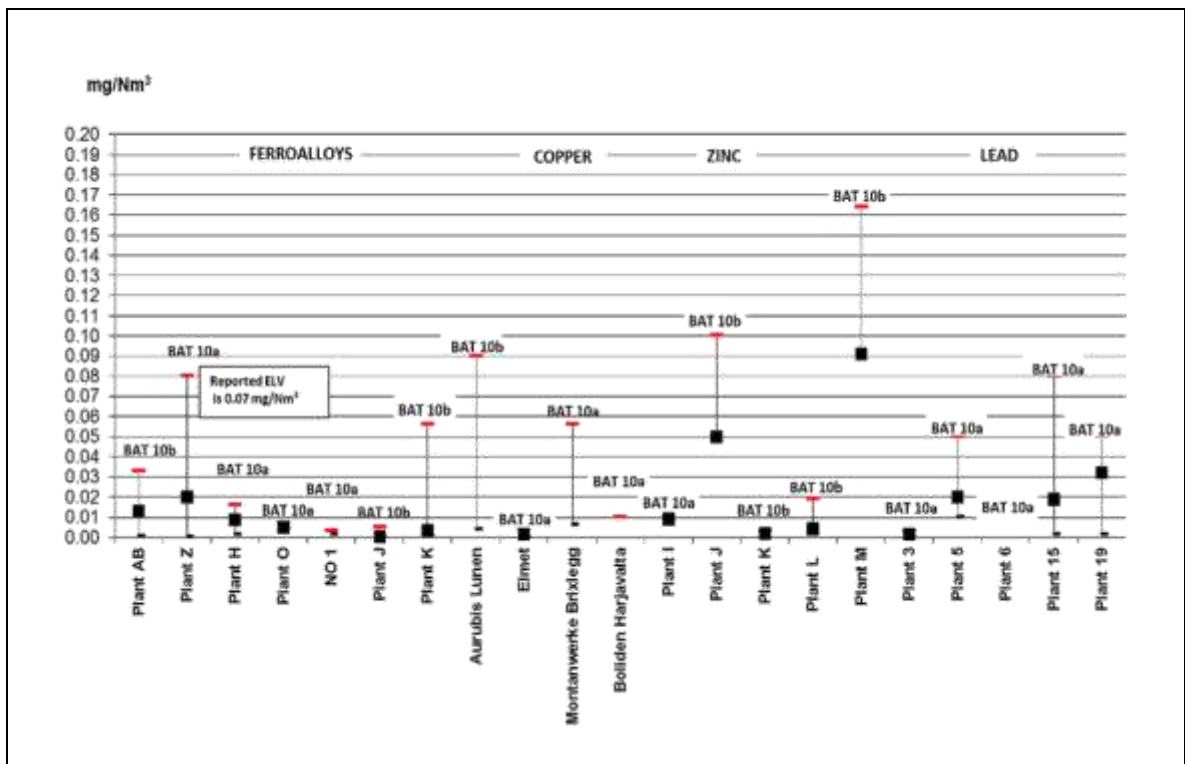


Figure 2.31: Mercury emissions to air from different non-ferrous metals production processes

Cross-media effects

- Increase in energy use.
- A solid or liquid waste is produced that will require disposal.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Applicable to pyrometallurgical processes using raw materials with Hg content.

Economics

The processes are known to be operating economically and costs, where they are available, are reported in Annex 13.3 of this document.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions.

Example plants

Plants in DE, AT, FR, BE and PL.

Reference literature

[226, Nordic Report 2008] [25, OSPARCOM 1996] [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999], [218, VDI 2002] [292, Kojo et al. 2006] [103, COM 1998], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [226, Nordic Report 2008]

2.12.6 Water and waste water management

2.12.6.1 Process-integrated measures

Description

Techniques and methods for the reuse of water are already successfully used in the non-ferrous metal industry to minimise the amount of liquid effluent discharged as waste water. The reduction of waste water is sometimes also economically viable since, as the amount of discharged waste water is reduced, the amount of fresh water that should be taken from the aquatic environment is also reduced. This also has a beneficial effect on the cross-media issues.

Technical description

Table 2.22 and Table 2.23 show the process steps from which the liquid effluents are already extensively recycled and reused.

Table 2.22: Overview of waste water streams and the treatment and minimisation techniques

Source of waste water	Associated process	Minimisation methods	Treatment methods
Process water	Alumina production. Lead-acid battery breaking. Pickling	Return to process as far as possible	Neutralisation and precipitation. Electrolysis
Indirect cooling water	Furnace cooling for most metals. Electrolyte cooling for Zn	Use of sealed cooling system. System monitoring to detect leaks	Use of additives with a lower potential impact on the environment
Direct cooling water	Cu, Al and Pb castings. Carbon electrodes. Ferro-alloys. Chromium metal	Settlement or other treatment. Closed cooling system	Settlement. Precipitation if needed
Slag granulation	Cu, Ni, Pb, precious metals, ferro-alloys	Reuse in a sealed system	Settlement. Precipitation if needed
Electrolysis	Cu, Ni, Zn, Mg	Sealed system. Electrowinning of electrolyte bleed	Neutralisation and precipitation
Hydrometallurgy (blowdown)	Zn, Cd	Sealed system. Blowdown treatment	Settlement. Precipitation if needed
Abatement system (blowdown)	Wet scrubbers. Wet ESPs and scrubbers for acid plants	Blowdown treatment. Reuse of weak acid streams if possible	Settlement. Precipitation if needed
Surface water	All	Cleaning yards and roadways. Good raw materials storage	Settlement. Precipitation if needed. Filtration

Table 2.23: Examples of recycling and reuse

Recycling and/or reuse of effluents in the non-ferrous metals industries						
Source	Production process					
	Primary copper	Secondary copper	Primary lead	Secondary lead	Primary zinc	Ferro-alloys
Slag granulation	■	■	■	NA	■	■
Wet air pollution control	■	■	■	■	■	■
Roasting gas washing effluent	■	NA	■	NA	■	NA
Cooling water	■	■	■	■	■	■
Anode and cathode rinse water	■	■	NA	NA	■	NA
Spent electrolyte	■	■	NA	NA	■	NA
Battery breaking	NA	NA	NA	■	NA	NA
Battery classification	NA	NA	NA	■	NA	NA
Lead paste desulphurisation	NA	NA	NA	■	NA	NA

NB: NA = Not applicable.

Recycling and reuse techniques are process-integrated measures. Recycling involves the recirculation of the liquid to the process where it was generated. Reuse of an effluent means the

recirculation of one source of water for another purpose, e.g. surface run-off water may be reused as cooling water.

Normally a recycling system needs a basic treatment technique, or blowdown of approximately 10 % of the circulating liquid, to prevent a build-up of suspended solids, metals and salts in the recirculation system. For instance, cooling water is normally recycled and flows in a recirculation system, as shown in Figure 2.32 below. The use of biocides should also be taken into account.

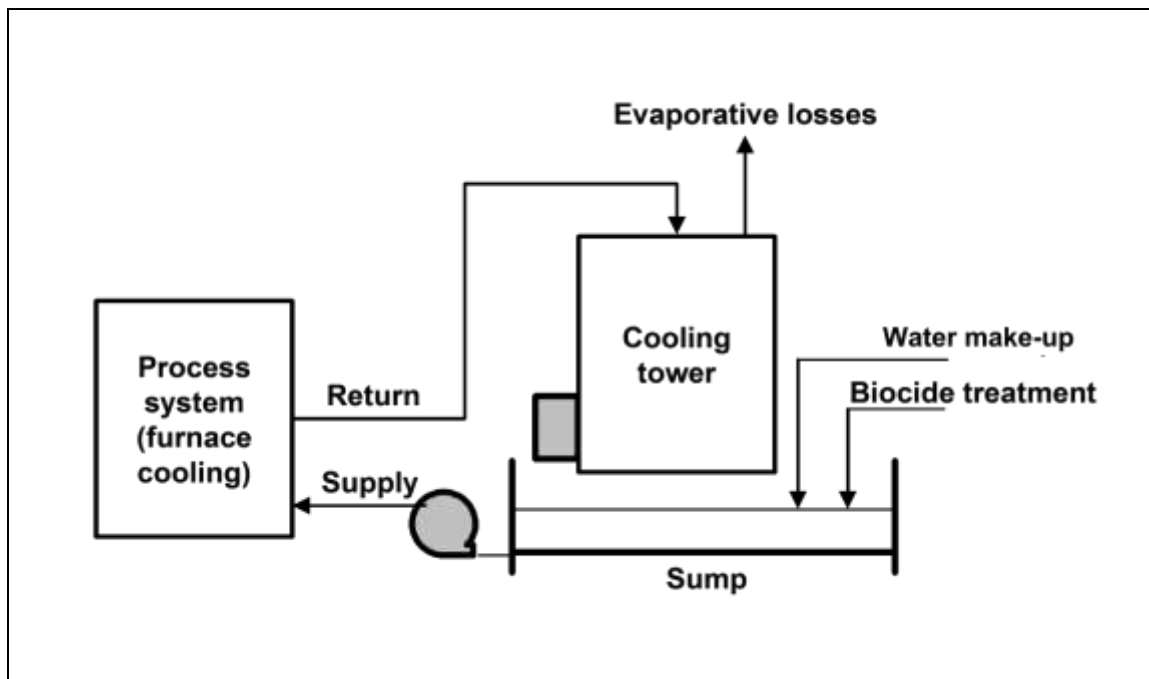


Figure 2.32: Example of a cooling water recirculation system

After treatment, the purified water can also be reused for cooling, sprinkling and certain processes. The salt content of the purified water can pose problems for reuse, e.g. calcium precipitation in heat exchangers. And attention should be paid to the risk of legionella growth in warm water. This can considerably limit the reuse of water.

If large quantities of water are available, for example in a coastal site, a flowing cooling water system can be used, provided the environmental impact is negligible. Nevertheless, effects to the marine environment in the suction area of the flowing cooling water system should be considered. The case for this approach should be made on a site-by-site basis, as the energy costs of pumping and cooling systems should be balanced.

The amount of water discharged is therefore an issue as some installations use extensive water recirculation systems. One copper smelter reported that a daily discharge volume of 3000 m³/d, while similar plants that do not recirculate to the same extent discharge more than 100 000 m³/d. The mass emissions of pollutants are therefore the factor that should be used when assessing the impact of discharges. [238, ECI 2012].

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of the generation of waste water.

Environmental performance and operational data

None reported.

Cross-media effects

- Use of energy.
- Use of additives, e.g. precipitation chemicals or biocides, for cooling water make-up.
- Noise, e.g. arising from cooling towers.
- Transfer of heat from water to air.
- Possible propagation of legionella in closed systems at temperatures between 25 °C and 60 °C.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Water recycling or reuse could be limited by the solution conductivity.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Prevention of the generation of waste water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[238, ECI 2012]

2.12.6.2 Waste water treatment techniques

Any non-recyclable or non-reusable water has to be treated in order to minimise the concentration of pollutants such as metals, acidic substances and solid particles in the final effluents discharged to the aquatic environment. To reduce the concentration of water pollutants, end-of-pipe techniques, e.g. chemical precipitation, sedimentation or flotation and filtration, may be used. These techniques are normally used together in a final or central on-site waste water treatment plant, but opportunities can also be taken to precipitate metals before the process stream is mixed with other effluents.

The most appropriate treatment technique or combination of different treatment methods can only be chosen on a site-by-site basis by taking into account the site-specific factors. The most important factors to decide the best way to minimise the amount of waste water and the concentration of the pollutants are:

- the process that generates the waste water;
- the amount of water;
- the pollutants and their concentrations;
- the possibilities for internal reuse;
- the availability of water resources.

Table 2.24 presents the advantages and disadvantages of the most common treatment techniques.

Since these techniques are widely applied within the sector, general information about these techniques (such as 'Description' and 'Technical description') can be found in this section. Metal-specific information (such as 'Environmental performance and operational data' and 'Example plants') can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Table 2.24: Summary of advantages and disadvantages of common waste water treatment techniques

Treatment technique	Advantages	Disadvantages
Precipitation	<p>Cheap and simple technique Long history of successful use Does not require large expenditure in a new plant Capable of treating a wide range of metal contaminants particularly if two-stage precipitation with hydroxide and then sulphide reagents is used Under the correct conditions, can give excellent removal of metals Specified precipitants are commercially available Allows absorptive precipitation Precipitates can often be returned to the feed</p>	<p>Acid effluents can be difficult to treat Non-selective: gives a high water content sludge that contains a cocktail of toxic and non-toxic metals The sludge may have to be disposed of, sometimes at great cost The presence of other salts, organic complexing agents and solvents can severely compromise the precipitation efficiency Cannot always be used to treat low concentrations of metals Some hydroxides inefficiently precipitated</p>
Sedimentation	<p>Cheap and simple technique Long history of successful use</p>	<p>Can only remove solid particles For particles with a small density difference to water, sedimentation takes a long time and large basins are required</p>
Filtration	<p>Cheap and simple technique Long history of successful use Filtration (e.g. sand filter) is best used for a known solid matter</p>	<p>Can only remove solid particles The filtration efficiency decreases if the particles are very small Filtration efficiency decreases with increased velocity</p>
Flotation	<p>Cheap and simple technique Long history of successful use</p>	<p>Can only remove solid particle complexes that are floatable Air needs first to be dissolved in pressurised water to be dispersed</p>
Ultrafiltration	<p>Simple technique Very fine particles, even molecules, can be removed from the waste water Very fine membranes will also filter solutes as small as metals Virtually zero solids emissions</p>	<p>Limited flow rate and filtration velocity Membranes can quickly decompose in corrosive effluents No separation of metals Old membranes can leak Membranes can be easily fouled</p>
Electrolysis	<p>Can be used to recover and recycle metals Can be used to treat concentrated metal effluents (about 2 g/l) in a single step Technology mostly available Tried and tested with good track record in electroplating industries Can be used to clean up organic contaminants simultaneously Can be used in batch or continuous flow modes</p>	<p>Better than ppm level of clean-up is difficult Ineffective cells are expensive to maintain and operate Electrolysis not selective Needs constant monitoring Poor at treating variable content, high-volume effluents</p>
Electrodialysis	<p>Can be used to recover and recycle metals Can be selective Already used in desalination and electroplating industries Capable of sub-ppm level of clean-up</p>	<p>Suffers from the same disadvantages as ion exchange methods (e.g. membrane fouling) Needs constant monitoring Poor at treating variable content, high-volume effluents</p>

Reverse osmosis	<p>Virtually zero emissions Technology exists and equipment is commercially available Can be used for recycling metals Can be operated in continuous flow or batch mode Can deal with a large range of metal concentrations Can be used to remove organics in effluent Efficacy is not strongly dependent on the concentration of non-corrosive contaminants in effluent</p>	<p>Limited flow rate and filtration velocity Membranes can quickly decompose in corrosive effluents No separation of metals Old membranes can leak Membranes can be easily fouled Membranes need frequent monitoring and replacement Equipment is specialised and expensive Uses high pressure Restriction of a minimum flow rate of approximately 200 l/min Concentrated bleed is produced that needs further treatment</p>
Ion exchange	<p>Relatively inexpensive Commercial products available Tried and tested in industrial applications (e.g. rhenium and selenium removal and recovery) Capable of clean-up to ppb level (selective ion exchange capable of ppt level) Can be easily used in conjunction with other techniques (e.g. precipitation) as part of an integrated waste water treatment Can be selective for metals Can be applied to many flow types: intermittent, continuous, relatively large volume Selective ion exchange has been used in isolated cases, such as the treatment of nuclear industry effluents</p>	<p>Cannot handle large concentrations of metal Matrix easily fouled by solids and some organics Traditional ion exchange is not selective Exhausted exchanger must usually be disposed of as toxic waste Matrices can decompose over time Performance is sensitive to effluent pH Large-volume effluents require very large ion exchange columns Selective ion exchange has not been extensively used on an industrial scale to date Regeneration of selective ion exchange columns is time-consuming Long contact times with effluent may be needed</p>
Activated carbon	<p>Can be used for a wide range of applications (e.g. the removal of mercury or PCDD/F from effluent) Can be added after coagulation and sedimentation as a layer in sand filters Technology exists and equipment is commercially available</p>	<p>Activated carbon is expensive Activated carbon can become a breeding ground for microorganisms High emissions of SO₂ generated from the heating process in manufacturing carbon from coal</p>

2.12.6.2.1 Chemical precipitation

Description

This consists of adding a reagent such as lime, sodium hydroxide or sodium sulphide or a combination of reagents, to adjust the pH value and promote the precipitation of soluble metals.

Technical description

Chemical precipitation is used primarily to remove the soluble metal ions from the liquid effluent. The soluble metals can be precipitated from the waste water by the adjustment of the pH value. A reagent, such as lime, sodium hydroxide or sodium sulphide, or a combination of reagents is added to the effluent and forms an insoluble compound with the metal in the form of a precipitate. These insoluble compounds can then be removed from the water by filtration and sedimentation. The addition of a coagulant or flocculant helps to form larger flocs, which can be separated more easily, and is often used to improve the performance of the system. At least one plant uses a biological process to generate hydrogen sulphide to precipitate the metals as the sulphide.

Precipitation is usually used to remove metals from a waste water stream, such as in the removal of iron, lead, zinc, chromium, manganese, etc. The hydroxides of metals are usually insoluble, so lime is commonly used for precipitating them.

Similarly, metal sulphides are also insoluble and reagents such as sodium sulphide, sodium hydrogen sulphide and trimercapto-sulpho-triazine (TMS) are used in alkaline conditions. H_2S can also be produced biologically using a sulphate-reducing bacteria and the gas is transported to the precipitation stage with a carrier gas. Sulphide precipitation can result in much lower concentrations in the cleaned effluent for certain metals, depending on the pH and temperature, and the metal sulphide produced can be returned to the smelting stage. Metals such as selenium and molybdenum can also be effectively removed.

Zinc sulphate solutions are treated in a biological conversion stage using hydrogen as an electron donor, which is produced by converting natural gas and steam. Zinc sulphide is produced at a rate of 10 tonnes per day and is recycled back to the smelter.

In some cases, the precipitation of a mixture of metals can be carried out in two stages; firstly with hydroxide, followed by a sulphide precipitation. Ferric sulphate can be added after precipitation to remove the excess sulphide.

In order to maximise the efficiency of metal removal, the process should be treated at different pH values with different reactants. The choice of reactant and the pH value are the main considerations for the precipitation of metals. Solubility is also affected by temperature and this should be taken into account.

Another important factor is the valence state of the metal in the water. For example, for chromium, the hexavalent form, chromate, is considerably more soluble than the trivalent form. In this case, chromate must be reduced, usually with SO_2 at a low pH, for the removal of chromium by a precipitation process.

Pentavalent arsenic, As (V), is reduced to As (III) by the reaction with sulphide ions although some As_2S_5 may be formed. The reduction of As (V) is temperature-dependent and rather slow, at least below 50–60°C. Trivalent arsenic, As (III), is precipitated as As_2S_3 with sulphide below pH 4–5. Precipitated As_2S_3 must be separated from the water at pHs below 4–5. If the pH is raised and As_2S_3 is present, there is a risk that the arsenic returns to the solution.

In the non-ferrous metals industry, trace metals can be effectively removed from effluents by the addition of ferric salts. Arsenic is removed as either calcium or ferric arsenate by precipitation. Arsenites can also be precipitated, but they are generally more soluble and less stable than arsenates. Effluent that contains arsenite is generally oxidised prior to precipitation

to ensure that the arsenate predominates. Process water from the processing of arsenic-bearing raw materials may contain varying amounts of As (III) and (V) oxyanions, arsenites and arsenate. The presence of such metal ions as copper, lead, nickel and zinc limit the solubility of arsenic because of the formation of sparingly soluble metal arsenates [295, European Commission 2004]. [295, Gaver C. Jr 2013]

The stability and solubility of these arsenates depends on the ratio of iron to arsenic. The larger the ratio, the more insoluble and stable the precipitate. While ferric arsenate is relatively soluble, the basic arsenates with an iron to arsenic molar ratio of eight or more are an order of magnitude less soluble in the pH range 2 to 8.

The precipitation of insoluble ferric arsenates is accompanied by the co-precipitation of other metals, such as selenium, that involves interactions between the various metals species and the ferric hydroxide precipitate. This makes ferric salts a very effective scavenger for the removal of trace contaminants. Arsenic is precipitated as Fe-As compounds by adding ferric sulphate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$). If the pH is 6 or lower, arsenic can be precipitated completely. It is difficult to precipitate nickel and arsenic at the same time, hence a two-stage treatment is required.

The pH dependency of As precipitation compared to the optimum conditions for the precipitation of other metals (Ni, Cu, etc.) means that different optimum pH values exist and minimum values of each metal are not possible with one process.

The final aspect is the possible formation of complex ions, which are generally more soluble. This is common when dealing with waste water that contains ammonia, chloride, fluoride or cyanides along with the metals.

In many plants where metals are removed, one of the principal problems in reaching the desired effluent limits is the colloidal state of the precipitated materials. This can result from improper neutralisation and flocculation. Various flocculants or coagulants can be used to improve the condition of the precipitated material and suppliers of these materials are able to test the precipitates and specify the correct coagulant.

The efficiency of waste water cleaning using chemical precipitation is mainly influenced by the following factors:

- the choice of chemical precipitant;
- the amount of precipitant added;
- the efficiency of removal of the precipitated metal;
- the maintenance of the correct pH throughout the treatment process;
- the use of iron salts to remove specific metals;
- the use of flocculating or coagulating reagents;
- the variation of waste water composition;
- the presence of complex-forming ions.

To ensure the maximum removal efficiency of metals, the most important factor is the choice of precipitants. Some experiences show that the use of sulphide-based reagents can achieve lower concentrations of some metals. Correct pH throughout the effluent treatment process is also of primary importance, as some of the metal salts are insoluble only over a very short range of pH values. Outside these ranges, the efficiency of metal removal decreases rapidly, for example zinc will form a soluble anion, zincate, at high pH values.

Effluent water composition changes depending on concentrate/raw material quality and the composition of the subsequent off-gases that have been cleaned in wet systems. Additionally, the batch-wise feed of different sources or weather conditions for run-off water increases the variety of effluent waste water. Often, adaptation of process parameters is required for optimised performance.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

The techniques to be applied have to take into consideration the specificity of the production processes. Also, the size and the flow rate of the water body can play a role in the choice of the techniques to be applied. Reducing the volume flow in favour of higher concentrations needs less energy for the treatment. Treating highly concentrated waste waters will result in higher effluent concentrations but with a better reduction rate than lower concentrated flows, giving an improved overall removal of pollutants.

Cross-media effects

- Use of energy.
- Use of additives.
- Production of waste for disposal.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [146, Kemmer 1988], [168, Steil, H.U. et al. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008], [319, Boonstra 2003], [320, Huisman 2004], [321, Weijma 2007], [295, Gaver C. Jr 2013], [238, ECI 2012]

2.12.6.2.2 Treatment of weak acid and process water

Description

Treatment of waste water comprising weak acid from the sulphuric acid plant or various acidic washing waters using lime and iron sulphate.

Technical description

The process outline is shown in Figure 2.33.

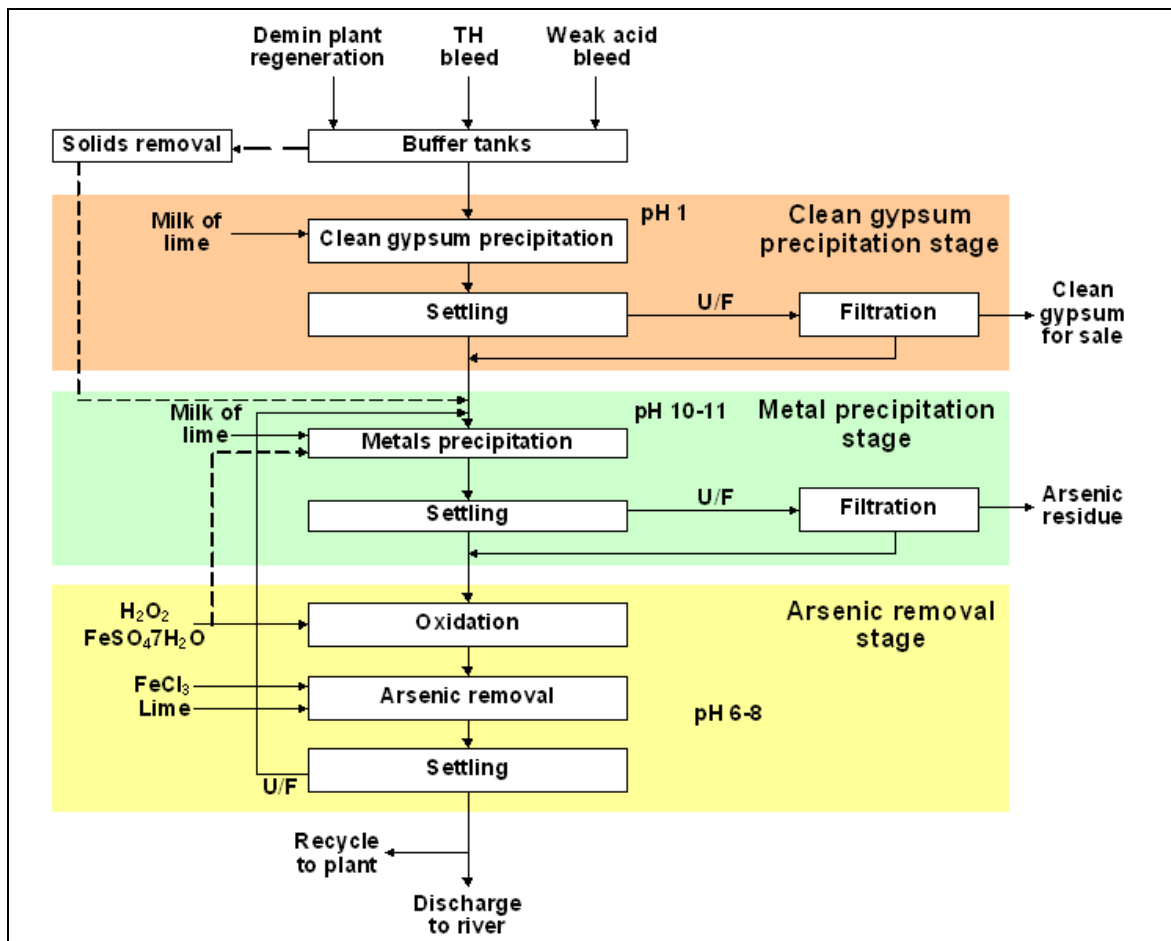


Figure 2.33: Treatment of weak acid

Achieved environmental benefits

- Minimum waste water discharge.
- Reduction in emissions to water and water consumption.
- Production of clean gypsum.

Environmental performance and operational data

The results achieved are given in Table 2.25.

Table 2.25: Performance data for the treatment of weak acid

Parameter	Range	Unit
Inlet conditions		
Flow	35	m ³ /h
Content:		
H ₂ SO ₄	60	g/l
Cu	2100	mg/l
Hg	15	mg/l
As	2200	mg/l
Pb	2600	mg/l
Ni	7	mg/l
Cd	110	mg/l
Suspended solids	200	mg/l
Effluent water ⁽¹⁾		
Flow	31.2	m ³ /h
pH	9.5	
Cu	0.1–0.5	mg/l
Hg	0.05	mg/l
As	0.05–0.2	mg/l
Pb	0.1–0.5	mg/l
Ni	0.1–0.5	mg/l
Cd	0.01–0.2	mg/l
Gypsum sludge		
	6–7	t/h
	40–50	% moisture
	~ 30–35	% CaSO ₄
	~ 1	% As
Amount	~ 1	% Cu
Composition	~ 1–2	% Fe
	~ 0.01	% Hg
	~ 1	% Pb
	~ < 0.1	% Ni
	~ < 0.1	% Cd
⁽¹⁾ Design data taking variations in effluent into account. NB: The metal concentrations are daily averages based on qualified random samples or 24-hour flow-proportional samples. Source: [238, ECI 2012]		

The gypsum that is produced contains > 96 % Ca SO₄·2H₂O.

Cross-media effects

No cross media effects were reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

Equipment costs were EUR 2.5 million, installation costs were EUR 4.5 to 5.2 million.

Electricity: 200 kWh. Lime milk (10 %); 15 m³/h. H₂SO₄ (10 %); 0.8 m³/h. FeSO₄·7H₂O; 80 kg/h.

Driving force for implementation

Effective treatment of weak acid to produce a saleable product.

Example plants

Plants in Spain and Bulgaria.

Reference literature

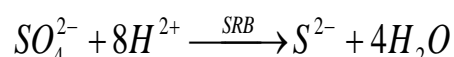
[238, ECI 2012]

2.12.6.2.3 Biological treatment**Description**

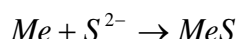
See below.

Technical description

One plant uses a biological process to produce sulphide ions. Weak acid which is the bleed from the wet gas cleaning has a high sulphate concentration (10–25 mg/l). The sulphate is reduced to sulphide ions with hydrogen gas and sulphate-reducing bacteria in a biological waste water treatment plant:



The hydrogen is produced from natural gas and steam in a reformer unit. The zinc and other metals react with S^{2-} and precipitate as a metal sulphide:



Sulphate and metal concentrations after this treatment are still too high to be discharged directly and the water is treated in another step together with other waste water from production and groundwater. This also uses sulphate-reducing bacteria to precipitate metals with sulphide, but in this case ethanol is used as the electron donor instead of hydrogen [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008]

The metal sulphides and biomass slurry is reused as concentrate in the roasting stage.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for this technique is given in Section 6.3.4.

The metal contents of the effluent of such a biological process are similar to those of the cleaned water of the best-performing waste water treatment based on inorganic sulphide addition (NaHS, Na_2S), mainly as the chemistry behind both processes is fundamentally the same (based on the low solubility of metal sulphides). The biological process has a positive effect because the sulphate content of the treated water is reduced.

Cross-media effects

No information provided.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

The technique is applicable to weak acid where there are no other recovery options and for waste waters from the RLE process in admixture with contaminated groundwater.

Economics

Compared to inorganic sulphide addition, there are the significantly higher investment and operational costs, but one plant is known to be operating viably.

Driving force for implementation

Clean-up of historical environmental problems.

Example plants

A plant in the Netherlands.

Reference literature

[319, Boonstra 2003], [320, Huisman 2004], [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008]

2.12.6.2.4 Sedimentation and flotation

Description

Sedimentation is a solid-liquid separation technique that utilises gravity to separate the insoluble metal complexes and solid particles from the liquid effluent.

Flotation techniques are used to separate large flocs or floating particles like plastic parts from the effluent by bringing them to the surface of the suspension.

Technical description

Sedimentation can take place in a variety of different settling vessels like sedimentation basins, lagoons or specialised sedimentation tanks (thickeners, clarifiers) with a sludge removal device at the bottom of the tank. Sedimentation basins, which are commonly used, are rectangular, square or circular. The sludge that is removed from the sedimentation step can be dewatered, e.g. using a vacuum filter press. The filtrate that is generated may be sent back to the beginning of the effluent treatment process or to the process step where it was generated, depending on the treatment process. Sedimentation can be used to separate solid particles from waste water that has been used for the granulation of slag or the production of metal shot.

An alternative to sedimentation may be flotation. Flotation can be achieved by dissolved air flotation. Air is dissolved in the suspending medium under pressure and leaves the solution when the pressure is released as minute air bubbles attached to suspended particles. This causes the particles to float to the surface and the flocs can then easily be removed from the surface of the liquid.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

No information provided.

2.12.6.2.5 Filtration

Description

Filtration is the separation of solids from waste water effluent passing through a permeable medium. Sand is the most commonly used filtering medium.

Technical description

Filtration techniques are normally used for solid-liquid separation and as a final clarification step in a waste water treatment process. The filtration unit is usually located between the sedimentation step and the final control, to remove solids carried over from the previous cleaning step. Filtration can take place in a variety of different filter systems, depending on the solid particles that have to be removed.

The normal filter unit consists of a bed of material or materials through which the liquid effluent flows. The fine particles that cannot pass through the filter medium form a filter cake that should be removed either continuously or from time to time, for example by backwashing, in order to keep the pressure loss low. If the pressure loss is low, it enables the filtration to be fed with the waste water flow via a gravity flow.

Sand filters are designed for the mechanical removal of suspended solids or semi-solid materials, e.g. sediments or metal hydroxides. The purification of waste water using sand filtration is due to the combined effects of filtration, chemical sorption and assimilation. Sand filters are sometimes operated as a pressure vessel filled with layered sand, which increases in grade with depth. Initially the filter cake can lead to an enhancement of the filtration efficiency, particularly for smaller particles. After a period of time, the sand bed should be backwashed. Sand filters are often used for polishing a bleed from a closed water cycle or to allow the effluent to be used as process water. A typical sand filter is shown in Figure 2.34.

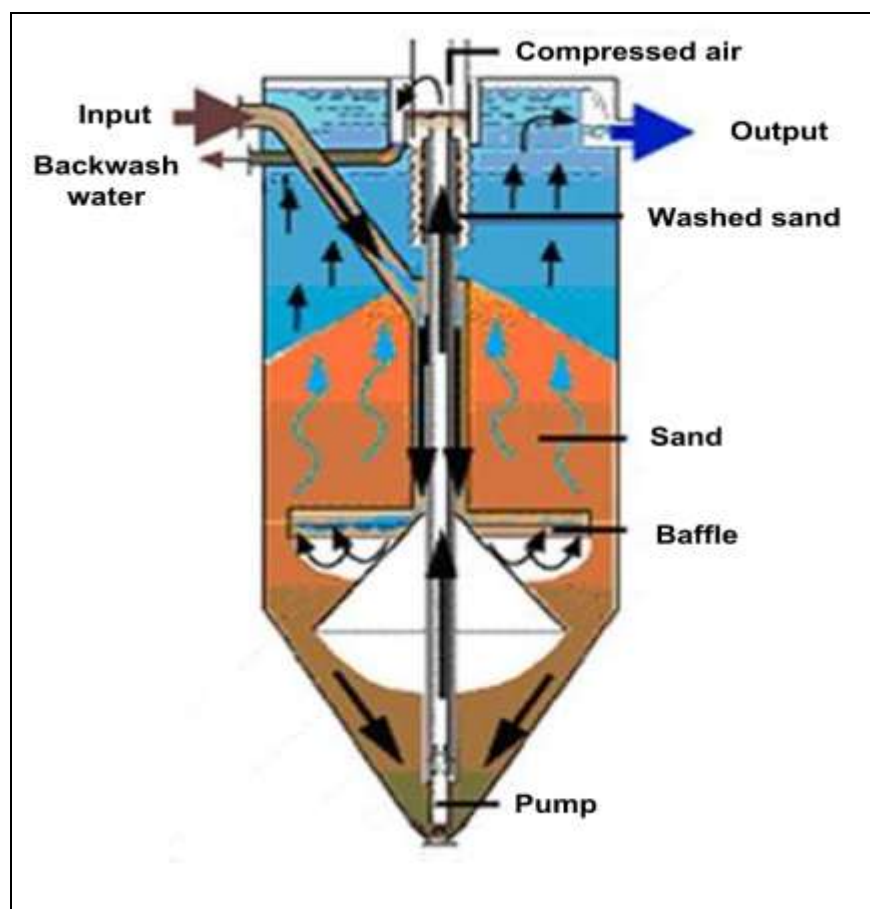


Figure 2.34: Schematic of a sand filter

Hyperfiltration or reverse osmosis is used to obtain the desired result for very fine particles. Hyperfiltration allows the passage of particles with a molecular mass of about 100 u to 500 u, whereas ultrafiltration is used in the range of 500 u up to 100 000 u.

Ultrafiltration is a simple and effective method of waste water treatment but has a high energy requirement. The effluent is placed in contact with an ultrafiltration membrane. This membrane, which contains small pores, allows the passage of molecular particles like water and hinders larger molecular particles. With a very fine membrane it is even possible to filter solutes as small as metal ions. Filtration processes based on membranes produce a clean permeate and a concentrate that may require further treatment.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[374, COM 2001]

2.12.6.2.6 Electrolysis

Description

Passage of a direct electric current through an ionic substance resulting in a chemical reaction at the electrodes. The ionic substance is either molten or dissolved in a suitable solvent.

Technical description

Electrolytic techniques are used to remove metals such as copper, precious metals, chromium, manganese, cadmium, etc. from process water streams. Because the metal concentrations are usually low, electrolysis is most effective for waste streams before they are diluted with other effluents. Special electrodes such as fluidised bed electrodes or three-dimensional electrodes can be used to improve efficiency. The maximum efficiency of the cell is achieved when the current density changes with the solute concentration and the mass transfer takes place close to the limiting current density. In other words, the cathode must always have a fresh supply of ions to reduce.

An alternative, and very successful, use of electrochemical methods for metal clean-up is to oxidise metals in effluents so that they can be recycled. One example is the treatment of effluents that contain chromium(III). The largest use of chromium is as an oxidising agent where chromium is in its (VI) oxidation state. The by-product from the oxidation is

chromium(III), which is normally released with waste. Anodic oxidation of chromium(III) effluent has been used to regenerate chromium(VI), which can be reused.

The difference in the relative position in the electrochemical series or the redox potential of the elements can also be exploited by controlling the current and voltage of an electrolytic cell to recover the more noble metals. These properties can also be exploited by using cementation, where, for example, copper can be precipitated by adding iron.

Another electrochemical treatment method is electrodialysis. The electrodialysis cell consists of two electrodes separated by an ion exchange membrane. The theory is fairly straightforward. Cations under the influence of an electrode potential migrate through a cationic exchange membrane where they are exchanged for less toxic cations (for example exchanging cadmium for sodium). This method aims to combine the advantages of ion exchange with the advantages of electrochemical treatment. [145, Dalrymple, I. 1999], [166, Clark, J.H. 1995].

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[145, Dalrymple, I. 1999], [166, Clark, J.H. 1995].

2.12.6.2.7 Reverse osmosis

Description

A membrane process in which a pressure difference applied between the compartments separated by the membrane causes water to flow from the stronger solution to the weaker.

Technical description

Reverse osmosis is extensively used for the removal of dissolved metals, especially in the electroplating industry. Osmosis is the natural diffusion of a solvent, such as water, caused by a difference in the concentration of two solutions separated by a membrane. The solvent flows in the direction that will reduce the concentration of the stronger solution. In reverse osmosis, a force is applied to reverse the solvent flow. The pressure required must exceed the osmotic pressure. Typical data for the passage of ions across a reverse osmosis membrane are presented in Table 2.26. Reverse osmosis is sometimes used for the recovery of precious metals in the metal plating industry.

Table 2.26: Typical passage of ions across a reverse osmosis membrane

Ions	Passage (%)	Rejection (%)
Ammonium	8	92
Sodium	5	95
Potassium	5	95
Magnesium	3	97
Strontium	3	97
Calcium	2	98
Nitrate	15	85
Bisilicate	10	90
Chloride	5	95
Fluoride	5	95
Bicarbonate	5	95
Sulphate	3	97
Phosphate	1	99
<i>Source: [146, Kemmer 1988]</i>		

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Only applicable to specific streams in NFM production.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[146, Kemmer 1988]

2.12.6.2.8 Ion exchange**Description**

The ion exchange process normally takes place in a column that is packed with beads of ion exchange resin. The exchange starts first at the top of the column and then passes through the column in order to keep the exchange conditions stable.

Technical description

Ion exchange is sometimes used as a final cleaning step in the removal of metals from process waste water. By using an ion exchange, unwanted metal ions can be removed from a waste water stream by transferring them to a solid matrix while giving back an equivalent number of

other ions stored on the ion exchanger skeleton. The ion exchange process is usually used for metal concentrations below 500 mg/l.

Depending on the amount of ions stored on the skeleton, the capacity of the ion exchanger is limited. The ion exchanger should therefore be regenerated with hydrochloric acid or caustic soda. In some cases, such as the removal of selenium and rhenium from the off-gas of a molybdenite roaster, the ion exchangers are replaced periodically so that the metals can be recovered by the plant itself or by specialised plants.

Some specified ion exchangers are able to remove specific metals from the waste water. This selective ion exchange process is much more efficient in removing toxic metals from the effluent. Furthermore, the column is capable of a very high level of clean-up and is also able to operate efficiently with mixed content effluents.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

No reference literature provided.

2.12.6.2.9 Activated carbon**Description**

This is a filtration process in which activated carbon is used as the filtering medium.

Technical description

Activated carbon, a highly porous carbonaceous substance, is usually used to remove organic materials from waste water, but it also has applications in the removal of mercury and precious metals. These filters are normally used in the form of beds or cartridges operated in multiples, so that the breakthrough from one filter is treated by a second one. The spent filter is then replaced and becomes the downstream filter. This operation depends on an adequate method to detect breakthrough from the filters.

Achieved environmental benefits

Reduction of organic materials, mercury and precious metals emissions to water.

Environmental performance and operational data

Performance data for a combination of the techniques listed in Section 2.12.6.2 are given in the metal-specific chapters.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Generally applicable.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of emissions to water.

Example plants

Information can be found in the metal-specific chapters.

Reference literature

[374, COM 2001]

2.12.7 Residues management

Description

Set of techniques to minimise the generation of residues from the metallurgical process.

Technical description

As mentioned in Section 2.9.1, the amount of slag and skimmings/dross that is produced by smelting metals is mainly influenced by the impurities of the raw material, so cleaner materials lead to a reduced generation of these solids. In some cases, this can be ensured by careful selection of the raw material that will be used. For example, some zinc concentrates can contain lower quantities of iron [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], and the processes developed to use these concentrates can minimise the production of iron-based residues. The limited availability and higher costs of these concentrates means that this is not a global solution. For secondary aluminium, the pretreatment of scrap or the use of cleaner materials results in the reduction or elimination of the salt flux used, depending on the furnace used. The economics of pretreatment need to be balanced. Where the separation of impurities is effected by the addition of reagents, controlling the addition of reagents to the level required to achieve efficient and economic removal will minimise the amount of residue that is produced.

On the other hand, inappropriate storage and handling may lead to the wetting of materials. For example, in a remelting process for aluminium, the water is vaporised, with the potential for explosions.

The generation of skimmings/dross can be minimised by optimising operation of the furnace, e.g. decreasing the burn-up by avoidance of overheating of the melt. Modern process control techniques are used to ensure optimised operation conditions.

To avoid oxidising the bath surface of a melt, a closed furnace operation could be used. For example, by melting aluminium under a reducing atmosphere (rinsing the furnace with inert gas), the amount of skimmings/dross that is generated is reduced. Similarly, the use of a pumping system and a side well is another measure which can reduce oxidation.

It has been demonstrated that lead ashes and a large amount of the slag that is generated by the smelting process can be recycled or reused to a large extent.

Spent linings and refractories cannot be completely avoided, but a decrease of the quantity can be achieved by the following measures:

- careful construction of the brick lining of the furnace;
- continuous use of the furnace, and thus minimisation of variations in temperature;
- thermal monitoring to detect temperatures outside the operating range;
- cooling blocks to remove heat from the linings;
- short impact time of the fluxing agents;
- avoidance of aggressive fluxing agents;
- careful cleaning of furnaces and crucibles;
- reduction of furnace agitation (rotation);
- choice of the most suitable refractories for the process;
- control of heating/cooling rates where beneficial.

Under certain conditions, depending on the composition of the spent linings and refractories, reuse is possible.

Refractories can be reused in primary and secondary copper smelting after grinding to produce a castable or tapping mass or as a flux to adjust slag composition. Alternatively, the metal content can be separated from the material by milling and grinding and the spent linings and refractories can be reused for construction purposes or to produce refractory linings or refractory cement. The metal content can be recycled to the smelter or supplied to other non-ferrous metal facilities.

In a secondary copper plant, bricks from the shaft furnace, converter and anode furnace can be completely recycled. Converter brick contains up to 1.5 % copper, and the shaft furnace brick contains up to 4 % copper. Bricks are milled and the copper is recovered; the remaining material is used to make refractory cement and refractory linings for the casting wheel. White bricks are reused in the anode furnace and as cement in the shaft furnace and black bricks are used for ladle insulation. Furnace linings are crushed, copper is removed and returned for processing and the refractory parts are reformulated to make moulds for the anode casting wheel [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007].

Controlling the quality of slag to allow further use is also an important technique to consider. Several slags are relatively inert and can be used as construction materials to replace aggregates, and as abrasives. Good quality control of the material is needed to ensure that it is acceptable for use in construction or elsewhere, and leaching tests are available to demonstrate acceptability, [289, USEPA 2008], [268, Belgium 2008] The Landfill Directive specifies CEN standard leaching tests for granular waste: EN 14405 and EN12457/1-4.

Achieved environmental benefits

- Reduction of the waste sent for disposal.
- Replacement of virgin material with inert slags, to reduce residues or produce refractory cement, etc. and the reuse of material.

Environmental performance and operational data

Several techniques exist to reduce the amount of residues formed in the production processes. Important techniques are to reduce the amount of slag, to recover metals in the slag and to reduce the amount of metals in the residue slag. For example, a ferro-chrome works in Finland has managed to reduce the amount of residue from a ferro-chrome slag extraction process. A machine working with a spiral screw is used to separate chromium from processed fine slag. Chromium is heavier than slag, so it concentrates in the centre of the spiral. The recovered chromium can be reused in the melting shop and the slag is used as a material for new filler products. Filler products are used, for example, in cement and asphalt. This technique has reduced the amount of residue going to disposal by about 10 000 tonnes.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

These techniques are applicable to the use of materials that are suitable for the duty envisaged. Spent refractories can be made into lower grade refractory cement or ladle linings and metallurgical slags can be used for construction, provided that they meet leachability standards.

Economics

No information provided.

Driving force for implementation

The costs of disposal.

Example plants

Plants in AT, BE and DE.

Reference literature

[233, COM 2008] [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007]

2.12.8 Noise and vibration

Noise and vibration are common issues in the sector and the sources are encountered in all sections of the industry. Process noise emitted from an installation into the surrounding environment is a factor that has caused many complaints in the past and some information about causes and approaches to prevent and minimise noise and vibration has been received. The effect of noise on operators within an installation is not within the scope of this document.

The most significant sources of noise and vibration are transport and handling of raw materials and products; production processes involving pyrometallurgy, grinding and milling operations; the use of pumps and fans; the venting of steam; and the existence of unattended alarm systems. Noise and vibration can be measured in a number of ways but generally the detail is site-specific and takes account of the frequency of the sound and the location of population centres.

New plants can be specified with low noise and vibration levels. Good maintenance can prevent equipment such as fans and pumps from becoming unbalanced. The interconnections between equipment can be designed to prevent or minimise the transmission of noise. Common noise abatement techniques are:

- the use of embankments to screen the source of noise;
- the enclosure of noisy plants or components in sound-absorbing structures;
- the use of anti-vibration supports and interconnections for equipment;
- careful orientation of noise-emitting machinery;
- changing the frequency of the sound.

2.12.9 Odour

There are several potential sources of odour in the non-ferrous metals industries. The most significant are metal fumes, organic oils and solvents, sulphides from slag cooling and waste water treatment, chemical reagents used in hydrometallurgical and effluent treatment processes (e.g. ammonia) and acid gases. Odours can be prevented by careful design, choice of reagents and by correct material handling. For example, the generation of ammonia from aluminium skimmings/dross can be prevented by keeping the material dry.

The abatement techniques described earlier in this chapter will all contribute to the prevention or elimination of odours. The general principles of good housekeeping and good maintenance practice also play a major role in prevention and control.

The basic hierarchy of the principles of odour control are:

- to prevent or minimise the use of malodorous materials;
- to contain and extract odorous materials and gases before they are dispersed and diluted;
- to treat them, possibly by afterburning or filtration (see also Sections 2.12.2.2 and 2.12.5.1).

The use of biological media, such as peat or similar material, that act as a substrate for suitable biological species has been successful in removing odours [156, VDI 2008]. The removal of odours can be a very complex and expensive process if strongly odorous materials are diluted. The treatment of very large gas volumes with low concentrations of odorous materials requires a major process plant.

A biofilter is shown in Figure 2.35.

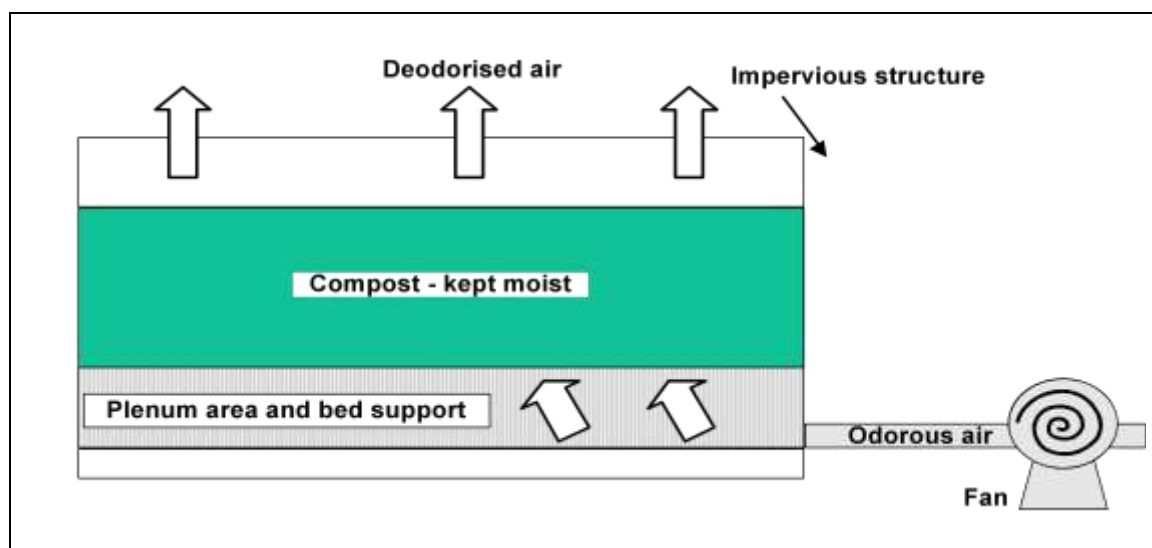


Figure 2.35: Arrangement of a simple biofilter

2.12.10 Decommissioning

Description

See below.

Technical description

This requires assessment of the initial state of a site, before building a new plant, to plan for the end-of-life decommissioning.

This also includes the prevention of chronic risks during the whole life of the plant, to prevent soil pollution, e.g. by developing plans that:

- identify areas that can contribute to diffuse emissions so that action can be taken to prevent windblown dust causing environmental damage or impacts on health in the surrounding areas;
- take action to prevent further contamination of groundwater;
- establish a spill management programme and other soil protection measures;
- extend the containment of other sources that have been identified;

- use an environmental monitoring programme, especially relative to groundwater, during the whole life of the plant, in order to detect would-be impacts outside the plant, in its neighbourhood.

Achieved environmental benefits

Prevention of environmental issues during decommissioning and also of soil pollution.

Environmental performance and operational data

- Considering decommissioning at the design stage minimises risks and excessive costs during later decommissioning.
- For existing installations where potential problems have been identified, a programme of improvements is put in place. These improvement designs need to ensure that:
 - o underground tanks and pipework are avoided where possible (unless protected by secondary containment or a suitable monitoring programme);
 - o there is a provision for the draining and cleaning out of vessels and pipework prior to dismantling;
 - o lagoons and disposal sites are designed with a view to their eventual clean-up or surrender;
 - o insulation is used which can be readily dismantled without dust or hazards arising;
 - o any materials used are recyclable (although bearing in mind that they still need to meet operational or other environmental objectives).
- A site closure plan is developed to demonstrate that, in its current state, the installation can be decommissioned avoiding any pollution risk and to return the site of operation to a satisfactory state. The plan should be kept updated as material changes occur. However, even at an early stage, the closure plan can include:
 - o either the removal or the flushing out of pipelines and vessels where appropriate, and the complete emptying of any potentially harmful contents;
 - o plans of all underground pipes and vessels;
 - o the method and resources necessary for the clearing of lagoons;
 - o the method for ensuring that any on-site landfills can meet the equivalent of surrender conditions;
 - o the removal of asbestos or other potentially harmful materials, unless agreed that it is reasonable to leave such liabilities to future owners;
 - o methods for dismantling buildings and other structures, for the protection of surface water and groundwater at construction and demolition sites;
 - o testing of the soil to ascertain the degree of any pollution caused by the activities and the need for any remediation to return the site to a satisfactory state, as defined by the initial site report.

Cross-media effects

None reported.

Technical considerations relevant to applicability

Techniques mentioned here are applicable throughout the installation's operational lifetime, during the design and building stage of the site, and immediately after the site closure.

Economics

N but it is possible to minimise excessive costs during later decommissioning.

Driving force for implementation

Reduction of future costs and liabilities.

Example plants

No information provided.

Reference literature

[237, UBA (A) 2004], [245, France 2008], [288, UK 2002]

2.13 Emerging techniques

Emerging techniques are reported here only for the common processes described above in Chapter 2. Emerging techniques for other processes are reported in the subsequent chapters.

2.13.1 The LUREC and BAYQIK processes

The following emerging techniques have been identified for the conversion of gases with a high SO₂ content into sulphuric acid.

Description

- LUREC[®] process
- BAYQIK[®] process

Technical description

The addition of an extra pass that is external to an existing contact plant can be used to uprate an existing sulphuric acid plant to use higher inlet concentrations of sulphur dioxide.

The LUREC[®] process uses an additional contact chamber with one or two beds, depending on the inlet gas concentration. This acts as a pre-converter, and a heat exchanger and a pre-absorption stage can then be used before the existing plant. Inlet sulphur dioxide concentrations between 15 % and 25 % have been tested.

The BAYQIK[®] process uses a series of concentric tubes where the catalyst and support are contained in the inner tube, and the outer ring acts as the heat exchanger. The process is shown in Figure 2.36.

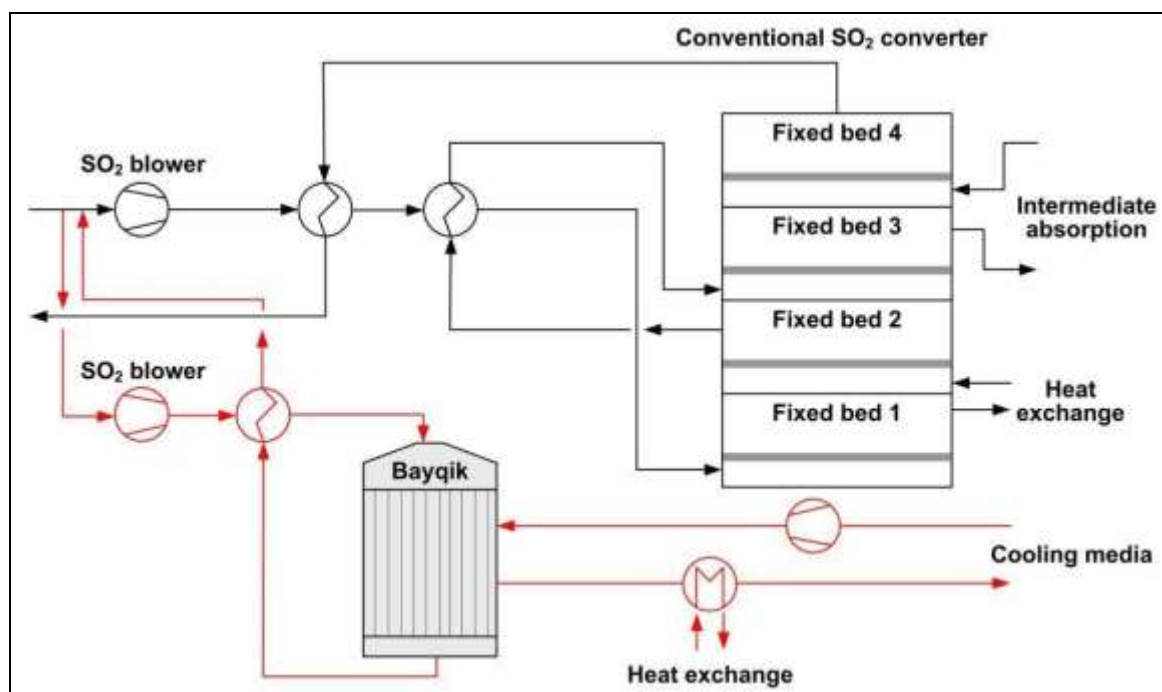


Figure 2.36: The BAYQIK process

Achieved environmental benefits

- Reduction of SO₂ emissions.
- Increase of the overall efficiency of an existing sulphuric acid plant, and higher inlet gas concentrations can be used to keep the overall gas flow low.

Cross-media effects

None reported for the additional process.

Operational data

The LUREC[®] process has been in operation since the summer of 2007 at a Chinese smelter, Yanggu Xiangguang Copper, Shandong Province, China (nominal capacity 2340 t/d), where an additional pre-contact pre-absorber unit precedes a five-pass double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plant to give overall a seven-pass triple contact plant. This is a greenfield plant operating with an inlet concentration of 16–18 % SO₂.

The BAYQIK[®] process adds an extra external stage to an existing sulphuric acid plant that comprises a catalyst bed with an integrated heat exchanger. The plant was commissioned in 2009 in Stolberg, Germany but no performance data were available in January 2010.

Applicability

The LUREC[®] process is available and can be used as an additional bed for all existing plants, to give six or seven passes and triple absorption if the inlet gas concentration requires.

Economics

The LUREC[®] process costs are given as EUR 8 million for an addition to a 121 000 Nm³/h gas flow at an SO₂ inlet concentration of 20 %. The capital cost comparison between the LUREC[®] add-on module and a conventional plant is given in Table 2.27.

Table 2.27: The capital cost comparison between the LUREC[®] add-on module and a conventional plant

Item	Unit	Amount	
		Conventional plant	Add-on LUREC [®] plant
Existing capacity	tonne/d	2000	NA
Existing smelter gas flow	Nm ³ /h	51 700	NA
Existing gas flow to inlet of plant	Nm ³ /h	143 000	NA
Inlet SO ₂ concentration	vol-%	13.0	NA
Additional capacity required	tonne/d	600	NA
Future gas flow required at 13 % inlet SO ₂ concentration	Nm ³ /h	185 600	NA
Estimated cost for 600 t/d plant	EUR	11 000 000	NA
Future capacity required	tonne/d	1240	1360
Gas flow from smelter at 36 % inlet SO ₂ concentration	Nm ³ /h	67 200	
Gas flow to inlet of plant	Nm ³ /h	120 000	121 000
Inlet SO ₂ concentration	vol-%	9.5	20
Estimated capital cost for 1360 t/d LUREC [®] module	EUR	NA	8 000 000

NB: NA = Not applicable.

The BAYQIK[®] process costs are given as EUR 7.5 million for a plant to take 50 % of the side-stream from a 25 000m³/h process.

Driving force for implementation

An increase in plant throughput without replacement.

Example plants

Yanggu Xiangguang Copper, Shandong Province (China), and Stolberg (DE).

Reference literature

[274, COM 2008], [326, Daum et al. 2005]

3 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE COPPER AND ITS ALLOYS FROM PRIMARY AND SECONDARY RAW MATERIALS

3.1 Applied processes and techniques

3.1.1 Primary copper production

Primary copper can be produced by pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical processes. Approximately 20 % of primary copper is produced by the direct leaching of ores (hydrometallurgical route). Nowadays, sulphidic concentrates (15–45 % Cu) are the most important raw materials for the pyrometallurgical primary copper route, with a share of more than 85 %. To a small extent, oxidic/sulphidic mixed ores and, more seldom, bituminous ores are processed. The sulphidic concentrates consist of complex copper/iron sulphides; they are derived by flotation from ores that contain 0.2–2 % copper. Further inputs used for primary copper production are fluxes (silicate, lime, sands, etc.), additives/reactants (iron, carbon, etc.) and recycled materials (scrap, dross, lime sludges, used abrasive materials, slags, dusts, etc. [234, UBA (D) 2007]. The generic processes are discussed below.

3.1.1.1 The pyrometallurgical route

The pyrometallurgical route entails a number of steps, depending on the concentrate used. The majority of concentrates are sulphidic and the stages involved are roasting, smelting, converting, refining and electrorefining. Overviews of all of the furnaces mentioned in this section are given in Annex 13.1 and more detail is provided here where needed [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]

3.1.1.1.1 Concentrate to matte smelting

Concentrates are dried to reduce the moisture content from 7–8 % to about 0.2 % prior to the smelting process. For smelting in shaft furnaces, concentrate is dried to 3.5–4 % and briquetted.

There are two types of dryers used for drying copper concentrates:

- hot gas rotary dryers heated by the off-gases from combustion;
- steam-heated coil dryers.

The rotary dryer is a rotating drum. The hot gas produced by the combustion of natural gas is placed in contact with the wet concentrate and the contained water is transferred to the gas.

The steam dryers are indirectly heated via steam coils. The throughput depends on the steam pressure; by increasing the pressure to 18–20 bar, the capacity can be increased. A small amount of carrier air is introduced to pick up the water of the concentrate.

Roasting and smelting are usually carried out simultaneously in a single furnace at high temperatures to produce a melt that can be separated into a matte (copper sulphide with some iron sulphide) and a slag rich in iron and silica. A fluxing agent that contains silica and, if required, lime (CaO) is usually added to the melt to aid the formation of the slag. The sulphur-based gases generated by this process are directed to on-site acid plants to be used as a raw material in the production of sulphuric acid or, more rarely, the production of liquid SO₂. The smelting stage is used to separate the copper sulphide from the other solids present in ores by the formation of silicates, particularly iron silicates. This reaction depends on the high affinity of copper for sulphur compared to other metallic impurities.

For copper concentrate with a low sulphur content and a high organic carbon content, the smelting may be carried out in a shaft/blast furnace. In such cases, the resulting off-gases with a high energy content could be used as additional fuel in a power plant.

In the case of very impure copper concentrates, partial roasting converts the complex sulphides of iron and copper in the concentrate into simple sulphides, by heating the ore or concentrate under oxidising conditions. The sulphur-based gases generated by this process are directed to an on-site acid plant. The smelting stage is then used to separate the copper sulphide from the other species such as oxides present in ores, by the formation of silicates, particularly iron silicates.

There are two basic smelting processes in use: bath smelting and flash smelting. The flash smelting process uses oxygen enrichment to produce an autothermal (autogenous) or nearly autothermal operation. Bath smelting processes generally use a lower degree of oxygen enrichment. The use of oxygen also gives higher sulphur dioxide concentrations which make the collection of the gas more effective using one of the sulphur recovery systems (usually the production of sulphuric acid or the production of liquid sulphur dioxide). Table 3.1 shows the smelting processes that are used for primary copper production.

Table 3.1: Primary copper smelting technologies

Smelting process	Status of development		Remarks	
	Industrial-scale operation status	Environmental performance: potential or constraints	Production level: potential and/or limitations	Comment
Shaft/blast furnace	Established	Needs to be combined with processes that can recover the energy and sulphur content of the gases	Used specifically for low-grade concentrates with a low sulphur content and a high carbon content	High carbon content makes processing with other technology difficult because of the heat release
Partial roasting and electric furnace smelting	Established	Good	Limitation for production rate	Roaster size may be a limiting factor
Outotec flash smelting and Peirce-Smith converting	Established	Good	Very high smelting rate possible in one unit; depending on the furnace design and the type of concentrates, 400 000 t/yr blister copper is possible	Worldwide the standard primary copper smelting concept still has potential for improvement
Outotec direct blister flash smelting	Established	Good	Three plants in operation, > 200 000 t/yr reached	Applicable to concentrates with low iron/low slag
Ausmelt/ ISASMELT	Established	Good	Upper production rate per unit not tested	Potential for further improvement
INCO	Established	Good	Limitation of proven smelting rate per unit	Size of furnaces installed. Still further potential
Teniente converter, Noranda process	Established	Good	Limitation of smelting rate by reactor size and O ₂ enrichment limits	Compared to other processes, relatively higher ingress air ratio requiring increased effort for process gas capture
Vanyukov process	Six industrial-scale furnaces in Russia and Kazakhstan	Potentially good	No definite analysis available	Information for a substantiated judgement is not available; in general, technology may have considerable potential
Baiyin process	Exact number not known. At least two industrial units in operation	Potentially good	No definite analysis available; information available suggests production rates of up to 75 000 t/yr Cu can be achieved	Information is not available to substantiate. May have considerable potential
Mitsubishi process for continuous copper smelting	Established	Good	So far > 200 000 t/yr production level reached	Potential for further development
Kennecott-	Operating in three	Good	Higher production	Excellent

Outotec flash smelting/flash converting	plants. Fourth plant under construction		rate in a single converter and with a low gas volume	environmental performance and potential for further development
Reverberatory furnace smelting	Established	Somewhat limited	Limitation for smelting rate of one unit	
Noranda continuous converter	Commissioned on industrial scale	Good	No data for final analysis available	Effectively available, potential still to be evaluated when data from operation available
<i>Source:</i> [135, Gershel, T. 1998]				

Bath smelting is carried out in a number of proprietary furnaces such as the reverberatory, shaft (or blast), electric, Ausmelt/ISASMELT, Noranda, Mitsubishi, El Teniente, Baiyin and Vanyukov [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. All of the processes rely on the oxidation and smelting processes taking place in a molten bath, with slag and matte separation and tapping taking place in various ways. Some furnaces can operate without the predrying of the concentrate, but the superheated water vapour increases the gas volume and decreases the energy efficiency of the process. The differences between these processes can be significant, for example in the position of air/oxygen or fuel addition points, and some processes operate on a batch basis. Bath smelters are generally operated with a holding furnace or a separate settler. The general descriptions are covered in Chapter 2 and are summarised in Table 3.1. [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]

Flash smelting is carried out in either the Outotec or INCO flash furnace [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. The Outotec and cyclone processes use oxygen enrichment and the INCO process uses pure oxygen. Flash smelting relies on the oxidation and smelting of dry concentrates in airborne particles. The reacted particles fall into a settling chamber where the separation of the matte and slag takes place, sometimes additional fuel is used in the settler to maintain the temperature. Matte and slag are subsequently tapped and processed further, and the gases pass from the furnace through a vertical chamber or uptake shaft to a heat exchanger. Oxygen can be fed into the uptake shaft to afterburn combustible dusts and sulphatise metal oxides. The flash furnace is also used to produce blister copper directly.

Top-blown rotary converters (TBRCs) have also been used in the past in primary copper smelting. They are no longer used for primary smelting, mainly due to the high operating costs, though this type of furnace is used for secondary smelting.

The worldwide use of the smelting technologies is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Worldwide use of the smelting technologies for primary copper production

Process	Blister production (1000 t/yr)
Outotec flash smelting	5815
ISASMELT	2255
Ausmelt	1430
Outotec flash smelting & flash converting	1120
Mitsubishi	990
Teniente	846
Reverberatory furnace	795
Outotec direct blister	740
Shaft/blast furnace	670
Inco flash furnace	345
Others & unknown	2375
<i>Source: [382, Holding 2012]</i>	

The reverberatory furnace is also used for matte smelting but not within the EU-28. It does not use the energy content of the sulphur and the iron in the concentrate but instead relies on the use of fossil fuel to melt the concentrates via the hot combustion gases sweeping over the hearth. The process is therefore not as efficient as the other processes described. The combustion gases add to the overall gas volume and result in a very low sulphur dioxide content, which is very difficult to remove effectively. The use of reverberatory furnaces has declined significantly since the 1970s. The SO₂ content of the off-gases is normally very low so they cannot be treated in an acid plant.

The overall process to produce copper from primary raw materials is shown in Figure 3.1.

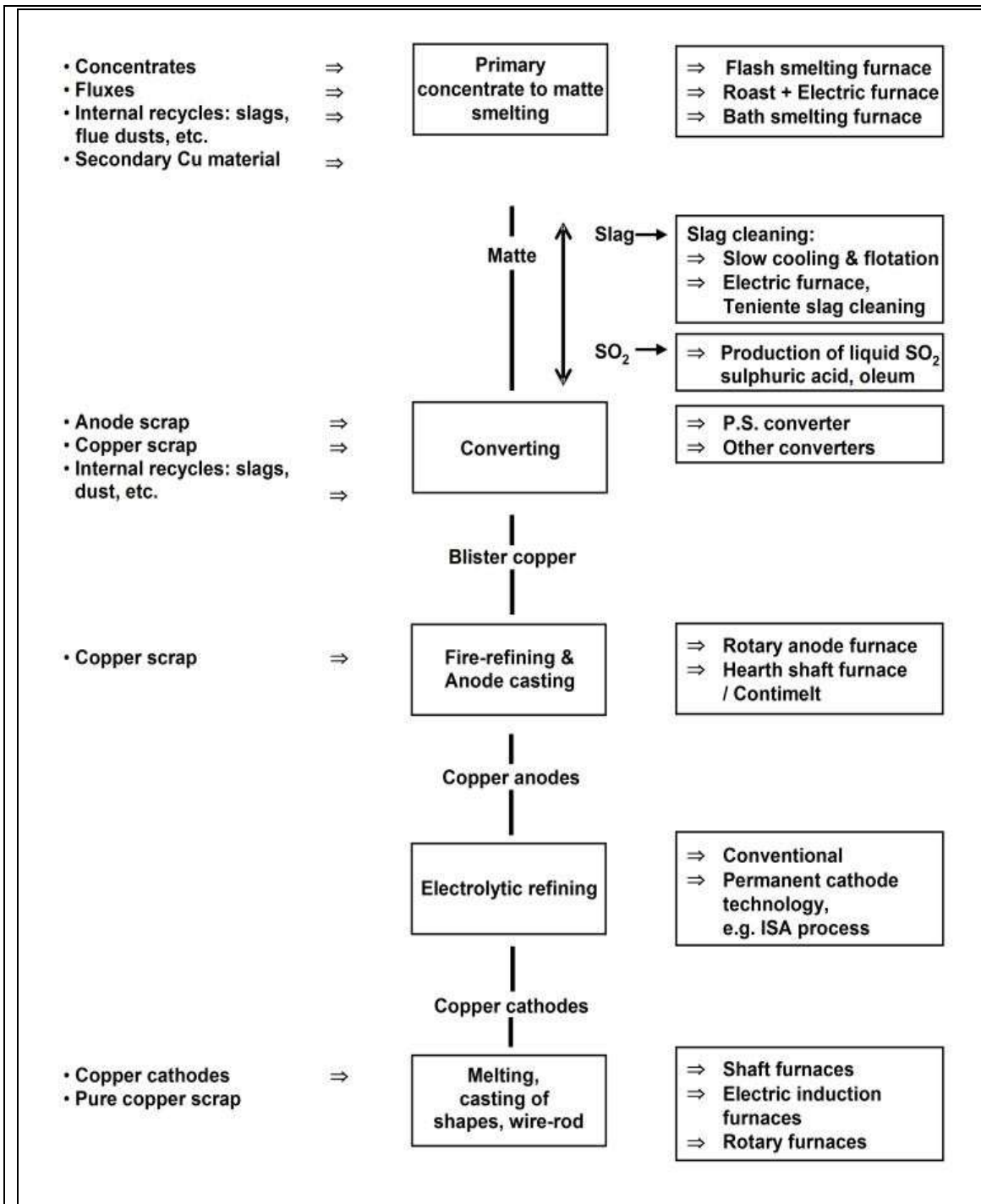


Figure 3.1: Primary copper production

3.1.1.1.2 Converting

Three types of converter processes are used during primary processes; two are matte conversion processes and one is an alloy conversion. The matte conversion processes are the conventional batch process, which is most commonly used, and the continuous converting process [135, Gershel, T. 1998].

Batch matte converting process

The batch converting process comprises two stages. It is carried out by blowing an air/oxygen mixture through the matte recovered from the smelting operation. A cylindrical bath furnace is most commonly used [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996] and flux additions are added. In the first stage, iron and part of the sulphur are oxidised and slag and sulphur dioxide

gas are formed; the slag is skimmed off periodically and is further processed to recover copper. Normally the first stage blow is carried out in several steps with incremental matte additions. In the second stage, i.e. the copper blow, the copper sulphide is oxidised to blister copper (98.5 % Cu) and more sulphur dioxide gas is formed. The blister copper is tapped at the end of the copper blow. The process is operated to control the residual sulphur and oxygen in the blister copper. The sulphur dioxide that is formed is further treated for sulphur recovery, normally in a sulphuric acid plant.

The reaction is strongly exothermic and also volatilises metallic impurities such as lead and zinc that are then captured in an abatement plant and recovered. The process heat can also be used to melt anode scrap and other copper scrap without the addition of primary heat. The sulphur dioxide concentration varies during the different stages of conversion, depending on the stage of the converting and on the type of furnace used.

The Peirce-Smith and the Hoboken type converters are operated batch-wise, (they are referred to as Peirce-Smith or similar converters in this chapter). They are cylindrical bath furnaces with laterally arranged tuyères for air/oxygen blowing. [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996]. The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace has also been used for the batch-wise conversion of matte into blister copper. Top-blown rotary converters (TBRCs) have been used in the past for batch-wise conversion of primary copper material to blister copper but are no longer in use.

Continuous matte converting process

The continuous converting processes that are in industrial use are the Kennecott-Outotec flash converting furnace [52, Newman, C.J. et al. 1998], [62, Helle, L. et al. 1994] [66, George, D.B. et al. 1995], the Mitsubishi furnace (which forms part of the integrated Mitsubishi process) and the Noranda converter [135, Gershel, T. 1998].

The Mitsubishi and the Noranda furnaces receive molten feed for conversion. In contrast, the Kennecott-Outotec process is as follows: matte from a smelting furnace is first granulated in water, crushed and dried. The material is then blended with slagging agents and fed into the concentrate burner of a specific flash furnace using an oxygen-rich atmosphere; conversion takes place in the airborne particles. The process produces a high and constant concentration of sulphur dioxide which is recovered. Slag and blister copper are tapped for further processing. The use of ground matte allows the matte quality to be balanced with the feed rate and degree of oxygen enrichment to produce the optimum conversion efficiency, and this also allows the matte production and conversion stages to be decoupled.

There are significant differences between batch-wise and continuous converter concepts in operation and in sulphur dioxide output throughout the converting cycles. There are also variations in the ease of collecting fumes during charging and in the ability to melt scrap anodes. Most processes rely on ladles for the transfer of matte, slag and blister copper and diffuse emissions may result. In one case, the ventilation gases from the converter aisle are collected and treated, in another case, an intelligent secondary fume collection system is used [198, Velten 1999]

Alloy converting process

Alloy converting is a batch process in which alloy from the electric furnace serving a direct-to-blister flash furnace is treated. One converter cycle lasts about eight hours. About 5–6 tonnes of limestone per batch is added to help the slagging of the oxidised iron and lead in the first converter stage. To prevent the over-oxidation of copper, a small amount of coke (0.1–1 t) is added per batch. When the lead content drops below 2 %, the second blow starts and silica is added to the converter to bind PbO. The process ends when the Pb content drops below 0.3 %. The converter off-gas is handled in a dedicated wet cleaning system and the slurry which contains 55–65 % Pb is utilised in a lead recovery plant.

3.1.1.1.3 Fire refining (anode furnace)

Fire refining is a further purification step applied to the crude metal (blister copper) produced by the conversion stage. The refining step involves the addition of air and then a reducing agent (e.g. hydrocarbons) to reduce any oxide present. [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [90, Traulsen, H. 1998].

Fire refining is achieved by first blowing air through the molten metal to oxidise impurities and to remove final traces of sulphur (oxidation stage). A small amount of slag is produced at this stage that needs to be removed prior to the next stage. In the next stage (reduction or 'poling'), a source of reducing agent, such as natural gas or propane, is then added to partially remove the oxygen that is dissolved in the liquid copper. Ammonia may also be used as a reducing agent, but has been reported to increase NO_x levels [292, Kojo et al. 2006]. Historically, wooden poles or logs were used as the source of reducing agent (and are still used in a small number of cases) hence the process is termed poling. Several installations use an afterburner to treat the gases during the poling stage.

In primary and some secondary smelters, cylindrical rotary furnaces (anode furnaces) are used for fire refining. These furnaces are similar to the Peirce-Smith converter and use tuyères for gas additions. They are charged with molten copper, copper scrap and anode scrap. Some secondary processes use a reverberatory furnace with lances for air additions, and they are fed with solid or molten copper (converter copper or copper scrap). Some reverberatory furnaces are tiltable and are fitted with tuyères. Hot gases from anode furnaces are often used for drying, oxygen evaporation or other uses. Stirring of the molten copper is sometimes achieved by blowing nitrogen through porous plugs in the furnace. This improves homogeneity and increases efficiency [265, AJ Rigby et al 1999].

A TBRC can also be used for the fire refining stage, and here only the reduction/poling step takes place in the rotary anode furnace.

A continuous melting and refining process (Contimelt) is applied to melt and treat blister copper, high-grade copper scrap and anode scrap to produce copper anodes. It combines the melting step and the fire refining steps (oxidation and reduction) with casting in one continuous operation, achieving high energy efficiency in all steps and a reduction of emissions.

Combinations of hearth shaft furnaces (fed with solid material for batch-wise melting) and rotary furnaces (for batch-wise reduction) are also used. These systems can be applied for primary (blister) and secondary (scrap) materials.

The metal from the anode furnace is then cast into anodes. The most commonly used technique is a casting wheel that comprises a series of anode-shaped moulds on the circumference of a rotating table. Molten metal first flows into a tundish from where it is metered into the moulds to obtain a consistent anode thickness and the wheel rotates taking the anodes through a series of water jets to cool them. The anodes are automatically removed from the moulds and are placed into cooling tanks to prevent the metal's oxidation. Casting rates range up to 200 tonnes per hour.

As an alternative to the 'stop-to-cast mould' on a wheel system, copper anodes are also produced continuously using a Hazelett twin belt caster. A copper strip with the desired anode thickness is produced. From the strip, anodes can be obtained by shearing it into the traditional anode shape or, according to the Contilanod® system, by casting anode lugs in special side dam blocks spaced in defined intervals in the caster. The preformed anode plates are cut off using a plasma torch or special shears. The advantage of this method is the uniformity of the anodes produced; however, the system requires careful maintenance and the operating costs are comparatively higher.

3.1.1.1.4 Electrolytic refining

An electrolytic cell is used and it consists of a cast copper anode and a cathode placed in an electrolyte that contains copper sulphate and sulphuric acid. The cathode is either a thin blank of pure copper (starter sheet) or a stainless steel former sheet (permanent cathode plate) (Mount ISA process, Outotec permanent cathode system and Noranda/Kidd Creek system). [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [90, Traulsen, H. 1998], [258, Finland input 2007]. At a high current density and low voltage, copper ions are dissolved from the impure anode and pass into solution from where they are deposited onto the cathode. Copper is removed from the anode to the extent that the remaining anode is still mechanically strong enough to prevent a collapse. The remaining anode is then recycled to the production process, usually the converter, to cool the reaction and recover the copper. When using permanent cathode plates, the pure copper deposits can be stripped and then, in the same way as solid copper cathode plates, melted and cast into the required shape.

During electrorefining, other metals contained in the anodes are separated; less noble metals like nickel are dissolved in the electrolyte and more noble metals like the precious metals, selenium and tellurium form an anode slime that settles in the electrolytic cells. Anode slimes are periodically removed from the cells and the valuable metals recovered (see Chapter 7, precious metals).

The concentration of the other dissolved metals will increase in the electrolyte, as they are not deposited on the cathode. To remove the impurities dissolved during electrorefining, part of the electrolyte is bled from the system for purification. Typical purification processes use copper electrowinning, or in some plants copper is recovered as copper sulphate. Evaporation, crystallisation and further refining recover nickel as nickel sulphate. The following techniques are used for the treatment and elimination of arsenic: solvent extraction; precipitation during the final copper electrowinning; precipitation from the black acid. In some cases, copper arsenate is produced and is recycled to the smelter feed.

The removal of impurities during electrorefining aims to produce a cathode copper with a quality at least equal to or better than the grade A quality standard of the London Metal Exchange. In Table 3.3, an example is shown of the anode composition and the cathode quality achieved. It should be noted that the level of impurities in the anode affects the cathode quality; the impurity level in anodes also depends on the source of the concentrate or secondary material.

Table 3.3: Example of impurity removal levels during electrorefining

Element	Content in anode ⁽¹⁾ (g/t)	Content in cathode (g/t)
Silver	600–720	9–10
Selenium	50–510	< 0.5
Tellurium	20–130	< 0.5
Arsenic	700–760	< 1
Antimony	330–700	< 1
Bismuth	60	< 0.5
Lead	990–500	< 1
Nickel	1000–5000	< 3
⁽¹⁾ Anode quality depends on raw material contents. Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]		

The current trend is for larger cells with a greater number of electrodes to be used in the tank house and for stainless steel cathode formers to be used [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. A gain in efficiency is seen when these factors are coupled with good quality control of anodes. Quality

control is needed to ensure that anodes are straight, flat, have good electrical contact and have been adequately fire refined. Similarly, there is also an improvement in cathode quality using stainless steel blanks, as fewer impurities are mechanically carried over and subsequently incorporated into the cathode. These cathode blanks give an increase in current efficiency to 97 % or even more. Modern tank houses use a high degree of automation for cathode and anode changes and for stripping cathode deposits from permanent cathode plates) [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996]. Mechanically prepared copper starter sheets can also be used instead of stainless steel blanks.

Copper electrowinning is described in Section 3.1.2.2.

3.1.1.1.5 Treatment of copper-rich slags

The slags produced from primary smelting with high-grate matte and converting stages are rich in copper and are subjected to a number of slag treatment processes [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. One process is the use of an electric furnace for the reaction of slag with carbon in the form of coke breeze or with the electrodes themselves and for the settling of copper matte that is formed, to produce an inert slag. The electric furnaces can be operated continuously or on a batch basis. Converter slag can also be returned directly to the smelting furnace.

Alternatively, flotation processes are used after the slag has been slow-cooled, crushed and milled, and the flotation concentrate obtained is a copper-rich portion which is returned to the smelter. This method is only used where sufficient space is available and where the tailings can be adequately treated and disposed of.

An electric furnace is also used for the treatment of the concentrate separated by slow-cooling and flotation of the converter slag.

Slags from the slag treatment processes are used for civil engineering projects, road construction, river embankments and similar applications, as well as in shot blasting, as they often have properties that are superior to alternative materials. Fine material is used as a filler in cement production.

Other slags rich in copper, like refining slags, are normally recirculated to a prior process stage, mostly to the converting stage, or, in secondary smelters, to the smelting stage.

3.1.1.2 The hydrometallurgical route

This process is usually applied to oxidic or mixed oxidic/sulphidic ores at mine sites where there is sufficient space for the leaching and treatment areas. The process is particularly useful for ores that are difficult to concentrate by conventional means and which do not contain precious metals [54, Biswas, A.K. et al. 1976], [55, Kojo, I.V. et al. 1994], [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. Some proprietary processes have been developed such as the Outotec L-SX-EW® and HydroCopper® processes [261, Nyman et al. 2002], [308, Haavanlammi 2007], [309, Pekkala 2007].

A generic hydrometallurgical flowsheet is shown in Figure 3.2.

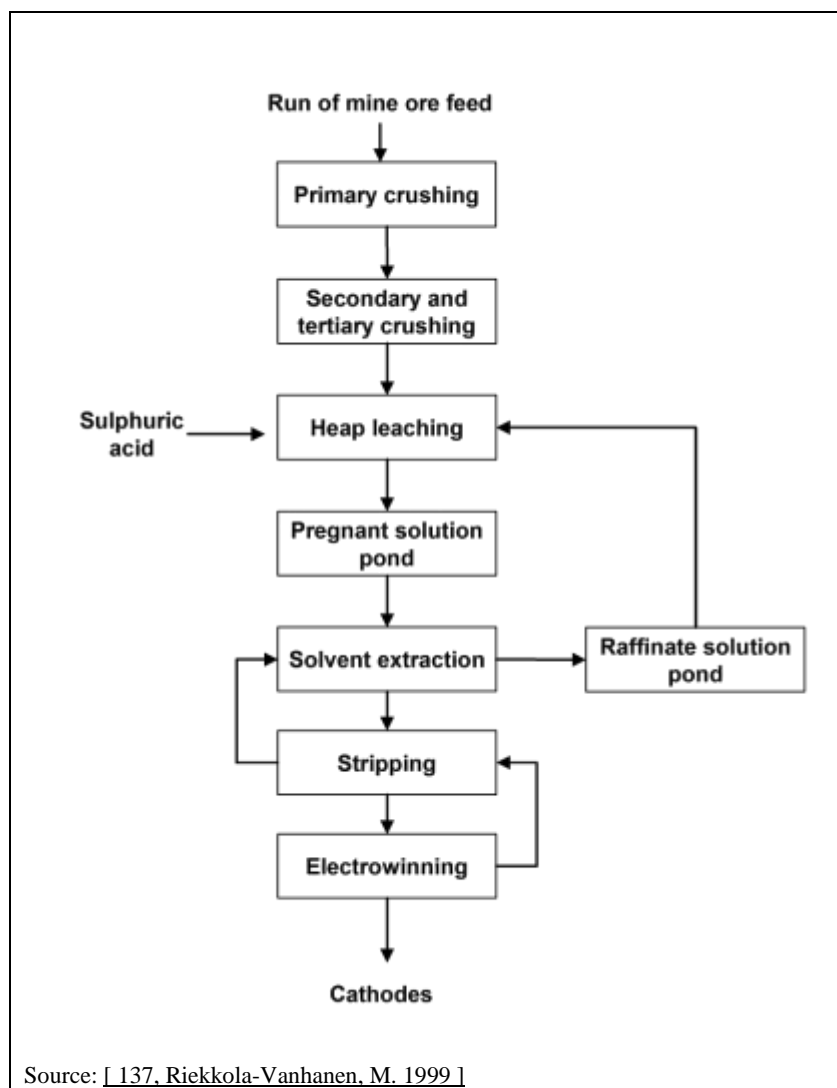


Figure 3.2: Flowsheet of a hydrometallurgical process

The hydrometallurgical route involves the crushing of the ore followed by leaching using sulphuric acid, sometimes in the presence of biological species, using heap, vat or agitation processes [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. The liquor produced from leaching is then clarified and purified and concentrated by solvent extraction. The copper in the organic solution is then stripped by sulphuric acid. The stripped solution, containing mainly copper sulphate, is sent to the electrowinning stage.

3.1.2 Secondary copper production

Secondary copper is produced by pyrometallurgical processes. The process stages used depend on the copper content of the secondary raw material, its size distribution and the other constituents [90, Traulsen, H. 1998] [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. As in primary copper, the various stages are used to remove these constituents and to recover metals to the greatest possible extent from the residues that are produced [219, VDI 2007].

Secondary feed material can contain organic materials like coatings, or be oily in nature, and installations take this into account by using de-oiling and decoating methods or by the correct design of the furnace and the abatement system. The aim is to accommodate the increase in combustion gas volumes, destroy VOCs and to minimise the formation of PCDD/F or destroy them altogether. The type of pretreatment applied or the furnace used depends on the presence of organic materials, the type of feed, i.e. copper content and other metals content, and whether the material is oxidic or metallic.

If a furnace such as a converter is used to smelt impure brass scrap to separate the metals contained in it, the alloying elements are fumed from the copper to produce black copper and a zinc-rich filter dust.

A wide range of secondary raw materials are used and some of them are described in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Secondary raw materials for copper production

Type of material	Cu content (wt-%)	Sources
Mixed copper sludges	1–25	Electroplating
Computer scrap	15–20	Electronics industry
Copper mono-sludges	2–40	Electroplating
Copper-iron material (lumpy or comminuted) from armatures, stators, rotors, etc.	10–20	Electrical industry
Brass dross, ashes and slags that contain copper	10–40	Foundries, semi-finished product plants
Red brass dross, ashes and slags that contain copper	10–40	Foundries, semi-finished product plants
Shredder material	30–80	Shredder plants
Copper-brass radiators	60–65	Cars
Mixed red brass scrap	70–85	Water meters, gear wheels, valves, taps, machine components, bearing boxes, propellers, fittings
Light copper scrap	88–92	Copper sheets, eaves, gutters, water boilers, heaters
Heavy copper scrap	90–98	Sheets, copper punchings, sliderails, wires, pipes
Mixed copper scrap	90–95	Light and heavy copper scrap
Copper granules	90–98	From cable comminution
Pure No 1 scrap	99	Semi-finished products, wire, cuttings, strip

Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

The stages used for secondary copper production are generally similar to those for primary production but the raw material is usually oxidic or metallic and process conditions are therefore varied. Smelting of secondary raw materials consequently uses reducing conditions.

3.1.2.1 Secondary copper smelting stage

A number of furnaces such as the blast furnace, mini smelter, top-blown rotary furnace (TBRC), sealed submerged electric arc furnace, Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace (KRS or Kayser recycling system), reverberatory and rotary furnace are used for low- and medium-grade material [26, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [90, Traulsen, H. 1998] [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. Contimelt systems are used for high-grade copper scrap (> 99 % Cu).

The type of furnace and the process steps used depend on the copper content of the secondary raw material, its size and other constituents. The smelting and refining of secondary copper is therefore complex and the type of secondary material which can be processed is dependent on the particular facilities and furnaces available [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. Details of furnaces are given in Chapter 2. The secondary copper production route is shown in Figure 3.3.

Iron (in the form of irony copper, normal iron scrap, etc.), carbon (in the form of coke or natural gas) and fluxing agents are added to reduce metal oxides if required and the processes are operated to suit the feed material. Reduction smelting results in the volatilisation of mainly zinc, tin and lead, which are discharged as oxides with the off-gas and are collected in the dust collection system. The content of dust, sulphur dioxide, PCDD/F and VOCs in the fume from the furnaces depends on the raw materials. For a further clean-up after dust separation, the off-gas can be routed to a contact process sulphuric acid production unit after additional wet scrubbing [219, VDI 2007]. The collected flue-dust is sent to further processing to recover the metals separated from the input materials.

The mini smelter is also used for secondary copper production, using scrap that contains iron and tin. In this application, the iron acts as the reducing agent in the first stage to produce metallic copper and then oxygen is blown into the melt to oxidise iron and the other metals (lead and tin) present which are recovered in the slag. The oxidation of the iron content provides the heat to drive the process and excess heat is recovered.

The KRS process uses the Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace (see Section 13.1.2.7) [234, UBA (D) 2007]. The combination is an advanced technology which replaces the conventional blast furnace/converter technology in non-ferrous metals recovery from secondary raw materials. Typical input materials include copper- and precious-metal-bearing secondary raw materials from copper smelting and refining, copper casting plants, the metal processing industry or from recycling plants for copper-bearing materials such as electric and electronic scrap, copper alloy scrap, copper-rich slags, copper dross, filter and cyclone dust, precipitation sludges and wire-drawing sludge.

In principle, electric furnaces process the same materials as the KRS or the blast furnace. The electric furnace requires a lower material input per tonne of black copper output than the blast furnace which, unlike electric furnaces, cannot normally be operated without producing slag.

3.1.2.2 Converting, fire refining, slag treatment and the electrorefining and processing of pure alloy scrap

The converting and refining furnaces used are the same as those used for primary copper production, and the slag treatment systems and electrorefining processes are also the same. The main difference is that converters used for secondary production treat metal and not matte. These furnaces usually use natural gas as fuel and coke as the reducing agent for melting and to make up process heat deficits, while in the primary converters the matte provides the necessary process heat [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. Secondary converters also oxidise and convert to slag minor elements like iron, and separate other metals like zinc or tin by volatilisation. They produce a converter copper of a quality that suits fire refining. The heat of the reaction when air is blown into the converter is used to volatilise metallic components; slagging agents are used to

remove iron and some lead. Fire refining furnaces are also used to melt higher grade scrap. There are potential sources of diffuse emissions from secondary converters.

The electrorefining slimes and spent solutions are also sources of precious metals and other metals such as nickel. These are recovered in the same manner as those from primary production.

Copper alloys such as bronzes and brasses are also used as secondary raw materials in a number of processes. If impure or mixed with other alloys, they are processed in the secondary smelting and refining circuits as described in Section 3.1.2.1 above [219, VDI 2007].

The pure alloy is used directly for semis fabrication. Induction furnaces are used to melt the clean material followed by casting into shapes suited for the further fabrication step. Charge analysis and control are practised to produce the desired alloy without major additions of virgin metal. Zinc oxide can be collected from the filter dust.

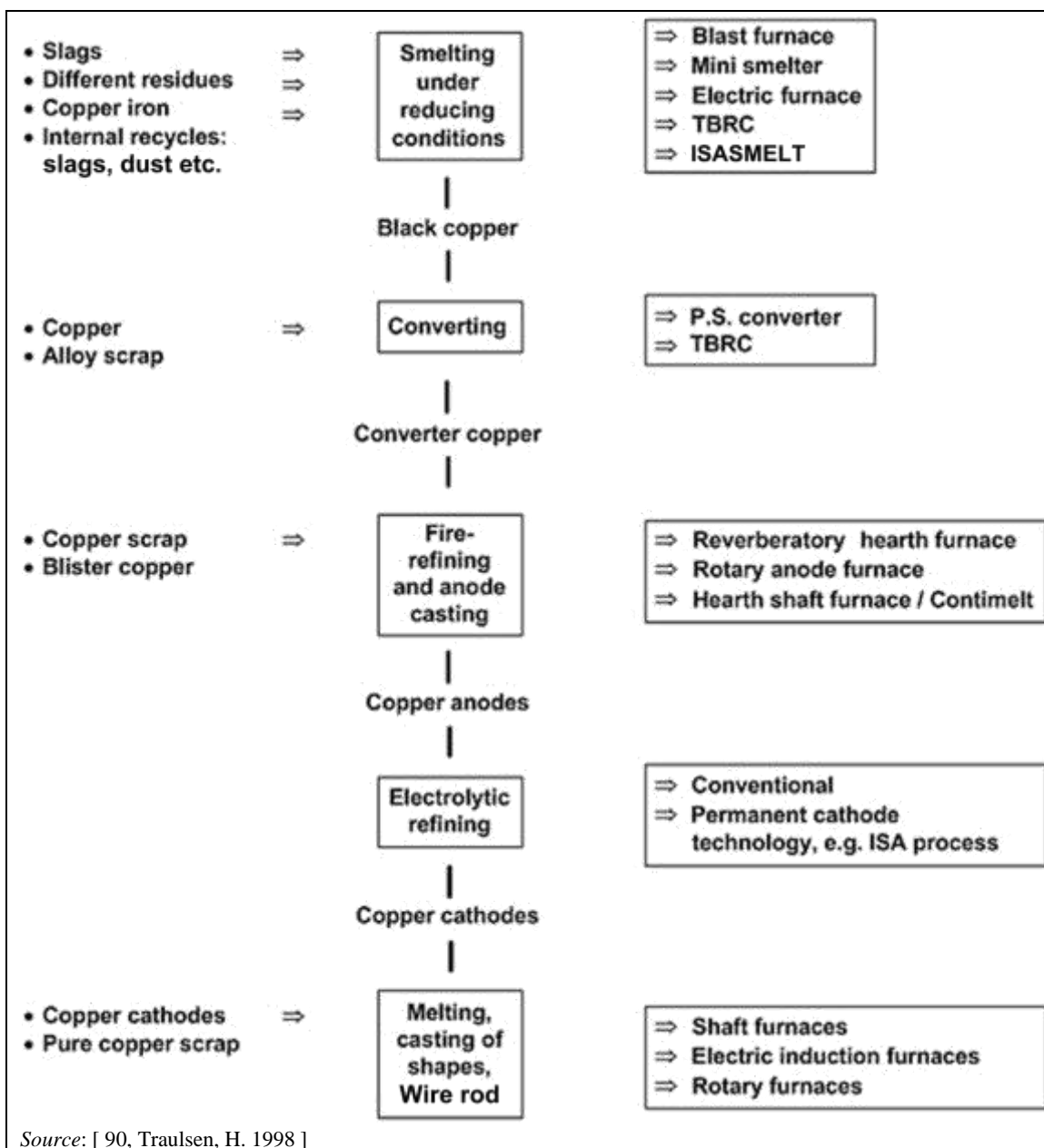


Figure 3.3: Generic flowsheet for secondary copper production

Depending on the type of feed materials in some plants, a flue-dust is produced in the first stage that is rich in zinc and lead, for example during the blast furnace smelting of lower grade material. These dusts contain up to 65 % combined zinc and lead and are a highly suitable feed material for processing in lead and zinc production processes.

A further variation of leaching is used by Umicore in Belgium where copper matte is produced in an Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace. In a second step, the copper matte remaining in the furnace is converted to blister copper and poured into the refining furnace, where it is further refined to obtain the correct blister quality. The blister is then granulated and the granules are dissolved in an autoclave and the pure copper is electrowon from the resulting solution, [228, COM 2007], [238, ECI 2012].

Electrowinning is used to recover copper from copper sulphate solutions produced by the leaching of impure copper or a hydrometallurgical solvent extraction process. The electrowinning process uses an insoluble anode, such as lead or titanium, and stainless steel blanks or copper starting sheets as cathodes. The copper ions are removed from the solution and deposited on the cathode in the same manner as electrorefining. Cathodes are then stripped in the same way if permanent cathode blanks are used. The electrolyte is circulated through a series of cells and finally is depleted of copper. The electrolyte is then returned to the solvent extraction circuit. Some electrolyte is normally bled for the control of impurities, which might have been carried over during solvent extraction.

Due to the decomposition voltage, the voltage of an electrowinning cell is approximately five times higher than in a refining cell. When electrowinning is used to recover copper from copper sulphate solutions, part of the solution has to be bled for arsenic and nickel removal.

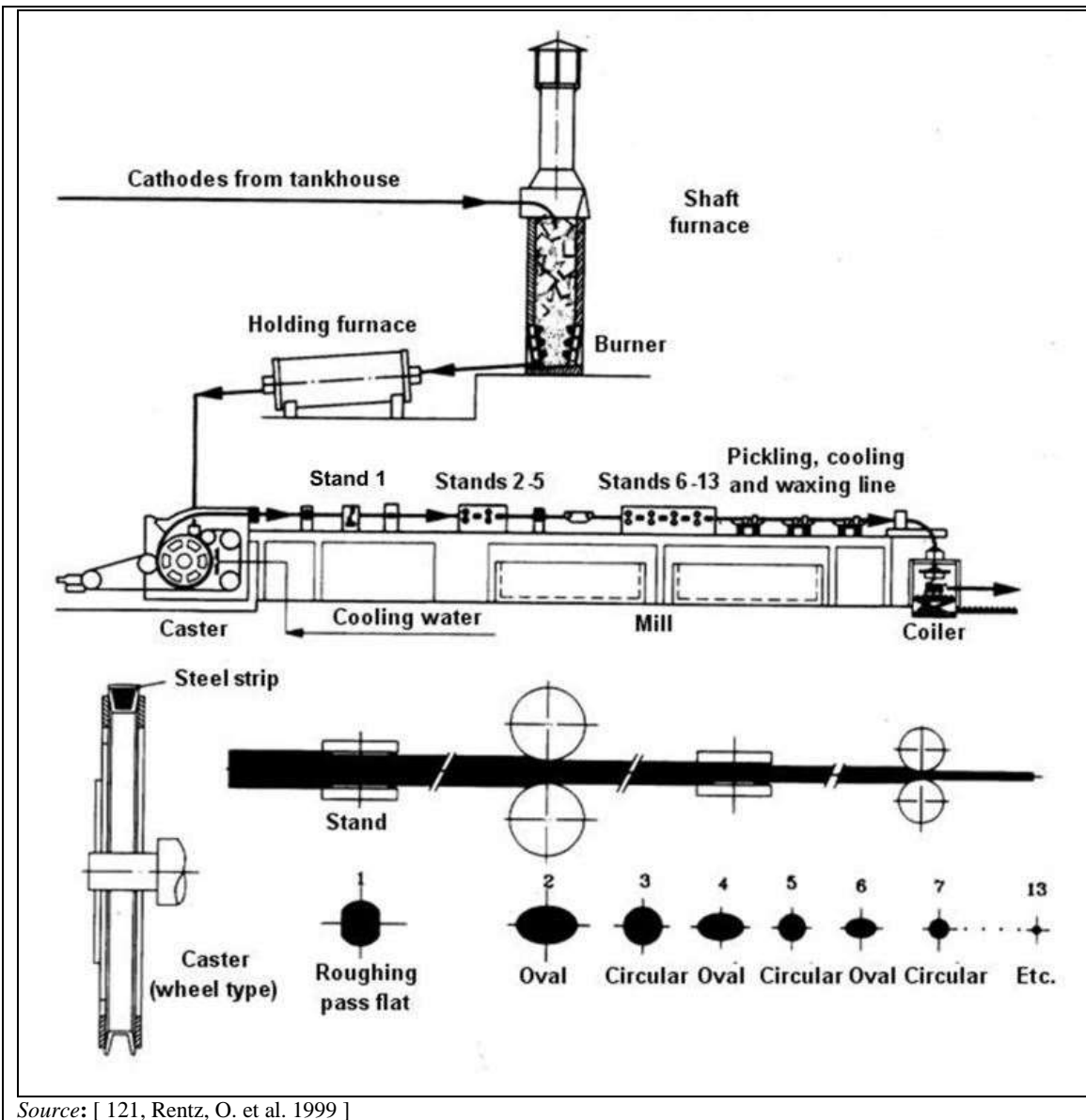
3.1.3 Wire rod production

Wire rod is manufactured from high-purity electrorefined copper cathodes, thus ensuring that trace impurities, which may affect conductivity, annealability and hot shortness, are minimised. Attention is paid to controlling the furnace conditions to minimise oxygen absorption into the metal. The processes are described below [114, Eurometaux 1998].

3.1.3.1 Southwire process

Shaft furnaces are used for melting copper cathodes and other pure copper scrap material. Melting rates of up to about 60 t/h are achieved. An example of the Southwire process is shown in Figure 3.4.

The feed materials are melted by natural gas, propane or similarly fired burners arranged in rows around the furnace shell. The fuel is burnt under closely controlled combustion conditions to maintain a slightly reducing atmosphere (less than 0.5 % to 1.5 % of CO or H₂) in the areas where the gases are in contact with the copper, to minimise the oxygen content of the copper. This is achieved by independent control of the fuel to air ratio for each burner by monitoring the CO or H₂ content of the combustion gases from each burner in turn.



Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

Figure 3.4: Example of the Southwire process

Gases from the furnace are cooled and dust is removed using fabric filters. Afterburning can also be used to destroy CO if the concentration is high.

Molten copper is discharged from the base of the shaft furnace and flows to a cylindrical holding furnace for temperature adjustment and balancing of the metal and for metallurgical treatment. Natural-gas-fired burners are provided to maintain the temperature of the molten copper and a reducing atmosphere in the launders. The holding furnace, which is also fired with natural gas or a similar fuel, serves as a reservoir to provide a constant flow of metal to the casting process and, if required, it can be used to superheat the metal.

Molten copper flows from the holding furnace via a tundish equipped with flow control to the casting wheel. A water-cooled steel band encloses over half of the circumference of the wheel, forming the casting cavity into which the molten copper solidifies to form a trapezoidal cast bar ranging between 5000 mm² and 8300 mm². Acetylene, burnt with air, is used to produce a soot dressing for the casting wheel and steel band. After being levelled and shaved, the cast bar is fed by pinch rolls to a rolling mill, consisting of a roughing section and a finishing section, which reduces the bar to its final diameter. A mineral oil emulsion or synthetic solution in water is used as a rolling fluid [219, VDI 2007].

3.1.3.2 Contirod process

A shaft furnace as described above is used to melt copper. Molten copper from the furnace flows via a launder equipped with siphons into a rotating, gas-heated holding furnace. The copper then flows to the pouring funnel, which automatically controls the feeding rates to the caster [114, Eurometaux 1998]. An example of the Contirod process is shown in Figure 3.5.

A twin belt Hazlett casting machine can also be used [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999], [219, VDI 2007]. Here, the two belts are cooled by a continuous film of water that moves at high speed along the length of their surface. The side blocks are automatically cooled in a specially designed cooling area located on the return strand of the loop. Depending on the plant size, the cast bar area can range between 5000 mm² and 9100 mm² and production capacities between 25 tonnes and 50 tonnes per hour. The rectangular bar is cooled, the four corners are milled to remove any flash, and the bar then enters a rolling mill comprising alternate horizontal and vertical passes to produce a final product. A mineral oil emulsion or synthetic solution in water is used as a rolling fluid.

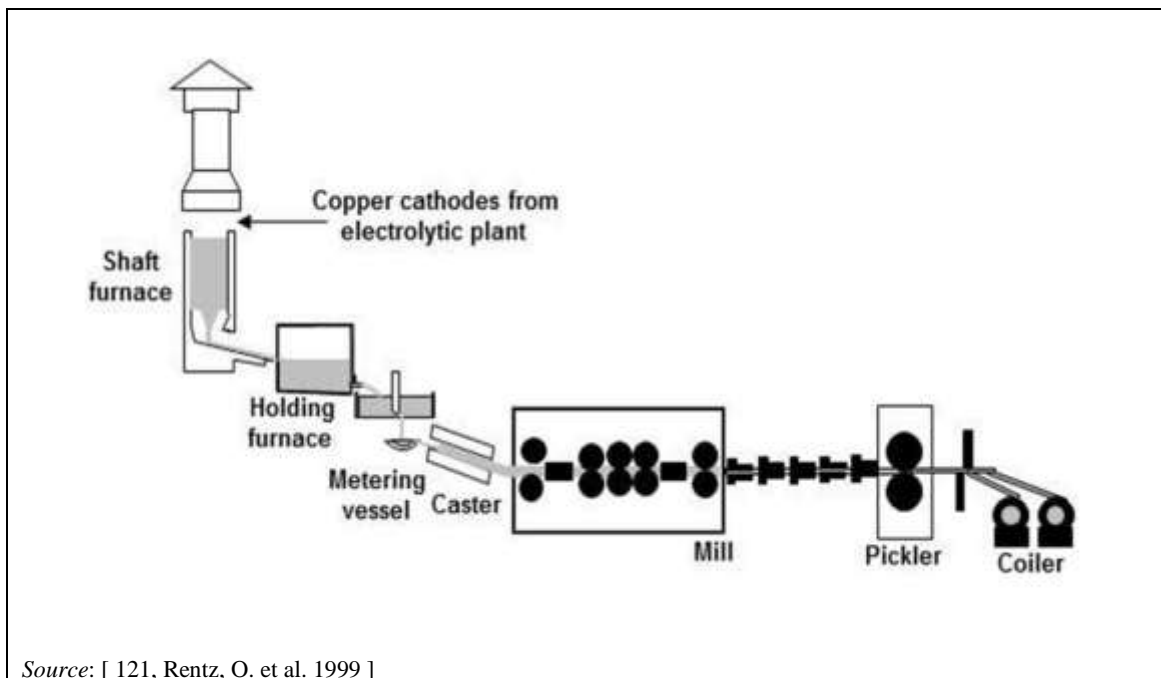


Figure 3.5: Example of the Contirod process

3.1.3.3 Properzi and Secor processes

The continuous Properzi and Secor processes are similar to the Southwire process (see Section 3.1.3.1) with variations in casting geometry [114, Eurometaux 1998]. The features described for the Southwire process are also valid for these two copper wire rod fabrication systems.

3.1.3.4 Upcast process

Copper is melted in a channel induction furnace. The melt is transferred in batches into an induction holding furnace. For small production capacities, a single combined melting-holding furnace may be sufficient [114, Eurometaux 1998].

The Upcast withdrawal machine is located above the holding furnace. Water-cooled graphite dies are submerged a certain depth into the melt and the molten copper runs continuously into

the dies, where it solidifies and is drawn up to the pinch rollers. The solidified wire rod is pulled upwards by the pinch rollers.

3.1.3.5 Dip-forming process

The preheated feed material is discharged into a channel induction melting furnace. Copper passes to the holding furnace and the crucible that is attached to the holding furnace. A mother rod, 12.5 mm in diameter, is drawn through an inlet die at the base of the crucible. Drawing the core wire through the metal pool and controlling the final diameter through the upper die increases the diameter. The cast rod is directed via dancers to a three-stand rolling mill producing 8.0 mm and 12.5 mm rods [114, Eurometaux 1998].

3.1.4 Production of semi-finished products of copper and copper alloys

Copper and copper alloys are melted continuously or in batches and cast for the production of shapes suited to the further fabrication step [219, VDI 2007]. The cast products are precursors for a variety of materials such as sheets, strips, sections, bars, rods, wires and tubes.

A general flowsheet for semi-finished product fabrication is shown in Figure 3.6.

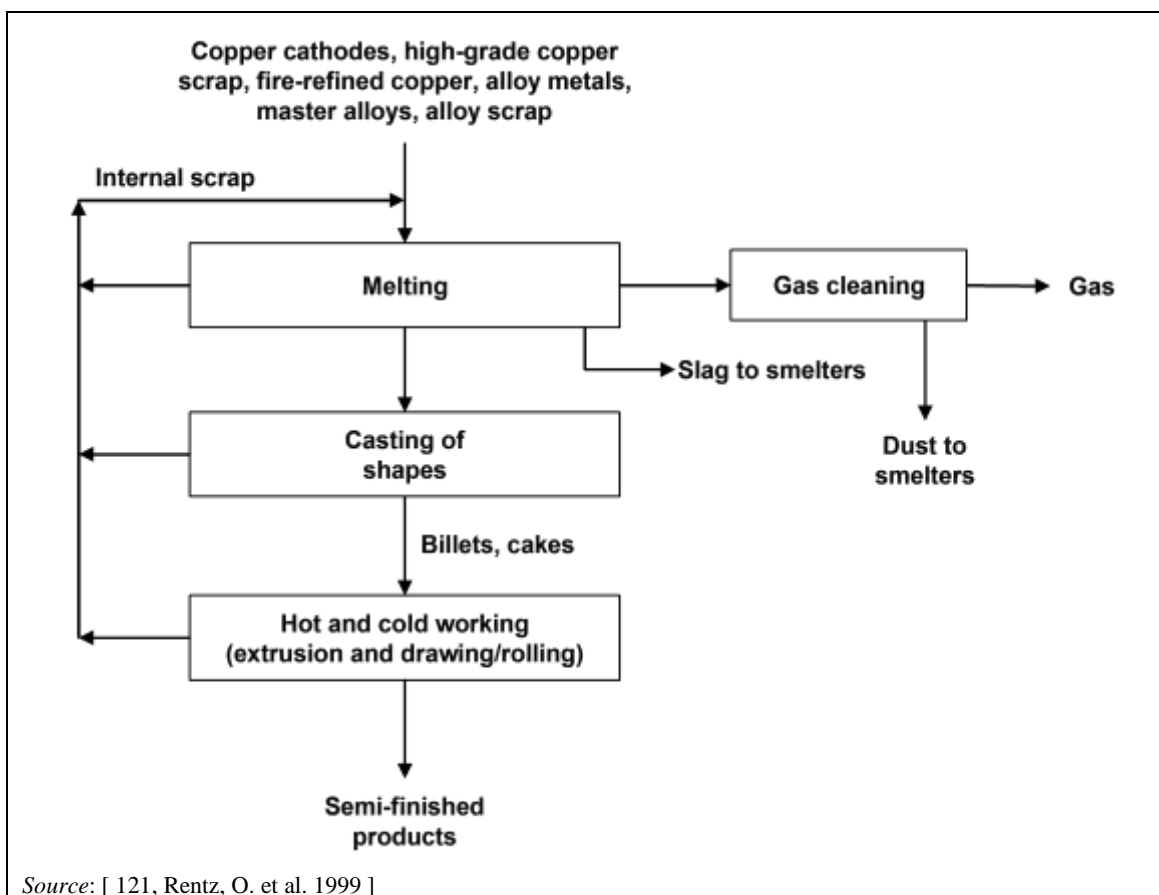


Figure 3.6: General flowsheet for semi-finished product fabrication

3.1.4.1 Melting processes

Copper or copper alloys can be melted in batches in an electric or induction furnace (crucible or channel type). When high melting rates are required, copper is also melted continuously in a shaft furnace. Crucible or reverberatory furnaces are also used for melting and fire refining copper. The fume collection and abatement systems are chosen according to the raw material and the degree of contamination present. The gas collected from electric furnaces is normally cleaned in cyclones followed by fabric filters. For gas-fired shaft furnaces, the control of the burners is a critical factor to minimise the CO content of the gases emitted. An afterburner followed by heat recovery systems is in use if the CO content is high enough (e.g. > 5 % CO); fabric filters are also used for dedusting in shaft furnaces.

Copper cathode and copper and alloy scrap is used as the raw material and is normally stored in open bays so that the different alloys can be blended to produce the final alloy. This preblending is an important factor to reduce the time taken to prepare the melt, which also minimises the energy used and reduces the reliance on expensive master alloys. With induction furnaces, scrap is cut into small sizes to improve the melting efficiency and to allow the easy deployment of hoods, etc.

Raw materials also include brasses or copper turnings and borings, and in this case they are coated with lubricants. Care is taken to prevent oil leaking from the storage area and contaminating groundwater and surface water. Similarly, swarf dryers or other furnaces and solvent or aqueous de-oiling methods are used to remove lubricants and other organic contaminants [219, VDI 2007].

When brasses or bronzes are melted, zinc is fumed from the furnace; good control of the temperature can minimise this. Fume is collected in the gas extraction system and removed in a fabric filter. The zinc oxide is normally recovered. A degree of fire refining is also carried out and the resulting fumes are taken into account in the design of the fume collection and abatement systems.

3.1.4.2 Casting

Normally, molten metal from the furnace or holding section can be cast continuously or in batches [114, Eurometaux 1998]. Continuous casting uses either vertical or horizontal modes while discontinuous casting normally uses the vertical mode. Upcast techniques are also used. Billets and cakes/slabs are produced and are processed further.

The principle of continuous or semi-continuous casting is given in Figure 3.7.

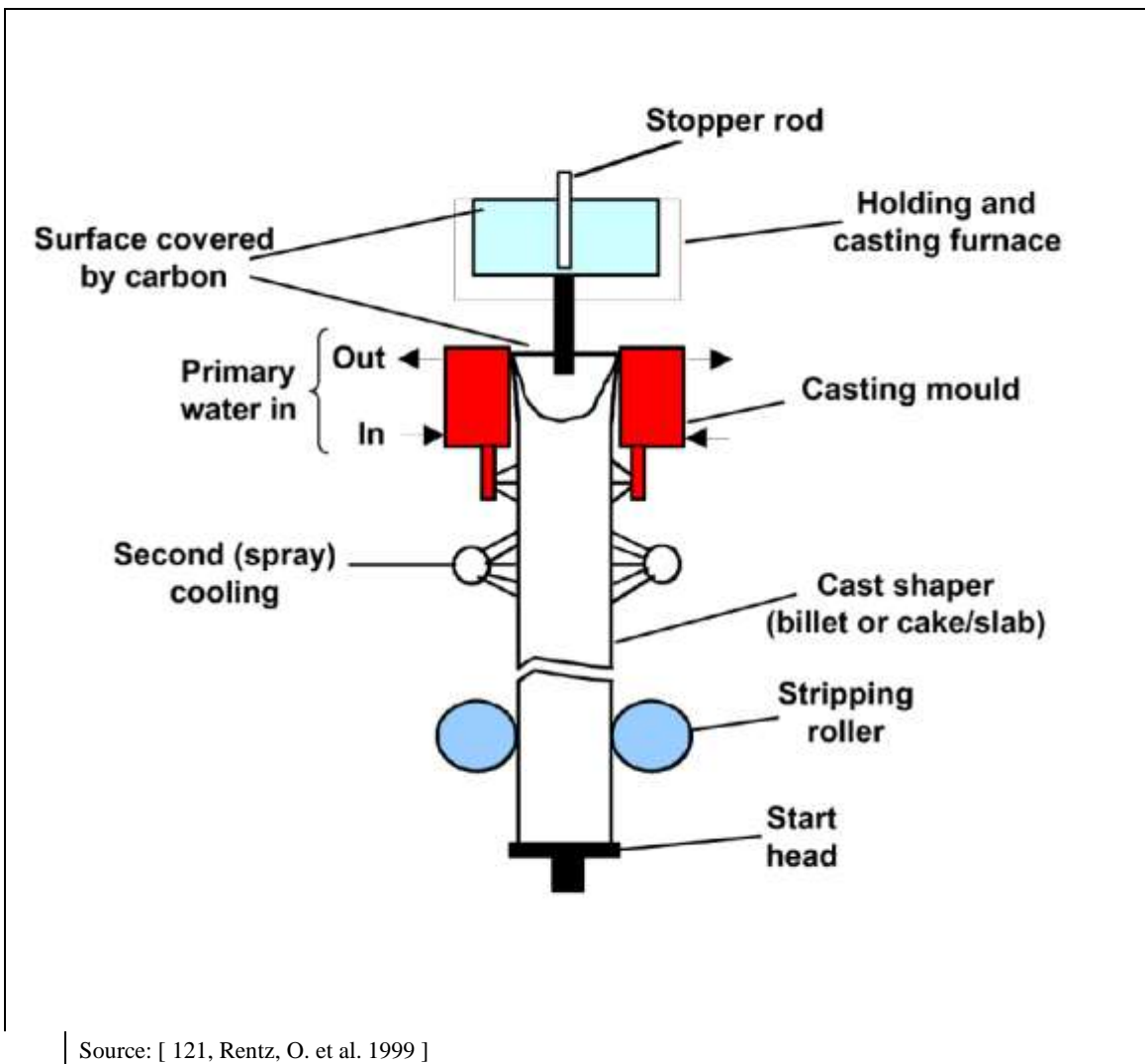


Figure 3.7: Principle of continuous or semi-continuous casting

The normal shapes produced by casting are as follows [114, Eurometaux 1998].

- billets are mostly made from copper and copper alloys for the production of tubes, rods and sections using continuous or discontinuous casting;
- slabs or cakes are cast from copper and copper alloys for the production of sheets and strips using continuous or discontinuous casting.

Metal is melted and passes via a holding furnace into a vertical or horizontal billet caster. Sections of billets are sawn off for further fabrication. Special processes are applied for specific products from copper and copper alloys:

- the Upcast process for wires and tubes;
- horizontal continuous casting for strip and sections;
- vertical strip casting and rolling processes for the fabrication of copper tubes.

The strand cast on vertical or horizontal casting units is cut using the flying saw technique. In a discontinuous casting unit, the format length is determined by the depth of the casting pit. After reaching the maximum format length, casting is interrupted and the cast shapes are extracted by a crane or elevator. In the case of continuous casting, it is not necessary to interrupt the casting process. All casting operations need direct cooling water for final solidification and cooling down the cast strand to temperatures suitable for further handling. The cooling water can be recycled after sedimentation and the separation of solids (casting scales). If the scales are not

contaminated with graphite or other particles, they are recirculated to a smelter for processing, if not directly reused in the casting shop.

A comparison of the plant data for typical vertical and horizontal continuous casting installations is given in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Comparison of the plant data for typical vertical and horizontal continuous casting installations

Parameter	Vertical continuous casting	Horizontal continuous casting
Ingot diameter	70–1500 mm	150–400 mm
Capacity	8 t/(h and strand)	8 t/(h and strand)
Casting rate	80–800 mm/min	80–200 mm/min
Casting temperature	980–1200 °C	980–1200 °C
Operating mode	One or a number of strands	One or a number of strands
Withdrawal cycle	Continuous	Continuous or cyclical
Secondary cooling	Using sprayed water	Does not necessarily use sprayed water, although this is possible
Type of mould	Copper mould, graphite mould	Graphite mould
<i>Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]</i>		

3.1.4.3 Fabrication of tubes, sections and rods

The fabrication process lines can be subdivided into two product groups, with each product group following the same process steps:

- copper tubes in straight lengths and coils;
- copper (alloy) tubes, as well as copper and copper alloy rods, bars, wires and sections.

In both cases, the starting materials for the fabrication process are copper or copper alloy billets. The billets in the first stage are electrically or indirectly preheated by gas-fired units and then pressed in unfinished tubes using hydraulically operated extrusion presses [219, VDI 2007]. For the fabrication of copper tubes, depending of the type of product to be fabricated, different processes are industrially applied:

- tube extrusion followed by multi-step drawing to size;
- tube extrusion followed by breakdown rolling followed by several steps of drawing to size;
- hot piercing mill followed by breakdown rolling and drawing to size.

For billets which are extruded or rolled into tubes with thick walls, breakdown rolling is normally the preference for the first size reduction step.

For tubes extruded to thin walls, tube drawing machines are applied.

For the fabrication of copper alloy rods, bars, wires and sections, the processes that are normally used are material extrusion in coils or straight lengths followed by cleaning and pickling, drawing to size (using drawbenches or continuous drawing machines), heat treatment for certain alloys, and straightening and sawing.

The whole process, starting with the extrusion press or the hot piercing mill, is a sequence of (mostly) reducing steps changing the shape and size. During these processing steps, the tools of the equipment for size and shape changing are cooled and protected by adequate media, using emulsions for the breakdown rolling and lubricants for the drawing units. The emulsions for the breakdown rolling are cleaned by filtration, thus increasing the lifetime and reducing the amount

of lubricant to be disposed of after treatment. However, the lubricants used for the drawing steps are completely lost with the product and no oily materials have to be rejected from the drawing processes.

The products are normally annealed and degreased before transport and the offcuts are de-oiled in a furnace or other degreasing processes before being returned to the furnace for melting. Products are annealed in a variety of furnaces under reducing conditions using (as the protection gas) exogas or hydrogen/nitrogen mixtures.

Copper tubes may also be produced utilising an extrusion press with a piercer in which billet sections are extruded to tube shell pieces; the tube shell pieces are then rolled in a breakdown roller (pilger mill) and finally drawn to size in drawing blocks. The oil utilised (in small quantities) for the drawing operations is neutralised using in-line degreasing/pickling systems often connected with the annealing section.

3.1.4.4 Fabrication of sheets and strips

Slabs and cakes from the casting shop are, in most cases, the starting material for the fabrication of sheets and strips. The key elements of the fabrication process for flat products are the hot and subsequent cold rolling operations. In detail, the fabrication process comprises the following steps:

- preheating;
- hot rolling and milling;
- cold rolling;
- intermediate annealing;
- pickling, rinsing and drying;
- re-rolling and strand annealing;
- finishing:
 - sheets (cutting to length),
 - strips (cutting to width).

The hot rolling of the cast slabs takes around 15 to 20 slabs until the final shape is reached, which is determined by the slab weight. There is no loss of metal during hot rolling, so slab and coil weight are identical. The hot rolling mill does not require protection gas. The noise development during rolling is controlled by protective measures [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Hot rolling is usually done with a dual rolling mill equipped with benches of up to 200 metres and a final coiling device. The cooling water for the rolls has small amounts of lubricant added to improve the attachment to the steel rolls. The vapour generated is vented and the vent gas is demisted prior to release to atmosphere.

Further cold rolling operations are then performed. Cold rolling results in a hardened metal. In most cases, the coil is annealed prior to cold rolling. Annealing is done under reducing conditions to avoid oxidation. A protection gas of exogas or nitrogen/hydrogen mixtures is used. Exogas is produced on site from natural gas in a special reactor, which is indirectly fired. Nitrogen and hydrogen are purchased and stored on site in special tanks. The N_2/H_2 protection gas mixtures are produced from the storage tanks by mixing the components in the ratio required. For annealing before cold rolling, bell-type furnaces are used; these are electrically heated or indirectly fired by natural gas or fuel oil. Tower-type furnaces are applied for intermediate annealing of pre-rolled coils.

The sheet thickness is further reduced by stepwise cold rolling operations on different reversing mills. For cold rolling, different types of mills called Duo, Quarto, Sexto and Sendzimir (12 rolls) are used. Rolling mill designs such as single-stand mills which are combined with an in-

line multi-stand rolling mill are also applied. The choice of mill used depends on the thickness of the sheet and on the desired dimensions of the coil.

During cold rolling, an emulsion or oil is used for roll protection. Therefore, the roll stands are vented and the ventilation gases are cleaned by mechanical filters, wet electrostatic precipitators or scrubbing. The emulsion and the oil is cleaned from the metal and cracked oil particles are removed by paper or textile band filters.

Typical data for a process to produce brass strip are given in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Typical data for a process to produce brass strip

Hot rolling	Process data
Type of mill	Mainly Duo
Initial dimensions	250–130 mm thickness, 450–1000 mm width
Final dimensions	15–12 mm thickness, 450–1000 mm width
Temperature	750–800 °C
Rolling force	~ 10–12 kN/mm sheet width
Surface milling	0.3–0.7 mm cutting of both surfaces
First cold rolling	
Type of mill	Mainly Quarto
Rolling force	~ 15–20 kN/mm sheet width
Dimension reduction and rolling speed	Reduction 15 mm to 4 mm thickness in multiple passes, speed 100–200 m/min
Conversion ratio	70–80 %
Annealing ⁽¹⁾ (recrystallisation)	
Temperature	550–600 °C
Second and final rolling	
Type of mill	Mainly Quarto, or alternatively, depending on sheet thickness, Sexto or stands where 20 rolls are used
Rolling force	~ 2–10 kN/mm sheet width, depending of type of mill used
Rolling speed	Reduction 4 mm to 1 mm: 300–500 m/min, multiple passes or reduction 1 mm to 0.1 mm: 500–1000 m/min, multiple passes
Cutting of sheets into strips	
Type of equipment	Longitudinal strip cutting machine
⁽¹⁾ Annealing is required after every conversion ratio of more than 70–80 %; annealing temperatures selected depend on the material properties to be achieved. <i>Source:</i> [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]	

3.1.5 Production of copper and copper alloy ingots

Ingots of copper or its alloys are produced for the foundry industry using a fixed mould casting process. A wide variety of alloys are produced with other metals such as nickel, tin, zinc and aluminium.

The production of ingots requires the production of an accurate alloy composition. This is achieved at the raw material reception and storage stage by segregation and sorting. Old scrap is normally stored in open bays so that the different alloys can be blended to produce the final alloy. Preblending is an important factor to reduce the time taken to prepare the melt, which minimises the energy used and reduces the reliance on expensive master alloys. Copper or copper alloys can be melted in batches in rotary or induction furnaces. Rotary furnaces are

normally used for dirtier scrap, and oxy-fuel burners are also used frequently. Fluxes can be added to separate unwanted components, in particular iron, and the slag is tapped separately from the metal. The yield of metal ranges from 70 % to 97 %, but depends on the raw materials used [103, COM 1998].

The fume collection and abatement systems are chosen according to the raw material and the degree of contamination present. Access to an induction furnace for charging and tapping means that a movable hooding system is used. The hoods are robust so that they can withstand some mechanical impact. The gas collected from induction furnaces is normally cleaned in cyclones followed by fabric filters. An afterburner followed by a heat recovery system can be used for cases where there is organic contamination. Alternatively, the furnace combustion control system should be able to accommodate the combustion of contaminants.

When brasses or bronzes are melted, zinc is fumed from the furnace, but a good level of control of the furnace temperature can minimise this. Fumes are collected in the gas extraction system and are usually removed in a fabric filter. The zinc oxide is normally recovered. A degree of fire refining is also carried out to adjust the alloy composition, and the resulting fumes are taken into account in the design of the fume collection and abatement systems.

The furnace melt is sampled and analysed and final alloy adjustments are made. The metal is then tapped into covered launders that feed a chain of ingot moulds. The moulds are normally treated with a mineral to prevent sticking and oil fumes are produced. Oil can be collected and burnt.

Cooled ingots are stacked, bound and stored in the open on pallets.

3.1.5.1 Master alloys

The furnace charge is normally pre-adjusted to suit the alloy to be used but molten metal can be transferred to a ladle or holding furnace so that the alloy composition can be finely adjusted before casting. Master alloys such as CuP, CuNi, CuZnPb and CuBe are used for this purpose. These master alloys are produced in similar furnaces to those described above; the nature of fumes and dust from the production of master alloys influences the process control, and the collection and abatement systems that are used. More stringent operating and abatement systems are particularly appropriate when extremely hazardous materials such as beryllium are used or when reactive materials such as phosphorus are added to produce an alloy. For example, phosphor copper master alloy is made in the following way: two furnaces (induction furnaces are commonly used) are operated in series; copper is melted in the first furnace and transferred to the second where molten phosphorus is injected by a lance to form the alloy. The rate of injection is controlled to minimise phosphorus pentoxide fume, particularly during the final stages when the metal is approaching saturation (< 14 % P). The phosphor copper is then tapped into moulds, and phosphorus pentoxide fumes continue to be emitted as the alloy cools if the phosphorous content is too high.

Phosphorus pentoxide is very hygroscopic and as a consequence the fumes cannot be filtered using a conventional bag filter, as the fumes will absorb moisture and coat the bags with phosphoric acid. Conventional wet scrubbing has a limited effect as the fine fumes form a fine mist and fail to contact the scrubbing medium. Effective reduction of the concentration of phosphorous compounds in the gas stream can be achieved by using high-energy Venturi scrubbers or fibrous mat filters. In theory, a weak acid could be produced for further processing, but this is difficult in practice.

3.1.6 Pickling operations

Wire, tube, strip and some other materials are pickled to produce a bright finish before packing or, in the case of copper wire, to remove oxide from the surface prior to wire drawing. Sulphuric acid solutions are used and sometimes a mixture of dilute sulphuric and nitric acids are used. In the latter case, nitric fumes can be emitted if higher strength acids are used.

3.1.6.1 Non-acid pickling of copper rods

This process operates in a sealed circuit. Rods can be pickled in an in-line system that consists of a compartmentalised horizontal steel pipe. A 2.5–5 % solution of isopropanol (IPA) in water is used. The process of converting the cuprous oxide scales with alcohol to form copper (partly left on the rod) is known as the Burns process [114, Eurometaux 1998]. In copper wire rod fabrication, the normal practice is to recycle the solution to the pickling after copper sludge removal by settling or filtration; the IPA concentration is adjusted as required.

After pickling, the rod is dried using compressed air. Then it is given a coating of wax, applied as a fine spray with a 4 % wax emulsion which prevents the oxidation of the surface of the rod. The rod is laid down, coiled onto wooden pallets and compacted, strapped and wrapped in a plastic sheet.

3.1.6.2 Acid pickling of copper rods and semis of copper and copper alloys

Copper wire rod

Acid pickling of copper wire rod uses a compartmentalised horizontal stainless steel pipe [114, Eurometaux 1998]. In a first stage, the rod is pickled with diluted sulphuric acid; then the residual acid is washed in several stages from the rod surface by water sprays, followed by drying using compressed air and then coating with wax.

Alternatively, after partial cooling in a long water-filled tube, the rod is formed into spirals corresponding to the diameter of the coil. These spirals are spread onto a roller table where the temperature is reduced to 20 °C by water sprinklers. An acid-resistant alloy conveyor carries these spirals into the pickling tanks where the rod is pickled with a 20 % sulphuric acid solution. The acid pickling system ensures the perfect removal of all oxides from the rod surface. The loops are then washed with rinsing water and finally protected by a wax solution.

Electrowinning to recover the copper dissolved by the pickling acid is used or the wash solution may also be transferred as make-up to a tank house at the same site or treated by ion exchange.

Semis of copper and copper alloys

The surface pickling of sheets and strips is usually performed with sulphuric acid (8–10 %) but for some special alloys mixtures of sulphuric and nitric acids are used in continuous lines or automatic systems. Gas cleaning is used to remove nitric acid fumes. The acid is changed from time to time in order to ensure that surface quality is not affected [114, Eurometaux 1998].

Spent acid is sent for treatment and for the recovery of metal in internal or external treatment plants. The pickling systems are vented for worker protection. The products are rinsed, the rinse water is then sent for treatment, and the sludges are recycled if possible. For surface degreasing of rolled products, water that contains detergents is used. The spent water is cleaned by ultrafiltration.

3.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The main environmental issues of the refined copper industry are air and water pollution [27, M. Barry et al. 1993], [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]. The facilities generally have their own waste water treatment facilities and waste water recycling is usually practised. Most potential wastes are reused.

Some local aspects, like noise, are relevant to the industry.

Due to the hazardous nature of some solid and liquid wastes, there is also a significant risk of soil contamination unless these wastes are stored and handled correctly.

Diffuse emissions can be highly significant (see Section 2.4). Measurements have been carried out at one major copper smelter producing primary and secondary copper. The results clearly show that diffuse emissions predominate even after improvements were made to secondary fume capture systems [158, Petersen, K. 1999]. In this example, the dust loads that were measured are shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Comparison of abated and diffuse dust loads at a primary copper smelter

	Dust emission (kg/yr)	
	Before additional secondary gas collection (1992)	After additional secondary gas collection (1996) ⁽¹⁾
Anode production (t/yr)	220 000	325 000
Diffuse emissions:		
• total smelter	66 490	32 200
• smelter roofline	56 160	17 020
Primary smelter stack emissions:		
• smelter/acid plant	7990	7600
• stack-secondary hoods	2547	2116
⁽¹⁾ Emissions after an investment of EUR 10 million into an improved diffuse gas capture and treatment system. Additional energy = 13.6 GWh/yr. <i>Source:</i> [158, Petersen, K. 1999]		

3.2.1 Energy consumption in copper production

Copper production requires energy in most stages, with the energy used in the electrolytic process being the most significant [25, OSPARCOM 1996]. The production energy (net) requirement for a number of processes using copper concentrate is in the range of 14–20 GJ/t of copper cathode [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]. The exact figure depends mainly on the concentrate (percentage of sulphur and iron), but the smelting unit used, the degree of oxygen enrichment and the collection and use of process heat also have an influence. Comparative data based solely on the type of smelter are therefore liable to inaccuracies. The utilisation of the energy content of the concentrate is more important and smelters that achieve autogenous operation have lower energy use.

Increasing the energy efficiency and reduction of external fuel consumption are also achieved by applying techniques to recover waste heat. The hot off-gas produced by the smelting furnace or converting vessel is sent to a waste heat boiler. In the boiler, gas is cooled by generating steam. The steam can be used inside, for example for drying concentrate (in direct steam coil drying, 150–180 kg of steam per tonne of concentrate) or for other process units, or outside for electricity production or district heating. Production of sulphuric acid from SO₂-containing off-gas also produces extra energy that could be recovered using a heat exchanger.

The energy consumed by the electrorefining stage of copper production is reported to be 300–400 kWh per tonne of copper, but the energy used is considerably higher when high-impurity anodes are electrorefined [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. The type of blank cathode used (stainless steel or copper) mainly influences the efficiency of the tank house [90, Traulsen, H. 1998] and this can range from 92 % to 97 % in terms of current efficiency.

3.2.2 Emissions and consumption data

The main sources of emissions and consumption for the production of copper are described below.

3.2.2.1 Primary copper input and output

The input and output data for a primary smelter depend on the copper content of the concentrate, the concentration of other metals (As, Se, Hg, Ag, Au, etc.) and the use of copper scrap or other materials that contain copper in the various parts of the process.

Figure 3.8 illustrates the inputs and potential outputs from a typical process for the production of primary copper and Figure 3.9 shows the gas treatment system.

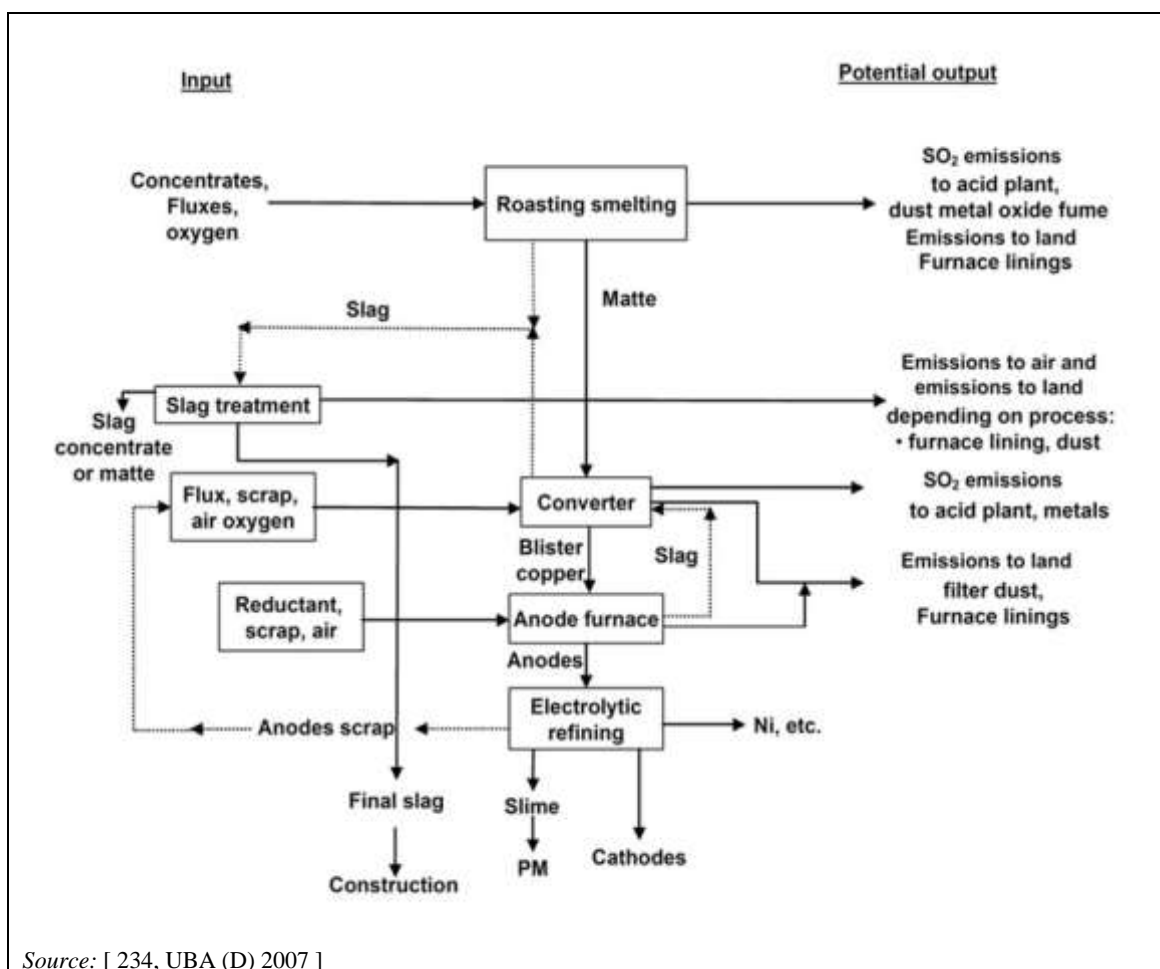


Figure 3.8: Generic input and output diagram for primary copper smelting

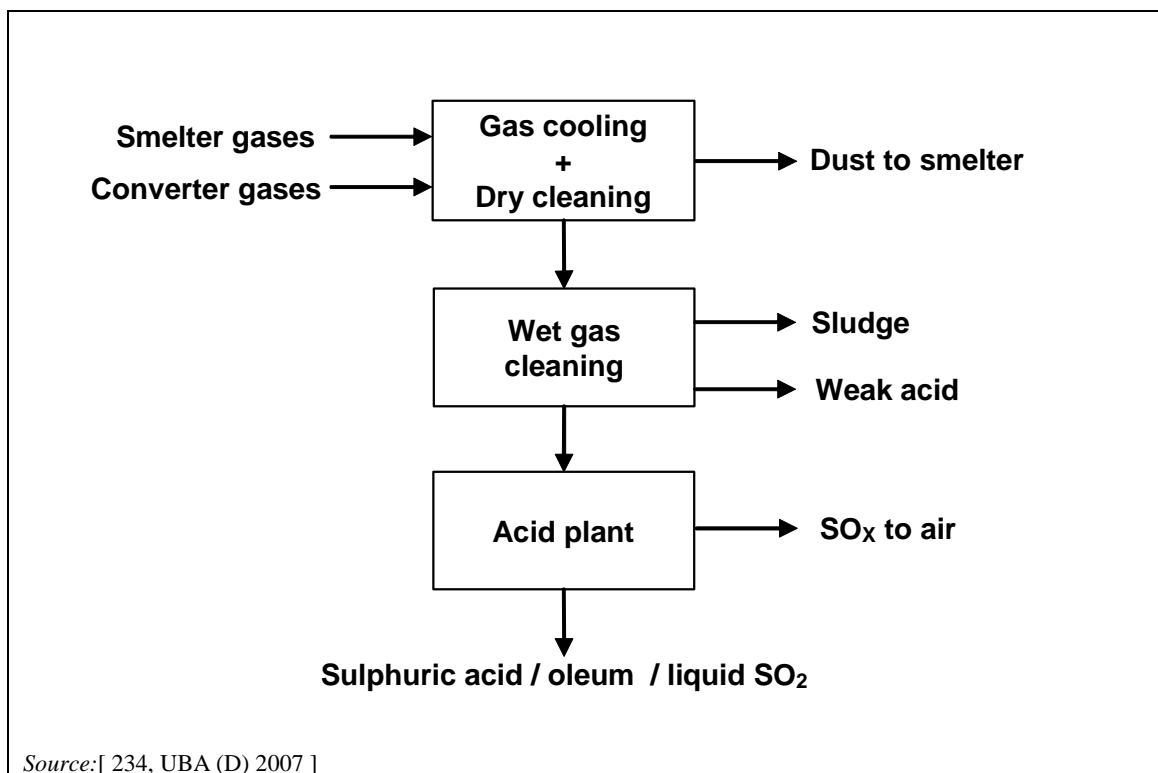


Figure 3.9: Treatment of smelter and converter gases

In the case of concentrate with low sulphur and high organic contents, the off-gases from the roasting/smelting stage are routed to a power plant to recover the energy content and are then desulphurised in a semi-dry scrubber.

Some primary copper smelters are integrated with secondary smelting facilities or with the production of lead or zinc oxide dust from mixed concentrates, etc. The input and output data are therefore very difficult to compare. Values for a complex process are given in Table 3.8 below. It should be noted that the main influence on the input and output data is the copper content of the concentrate or other raw material and so there may be variations in the data and comparisons are hence not significant. The recovery of copper during smelting and refining is more meaningful and is greater than 96 %.

Table 3.8: Example input and output data for a primary copper smelter/refinery

Input materials	Quantity (t/yr)	Products	Quantity (t/yr)
Copper concentrates	1 040 000	Copper cathode	366 000
Copper scrap	65 000	Copper salts	NI
Shredded material from electronic scraps	3600	Nickel sulphate	NI
External intermediate products	56 000	Precious metals	960
		Refined lead	17 000
		Sulphuric acid	1 018 000
		Slags	690 000

NB: NI = No information provided.
 Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007]

3.2.2.2 Secondary copper input and output data

As reported above, secondary raw material can be fed into various parts of the secondary processes depending on the purity, contents of other metals and degree of surface contamination [219, VDI 2007]. The degree of organic contamination affects the potential emissions and, in several process stages, afterburners are used to destroy organic compounds such as PCDD/F, depending on the degree of organic contamination present. Figure 3.10 and Figure 3.11 show generic input and output diagrams for secondary copper production.

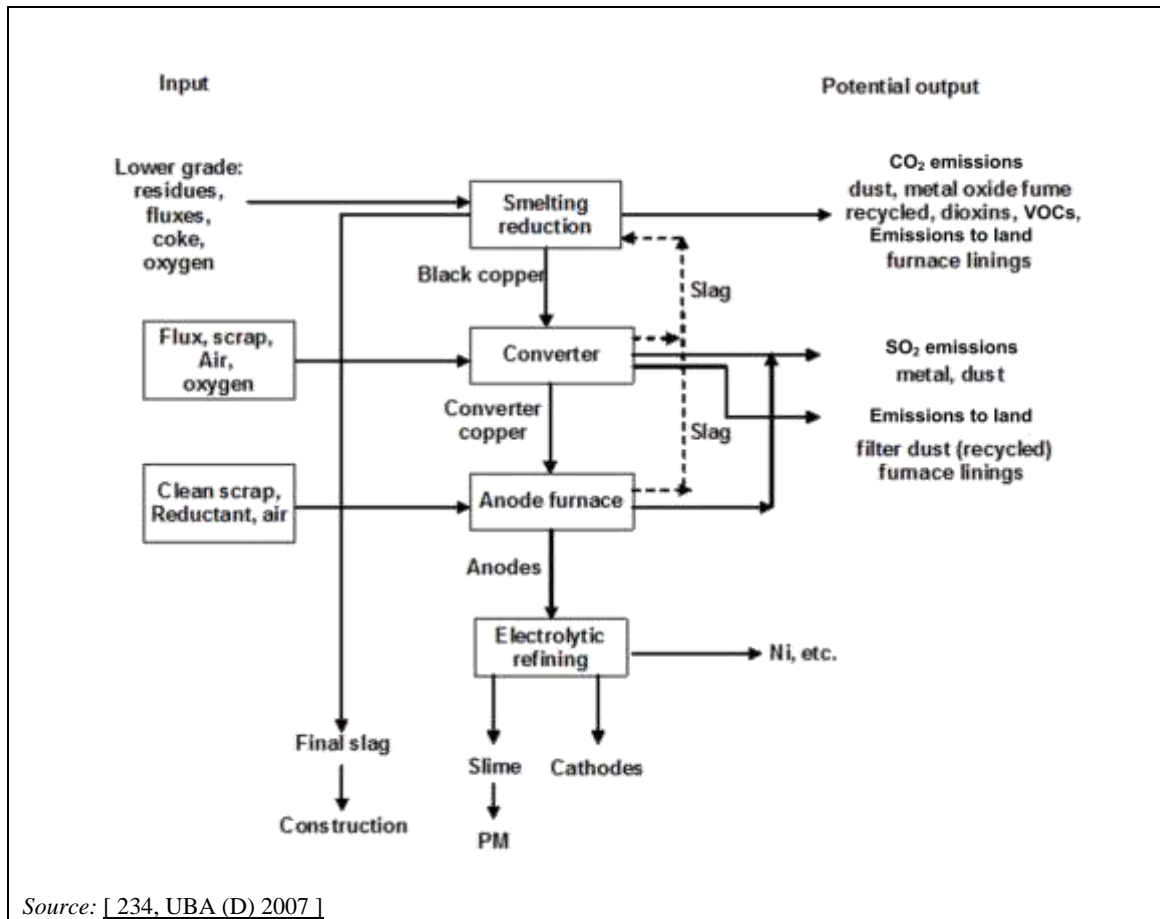
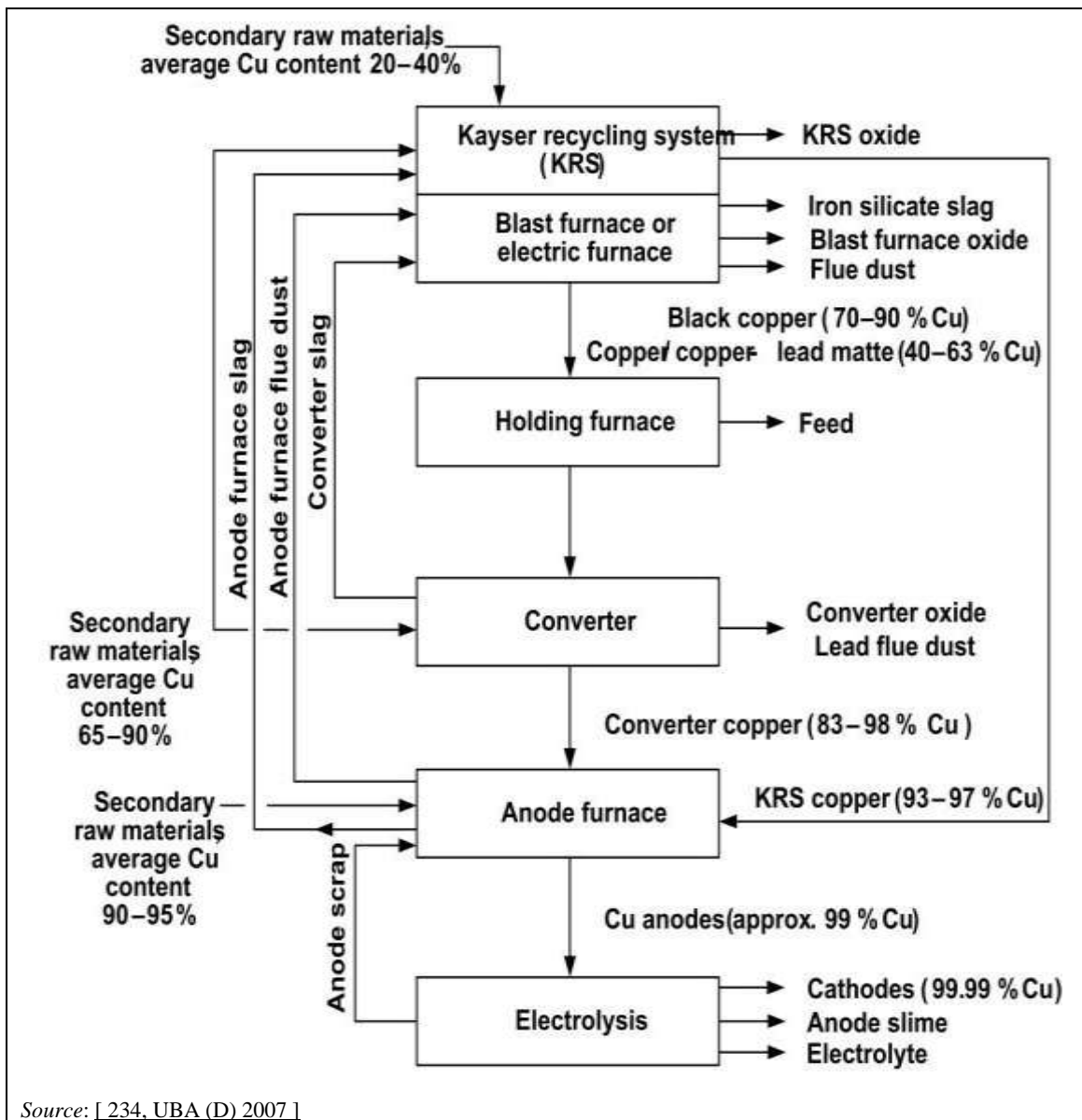


Figure 3.10: Generic input and output diagram for secondary copper smelting



Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Figure 3.11: Example of an input and output diagram from a secondary copper production site with a tin/lead recovery process

Many residues are recycled within the process and to other associated processes. Producers of non-ferrous metals, for example, lead, zinc and tin, use many of the residues as raw materials for their processes [219, VDI 2007]. Several sites have incorporated on-site processes to recover other metals from these residues.

Table 3.9 and Table 3.10 reflect one example of inputs and outputs of a secondary copper smelter, using a KRS furnace, a lead-tin alloy plant, a reverberatory hearth furnace and electrolysis. The ranges depend on the availability of materials.

Table 3.9: Input and output data for the secondary copper process shown in Figure 3.11

Inputs	Quantity (t/yr)	Outputs	Quantity (t/yr)
Copper scrap	100 000–120 000	Copper cathodes	185 000
Blister copper	10 000–30 000	Copper sulphate	10 500–2000
Copper anodes	0–40 000	Nickel sulphate	2500–3000
Copper alloy scrap	20 000–30 000	Zinc oxides	12 000–15 000
External residues and wastes (e.g. slags, dusts, ashes, sludges, sweeps)	50 000–70 000	Lead-tin alloys	2500–3000
Copper-iron material ⁽¹⁾	Approximately 50 000	Anode slime	1500–1800
Limestone	5000–7000	Slag	100 000–120 000
Silica	10 000–15 000	CO ₂	73 000–103 720
Coke	Approximately 1000		
Fuel (Oil)	20 000–30 000		

⁽¹⁾ Including electronic scrap.
 NB: CO₂ output equivalent to 0.4–0.56 t/t copper.
 Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Table 3.10: Differences in the operating parameters between a KRS furnace and a shaft furnace

Parameter	KRS furnace	Shaft furnace
t steam (GJ)/t burden	0.6 (1.7)–0.7 (2.0)	0.7 (1.8)
Burden throughput (t/h)	25–50 (including iron)	5–20
Volumetric off-gas flow (m ³ /h)	300 000	50 000–100 000
Dust content (mg/m ³)	5000–10 000	20 000–40 000
Main dust constituents (filter dust, depending on operating mode)		
Cu (wt-%)	3–6	< 5
Pb (wt-%)	15–20	10–40
Zn (wt-%)	35–50	30–60
Sn (wt-%)	2–4	1–5
Clean gas		
Dust content (mg/m ³)	1–5	1–5
SO ₂ (mg/m ³)	< 500 (daily) 1500 (peak half-hourly)	10–100
NO _x (mg/m ³)	10–100	30–100
PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/m ³)	< 0.1–0.4	0.3 with RTO
Off-gas temperature at stack outlet (°C)	80–90	75–90

Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

3.2.2.3 Emissions to air

Dust, metal compounds, organic carbon (which can result in the formation of PCDD/F) and sulphur dioxide can be emitted to air [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. The potential sources and relevance of potential emissions to air are shown in Table 3.11 and they are discussed later in this section.

Table 3.11: Significance of potential emissions to air from copper production process

Emission source	Dust and metal compounds	PCDD/F	Organic carbon	Sulphur compounds
Material handling	••	NR	NR	NR
Storage of raw materials	•••	NR	NR	NR
Drying	•••	•	•	•
Scrap treatment	••	••• (secondary)	••• (secondary)	NR
Smelting	•••	••• (secondary)	• (secondary)	••• (treated in a recovery plant)
Holding	•	NR	NR	NR
Converting	••	• (secondary)	• (secondary)	••• (treated in a recovery plant)
Refining	••	• (secondary)	• (secondary)	•
Melting/casting	• (•• for alloys)	•	• (secondary) + CO	NR
Ladle transfers	•••	NR	NR	•
Electrolysis	NR	NR	NR	NR
Slag treatment	••	NR	• CO (from electric furnace)	•
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant. NR = Not relevant.				

Oxides of nitrogen are relatively insignificant [23, DFIU-University Karlsruhe 1996] but may be absorbed in the sulphuric acid produced from a primary process; the use of oxygen enrichment can sometimes reduce the formation of nitrogen oxides by the thermal route. This depends on the point where oxygen is added; sometimes a higher concentration of nitrogen oxides is produced due to the increase in temperature, however the gas volume and total quantity is lower. Low-NO_x burners can be used.

The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible. To safeguard against harmful effects on the environment, emissions must be reduced. Accordingly, off-gases have to be captured at their source of generation and routed to an off-gas cleaning device (e.g. a capture system followed by a dust collector and scrubber) [219, VDI 2007].

The emissions can escape the process either as stack emissions or as diffuse emissions, depending on the abatement systems used and the quality of plant maintenance. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically and reported by on-site staff or off-site consultants to the competent authorities.

3.2.2.3.1 Carbon monoxide

In addition to the emissions outlined above, melting processes using furnaces that need to maintain a reducing atmosphere can produce a significant concentration of carbon monoxide. This is particularly the case for the melting of high-grade copper in shaft furnaces in combination with shape casting or the production of wire rod, as the products require controlled oxygen levels to obtain high conductivity. The process therefore operates under reducing

conditions and the carbon monoxide content of the gases may be elevated, with a typical level of approximately 5000 mg/Nm³. The burner control systems that are used can also minimise CO and maintain product quality. CO alarms can also be incorporated into the process. Typical CO production in a shaft furnace used for wire rod or semis production is 2000–11 000 g per tonne of copper [114, Eurometaux 1998]. In some installations, afterburning is used to remove hydrocarbons from the gases when scrap coated with organic matter is processed. CO is also destroyed at the same time and the emissions are reported to be ~ 45 g per tonne of copper [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999].

It is possible to predict ground-level concentrations of CO and this may be used to determine the effect of CO on local air quality, so that further abatement needs can be assessed locally. CO elimination by combustion of the shaft furnace gases with these levels of CO would require additional fuel, and consequently the emissions of CO₂ would increase exponentially.

Carbon monoxide is also produced during the operation of the slag cleaning furnace and the blast furnace and in some circumstances can be emitted in the off-gases. Afterburning can be used to remove the CO, giving typical concentrations in the range of 10–200 mg/Nm³. There is at least one example of oxygen being lanced into the top of a blast furnace above the reaction zone to provide an afterburning zone in the furnace body. This measure also destroys organic compounds such as PCDD/F. The electric furnaces used for slag cleaning and reduction processes are normally operated with afterburning, either within the furnace or in a special reaction chamber.

3.2.2.3.2 Dust and metal compounds

These can be emitted from most stages of the process. The techniques for dealing with emissions from the handling, storage, drying and treatment stages are covered in Chapter 2 and the application of these techniques should be used to prevent and minimise these emissions.

Direct and diffuse dust emissions from the smelting, converting and refining stages are potentially high. The significance of the emissions is also high as these process stages are used to remove volatile metals such as Zn, Pb, some As and Cd from the copper and these metals are present in the gas and partly in the dust.

The primary smelters usually contain dust very well and are effectively sealed to minimise diffuse emissions; concentrate burners or lances are used and are therefore easier to seal. Good maintenance of the furnaces and ducts is practised to minimise diffuse emissions, and the collected gases are treated in dust removal systems prior to the sulphur recovery processes.

Secondary smelters are more prone to diffuse emissions during charging and tapping cycles. These furnaces have large charging doors and the warping and mis-sealing of these doors is a significant factor. In secondary bath smelters, the burden is charged via an enclosed charging system, and diffuse emissions occur at the taphole and runners and are captured by hoods and routed to the gas-cleaning system. The gases that are collected are usually cooled and dust is removed from gas streams by electrostatic precipitators or fabric filters. High filtration efficiency is usually achieved and dust concentrations after abatement are in the range of < 1–5 mg/Nm³ [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999] [206, Traulsen, H. 1999].

Because of the batch mode of operation, the conversion and fire refining stages cannot usually be sealed as well as in the smelting stage. The feeding and transfer of matte, slag and metal is a significant potential source of diffuse fumes. More importantly, the use of a ladle or boat transfer system can inhibit the effectiveness of fume collection hoods, particularly with the Peirce-Smith or a similar style of converter. To capture or reduce emissions occurring during charging or emptying, converters are either enclosed or provided with secondary capture hoods (see Chapter 2). The off-gas extracted from the enclosure or hood should be treated in a manner appropriate for the SO₂ content. Gases from matte conversion will have higher concentrations of

SO₂ and, in all cases, metal oxides (As, Pb, etc.) need to be removed. Through hoods, additions of flux and other material can minimise the roll-out time of converters and so reduce the time that converters are separated from the primary gas collection system. The production of higher grade matte reduces the number of ladle transfers and therefore reduces the potential for fumes. Diffuse or non-collected emissions are therefore very important. These issues are dependent on efficient primary and, in some cases, secondary fume collection.

Another source of dust and metals emissions, especially in primary copper production, derives from the treatment of the copper-rich slag. When furnaces are used, the waste gases from the process are routed to a flue-gas treatment system. Bag filters, ESPs and wet scrubbers are used. Emissions of dust concentrations after a bag filter or ESP are in the range of 1–5 mg/Nm³. The Atlantic Copper plant in Huelva (Spain), using a wet scrubber, has measured, with spot samples, dust emissions between 10 mg/Nm³ and 80 mg/Nm³ (with an yearly average of 40 mg/Nm³).

The fire refining process is also performed using furnaces and is common in primary and secondary copper production. Dust emissions are reduced usually using a bag filter. Dust emissions between < 1 mg/Nm³ and 5 mg/Nm³ have been reported. The Atlantic Copper plant in Huelva, using a combination of a wet scrubber and a wet ESP, has measured, with spot samples, dust emissions between < 5 mg/Nm³ and 20 mg/Nm³ (with an yearly average of 6 mg/Nm³).

A centralised secondary off-gas treatment system is used mainly by the primary copper production installation in order to optimise the performance of the abatement system. A bag filter is used for dust abatement and daily average dust emissions between < 1 mg/Nm³ and 5 mg/Nm³ are achieved. The Aurubis plant in Pirdop (Bulgaria), using a combination of a wet scrubber and a bag filter, has reported daily average emissions of dust between 2.5 mg/Nm³ and 23 mg/Nm³.

The melting and casting stages used during the production of wire rod, semis, etc. are also potential sources of dust and metals. The production of copper alloys, such as brasses, results in significant fumes (ZnO) at the casting stage and these require efficient collection. The dust burden is generally low but heat/energy can be recovered, if practicable. Efficient fume collection and fabric filters are usually used [114, Eurometaux 1998].

Emissions of metals are strongly dependent on the composition of the dust produced by the processes. The composition varies widely and is influenced by the process that is the source of dust and by the raw materials that are being processed. For example, the dust produced by a scrap converter is totally different to that of a matte converter and this will vary depending on the operating phase of the process (charging, blowing, casting, poling, etc.) at the time of the measurement, on the input material, etc. Table 3.12 and Table 3.13 show the percentage of metals in the dust from various processes and the measured ranges from a number of copper processes.

Table 3.12: Main constituents of dust from copper processes

Component	Concentrate to matte smelting furnace ESP dust	Blast furnace dust	Scrap converter dust	Matte converter ESP dust	Electric slag cleaning furnace dust	Anode furnace dust
Pb (%)	0.1–5	5–50	5–30	2–25	2–15	2–20
Zn (%)	0.1–10	20–60	25–70	5–70	25–60	5–40
Sn (%)	0.1–1	0.2–5	1–20	0.1–4	NR	NR
Cu (%)	5–30	2–12	2–15	10–25	0.5–2.5	15–25
As (%)	0.1–4	NR	NR	NR	NR	0.5–10
Ni (%)	0.1–1	0.1–1	NR	0.1–1	NR	NR

NB: NR = Not relevant.
Source: [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]

The variations between the individual measurements in a plant are greater than the differences between blast furnaces, electric furnaces, converters and anode furnaces. Typical ranges of measured concentrations downstream of a filtering separator of all copper-producing processes are shown in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Concentrations of dust constituents and PCDD/F in the clean gas of all unit processes from a secondary copper smelter

Gas constituents	Unit	Typical range in clean gas
Mercury (Hg)	mg/m ³	0.001–0.05
Thallium (Tl)	mg/m ³	< 0.02
Lead (Pb)	mg/m ³	0.04–1
Cobalt (Co)	mg/m ³	< 0.02
Nickel (Ni)	mg/m ³	0.01–0.1
Selenium (Se)	mg/m ³	0.01–0.1
Tellurium (Te)	mg/m ³	< 0.02
Antimony (Sb)	mg/m ³	< 0.01–0.1
Chromium (Cr)	mg/m ³	0.01–0.1
Cyanide (CN)	mg/m ³	< 0.05
Fluoride (F)	mg/m ³	< 0.05
Copper (Cu)	mg/m ³	0.02–1
Manganese (Mn)	mg/m ³	< 0.02
Vanadium (V)	mg/m ³	< 0.02
Tin (Sn)	mg/m ³	0.01–0.15
Arsenic (As)	mg/m ³	< 0.01–0.15
Cadmium (Cd)	mg/m ³	< 0.001–0.05
PCDD/F (total of dust-borne and gaseous fractions)	ng I-TEQ/m ³	0.01–0.4
<i>Source: [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]</i>		

3.2.2.3.3 Organic carbon compounds

Organic carbon compounds can be emitted during primary production from the drying stage depending on the materials used for ore treatment and the fuel used for drying. For secondary production, the most significant sources are from the scrap treatment, and smelting and refining stages. The conversion stage for secondary copper is also a potential source if scrap contaminated with organic material is added to the converter and complete combustion is not achieved; this is particularly the case for diffuse emissions. Organic carbon compounds can be emitted if oily material is used as feed and can account for 5–100 g per tonne of copper or between 1 mg/Nm³ and 10 mg/Nm³ [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007]. VOCs may also be emitted from solvent degreasing or solvent extraction processes.

3.2.2.3.4 PCDD/F

The organic carbon compounds that can be emitted include PCDD/F, resulting from the poor combustion of oil and plastic in the feed material and from de novo synthesis if the gases are not cooled rapidly enough. Scrap treatment to remove organic contamination can be practised but usually afterburners are used to treat the gases produced, followed by rapid cooling. When it is not possible to treat the gases from the furnaces in an afterburner, they can be oxidised by adding oxygen above the melting zone. It is also possible to identify organic contamination of secondary raw materials so that the most appropriate furnace and abatement combination can be used to prevent the emission of smoke and fumes and the associated PCDD/F. Melting scrap

that is contaminated with organic material is also a potential source of PCDD/F in the semis industry [219, VDI 2007].

It has been reported that, in the case of primary smelting and converting, the high operating temperatures used destroy organic compounds and the presence of sulphur dioxide inhibits de novo synthesis of PCDD/F.

Chapter 2 describes some of the factors that influence the emissions of PCDD/F. The techniques used for the abatement of PCDD/F in this sector include afterburning, controlled gas handling and cooling, and effective dust removal; activated carbon adsorption is also used.

PCDD/F emissions of $< 0.001\text{--}0.1$ ng I-TEQ/m³ were measured downstream of a KRS, an electric furnace and two converters not equipped with secondary PCDD/F control devices. PCDD/F emissions measured downstream of an anode reverberatory furnace were of the order of 0.13 ng I-TEQ/m³ on average. Being designed as a countercurrent reactor, the blast furnace has relatively low off-gas temperatures, resulting in elevated PCDD/F emissions. Before the implementation of emission control measures, PCDD/F levels of between 2.3 ng I-TEQ/m³ and 29.5 ng I-TEQ/m³ were measured in blast furnace units. At a blast furnace with cold top gas, the dioxin emissions downstream of the afterburning chamber were reduced to < 0.2 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ by the application of carbon-lime additives [219, VDI 2007].

If large amounts of electronic scrap with brominated flame retardants are used as feedstocks, this may result in the formation of mixed halogenated dioxins. In the case of copper remelting/refining, the conditions may exist for the formation of PCDD/F, in particular when using scrap materials and chips contaminated with chlorine from the cutting fluids used.

3.2.2.3.5 Sulphur dioxide

The most significant sources of sulphur dioxide are the roasting, smelting and converting stages of primary copper production using sulphidic concentrates. Diffuse emissions are expected but can be collected in several ways [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. Sulphur dioxide can also be emitted from the concentrate drying stage (mainly from the fuel used in the burner) and from the primary refining stages where the blister copper contains 0.03–0.1 % dissolved sulphur. The concentration in the gas is usually very low and simple scrubbing of the gases is generally used if required.

If not applying partial roasting and calcine smelting to matte in separate units because of special feed material, the roasting of copper concentrates is carried out simultaneously with smelting. The use of sealed furnaces for smelting allows the sulphur dioxide to be collected efficiently. All of the smelters in the EU-28 use oxygen enrichment, which produces a high sulphur dioxide concentration. This therefore allows the off-gas volumes to be minimised and the gas-handling systems including the sulphuric acid plants to be reduced in size. Very high levels of oxygen enrichment can increase the concentration of sulphur trioxide in the gases passing to an acid plant. This increased amount of sulphur trioxide in the gas from the furnace is absorbed in the scrubbers and increases the amount of weak acid for treatment, other uses or disposal. Contact sulphuric acid plants with four or five passes are used to convert the gases. In some cases, single contact plants are used if there is a low (< 5 %) sulphur dioxide content, otherwise double contact/double absorption plants are used [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. If required, liquid sulphur dioxide can be produced from part of the sulphur dioxide contained in the gas.

In the case of copper concentrate with a low sulphur content and high organic carbon content, the smelting may be carried out in a shaft/blast furnace. In such cases, off-gases are incinerated in a local power plant as additional fuel. Flue-gases from the power plant are desulphurised.

The matte conversion stage also produces a significant concentration of sulphur dioxide. There are two potential problems when using batch-fed converters such as the Peirce-Smith or a similar style of converter. Firstly, gas collection is not totally efficient and the same remarks

apply as those made above in Section 3.2.2.3.2. Secondly, the sulphur dioxide concentration in the gases varies significantly depending on the stage of conversion and can cause problems with sulphur dioxide removal systems unless they are designed specifically to take account of this variation. These gases are mixed with the steady, more concentrated gases produced by the primary smelter to maintain autothermal operation of the sulphuric acid plant. Using several converters in a phased sequential operation combining the off-gases can also reduce this effect. Continuous processes such as the Mitsubishi process and the Kennecott-Outotec flash smelt/flash conversion process maintain a high and constant concentration of sulphur dioxide and do not need ladle transfers [66, George, D.B. et al. 1995], [72, Shibasaki, T. et al. 1993]. The gas volumes that are produced are consequently lower. This means that the concentration of sulphur dioxide is higher in the effluent gas but the mass is much smaller, at least during gas handling, cleaning and cooling. In the contact plant, the SO₂ to O₂ ratio should be adjusted and the SO₂ concentration is diluted down to the maximum tolerable concentration.

After heat recovery and cleaning of the gases, the sulphur dioxide in the gas from the smelting stages is converted to sulphur trioxide (SO₃). Sulphuric acid plants in the European copper industry have a reported conversion efficiency of 99.5 % to more than 99.9 % (excluding start-up, etc.) [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. A very small amount of SO₃ is not absorbed and is emitted together with the residual SO₂ [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. During start-up and shutdown there may be occasions when weak gases are emitted. These events need to be identified for individual installations and many companies have made significant improvements to the process control equipment to reduce these emissions. The height of the stack used for the acid plant gases usually takes these factors into account to reduce the local impact.

Sulphur dioxide may also be present in the gases produced during secondary smelting and converting stages and fire refining due to the sulphur content of the fuel or raw materials. In some cases, scrubbers (dry, semi-dry or wet) are used to remove the SO₂ and in one case the gases from an electric furnace (and a Cu/Pb converter) are diverted to a primary copper smelter sulphuric acid plant when certain raw materials are present.

Emissions of SO₂, after an abatement system, are in the range of 70–500 mg/Nm³ as a yearly average measured continuously. The Metallo-Chimique plant in Beerse (Belgium), using a bag filter with Sorbalit injection, has measured SO₂ emissions from the smelter between 0 mg/Nm³ and 1471 mg/Nm³ as an hourly average, and SO₂ emissions from the converter between 0 mg/Nm³ and 2765 mg/Nm³ as an hourly average.

3.2.2.3.6 Diffuse emissions

In pyrometallurgical plants, diffuse emissions may occur during both charging and tapping operations, as well as during the transfer of the molten products or intermediates from one operation to another. It is particularly important within this context that the prevailing temperatures of the various metal, slag or matte fractions are above the volatilisation points of the low-boiling accompanying metals (e.g. Zn, Pb and Sn) and their oxides, so that the latter accumulate in the furnace off-gas that is channelled and treated by the flue-gas treatment system. As far as possible, diffuse emissions should be captured at the source via secondary hoods and the extracted off-gas routed to the gas-cleaning system.

In secondary smelters with the low dust loads of the secondary hood off-gas, it is sometimes advantageous to combine this off-gas stream with the furnace off-gas prior to cleaning since this can improve the filtration properties of the total off-gas stream. Further diffuse emissions may occur during transport due to the resuspension of dust and the handling of the molten materials, in particular, during transfer or pouring operations. Moreover, dust emissions are generated during the handling and pretreatment of the secondary raw materials (e.g. size reduction, shredding, pelletising). The emissions at secondary copper smelters can be dominated by diffuse dust emissions which account for approximately 70 % of total emissions.[234, UBA (D) 2007].

3.2.2.3.7 Nitrogen oxides

The production stages for copper usually rely on high temperatures but are also associated with the use of oxygen. This reduces the partial pressure of nitrogen in the flame and reduces nitrogen oxide formation, provided that nitrogen is not present in great amounts in the very hot areas. Typical levels for the emissions of nitrogen oxides for secondary copper are reported to be in the range of 50–500 mg/Nm³, depending on the furnace and type of operation. For NO_x, the use of highly efficient processes (e.g. Contimelt) requires a balance to be established locally between energy use and achieved value.

Nitrogen oxides from primary processes are mainly absorbed in the sulphuric acid produced [130, Eurometaux 1998], (see also Table 2.17).

3.2.2.3.8 Summary of emissions to air

Emissions are summarised in Table 3.14, Table 3.15 and Table 3.16.

Table 3.14: Specific emissions to air from some primary and secondary processes

Process type	Dust (g/t of metal produced)	Sulphur dioxide (g/t of metal produced)	Cu (g/t of metal produced)	Pb (g/t of metal produced)	As (g/t of metal produced)
Primary Cu	130–800	6000–18 000	25–130	6–45	2–27
Secondary Cu	100–1000	500–3500	8–100	10–60	0.5–5
Melt shop semis fabrication	21	NA	4	NA	0.15
Wire rod production	10	NA	4	NA	0.05
NB: NA = Not applicable. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]					

Table 3.15: Achievable emissions from some secondary smelting and remelting/refining processes (with semis fabrication)

Parameter	CO	Dust	PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	NO _x	SO ₂	CO	SO _x	HCl	HF	Pb	Zn	Cu	O ₂	Sn	V	As	Hg	Ni	Cd	Temp.	Organic C	PCDD/PCDF
Units	mg/Nm ³													%	mg/Nm ³				°C	mg/Nm ³	ng I-TEQ		
Shaft furnace	< 0.1	0.5	0.53	0.39	45	0.2	< 0.1	NA	NA	NA	0.012	0.009	0.008	12	NA	NA	0.001	0.006	0.001	0.0001	199	1.2	0.3
Converter furnace	NA	0.75	NA	NA	7.3	NA	11.3	4.7	NA	NA	0.097	0.126	0.0334	17.8	NA	NA	0.0012	0.002 ₈	0.0033	0.0006	30	1.4	NA
Anode furnace	NA	2.3	1.5	1.02	179	24.5	NA	24.5	7.17	3.9	0.36	0.636	0.507	17.5	0.337	< 0.0005	NA	0.17	NA	0.0001	98	3.4	NA
Slag production unit	NA	< 0.3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Asarco furnace	NA	0.5	0.25	0.25	21	17	NA	17	2.62	NA	NA	NA	0.0098	17.4	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	112	9.34	0.202
Thermal treatment of chips	NA	5	NA	NA	200	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	20	0.1
Electrically heated furnace	NA	5	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	20	0.1
Rotary drum furnace	NA	5	NA	NA	300	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	50	0.1
Shaft furnace (Asarco)	NA	0.5–5	NA	NA	21–300	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	9–50	0.2–0.4
Milling (Plant B)	NA	< 10	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	< 50	NA

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007]

Table 3.16: Emissions and operating data from converters in secondary copper production

Operating parameter	Unit	Typical value or range	
		Scrap converter	Matte converter
Converter copper yield per batch	t	8–25	30–300
Number of batches per day		4–6	2–3
Batch duration	h	4–6	5–8
Blowing time/batch	h	2–3.5	4–7
Raw gas (including secondary hood off-gas)			
Volumetric off-gas flow	m ³ /h	80 000–150 000	80 000–150 000
Dust content	mg/m ³	10 000–30 000	10 000–30 000
Main dust constituents (depending on operating mode)			
Zn	wt-%	25–70	1–10
Sn	wt-%	1–20	1–5
Pb	wt-%	5–30	30–55
Clean gas (including secondary hood off-gas)			
Dust content ⁽¹⁾	mg/m ³	1–5	NA ⁽²⁾
SO ₂	mg/m ³	200–500 ⁽³⁾	NA ⁽²⁾
NO _x (expressed as NO ₂)	mg/m ³	20–30	NA ⁽²⁾
Off-gas temperature at stack outlet	°C	80–90	NA ⁽²⁾
⁽¹⁾ For dust constituents, see Table 3.10. ⁽²⁾ Matte converter off-gases are routed to the contact process unit for sulphuric acid production. ⁽³⁾ Continuous monitoring: daily mean value < 500 mg/m ³ ; max. half-hourly mean value < 1500 mg/m ³ . NB: NA = Not applicable. Source: [206, Traulsen, H. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007]			

3.2.2.4 Emissions to water

Pyrometallurgical processes use significant quantities of cooling water (cooling systems are covered in Chapter 2 and in a separate horizontal BREF on Industrial Cooling Systems [342, COM 2001]). Suspended solids, metal compounds and oils can be emitted to water from these sources. All waste water is treated to remove dissolved metals and solids. In a number of installations, cooling water and treated waste water including rainwater are reused or recycled within the processes but all sources should be treated separately as required [206, Traulsen, H. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007]. The potential sources and relevance of potential emissions to water are shown in Table 3.17 and discussed later in this section [219, VDI 2007].

Table 3.17: Significance of potential emissions to water from copper production processes

Emission Source	Suspended solids	Metal compounds	Oil
Surface drainage	•••	••	•••
Cooling water for direct cooling	•••	•••	•
Cooling water for indirect cooling	•	•	NR
Granulating water	•••	••	NR
Leaching (if not closed circuit)	•••	•••	•
Pickling	••	•••	•••
Tank house (if not closed circuit)	NR	•••	NR
Scrubbing systems	•••	•••	NR
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant. NR = Not relevant. Open leaching circuits and open circuits in tank houses are not used in the EU-28.			

The ecotoxicology of metals in water is discussed in Annex 13.2.2 and a methodology for determining their impact is given in the MERAG report [301, MERAG 2007].

3.2.2.4.1 Suspended solids and metal compounds

These can be emitted from several stages of the process, the most significant being waste waters and rinses from pickling operations. The techniques for dealing with emissions from raw material handling and storage areas are covered in Chapter 2 and the application of these techniques is used to prevent or minimise these emissions. Surface water can result from either rainfall or from the wetting of stored material to prevent dust formation.

Potential sources of suspended solids and metal compounds are the cooling, granulating and leaching systems. In general, these systems are either sealed and the water is recirculated or they are non-contact.

Washing water, spent electrolyte and process effluents are also produced in the tank houses and pickling lines and by scrubbers. These effluents contain significant quantities of metal compounds in the solution and are treated along with liquid bled from the sealed cooling and granulating systems before discharge to water [27, M. Barry et al. 1993]. System leakage can occur and monitoring arrangements are needed for the pipework and storage tanks, specifically for pipelines outside the plant and in areas without a collection system. Waste water treatment processes are described in Chapter 2 and the methods used depend on the contaminants present, the destination of the treated water and the local environmental quality.

The amount of water discharged is also a significant issue as some installations use extensive water recirculation systems. One copper smelter reported that the discharge volume is 3000 m³/d, while similar plants that do not recirculate to the same extent discharge more than 100 000 m³/d. The mass emission of pollutants is therefore the factor that should be used. [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Waste water emissions are summarised in Table 3.18, Table 3.19, Table 3.20 and Table 3.21.

Table 3.18: Annual concentrations of the main constituents in the untreated waste water from a primary copper smelter

Source	Main components before treatment (mg/l)					
	Cu	Pb	As	Ni	Cd	Zn
Process water	2000	500	10 000	1000	500	1000
Precipitation water ⁽¹⁾	15–30	< 5	< 2	< 2	< 0.5	1–10
Direct cooling water	< 3	< 0.5	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.05	< 0.5

⁽¹⁾ Calculated from the analysis of the precipitation sludge and based on emission values which are accessible to the authority.
 Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Table 3.19: Example of the metal content in various waste waters after treatment

	Flow	Main components (mg/l)					
	(m ³ /yr)	Cu	Pb	As	Ni	Cd	Zn
Process water	180 000	0.01–0.2	0.001–0.04	0.01–0.1	0.004–0.15	0.0001–0.1	0.01–0.2
Surface run-off	700 000	0.01–0.4	0.005–0.2	0.003–0.07	0.002–0.4	0.0002–0.1	0.03–0.4
Direct cooling water	11 300 000	0.01–0.25	0.001–0.1	0.001–0.1	0.002–0.06	0.0001–0.003	0.02–0.5
Cooling water (total)	650 000 000	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR

NB: Table refers to a combined primary/secondary copper smelter/refinery complex located on a river close to the sea producing 370 000 tonnes of Cu cathode per year. Metal concentrations (mg/l) are given as yearly averages.
NR = Not reported.
Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

In the example quoted above in Table 3.19, 20–50 kg of sludge per m³ of waste water arise, mainly depending on the arsenic content of the raw material, which varies from 5 % to 20 %, and on the iron content, which ranges from 25 % to 45 %.

Table 3.20: Overall pollutant rate of waste water discharges from two complex primary copper plants

Main components Overall pollutant rate (g/t)	Cu	Pb	As	Ni	Cd	Zn
Plant A producing Cu cathodes referred to above in Table 3.19	1–2.3	0.03–0.3	0.05–0.23	0.1–0.2	0.02–0.05	0.16–0.8
Plant B treating all waste water and surface water from historically polluted areas	5–10	0.3–1.0	2.5–5.0	5–10	0.1–0.3	2–5

Source: [238, ECI 2012]

Table 3.21: Annual loads discharged to water from a copper semis production plant

Substance	Value (kg/yr)
Cu	11
Ni	3
Zn	25
Pb	1
Cr	1
As	0.01
Cd	0.01
Hg	0.01
Sn	1

NB: Effluent discharge: 35 000 m³/yr.
Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

Sludges are produced in all of the processes and are usually sent for controlled disposal. In some cases, they are returned to the smelter to recover the metallic fraction.

3.2.2.4.2 Oil

Oil can be present on secondary raw materials and can be washed from the storage areas. The techniques used for storage are covered in Section 2.12.4.1. Waxes and oils are used in the coating and drawing processes associated with the production of rods and other shapes and their presence is taken into account to prevent contamination of water.

3.2.2.5 Process residues

Some intermediate products generated during copper production are classified as hazardous waste according to the Directive 2008/98/EC. Most of these materials, however, contain recoverable quantities of copper and other non-ferrous metals and are therefore used as raw materials in their own right. Depending on their characteristics and use, some copper residues could also be considered by-products, such as the final slag, according to REACH C1. Flue-dusts from all sources can also be reused in the smelting process and, to prevent dust formation during handling, they are carefully handled, usually in specially designed systems, or are already pretreated for the further processing requirements [219, VDI 2007]. Some furnace linings can also be reused as a taphole mass or in the process and may be incorporated in the slag. In other cases, the linings are disposed of. The sources of some residues and their potential uses are given in Table 3.22, Table 3.23 and Table 3.24.

Table 3.22: Residues from the production of copper

Process source	Residue	End use
Abatement systems	Filter dusts	Raw material for Cu (returned to smelter) Gypsum for sale Calcium source for smelter Pb, Zn and other metals
	Mercury compounds	Chemical industry
	Spent catalysts and acid	Neutralisation
	Sulphuric acid sludges Weak acid	Other uses, e.g. leaching decomposition For SO ₂
Smelter	Slag	To slag furnace or other separation Internal recycling
	Furnace linings	Recovery or disposal
Converter	Slag	To smelter - internal recycling
Slag furnace	Slag	Abrasive, construction material
Refining (anode) furnace	Slag	To smelter - internal recycling
Tank house	Electrolyte bleed	Ni salts or metal, Cu recovery, acid recovery
	Spent anodes	Other internal recycling: converter (cooling) or anode furnace
	Anode slime	Precious metals recovery
Melting/smelting	Skimmings and slag	Raw material for metal recovery
Slag flotation	Slag	Filler in cement production
Waste water treatment	Clean gypsum	Reuse in smelter as source of calcium
General	Oils	Oil recovery
Hydrometallurgy	Depleted electrolyte	Leaching
Semis production	Acid pickling solutions and rinses	Disposal as waste if low in non-ferrous metals or sold for metal recovery
Rod production	Acid pickling solutions (if applied)	Recovery in separate electrolytic cell
	Scale	Cu recovery
<i>Source: [130, Eurometaux 1998]</i>		

Table 3.23: Residues from primary and secondary smelting processes in Germany

Production step	Residue	Quantity (t/yr)	Use or treatment option
Primary smelting and electrolysis plant(460 000 t anodes/yr)			
Flash smelting furnace	Dust	100 000	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
	Slag	700 000	Further processing in the electric furnace
Electric furnace (slag cleaning)	Dust	400	External use for Zn/Pb production
	Slag	700 000	External use as construction material
Copper converter	Dust	4000	Internal recycling to the flash smelter or electric furnace (secondary plant)
	Slag	160 000	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
Anode furnace	Dust	200	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
	Slag	20 000	Internal use at the copper converter
Electrolysis	Anode slime (wet)	3000	Recovery of precious metals and Se, Te, Pb
Sulphuric acid plant	Sulphuric acid	1 000 000	By-product for sale
	Final liquor	70 000	Internal use in the chemical plant for the production of nickel sulphate, As_2O_3
Secondary smelting and electrolysis plant			
Electric furnace off-gas treatment	Dust	10 000	By-product for sale to recover Zn
	Slag	60 000	External use as construction material
Converter	Dust	400	Internal use at electric furnace
	Slag	15 000	Internal use at electric furnace
Contimelt process	Dust	1000	Internal use at the flash smelter/electric furnace
	Slag	2000	Internal use at the copper converter
Scrap converter/ TLA plant	Dust	1000	Further processing in the TLA plant
	Slag	2000	Internal use at the electric furnace
Process waste water treatment plant	Sludge	2000	Disposal as hazardous waste
General	Household refuse	500	
Secondary smelting and electrolysis plant			
KRS, off-gas treatment	Iron silicate slag	120–200	Construction material on disposal site
	KRS oxide	20–40	Sale
Mixed tin furnace	Mixed tin	50	Sale
Electrolysis	Anode slime	13	Sale
	Nickel sulphate	20	Sale
Waste water treatment	Precipitated sludge	NA	Disposal as hazardous waste
All steps	Anode remains	NA	Internal recirculation
NB: NA = Not applicable. TLA = Tin-lead alloy. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]			

Table 3.24: Residues from some remelting/refining processes (with semis fabrication)

Production step	Residue	Quantity (kg/t copper product)	Use or treatment option
Remelting/refining (with semis fabrication)			
Shaft furnace	Dross	NA	NA
	Flue-dust	0.7–1	To secondary copper production
	Refractory lining	0.5–1.5	Controlled disposal
	Sludge	2–4	Controlled disposal
	Production scrap	39	Internal recirculation
Induction furnace	Dross	8–15	Internal recirculation
	Flue-dust	4–7	To secondary copper production
	Refractory lining	2	Recovery of metals
	Copper mould	NA	NA
	Graphite mould	< 0.01	Recovery of graphite
NB: NA = Not applicable. Source: [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]			

Wastes destined for disposal are kept to a minimum and mainly consist of acid slimes from the sulphuric acid plants, which are treated and sent for disposal, or furnace linings, some of which cannot be recovered in the process. In some cases, tailings from the processing of smelter or converter slag by flotation are produced. These tailings are disposed of on site or at the mine site, if it is close by. Other wastes are either domestic or demolition wastes.

Table 3.25 and Table 3.26 show the potential use of the process residues. Many of the residues are used as raw materials for the production of other metals or are recycled within the copper production route [206, Traulsen, H. 1999].

Table 3.25: Potential uses and examples of the quantity of residues produced by a complex primary and secondary installation

Process unit	Residue	Amount (t/yr)	Use/treatment option
Primary plant: Annual cathode production: primary copper 220 000 t/yr			
Flash smelting furnace	Dust	100 000	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
	Slag	400 000	Further processing in the electric furnace
Electric furnace	Dust	400	External use for Zn/Pb production
	Slag	400 000	External use as construction material
Copper converter	Dust	4000	Internal recycling to the flash smelter or electric furnace (sec. plant)
	Slag	150 000	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
Anode furnace	Dust	200	Internal use at the flash smelting furnace
	Slag	20 000	Internal use at the copper converter
Sulphuric acid plant	Sulphuric acid	656 000	By-product for sale
Secondary plant: Annual cathode production: secondary copper 150 000 t/yr			
Electric furnace	Dust	10 000	By-product for sale to recover Zn
	Slag	40 000	External use as construction material
Converter	Dust	400	Internal use at the electric furnace
	Slag	10 000	Internal use at the electric furnace
Contimelt process	Dust	1000	Internal use at the flash smelter/electric furnace
	Slag	2000	Internal use at the copper converter
Scrap converter/TLA plant	Dust	1000	Further processing in TLA plant
	Slag	2000	Internal use at the electric furnace
Others			
Electrolysis	Anode slime (wet weight)	3000	Internal use at the chemical plant for the recovery of precious metals and Se, Te, Pb
	Final liquor	35 000 m ³	Internal use at the chemical plant for the production of nickel sulphate, As ₂ O ₃ , H ₂ SO ₄
Process waste water treatment plant	Sludge (wet weight)	1500	Disposal as hazardous waste
General	Household refuse	400	NA
NB: NA = Not applicable. TLA = Tin-lead alloy. Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]			

Table 3.26: Potential uses and examples of the quantity of residues produced by a secondary installation

Process unit	Residue	Amount (t/yr)	Use/treatment option
Blast furnace	Slag	30 000–35 000	Sold as construction material
	Oxide from afterburning chamber, boiler and cooler	700–800	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Filter oxide	1000–1300	External use to recover Zn, Pb, etc.
Converters	Slag	17 000–19 000	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Oxide from afterburning chamber	250–300	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Oxide from cooler	100	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Residues	300	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Filter oxide	3500–3700	External use to recover Zn, Pb, etc.
Anode furnace	Anode copper residues	7000–8000	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Filter oxide	150	Internal use at the blast furnace
	Residues from furnace	200	Internal use at the blast furnace
Electrolysis	Anode slime	360	External use
	Nickel sulphate	700	External use
General	Household refuse	NA	NA

NB: Annual production 60 000 t/yr cathode.
NA = Not applicable.
Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

Slags contain varying amounts of copper and many are reused or treated to recover the metal content. Slag treatment is often carried out in a thermal process to produce an inert slag. The composition of some copper smelting slags before slag cleaning treatment is shown in Table 3.27.

Table 3.27: Composition of some copper smelting slags before slag cleaning treatment

Component	Flash furnace	Peirce-Smith converter	Combined slag after electric furnace slag cleaning
	(wt-%)		
Copper	1–2.5	3–5	0.3–0.8
Iron (total)	38–45	40–45	40–43
Silica	30–33	25	28–32
Magnetite	4–18	25	< 2

Source: [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]

Many of the slags produced by slag treatment processes contain very low levels of leachable metals and are stable. They are frequently sold as products for the abrasives and construction industries as they have excellent mechanical properties which are sometimes superior to those of competing natural minerals [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]. Oils from various sources within the process can be recovered.

3.2.2.6 Operating data from some copper production processes

Operating data for some copper processes are given in Table 3.28 to Table 3.37.

Table 3.28: Operating data for a copper electrorefining unit

Operating parameter	Unit	Typical value or range
Total power consumption	kWh/t copper cathode	360–380
Current density	A/m ²	320–350
Anode slime yield	kg/t copper cathode	5–12
Electrolyte temperature	°C	60–68
Yield	%	> 95
Anode scrap	%	10–12
Electrolyte composition		
H ₂ SO ₄	g/l	150–200
Cu	g/l	40–50
Ni	g/l	16–22
As	g/l	5–12
NB: Permanent cathode plates system. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]		

Table 3.29: Operating data for an electric furnace

Operating parameter	Unit	Typical value or range
Rated electric power	MWh	13.5
Coke consumption	kg/t burden	25–60
Smelting capacity	t/h	10–25
Raw gas (furnace)		
Volumetric off-gas flow	m ³ /h	15 000
Dust content	mg/m ³	Approximately 30 000
Main dust constituents (mean values)		
Cu	wt-%	0.3–6
Pb	wt-%	15–50
Zn	wt-%	10–50
Sn	wt-%	1–4
Off-gases with a SO ₂ content of > 500 mg/m ³ are subjected to wet scrubbing after dust collection and routed to a contact process, sulphuric acid production unit.		
Raw gas (secondary hoods)		
Volumetric off-gas flow	m ³ /h	150 000
Dust content	mg/m ³	< 5000
Main dust constituents mean values)		
Cu	wt-%	Approximately 8
Pb	wt-%	Approximately 27
Zn	wt-%	Approximately 8
As	wt-%	Approximately 1
Cd	wt-%	Approximately 1
Clean gas		
Dust content	mg/m ³	1–5
SO ₂ content	mg/m ³	< 500 ⁽¹⁾
Off-gas temperature downstream of filter	°C	< 85
⁽¹⁾ Continuous monitoring: daily average < 500 mg/m ³ ; max. half-hourly average < 1500 mg/m ³ . Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]		

Table 3.30: Operating data for a KRS furnace

Operating parameter		Unit	Typical value or range
Burden throughput including iron		t/h	25–50
Fuel consumption (fuel oil)		kg/t burden	50–70
Reducing agent consumption (e.g. coke)		kg/t burden	Approximately 10
Yield	Iron silicate slag	kg/t burden	300–500
	Converter slag	kg/t burden	150–200
	Converter copper	kg/t burden	200–300
	KRS oxide (filter dust)	kg/t burden	50–100
Volumetric off-gas flow (furnace including secondary hoods)		m ³ /h	300 000
Raw gas dust content		mg/m ³	5000–10 000
Specific heat recovery rate		t steam GJ/t burden	0.6 (1.7)–0.7 (2.0)
Main filter dust constituents (depending on operating mode)			
Cu		wt-%	3–6
Pb		wt-%	15–20
Zn		wt-%	35–50
Sn		wt-%	2–4
Clean gas			
Dust content		mg/m ³	1–5
SO ₂		mg/m ³	50–500 ⁽¹⁾
NO _x (expressed as NO ₂)		mg/m ³	10–100
Off-gas temperature at stack outlet		°C	80–90
⁽¹⁾ Continuous monitoring: daily average < 500 mg/m ³ ; max. half-hourly average < 1500 mg/m ³ . Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]			

Table 3.31: Operating data for an anode reverberatory furnace

Operating parameter		Unit	Typical value or range
Anode copper yield per batch		t	300–600
Number of batches per day			Approximately 1
Batch duration		h	22–27
Fuel consumption (fuel oil)		kg/t Cu	60–80
Reducing agent consumption	Pole gas	m ³ /t Cu	Approximately 10
	Pole wood	kg/t Cu	Approximately 20
Raw gas (including secondary hood off-gas)			
Volumetric off-gas flow		m ³ /h	100 000–150 000
Dust content		mg/m ³	Approximately 1000
Specific heat recovery rate		t steam GJ/t burden	0.5 (1.4)
Main dust constituents			
CaO (from off-gas conditioning)		wt-%	30–50
Cu		wt-%	15–25
Zn		wt-%	5–10
Sn		wt-%	1 - 3
Pb		wt-%	5 - 15
As		wt-%	0.5–5 ⁽¹⁾
Clean gas (including secondary hood off-gas)			
Dust content		mg/m ³	1–5
SO ₂		mg/m ³	150–500 ⁽²⁾
NO _x (expressed as NO ₂)		mg/m ³	100–350
Off-gas temperature at stack outlet		°C	Approximately 100
⁽¹⁾ Depending on the input material. ⁽²⁾ Continuous monitoring: daily average < 500 mg/m ³ ; max. half-hourly average < 1500 mg/m ³ . Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]			

Table 3.32: Operating data for a rotary drum furnace

Plant data ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Range or typical value
Charge materials		Cathodes, wire bars, scrap materials, blister (in small quantities)
Capacity	t	35
Melting temperature	°C	1100
Melting capacity	t/h	4
Type of heating		Fuel-heated with natural gas
Specific energy consumption ⁽²⁾	MJ/t	Approximately 700 (60–70 m ³ natural gas)
Waste gas temperature (clean gas in the stack)	°C	80
Waste gas volumetric flow rate	m ³ /h	20 000
Waste gas cleaning method used		Quenchers, fabric filters
Total dust in the untreated gas	g/Nm ³	Up to 3
Emission data from recorded sources (clean gas, half-hourly averages)		
Total dust	mg/Nm ³	3
Dust constituents		
Nickel	mg/Nm ³	0.1
Cadmium	mg/Nm ³	0.04
Lead	mg/Nm ³	0.02
Copper	mg/Nm ³	4
Arsenic	mg/Nm ³	0.007
Total organic carbon (TOC)	mg/Nm ³	50
⁽¹⁾ The plant and emission data given are examples which represent the results of individual measurements.		
⁽²⁾ Including holding and realigning times.		
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]		

Table 3.33: Operating data for a shaft furnace of a continuous casting installation

Plant data ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Range or typical value
Charge materials		Cathodes, return scrap (internal and external scrap)
Capacity (theoretical)	t	50
Melting temperature	°C	1100
Melting capacity	t/h	25
Type of heating		Fuel-heated (natural gas)
Specific energy consumption ⁽²⁾	MJ/t	1300–1500
Waste gas temperature (cleaned gas)	°C	100
Waste gas volumetric flow rate	m ³ /h	40 000
Waste gas cleaning method used		Thermal afterburning, conditioning with lime injection and fabric filters
Total dust in the untreated gas	g/m ³	Up to 1.5
Emission data from recorded sources (clean gas, half-hourly averages)		
Total dust ⁽³⁾	mg/Nm ³	1
Dust constituents		
Nickel	mg/m ³	0.1
Cadmium	mg/m ³	0.05
Lead	mg/Nm ³	0.5
Cobalt	mg/Nm ³	< 0.1
Copper	mg/Nm ³	0.5
Arsenic	mg/Nm ³	0.05–0.15
CO	mg/Nm ³	9000 ⁽⁴⁾
Total organic carbon (TOC)	mg/Nm ³	50
⁽¹⁾ The plant and emission data given represent, by way of example, the results of individual measurements.		
⁽²⁾ Including holding and realigning times.		
⁽³⁾ Also using materials with organic impurities.		
⁽⁴⁾ The cathodes were melt-reductive.		
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]		

Table 3.34: Operating data for a shaft furnace of a cast-and-rolled wire installation

Plant data ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Range or typical value
Charge materials		Electrolytic copper (copper cathodes and own scrap)
Melting capacity	t/h	50–60
Type of heating		Fuel-heated (natural gas)
Specific energy consumption	MJ/t	1000–1050
Waste gas temperature (cleaned gas)	°C	120–160
Waste gas volumetric flow rate	m ³ /h	50 000–80 000
Emission data from recorded sources (clean gas, half-hourly averages)		
Total dust	mg/Nm ³	< 4
NO _x	mg/Nm ³	60–110
SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	15–30
HCl	mg/Nm ³	< 20
CO ⁽²⁾	mg/Nm ³	3500–9000 ⁽³⁾
Total organic carbon (TOC)	mg/Nm ³	10–21
<p>(¹) The plant and emission data given represent, by way of example, the results of individual measurements.</p> <p>(²) Without afterburning.</p> <p>(³) The cathodes were melt-reductive.</p> <p>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</p>		

Table 3.35: Operating data for crucible induction furnaces for the production of copper alloys

Plant data ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Range or typical value
Charge materials		Lumpy charge material, chips
Capacity (theoretical)	t	6–60
Capacity (utilised)	t	3–50
Melting temperature	°C	1050–1300
Melting capacity	t/h	2.4–25
Type of heating		Electrical
Specific energy consumption ⁽²⁾	MJ/t	900–1600
Waste gas temperature (clean gas in the stack)	°C	60–120
Waste gas volumetric flow rate	m ³ /h	17 000–70 000
Waste gas cleaning method used		Cyclone with downstream fabric filter
Total dust in the untreated gas	g/m ³	3 ⁽³⁾
Emission data from recorded sources (clean gas, half-hourly averages) ⁽³⁾		
Total dust	mg/m ³	< 5
Dust constituents		
Chromium	µg/m ³	< 10
Nickel	µg/m ³	< 10
Cadmium	µg/m ³	< 5
Lead	µg/m ³	< 20
Copper	µg/m ³	< 50
Manganese	µg/m ³	< 20
Tin	µg/m ³	< 20
Zinc	µg/m ³	< 100
Arsenic (gas phase)	µg/m ³	< 20
Total carbon (TOC)	mg/m ³	< 10–50
<p>(¹) The plant and emission data given represent, by way of example, the results of individual measurements.</p> <p>(²) Including holding and realigning times.</p> <p>(³) During production of brass.</p> <p>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</p>		

Table 3.36: Operating data for channel induction furnaces for the production of copper alloys

Plant data ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Range or typical value
Charge materials		Lumpy charge material, chips
Capacity (theoretical)	t	7–25
Capacity (utilised)	t	7–20
Melting temperature	°C	1050–1300
Melting capacity	t/h	2.5–8.8
Type of heating		Electrical
Specific energy consumption ⁽²⁾	MJ/t	1290
Waste gas temperature (cleaned gas)	°C	50–90
Waste gas volumetric flow rate	m ³ /h	10 000–20 000
Waste gas cleaning method used		Cyclone with fabric filter
Total dust in the untreated gas	g/m ³	3 ⁽³⁾
Emission data from recorded sources (clean gas, half-hourly averages) ⁽³⁾		
Total dust	mg/m ³	< 1
Dust constituents		
Chromium	µg/m ³	< 1
Nickel	µg/m ³	< 1
Cadmium	µg/m ³	< 0.1
Lead	µg/m ³	< 5
Copper	µg/m ³	< 10
Manganese	µg/m ³	< 1
Tin	µg/m ³	< 1
Arsenic (solid phase)	µg/m ³	< 0.1
Arsenic (gas phase)	µg/m ³	< 2
Total carbon (TOC)	mg/m ³	< 10
<p>⁽¹⁾ The plant and emission data given represent, by way of example, the results of individual measurements.</p> <p>⁽²⁾ Including holding and realigning times.</p> <p>⁽³⁾ During production of low-alloy copper grades.</p> <p>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</p>		

Table 3.37: Operating data for a secondary copper process (remelting)

Inputs	Quantity	Outputs	Quantity
Metal	110 000 t/yr	Rolling products	125 600 t/yr
Master alloy	4000 t/yr	Extruded and drawn products	134 000 t/yr
Scrap	308 300 t/yr	Pipes	69 000 t/yr
Natural gas	538 kWh/t _{product}	Casting products	10.24 kg/t _{product}
Butane gas	34 kWh/t _{product}	Recycling of waste	69.83 kg/t _{product}
NH _x	12 220 m ³ /t _{product}	Disposal of waste	1306 t/yr
Nitrogen N ₂	15 834 m ³ /t _{product}	Sanitary sewage	0.14 m ³ /t _{product}
Hydrogen H ₂	1289 m ³ /t _{product}	Treated waste water	0.71 m ³ /t _{product}
Current	1117 kWh/t _{product}	Cooling water	26 699 m ³ /t _{product}
Water power	21 kWh/t _{product}	Evaporation	0.80 m ³ /t _{product}
Groundwater	28 229 m ³ /t _{product}	Cooling tower overflow	0.021 m ³ /t _{product}
Drinking water	0.145 m ³ /t _{product}	Carbon complete	25 416 kg/yr
Cover material	4.1 kg/t _{product}	Nitrogen oxide as NO ₂	63 072 kg/yr
Charcoal	0.85 kg/t _{product}	Dust	952 kg/yr
Technical gas ⁽¹⁾	17.8 m ³ /t _{product}	CO ₂ emission	0.12 t/t _{product}
Chemical solid	0.85 kg/t _{product}		
Chemical liquid ⁽²⁾	4.96 kg/t _{product}		
Processing liquids and fats ⁽³⁾	1.73 kg/t _{product}		
Butane gas ⁽⁴⁾	2.72 kg/t _{product}		
Petrol	0.04 l/t _{product}		
Diesel	2.42 l/t _{product}		

(¹) Annealing inert gas.
(²) Predominant as pickle and leach.
(³) Oil, cooling lubricant, degreasing agent.
(⁴) Process gas as an alternative to natural gas.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

3.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Table 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse

3.3.1 Materialanlieferung, Lagerung und Umschlag

3.3.1.1 Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von feinkörnigem und staubendem Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt "Emissionen aus der Lagerung" beschrieben. [[290](#), [COM 2006](#)]

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- flüssigkeitsundurchlässige(r) Untergrund/Oberflächen mit Oberflächenentwässerung für Lagerhalden im Freien
- Absaugsysteme mit Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Als Primärrohstoffe werden Erze, Konzentrate, Koks, Sand und sonstige Flussmittel eingesetzt, die i.d.R. staubend sind. Darüber hinaus kommen verschiedenste Metalle und Metallverbindungen enthaltende Sekundärrohstoffe zum Einsatz, wie z.B. Schrott, Krätzen, Schlacken, Stein und Filterstaub. Die Stückigkeit dieser Materialien reicht von feinen Stäuben bis hin zu großformatigen Komponenten, die mit Öl, Säuren und sonstigen organischen Stoffen verunreinigt sein können. Zur Minimierung diffuser Staubemissionen erfolgt der Umschlag staubender Güter (z.B. beim Entladen und an Bandübergabestellen) in gekapselten Aggregaten /geschlossenen Hallen und/oder unter Anwendung von Absaughauben. Zur Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen wird die erfasste Abluft in Regel in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Stückiges Material wird auf Halden gelagert. Der Freilagerplatz befindet sich im Normalfall auf einer befestigten, flüssigkeitsundurchlässigen Fläche, z.B. einer Betonfläche, und wird entwässert, um Boden- und Grundwasserkontamination aus Lager- und Umschlagvorgängen vorzubeugen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- ggf. Wiederverwendung des abgeschiedenen Staubs im Prozess

Umwelleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Aurubis Pirdop werden die Konzentrate auf Halden in zwei geschlossenen Lagerhallen gelagert, die mit Mischbunkern und Mischbetten ausgestattet sind. Das Einsatzmaterial wird per Bahn und Lkw angeliefert, die in einem geschlossenen Bereich entladen werden.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden gekapselte Förderanlagen zum Transport der Kupferkonzentrate vom Hafen zu den Lagerhallen eingesetzt. Die Lagerung der Konzentrate erfolgt in geschlossenen Hallen. Ein Flex-Flap-System vermeidet die Entstehung diffuser Emissionen bei der Schiffsentladung der angelieferten Konzentrate. Aufgewirbelter Staub wird mittels eines Kranabsaugsystems erfasst und die Abluft in Kassettenfiltern entstaubt. Feinkörnige Materialien werden in geschlossenen Hallen, Silos oder geschlossenen Gebinden gelagert. Vor Überführung in die geschlossenen Lagerbuchten werden die Konzentrate pelletiert und z.T. mit Kalkmilch besprüht. Ende 2011 wurde ein neuer Lagerbereich (mit einer Fläche von 5000 m²) für bleihaltige Schüttgüter mit integrierten Brecher- und Siebanlagen sowie gekapselten Bandfördereranlagen eingerichtet. Zu den Einrichtungen gehören ferner Absaugsysteme für die Brecher-, Sieb- und Bandförderanlagen sowie ein Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 70 000 Nm³/h zur Abluftentstaubung. Grobstückiges Material wird auf Freilagerplätzen gelagert, die mit Wassersprühsystemen zur Staubbindung ausgestattet sind.

An den Aurubis-Standorten Lünen und Olen werden Materialien, die schädliche wasserlösliche oder dispergierbare Komponenten enthalten, entweder in einem überdachten Lagerbereich oder in geschlossenen Gebinden im Freien gelagert. Zur Minimierung diffuser Emissionen werden Windschutzwände und Beregnungsanlagen eingesetzt. Grobstückige Materialien, wie Schrott und Blisterkupfer, werden gewöhnlich im Freien gelagert. Soweit notwendig werden Berieselungsanlagen zur Staubbeseitigung eingesetzt. Aurubis Lünen verfügt über eine überdachte Lagerfläche in geschlossenen Hallen von ca. 16 000 m². Zur Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen in den übrigen Freilagerbereichen sind Windschutzwände und Berieselungsanlagen vorgesehen.

Bei Atlantik Copper werden die angelieferten Konzentrate zwecks Minimierung von Staubemissionen in einer geschlossenen Halle entladen. Abfahrende Lkws passieren eine Reifenwaschanlage. Der Transport der Konzentrate vom Hafen zur Hütte erfolgt mittels abgeplanter Lkws. Für den Materialumschlag werden vollständig gekapselte Förderbänder eingesetzt. Die Absaugsysteme sind an Gewebefilter angeschlossen.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta werden die Konzentrate direkt mittels Krangreifer vom Schiff in das Transit-Terminal entladen und von dort mittels Schaufelladern in Eisenbahnwagons verladen. Der Transport der Konzentrate vom Hafen zur Hütte erfolgt mittels Eisenbahnwagons mit hydraulisch betätigten Klappdächern. Die angelieferten Konzentrate werden in einer geschlossenen Halle entladen und gelagert.

Bei Umicore Hoboken, ein großer Hüttenkomplex, in dem eine Vielzahl von Einsatzmaterialien verhüttet wird, sorgen Nebelungsanlagen für eine intensive Befeuchtung der im Freien umgeschlagenen und gelagerten Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffe und bewirken so eine wirksame Minderung von Staubemissionen am Entstehungsort. Durch die häufige Befeuchtung der Lagerhalden mittels Nebelungsanlagen wird die Oberfläche der gelagerten Materialien stets feucht gehalten. Die Materialien werden in dreiseitig umschlossenen Lagerbuchten auf versiegelten Betonflächen gelagert, die über ein Kanalsystem an die Abwasserreinigungsanlage angeschlossen sind. Stark staubende Materialien werden in geschlossenen Hallen gelagert und in geschlossenen Systemen gefördert. Vor Verlassen des Werksgeländes werden Lkws in einer Reifenwaschanlage gereinigt. Das Reinigungswasser wird in die werkseigene Abwasserreinigungsanlage geleitet.

Bei KGHM erfolgt die Anlieferung der Konzentrate in selbstentleerenden Eisenbahnwaggons. Von der Entladestation, die mit einem Stauberfassungssystem ausgestattet ist, wird das angelieferte Konzentrat über Förderbänder in eine überdachte Mischstation transportiert, die gleichzeitig als Konzentratlager und Mischanlage dient.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 wird die Abluft aus den Entladestationen erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 190 000 Nm³/h entstaubt. Staubemissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 2–5 mg/Nm³. Die Hütte verfügt über eine überdachte Lagerkapazität von ca. 35 000 t.

In der Hütte Legnica wird die aus den Entladestationen abgesaugte Luft in einem Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 52 000 Nm³/h entstaubt. Die Staubemissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 0,3–5 mg/Nm³. Die Hütte verfügt über eine überdachte Lagerkapazität von ca. 16 000 t.

An den Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica wird der Koksgrus per Bahn angeliefert, entladen und im Koksunker bevorratet. Schwarzlauge, die in der Konzentratbrikettieranlage als Bindemittel eingesetzt wird, wird in Kesselwagen angeliefert und in Lagerbehälter gepumpt.

In der Hütte Głogów 2 wird die erfasste Abluft aus den Entladestationen in einem Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 80 000 Nm³/h entstaubt. Staubemissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen und liegen bei 1–5 mg/Nm³. Anfang 2012 wurde eine neue Mischanlage mit einer Lagerkapazität von 60 000 t in Betrieb genommen. Hilfsstoffe, wie Koksgrus, Kalkstein und Sand, werden ähnlich wie die Konzentrate gehandhabt, jedoch in einer separaten Anlage. Der Lagerbereich für Hilfsstoffe ist mit einer Stauberfassungseinrichtung ausgestattet. Die abgesaugte Luft wird in Gewebefiltern mit einer Kapazität von 3000 Nm³/h entstaubt. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 1–5 mg/Nm³.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse werden staubende Materialien in einer geschlossenen, mit einer Dachabsaugung versehenen Halle gelagert. Die Hallenabluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt (120 000 Nm³/h). Es werden Staubemissionswerte von < 0,5 mg/Nm³ erreicht. Dieser Wert basiert auf zwei Messungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 4 Stunden (Stichproben) im Jahr 2011. Weitere Einsatzstoffe werden im Freien auf versiegelten Betonflächen gelagert, die über ein Kanalsystem an die Abwasserreinigungsanlage angeschlossen sind. Das gelagerte Material wird feucht gehalten (Berieselungsanlage, Wasserwerfer).

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg erfolgt die Anlieferung der Einsatzmaterialien per LKW oder Eisenbahn. Staubende Materialien werden in Boxen gelagert. Die Lagerung der übrigen Materialien erfolgt im Freien auf einer befestigten Oberfläche.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Stauberfassungs- und Filteranlagen, z.B. für Gebläse und Gewebefilter
- Der abgeschiedene Flugstaub muss intern behandelt werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Bei Metallo-Chimique (2007–2008) beliefen sich die Investitionskosten für den Bau eines überdachten Lagerbereichs für staubende Materialien auf ca. EUR 6,5 Millionen (2007–2008). Die Lagerhalle mit einer Fläche von 8000 m², einem Volumen von 180 000 m³ und einer maximalen Lagerkapazität von 20 000 t ist für einen maximalen Durchsatz von 50 000 t/a ausgelegt.

Die Kosten für den Bau eines überdachten Lagerbereichs (mit einer Fläche von 5000 m²) mit integrierten Brecher-, Sieb- und Bandanlagen und Anbindung an ein Gewebefilter (70 000 Nm³/h) am Standort Aurubis Hamburg beliefen sich auf EUR 7 Millionen.

Die Investitionen für eine geschlossene Lagerhalle für staubende Güter mit einer Fläche von 10 600 m² und einem Volumen von 210 000 m³ am Standort Lünen werden mit EUR 7,5 Millionen angegeben (einschließlich Oberflächenbefestigung in flüssigkeitsdichter Betonbauweise, Wassersprühsystem und Reifenwaschanlagen für den abgehenden Lkw-Verkehr).

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 2 betragen die Kosten für den Bau einer neuen überdachten Mischanlage mit einer Lagerkapazität von 60 000 t EUR 10 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung diffuser Emissionen an Staub und staubgebundenen Metallen

Beispielanlagen

Umicore Hoboken (BE), Aurubis (BE) and (DE), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE), Atlantic Copper (ES), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL)

Literatur

[383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.1.2 Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen beim Fördern feinkörniger und staubender Materialien

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen beim Fördern feinkörniger und staubender Materialien sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt "Emissionen aus der Lagerung" beschrieben [290, COM 2006]

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Absaugsysteme mit anschließender Abluftreinigung in einem Gewebefilter in Betracht (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter, siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Der abgeschiedene Staub wird im Schmelzprozess wiederverwendet.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Filter werden mittels kontinuierlicher Emissionsmessgeräte, wie Impaktor-, optische oder triboelektrische Messgeräte, auf Staubdurchbrüche überwacht. Über die Überwachung des Filterdifferenzdrucks kann ferner die Filterabreinigung gesteuert werden.

Bei Atlantic Copper in Huelva erfolgt der Materialumschlag mittels gekapselter Förderbänder. Die Absaugeinrichtungen sind an Gewebefilter angeschlossen. Ein getrocknetes Gemisch aus Konzentraten und Flussmitteln wird mittels zweier pneumatischer Förderanlagen in einen Bunker mit einem Fassungsvermögen von 450 t gefördert. Die Förderluft wird in einem Gewebefilter (Volumenstrom 1500 Nm³/h) auf Reingaswerte < 7 mg/Nm³ entstaubt.

Am Aurubis-Standort Hamburg wird eine gekapselte Bandanlage zum Transport der Konzentratmischung und sonstiger Einsatzstoffe zur Dosierbunkerstation eingesetzt. Der Transport der Einsatzmischung zu den Trocknern erfolgt ebenfalls mittels gekapselter Förderbänder. Von dort wird das getrocknete Einsatzmaterial mit Hilfe eines Dichtphasenfördersystems weitertransportiert. Die Abluft aus der pneumatischen Fördereinrichtung wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Staubemissionsmessungen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen durchgeführt. Die berichteten Reingaswerte liegen bei < 5 mg/Nm³.

Bei Aurubis Pirdop wird die getrocknete Einsatzmischung pneumatisch in den "Trocken"-Aufgabebunker gefördert. Die Abluft der pneumatischen Fördereinrichtung wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die Staubemissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta wird die Konzentratmischung in geschlossenen Förderbandanlagen vom Misch- und Lagerbereich zu den Trocknern gefördert. Von dort erfolgt der Weitertransport zum Differentialverwiegungs- und Dosiersystem oberhalb des Schwebeschmelzofens pneumatisch. Die Förderluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt (Volumenstrom 800–6 400 Nm³/h). Staubemissionen werden diskontinuierlich gemessen. Die erreichten Reingaswerte liegen bei < 5 mg/Nm³.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica wird das Einsatzmaterial nach Mischung über gekapselte Förderbänder in den Vorratsbunker, die Dosierbunker und den Schneckenmischer gefördert. In den Schneckenmischern erfolgt die Zugabe von Schwarzlauge für die anschließende Brikettierung. Głogów 1 verfügt über fünf, Legnica über drei Brikettierlinien mit einer Kapazität von jeweils 60 t/h. Konzentratladestation, Brikettieranlage und die Förderanlagen sind mit Stauberfassungssystemen ausgestattet, die an

Gewebefilter angeschlossen sind. Staubemissionsmessungen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen durchgeführt.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 sind die Förderlinien wie folgt ausgestattet:

- Absaugsystem im Bereich der Konzentratförderrinnen mit vier Gewebefiltern (je 10 000 Nm³/h). Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 3–10 mg/Nm³.
- Das Absaugsystem der Brikettübergabestation ist an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen (25 000 Nm³/h). Es werden Staubemissionswerte von 3–5 mg/Nm³ erreicht.
- Das Stauberfassungssystem der Brikettzwischenbunker (zwei in Betrieb) umfasst drei Bunkeraufsatzfilter (je 25 000 Nm³/h) sowie drei Gewebefilter (je 27 000 Nm³/h) zur Entstaubung der Abluft im Bereich der Bunkeraustragsorgane. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 3–5 mg/Nm³

In der Hütte Legnica sind die Förderlinien wie folgt ausgestattet:

- Absaugsystem für die Konzentratförderanlage mit Gewebefilter (10 000 Nm³/h, Reingasstaubgehalt 0,2–5 mg/Nm³)
- Absaugsystem für die Brikettzwischenlagerbunker mit Gewebefilter (9 000 Nm³/h, Reingasstaubgehalt 0,3–5 mg/Nm³)
- Absaugsystem für die Konzentratbrikett- und Hilfsstoffförderanlage mit Gewebefilter (23 500 Nm³/h, Reingasstaubgehalt 0,3–5 mg/Nm³)
- Absaugsystem für die Konzentratbrikett- und Hilfsstoffförderanlage (zu den Schmelzöfen) mit Gewebefilter (20 000 Nm³/h, Reingasstaubgehalt 2–10 mg/Nm³)

Die in den Hütten Głogów 1 und Legnica eingesetzten Gewebefilter sind als Kassettenfilter mit Puls-Jet-Abreinigung ausgeführt.

Am Standort Głogów 2 wird das vorgemischte Einsatzmaterial über ein gekapseltes Förderband dem Trockner zugeführt und von dort pneumatisch zu den Chargierbunkern gefördert.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse werden feinkörnige und staubende Materialien über pneumatische Förderanlagen mit doppelwandigen Rohren zur Beschickung der Schmelzöfen eingesetzt. Feinkörniges und staubendes Einsatzgut wird getrocknet und vor Einsatz in der Schmelzanlage zwischengelagert.

Bei Umicore Hoboken werden staubende Materialien in Containern gelagert, die in geschlossenen Lagerhallen aufgestellt sind. Die Container werden in ein geschlossenes System entleert und mittels einer geschlossenen Förderanlage zum Mischer transportiert, wo sie vor Überführung ins Freilager mit sehr nassen Materialien oder Wasser gemischt werden. Im geschlossenen System wird ein leichter Unterdruck aufrechterhalten. Die Abluft wird erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Absaug- und Filteranlagen, z.B. für Gebläse und Gewebefilter
- Der abgeschiedene Flugstaub muss intern behandelt werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Keine Angaben verfügbar

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung der Emissionen.

- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE) und Umicore (BE).

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.2 Materialvorbereitung

3.3.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen, wie z.B. Zusammenstellen der Einsatzmischung, Trocknen, Mischen, Homogenisieren, Sieben und Pelletieren

Zur Kupfergewinnung werden Erze, Konzentrate und eine Vielzahl von Sekundärrohstoffen eingesetzt, deren Stückigkeit von feinen Stäuben bis hin zu großformatigen Einzelteilen reicht. Je nach Materialart sind die Kupfergehalte sowie auch die Gehalte an Begleitmetallen und Verunreinigungen sehr unterschiedlich.

Die angewandten Materialvorbereitungsverfahren umfassen im Wesentlichen Mischen, Trocknen (Konzentrattrocknung, siehe Abschnitt 3.3.2.3), Brikettieren/Pelletieren/Agglomerieren und Klassieren.

Die Mischungszusammenstellung dient der Mischung von Erzen oder Konzentraten unterschiedlicher Qualität und Flussmitteln oder der Mischung verschiedener Sekundärrohstoffe, um ein homogenes Einsatzgut zu erhalten. Zu diesem Zweck kommen Mischbetanlagen oder Bunkerdosieranlagen mit Differentialverwiegesystem oder Bandwaagen zur Anwendung.

Wenn der Schmelzprozess trockenes Einsatzgut oder eine Reduzierung der Materialfeuchte verlangt, wird das Einsatzmaterial vor Aufgabe in den Ofen getrocknet. Die Trocknung erfolgt in Trommeltrocknern (direkt mit Heißgas, das über einen Brenner bereitgestellt wird) oder Dampftrocknern (indirekt über Rohrschlangen mit Dampf oder Heißluft beheizt). Dampftrockner werden, soweit es die Wärmebilanz erlaubt, mit Abwärme aus anderen Prozessstufen betrieben. Für spezielle Einsatzstoffe, wie z.B. Flugstaub, Rückstände, Schlämme, usw., können Bandtrockner oder Vakuumtrockner zum Einsatz kommen.

Abhängig vom Schmelzverfahren können Konzentrate und sonstige feinkörnige Materialien pelletiert oder brikettiert werden. Zur Reduzierung von Staubemissionen in den nachgelagerten Prozessschritten werden dem Einsatzmaterial Gleit- und Bindemittel zugesetzt. Schrotte werden vor der Verarbeitung durch Pressen oder Paketieren kompaktiert.

Zur Aufbereitung von Sekundärrohstoffen für den Verkauf oder zur Weiterverarbeitung werden diese gebrochen, gemahlen und gesiebt.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Förderanlagen mit Absaugung oder pneumatische Förderanlagen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1)
- geschlossene Halle (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) für Arbeitsschritte mit hohem Staubpotenzial (z.B. Mischen)
- Wassersprüh- oder Nebelungssysteme zur Staubniederschlagung
- Staub- und Gaserfassungssysteme, die an Filter angeschlossen sind, z.B. Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Wasserwerfer zur Feuchthaltung des Materials, wenn das Mischen in Außenanlagen erfolgt
- Erfassung und Behandlung von Abwasser vor Ableitung
- Schrottsortierverfahren zur Erhöhung der Metallausbeute

Technische Beschreibung

Die angewandten Techniken zur Materialvorbereitung sind abhängig von der Materialgröße, Beschaffenheit und dem Verschmutzungsgrad.

Staubende Materialien werden in geschlossenen Hallen unter Verwendung gekapselter Förderbänder und pneumatischer Förderanlagen gemischt. Eine weitere Möglichkeit ist die Absaugung mit anschließender Entstaubung. Der abgeschiedene Staub kann in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden. Staubbodenschlagssysteme, wie z.B. Wassersprüh- oder Nebelbelungssysteme, binden Staub mit Hilfe eines feinen Wassernebels. Konzentrate enthalten von Natur aus genügend Wasser, um eine Staubeentwicklung auszuschließen.

Da das getrocknete Material i.d.R. stark staubend ist, kommen pneumatische Förderanlagen mit Absaugsystemen und Gewebefiltern zur Entstaubung der staubbeladenen Abluft zur Anwendung. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Die Brikkettier- und Pelletieranlagen sind eingehaust und überdacht. Förderanlagen sind gekapselt. Staubemissionen werden über Absaugsysteme erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter abgereinigt. Das Kompaktieren von Metallschrotten erfolgt entweder in einer geschlossenen Halle oder im Freien unter Verwendung von Staubbodenschlagssystemen. Lärmschutzmaßnahmen, wie z.B. Schallschutzwände, können ggf. erforderlich werden.

Brecher-, Mahl- und Siebanlagen sind potenzielle Staubemissionsquellen und daher mit Stauberfassungs- und Minderungseinrichtungen ausgestattet. Der Filterstaub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Zur Staubbodenschlagung können Wassersprüh- oder Nebelbelungssysteme eingesetzt werden.

Sortiertechniken kommen bei Sekundärrohstoffen zum Einsatz – soweit für die Verwertung notwendig und sinnvoll in einer gesonderten Anlage. Die Schrottaufbereitung erfolgt mittels manueller und maschineller Sortierverfahren, z.B. zum Aussortieren von Batterien, Quecksilberkontakten und Kabelummantelungen aus Elektronikschrott. Elektronikschrott kann in Schreddern oder Mühlen zerkleinert werden, um Metall-/Nichtmetall-Verbunde aufzutrennen, z.B. Leiterplatten und sonstige elektronische Bauteile, und so die anschließende Sortierung zu ermöglichen. Sink-Schwimmverfahren nutzen die Dichte- und Korngrößenunterschiede der verschiedenen Fraktionen zur Trennung metallischer von nichtmetallischen Komponenten. Als weitere Sortiertechnik wird die Windsichtung zur Trennung von Metallen von Komponenten geringerer Dichte im Elektronikschrott eingesetzt. Die Magnetscheidung, i.d.R. ein Überbandmagnet, dient der Trennung von Fe-Metallen aus dem Materialstrom. Aluminium kann durch optische Sortierverfahren oder Wirbelstromscheidung von anderen Materialien getrennt werden. Kunststoffanteile werden durch Induktionssortierverfahren aussortiert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub-, Metall- und sonstigen Emissionen
- Ressourcenschonung, da der Filterstaub zur Kupfererzeugung genutzt wird
- Verringerung von Schadstoffeinleitungen in Gewässer

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Atlantic Copper in Huelva (ES) verfügt über eine Mischanlage bestehend aus 16 Silos – davon zwei für Flussmittel – mit einem Fassungsvermögen von je 200 t für die Vorbereitung des Einsatzmaterials. Der Transport der Konzentrate und Flussmittel vom überdachten Lager zu den Silos erfolgt über geschlossene Förderbandgalerien. Alle Bandübergaben werden über Gewebefilter abgesaugt.

Am Aurubis-Standort Hamburg (DE) werden Kupferkonzentrate und weitere Einsatzstoffe für die Primärkupfererzeugung mittels einer Bandanlage (300 t/h) von der Lagerhalle zu einer Mischstation bestehend aus sechs Konzentratbunkern mit einem Fassungsvermögen von je 240 t und einem Bunker für SiO₂-Flussmittel mit einem Fassungsvermögen von 220 t gefördert. Drehzahlgeregelte Abzugsbänder ermöglichen eine exakte Dosierung der einzelnen Mischungskomponenten. Der Transport der Einsatzmischung zu den Trocknern erfolgt mittels gekapselter Bandförderanlage. Die Konzentratvorrats- und -dosierbunker werden über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt.

Sekundärrohstoffe werden in einem überdachten Lagerbereich zusammengeführt, der mit Brecher-, Sieb- und gekapselten Bandanlagen ausgestattet ist. Feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzstoffe für die Sekundärkupfererzeugung werden pelletiert und in einem Band- oder Vakuumtrockner mittels Heißluft auf einen Restfeuchtegehalt von $< 2 \%$ getrocknet. Die Pelletieranlage ist gekapselt und in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt. Die Förderanlagen sind ebenfalls gekapselt und werden über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Das Trocknerabgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die aus den kontinuierlich gemessenen Staubemissionen ermittelten Halbstundenmittelwerte liegen bei $0,5\text{--}10 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, die Tagesmittelwerte bei $0,5\text{--}5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, der Jahresmittelwert bei $3,4 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$.

Am Aurubis-Standort Pirdop (BG) erfolgt die Materialvorbereitung automatisch. Bandwaagen ziehen exakte Materialmengen aus den einzelnen Materialbunkern ab und übergeben diese an ein Förderband. Das Materialgemisch auf dem Förderband wird über eine Siebanlage geführt und anschließend zu vier "Nassgutbunkern" gefördert. Die Herstellung der Materialmischung erfolgt in einer geschlossenen Halle. Die Einsatzmischung wird in gekapselten Förderanlagen zu den Aufgabebunkern gefördert.

Am Aurubis-Standort Lünen (DE) wird der Elektronikschrott aufbereitet, um eine gute Stoffstromtrennung zu gewährleisten. Der Elektronikschrott wird zunächst geschreddert und anschließend in einer Sortierlinie bestehend aus Windsichter, Siebung, Magnetscheidung zur Abtrennung von Eisenbestandteilen, optischer Sortierung zum Ausschleusen von Aluminium und bestimmter Legierungen sowie Induktionssortiersystem zum Ausschleusen von Kunststoffen sortiert. Shredder und Sortieranlage sind in einer geschlossenen Halle untergebracht. Siebmaschinen und Bandübergabestellen sind gekapselt. Ferner sind Berieselungsanlagen zur Feuchthaltung des Materials vorgesehen. Die Förderbänder nach dem Shredder werden über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Die Abluft aus dem Windsichter wird über ein Zyklon geführt. Staubende Materialien werden in einer geschlossenen Halle gelagert und gemischt. Vor Aufgabe in den KRS-Ofen wird das Einsatzmaterial leicht agglomeriert. Die Förderanlagen sind gekapselt.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta (FI) wird eine Einsatzmischung aus verschiedenen Konzentraten in einer Mischbetanlage hergestellt. Im Zuge der Homogenisierung werden hier dem Einsatzmaterial auch Silikaflussmittel, diverse Fällschlämme (interner Rücklauf) und Sekundärrohstoffe zugemischt. Durch die Homogenisierung der Einsatzmischung wird eine bessere Prozessführung im anschließenden Schmelzprozess erreicht. Die Mischbetanlage ist in einer geschlossenen Halle untergebracht. Die homogenisierte Einsatzmischung wird mittels Förderbändern in Bunker gefördert und gelangt von dort nach Siebung über gekapselte Förderbänder in die Trocknungsanlage. Das gleiche System kommt bei Boliden Rönnskär (SE) zum Einsatz.

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 1 (PL) wird die Einsatzmischung in einer Mischbetanlage zusammengestellt. Konzentrate und interner Rücklauf werden in gleichmäßigen horizontalen Schichten in eines der drei Betten der Länge nach eingebracht, über eine Mischmaschine vertikal am Querschnitt abgebaut und auf ein Förderband abgeworfen, das die Materialmischung zu einem Vorratsbunker transportiert. Von dort wird die Konzentratmischung auf die vier Dosierbunker der Trocknungslinien verteilt. Die Zugabe von Schwarzlauge erfolgt in einem Schneckenmischer. Głogów 1 verfügt über fünf Brikettierlinien mit einer Durchsatzleistung von je 60 t/h . Die Abluft aus der Konzentratentladestation, der Brikettieranlage und den Förderlinien (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.1.2) wird in Gewebefiltern auf einen Reststaubgehalt von $0,3\text{--}5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ gereinigt.

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 2 (PL) wird die Abluft der Konzentratentladestation in drei Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Von der Entladestation werden Kupferkonzentrat und weitere Einsatzstoffe für die Primärkupfererzeugung mittels Förderbändern zur Mischstation bestehend aus 15 Konzentratbunkern und 6 weiteren Bunkern für sonstige Materialien gefördert. Aus den Bunkern wird das Konzentrat über drehzahlgeregelte Abzugsbänder abgezogen und so eine definierte Zusammensetzung der Einsatzmischung gewährleistet.

Kapitel 3

Die KGHM-Kupferhütte in Lenica (PL) verfügt über eine automatische Mischanlage. Aus den einzelnen Silos wird das Material über eine Dosierwaage auf das Förderband ausgetragen und so die gewünschte Materialmischung hergestellt. Diese wird dann in einem Schneckenmischer mit Schwarzlauge versetzt.

Metallo-Chimique in Belgien verwendet einen erdgasbeheizten Trommeltrockner zur Trocknung der sekundären Rohstoffe (siehe Abbildung 3.12 und Tabelle 3.38).

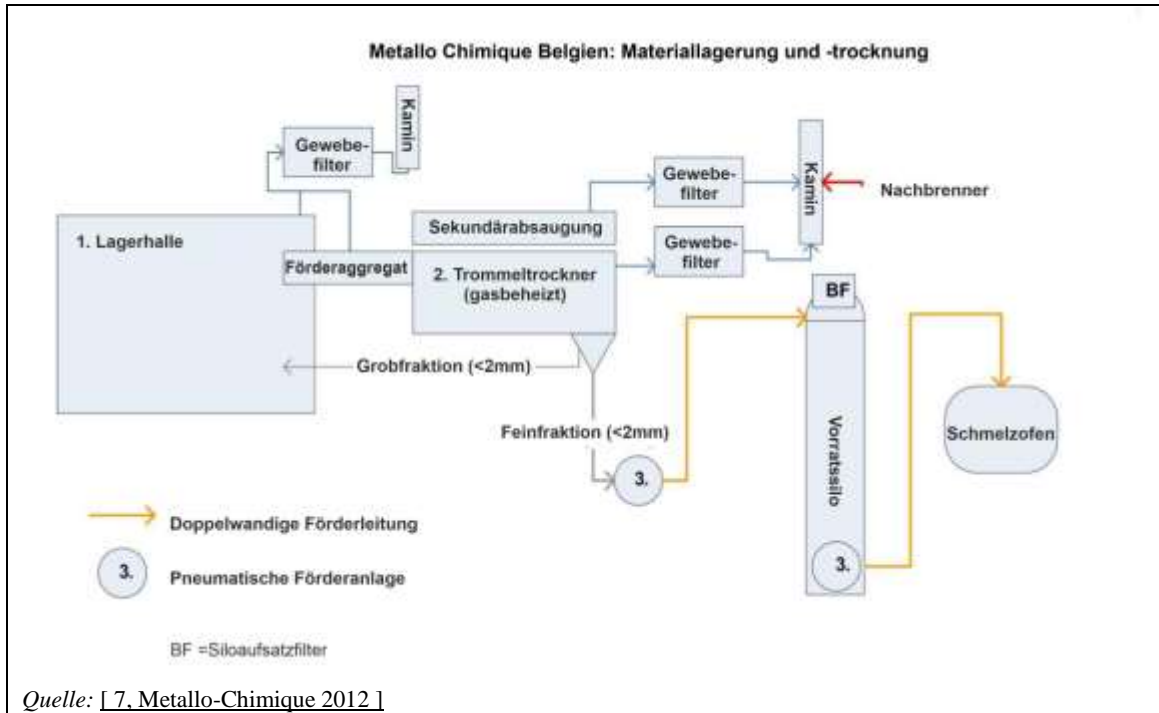


Abbildung 3.12: Metallo-Chimique – Materiallagerung und -trocknung

Das Gewebefilter ist nur während des Trocknerbetriebs in Betrieb.

Tabelle 3.38: Betriebsdaten der Trocknungsanlage bei Metallo-Chimique

Ofentyp	Kapazität	Beheizung	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
Trommel-trockner	15 t/h (2 t Wasser/h; Trocknung von 12 % Ausgangs- wassergehalt auf < 1 %)	Erdgas- brenner	Gewebefilter Primärabgas + Gewebefilter Sekundärabgas + Nachverbrennungskammer	Staub 1–3 mg/Nm ³

Quelle: [7, Metallo-Chimique 2012]

Einige Schrottarten werden mittels Hydraulikpressen pakettiert, andere werden mit Hilfe von Schrottscheren in handhabbare Stücke zerkleinert. Schlacke wird ggf. in kleinere Fragmente gebrochen.

Bei Umicore Hoboken (BE) wird Elektronikschrott zur Materialbemusterung und zur Vorbehandlung vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen geschreddert. Shredder und Förderbänder werden bei Unterdruck betrieben. Die Abluftreinigung erfolgt in einem Absolutfilter (Gewebefilter). Hierbei handelt es sich um einen Mehrkammerfilter mit in Reihe geschalteten Filterelementen. In Anbetracht des geringen Volumenstroms werden die Emissionen als irrelevant eingestuft und es erfolgt keine Messung. Das zerkleinerte Material wird an der

Bandabwurfstelle mit Wasser berieselt. Die Ofencharge wird in Mischbetten im Freien zusammengestellt, wobei staubende Materialien zuvor befeuchtet werden. Zum Zusammenstellen der Mischung werden Schaufellader eingesetzt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Staubniederschlagssysteme

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Schmelzprozess bedingt durch den Wassergehalt der Einsatzstoffe
- Höherer Wasserverbrauch
- Das erfasste Oberflächenwasser muss gereinigt werden.

Staub- und Gaserfassungssysteme mit angeschlossenem Filter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallprodukts, wenn keine Verwertungsmöglichkeit für den abgeschiedenen Staub besteht

Nachverbrennung mit Quenche und Entstaubungssystem

- Höherer Energieverbrauch und höhere NO_x-Emissionen

Erfassung und Behandlung von Abwässern vor Ableitung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand und höherer Additiveinsatz für die Abwasserbehandlung

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

- Geschlossenen Hallen, gekapselte Förderanlagen, pneumatische Förderanlagen sowie an Filteranlagen angeschlossene Absaugeinrichtungen werden für den Umschlag von staubenden Materialien eingesetzt.
- Staubniederschlagssysteme sind nur dann anwendbar, wenn die Schmelzanlage und nachgeschaltete Abgasreinigungsanlage für feuchte Einsatzstoffe ausgelegt sind.
- Der Einsatz von Gewebefiltern setzt voraus, dass die Gastemperatur über dem Taupunkt liegt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Bei Metallo-Chimique wurde 2007–2008 das bestehende Gewebefilter in der Trocknungsanlage durch ein neues Filter ersetzt (Kapazität: 19 500 Nm³/h). Die Investitionskosten für das Filter einschließlich Kamin mit integriertem Nachbrenner beliefen sich auf EUR 665 000 im Vergleich zu EUR 400 000 für das 1994–1995 installierte Sekundärabgasfilter (20 500 Nm³/h).

Die Kosten für den Bau eines überdachten Lagerbereichs (mit einer Fläche von 5000 m²) mit integrierten Brecher-, Sieb- und Bandanlagen und Anbindung an ein Gewebefilter (70 000 Nm³/h) am Standort Aurubis Hamburg werden mit EUR 7,5 Millionen angegeben.

Am Standort Lünen betragen die Investitionen für eine geschlossene Lagerhalle für staubende Güter mit einer Fläche von 10 600 m² und einem Volumen von 210 000 m³ EUR 7,5 Millionen (einschließlich Oberflächenbefestigung in flüssigkeitsdichter Betonbauweise, Wassersprühsystem und Reifenwaschanlage für abfahrende Lkws).

Der Investitionsaufwand für den Bau einer Lärmschutzwand am Standort Olen wird auf EUR 560 000 beziffert (Abschnitte entlang der Watertorenstraat: Länge: 100 m, Höhe: 4 m, Länge: 132,3 m, Höhe: 11 m; und der rechtwinklig zur Watertorenstraat verlaufende Abschnitt: Länge: 100 m, Höhe: 11 m).

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen und Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Optimierung des Schmelzprozesses
- Umwelt- und Arbeitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE) und Elmet S.A. Berango (ES).

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.2.2 Techniken zur Entölung von Metallspänen vor dem Einschmelzen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

In Hütten, die Metallspäne aus der Metallverarbeitung als sekundäre Rohstoffe einsetzen, müssen diese vor dem Einschmelzen von anhaftendem Öl und Ölemulsionen befreit werden. Ob eine Entölung erfolgt und welche Technik hierzu eingesetzt wird, ist abhängig vom Verschmutzungsgrad (wenn die Späne bereits beim Erzeuger gereinigt wurden - Abtrennung von Öl oder Ölemulsionen zur anschließenden Verwertung – kann auf einen Entölungsschritt vor dem Schmelzprozess verzichtet werden).

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Zentrifugieren mit Ölrückgewinnung
- Pyrolytische Behandlung in einem Trommeltrockner
- Waschen mit Reinigungsmitteln und anschließende Zentrifugierung und Trocknung bei einer Temperatur von 130–140°C

Technische Beschreibung

Zentrifugieren mit Ölrückgewinnung

Durch Zentrifugieren können stark verschmutzte Metallspäne weitgehend entölt werden. Um das abgetrennte Öl einer Verwertung zugänglich zu machen, muss dieses von der Wasserphase getrennt werden.

Pyrolytische Behandlung in einem Trommeltrockner

Die Behandlung erfolgt in einem indirekt beheizten Trockner bei einer Temperatur von 500 °C, bei der Öl- und Ölemulsionsanhaftungen abgeschwemmt werden. Die entstehenden Schwelgase werden in einer Nachverbrennungskammer bei 850 °C verbrannt, um einen vollständigen Ausbrand zu erzielen, anschließend gequench, um einer De-Novo-Synthese von PCDD/F vorzubeugen und abschließend in einem Nasswäscher oder Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Waschen mit Reinigungsmitteln und anschließende Zentrifugierung und Trocknung

Metallspäne können mittels Wasserwäsche unter Zugabe eines Reinigungsmittels entölt werden. Anschließend werden die entölte Späne zuerst in einer Zentrifuge entwässert und dann in einem Trockner bei einer Temperatur von 130–140 °C getrocknet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Entfernen von Öl und organischen Bestandteilen vor Aufgabe der Späne in den Schmelzöfen
- Minderung von Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess (insbesondere organische Verbindungen)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Das Abgas wird in Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Die diskontinuierlich gemessenen Staubemissionen liegen zwischen 0,01 mg/Nm³ und 8,6 mg/Nm³.

Organische Verbindungen (z.B. VOCs) werden in einer Nachverbrennungskammer oxidiert. Die diskontinuierlich gemessenen Emissionswerte liegen zwischen 1 mg/Nm³ und 5 mg/Nm³.

Für PCDD/F werden Emissionswerte zwischen 0,027 ng/Nm³ und 0,455 ng/Nm³ basierend auf diskontinuierlichen Messungen berichtet.

Tabelle 3.39 zeigt eine Zusammenstellung der Emissionswerte von vier pyrolytischen Behandlungsanlagen in Italien (2010).

Tabelle 3.39: Emissionswerte der vier Spänetrockner (2010)

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Einheit	Werte			Messintervall	Mittelwert-bildung
				Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
A	NVB + Gewebe-filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,144	1,09	2,1	kontinuierlich	MMW
		PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	0,144	0,261	0,455	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	(über die Probenahme-dauer)
		CO	mg/Nm ³	0,1	0,36	0,9	kontinuierlich	MMW
		NO ₂	mg/Nm ³	3	15,9	28,8	diskontinuierlich (2 x pro Jahr)	(über die Probenahme-dauer)
B	NVB + Gewebe-filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	8,62	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Jahr)	k.A.
		NO ₂	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	12,33	k.A.		
		VOC	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	2,9	k.A.		
C	NVB + Gewebe-filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,01	0,22	0,61	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	(über die Probenahme-dauer)
		PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	0,1889	0,239	0,291	periodisch (2 x pro Jahr)	
		CO	mg/Nm ³	1	1,3	2	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	
		NO ₂	mg/Nm ³	6	11,3	16		
		VOC	mg/Nm ³	1	2	3		
D	NVB + Gewebe-filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	0,58	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Jahr)	(über die Probenahme-dauer)
		PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	k.A.	0,0272	k.A.		
		NO ₂	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	36	k.A.		
		VOC	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	5	k.A.		

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [384, Italy 2013]
 Legende: NVB = Nachverbrennung, MMW= Monatsmittelwert

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höhere CO₂- und NO_x-Emissionen
- Zusätzlicher Abwasseranfall

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar, sofern die Schmelzaggregate und Minderungseinrichtungen nicht speziell für die Nutzung/Abscheidung der Organik ausgelegt sind

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Keine Angaben verfügbar

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung von VOC-Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess

Beispielanlagen

Vier Anlagen in Italien

Literatur

[384, ECI 2013], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.2.3 Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Konzentrattrocknung

Konzentrate haben einen Feuchtegehalt von 7–8 % und werden vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen auf eine Restfeuchte von ca. 0,2 % getrocknet. Im Fall von Schachtofenanlagen werden die Konzentrate auf eine Restfeuchte von 3,5–4 % getrocknet und brikettiert.

Zur Trocknung von Kupferkonzentraten kommen zwei Trocknertypen zur Anwendung:

- direkt beheizte Trommeltrockner, betrieben mit Heißgas, das durch Verbrennung von Erdöl oder anderen Brennstoffen bereitgestellt wird. Als Heizmedium kann auch Prozessgas aus Öfen, wie z.B. dem Anodenofen, dienen.
- indirekt beheizte Dampftrockner, d.h. Trockner, die hauptsächlich mit Dampf aus dem Abhitzeessel betrieben werden

Die verschiedenen Trocknertypen sind in Abschnitt 2.5.1.2 näher beschrieben.

Da das trockene Konzentrat in der Regel stark staubend ist, sind die Trockner mit Absaug- und Minderungseinrichtungen zur Erfassung und Reinigung des staubhaltigen Abgases ausgestattet.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter
- Elektrofilter (EGR)
- Nasswäscher

Technische Beschreibung

Je nach Trocknertyp können die Abgase infolge von Oxidation des Trocknungsguts SO_2 enthalten. Dies trifft nur auf direkt beheizte Trockner zu. Bei indirekt beheizten Dampftrocknern kann sich das Konzentrat aufgrund der niedrigen Temperaturen nicht entzünden und somit auch kein SO_2 entstehen.

Beim Trommeltrockner erfolgt die Trocknung in einem Drehrohr. Das in den Erdgasbrennern erzeugte Heißgas wird mit dem feuchten Konzentrat in Kontakt gebracht, das sich dabei aufheizt und seine Feuchtigkeit in Form von Dampf an die Gasphase abgibt. Das Trocknerabgas wird in einem Gewebefilter, Elektrofilter oder Wäscher entstaubt. Die Abgasentschwefelung erfolgt mittels Nasswäscher. Um eine Zündung des Konzentrats zu unterbinden, kann das Brenngas mit N_2 oder einem anderen Inertgas verdünnt werden.

Dampftrockner werden indirekt über Heizschlangen beheizt. Ihre Durchsatzleistung ist abhängig vom Dampfdruck und der Verweilzeit und steigt mit zunehmendem Dampfdruck. Zur Aufnahme des verdampfenden Wassers wird eine kleine Menge Trägerluft durch den Trockner geleitet. Dampftrockner werden, soweit es die Wärmebilanz erlaubt, mit Abwärme aus anderen Prozessstufen betrieben. Das Trocknerabgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Getrocknete Erze und Konzentrate können pyrophorische Eigenschaften aufweisen, was bei der Auslegung der Minderungseinrichtung zu berücksichtigen ist. Um ein Zünden des Trocknungsguts zu unterbinden, kann das Brenngas mit Inertgas (Stickstoff) verdünnt oder ein niedriger Sauerstoffgehalt im Brenngas eingestellt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gewebefilter und EGR

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Ressourcenschonung, da der Filterstaub zur Kupfergewinnung genutzt wird

Wäscher

- Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen
- Gleichzeitige Minderung der Staubemissionen bei Einsatz eines Venturiwäschers

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei der Konzentratrocknung entstehen große Mengen an Feinpartikeln, die aufgrund der im Abgas vorliegenden Aerosole und Schwankungen in der Abgastemperatur auskondensieren und sich an den Rohrwänden ablagern. Diese Ablagerungen werden entweder mit dem Abgas mitgerissen oder durch Reinigung mit Druckluft entfernt.

In Tabelle 3.40 sind Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konzentratrocknungsanlagen in einigen Primärhütten zusammengestellt. Die Daten beziehen sich auf den Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente.

Tabelle 3.40: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konzentrattrocknungsanlagen (Teil 1)

Anlage	Atlantic Copper		Aurubis Hamburg		Aurubis Pirdop	
	Trommel-trockner	Dampf-trockner	Trommel-trockner	2 Dampf-trockner	Dampf-trockner	Dampf-trockner
Durchsatzleistung	100 t/h	70 t/h	100 t/h	50 100 t/h	110 t/h	
Heizmedium	Erdgas, Brenngasverdünnung mit N ₂ (z.T. aus der pneumatischen Förderanlage)	Dampfdruck 4,5–18 bar	Erdgas, Brenngasverdünnung mit Rauchgas aus Dampfüberhitzer und N ₂	Dampfdruck, i.d.R 11 bar	Dampfdruck, i.d.R 11 bar	Dampfdruck, i.d.R 11 bar
Abgasreinigung	Gewebefilter	Gewebe-filter	EGR & SO ₂ -Wäscher Nass-EGR	Gewebe-filter	Gewebe-filter	Gewebe-filter
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm ³)					
Messintervall	vierteljährlich		monatlich (Probenahmedauer 7 h)		halbjährlich	halbjährlich
Staub	12 (*)		1,1–4,6		16 (*)	17 (*)
Messintervall	kontinuierlich		kontinuierlich		nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
SO ₂	TMW 5–644 JMW 145		HMW < 50–950 TMW < 50–300 JMW 50-150		nicht gemessen	nicht gemessen
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar		vierteljährlich (3*30 min)		nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Cu	nicht gemessen		0,2–0,8		nicht gemessen	nicht gemessen
Pb			< 0,01–0,5			
As			< 0,01–0,05			
Cd			< 0,01–0,02			

Tabelle 3.41: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konzentratrocknungsanlagen (Teil 2)

Hütte	Boliden Harjavalta	Boliden Rönnskär	KGHM Glogów 1	KGHM Glogów 2	KGHM Legnica
Trockner-typ	Dampf-trockner	Dampf-trockner	4 Trommel-trockner (2–3 in Betrieb)	Trommel-trockner	Trommel-trockner (2 in Betrieb)
Durchsatz-leistung	125 t/h	2 x 58 t/h	1 x 75 t/h 3 x 55 t/h	110 t/h (Kapazitäts-erweiterung auf 132 t/h geplant)	50 t/h
Heiz-medium	Dampf 0,18 t/t Konzentrat	Dampf	Erdgas	Erdgas	Erdgas
Abgas-reinigung	Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter	Venturiwäscher (2 Stück)	Elektrofilter	Gewebefilter
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)				
Mess-intervall	kontinuierl.	vierteljährlich	monatlich	monatlich	vierteljährlich
Staub (Min–Max) (Mittelwert)	TMW 0,2–6,1 JMW 1,8	0,17–2,69 1,03	nicht repräsentativ	5–25 5,38	1,54–10 3,7
Mess-intervall	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	monatlich	monatlich	vierteljährlich
SO₂	nicht gemessen	nicht gemessen	SO ₂ < 15	SO ₂ < 25	2–420 80
Mess-intervall	nicht anwendbar	halbjährlich	monatlich	monatlich	vierteljährlich
Cu	nicht gemessen	0,06–0,17	nicht repräsentativ	0,17–6,88	< 0,01–1,36
Pb		< 0,01–0,022		0,01–2,5	< 0,01–0,62
As		< 0,01–0,036		0,001–1,2	< 0,01–0,111
Cd		< 0,001–0,0006		< 0,005	k.A.
Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. (*) Mittelwert der in einem Jahr gemessenen Proben. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [385, Germany 2012] Legende: HMW =Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW =Tagesmittelwert, JMW =Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben					

Laut Daten, die von einer deutschen Behörde zur Verfügung gestellt wurden, werden bei Aurubis Hamburg im Normalbetrieb Staubemissionswerte < 5 mg/Nm³ erreicht. Die SO₂-Emissionen (2011) liegen bei 95 % der ermittelten Halbstundenmittelwerte unter 225 mg/Nm³ und bei 99 % der 2011 gemessenen Tagesmittelwerte unter 300 mg/Nm³.

Im Vergleich zu Elektrofiltern und Venturiwäschern zeichnen sich Gewebefilter durch eine höhere Staubabscheideleistung aus. Bei Konditionierung des Abgases mit Kalk findet in dem sich aufbauenden Filterkuchen gleichzeitig auch eine Entschwefelung statt. Venturiwäscher sind wegen ihrer ungenügenden Abscheideleistung für Feinstaub nicht zur Reinigung des Trocknerabgases geeignet.

Zur qualitativen Staubmessung werden Impaktor-, Streulicht- oder triboelektrische Messgeräte eingesetzt, die gleichzeitig auch als Schlauchbruchwächter dienen. Der Filterdifferenzdruck wird zur Steuerung der Filterabreinigung überwacht.

Nach Angaben einiger Anlagenbetreiber liegt die Zündtemperatur des Konzentrats nach Trocknung zwischen 300 °C und 400 °C. In Heißlufttrocknern wird Heizgas mit niedrigem Sauerstoffgehalt eingesetzt und der Trockner bei maximal vertretbarer Betriebstemperatur betrieben, vorwiegend durch Mischen des Heizgases mit kalter Luft. In gleicher Weise können Dampftrockner bei ausreichend niedriger Temperatur und mit einem niedrigen Luftvolumenstrom betrieben werden, um eine Zündung des Trocknungsguts zu vermeiden. Eine weitere Möglichkeit, eine Selbstzündung zu vermeiden, ist die Inertisierung mit Stickstoff. Zum Erkennen von Glimmnestern können Detektoren eingesetzt werden, die bei Ansprechen eine Stickstoffflutung einleiten [103, COM 1998].

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gewebefilter und EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Nasswäscher

- Höherer Energieaufwand (im Vergleich zu Gewebefiltern)
- Einsatz von Chemikalien
- Wasserverbrauch und Anfall eines Abwasserstroms, der vor Ableitung oder Wiederverwendung behandelt werden muss
- Abfallanfall. Bei Einsatz eines Nassentschwefelungsverfahrens muss der anfallende Gips zur Nutzung als Flussmittel im anschließenden Schmelzprozess in den Trommeltrockner zurückgeführt werden, was mit zusätzlichem verfahrenstechnischem Aufwand und Energieverbrauch verbunden ist.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Techniken können abhängig vom Trocknertyp generell in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden. Im Fall von Konzentraten mit hohem Gehalt an organischem Kohlenstoff (z.B. 10 Gew.%) sind Gewebefilter wegen des Verstopfungsrisikos des Filtergewebes unter Umständen nicht geeignet. Der Einsatz von Dampftrocknern setzt eine zuverlässige Dampfversorgung voraus.

SO₂-Wäscher kommen nur hinter direkt beheizten Trocknern zur Anwendung. Bei indirekt beheizten Trocknern kann eine SO₂-Minderungsstufe entfallen.

Einschränkungen für den Einsatz von Nasswäschern können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit einhergehenden medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten für den Ersatz eines Heißgas-Elektrofilters durch ein Gewebefilter bewegen sich in einer Größenordnung von EUR 1,3–5 Millionen (Abgasvolumenstrom 100 000 Nm³/h). Diese breite Spanne ist darauf zurückzuführen, dass neben den Kosten für die eigentliche Abgasreinigungsanlage auch Kosten für den damit verbundenen Umbau der Trocknungsanlage anfallen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.2.4 Techniken zur Verminderung von Primärabgasemissionen bei der Kupferkonzentratröstung

Feinkörniges Einsatzmaterial bestehend aus Konzentraten und Rücklaufschlamm aus dem Prozess wird in einer Wirbelschicht-Röstanlage geröstet. Dabei wird die dem Röstprozess zugeführte Luftmenge in Abhängigkeit vom angestrebten Röstgrad geregelt. Beim Rösten trockener Einsatzmaterialien geht Arsen in die Dampfphase über, und ggf. vorhandener Schwefel und organische Bestandteile werden zum Teil oxidiert. Die Röstung läuft bei Temperaturen von 600–700°C ab und ist ein autothermer Prozess, der ohne Energiezufuhr von außen auskommt. Der größte Teil des Röstguts wird mit dem Abgas aus dem Röstofen ausgetragen. Wirbelschicht-Röstanlagen werden bevorzugt für Kupferkonzentrate relativ großer Körnung eingesetzt, um eine Überlastung der Abgasreinigungsanlage zu vermeiden. Mit diesem Verfahren wird eine wirksame Abscheidung von Arsen und Quecksilber aus Kupferkonzentraten erreicht. Angesichts des Trends zu arsenreicheren Erzen mit zunehmender Abbautiefe in einigen großen Kupferminen werden Wirbelschicht-Röstanlagen mehr und mehr zur Verarbeitung arsenreicher Kupferkonzentrate eingesetzt.

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommt eine Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Zyklon, Kühlturm, Trockenelektrofilter (EGR) mit nachgeschaltetem Konditionierturm und Gewebefilter in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Das Abgas wird durch eine Zyklonbatterie geleitet, in der das mitgerissene Röstgut zum großen Teil abgeschieden und anschließend über gekapselte Förderanlagen dem Schmelzofen zugeführt wird. Nach Grobentstaubung in den Zyklonen wird das Abgas in einem Kühlturm von ca. 550 °C auf ca. 310 °C, d.h. die Eintrittstemperatur des Trocken-EGR, heruntergekühlt und anschließend im Trocken-EGR entstaubt. Der abgeschiedene metallhaltige Staub wird dem Schmelzofen zugeführt. Bei den vorherrschenden Abgastemperaturen gehen Arsen und Quecksilber in die Gasphase über und werden nicht vom Filter zurückgehalten.

Das Abgas wird daher in einem Konditionierturm (Sekundärkühlung) durch Wassereindüsung auf eine Temperatur von ca. 120 °C gekühlt, bei der Arsen und Quecksilber auf den Partikeln kondensieren. Der arsenhaltige Staub wird anschließend in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden. Der Filterstaub, sogenannter Röststaub, wird gesammelt und als Abfall in einem geschlossenen System in ein Betonsilo zur Zwischenlagerung gefördert.

Nach Durchlaufen dieser Reinigungsstufen enthält das Abgas noch ca. 10% SO₂ und wird in einem Waschkreislauf weiterbehandelt. Der Abstoß aus dem Waschkreislauf wird der zentralen AWA zur Behandlung zugeführt. Das SO₂-haltige Prozessgas gelangt anschließend in den Mischurm des zentralen Nasswäschers oder wird direkt der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt. Vor Eintritt in die Schwefelsäureanlage wird das schwefel- und metallhaltige Gas (ca. 10 Vol.% SO₂) zunächst in einer Nasswäsche von Quecksilber befreit. Zur Quecksilberabscheidung stehen verschiedene Techniken zur Verfügung, z.B. Selen-Wäscher, Adsorption an einem imprägnierten Adsorbens, Aktivkohlefilter zur HgCl₂-Abscheidung. Die zu behandelnden Abgasvolumenströme liegen zwischen 30 000 m³/h und 170 000 m³/h und weisen Quecksilberbeladungen (Hg_{ges.}) von 10 µg/m³–9900 µg/m³ auf. Mit den beschriebenen Minderungstechniken werden Hg_{ges.}-Konzentrationen im Reingas von 3 µg/m³–10 µg/m³ erreicht. Daraus ergibt sich eine Abscheideleistung von 70–99,7 %, abhängig vom eingesetzten Minderungsverfahren.

Abbildung 3.13 zeigt ein Fließschema eines Wirbelschicht-Röstofens mit nachgeschalteter Abgasreinigungsanlage.

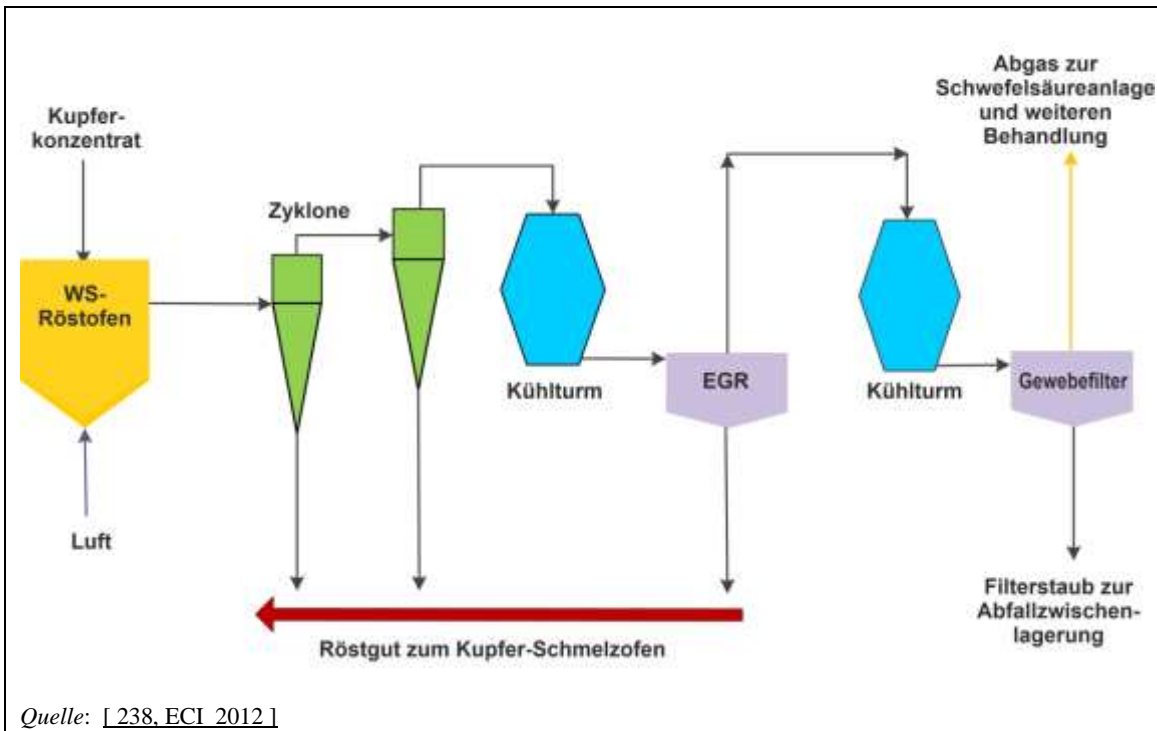


Abbildung 3.13: Fließschema eines Wirbelschicht-Röstofens mit nachgeschalteter Abgasreinigungsanlage

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In der Boliden-Kupferhütte Rönnskär (SE) wurde 1980 eine Wirbelschicht-Röstanlage für arsenreiche Kupferkonzentrate installiert. Die Anlage ist komplett eingehaust und in den Verhüttungsprozess integriert. Steuerung und kontinuierliche Überwachung erfolgen in der Leitwarte.

Der Wirbelschichtofen ist für einen Durchsatz von 40–45 t/h und eine Fluidisierungsluftmenge von 25 000–30 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt. Der Kühlurm hat einen Wasserverbrauch von 5–10 m³/h. Bei der Röstung fallen keine gefassten Emissionen an, da das Abgas zur weiteren Behandlung in die Schwefelsäureanlage geleitet wird.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Wasserverbrauch
- Anfall von gefährlichem Abfall (Röststaub), der deponiert werden muss

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. In bestehenden Anlagen kann das Gewebefilter in die bereits vorhandenen Abgasreinigungsanlagen zur Minderung von Metallemissionen und Schwefelrückgewinnung integriert werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Investitionskostenschätzungen von Outotec, Schweden zufolge belaufen sich die Kosten für den Bau einer Wirbelschicht-Röstanlage in einer bestehenden Hütte mit vorhandener Infrastruktur auf EUR 200 Millionen. In diesen Kosten inbegriffen sind Ofen, Kühltürme, Zyklone und Filter.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Reduzierung der anfallenden Röststaubmengen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Reduzierung des Arseneintrags in die nachgeschalteten Prozessstufen, z.B. Schmelz- und Konverteranlagen. Dies wirkt sich nicht nur positiv auf die Produktqualität aus, sondern ist auch im Sinne des Gesundheitsschutzes am Arbeitsplatz.

Beispielanlagen

Boliden Rönnskär (SE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3 Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung**3.3.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Ofen-/Konverterbeschickung in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung****Beschreibung**

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Brikettieren und Pelletieren des Einsatzmaterials
- geschlossene Beschickungssysteme, wie z.B. Einstrahlbrenner, Doppelglocken-Beschickungssysteme, Türabdichtung, gekapselte Förder-/Dosiersysteme, pneumatische Beschickungssysteme
- Beschickungsmethoden, z.B. Druckreduzierung während der Ofenbeschickung, Konverterbeschickung während der Blasperiode, Modifizierung der Chargiersysteme im Hinblick auf gleichmäßige Aufgabe kleinerer Materialmengen oder kontinuierliche Materialaufgabe
- Einhausung des Ofens, weitere Einhausungen und Hauben mit wirksamer Rauch-/Dämpfeabsaugung und anschließender Abgasreinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Die zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Chargiervorgängen eingesetzten Techniken sind abhängig vom Ofentyp und der Art des Einsatzmaterials, z.B. staubendes, stückiges oder schmelzflüssiges Einsatzmaterial.

Brikettieren und Pelletieren des Einsatzmaterials

- Feinkörnige staubende Einsatzmaterialien werden brikettiert oder pelletiert. Dies dient in erster Linie dazu, die prozesstechnischen Anforderungen der Ofentechnologie zu erfüllen, hat aber gleichzeitig den Nebeneffekt, dass hierdurch auch diffuse Emissionen reduziert werden.

Geschlossene Beschickungssysteme

- Es kommen eingehauste Förderanlagen oder gekapselte Dosiersysteme zum Einsatz.
- Förderbänder, Materialübergabestellen, Vorratsbehälter und Dosiersysteme können mit Absaugeinrichtungen ausgerüstet werden.
- Verwendung eines geschlossenen Beschickungssystems bei Schwebeschmelzöfen mit Einstrahl-Konzentratbrenner
- Schachtofenbeschickung über ein Doppelglockensystem, Ausstattung der Chargierbereiche mit Absaugeinrichtungen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen und

anschließenden Reinigung in Gewebefiltern. Die entstaubte Abluft kann als Blaswind im Ofen oder als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk vor Ort genutzt werden.

- Elektroofenbeschickung über einen gekapselten Beschickungsaufzug
- Schachtofenbeschickung mit festen Einsatzstoffen über gegen die Ofentür abdichtende Chargierkübel
- Feinkörniges Einsatzmaterial kann pneumatisch in das Schmelzbad eingeblasen werden.

Beschickungsmethoden

- Beschickung der Öfen/Konverter bei reduziertem Druck zur Vermeidung von Schwallgasen
- Modifizierung der Beschickungssysteme im Hinblick auf gleichmäßige Aufgabe kleinerer Materialmengen oder kontinuierliche Materialaufgabe, um das Ausschwallen von Gasen zu vermeiden. Durch die so erreichte konstante Beschickung werden Emissionsschwankungen vermieden. In einigen Fällen kommt es bei der diskontinuierlichen Beschickung zum Austritt von Schwallgasen aus dem Ofen. Deshalb sollte hier vorzugsweise eine kontinuierliche Beschickung eingesetzt werden.

Einhausung des Ofens, weitere Einhausungen und Hauben mit wirksamer Rauch-/Dämpfeabsaugung und anschließender Abgasreinigung

- Der Schmelzofen und die Chargieröffnungen befinden sich innerhalb einer Einhausung/unterhalb einer Absaughaube (z.B. TBRC-Ofen, Elektroofen).
- Chargieröffnungen werden mit Primär- und/oder Sekundärhauben und Systemen zur gezielten Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen ausgerüstet (PS-Konverter und Anodentrommelöfen). Zur effizienten Abgasfassung werden die Hauben über einen Motorantrieb in die optimale Position gefahren. Eine Steuerungsautomatik verhindert das Blasen beim Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der/in die Haube.
- Flussmittel- und Schrottchargierung über die Haube während des Blasebetriebs, um ein Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der Haube zu vermeiden und damit die Emissionen zu reduzieren
- Kranintegrierte Absaughauben bieten eine wirksame Lösung zur Verringerung von Emissionen während des Chargierens und Abgießens von Sekundärkonvertern (z.B. TBRC).
- Chargiersysteme werden mit Absaug- und Abgasreinigungseinrichtungen ausgestattet. Die erfasste Abluft kann entweder gemeinsam mit dem Hauptabgasstrom des Ofens oder separat gereinigt und anschließend als Blaswind in den Ofen zurückgeführt (oder als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk genutzt) oder aber in der zentralen Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt werden (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.2, 3.3.3.3, 3.3.3.5, 3.3.3.6, 3.3.4.1, 3.3.4.2 und 3.3.5.1).

TBRC- oder Elektroöfen sowie die Chargieröffnungen befinden sich unter einer Absaughaube oder sind in einer geschlossenen Halle mit Hallenabsaugung aufgestellt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub-, Metall- und sonstigen Emissionen
- Ressourcenschonung, wenn der Filterstaub in den Prozess zurückgeführt wird

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Geschlossene Beschickungssysteme zur Konzentrataufgabe in die Schwebeschmelzöfen werden in den Hütten Hamburg, Pirdop, Huelva und Głogów 2 eingesetzt. Das getrocknete Beschickungsgut wird in einen Chargierbunker gefördert und von dort über ein Differentialverwiege- und Dosiersystem in den zentral auf der Decke des Reaktionsschachts angeordneten, abgedichteten Konzentratbrenner (Einstrahlbrenner) aufgegeben. Dort wird das Einsatzmaterial über einen Luftschieber mit sauerstoffangereicherter Luft gemischt. In Hamburg erfolgt die Beschickung des Elektroofens über einen gekapselten Beschickungsaufzug. Der obere Teil des Ofens ist eingehaust. Feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzmaterialien werden pelletiert.

Die Beschickung des KRS-Ofens (Lünen) erfolgt in einem geschlossenen System. Die Beschickungssysteme sind geschlossen ausgeführt und werden abgesaugt. Das Chargieren und Abgießen des TBRC erfolgen mittels Hallenkran, der mit einer Absaughaube zur Erfassung der freigesetzten Rauche/Dämpfe ausgerüstet ist. Die Absaughaube ist über ein Bändersystem an das Abgassystem- und die Entstaubungsanlage angeschlossen.

Blisterkupfer und Kupferschrott (Aurubis Olen) werden mit Hilfe eines Kübelaufzugs auf den Schacht des Schachtofens gefördert und von dort über ein geschlossenes System in den Ofen eingebracht.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica besteht das Beschickungssystem der drei Schachtofen aus jeweils drei Aufgabebunkern für Briketts, Koks und Konverterschlacke. Die eigentliche Chargierung abgewogener Portionen der drei Materialien erfolgt automatisch über ein Doppelglockensystem an der Gicht. Der Chargierbereich am Ofenschacht (für brikettiertes Konzentrat und Zuschläge) wird abgesaugt.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 wird der Staub über Gewebefilter abgesaugt ($3 \times 21\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) und in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Staubemissionsmessungen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen durchgeführt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen bei $3\text{--}5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$. Das entstaubte Gas wird über die Luftzufuhr zur Aufrechterhaltung des Schmelzprozesses in den Schmelzofen zurückgeführt.

In der Hütte Legnica wird das über die Absaugeinrichtung erfasste Abgas in drei Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Staubemissionsmessungen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen durchgeführt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen bei $2\text{--}10 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$. Das entstaubte Gas wird als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk genutzt.

In der Hütte Głogów 2 erfolgt die Chargierung pneumatisch über ein Differentialverwiege- und Dosiersystem, so dass hier keine diffusen Emissionen auftreten. Die Förderluft der pneumatischen Förderanlage wird im Trocken-EGR der Konzentrattrocknungsanlage entstaubt.

Bei Metallo-Chimique, Belgien sind alle Öfen in der Gießerei zwecks Erfassung von Staubemissionen aus Chargiervorgängen vollständig gekapselt. Feinkörniges Material wird pneumatisch gefördert und über doppelwandige Rohre in das Schmelzbad eingeblasen. Des Weiteren werden gekapselte Schwingförderer eingesetzt. Zur Reduzierung von Staubemissionen und Abscheidung von Dioxinen und sonstigen flüchtigen organischen Verbindungen werden die Öfen abgesaugt und die Abgase anschließend in einer Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt.

In der Kupferhütte Elmet in Spanien ist die Schmelzanlage vollständig gekapselt ausgeführt und ermöglicht so die Erfassung von Staubemissionen aus Chargiervorgängen.

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg sind die Chargier- und Abstichbereiche des Schachtofens, Warmhalteofens, Konverters und Anodenofens mit Absaugeinrichtungen und Gewebefiltern zur Erfassung und Reinigung von Rauchen/Dämpfen ausgerüstet.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für die Absaugung und den Betrieb der Abgasreinigungsanlagen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Minderungstechniken sind abhängig vom Ofentyp, Prozess (diskontinuierlicher oder kontinuierlicher Betrieb) und den Platzverhältnissen allgemein anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL) und Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzöfen in der Primärkupfererzeugung

Kupferkonzentrate werden in einem Schmelzofen bei hohen Temperaturen ($> 1100\text{ °C}$) unter Bildung einer flüssigen Metallphase (Kupferstein oder Blisterkupfer) und einer Schlackephase (Kupferschlacke) erschmolzen, die getrennt voneinander abgezogen werden können.

Zur Erzeugung von Kupferstein kommen folgende Schmelzverfahren zum Einsatz:

- Schmelzverfahren mit Sauerstoffanreicherung (z.B. Schwebeschmelzverfahren)
- diskontinuierliches Schmelzen getrockneter oder teilgerösteter Konzentrate im Elektroofen
- Schachtofen für eisen- und schwefelarme Konzentrate mit hohem Kohlenstoffgehalt
- diskontinuierlich arbeitende Lanzen-Badschmelzverfahren (z.B. stationäre TBRC-Öfen oder Tauchlanzenöfen)
- kontinuierliche Schmelzverfahren (z.B. Kaskadenreaktoren, Flash-Reaktoren)

Eisen- und schwefelarme Kupferkonzentrate können in ein und demselben Aggregat (z.B. Schwebeschmelzofen) direkt zu Blisterkupfer geschmolzen werden, womit sich eine Konverterstufe erübrigt (sog. "Direct-to-Blister"- oder Direktverfahren). In Polen, Australien und Sambia wird von den oben aufgeführten Verfahren nur das Schwebeschmelzverfahren großtechnisch eingesetzt. Bei den Direktverfahren wird Blisterkupfer in einem Schmelzaggregat und in einer Hitze erzeugt, womit der Pfannentransport von schmelzflüssigem Kupferstein und das anschließende Verblasen im Konverter entfallen. SO_2 -Emissionen aus dem Pfannentransport und der Konvertierungsstufe werden hierdurch vermieden.

Weitere Verfahren, wie das kontinuierliche Mitsubishi-Verfahren, das auf einer Kombination von Schwebeschmelzofen und Flash-Konverter beruht, die Ausmelt TSL-Technologie [305, Ausmelt 2009] und das kontinuierliche Noranda-Schmelzverfahren werden nur außerhalb der EU-28 eingesetzt. Beim Mitsubishi-Verfahren wird der schmelzflüssige Stein aus dem Primärschmelzofen nicht mittels Pfannen zum Konverter transportiert, sondern granuliert, gemahlen und anschließend kontinuierlich in den Flash-Konverter chargiert. SO_2 -Emissionen aus dem Pfannentransport werden auf diese Weise vermieden. Wie beim Schwebeschmelzverfahren fällt beim Flash-Konverter kontinuierlich SO_2 -haltiges Abgas ohne größere Mengenschwankungen an. Das geringe Abgasvolumen und der hohe SO_2 -Gehalt ermöglichen eine effizientere Abgasreinigung und Umsetzung zu Schwefelsäure in der Schwefelsäureanlage und so einen höheren Schwefelrückgewinnungsgrad.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Dichte/gekapselte Schmelzöfen, Sauerstoffanreicherung und Betrieb bei Unterdruck

- Einhausung, Kapselungen, abgedeckte Abstichrinnen und Hauben mit hoher Absaugleistung und verstärktem Absaugsystem
- Abhitzekeessel, Heißgas-EGR und nachgeschaltete Schwefelsäure- (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2) oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.3) zur Primärabgasreinigung bei Schwebeschmelz- und Elektroöfen
- Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklon und Venturiwäscher mit anschließender Nachverbrennung in einem Kraftwerk mit nachgeschalteter SO₂-Minderungseinrichtung zur Primärabgasreinigung bei Schachtöfen
- Gewebefilter (mit oder ohne Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk) oder ein System aus Nasswäscher, Halbtrockenabscheider und Gewebefilter zur Sekundärabgasreinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Dichte/gekapselte Schmelzöfen, Sauerstoffanreicherung und Betrieb bei Unterdruck

Zur Zurückhaltung von Gasen und Vermeidung von Emissionen werden die Öfen während des Schmelzbetriebs wirksam abgedichtet, z.B. Schwebeschmelzöfen, Elektroöfen. Dies setzt ausreichende Absaugvolumina voraus, um einen Druckaufbau im Ofen zu unterbinden. Die Öfen werden unter Unterdruck (~ 50 Pa) betrieben, um die Freisetzung von Rauchen/Dämpfen zu vermeiden.

Der Betrieb mit Sauerstoffanreicherung ermöglicht die autotherme Oxidation der Charge – auch bei Einsatz sulfidischer Konzentrate – und erzeugt ein Prozessgas mit ausreichenden oder hohen SO₂-Gehalten, die eine effizientere SO₂-Umsetzung und -rückgewinnung in der Schwefelsäureanlage erlauben. Gleichzeitig werden mit dieser Technik die zu behandelnden Abgasmengen minimiert, was wiederum den Einsatz kleiner dimensionierter Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlagen einschließlich Schwefelsäureanlagen ermöglicht.

Einhausung, Kapselungen, abgedeckte Rinnen und Hauben mit hoher Absaugleistung und verstärktem Absaugsystem

Bei Schwebeschmelzöfen kann der Bereich oberhalb des Reaktionsschachts, Absetzherds und Abgasschachts belüftet und das Abgas abgesaugt werden. Zusätzlich sind über den Schlacken- und Steinabstichen Absaughauben angebracht. Diffuse Gasemissionen während Abstichvorgängen werden über Absaugeinrichtungen erfasst. Das erfasste Abgas kann z.T. in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt werden.

Stein und Schlacke werden über geschlossene Rinnen aus dem Schmelzofen abgezogen. Während des Abstichs befinden sich die Pfannen in einer Einhausung/einem Tunnel, die/der über eine verfahrbare Tür/Barriere verschlossen ist, um eine Freisetzung von Gasen in die Hallenatmosphäre zu vermeiden. Über dem Abgießbereich sind Absaughauben installiert (siehe Abbildung 3.14). In den Absaughauben und Einhausungen wird ein Unterdruck eingestellt, um Gasaustritt zu vermeiden und einen optimalen Erfassungsgrad zu gewährleisten.

Einige Schmelzhallen sind auch mit einer Dachabsaugung zur Erfassung diffuser Restemissionen ausgestattet. Zur Anpassung der Absaugleistung an unterschiedliche Betriebszustände werden drehzahlgeregelte Gebläse eingesetzt.

Zur optimalen Erfassung und Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen werden Gebläse, Ventile und Klappen über eine entsprechende Steuerungstechnik automatisch angesteuert. Durch regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Öfen, Abgaskanäle, Gebläse und Filtersysteme wird die Dichtigkeit der Systeme sichergestellt, und diffuse Emissionen werden vermieden.

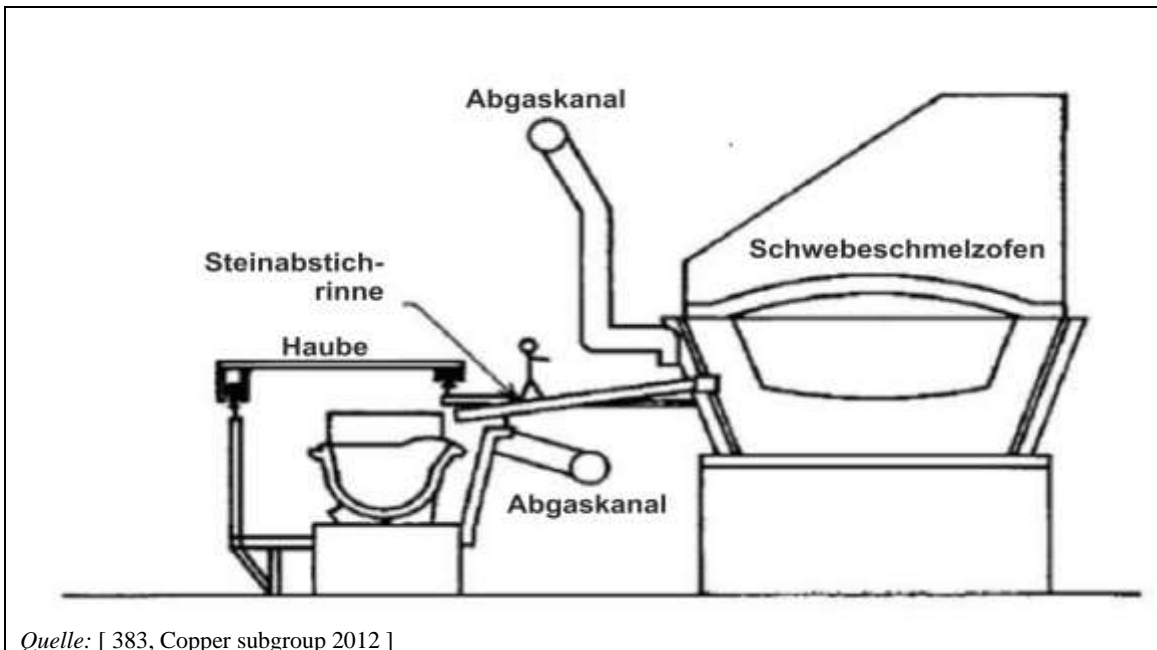


Abbildung 3.14: Quellenabsaugung im Steinabstichbereich der Hütte Toyo

Abhitzekessel, Heißgas-EGR und nachgeschaltete Schwefelsäure- (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2) oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.3)

Das Primärabgas der Konzentratschmelzöfen, wie z.B. Schwebeschmelz- und Elektroöfen, wird vor Entstaubung in einem Heißgas-EGR in einem Abhitzekessel abgekühlt. Dabei findet bereits eine erste Grobentstaubung statt. Nach weitergehender Entstaubung im nachgeschalteten Elektrofilter gelangt das Abgas in die Wasch- und Kühlstufe der Schwefelsäureanlage. In den meisten Hütten wird das Schmelzofenabgas mit dem Konverterabgas verschnitten. SO₂-haltige Abgase werden nach Durchlaufen der Abgasreinigungsanlage gewöhnlich der Schwefelsäure- (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1) oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.3) zugeführt. Zum Schutz des Katalysators in der Kontaktanlage und zur Erzeugung einer verkaufsfähigen Schwefelsäure ist eine vorhergehende Gasaufbereitung (Entstaubung und, je nach verarbeitetem Einsatzmaterial und einzuhaltender Schwefelsäurespezifikation, Quecksilberabscheidung) unerlässlich.

Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklon und Venturiwäscher mit anschließender Nachverbrennung im Kraftwerk

Das Primärabgas des Schachtofens wird in einer Entstaubungsanlage bestehend aus Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklon und Venturiwäscher entstaubt und anschließend (wegen seines CO-Gehalts) in einem Kraftwerk als zusätzlicher Brennstoff genutzt und nachverbrannt. Die Abgasentschwefelung erfolgt in diesem Fall im Kraftwerk in einem Halbtrockenabscheider oder einem regenerativen Wäscher unter Verwendung einer Polyether-Absorptionslösung (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9). Die Prozessgase der Schmelzöfen sind mit Staub beladen (bei Schwebeschmelzöfen ca. 6–7 Gew.% der Charge), der im geschlossenen Kreislauf vor den Schmelzöfen zurückgeführt wird.

Gewebefilter (mit oder ohne Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk) oder ein System bestehend aus Nasswäscher, Halbtrockenabscheider und Gewebefilter

Das Sekundärabgas wird einer Reinigung unterzogen (Nasswäscher und/oder Gewebefilter). Der Chargierbereich am Ofenschacht (für brikettiertes Konzentrat und Zuschläge) wird abgesaugt, das Abgas in Gewebefiltern gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.1) und (je nach Hütte) entweder als Teil des Blaswinds in den Schachtofen zurückgeführt oder als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk vor Ort genutzt.

Die über die Sekundärabsaugung des Ofens sowie die Absaugsysteme im Bereich der Abstichöffnungen, Rinnen und Pfanneneinhausung erfassten Rauche/Dämpfe werden je nach SO_2 -Gehalt unter Vorkonditionierung mit Trockenkalk in einem Gewebefilter oder einer Kombination aus Nasswäscher und Gewebefilter behandelt. In einigen Hütten wird das entstaubte Sekundärabgas zum Teil in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk genutzt, wobei SO_2 in der Rauchgasentschwefelungsanlage des Kraftwerks abgeschieden wird.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub- und Schwefeldioxidemissionen
- Wirksame Erfassung der Rauche/Dämpfe an der Quelle und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen
- Reduzierung des Brennstoffeinsatzes durch Sauerstoffanreicherung
- Schwefelrückgewinnung und Rückgewinnung von Stäuben in den Entstaubungsanlagen
- Dampferzeugung im Abhitzeessel
- Rückgewinnung des Wärmeinhalts des Schachtofenabgases

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

SO_2 wird in Form von Schwefelsäure in Schwefelsäureanlagen zurückgewonnen. Der in den Entstaubungsanlagen abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Schmelzofen zurückgeführt. Der im Abhitzeessel erzeugte Dampf wird zur Trocknung der Kupferkonzentrate, zur Deckung des sonstigen Dampfbedarfs (z.B. Kupferraffination) oder zur Stromerzeugung genutzt. Das Schachtofenabgas (mit einem CO -Gehalt von $\sim 10\%$) wird dem Kraftwerk vor Ort zur Nachverbrennung und Energieerzeugung zugeführt.

In Primärhütten bietet das Schwebeschmelzverfahren den Vorteil einer Reduzierung des Regelbrennstoffverbrauchs und der damit verbundenen Emissionen.

Die wichtigsten Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Schmelzöfen in der Primärkupfererzeugung sind in Tabelle 3.42 zusammenfasst.

Das Primärabgas des Schwebeschmelz- und "Direct-to-Blister"-Ofens (Direktverfahren) mit einem SO_2 -Gehalt von 20–45 % und einer Temperatur von ca. 1350–1400 °C wird in einem Abhitzeessel auf < 400 °C heruntergekühlt und anschließend in Elektrofiltern entstaubt. Beim Schmelzen auf Kupferstein wird das Prozessgas des Schwebeschmelzofens mit dem Konverterabgas zusammengeführt und in einer Schwefelsäure- oder Flüssig- SO_2 -Anlage behandelt (Hamburg, Pirdop, Huelva, Harjavalta, Rönnskär). Beim Direktverfahren wird das Prozessgas nach Wärmerückgewinnung und Reinigung (Głogów 2) der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt. Der Abgasstaubgehalt nach dem Elektrofilter vor Eintritt in den Waschturm der Schwefelsäureanlage wird mit 50–150 mg/Nm^3 angegeben. Der im Abhitzeessel erzeugte Dampf wird zur Konzentrattrocknung, zur Deckung des Dampfbedarfs in der Elektrolyseanlage oder zur Gebäudeheizung genutzt (Pirdop, Hamburg, Boliden, Huelva, Głogów 2). Darüber hinaus wird der erzeugte Dampf mit einem Druck von 45 bar auch zur Stromerzeugung genutzt, z.B. in den Hütten Huelva (ca. 28,8 MW_{th}) und Głogów 2.

Alle Schmelzanlagen arbeiten mit Sauerstoffanreicherung, i.d.R. 40–60 % O_2 bei Schwebeschmelzöfen und ca. 25 % bei Schachtofen.

Bei Atlantic Copper ist der Schwebeschmelzofen mit Absaugsystemen zur Erfassung der bei Abstichvorgängen auftretenden diffusen Emissionen ausgestattet. Die abgesaugten Gase aus dem Abstichbereich werden z.T. zum Prozessluftgebläse zurückgeführt und als Blaswind in der Schwebeschmelzanlage genutzt. Der verbleibende Abgas-/Abluftstrom wird nach Konditionierung mit Kalk in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Am Aurubis-Standort Hamburg wird der Bereich oberhalb des Schwebeschmelzofen-Reaktionsschachts, Absetzherds und Abgasschachts abgesaugt und das Abgas mit den Abgasströmen aus dem Abstich- und Rinnenbereich sowie dem Bereich der Pfanneneinhausung zusammengeführt. Diese Abgasströme werden dann gemeinsam in einer

Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Am Standort Pirdop sind die Abstichbereiche mit Absaughauben versehen, die Abstichrinnen abgedeckt, und die Pfannen befinden sich innerhalb einer abgesaugten Einhausung. Die bei Abstichvorgängen auftretenden diffusen Emissionen werden erfasst und in einer gemeinsamen Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage (Nasswäscher und Gewebefilter) entschwefelt und entstaubt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6). Das Abgas aus dem Abstichbereich wird auf die Saugseite der Prozessluftgebläse geführt und so anstelle von Außenluft als Verbrennungsluft für den Brenner des Schwebeschmelzofens genutzt. Diffuse Restemissionen werden über die Dachabsaugung erfasst und zur Abgasreinigungsanlage geleitet.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta sind die Abstich- und Abgießbereiche des Schwebeschmelzofens mit Hauben und Absaugeinrichtungen ausgestattet. Die Sekundärabgase aus dem Schmelzofenbereich (110 000 Nm³/h) werden in zentralen Gewebefiltern entstaubt und über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen bei < 5 mg/Nm³ für Staub und < 500 mg/Nm³ für SO₂, jeweils angegeben als Tagesmittelwert.

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird das Sekundärabgas im Abstichbereich des Elektroofens (250 000 Nm³/h) über eine Haube erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen bei < 5,46 mg/Nm³ für Staub und < 562 mg/Nm³ für SO₂, jeweils angegeben als Tagesmittelwert.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 wird das mit einer Temperatur von 300–650 °C aus den Schachtöfen austretende Primärabgas in einer mehrstufigen Abgasreinigungsanlage (Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklonabscheider und Venturiwäscher) gereinigt. Aufgrund des relativ hohen CO-Gehalts (ca. 10%) ist das Abgas brennbar und wird als zusätzlicher Brennstoff im Kraftwerk vor Ort genutzt. Die Rauchgasentschwefelung im Kraftwerk erfolgt in einem Halbtrockenabscheider mit einer Entschwefelungsleistung von ca. 82%. Das Halbtrockenverfahren beruht auf der Verdüsung einer Ca(OH)₂-Suspension im Abgasstrom. SO₂ reagiert mit dem Sorptionsmittel und gleichzeitig verdampft das Wasser, so dass letztendlich ein getrocknetes Reaktionsprodukt übrig bleibt, das im Entstauber abgeschieden wird. Mit diesem Verfahren werden Reingaswerte von < 20 mg Staub/Nm³ und < 950 mg SO₂/Nm³ erreicht. Der im Gewebefilter abgeschiedene Staub wird teils zur Optimierung des Schmelzprozesses in die Schmelzöfen zurückgeführt, teils deponiert. Die Abstichbereiche der Schachtöfen (zwei in Betrieb) sind mit Absaugsystemen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen ausgestattet. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter (60 000 Nm³/h) entstaubt und anschließend als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk genutzt. Eventuell in diesem Gasstrom noch vorhandenes Rest-SO₂ wird so in der Rauchgasentschwefelungsanlage des Kraftwerks abgeschieden.

In Legnica wird das mit einer Temperatur von 300–650 °C aus den Schachtöfen austretende Primärabgas in einer mehrstufigen Abgasreinigungsanlage (Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklonabscheider und Venturiwäscher) gereinigt. Aufgrund des relativ hohen CO-Gehalts (ca. 10 %) ist das Abgas brennbar und wird als zusätzlicher Brennstoff im Kraftwerk vor Ort genutzt. Das bei der Verbrennung im Kraftwerk entstehende Rauchgas wird in einem Elektrofilter entstaubt und anschließend zusammen mit dem Endgas der Schwefelsäureanlage (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9) in einem regenerativen Waschverfahren auf Basis Polyether entschwefelt. Der Beschickungsbereich (für brikettiertes Konzentrat und Zuschläge, siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.1) am Schacht sowie die Abstichbereiche der Schachtöfen werden abgesaugt. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk genutzt.

In der Hütte Głogów 2 wird das Primärabgas des Schwebeschmelzofens zunächst zur Wärmerückgewinnung durch einen Abhitzeessel geleitet, wobei bereits eine Grobentstaubung stattfindet, anschließend in einem Elektrofilter entstaubt und dann der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage (mit einer Gasaufbereitungsstufe bestehend aus Radialstromwäscher und Nass-EGR) zugeführt. Der Konzentrattransport zum Ofenbeschickungssystem erfolgt

pneumatisch. Die Abluft der pneumatischen Förderanlage wird zur Wärmerückgewinnung über einen Abhitzeessel geführt. Der Abstichbereich des Schwebeschmelzofens ist mit einer Absaugeinrichtung ausgestattet, die an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen ist (Volumenstrom ca. 100 000 Nm³/h). Zur SO₂-Abscheidung wird vor Eintritt in den Filter eine kleine Menge Kalk in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Diese Abgasreinigungsanlage ist während des Schlackenabstichs in Betrieb. Während des Steinabstichs wird ein zusätzliches Nassentstaubungssystem – Venturiwäscher mit NaOH-Waschkreislauf – zugeschaltet. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen. Aus der Schwebeschmelzofen-Schlacke wird in einem Elektroofen eine Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierung gewonnen, die anschließend weiterverarbeitet wird (siehe Beschreibung in Abschnitt 3.3.3.4.2). Die Endschlacke wird granuliert.

Tabelle 3.42: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Primärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 1)

Hütte	Atlantic Copper	Aurubis Hamburg	Aurubis Pirdop	Boliden Harjavalta
Ofentyp	SSO, Einstrahlbrenner, O ₂ -Anreicherung 40-60 %	SSO, Einstrahlbrenner, O ₂ -Anreicherung 55-60 %	SSO, Einstrahlbrenner, O ₂ -Anreicherung 45-60 %	SSO, Einstrahlbrenner, O ₂ -Anreicherung 65-85 %
Schmelzleistung	4000 tato	4000 tato	4000 tato	2180 tato
Primärabgasführung	AHK + EGR Dampf 52 t/h	AHK + EGR Dampf 49 t/h, Staubgehalt nach EGR < 100 mg/Nm ³	AHK + EGR Dampf 54 t/h, Staubgehalt nach EGR < 150 mg/Nm ³	AHK und EGR Dampf 40 t/h
Primärabgasreinigung	Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage	Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage	Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage	Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Primärgas (mg/Nm³)			
SO₂	Siehe Abschnitt 2.7.2			
Sekundärabgasquellen	Absaugung SSO, Abstichbereich, Rinnen	Absaugung SSO, Abstichbereich, Rinnen	Absaugung SSO, Abstichbereich, Rinnen	Absaugung SSO-Bereich
Sekundärabgasreinigung	Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Trockenabscheider, Nasswäscher + Gewebefilter	Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	99 000	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Sekundärabgas (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	5 x pro Jahr	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
Staub	nicht repräsentativ	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
SO₂	nicht repräsentativ	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung
Cu	nicht gemessen	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung
Pb				
As				
Cd				
Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, des eingesetzten Verfahrens und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. Quelle: [378. Industrial NGOs 2012] Legende: SSO = Schwebeschmelzofen, AHK = Abhitzeessel, EGR =Elektrofilter, k.A. = keine Angaben				

Tabelle 3.43: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Primärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 2)

Hütte	Boliden Rönnskär	KGHM Glogów 2	KGHM Legnica
Ofentyp	SSO, Einstrahlbrenner O ₂ -Anreicherung ~ 55 %	SSO (direkte Erzeugung von Blisterkupfer)	3 Schachtöfen 2 in Betrieb Abgas 300–650 °C, Windmenge 17 000–32 000 Nm ³ /h, O ₂ -Anreicherung ~ 23,5 %
Schmelzleistung	k.A.	125 t/h	20–35 t/h
Primärabgasführung	AHK + EGR Dampf 20 t/h	AHK + EGR Dampf 64 t/h	Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklon + Venturi- wäscher, Kraftwerk
Primärabgasreinigung	Doppelkontakt- H ₂ SO ₄ - und Flüssig- SO ₂ -Anlage	Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ - Anlage (einschl. RSW + EGR zur Gasaufbereitung)	Verbrennung als Zusatzbrennstoff im Kraftwerk vor Ort und Rauchgasentschwefelung in Solinox-Anlage
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Primärabgas (mg/Nm³)		
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Staub	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Messintervall	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	kontinuierlich	nicht repräsentativ
SO₂	Siehe Abschnitt 2.7.2	140–800 (TMW) 270 (JMW)	nicht repräsentativ
Sekundärabgasquellen	Absaugung Elektroofen, SSO und Konzentrat- trocknungsanlage	Absaugung Kupfer- und Schlackenabstich- bereich des SSO	Absaugung Chargier- u. Abstichbereich, Chargierumgebung der Schachtöfen
Sekundärabgas- reinigung	Gewebefilter	Entschwefelung mittels Halbtrockenabscheider + Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter und Ableitung über Kamine
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	331 000	132 000	max. 22 000
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Sekundärabgas (mg/Nm³)		
Messintervall	wöchentlich	vierteljährlich (1 h)	vierteljährlich (1 h)
Staub	0,133–5,46 0,812 (JMW)	1–5 2 (JMW)	2–10
SO₂	nicht repräsentativ	0–100 23 (JMW)	0,5–78
Messintervall	monatlich	vierteljährlich	k.A.
Cu	< 0,010,627	0,04–0,65	k.A.
Pb	< 0,010,119	0,1–1,1	
As	< 0,01–0,174	0,12–0,8	
Cd	< 0,01–0,005	0,005–0,05	
Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. <i>Quelle:</i> [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]			
Legende: SSO = Schwebeschmelzofen, AHK = Abhitzekeessel, RSW =Radialstromwäscher, EGR =Elektrofilter, TMW =Tagesmittelwert, JMW =Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben			

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Absaug- und Abgasreinigungsanlagen
- Bei nassen Abgasreinigungsverfahren (Wäschern) können eine Feststoffsuspension und Abwasser anfallen, die vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter behandelt werden müssen, sowie ein fester Abfallstoff, der entsorgt werden muss.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Techniken sind sowohl in neuen als auch in bestehenden Primärkupferhütten anwendbar.

Abhitzekessel und Heißgas-EGR

Diese Technik kann zur Primärabgasreinigung bei Schwebeschmelz- und Elektroöfen angewendet werden und steht in engem Zusammenhang mit der anschließenden Behandlung in einer Schwefelsäureanlage.

Staubabsatzkammer, Zyklon und Venturiwäscher mit anschließender Verbrennung im Kraftwerk
Diese Technik eignet sich für Schachtöfen, die Konzentrate mit niedrigen Schwefel- und Eisengehalten bei gleichzeitig hohem organischem Kohlenstoffgehalt verarbeiten.

Gewebefilter

Gewebefilter können zur Reinigung von Sekundärabgasen angewendet werden.

Nasswäscher

Anwendbar zur Verringerung des SO₂-Gehalts der erfassten Sekundärabgase. Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit verbundenen medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Halbtrockenabscheider

Diese Technik kann in Kombination mit einem Gewebefilter zur Entschwefelung der erfassten Sekundärabgase angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für ein System zur Erfassung und Reinigung diffuser Emissionen (bestehend aus Gewebefilter, Abgaskanälen, Absaughauben, Gebläse und Prozesssteuerung) im Werk Aurubis Hamburg werden mit rund EUR 10 Millionen angegeben.

Bei Aurubis Pirdop belief sich die Investitionssumme für Maßnahmen zur Optimierung der Erfassung diffuser Emissionen in der Schmelzanlage auf ca. EUR 1 700 000. Darin inbegriffen sind die Optimierung der Hauben in der Schwebeschmelzanlage, das Verschließen der Pfannentunnel mit Metallbarrieren während des Abstichs und die Installation eines Dreifach-Sekundärhaubensystems für den Konverter.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Emissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Konvertern in der Primärkupfererzeugung

Der im Schmelzofen erzeugte Kupferstein wird durch Verblasen mit sauerstoffangereicherter Luft in Peirce-Smith (PS)- oder Hoboken-Konvertern (die einzigen in der EU-28 eingesetzten Konvertertypen) zu Blisterkupfer verblasen. Der Stein wird im schmelzflüssigen Zustand mittels Pfannen in den Konverter eingebracht. Die Chargierung von Stein und Zuschlägen (Schrotte und Flussmittel) erfolgt über den Konvertermund. Beim Verblasen des Steins entstehen Schlacke und Blisterkupfer, die beim Abgießen des Konverters wieder zurück in die Pfannen gegossen werden. Darüber hinaus wird der Konverter auch zur weiteren Verarbeitung einer Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierung verwendet, die bei der Entkupferung von Schwebeschmelzofenschlacke im Elektroofen anfällt. Das erzeugte Blisterkupfer wird anschließend in Anodenöfen weiterverarbeitet.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Sauerstoffanreicherung und Konverterbetrieb bei Unterdruck
- Absaughauben und Chargierung der Einsatzmaterialien (Schrott und Flussmittel) über die Haube bei PS-Konvertern
- Verwendung von Spezialdeckeln bei Hoboken-Konvertern
- Einsatz des Flash-Konverter-Verfahrens
- Verstärktes Absaugsystem zur Absaugung und effizienten Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen
- EGR und anschließende SO₂-Rückgewinnung in einer Schwefelsäure- (s. Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2) oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.3) zur Primärabgasreinigung
- Gewebefilter in Verbindung mit Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk oder Nass- oder Halbtrockenabscheider zur Sekundärabgasreinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Der Konverterbetrieb ist mit Staub-, Metall- und SO₂-Emissionen verbunden. Darüber hinaus ist der Pfannentransport eine potenzielle Quelle diffuser Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen. Je nach Konvertertyp kommen unterschiedliche Techniken zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen und Erfassung der Prozessgase zur Anwendung.

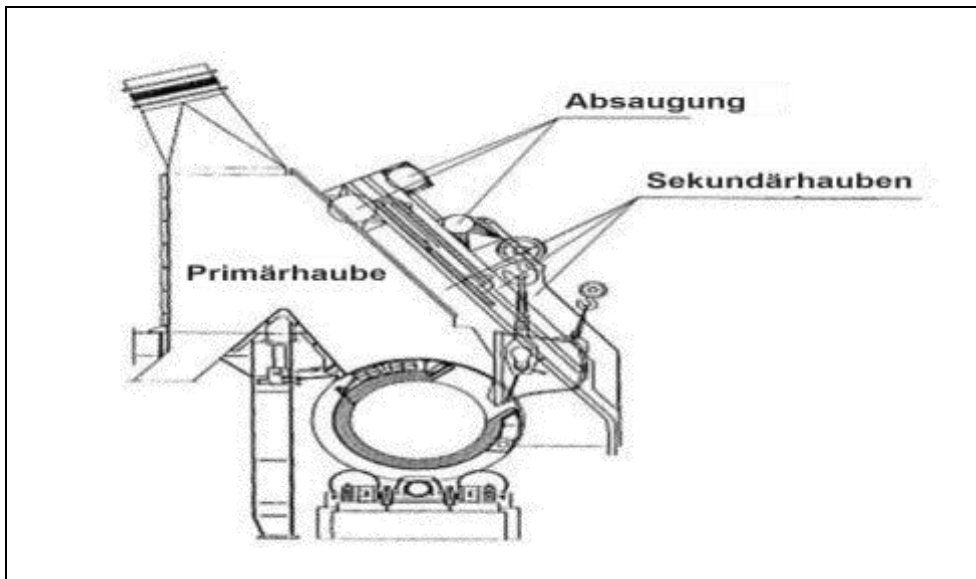
Beim PS-Konverter tritt das Prozessgas über den Konvertermund aus und wird über Hauben abgesaugt (siehe Abbildung 3.15). Im Gegensatz dazu werden die Prozessgase beim Hoboken-Konverter getrennt über einen Fuchskanal abgezogen. Bei beiden Konvertertypen wird das Prozessgas nach vorheriger Kühlung und Entstaubung einer Schwefelrückgewinnungsanlage zur Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure oder Flüssig-SO₂ zugeführt.

Betrieb bei Unterdruck, Absaughauben bei PS-Konvertern und Spezialdeckel bei Hoboken-Konvertern

Die Konverter werden bei Unterdruck betrieben. Bei PS-Konvertern wird das Primärabgas über eine Primärhaube oberhalb des Konvertermunds abgesaugt. Zur Vermeidung von Emissionen kann bei PS-Konvertern die Chargierung (Schrott und Flussmittel) über die Haube erfolgen. Sekundärabgase werden direkt an der Quelle mittels Absaughauben erfasst. PS-Konverter sind zusätzlich zur Primärhaube mit einem System von bis zu drei weiteren Hauben ausgestattet. Diese Absaughauben können entweder an die Schwefelsäureanlage (Haube 1) oder an die Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage (Haube 2 und 3) angebunden werden. Bei Chargier- und Abgießvorgängen werden die einzelnen Hauben automatisch in die optimale Stellung gefahren und so ein hoher Erfassungsgrad erreicht. Eine Steuerungsautomatik verhindert das Blasen beim Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der/in die Haube.

Bei Hoboken-Konvertern wird das Prozessgas über einen Fuchskanal am Ende des Konverters abgesaugt. Durch den siphonartig ausgebildeten Kanal wird der Austritt von Gasen bei allen Betriebszuständen minimiert. Zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus dem Konverterprozess sind

die Konvertermündungen mit Spezialdeckeln verschlossen. Beim Chargieren und Abgießen wird ein Unterdruck im Konverter aufrechterhalten.



Quelle: [198, Velten 1999],

Abbildung 3.15: Sekundärhaubensystem für einen Konverter

Steuerungstechnik zur sicheren Rauch-/Dämpferfassung und effizienten Absaugung

Die erfassten Gase werden mittels Gebläse über Abgaskanäle den Minderungs- oder Behandlungseinrichtungen zugeführt. Der Erfassungsgrad ist abhängig von der Effizienz der Hauben, dem Zustand der Abgaskanäle und einer guten Druck-/Absaugmengenregelung. Zur Anpassung der Absaugleistung an unterschiedliche Betriebszustände, z.B. Gasvolumenschwankungen, und damit zur Minimierung des Energieverbrauchs werden drehzahlgeregelte Gebläse eingesetzt. Zur optimalen Erfassung und Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen werden Gebläse, Ventile und Klappen während emissionsträchtiger Betriebsphasen mittels intelligenter Elektronik automatisch angesteuert. Durch regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Öfen, Abgaskanäle, Gebläse und Filtersysteme werden die Dichtigkeit der Systeme sichergestellt und diffuse Emissionen vermieden.

EGR und anschließende SO₂-Rückgewinnung in einer Schwefelsäure- (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2) oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.3)

Das Primärabgas (Absaugung über Primärhauben bei PS-Konvertern oder einen Fuchskanal bei Hoboken-Konvertern) weist hohe SO₂-Gehalte von 5 % bis 15 % auf und wird gewöhnlich gekühlt, entstaubt und anschließend einer Schwefelrückgewinnungs-, Schwefelsäure- oder Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage zugeführt.

Zur Kühlung des Konverterprimärabgases kommen Verdampfungskühlkammern, Abhitzeessel oder atmosphärische Kühler zum Einsatz. Das Abgas wird in Elektrofiltern entstaubt und kann vor Ableitung in die Gaskühl- und Aufbereitungsstufe der Doppelkontakanlage mit anderen Prozessgasen aus dem Schmelzbetrieb, z.B. dem Primärabgas des Schwebeschmelzofens, zusammengeführt werden.

In einer Hütte wird das Konverterprimärabgas einer Einfachkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage (mit einer Schwefelausebeute von 97 %) zugeführt. Das Sekundärabgas wird in einem regenerativen Nasswaschverfahren auf Basis Polyether entschwefelt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9).

Gewebefilter in Verbindung mit Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk oder ein System bestehend aus Nasswäscher, Halbtrockenabscheider und Gewebefilter

Das beim Chargieren und Abgießen des Konverters über die Sekundärhauben oder die Dachabsaugung erfasste Sekundärabgas wird einer Abgasreinigungsanlage zugeführt. Die

Sekundärabgase aus dem Konverterbereich werden entweder in einer eigenen Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt bzw. wird in Primärhütten eine zentrale Abgasreinigungsanlage zur gemeinsamen Behandlung der Sekundärabgasströme aus diversen Quellen vorgesehen.

Einige Hütten verwenden ein System bestehend aus Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter zur Sekundärabgasreinigung. In einer Hütte werden die Sekundärabgase in einer zentralen Entstaubungs- und Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Nassabscheider, Trockenabscheider und Gewebefilter gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Eine Hütte in der EU-28 setzt einen Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Zyklon-Tropfenabscheider zur Reinigung des Primärabgases eines Konverters ein, in dem eine Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierung verarbeitet wird. Da der SO₂-Gehalt dieses Abgasstroms für eine Schwefelrückgewinnung in der Schwefelsäureanlage zu niedrig ist, erfolgt hier die Abgasentschwefelung in einem Natronlaugewäscher.

Die Abgasreinigungsanlagen sind mit Überwachungseinrichtungen zur Erkennung von Leckagen und Betriebsstörungen ausgestattet. Absaughauben, Abgaskanäle, Filtersystem und Gebläse müssen regelmäßig gewartet werden, um den angestrebten Erfassungsgrad bzw. die notwendige Absaugleistung sicherzustellen.

Einsatz des Flash-Konverter-Verfahrens

Außerhalb der EU-28 wird das kontinuierliche Kennecott-Outotec Verfahren zur direkten Erzeugung von Blisterkupfer aus Kupferstein eingesetzt (Direktverfahren). In diesen Anlagen sind die Steinrinnen der Flash-Konverter abgedeckt und die Abstichöffnungen zur Erfassung von Sekundärabgasen mit Absaughauben ausgestattet. Die Sekundärabgase des Flash-Konverters werden gemeinsam mit den Sekundärabgasen des Schwebeschmelzofens in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Das aus dem Flash-Konverter austretende Prozessgas strömt über einen vertikalen Abgasschacht in einen Abhitzekegel. Dabei werden Abgasdruck und -temperatur im Kessel so eingestellt, dass eine Unterschreitung des Schwefelsäuretaupunkts und folglich Korrosionsprobleme im Kessel vermieden werden. Zur Sulfatierung des oxidhaltigen Flugstaubs wird am Eintritt in den Strahlungszug Luft in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Ein Teil des sulfatierten Staubs setzt sich im Abhitzekegel ab, der Rest wird im Elektrofilter zurückgewonnen. Der an der Niederschlagselektrode abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Konverter zurückgeführt. Das so vorgereinigte Abgas wird dann der Gasaufbereitung in der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Bei PS-Konvertern ermöglicht das Dreifach-Sekundärhaubensystem die direkte Erfassung der in den verschiedenen Betriebsphasen freigesetzten Abgase an der Quelle und so die Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen.
- Bei PS-Konvertern bietet die getrennte Führung von schwefelreichem und schwefelarmem Abgas den Vorteil eines höheren Schwefelrückgewinnungsgrads bzw. eines höheren SO₂-Abscheidegrads.
- Bei Betrieb mit Sauerstoffanreicherung kann die Abwärme der Abgase zum Einschmelzen von Kupferschrott genutzt werden.
- Bei Hoboken-Konvertern sind Konverteröffnungen mit Deckeln verschlossen, wodurch Emissionen während des Betriebs vermieden werden.
- Mit dem Flash-Konverter wird eine Minderung diffuser Emissionen und eine konstantere SO₂-Konzentration des Abgases erreicht.
- Dampferzeugung im Abhitzekegel
- Minderung von Staub- und Schwefeldioxidemissionen
- Schwefelrückgewinnung
- Staubrückgewinnung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionsmessungen in einer Primärkupferhütte vor und nach Umsetzung von Maßnahmen zur Vermeidung und Minderung diffuser Emissionen haben gezeigt, dass diffuse Emissionen bis zu 80 % der Gesamtemissionen in diesem Industriesektor ausmachen.

Der SO₂-Gehalt der Abgase ist abhängig vom jeweiligen Betriebszustand. Beim ersten Kupferblaszyklus können SO₂-Konzentrationen von über 10 % im Abgas auftreten. Allerdings sind die während der weiteren Blaszyklen oder beim Chargieren oder Abgießen des Konverters auftretenden SO₂-Konzentrationen deutlich geringer, oft sogar inexistent.

Atlantic Copper betreibt am Standort Huelva vier PS-Konverter (drei in Betrieb, zwei davon gleichzeitig im Blasbetrieb) mit einer durchschnittlichen Blasleistung von 37 000 Nm³/h. Das Abgas wird in Verdampfungskühlkammern – eine Kammer pro Konverter – direkt im Konverter gekühlt. In zwei getrennten Abgasreinigungslinien wird das Abgas dann in Heißgas-EGRs entstaubt, mit dem Abgas des Schwebeschmelzofens verschnitten und anschließend in die Gaskühl- und Aufbereitungsstufe der Schwefelsäureanlage geleitet. Die Konverter sind mit einer automatischen Steuerung zur Minimierung diffuser Emissionen beim Aus- und Eindrehen aus der/in die Haube ausgestattet. Schrott und Flussmittel werden während der Blasperiode über die Haube in den Konverter eingebracht. Die über die Konvertersekundärhauben erfassten Sekundärabgase werden in einer Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk zur SO₂-Abscheidung und nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter gereinigt. Der Filterstaub wird zum Teil im Schwebeschmelzofen wiederverwendet.

An den Aurubis-Standorten Hamburg und Pirdop werden jeweils drei PS-Konverter betrieben, wobei zwei parallel im Blasbetrieb sind (Blasleistung 750 Nm³/min). Schrott und Flussmittel werden während der Blasperiode über die Haube in den Konverter eingebracht. Auf diese Weise wird das Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der/in die Haube vermieden und das Emissionspotenzial reduziert. Die SO₂-haltigen Prozessgase werden über wassergekühlte Primärhauben abgesaugt, in Elektrofiltern entstaubt und dann der Schwefelsäureanlage zur weiteren Behandlung zugeführt.

In Hamburg und Pirdop ist jeder Konverter mit einem Sekundärhaubensystem zur Erfassung der beim Chargieren, Abschlacken oder Abgießen auftretenden Sekundäremissionen ausgerüstet. Die erfassten Abgase werden teils der H₂SO₄-Anlage zugeführt, teils in das Sekundärabgassystem geleitet und gemeinsam in der zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt. Letztere besteht jeweils aus einem Nasswäscher und Gewebefilter in Pirdop und einem Gewebefilter mit vorgeschalteter Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk in Hamburg. Im Hamburger Werk werden Pfanne und Gießrinne beim Abgießen der Schlacke über verfahrbare Hauben eingehaust, die Abgase erfasst und in der zentralen Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt. Im Werk Pirdop werden diffuse Restemissionen über eine Teildachabsaugung erfasst und der Abgasreinigungsanlage zugeführt.

Die Boliden-Hütte Rönnskär betreibt drei PS-Konverter (zwei in Betrieb, jeweils nur ein Konverter im Blasbetrieb). Vor Eintritt in den Mischturm der Schwefelsäure-/Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage wird das Konverterabgas unter Rückgewinnung der Abwärme durch einen Abhitzeessel geleitet und nach Temperatureinstellung in einem Verdampfungskühler in einem Heißgas-EGR entstaubt. Diffuse Emissionen, die beim Chargieren von Stein-, Schrott und sonstiger Materialien, beim Abschlacken und Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der/in die Haube auftreten, werden über eine Hallenabsaugung (Volumenstrom 800 000 m³/h) erfasst. Die über die Dachabsaugung (drei PS-Konverter) erfasste Abluft und das Abgas aus dem Abstichbereich des Schwebeschmelzofens werden gemeinsam in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta sind zwei der drei in Betrieb befindlichen Konverter gleichzeitig im Blasbetrieb, während der vierte neu zugestellt wird. Zum Ausgleich von Temperaturspitzen ist dem Abhitzeessel ein Verdampfungskühler vorgeschaltet. Die Entstaubung erfolgt in einem Heißgas-EGR. Emissionen, die beim Chargieren/Abschlacken/Abgießen des Blisterkupfers freigesetzt werden sowie diffuse Emissionen aus dem Transport der Kupfersteinschmelze

werden über Sekundärhauben und Dachöffnungsabsaugungen erfasst. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und über den Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Das Dach der Konverterhalle ist geschlossen. Zur Teilabscheidung der diffusen SO₂-Emissionen wird Kalk in den Abgaskanal eingeblasen.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 werden fünf Hoboken-Konverter betrieben, von denen i.d.R. drei in Betrieb sind, zwei davon im Blasbetrieb. Nach Grobentstaubung in einer Staubabsetzkammer, Abkühlung in atmosphärischen Kühlern und weiterer Entstaubung in einem EGR wird das Konverterabgas (Volumenstrom 110 000 Nm³/h) einer Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt, die mit einer Gasaufbereitungsstufe bestehend aus Radialstromwäscher und Nass-EGR ausgestattet ist.

In der Hütte Legnica durchläuft das Abgas der drei Hoboken-Konverter (Volumenstrom 50 000–80 000 Nm³/h, Temperatur 300–350 °C, SO₂-Gehalt 5–12 Vol.%) eine Staubabsetzkammer, atmosphärische Kühler und ein Elektrofilter, bevor es der Einfachkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt wird, die mit einer Gasaufbereitungsstufe bestehend aus Nasswäscher (DynaWave®) und Nass-EGRs ausgerüstet ist. Das die Schwefelsäureanlage verlassende Abgas mit einem Volumenstrom von 70 000 Nm³/h und einem SO₂-Gehalt von ca. 6–8 g/Nm³ wird abschließend in einem regenerativen Waschverfahren auf Basis Polyether auf einen Reingehalt von 500 mg/m³ SO₂ feinentschwefelt.

Die Hoboken-Konverter in den Hütten Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica sind mit Spezialdeckeln ausgerüstet, die eine Freisetzung von Emissionen während des Betriebs verhindern. Beim Chargieren und Abgießen wird ein Unterdruck in den Konvertern aufrechterhalten.

Am Standort Głogów 2 wird eine Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierungsschmelze aus einem Elektro-Schlackereinigungs-ofen in Hoboken-Konvertern weiterverarbeitet. Zusätzlich werden fester Metallabfall und Flüssigschlacke aus den Anodentrommelöfen in die Konverter aufgegeben. Das Konverterabgas wird in einer eigenen Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Venturiwäscher und Zyklon-Tropfenabscheider gereinigt. Als umlaufende Waschlösung dient Natronlauge, die gleichzeitig eine wirksame SO₂-Abscheidung gewährleistet.

Die Kupferhütte Kennecott Utah (Magna, Utah, USA) betreibt seit 1997 einen Flash-Konverter zum Verblasen von Kupferstein auf Blisterkupfer. Die Kupfersteinschmelze wird aus dem Schwebeschmelzofen abgezogen, mit Wasser granuliert und im Zwischenproduktlagerbereich zwischengelagert. Vor Aufgabe in den Flash-Konverter wird der Kupferstein in einer Vertikalwalzenmühle gemahlen und getrocknet. Im Flash-Konverter wird aus dem Kupferstein Blisterkupfer und Schlacke erzeugt. Die Schlacke wird abgestochen, in Wasser granuliert und in den Schwebeschmelzofen zurückgeführt. Das Blisterkupfer (mit einem S-Gehalt von 0,1–0,5 %) wird im Anodenofen weiterverarbeitet. [52, Newman, C.J. et al. 1998]

Eine Übersicht über die wesentlichen Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konvertern in der Primärkupferzeugung ist Tabelle 3.44 zu entnehmen.

Tabelle 3.44: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Konvertern in der Primärkupfererzeugung

Hütte	Atlantic Copper	Aurubis Hamburg	Aurubis Pirdop	Boliden Harjavalta
Konverter- kenndaten	4 PS-Konverter (3 in Betrieb) Blasleistung 37 000 Nm ³ /h	3 PS-Konverter (2 in Betrieb) Blasleistung 750 Nm ³ /min 24 % O ₂	3 PS-Konverter (2 in Betrieb) Blasleistung 3 000 Nm ³ /h 24 % O ₂	4 PS-Konverter (3 in Betrieb, 2 im Blasbetrieb) Blasleistung 450 Nm ³ /min 25–27 % O ₂
Primärabgas- führung	Verdampfungs- kühler + EGR	EGR	Verdampfungs- kühler + EGR	AHK + EGR Dampf, 15 kg/h
Primärabgas- reinigung	Doppelkontakt- anlage	Doppelkontakt- anlage	Doppelkontakt- anlage	Doppelkontakt- anlage
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Primärabgas (mg/Nm³)			
SO₂	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2
Sekundär- abgas- quellen	Konverter- sekundärhauben	Konverter- sekundärhauben angeschlossen an zentrale Abgasreinigung (s. Abschn. 3.3.3.6).	Konverter- sekundärhauben angeschlossen an zentrale Abgasreinigung (s. Abschn. 3.3.3.6)	Erfasste diffuse Emissionen im Konverterbereich – Hallenabsaugung und Sekundär- hauben angeschlossen an zentrale Abgasreinigung (s. Abschn. 3.3.3.6)
Sekundär- abgas- reinigung	Trockenkonditio- nierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Trockenkonditio- nierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Trockenabscheider, Nasswäscher + Gewebefilter	Trockenkonditio- nierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter
Max. Volumen- strom (Nm³/h) (Mittelwert)	350 000	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Sekundärabgas (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
Staub	3,2–6,6 4,7	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale Abgasreinigung
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
SO₂	105-732 (TMW) 399 (JMW)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
Cu	nicht gemessen	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
Pb				
As				
Cd				

Hütte	Boliden Rönnskär	KGHM Glogów 1	KGHM Glogów 2	KGHM Legnica
Konverter- kenndaten	3 PS-Konverter (2 in Betrieb) Blasleistung 750 Nm ³ /min 21–26 % O ₂	5 Hoboken- Konverter (3 in Betrieb, 2 im Blasbetrieb) Blasleistung 35 000 Nm ³ /h	3 Hoboken- Konverter (zum Verblasen der im E-Ofen erzeugten Cu-Pb Legierung)	4 Hoboken- Konverter (3 in Betrieb, 2 im Blasbetrieb) Blasleistung 12 000 Nm ³ /h 23,5 % O ₂
Primärabgas- führung	AHK, Verdampfungs- kühler + EGR	Atmosphärische Kühler, EGRs	nicht anwendbar	Atmosphärische Kühler, EGRs
Primärabgas- reinigung	Doppelkontakt- H ₂ SO ₄ - und Flüssig-SO ₂ -Anlage	Doppelkontakt- H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage (einschl. RSW und Nass-EGR zur Gasaufbereitung)	Venturiwäscher, betrieben mit Natronlauge + Zyklon- Tropfenabscheider	Einfachkontakt- anlage (einschl. Venturiwäscher + Nass-EGR zur Gasaufbereitung) Endgasent- schwefelung in Solinox-Anlage
Max. Volumen- strom (Nm³/h)	k.A.	128 000	77 000	240 000
Parameter	Emissionswerte – Primärabgas (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	monatlich (1 h)	nicht anwendbar
Staub	nicht relevant	nicht relevant	3–15 4,6 (JMW)	nicht relevant
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	monatlich (1 h)	nicht anwendbar
Cu	nicht relevant	nicht relevant	0,01–1,7	nicht relevant
Pb			0,25–2,0	
As			0,02–3,8	
Cd			0,0004–0,03	
Messintervall	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	26 x pro Jahr (1 h)
SO₂	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	5–800 (TMW) 140 (JMW)	0–200 (TMW) 81 (JMW)	40–500 300 (JMW)
Sekundär- abgasquellen -	Dachabsaugung Konverterhalle (3 PS-Konverter) + Absaugung SSO- Abstichbereich	Spezialdeckel zur Vermeidung von Emissionen während des Betriebs, Chargier- und Abgießbetrieb der Konverter unter Unterdruck	Spezialdeckel zur Vermeidung von Emissionen während des Betriebs, Chargier- und Abgießbetrieb der Konverter unter Unterdruck	Spezialdeckel zur Vermeidung von Emissionen während des Betriebs, Chargier- und Abgießbetrieb der Konverter unter Unterdruck
Sekundärab- gasreinigung	Trockenkondi- tionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Bei Hoboken- Konvertern treten keine diffusen Emissionen auf; Absaugung nicht erforderlich	Bei Hoboken- Konvertern treten keine diffusen Emissionen auf; Absaugung nicht erforderlich	Bei Hoboken- Konvertern treten keine diffusen Emissionen auf; Absaugung nicht erforderlich
Max. Volumen- strom (Nm³/h)	846 000	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar

Parameter	Emissionswerte – Sekundärabgas (mg/Nm ³)			
Messintervall	2 x pro Monat	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Staub	0,018–1,17 0,41 (JMW)	nicht relevant	nicht relevant	nicht relevant
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
SO₂	250 (JMW)	nicht relevant	nicht relevant	nicht relevant
Messintervall	2 x pro Monat	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Cu	< 0,01–0,082	nicht relevant	nicht relevant	nicht relevant
Pb	< 0,01–0,143			
As	< 0,01–0,041			
Cd	< 0,01–0,015			
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]				
Legende: SSO = Schwebeschmelzofen, AHK = Abhitzekeessel, ARA = Abgasreinigungsanlage, RSW =Radialstromwäscher, EGR =Elektrofilter, TMW =Tagesmittelwert, JMW =Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Absaug- und Abgasreinigungsanlagen
- Große Abluftvolumenströme, die behandelt werden müssen und hoher Energieverbrauch, insbesondere für die Dachabsaugung
- Bei Nassabscheidern (Wäschern) können eine Feststoffsuspension und Abwasser anfallen, die vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter behandelt werden müssen, sowie ein fester Abfallstoff, der entsorgt werden muss.
- Bei Flash-Konvertern muss der Kupferstein granuliert und gemahlen werden. Kupferschrott muss im Anodenofen eingeschmolzen werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Einhausung und Spezialdeckel zum Verschließen der Konverteröffnungen können bei Hoboken-Konvertern angewendet werden. Primär- und Sekundärhauben eignen sich für Peirce-Smith-Konverter.

Flash-Konverter sind nur in Neuanlagen oder bei einer umfangreichen Ertüchtigung bestehender Anlagen anwendbar. Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Wäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit verbundenen medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die Optimierung des Erfassungssystems für diffuse Emissionen in der Hütte Aurubis Pirdop werden mit rund EUR 1 700 000 angegeben. Die Optimierungsmaßnahmen umfassten den Einbau eines Dreifach-Sekundärhaubensystems für den Konverter, die Optimierung der Hauben im Bereich des Schwebeschmelzofens und das Verschließen der Pfannentunnels mit Metallbarrieren während des Abstichvorgangs.

Von einem anderen Betreiber (Atlantic Copper) werden Kosten in Höhe von EUR 16 Millionen für den Austausch aller Konverterprimärhauben und Schrottchargiersysteme sowie die Installation von Sekundärhauben und einer Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage genannt.

Die Investitionskosten für die Optimierung eines bestehenden Systems zur Erfassung und Abreinigung diffuser Emissionen im Konverterbereich der Primärkupferhütte Aurubis Hamburg (Gewebefilter, Abgaskanäle, Absaugeinrichtungen, Kalkeinblassystem, Gebläse und Prozesssteuerung) lagen bei EUR 6 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen
- Umwelt- und Arbeitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL) sowie Kennecott Utah Copper (USA)

Literatur

[52, Newman, C.J. et al. 1998], [238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.4 Aufbereitung kupferreicher Schlacke

Kupferreiche Schmelzofen- oder Konverterschlacken können einer Behandlung zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Kupfers unterzogen werden. Hierzu kommen zwei Verfahren zum Einsatz:

- Schlackekonzentrator
- Behandlung im Schlackeofen

3.3.3.4.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke durch langsames Abkühlen, Brechen, Mahlen und Flotation (Schlackenkonzentrator)

Zur Kupferrückgewinnung können kupferreiche Schmelzofen- und/oder Konverterschlacken in einer Schlackenkonzentrationsanlage aufbereitet werden. Bei diesem Schlackenreinigungsverfahren wird die schmelzflüssige Schlacke langsam abgekühlt, nach Erkalten in einer Brecher- und Nassmahanlage zerkleinert und anschließend zur Gewinnung eines mit Kupfer angereicherten Schlackenkonzentrats in einer Flotationsstufe behandelt. Eine Schlackenkonzentrationsanlage kommt zum Einsatz, wenn ausreichend Platz zur Verfügung steht und die anfallende Endschlacke entsprechend behandelt oder entsorgt werden kann. Um ein hohes Metallausbringen zu erzielen, muss die Schlacke vor Eintritt in die Flotationsstufe feinst aufgemahlen werden. Für die Endschlacke gibt es verschiedene industrielle Anwendungen, wobei allerdings das Verwertungspotenzial durch die feine Korngröße einschränkt sein kann, so dass ein Teil der Schlacke entsorgt werden muss. Das gewonnene Schlackenkonzentrat wird zusammen mit Primärkonzentrat in den Schwebeschmelzofen aufgegeben.

Gegenüber der Schlackenreinigung in Elektroöfen zeichnet sich dieses Verfahren durch einen niedrigeren Energieverbrauch aus. Zusätzlicher Energieeinsatz für eine Abgasreinigung entfällt. Allerdings wird mit der Behandlung im Schlackereinigungssofen ein höheres Kupferausbringen erzielt.

Die Schlackenkonzentrationsanlage zeichnet sich durch ihren flexiblen Betrieb aus und ist unempfindlich gegenüber Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung der Einsatzschlacken. Auf diese Weise kann die Schlackenaufbereitung vom eigentlichen Schmelzprozess entkoppelt werden.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Wasserbedüsung zur Staubbeseitigung beim Umschlag, bei der Lagerung und beim Brechen

- Entwässerungssystem zur Wasserrückgewinnung aus allen Verarbeitungsschritten, bei denen mit Wasserbedüsung gearbeitet wird, um Boden- und Grundwasserverschmutzung zu vermeiden
- Sammeln und Wiederverwendung des Wassers aus der Schlackenabkühlung, dem Flotationsprozess und der hydraulischen Förderung der Endschlacke
- Spezialausführung des Schlackenteichs zur Vermeidung von Boden- und Grundwasserverschmutzung und Aufrechterhaltung eines gewissen Wasserspiegels zur Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen. Die Endschlacken werden in geschlossenen Rohrleitungen hydraulisch zum Endlager transportiert.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Schlackenkonzentrationsverfahren wird die Schlacke entweder in Pfannen oder Gruben langsam an der Luft unter Bedüsung mit Wasser abgekühlt. Die Kühlplätze sind mit Entwässerungssystemen ausgerüstet, und das Wasser wird im Kreislauf geführt. Zur Niederschlagung von Staubemissionen in Umschlag- und Lagerbereichen werden Berieselungsanlagen eingesetzt.

Die Brecherstufe ist einstufig ausgeführt. Wassersprühsysteme können auch am Eintritt der Brecheranlage und an den Übergabestellen nach den Aufnahmebunkern eingesetzt werden. Die Mahlung erfolgt zweistufig mit einer Autogenmühle als erste und einer Kugel- oder Autogenmühle als zweite Mahlstufe. Die Primärmühle kann je nach Ausführung der Sekundärmühle mit einem offenen oder geschlossenen Kreislauf ausgeführt sein. Als Klassiereinrichtung wird in geschlossenen Mahlkreisläufen eine Siebmaschine, ein Spiralklassierer oder ein Zyklon verwendet. Die Sekundärmühle ist in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf mit Zyklonen geschaltet.

Der Überlauf aus der Sekundärmahlung fließt in eine Flotationsanlage bestehend aus Vorflotationsstufe, Nachflotationsstufe und zwei Reinigungsstufen. Die Konzentrate aus der Nachflotation und die Abgänge der ersten Reinigungsstufe werden in die Vorflotationsstufe zurückgeführt. Bei der Flotation handelt es sich um ein physikalisch-chemisches Verfahren, das bei natürlichen pH-Wert der Suspension unter Zugabe eines Xanthat-Sammlers und -Schäumers abläuft. Da Mahlung und Flotation mit Hilfe von Wasser durchgeführt werden, entstehen keine Emissionen in die Luft.

Das gewonnene Kupferkonzentrat wird auf konventionellem Wege in einem Eindicker und Vakuumfilter entwässert. Der Filterkuchen wird dem Einsatzmaterial des Schmelzofens beigemischt und nach Trocknung wieder im Schmelzofen eingesetzt.

Das Wasser wird mittels Entwässerungspumpen umgepumpt und im Prozess wiederverwendet.

Die Endschlacken werden in geschlossenen Rohrleitungen hydraulisch zu einem Absetzteich gefördert. Nach Absetzen der Feststoffe wird das Wasser dekantiert und wieder im Flotationsprozess verwendet. Umfassungswall und Boden des Absetzteichs sind mit HDPE-Folie ausgekleidet, um eine Versickerung des Wassers in den Boden und das Grundwasser zu vermeiden. Um einer Austrocknung des Teichs und damit Staubemissionen vorzubeugen, wird sichergestellt, dass die gelagerte Schlacke stets mit Wasser bedeckt ist. In ausgetrockneten Bereichen des Absetzteichs können auch Staubbindemittel eingesetzt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung von Emissionen in die Luft, da es sich bei der Schlackenreinigung um ein Nassverfahren handelt
- Das eingesetzte Wasser wird wiederverwendet.
- Kupferrückgewinnung und Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Vermeidung von Boden- und Grundwasserverschmutzung
- Die Endschlacke kann in einer Reihe industrieller Anwendungen wiederverwendet werden, z.B. im Straßenbau und als Versatzmaterial, zur Klinkerherstellung oder als

mineralischer Zuschlagstoff für Mischzemente oder als Zuschlag in der Eisen- und Stahlerzeugung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Boliden Harjavalta wird das in den Schwebeschmelzofen- und Konverterschlacken enthaltene Kupfer in einem Schlackenkonzentrator zurückgewonnen. Die Schlacke wird in Pfannen zunächst unter Wasserbedüsung langsam abgekühlt. Nach Erkalten werden die Pfannen mit Hilfe eines Hydraulikhammers entleert. Anschließend wird die Schlacke in einem Kegelbrecher vorzerkleinert, in einer Primär- und Sekundärmahlstufe gemahlen und der Flotationsstufe zugeführt. Dort werden kupferhaltige Partikel mit Hilfe von Luft, Wasser, Flotationsöl und Xanthaten abgetrennt. Das so gewonnene Schlackenkonzentrat wird dann eingedickt, gefiltert und dem Einsatzmaterial des Kupferschwebeschmelzofens beigemischt.

Die Abgänge des Schlackenkonzentrators, hauptsächlich Eisensilikat, werden aus den Flotationszellen abgezogen und zur Lagerung in einen speziell präparierten Bereich gepumpt. Das Entwässerungssystem des Schlackenabkühlplatzes ist in den Wasserkreislauf des Schlackenkonzentrators eingebunden. Letzterer arbeitet mit einem geschlossenen Wasserkreislauf unter Ausschleusung eines Teilstroms, der zur AWA geleitet wird.

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird die Schlacke aus dem Schwebeschmelzofen zur Rückgewinnung von Kupfer in einem Schlackenkonzentrator behandelt. Nach langsamer Abkühlung in den Pfannen wird die Schlacke in einem Brecher grobzerkleinert und mittels abgeplanter Lkws zu einer Schlackenkonzentrationsanlage transportiert, wo der Kupfergehalt durch Mahlung und Flotation zurückgewonnen wird. Das gewonnene Konzentrat wird dem Einsatzmaterial des Kupferschmelzofens beigemischt. Die Abgänge werden in einen speziell präparierten Bergeteich gepumpt, der gleichzeitig auch zur Ablagerung der Abgänge der Erzflotation dient. Der Schlackenkonzentrator arbeitet mit einem geschlossenen Wasserkreislauf.

Bei Aurubis Pirdop werden die Schwebeschmelzofen- und Konverterschlacke mittels schienengebundener Wagen zum Kühlplatz transportiert. Dort wird sie in Kristallisationsgruben zunächst an der Luft und dann mit Wasser gekühlt. Der Kühlplatz ist mit einem Entwässerungssystem und einer Pumpstation ausgestattet. Das gesamte Kühlwasser wird recycelt. Nach Erkalten wird die Schlacke aus den Gruben gebaggert und zu einem Sammelbunker oder in ein Freilager transportiert. Die Zerkleinerung erfolgt einstufig in einem Backenbrecher. Über zwei Gummiförderbänder gelangt die gebrochene Schlacke dann in zwei Aufgabebunker und von dort in die zweistufige Mahl- und Klassieranlage.

Die Primärmahlung erfolgt mittels Autogenmühlen. Die erste Autogenmühle (Durchsatz: 45–50 t/h) wird im geschlossenen Kreislauf mit einem Spiralklassierer betrieben. Der Überlauf aus dem Klassierer fließt in einen Pumpensumpf und wird in Hochleistungshydrozyklonen entwässert. Die zweite Autogenmühle (Durchsatz: 100–105 t/h) wird im geschlossenen Kreislauf mit zwei Hydrozyklonen betrieben. Zur Sekundärmahlung dient eine Kugelmühle, die in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf mit drei Hydrozyklonen geschaltet ist.

Der Überlauf der Hydrozyklone wird zur Flotationsanlage geleitet. Letztere ist in einer klassischen Frother-Scavenger-Cleaner Schaltung ausgeführt, d.h. Vorflotationsstufe, Nachflotationsstufe und zwei Reinigungsstufen. Die Abgänge der ersten Reinigungsstufe werden zusammen mit dem Konzentrat der Nachflotation in die zweite Vorflotationstufe gepumpt. Die Abgänge der zweiten Reinigungsstufe werden in die erste Reinigungsstufe zurückgepumpt.

Die in den Flotationszellen abgetrennte Konzentratsuspension wird in einem Eindicker entwässert, der Unterlauf des Eindickers in einem Vakuumscheibenfilter filtriert und der Filterkuchen in den Schwebeschmelzofen zurückgeführt. Der Überlauf des Eindickers wird über einen Zwischenbehälter in die Prozesswasservorlage zurückgepumpt und so ein geschlossener Wasserkreislauf in der Flotationsanlage hergestellt.

Alle Bereiche sind mit Bodensümpfen zur Sammlung ausgetretener Flüssigkeiten ausgerüstet.

Die Endschlacke wird über zwei in Reihe geschaltete Feststoffpumpen in den Bergeteich überführt. Dort setzt sich die Schlacke ab und der Überstand wird in einen Sammelbehälter gepumpt, von wo aus er als Prozesswasser in den Schlackenkonzentrator zurückgeführt wird.

Der Bergeteich ist mit einem Umfassungswall ausgestattet. Umfassungswall und Teichboden sind mit HDPE-Folie ausgekleidet, um eine Wasserversickerung in den Boden und das Grundwasser zu verhindern. Zur Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen wird im Bergeteich stets ein gewisser Wasserspiegel aufrechterhalten.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Berieselungsanlage

Höherer Wasserverbrauch

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Für den Betrieb des Schlackenkonzentrators werden folgende Betriebs- und Hilfsstoffe benötigt:

- Chemikalien: ~ 240 g/t Xanthat, ~ 7,5 g/t Schäumer
- Stromverbrauch für die Aufmahlung: Autogenmühle ~ 18,2 kWh/t; Kugelmühle ~ 14,3 kWh/t

Die Kosten für den Bau eines Endschlackenteichs (mit einer Kapazität von 1,6 Mio. m³) einschließlich Pumpstation, Druckleitung aus Stahl und geschlossenem Wasserkreislauf wurden mit EUR 8 Millionen angegeben (2002, Aurubis Pirdop).

Das Investitionsvolumen für die Optimierung und Kapazitätserweiterung eines Schlackenteichs auf 3,65 Mio. m³ mit einer Fläche von 220 Morgen belief sich auf EUR 6,5 Millionen (2008, Aurubis Pirdop).

Die Investitionskosten für den Bau von 45 neuen Kühl- und Kristallisationsgruben lagen bei EUR 1,350 Millionen (2007–2009, Aurubis Pirdop).

Für die Kapazitätserweiterung einer Flotationsanlage einschließlich einer zweiten Autogenmühle und zusätzlicher Flotationszellen wurden Investitionskosten von bis zu EUR 14 Millionen (2010, Aurubis Pirdop) genannt.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft und in das Wasser

Beispielanlagen

Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE) und Aurubis Pirdop (BG)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.4.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen (Elektroofen oder Verblaseofen)

Die Behandlung im Schlackeofen dient der Kupferrückgewinnung aus kupferreicher Schlacke und der Erzeugung einer Endschlacke. Hierzu kommen verschiedene Verfahren zum Einsatz:

- Schwebeschmelzofen- und Konverterschlacke werden in einem Elektrolichtbogenofen behandelt. Die Reinigung erfolgt durch Reduktion mit Kohlenstoff, wobei sich eine Kupferstein-/Metalllegierungsschicht absetzt und von der abgereicherten Schlacke getrennt wird. Die Elektroöfen können kontinuierlich oder chargenweise betrieben werden. Die Endschlacke wird entweder granuliert oder in Schlackenkübel abgegossen und nach langsamem Abkühlen an der Luft gebrochen.
- Elektroofenschlacke kann zur Metallrückgewinnung zusammen mit zinkhaltigem Staub in einer Schlackeverblaseanlage aufbereitet werden. Die Schlackeverblaseanlage besteht aus einem diskontinuierlich betriebenen Verblaseofen und einem elektrisch beheizten Absetzofen. Die Schmelze wird in den Absetzofen überführt und dort in eine Stein- und eine Legierungsphase getrennt, die getrennt abgezogen werden. Die Endschlacke wird granuliert. Die Abwärme des Ofenkühlwasser wird zurückgewonnen und in ein Fernwärmenetz ausgekoppelt.
- Bei der Sekundärkupfergewinnung wird die Konverterschlacke in TBRC-Öfen durch Reduktion mit Eisenschrott behandelt. Die Endschlacke wird granuliert.

In einigen Fällen besteht auch die Möglichkeit, die Konverterschlacke in den Schmelzprozess zurückzuführen, z.B. bei Schachtöfen. Andere kupferreiche Schlacken, wie z.B. Raffinationsschlacken, werden i.d.R. in eine vorgeschaltete Verarbeitungsstufe zurückgeführt, meistens den Konverter oder, im Fall von Sekundärhütten, die Einschmelzanlage.

Da die so erhaltene Endschlacke einen niedrigen Metallgehalt aufweist und in unterschiedlichsten Körnungen hergestellt werden kann (d.h. von grobkörnigem, stückigem Material über Granulat bis hin zu feinen Körnungen) ergeben sich vielfältige Anwendungen, z.B. als Tragschicht- oder Deckschicht im Straßen-/Wegebau, als Zuschlag im Böschungsbau, als Versatzmaterial im Bergbau oder anderen Anwendungen, als Betonzuschlag oder mineralischer Zuschlag für Mischzemente oder als Strahlmittel.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen in Betracht:

- richtige Auslegung des Ofens und der Abgasreinigungsanlage sowie Betrieb des Ofens unter Unterdruck
- Einhausung, geschlossene/abgedeckte Rinnen und Absaughauben
- Nachverbrennungskammer
- Nass- oder Halbtrockenabscheider
- Staubabscheider, wie z.B. Gewebefilter und EGR
- Staubniederschlagstechniken, z.B. Wassersprühsysteme
- Kreislaufführung und Wiederverwendung von Wasser im Prozess

Technische Beschreibung

Richtige Auslegung des Ofens und der Abgasreinigungsanlage und Ofenbetrieb unter Unterdruck

Durch die richtige Auslegung des Ofens und der Abgasreinigungsanlage können Emissionen vermieden werden. Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen wird der Ofen unter Unterdruck mit ausreichender Absaugung betrieben.

Einhausung, geschlossene/abgedeckte Rinnen und Absaughauben

Geschlossene Rinnen werden zur Überführung der schmelzflüssigen kupferreichen Schlacke in den Elektroofen eingesetzt. Abgedeckte Rinnen werden zur Überführung der gereinigten Schlacke in den Granulator bzw. zum Abgießen in Pfannen verwendet. Die Kupferstein-/Metalllegierungsschmelze wird ebenfalls über abgedeckte Rinnen in eine Pfanne abgegossen. Absaughauben werden über dem Ofendach, den Abstichen, Schlacke- und Steinpfannen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen angebracht. Absaughauben und Einhausungen werden unter

Unterdruck betrieben, um Gasaustritt zu vermeiden und einen optimalen Erfassungsgrad zu gewährleisten.

Nasswäscher, Gewebefilter und EGR

Das Abgas des Elektroofens wird nachverbrannt, gekühlt und nach Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Das Abgas des Verblaseofens wird in einem Abhitzeessel und Verdampfungskühler abgekühlt und anschließend in einem Elektrofilter entstaubt. Das Abgas des TBRC wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die abgeschiedenen metallhaltigen Stäube werden intern oder extern verwertet.

Sekundärabgase werden, sofern notwendig, in einem Gewebefilter mit oder ohne Kalkeindüsung entstaubt. Die Reinigung der Sekundärabgase kann zusammen mit dem Prozessabgas erfolgen. Die über die Ofenabsaugung, die Absaughauben im Abstich- und Rinnenbereich sowie die Absaugung der Pfanneneinhausung erfassten Sekundärabgase werden nach Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Staubniederschlagstechniken, Kreislaufführung und Wiederverwendung von Wasser im Prozess

Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen beim Kühlen, Umschlag und der Lagerung der Endschlacke wird der flüssige Schlackenstrom in einem Granulierbecken mit Hilfe eines Hochdruckwasserstrahls oder anderen Quenchsystems zu kleinen Körnern einheitlicher Größe granuliert. Das bei der Granulierung anfallende Abwasser wird in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Um eine Anreicherung von suspendierten Feststoffen und Metallverbindungen zu vermeiden, muss kontinuierlich ein Teilstrom aus dem Wasserkreislauf ausgeschleust werden. Das Granulat wird im Freien gelagert und umgeschlagen. Die langsame Abkühlung der Schlacke erfolgt in offenen Kübeln. Stückige Schlacke wird im Freien gelagert und umgeschlagen. Der Brecherplatz für die Schlackenzerkleinerung kann im Freien angeordnet werden. Der Brecher kann mit einer Absaughaube und einem Gewebefilter zur Erfassung und Abreinigung diffuser Emissionen ausgerüstet werden. Im Umschlag- und Lagerbereich der Endschlacke sowie am Brecherplatz können Berieselungsanlagen vorgesehen werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen
- Der in den Entstaubungsanlagen abgeschiedene metallhaltige Staub wird intern oder extern verwertet.
- Kupferrückgewinnung und Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Die Endschlacke kann in verschiedenen industriellen Anwendungen genutzt werden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Atlantic Copper werden Schwebeschmelzofen- und Konverterschlacken in einem diskontinuierlich betriebenen Elektroofen behandelt. Die Endschlacke wird mit Wasser granuliert. Das Elektroofenabgas wird in einem Nasswäscher mit geschlossenem Waschkreislauf (25 000 Nm³/h) entschwefelt und entstaubt. Diskontinuierliche Emissionsmessungen werden mindestens vierteljährlich durchgeführt, jeweils drei Messungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 8 Stunden. Die berichteten SO₂-Emissionswerte liegen bei 10–200 mg/Nm³.

Die im Bereich des Elektroofens, der Abstichöffnungen, Rinnen und während Abstichvorgängen über die Pfannenabsaughaube erfassten Sekundärabgase werden in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die aus der Waschlösung des Nasswäschers abgetrennten Feststoffe werden zur Rückgewinnung von Zink weiterverarbeitet.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden die Schwebeschmelzofen - und Konverterschlacken gemeinsam in einem elektrischen Schlackereinigungs-ofen entkuppert. Alternativ kann die Konverterschlacke flüssig in den Absetzherd des Schwebeschmelzofens aufgegeben und dort vor Behandlung im Elektroofen vorreduziert werden. Der elektrische Schlackereinigungs-ofen

arbeitet kontinuierlich. Schlackenchargierung und -abstich erfolgen halbkontinuierlich. Die Endschlacke wird entweder granuliert oder in Schlackenkübel abgegossen und nach langsamer Abkühlung an der Luft grob gebrochen. Das Abgas wird unter kontrollierter Sauerstoffzufuhr im Ofen nachverbrannt und anschließend durch Mischen mit dem Abgasstrom aus dem Rinnenbereich auf $< 700^{\circ}\text{C}$ gekühlt. Die weitere Kühlung vor Entstaubung im Gewebefilter der zentralen Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage erfolgt in einem Röhrenkühler. Die über die Haube oberhalb des Ofendachs, der Abstichöffnungen und Rinnen sowie die Haube über der Schlackenpfanne und der Steinpfanneneinhausung während des Abstichs erfassten Abgase werden ebenfalls im Gewebefilter der Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage entstaubt. Alle Abgasströme werden in einer gemeinsamen Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird die Schlacke aus dem Elektro-Steinschmelzofen zusammen mit zinkhaltigem Staub aus der Stahlindustrie in einer Verblaseanlage zur Metallrückgewinnung aufgearbeitet. Der Verblaseofen wird chargenweise betrieben. Die Schmelze wird in einen elektrisch beheizten Absetzofen überführt und nach erfolgter Trennung in eine Stein- und eine Legierungsphase abgestochen. Die Schlacke wird granuliert und für verschiedene Anwendungen vermarktet. Das Abgas aus dem Verblaseofen enthält dampfförmiges Zink (und Blei) und wird in einem Abhitzekegel gekühlt, wobei Zink (und Blei) rückoxidiert werden. Nach Temperatureinstellung in einem Verdampfungskühler wird der metalloxidhaltige Staub in Elektrofiltern abgeschieden (zwei parallel und einer in Reihe geschaltet) und das gereinigte Abgas über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Die Abwärme aus dem Kühlwasser des Verblaseofens wird zurückgewonnen und in ein Fernwärmenetz ausgekoppelt. Die Sekundärabgase im Bereich des Verblaseofens einschließlich der Abgase des Absetzofens werden über ein Erfassungssystem abgesaugt, mit dem Elektroofenabgas zusammengeführt und vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 2 wird die Schwebeschmelzofenschlacke in einem diskontinuierlich betriebenen Elektroofen unter Erzeugung einer Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierung und einer Endschlacke gereinigt. Die Endschlacke wird anschließend mit Wasser granuliert. Das Abgas wird nachverbrannt und anschließend in zwei Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Staub- und SO_2 -Emissionen werden diskontinuierlich in monatlichen Intervallen gemessen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei $1\text{--}5\text{ mg/Nm}^3$, die SO_2 -Emissionswerte liegen unter 100 mg/Nm^3 . Die niedrigen SO_2 -Emissionswerte sind auf den niedrigen Schwefelgehalt des verarbeiteten Konzentrats zurückzuführen. Aus dem abgeschiedenen Staub wird am Standort Głogów 1 Blei gewonnen. Einsatzstoff für den Elektroofen ist schmelzflüssige Schlacke aus dem Schwebeschmelzofen, die über abgedeckte Rinnen in den Ofen eingebracht wird. Der Chargierbereich für Hilfsstoffe und Zuschläge (schmelzflüssige Konverterschlacke, stückige Schlacke, Koks, Kalkstein) ist mit einem Absaugsystem und zwei Gewebefiltern ausgestattet. Die Abstichbereiche für die Cu-Pb-Fe Legierungsschmelze und schmelzflüssige Schlacke sind ebenfalls mit Absaugsystemen ausgerüstet. Die hier erfasste Abluft wird mit dem Hauptabgasstrom des Elektroofens zusammengeführt und in einer gemeinsamen Gewebefilteranlage entstaubt. Durch die Mischung dieser Abgasströme erfolgt gleichzeitig die Abgaskühlung auf Filtereintrittstemperatur.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica wird die Endschlacke direkt in den Schachtofen erzeugt. Die Schlacke wird periodisch abgestochen und mittels Pfannenwagen zu einem Verarbeitungsplatz im Freien transportiert. Dort wird sie langsam abgekühlt und nach Zerkleinerung in einem Brecher als Baustoff im Straßenbau verwendet. Die Hoboken-Konverterschlacke wird mittels Pfannenwagen in eine Schlackengrube transportiert, dort abgekühlt, gebrochen und zum erneuten Einschmelzen in die Schachtofen zurückgeführt.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse wird die Schlacke aus den Raffinationsöfen in TBRC-Schlackeöfen unter Rückgewinnung von Cu, Sn, Pb und Ni behandelt. In einem ersten Schritt werden die Kupferoxide durch Zugabe von Cu/Fe-Schrott zur Schlackenphase reduziert. Die so erzeugte unreine Kupferlegierungsschmelze wird abgezogen und dem Raffinationsofen zurückgeführt. Im nächsten Schritt werden die verbleibenden Sn- und Pb-Oxide unter Zugabe

von Eisenschrott reduziert, wobei eine komplexe Multimetall-Legierung entsteht, die neben Cu und Ni im Wesentlichen aus Pb und Sn besteht. Diese Metalllegierung wird anschließend in einem kleineren TBRC weiterverarbeitet. Die gereinigte Endschlacke wird mit Wasser granuliert. Das Abgas aus dem Schlackeofen wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Emissionsmessungen werden diskontinuierlich einmal pro Monat durchgeführt. Es wird ein Staubemissionswert von $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ berichtet.

Bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird die Schachtofenschlacke mit Wasser granuliert. Die Konverterschlacke wird in den Schachtofen zurückgeführt.

Am Aurubis-Standort Lünen wird die Schlacke aus der Einschmelzstufe über den Schlackenabstich des KRS-Ofens abgezogen, in einen Warmhalteofen überführt und anschließend mit Wasser granuliert. Die im TBRC (oder wenn der TBRC außer Betrieb ist, in der KRS-Anlage) anfallende metallreiche Schlacke wird in einem Mischzinnofen weiterverarbeitet.

Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Schlackereinigungsöfen sind in Tabelle 3.45 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 3.45: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Schlackereinigungsöfen

Hütte	Aurubis Hamburg	Atlantic Copper	Boliden Rönnskär	KGHM Głogów 2	Metallo-Chimique Beerse
Einsatz	SSO-Schlacke (einschl. Konverterschlacke)	SSO- und Konverterschlacke	Schlacke aus Elektroschmelzöfen	SSO-Schlacke	Schlacke aus Raffinationsöfen
Ofentyp	Elektroöfen 3 Elektroden	Elektroöfen 3 Elektroden	Verblaseöfen Absetzöfen	Elektroöfen 3 Elektroden	TBRC
Primärabgasreinigung	Nachverbrennung Kühlung Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	E-Ofenabgas: Kühlung und Nasswäsche	AHK, Verdampfungskühler, EGRs (2 parallel + 1 in Reihe geschaltet)	Nachverbrennung + Gewebefilter	Kühler Gewebe- filter
Sekundärabgasreinigung	Reinigung zs.mit Primärabgas in zentraler Sekundär-ARA Trockenkond. mit Kalk + Gewebefilter (s. Abschn. 3.3.3.6).	Absaugung Elektroöfen, Abstich- u. Rinnenbereich: Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter Reinigung zs. mit E-Ofenabgas	keine	Gewebe- filter
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	Teil der zentralen ARA (s. Abschn. 3.3.3.6).	bis zu 180 000	k.A.	252 000	k.A.
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)				
Quelle	Primär- und Sekundärabgas	Primärabgas	Primärabgas	Primärabgas	Pb/Sn Rückgewinnung
Messintervall	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6	5 x pro Jahr	monatlich	monatlich (1 h)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.5.3
Staub		nicht repräsentativ	< 5	1–5 1 (JMW)	
Messintervall	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6	15 x pro Jahr	kontinuierlich	monatlich (1 h)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.5.3
SO₂		10–200 80 (JMW)	nicht repräsentativ	0–100 19,6 (JMW)	
Messintervall	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6	nicht anwendbar	monatlich	monatlich (1 h)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.5.3
Cu		nicht gemessen	< 0,01–0,03	0,01–0,4	
Pb			0,01	0,34–3,25	
As			< 0,01–0,1	< 0,01–0,2	
Cd			< 0,01–0,01	< 0,01–0,05	
Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] Legende: SSO = Schwebeschmelzöfen, AHK = Abhitzeessel, EGR =Elektrofilter, ARA = Abgasreinigungsanlage, JMW =Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben					

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Absaug- und Abgasreinigungsanlagen

- Bei Nassabscheidern (Wäschern) können eine Feststoffsuspension und Abwasser anfallen, die vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter behandelt werden müssen, sowie ein fester Abfallstoff, der entsorgt werden muss.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden. Bei bestehenden Anlagen müssen die Anordnung und Kapazität relevanter vorhandener Anlagenteile berücksichtigt werden. Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit verbundenen medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Stromverbrauch des Elektroofens: ~ 10–50 kWh/t Schlacke

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen.
- Rückgewinnung von Metallen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 2 (PL) und Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.5 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen und Feuerraffinieren von Kupfer (Anodenofen) in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Verschluss der Ofenöffnungen mit Deckeln bei Anodentrommelöfen, Hauben und Absaugeinrichtungen zur Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen bei Chargier- und Abstichvorgängen
- Gewebefilter in Kombination mit Kalkeindüsung oder Wäscher und Nass-EGR
- In der Sekundärkupfererzeugung: Nachverbrennungskammer, Quenche, Kalk- und Aktivkohleindüsung vor dem Gewebefilter
- Nutzung der Abwärme des Abgases zum Vorwärmen der Chargensäule bei Schachtöfen oder zur Verbrennungsluftvorwärmung oder Trocknung

Technische Beschreibung

Die Ofenabgase werden während des Reduktionsschritts nachverbrannt und anschließend gekühlt und in Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Soweit relevante SO₂-Emissionen auftreten, kommt eine Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk zum Einsatz. Als weitere Entschwefelungs- und Entstaubungstechniken kommen Nasswäscher und Nass-Elektrofilter in Betracht. Nachverbrennungskammern werden zum vollständigen Ausbrand organischer Abgasinhaltsstoffe einschl. PCDD/F (bei der Sekundärkupfererzeugung) eingesetzt. Zur Minderung von Dioxinmissionen wird ggf. Kalk und/oder Aktivkohle in den Abgasstrom vor dem Gewebefilter eingeblasen.

Zur Minimierung diffuser Emissionen kommen unterschiedliche Techniken zur Anwendung:

- Bei Anodentrommelöfen wird der Ofenmund zur Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen während des Betriebs mit einem Deckel verschlossen.
- Rauche/Dämpfe im Chargier- und Abstichbereich der Anodenöfen werden über Hauben und Absaugsysteme erfasst.
- Die Sekundärabgase aus dem Chargier- und Abstichbereich der Anodenöfen können als Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner der Anodenöfen genutzt werden.

Bei Anodenschachtöfen wird die Abwärme des Abgases zum Erwärmen/Einschmelzen der Chargensäule genutzt. Des Weiteren wird das heiße Abgas der Anodenöfen auch in der Konzentrattrocknungsanlage oder anderen Prozessstufen eingesetzt. Das über die Abzugshauben erfasste Abgas kann als vorgewärmte Verbrennungsluft genutzt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt.
- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Umwelleistung und Betriebsdaten

In einer Primärhütte wurde durch Einhausung und Erfassung der diffusen Emission im Bereich der Anodenöfen und des Anodengießbrads eine Verringerung der Emissionen um 70 % erreicht. Im Schmelzofen (Contimelt) strömen die Reaktionsgase von unten nach oben durch den Ofenschacht und erwärmen dabei die Charge vor Austritt aus dem Ofenkopf. Das Abgas kann bis zu einem gewissen Grad in der Gasphase des Anodenofens nachverbrannt werden. Das heiße Anodenofenabgases wird zur Konzentrattrocknung genutzt.

Atlantic Copper betreibt am Standort Huelva (Primärhütte) drei Raffinationsöfen. Das Abgas aus der Feuerraffination wird in drei Nasswäschern – ein Wäscher pro Ofen (Volumenstrom 25 000 Nm³/h) – und abschließend in einem Nasselektrofilter gereinigt. Der abgeschiedene Staub besteht aus Zersetzungsprodukten und unverbrannten Komponenten des Erdgases sowie kondensierten Metallen und Oxiden, die in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden. Folgende Emissionswerte wurden berichtet: Staub: 8 mg/Nm³, NO_x: < 60 mg/Nm³, SO₂: < 160 mg/Nm³.

Am Aurubis-Standort Hamburg (Primärhütte) wird das Anodenofenabgas in eine Nachverbrennungskammer geleitet, in der das über die Absaughauben erfasste Sekundärabgas zunächst als Verbrennungsluft und dann als Kühlluft genutzt wird. Nach Kühlung in einem Luft/Gas-Röhrenkühler wird das Abgas in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt (i.d.R. auf einen Reingasstaubgehalt von < 5 mg/Nm³) und anschließend über den Kamin in die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird im Schwebeschmelzofen wiederverwendet. 2009 wurde ein Projekt zur Erfassung und Reinigung diffuser Emissionen im Bereich des Anodenofens und Anodengießstands abgeschlossen. Die Maßnahmen umfassten die Teileinhausung der Anlage mit Absaugung der Abgase und Reinigung in einem Gewebefilter nach Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 0,5–10 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. < 0,5–3,3 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert). Die SO₂-Emissionswerte werden mit < 50–1050 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. 50–180 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert) angegeben. Da SO₂ hauptsächlich in der Oxidationsphase gebildet wird, treten in dieser Betriebsphase wesentlich höhere SO₂ Emissionen auf als während der Reduktionphase.

Bei Aurubis Pirdop (Primärhütte) wird das Anodenofenabgas durch eine Nachverbrennungskammer geleitet und anschließend im Trockenabscheider und Gewebefilter der zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage entschwefelt und entstaubt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Bei Aurubis Lünen (Sekundärhütte) werden die Chargieröffnungen, Schlacken- und Metallabstiche über Sekundärhauben abgesaugt. Die gesamte Anodenofenhalle wird abgesaugt

und die Hallenabluft (Volumenstrom 300 000 m³/h) in einer separaten Filteranlage entstaubt. Der Rohgasstaubgehalt beträgt ca. 1000 mg/m³. Das Anodenofenabgas wird in Abhitzekesteln gekühlt, in sechs Gewebefiltern entstaubt und anschließend über zwei Kamine in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet. Staub-, SO₂- und NO_x-Emission werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei < 0,5–6,8 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. < 0,5–2,9 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert), die SO₂-Emissionswerte bei < 50–1620 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. < 50–450 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert). PCDD/PCDF werden im Dreijahresturnus gemessen (drei Proben über eine Probenahmedauer von 6 h). Der berichtete Emissionswert liegt bei 0,05 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Aurubis Olen (Sekundärhütte) betreibt eine Contimelt-Anlage. Im Schmelzofen (Contimelt) strömen die Reaktionsgase von unten nach oben durch den Ofenschacht und erwärmen dabei die Charge vor Austritt aus dem Ofenkopf. Das Abgas aus dem Polofen wird zur Umsetzung von CO in CO₂ nachverbrannt und anschließend unter Wärmerückgewinnung in einem Abhitzekestel gekühlt. Der Abgasstrom aus dem Schmelzofen wird vor Eintritt in den Abhitzekestel gequenchet und in einem Zyklon grobentstaubt. Nach Kühlung wird es zusammen mit dem Polofenabgas in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Zur Minderung von Dioxinemissionen wird ein Kalk-/Aktivkohlegemisch in den Abgasstrom vor dem Gewebefilter eingeblasen. Emissionsmessungen werden monatlich durchgeführt. Folgende Emissionswerte wurden berichtet: Staub: 1–6,7 mg/Nm³, SO₂: < 1–427 mg/Nm³, NO_x: 178–500 mg/Nm³. PCDD/F-Emissionen werden dreimal pro Jahr gemessen (Probenahmedauer 6 h). Die berichteten Emissionswerte liegen bei 0,03–0,5 ng I-TEQ/Nm³. Tabelle 3.46 zeigt die Ergebnisse aller TVOC-Messungen in 2013.

Tabelle 3.46: TVOC-Emissionen der Hütte Aurubis Olen in 2013

Monat	TVOC (mg/Nm ³)
Januar	9
Februar	19
März	26
April	10
Mai	14
Juni	10
Juli	6
August	23
September	28
Oktober	13
November	50
Dezember	22
Anmerkung: Diese Daten wurden der TWG vom Anlagenbetreiber bei der abschließenden Sitzung zum BVT-Referenzdokument zur Nichteisenmetallindustrie vorgelegt.	

Bei Boliden Harjavalta erfolgt eine Teilverbrennung der Abgase in der Gasphase des Anodenofens. Um auszuschließen, dass CO in die Gewebefilter gelangt, ist dem Ofen eine Nachverbrennungskammer nachgeschaltet. Ein Teilstrom des heißen Anodenofengases wird zur Trocknung der Nickelkonzentrate genutzt. Das restliche Abgas wird nach Kühlung in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend über den Kamin in die Atmosphäre geleitet. Der zurückgewonnene Staub wird über ein pneumatisches Fördersystem zurück in den Schwebeschmelzofen geführt. Die über die Dachöffnungsabsaugungen erfasste Abluft wird im Gewebefilter der Konverterhallenabsaugung entstaubt.

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird das Abgas aus der Feuerraffination in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Das über die Absaugsysteme erfasste Abgas wird ebenfalls über dieses Gewebefilter geführt. Staubemissionen werden monatlich

gemessen. Die erreichten Reingaswerte liegen bei $< 1 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$. SO_2 - und NO_x -Emissionen werden jährlich gemessen. Folgende Emissionswerte werden berichtet: SO_2 : $< 500 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, NO_x : $< 400 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Głogów 2 (Primärhütten) wird das Anodenofenabgas nachverbrannt, anschließend mit dem abgesaugten Abgas aus den Abstichbereichen zusammengeführt und gemeinsam in einem Halbtrocken-Abscheider mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter entschwefelt und entstaubt. Zur Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen während des Betriebs sind die Anodentrommelöfen mit Spezialdeckeln ausgestattet. Zusätzlich sind die Chargier- und Abstichbereiche aller Anodenöfen mit Absaugeinrichtungen versehen. Das erfasste Abgas wird gemeinsam mit dem Hauptabgasstrom der Anodenöfen entstaubt und entschwefelt. Emissionsmessungen werden monatlich durchgeführt. Die berichteten Emissionswerte liegen bei $1\text{--}5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ für Staub und $10\text{--}200 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ für NO_x . PCDD/F-Stichprobenmessungen im Abgas des Raffinationsofens zeigen Konzentrationen von $0,036 \text{ ng I-TEQ/m}^3$ (in der Raffinationsphase) und $0,121 \text{ ng I-TEQ/m}^3$ (in der Kupferschrotteinschmelzphase). Die berichteten SO_2 -Emissionen liegen bei $10\text{--}100 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ in der Hütte Głogów 1 und $20\text{--}200 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ in der Hütte Głogów 2.

Am Standort Legnica (Primärhütte) wird das Anodenofenabgas nachverbrannt und anschließend nach Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk zur SO_2 -Abscheidung in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Zur Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen während des Betriebs sind die Öfen mit Spezialdeckeln ausgestattet. Zusätzlich sind die Chargier-, Abstich- und Abschlackbereiche der Anodenöfen mit Absaugeinrichtungen versehen. Das hier erfasste Abgas wird zum Teil als Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner der Anodenöfen genutzt. Der Rest wird dem Hauptabgasstrom der Anodenöfen in der (hauptsächlich während der Reduktionsphase) oder hinter der Nachverbrennungskammer zugeführt. Folgende Reingaswerte werden erreicht: Staub: $0,2\text{--}1 \text{ mg /Nm}^3$, SO_2 : $0,2\text{--}300 \text{ mg /Nm}^3$, NO_x : $0\text{--}100 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$. Der Gießstand wird ebenfalls abgesaugt. Die Abluft aus diesem Bereich ist nur mit Wasserdampf beladen und wird direkt über einen Kamin in die Atmosphäre geleitet (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse (Sekundärhütte) erfolgt die Feuerraffination in einem TBRC (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.3). Das Abgas des alten Anodenofens wird in einer Nachverbrennungskammer behandelt und anschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Der neue Anodenofen ist zur Erfassung von Staubemissionen aus Chargier- und Abstichvorgängen (Stichlöcher) gekapselt. Das Abgas wird durch eine Nachverbrennungskammer geleitet und anschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Quantitative Staubemissionsdaten werden monatlich erfasst und berichtet. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen unter 5 mg/Nm^3 (siehe Betriebsdaten in Tabelle 3.49).

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg (Sekundärhütte) erfolgt die Abgasentstaubung in einem Gewebefilter ($150\,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$). Die Abwärme wird in einem Abhitzeessel zurückgewonnen. Chargier- und Abstichbereiche der Anodenöfen sind mit Absaugsystemen ausgestattet. Die Abgasentstaubung erfolgt in einem Gewebefilter. Folgende Emissionswerte werden berichtet: SO_2 : $20\text{--}50,4 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, Staub: $0,6\text{--}3,8 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, NO_x : $4,5\text{--}213 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$.

Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten für die Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung sind jeweils in Tabelle 3.47 und Tabelle 3.49 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 3.47: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Primärkupfererzeugung (Teil 1)

Hütte	Atlantic Copper	Aurubis Hamburg	Aurubis Pirdop	Boliden Harjavalta
Ofentyp	3 Drehtrommelöfen 2 Gießräder Gießleistung je 70 t/h und 40 t/h	2 Drehtrommelöfen 1 Gießrad (80 t/h)	2 Drehtrommelöfen 1 Gießrad	2 Drehtrommelöfen 1 Gießrad (60 80 t/h)
Reduziermittel	Erdgas	Erdgas	Propan-Butan	Propan
Emissionsquellen	Ofenabgas	Ofenabgas, Absaugungen	Ofenabgas, Absaugungen	Abgas, Dachöffnungsabsaugung
Abgasreinigung	Nasswäscher + Nass-EGR	NVK, Luft/Gas-Röhrenkühler, Gewebefilter	NVK, Trockenabscheider + Gewebefilter (als Teil der zentralen ARA, s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6)	NVK, Kühlung, Trockenkond. mit Kalk + Gewebefilter (als Teil der zentralen ARA, s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6)
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	47 000	70 000	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	5 x pro Jahr	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
Staub	nicht repräsentativ	< 0,5–9,5 (HMW) < 0,8–3,3 (TMW) < 0,5–2 (JMW)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
Messintervall	5 x pro Jahr	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
SO₂	< 10–337 50 (*)	< 50–1050 (HMW) < 50–180 (TMW) 80–150 (JMW)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
NO_x	< 10-56 35 (*)	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	vierteljährlich (3*30 min)	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6 Zentrale ARA
Cu	nicht gemessen	< 0,03–1,5	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6	s. Abschnitt 3.3.3.6
Pb		< 0,01–0,52		
As		< 0,01–0,18		
Cd		< 0,02		

Tabelle 3.48: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Primärkupfererzeugung (Teil 2)

Hütte	Boliden Rönnskär	KGHM Głogów 1	KGHM Głogów 2	KGHM Legnica
Ofentyp	2 Drehtrommelöfen, 2 Gießräder (100 t/h)	2 Drehtrommelöfen, eine Gießmaschine mit 2 Gießrädern	2 Drehtrommelöfen, eine Gießmaschine mit 2 Gießrädern + 2 Flammöfen, eine Gießmaschine mit einem Gießrad	2 Drehtrommelöfen, 1 Gießmaschine mit 2 Gießrädern
Reduziermittel	Ammoniak	Erdgas	Erdgas	Erdgas
Emissionsquellen:	Ofenabgas, Absaugungen	Ofenabgas, Absaugung Chargier-/Abstichbereich und Gießstand	Ofenabgas, Absaugung Chargier-/Abstichbereich und Gießstand	Ofenabgas, Absaugung Chargier-/Abstich-/Abschlackbereich
Abgasreinigung	Gewebefilter	NVK, Halbtrockenentschwefelung + Gewebefilter	NVK, Halbtrockenentschwefelung + Gewebefilter	NVK, Trockenentschwefelung + Gewebefilter
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	66 200	38 000	102 000	40 000
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	monatlich	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)
Staub	< 0,02–0,89 0,22 (*)	1–5 1,77 (*)	1–5 1,47 (*)	0,2–1 0,7 (*)
Messintervall	jährlich	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)
SO₂	1–532 73,4 (*)	0–100 34,4 (*)	20–200 98,3 (*)	0,12–355 38,5 (*)
NO_x	k.A.	10–200 20,7 (*)	15–170 117 (*)	0,4–150 25 (*)
Messintervall	halbjährlich	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)	monatlich (1 h)
Cu	0,005–0,45	0,16–3,38	0,04–0,4	0,01–0,158
Pb	k.A.	0,06–1,33	0,01–1	0,01–0,135
As	k.A.	0,07–0,9	0,05–1	0,0–0,115
Cd	k.A.	0–0,002	0–0,01	k.A.
(*) Mittelwert der Messungen in einem Jahr Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]				
Legende: NVK =Nachverbrennungskammer, ARA = Abgasreinigungsanlage, EGR = Elektrofilter, HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert, JMW = Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben				

Tabelle 3.49: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Einschmelz- und Feuerraffinationsanlagen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Hütte	Aurubis Lünen	Aurubis Olen	Metallo-Chimique Beerse	Montanwerke Brixlegg
Ofentyp	1 stationärer Ofen 1 kipparer Ofen 1 Gießrad	Contimelt, Schachtschmelzofen, Polofen, 2 Gießräder	2 Drehtrommelöfen, 2 Gießräder	1 Flammofen, 1 Gießrad
Reduziermittel	Holz 20 kg/t Cu Erdgas 10 m ³ /t Cu	Erdgas	Erdgas	Erdgas
Emissionsquellen	Ofenabgas, Hauben und Absaugung Chargieröffnungen, Schlacken- und Metallstiche Hallenabsaugung	Abgas Schmelzofen Abgas Polofen	Ofenabgas Absaugung	Ofenabgas Absaugung
Abgasreinigung	AHK + Gewebefilter, Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Quenche, Zyklon, AHK, Gewebefilter Nachverbrennung, AHK, Gewebefilter mit Kalk- und Aktivkohlezugabe	Alt: NVK + Gewebefilter Neu: NVK + Kühler + Gewebefilter	AHK + Gewebefilter
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	150 000	120 000	116 700	150 000
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	monatlich (1*60min)	halbjährlich (4h)	kontinuierlich/ diskontinuierlich
Staub	< 0,5–6,8 (HMW) < 0,5–2,9 (TMW) 2,1 (90. Perzentil TMW) 0,9 (JMW)	< 1–6,7 < 1–2,1 (*)	1–1,3 1,15 (*)	2 (TMW**) 0,6–3,8 (alle 3 Jahre, 3x0,5 h*)
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	monatlich (1*60min)	k.A.	(alle 3 Jahre 3 x 0,5 h**)
SO₂	< 50–1620 (HMW) < 50–450 (TMW), 320 (90. Perzentil TMW) 190 (JMW)	50–427 70–260 (***)	k.A.	20–50,4 (alle 3 Jahre, 3 x 0,5 h**)
NO_x	< 50–350 (HMW) < 50–210 (TMW) 105 (90. Perzentil TMW) 50 (JMW)	178–500 352–460 (***)	k.A.	4,5–213 (alle 3 Jahre, 3x0,5 h**)
Messintervall	alle 3 Jahre (6*0,5 h)	monatlich (1*60 min)	halbjährlich (4h)	alle 3 Jahre (3x0,5 h**)
Cu	0,19–0,43	0,02–0,6	< 0,0005–0,2703	0,5
Pb	0,07–0,18	< 0,01–0,2	< 0,0005–0,1476	0,1
As	< 0,01–0,03	0,01–0,6	< 0,0005–0,0312	0,0019
Cd	0,001–0,003	< 0,2	< 0,0005–0,0111	0,01
Ni	< 0,01–0,01		< 0,0005–0,0077	0,0014
Sn	< 0,017–0,054	< 0,2	< 0,001–0,017	0,0028
Sb	0,001–0,003		< 0,0005–0,004	< 0,0001
TVOC	7–38	10–50	k.A.	0,2–15,9

Messintervall	k.A.	3 x pro Jahr (6 h)	nicht anwendbar	(alle drei Jahre 3x3 h**)
PCDD /PCDF	0,039–0,050 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	0,03–0,5 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	k.A.	0,142–0,209 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³
<p>* kontinuierliche Messung ** diskontinuierliche Messung (***) Mittelwert der Messungen in einem Jahr Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [385, Germany 2012]</p> <p><u>Legende: NVK=Nachverbrennungskammer, AHK=Abhitzekeessel, HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert, JMW = Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben</u></p>				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Bei Einsatz von Nasswäschern fällt Abwasser an, das vor Ableitung behandelt werden muss, wobei ein fester Abfallstoff entsteht, der entsorgt werden muss.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken eignen sich je nach Einsatzmaterial, Ofenbauart und eingesetztem Reduziermittel für Neuanlagen sowie auch zur Nachrüstung bestehender Anlagen.

Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit verbundenen medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Aurubis Hamburg hat ca. EUR 7 Millionen in Maßnahmen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen im Bereich des Anodenofens und Gießstands investiert.

Bei Atlantic Copper wurden rund EUR 3,4 Millionen in Emissionsminderungsmaßnahmen einschließlich eines Nass-EGR investiert.

Bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg beliefen sich die Kosten für eine neue Gewebefilteranlage bestehend aus vier Filterlinien mit einer Kapazität von insgesamt 150 000 Nm³/h, einschließlich Gebläse, Kamin, Gebäude und Abgaskanäle auf rund EUR 2 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung der Emissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg and Lünen (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE) und Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.6 Zentrale Erfassung und Minderung von Sekundäremissionen aus Öfen und Nebeneinrichtungen in Primärkupferhütten

Beschreibung

In einigen Primärhütten werden Sekundärabgase aus diversen Quellen unter Einsatz der in Unterkapitel 2.4 beschriebenen Techniken über ein zentrales Abgassystem erfasst und in einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage (Trocken- oder Nassabscheider mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter) behandelt.

Technische Beschreibung

In einigen Hütten, insbesondere bei Einsatz von Peirce-Smith-Konvertern, erfolgt die Erfassung und Minderung von Sekundäremissionen zentral.

Sekundärabgase aus diversen Quellen der Primärkupfererzeugung, wie z.B. die über die Konvertersekundärhauben, Absaughauben der Schwebeschmelz- und Elektro-Schlackeöfen, die Absaugung des Abstich- und Rinnenbereichs der Schmelz- und Raffinationsöfen sowie die Absaughauben der Anodenöfen und des Gießbrads erfassten Abgasströme, werden einem gemeinsamen System zugeführt.

Wie in Abschnitt 3.3.2 und 3.3.3 beschrieben, erfolgt die Abgasentschwefelung mit Hilfe eines Absorptionsmittels in einem Trocken- oder Nassabscheider mit nachgeschalteter Entstaubung in einem Gewebefilter vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung diffuser Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen
- Erfassung und Reinigung einer Vielzahl kleiner Sekundärabgasströme, deren separate Reinigung andernfalls nicht praktikabel wäre
- Potenziell höherer Abscheidegrad durch einen kontinuierlichen, optimierten Abgasvolumenstrom mit konstanterer Schadstoffbelastung
- Das Mischen von feuchten Gasen mit Heißgasen ermöglicht eine Behandlung im Gewebefilter; andernfalls müssen feuchte Gase in einem Nasswäscher gereinigt werden.
- Durch Mischen kalter Gase mit heißen Gasen aus unterschiedlichen Quellen können bestimmte Abgasinhaltsstoffe, wie z.B. Pb und As, von der Gasphase in die Staubphase überführt werden. Hierdurch wird eine wirksame Abscheidung im Gewebefilter möglich, was andernfalls nicht der Fall wäre.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Eine Hütte (Aurubis Hamburg, Primärhütte) verfügt über eine zentrale Sekundärabgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage, die für einen Gesamtvolumenstrom von 930 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt ist. An diese Anlage angeschlossen sind die Konvertersekundärhauben, die Absaughauben des Schwebeschmelz- und Elektro-Schlackeofens, die Absaugungen im Abstich- und Rinnenbereich des Schwebeschmelzofens, Elektro-Schlackenofens und der Anodenöfen, die Absaughauben der Anodenöfen sowie die Absaugung der Rücklaufförderbänder und der Siebanlage.

Das erfasste Sekundärabgas wird in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt. Zur Abgasentschwefelung wird Kalk direkt vor dem Gewebefilter trocken in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Ein Teil des im Gewebefilter abgeschiedenen kalkhaltigen Staubs wird rezirkuliert und erneut eingedüst, der Rest wird abgezogen und in den Schwebeschmelzofen zurückgeführt. Pro Stunde fallen 700 kg Staub an. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird im Schmelzofen wiederverwendet.

Relevante Parameter sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle 3.50 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 3.50: Relevante Parameter der zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage in der Hütte Aurubis Hamburg

Rohgasseite	
Max. Nennvolumenstrom	930 000 Nm ³ /h
Volumenstromschwankungen	~ 500 000–880 000 Nm ³ /h
Absorbens zur SO ₂ -Abscheidung	Kalkmilch
Durchschn. Staub- und Absorbensgehalt	1 500 mg/Nm ³
Rohgas-SO ₂ -Konzentration:	100–3000 mg/Nm ³
Reingasseite	
Volumenstromschwankungen	~ 500 000–880 000 Nm ³ /h
Staubemissionen	< 0,5–10 mg/Nm ³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) (95 % der 2011 gemessenen Werte lagen unter 1) < 0,5-4,5 mg/Nm ³ (Tagesmittelwert)
Schwefelabscheidung	~ 50–70 %
Reingas-SO ₂ -Werte:	< 50-1275 mg/Nm ³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) (95 % der 2011 gemessenen Werte lagen unter 525) < 50–494 mg/Nm ³ (Tagesmittelwert) 300–430 mg/Nm ³ (Jahresmittelwert)
<i>Quelle: [383, Copper subgroup 2012], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [385, Germany 2012]</i>	

Bedingt durch den chargenweisen Betrieb schwanken die SO₂-Konzentrationen der einzelnen Emissionsquellen in einem breiten Bereich, was sich in schwankenden SO₂-Konzentrationen im Abgas widerspiegelt. Durch die gebotene Minimierung der Abgasvolumenströme werden diese Emissionsschwankungen noch weiter verstärkt.

In einer weiteren Hütte (Aurubis Pirdop, Primärhütte) wird ebenfalls eine zentrale Sekundärabgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage eingesetzt, die für einen Gesamtvolumenstrom von 450 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt ist. An diese Anlage angeschlossen sind die Konvertersekundärhauben, die Absaughauben des Schwebeschmelzofens, die Absaugungen an den Stein- und Schlackeabstichöffnungen sowie den Gießrinnen des Schwebeschmelzofens, die Prozess- und Sekundärabgas-Absaugeinrichtungen der Anodenöfen sowie die Dachabsaugung des Schmelzhalle.

Die Abgasströme werden in einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt. Diese umfasst die folgenden Reinigungsstufen:

- ein Halbtrockenabscheider (Sprühabsorber), in dem Kalkmilch fein verdüst in den Abgasstrom des Anodenofens eingebracht wird, um die Filterschläuche im nachgeschalteten Gewebefilter mit einer Filterhilfsschicht aus Kalkhydrat zu beaufschlagen
- ein Nasswäscher zur gemeinsamen Entschwefelung eines Abgasstroms bestehend aus den zusammengeführten Sekundärabgasströmen aus dem Konverterbereich, der Abluft aus der Dachabsaugung der Konverterhalle und dem Abgasstrom aus dem Abstichbereich und der Dachabsaugung in der Schwebeschmelzanlage
- ein Gewebefilter zur gemeinsamen Entstaubung des Anodenofenabgases, Konvertersekundärabgases, der Abluft aus der Schmelzhallendachabsaugung und der Abgasströme aus der Absaugung der Stein- und Schlackenstiche in der Schwebeschmelzanlage. Im Gewebefilter werden die vorbehandelten Abgasströme aus dem Nasswäscher und dem Sprühabsorber gemeinsam entstaubt. Das Gewebefilter besteht aus sechs parallelen Filterkammern, angeordnet in zwei Reihen mit jeweils drei Kammern. Die Filterabreinigung erfolgt automatisch durch Druckluftimpulse.
- eine Kalkmilchansetzstation, in der der gesamte Kalkmilchbedarf für die vorgenannten Reinigungsstufen hergestellt wird

Relevante Parameter sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle 3.51 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 3.51: Relevante Parameter der zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage in der Hütte Aurubis Pirdop

Rohgasseite	
<i>Trockenabscheider</i>	
Abgasvolumenstrom	70 000–110 000 Nm ³ /h
Temperatur	250–450 °C
Staubkonzentration	250–1000 mg/Nm ³
SO ₂	0–900 mg/Nm ³ mit Spitzen bis zu 1500 mg/Nm ³
<i>Nasswäscher</i>	
Abgasvolumenstrom	82 000–320 000 mg/Nm ³
Temperatur	10–60 °C
Staubkonzentration	40–350 mg/Nm ³
SO ₂	1000–3900 mg/Nm ³ mit Spitzen bis zu 15 000 mg/Nm ³
Kalkmilchzugabe	550 kg Kalk/h
<i>Gewebefilter</i>	
Abgasvolumenstrom	450 000 Nm ³ /h
Reingasseite	
SO ₂ -Bandbreite	100–625 mg/Nm ³ Tagesmittelwert (90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte in 2011: 377 mg/Nm ³) 290 mg/Nm ³ Jahresmittelwert
Erzeugte Gipsmenge	48–50 t/d
<i>Quelle: [378. Industrial NGOs 2012], [383. Copper subgroup 2012]</i>	

Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich direkt im Kamin gemessen. Staubemissionen werden mittels eines Doppelstrahl-Infrarotspektrometers, SO₂-Emissionen mittels eines DOAS-Messgeräts (differentielle optische Absorptionsspektroskopie) gemessen.

Schwankungen in den Emissionswerten sind auf die unterschiedlichen Sekundär- und Primärquellen (Anodenofenabgas), Schwankungen in den Rohgas-Staub- und SO₂-Gehalten und den diskontinuierlichen Betrieb zurückzuführen.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta werden die Sekundärabgase in einem gemeinsamen System erfasst und gereinigt (Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter). An dieses System, das für einen Volumenstrom von 900 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt ist, sind die folgende Emissionsquellen angeschlossen: Konverterhallenabsaugung, Konvertersekundärhauben, Anodenofen (sofern das Abgas nicht zur Konzentrattrocknung genutzt wird), Sekundärhauben des Kupfer- und Nickelschwebeschmelzofens sowie des Nickel-Elektroofens.

Die Emissionswerte sind in Tabelle 3.52 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 3.52: Emissionen der zentralen Abgas erfassungs- und -reingungsanlage in der Hütte Boliden Harjavalta

Parameter	Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)			Messintervall
	Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
Volumenstrom	317 200	665 000	890 000	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)
Staub	0,01	0,14	5	
SO ₂	22	407	NR	
Cu	<0,01	<0,01	0,2	monatlich (Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer)
Ni	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01	
Zn	<0,01	<0,01	0,09	
As	<0,01	<0,01	0,2	
Pb	<0,01	<0,01	0,1	
Cd	<0,01	<0,01	0,01	
Hg	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01	
Anmerkung: NR = nicht repräsentativ Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand und höhere Betriebskosten bedingt durch den großen Volumenstrom und den Betrieb und die Wartung einer Vielzahl von Armaturen und Gebläsen
- Einbau und Wartung hochwertiger Mess- und Regeltechnik, um einen optimalen Betrieb zu gewährleisten
- Kalk- und Wasserverbrauch
- Der anfallende Gips muss entweder im Schmelzprozess als Ca-Schlackebildner verwendet oder entsorgt werden.
- Das anfallende Abwasser muss vor Ableitung behandelt werden, wobei ein fester Abfallstoff entsteht, der entsorgt werden muss.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken sind abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen prinzipiell auf Neuanlagen und bestehende Anlagen anwendbar, wobei jedoch die Auslegung und Anordnung der vorhandenen Anlagen zu berücksichtigen sind.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten bei Aurubis Hamburg beliefen sich auf rund EUR 10 Millionen zuzüglich ca. EUR 7 Millionen für Maßnahmen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus dem Anodenofenbereich und dem Gießstand. Der Stromverbrauch liegt bei 13,6 GWh/a.

Investitionskosten von mehr als EUR 12,5 Millionen wurden für die Sekundärabgasreinigungsanlage in der Aurubis-Hütte Pirdop genannt. Der Stromverbrauch beträgt 1,62 MW/h, der Kalkverbrauch 550 kg/h.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung von Emissionen aus einer Vielzahl von Quellen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Bessere Abgas erfassung und Abscheideleistung aufgrund kontinuierlicher und optimierter Gasvolumenströme

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG) und Boliden Harjavalta (FI)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.7 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Anodengießen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Die im Anodenofen erzeugte Kupferschmelze wird in einem Gießrad oder einer Stranggießanlage zu Anoden vergossen. Stranggießanlagen werden nur außerhalb der EU-28 in Japan und Indonesien eingesetzt.

Die gängigste Technik ist ein Gießrad bestehend aus einer Reihe von Gussformen, die am Umfang eines rotierenden Tisches angeordnet sind. Die Metallschmelze fließt zunächst in einen Gießwanne (Tundish) und von dort über eine Zwischenpfanne zu einer von zwei Gießpfannen, über die die Formen befüllt werden. Auf dem rotierenden Rad wandern die Anoden durch mehrere Wasserbedüsungstationen und werden dabei abgekühlt.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- eingehauste Gießwanne (Tundish)
- geschlossene Zwischenpfanne
- Absaughauben über der Gießpfanne und dem Gießrad (Teilkapselung)
- Dachabsaugung in Kombination mit einem Gewebefilter
- Nasswäscher oder Tropfenabscheider zur Abscheidung partikelförmiger Emissionen aus der erfassten Abluft im Gießradbereich

Technische Beschreibung

Durch den Einsatz einer abgedeckten Gießwanne (Tundish), geschlossener Zwischenpfannen, Absaughauben über den Gießpfannen und dem Gießrad sowie einer Dachabsaugung werden diffuse Emissionen beim Anodengießen vermieden und vermindert. Hauben und Einhausungen sind mit wirksamen Absaugsystemen ausgestattet. Die erfassten Rauche/Dämpfe aus dem Gießbereich werden i.d.R. zusammen mit dem Anodenofenabgas in einem gemeinsamen Gewebefilter entstaubt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Die über die Gießradkühlhaube erfasste feuchte Abluft wird in einem Nasswäscher oder Tropfenabscheider von mitgerissenen Partikeln befreit. Die im Nasswäscher abgeschiedenen Partikel werden in den Schmelzofen zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft
- Abgeschiedene(r) Staub/Partikel werden im Schmelzprozess wiederverwendet.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Atlantik Copper verfügt über zwei vollautomatische Anodengießräder mit je 28 und 20 Formen. Die Maschinen haben eine Gießleistung von jeweils 70 t/h und 40 t/h. Die beim Gießen entstehenden Brüden (47 000 Nm³/h) werden erfasst und zur Abscheidung mitgerissener Partikel vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre durch einen Tropfenabscheider geleitet. Nach Angaben des Betreibers werden Staubemissionswerte zwischen 4 mg/Nm³ und 15 mg/Nm³ erreicht. Das Wasser für die Anodenkühlung wird in einem geschlossenen Kühlkreislauf mit Kühlturm geführt.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden die Anoden auf einer vollautomatischen Einzelbandgießmaschine mit 24 Formen gegossen. Die Maschine hat eine Gießleistung von 80 t/h. Die beim Gießen entstehenden Brüden werden abgesaugt und vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Tropfenabscheider von mitgerissenen Partikeln befreit. Der Reingasstaubgehalt liegt unter 5 mg/Nm³, angegeben als Tagesmittelwert. 2009 wurde ein Projekt zur Erfassung und Abreinigung diffuser Emissionen im Bereich des Anodenofens und Gießstands abgeschlossen. Die Anodengießanlage ist teilweise gekapselt. Mit den umgesetzten Maßnahmen wurde eine Minderung der diffusen Emissionen im Bereich des Anodenofens und Gießstands um bis zu 70% erzielt. Das Anodenofenabgas wird mit den trockenen Abgasströmen aus der Gießanlage

zusammengeführt und nach Zugabe von Kalkmilch in einem gemeinsamen Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Bei Aurubis Lünen wird die gesamte Anodenofenhalle abgesaugt und die Abluft in Gewebefiltern mit einer Kapazität von 300 000 m³/h gereinigt.

Bei Boliden Harjavalta wird eine vollautomatische Einzelbandgießmaschine mit 28 Formen zum Anodengießen eingesetzt. Die Maschine hat eine Gießleistung von 70 t/h. Die Abluft der Gießradkühlhaube (Volumenstrom: 15 000 Nm³/h) wird in einem Wirbelstromwäscher entstaubt. Der Wäscherabstoß wird mit dem Abschlammwasser aus dem geschlossenen Wasserkreislauf der Anodengießmaschine zusammengeführt und die Feststoffe nach Sedimentation chargenweise in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt. Der Reingasstaubgehalt nach dem Wäscher wird zweimal pro Jahr gemessen. Es wird ein Emissionswert von 20 mg Staub/Nm³ berichtet.

Bei Metallo-Chimique in Beerse wurde eine neue vollautomatische Einzelbandgießmaschine installiert. Die Abluft der Gießradkühlhaube wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die erzielten Reingasstaubgehalte liegen unter 5 mg/Nm³. Das Wasser für die Anodenkühlung wird in einem geschlossenen Kühlkreislauf geführt. Feststoffe im Anodenkühlwasser werden nach Sedimentation in die Öfen zurückgeführt.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica werden die Anoden auf zwei vollautomatischen Doppelbandgießrädern mit 16 Formen pro Band gegossen. In Głogów 2 werden zwei Gießräder betrieben (eine Einzelbandgießmaschine mit 28 Formen für die stationären Anodenöfen und eine Doppelbandgießmaschine mit 2 x 18 Formen für die Anodentrommelöfen). Die Abstichbereiche aller Anodenöfen sind mit Absaugeinrichtungen ausgestattet. Das erfasste Abgas wird gemeinsam mit dem Hauptabgasstrom der Anodenöfen entstaubt und entschwefelt. Während des Gießvorgangs fließt die Kupferschmelze aus dem Anodenofen über eine geschlossene Rinne und eine Gießwanne in den Gießbereich, der ebenfalls mit einem Absaugsystem ausgestattet ist. Die erfasste Abluft ist lediglich mit Wasserdampf beladen und wird über den Kamin vor Ort an die Atmosphäre abgegeben.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- In den Nasswäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Metalleinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Techniken zur Abgaserfassung und anschließenden Entstaubung sind je nach Ausführung der Gießmaschine und Platzverhältnissen auf alle Neuanlagen und bestehende Anlagen anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Aurubis Hamburg hat ca. EUR 7 Millionen in Maßnahmen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen im Bereich des Anodenofens und Gießstands investiert.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung von Emissionen.
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.3.8 **Optimierte Elektrolyse in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung**

Beschreibung

Bei der optimierten Elektrolyse (Elektrorefinierung und Gewinnungselektrolyse) handelt es sich um eine Kombination von Techniken zur Emissionsminderung und Reduzierung des Energieaufwands.

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- optimierte Zellenkonstruktion, Einsatz von Edelstahlkathodenrohlingen oder Kupferstartblechen
- hoher Automatisierungsgrad (Kathoden-/Anodenwechsel und Kathodenstrippen) und Qualitätskontrolle
- Abdeckungen, Hauben und Absaugsysteme
- Zugabe von Tensiden
- geschlossene Vorratsbehälter und Förderung der Elektrolytlösungen in geschlossenen Leitungen
- Nasswäscher oder Tropfenabscheider
- Rückführung von Lösungen in den Prozess oder Nutzung zur Metallrückgewinnung zur Reduzierung von Emissionen in das Wasser
- Verwertung von Nebenprodukten (Anodenschlamm) zur Gewinnung von Edelmetallen
- flüssigkeitsundurchlässige und säurebeständige Oberflächen zur Vermeidung von Boden-/Grundwasserverschmutzung

Technische Beschreibung

Optimierte Zellenkonstruktion, Einsatz von Edelstahlkathodenrohlingen oder Kupferstartblechen

Bei Elektrorefinierungsverfahren werden Zellenkonstruktion, Anoden-Kathodenabstand, Anodengeometrie, Stromdichte, Elektrolytzusammensetzung und -temperatur sowie der Badumlauf optimiert, um einen niedrigeren Energieverbrauch und eine hohe Produktionsleistung zu erzielen. Ferner werden auch Edelstahlkathodenrohlinge (d.h. Permanentkathoden) oder Kupferstartbleche eingesetzt (die meisten Kupferrefinierungsanlagen in der EU-28 verwenden Permanentkathoden aus Edelstahl).

Hoher Automatisierungsgrad (Kathoden-/Anodenwechsel und Kathodenstrippen) und Qualitätskontrolle

Durch Einsatz von Kathodenstrippmaschinen und –automaten und Kurzschlussüberwachung werden Emissionen vermieden und der Energieverbrauch gesenkt.

Die Qualitätskontrolle stellt sicher, dass die Anoden gerade und eben sind und ein einheitliches Gewicht haben. Gute saubere elektrische Kontakte verbessern die Stromverteilung und reduzieren den Stromverbrauch.

Abdeckungen, Hauben und Absaugsysteme

Refinierungselektrolysezellen können zur Temperaturkontrolle und Vermeidung von Wasserverdampfung aus der Elektrolytlösung abgedeckt werden (z.B. mit Kunststoff-, Tuch- oder Faserplanen). In speziellen Fällen, z.B. bei Verarbeitung stark verunreinigter Anoden (As, Sb, Bi, Pb, Ni), können die Elektrolysezellen mit Absaughauben ausgerüstet werden.

Gewinnungselektrolysezellen verfügen über eine Haubenabdeckung und ggf. Deckel mit integrierten Absaugeinrichtungen zur Erfassung von Säurenebeln, die infolge von Sauerstoffentwicklung freigesetzt werden.

Gewinnungselektrolysezellen zur Behandlung des Abstoßelektrolyten sind i.d.R. eingehaust und können mit einer Absaugeinrichtung, Nasswäschern und einer Arsenwasserstoffüberwachung ausgestattet werden. Die Entstehung von Arsenwasserstoff lässt sich vermeiden, indem die

Kupferkonzentration im zugeführten Elektrolyten optimal auf die Stromdichte in der letzten Entkupferungsstufe abgestimmt wird.

Freigesetzter Wasserdampf und Aerosole aus den Waschkammern der Kathodenstripp- und Restanodentwaschmaschinen werden abgesaugt.

Durch regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Zellen, Vorratsbehälter, Rohrleitungen, Pumpen und Reinigungssysteme werden die Dichtigkeit des Systems sichergestellt und Leckagen vermieden.

Zugabe von Tensiden

Alternativ zur Abdeckung der Gewinnungselektrolysezellen mit Hauben mit integrierten Absaugeinrichtungen werden in manchen Anlagen dem Elektrolyten Tenside zugegeben, um diffuse Säurenebelemissionen zu minimieren.

Geschlossene Vorratsbehälter und geschlossene Rohrleitungen zur Förderung der Lösungen

Vorratsbehälter sind geschlossen ausgeführt und mit einer Absaugeinrichtung ausgestattet. Der Elektrolyt/die Lösungen werden in festinstallierten geschlossenen Rohrleitungen gefördert.

Rückführung von Lösungen in den Prozess oder Nutzung zur Metallrückgewinnung zur Reduzierung von Emissionen in das Wasser

Zur Rückgewinnung von Metallen wird der Abstoßelektrolyt einer Behandlung unterzogen und anschließend in den Gewinnungselektrolyse- bzw. Laugungsprozess zurückgeführt. Nicht zurückgeführte Abwasserströme werden in einer AWA (physikalisch-chemische Behandlung) gereinigt. Beim Waschen der Kathoden fällt saures Abwasser an, das zum Teil zur pH-Wert-Einstellung wiederverwendet wird.

Verwertung von Nebenprodukten (Anodenschlamm) zur Gewinnung von Edelmetallen

Anodenschlämme werden zur Edelmetallgewinnung genutzt. Der Abstoßelektrolyt wird unter Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle (Ni, As) gereinigt. Verbrauchte Anoden werden zur Metallrückgewinnung wieder eingeschmolzen.

Flüssigkeitsundurchlässige und säurebeständige Oberflächen zur Vermeidung von Boden-/Grundwasserverschmutzung

Die Entwässerungssysteme sind geschlossen ausgeführt und alle gesammelten Lösungen werden in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Vorratsbehälter/Apparate sind doppelwandig ausgeführt und werden in beständigen Auffangwannen aufgestellt. Der Boden der Auffangwanne ist flüssigkeitsundurchlässig und säurebeständig ausgeführt. Durch regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Zellen, Vorratsbehälter, Rohrleitungen, Pumpen und Reinigungssysteme werden die Dichtigkeit des Systems sichergestellt und Leckagen vermieden.

Nasswäscher oder Tropfenabscheider

Die erfassten Abgase werden in Nasswäschern oder Tropfenabscheidern gereinigt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft und von Säureinträgen in den Boden oder das Grundwasser
- Effizienter Energieeinsatz (Stromausbeuten von > 95 % sind erreichbar). Der Einsatz von Edelstahlrohlingen bietet den Vorteil einer höheren Kathodenqualität, einer höheren Stromausbeute und eines niedrigeren Energieverbrauchs selbst bei Betrieb mit höheren Stromdichten.
- Rückgewinnung von Metallen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

KGHM (Głogów 1, 2 und Legnica) setzt in ihren Raffinationsanlagen Kupferstartbleche ein.

Die meisten Raffinationselektrolyseanlagen (Atlantic Copper, Aurubis Hamburg, Olen, Pirdop und Lünen, Boliden Harjavalta und Rönnskär, Montanwerke Brixlegg und Metallo-Chimique) arbeiten jedoch mit Permanentkathoden aus Edelstahl. Durch die Verwendung von Permanentkathoden in Verbindung mit einem kontrollierten Anodengewicht und Vorbereitung der Anoden durch mechanische Bearbeitung wird eine verbesserte Anodengeometrie erreicht. Dies schlägt sich nicht nur in einer verbesserten Anlagenleistung und Kathodenqualität nieder, sondern erlaubt auch eine weitgehende Prozessautomatisierung. Die Handhabungs- und Bedienungsmaschinen, wie z.B. die Kathodenstripp-, Anodenvorbereitungs- und Restanodenwaschmaschinen, arbeiten vollautomatisch.

Der Energieverbrauch der Elektroraffinationsstufe wird mit 300–400 kWh/t pro Tonne Kupfer angegeben. Allerdings steigt der Energieverbrauch bei Einsatz von Anoden mit höheren Gehalten an Verunreinigungen [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. Die Art des Kathodenrohrlings (Edelstahl oder Kupfer) hat einen wesentlichen Einfluss auf die Energieeffizienz der Elektrolyseanlage [90, Traulsen, H. 1998], wobei die Stromausbeuten zwischen 92 % und 97 % liegen können.

Elektroraffinationsverfahren verwenden Wärmetauscher zur Aufheizung des Elektrolyten mit Dampf. Der Dampfverbrauch wird im Wesentlichen durch die gefahrene Stromdichte, die Anzahl der Zellen und die Anordnung der Elektrolysehallenentlüftung bestimmt. Da die Gewinnungselektrolyse mit einer höheren Spannung arbeitet, muss hier der Elektrolyt gekühlt werden.

Bei Atlantic Copper in Spanien sind die Kathoden- und Restanodenwaschmaschinen sowie die Regulierungszellen mit einem Absaugsystem ausgestattet, das an einen Nasswäscher mit geschlossenem Waschkreislauf angeschlossen ist. Die Feinentkupferungsbäder (der sogenannte "Liberatorkreislauf") sind gekapselt und mit einer Arsenwasserstoffüberwachung ausgestattet. Zur Vermeidung von Verdampfungsverlusten und Energieeinsparung werden Kupferraffinationszellen mit Plastikplanen abgedeckt.

An den Aurubis-Standorten Hamburg und Olen werden die Vorratsbehälter, Kathodenstripp- und Restanodenwaschmaschinen sowie die Regulierungszellen abgesaugt und das Abgas in einem Nasswäscher behandelt.

Bei Aurubis Lünen werden die Handhabungsmaschine und die Elektrolytreinigungsstufe abgesaugt und die Abluft über Tropfenabscheiber geführt.

Bei Aurubis Pirdop sind die Grob- und Feinentkupferungsbäder mit Punktabsaugungen ausgerüstet. Die Feinentkupferungsbäder (sogenannte "Liberatoren") sind vollständig gekapselt und mit einer Arsenwasserstoffüberwachung ausgestattet. Die Kathoden- und Restanodenwaschanlagen werden abgesaugt, und die Abluft wird über einen Tropfenabscheider geführt. Diffuse Säurenebelemissionen aus den Regulierungszellen und Feinentkupferungsbädern werden über Hauben abgesaugt und in Wäschern abgeschieden.

Boliden Harjavalta arbeitet mit Permanentkathoden. Die Kathodenstripp- und Restanodenwaschmaschinen werden abgesaugt. Zur Vermeidung von Verdampfungsverlusten und Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs sind die Kupferraffinationszellen mit Plastikplanen abgedeckt. Die Abluft der Hallenabsaugung wird über ein Wärmerückgewinnungssystem geführt. Alle Entkupferungsbäder sind mit Hauben verschlossen. Die Bildung von Arsenwasserstoff in der letzten Entkupferungsstufe wird durch regelmäßige Analyse und optimale Einstellung der Kupferkonzentration im Hinblick auf die in dieser Stufe gefahrene Stromdichte überwacht. Das gleiche Verfahren wird bei Boliden Rönnskär angewandt.

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg wurden in den vergangenen Jahren mehrere Entwicklungs- und Optimierungsprojekte durchgeführt. Das Hauptprojekt in der Elektrolysehalle betraf die Umrüstung der Elektrolyseanlage auf Betrieb mit hoher Stromdichte. Mit der im Oktober 2007 abgeschlossenen Erweiterung der Elektrolyseanlage wurde die Raffinationskapazität auf

108 000 Tonnen Kathoden pro Jahr erhöht. Seit Herbst 2011 wird die Elektrolyseanlage mit hoher Stromdichte betrieben, womit eine weitere Kapazitätssteigerung auf 118 000 Tonnen Kathoden pro Jahr erreicht wurde. Um den Betrieb mit dieser hohen Stromdichte zu ermöglichen, wurden die Hälfte der Zellen mit einem neuen Transformator und einem Parallelfluss-Elektrolytverteiler ausgerüstet, die den Betrieb der Elektrolysezellen mit hoher Stromdichte bei gleichzeitig hoher Stromausbeute und guter Kathodenqualität erlauben. Diese Elektrolyseanlage kann mit einer Stromdichte von max. 424 A/m^2 gefahren werden.

Alle Entkupferungsbäder sind abgedeckt; die Abluft wird in Tropfenabscheidern gereinigt. Die Bildung von Arsenwasserstoff in der letzten Entkupferungsstufe wird durch regelmäßige Analyse und optimale Einstellung der Kupferkonzentration im Hinblick auf die in dieser Stufe gefahrene Stromdichte vermieden.

KGHM (Głogów 1, 2 und Legnica) setzt in ihren Raffinationsanlagen Kupferstartbleche ein. Die Elektrolysezellen werden in der Regel mit Faserplanen abgedeckt. Die Abluft der Verdampfer in der Elektrolytreinigungsstufe wird über Tropfenabscheider (Głogów 2 und Legnica) geleitet. In der Anlage Głogów 1 werden Vakuumverdampfer eingesetzt, so dass hier kein Abgasstrom entsteht.

Die Elektroraffinationsanlage bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse ist für stark verunreinigte Anoden ausgelegt. Die Anlage arbeitet mit Permanentkathodentechnik. Die Elektrolysezellen sind mit Hauben mit integrierter Absaugung ausgerüstet.

Umicore Hoboken betreibt eine Laugungs- und Gewinnungselektrolyseanlage zur Verarbeitung von hoch verunreinigtem Kupfergranulat mit stark schwankenden Kupfergehalten aus der ISASMELT-Anlage. Um die Bildung von Säurenebeln zu vermeiden wird der Schwefelsäure ein Tensid zugesetzt. Die Anlage erreicht eine Stromausbeute von $> 95 \%$. Über ein Überwachungssystem wird die Anlage kontinuierlich auf Arsenwasserstoff überwacht. Der Abstoßelektrolyt wird einer Behandlung zur Rückgewinnung von Metallen unterzogen und in den Gewinnungselektrolyse- bzw. Laugungsprozess zurückgeführt.

Die Laugung erfolgt in geschlossenen Apparaten. Der Säurevorratsbehälter und die Laugungsreaktoren werden abgesaugt und die erfassten Brüden ($30\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) in einem NaOH-Wäscher auf Restgehalte von $0,5 \text{ mg Staub/Nm}^3$, $0,02 \text{ mg Cu/Nm}^3$ und $0,2 \text{ mg H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{Nm}^3$ gereinigt. Das in der Kathodenwaschanlage anfallende saure Abwasser wird z.T. zur pH-Wert-Einstellung verwendet, das restliche Abwasser wird in der AWA neutralisiert.

Bei Cobre Las Cruces in Spanien wird eine Kupfersulfatlösung aus dem hydrometallurgischen Solventextraktionsprozess einer Gewinnungselektrolyse unterzogen. Die hauptsächlich aus Kupfersulfat bestehende Lösung wird zunächst gestrippt und dann den Gewinnungselektrolysezellen zugeführt, wo sich das Kupfer an Edelstahlkathoden unter Bildung von Kupferbblechen (d.h. Kupferkathoden) abscheidet. Die Anlage umfasst 144 Elektrolysezellen mit 84 Kathoden pro Zelle. Es werden Permanentkathoden mit einer Fläche von $1,15 \text{ m}^2$ pro Seite eingesetzt.

Um die Freisetzung von Säurenebeln in die Hallenatmosphäre zu vermeiden, sind die Elektrolysezellen mit Hauben abgedeckt. Die Zellenhauben werden mittels Hallenkränen gehandhabt und müssen zum Strippen oder Austausch der Kathoden zeitweise abgenommen werden. Zur Erfassung von Säurenebeln ist jedes Zellenende an den Abgaskanal angeschlossen. Die Abscheidung der Säurenebel erfolgt in Kaskadenwäschern, denen auch die abgesaugten Säurenebel aus den Waschkammern der Kathodenstrippmaschinen und den Elektrolytfiltern zugeführt werden. Jeder Wäscher ist für große Abgasmengen, optimierten Druckverlust und max. Abscheideleistung ausgelegt. Ca. $95\text{--}98 \%$ der Schwefelsäure und des Kupfersulfats werden hier zurückgewonnen. Diese Komponenten werden mit dem ansonsten sauberen Wäscherabwasser ausgeschleust und können in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden. Zur abschließenden Abscheidung mitgeführter feiner Wassertröpfchen wird das Abgas durch

Zyklon-Tropfenabscheider geleitet. Das gereinigte Abgas mit einem H_2SO_4 -Gehalt von $< 0,05 \text{ mg/m}^3$ wird mittels Gebläse über den Kamin in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Anfall von saurem Abwasser. Nicht zurückgeführte Abwasserströme werden in einer AWA (physikalisch-chemische Behandlung) gereinigt.
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven (Tensiden)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Im Anschluss an die Laugung kann Restkupfer in der Kupfersulfatlösung nur durch Gewinnungselektrolyse zurückgewonnen werden. Laugung, Solventextraktion und Gewinnungselektrolyse werden vorzugsweise für Ausgangsmaterialien stark schwankender Zusammensetzung mit einem hohen Gehalt an Verunreinigungen eingesetzt.

Zur Aufrechterhaltung einer optimalen Betriebstemperatur (ca. 65°C) müssen die Zellen von Zeit zu Zeit geöffnet werden, um einen direkten Wärmeaustausch mit der Atmosphäre zu ermöglichen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die neue Kupferraffinationsanlage bei Aurubis Pirdop (2008) mit einer geplanten Produktionsleistung von 180 000 t/a wurden mit EUR 80 Millionen angegeben.

Bei bestehenden Elektrolyseanlagen ist die Investition in eine Umrüstung auf Edelstahlkathodentechnologie unter Umständen wirtschaftlich nicht vertretbar.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs, Produktivitätssteigerung und Kostenminimierung

Beispielanlagen

- Elektroraffination und Gewinnungselektrolyse zur Aufbereitung des Abstoßelektrolyten: Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), Aurubis Olen (BE), Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), Boliden Harjavalta (FI), Metallo-Chimique Beerse, Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL)
- Gewinnungselektrolyse: Umicore Hoboken (BE) und Cobre Las Cruces (ES)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012], [150, J.A. Davis, W.R. Hopkins 1994], [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998], [297, Schlesinger. et al. 2011]

3.3.3.9 Entschwefelung SO₂-armer Abgase in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Trockensorption mit Kalk und nachgeschalteter Gewebefilter
- Regeneratives Waschverfahren auf Basis Polyether
- Abgasentschwefelung mittels Halbtrocken- oder Nassverfahren unter Verwendung calciumbasierter Sorptionsmittel, bei denen als Reaktionsprodukt jeweils Calciumsulfit und Gips entstehen
- Wasserstoffperoxidwäsche; SO₂-Oxidation mit Wasserstoffperoxid unter Bildung von Schwefelsäure
- Nassverfahren mit natriumbasierten Sorptionsmitteln
- Magnesiumhydroxidwäsche mit Kristallisation des gebildeten Magnesiumsulfats
- Abgasrückführung in den Prozess

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Entschwefelung SO₂-armer Abgase kommen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung folgende Techniken zur Anwendung:

Trockensorption mit Kalk und nachgeschalteter Gewebefilter

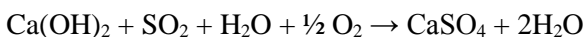
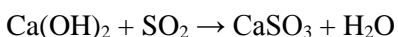
Kalk wird in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen und reagiert dort mit SO₂ unter Bildung von Calcium-Schwefelverbindungen. Bei gleichzeitiger Eindüsung von Wasser, soweit möglich, erhöht sich die Reaktivität des Kalks und damit der SO₂-Abscheidegrad. Die gebildeten Calcium-Schwefelverbindungen werden zusammen mit dem Prozessstaub in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden, das ausreichend groß bemessen sein muss, um die zusätzliche Staubbelastung aufzunehmen. Das anfallende Gemisch aus Kalk und Calcium-Schwefelverbindungen kann in anderen metallurgischen Prozessen oder bei der Abwasserbehandlung wiederverwendet werden. Zur zusätzlichen Abscheidung weiterer Luftschadstoffe aus dem Abgasstrom können dem Kalk Adsorbentien, z.B. Aktivkohle zur Hg- oder PCDD/F-Abscheidung, zugesetzt werden.

Regeneratives Waschverfahren auf Basis Polyether

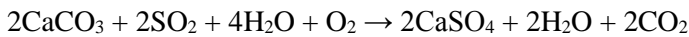
Dieses Verfahren beruht auf der selektiven physikalischen Absorption von Schwefeldioxid in einer flüssigen Waschlösung auf Polyether-Basis nach Nassentstaubung und Kühlung des zu behandelnden Abgasstroms. Die Waschlösung kann vollständig regeneriert werden. Als Hauptreaktionsprodukt fällt SO₂-Reichgas (~ 80 %) an, das der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt wird. Vorteilhaft bei diesem Verfahren ist, dass keine unerwünschten festen Nebenprodukte entstehen. Dieses Verfahren wird hinter einer Einfachkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage zur abschließenden Entschwefelung des SO₂-armen Endgases sowie im Kraftwerk einer Primärkupferhütte (die in Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.5 näher beschrieben ist) angewendet.

Halbtrocken- oder Nassverfahren auf Basis Calciumverbindungen

Halbtrockenverfahren verwenden Kalkmilch als Reaktionsmittel, die unter Verwendung eines Reaktors feinteilig im Abgasstrom verdüst wird. Eine ausreichende Gastemperatur vorausgesetzt, verdampft das Wasser und die Sauergerase reagieren mit den Kalkpartikeln. Das Reaktionsprodukt fällt trocken an und wird anschließend in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden. Die Reaktion verläuft nach folgender Gleichung:

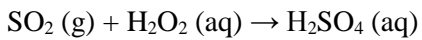


Beim Nassverfahren wird das SO₂-haltige Abgas in einem Gaswäscher mit einer Kalksteinsuspension in Kontakt gebracht, in der SO₂ zunächst zu Calciumhydrogensulfit reagiert, das anschließend zu Gips aufoxidiert wird.



Wasserstoffperoxidwäsche

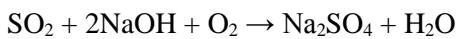
Als Oxidationsmittel wird bei diesem Verfahren Wasserstoffperoxid (H_2O_2) eingesetzt. In der Lösung reagiert SO_2 mit H_2O_2 zu Schwefelsäure.



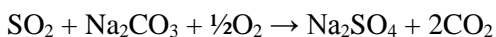
Die Abgaswäsche besteht aus zwei Waschstufen: einem Gleichstrom-Sprühturmwäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Gegenstromwäscher. Als Reaktionsprodukt fällt Schwefelsäure mit einer Konzentration von bis zu 50 % H_2SO_4 an, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zu Verdünnungszwecken zugeführt oder bei bestehender Nachfrage als Produkt vermarktet werden kann.

Nassverfahren auf Basis von Natriumverbindungen

Diese Verfahren setzen Natriumhydroxid als Absorptionsmittel ein. SO_2 reagiert mit Natriumhydroxid unter Bildung einer Natriumsulfatlösung nach folgender Reaktionsgleichung:

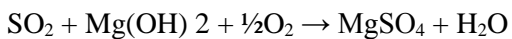


Als weiteres Absorptionsmittel kommt Na_2CO_3 zum Einsatz, das mit SO_2 nach folgender Gleichung reagiert:



Mg(OH)₂-Wäsche

Ein weiteres in Nassverfahren eingesetztes Absorptionsmittel ist $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$. Nach Eindampfung und Kristallisation entsteht als Reaktionsprodukt Magnesiumsulfat.



Abgasrückführung in den Prozess

SO_2 -armes Sekundärabgas kann nach Entstaubung in den Prozess zurückgeführt und abschließend zusammen mit dem Hauptabgasstrom entschwefelt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von SO_2 -Emissionen in die Luft
- Die Eindüsung von Kalk hat einen positiven Einfluss auf die Dioxinabscheidung. Im Gewebefilter findet gleichzeitig eine Entschwefelung und Entstaubung statt. Das anfallende Feststoffgemisch aus Kalk und Gips oder Kalk und Calciumsulfid oder der eigentliche Gips können in metallurgischen Prozessen oder bei der Abwasserbehandlung eingesetzt werden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Trockensorption mit Kalk und nachgeschaltetem n Gewebefilter

Die Entschwefelungsleistung von Trocken- oder Halbtrockenverfahren ist abhängig von der Abgastemperatur, der Abgasfeuchte und der Verweilzeit der Kalkpartikel im Abgasstrom. Weitere Einflussgrößen sind die Durchmischungsbedingungen, eine hohe spezifische Oberfläche der Kalkpartikel und die eingebrachte Kalkmenge. Soweit es die Platzverhältnisse erlauben, kann ein Reaktor mit ausreichender Verweilzeit zur Erzeugung der notwendigen Turbulenz vorgesehen werden. Andernfalls werden Kalk und Wasser direkt in den Abgasstrom vor dem Gewebefilter eingeblasen. Zur Erzielung hinreichender Abscheidegrade benötigt das Verfahren eine Mindesttemperatur von 60 °C. Bei einer Abgastemperatur von 150 °C und einem Feuchtegehalt von 5 % wird ein Abscheidegrad von etwa 45 % erzielt. Bei einem Feuchtegehalt von 25 % steigt der Abscheidegrad auf 75 %. Bei niedrigeren Temperaturen sinkt die Abscheideleistung auf 20–40 %, und es werden hohe Kalkzugabemengen benötigt. Bei

Gastemperaturen nahe dem Taupunkt ist eine zusätzliche Wassereindüsung wegen des Verstopfungsrisikos im Gewebefilter nicht möglich.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird das Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk im Sekundärabgassystem der Primärkupferhütte eingesetzt. Zur Entschwefelung des Abgasstroms wurde hier eine Kalkmilch ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$)-Dosierstation installiert. Mit dieser Maßnahme wird eine Entschwefelungsleistung von 50–70 % bezogen auf einen Ausgangsschwefelgehalt von 100–1500 mg/Nm^3 erreicht. Die SO_2 -Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Der Reingas- SO_2 -Wert liegt bei 50–1275 mg/Nm^3 , angegeben als Tagesmittelwert. 95 % der 2011 gemessenen SO_2 -Werte lagen unter 525 mg/Nm^3 (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Bei Hoboken Belgien wird eine neue Abgasreinigungsanlage zur Entstaubung und Entschwefelung eines Abgasstroms mit schwankenden SO_2 -Gehalten aus einem neu entwickelten diskontinuierlichen Prozess eingesetzt. Das Prozessgas wird in einem ersten Schritt in einem Mischreaktor durch Eindüsen von Kalk und Wasser entschwefelt. Der Reaktor ist für eine Verweilzeit von sechs Sekunden ausgelegt. Die SO_2 -Konzentration im Abgas schwankt zwischen 0 und 1%. Es wird eine Kalkmenge von +/- 250 kg/h bei einer Temperatur von 150 °C und einem Feuchtegehalt von 30 Vol.% eingeblasen. Aufgrund des Metallgehalts des Prozessstaubs wird der im nachgeschalteten Gewebefilter abgeschiedene Flugstaub in einem anderen Prozess genutzt, in dem auch der anfallende Gips eingesetzt werden kann. Wegen der Kalkdosierung wird gegenüber reiner Staubabscheidung eine um 40 % höhere Filterkapazität benötigt. Versuche mit Trockeneindüsung von Kalk in das gekühlte Abgas zeigten eine unbefriedigende Entschwefelungsleistung und hohe Betriebskosten, weswegen diese Option nicht weiter verfolgt wurde.

Regeneratives Waschverfahren auf Basis Polyether

Dieses Verfahren wird zur abschließenden Entschwefelung von SO_2 -armem Abgas in einer Kupferhütte (KGHM Legnica) eingesetzt. Techniken zur abschließenden Entschwefelung

- des Abgasstrom einer Einfachkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage und
- des Rauchgases eines werkseigenen kohlebefeueren Kraftwerks, in dem CO -haltiges Schachtofenabgas und Sekundärabgas aus dem Schachtofenbeschickungs- und Abstichbereich mitverbrannt werden

sind in Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.5 beschrieben.

Halbtrocken- oder Nassverfahren auf Basis Calciumverbindungen

Halbtrocken- und Nassabscheider, in denen calciumbasierte Absorptionsmittel eingesetzt werden, sind mit entsprechenden Misch- und Reaktionskammern ausgestattet. Die sich in der Reaktionskammer bildenden Partikel werden in der Regel in einem Gewebefilter oder Nass-EGR abgeschieden. Nicht voll ausreagiertes Absorbens wird in den Reaktor zurückgeführt. Soweit möglich wird das erschöpfte Absorptionsmittel im Prozess wiederverwendet. Bei Bildung von Säurenebeln wird dem Halbtrockenabscheider ein Tropfenabscheider nachgeschaltet.

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 1 wird ein Halbtrockenverfahren zur Entschwefelung des Schachtofenabgases eingesetzt. Als Absorptionsmittel dient eine Kalksteinsuspension. Das CO -haltige Schachtofenabgas wird zunächst im kohlestaubbefeueren Kraftwerk vor Ort nachverbrannt. Zur anschließenden Rauchgasentschwefelung wird eine $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ -Suspension fein im Rauchgasstrom verdüst. Dabei verdampft der Wasseranteil der Suspension vollständig. Übrig bleibt ein trockenes Reaktionsprodukt, das in Gewebefiltern abgeschieden wird. Die Entschwefelungsleistung des Halbtrockenabscheiders liegt bei etwa 82%.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Głogów 2 werden das Abgas der Anodenöfen und das Sekundärabgas aus dem Chargier- und Abstichbereich der Anodenöfen ebenfalls in einem Halbtrockenverfahren unter Verwendung einer Kalksteinsuspension als Absorptionsmittel

entschwefelt. Emissionsmessungen werden monatlich durchgeführt. Die Reingas-SO₂-Werte liegen bei 20–200 mg/Nm³.

Aurubis Pirdop verwendet einen Nasswäscher auf Basis Kalkmilch zur Entschwefelung eines Abgasstroms bestehend aus den Sekundärabgasströmen aus dem Konverterbereich, der Dachabsaugung der Konverterhalle und dem Abstichbereich des Schwebeschmelzofens. Die SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich direkt am Kamin gemessen. Die Tagesmittelwerte liegen in einem Bereich von 100–625 mg/Nm³ (das 90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte beträgt 377 mg/Nm³) (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6).

Wasserstoffperoxidwäsche

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird das beim Blasebetrieb und Abgießen der Primärkonverter entweichende Abgas (SO₂-Gehalt ca. 0,1 % mit Spitzen bis zu 2 %) über Sekundärhauben erfasst und entweder in der Schwefelsäureanlage zur Verdünnung der verarbeiteten Prozessgase verwendet oder dem H₂O₂-Wäscher zugeführt. Zur Aufrechterhaltung des notwendigen Konzentrationsgefälles für die SO₂-Absorption wird die H₂SO₄-Konzentration im Waschkreislauf in der Regel auf 30–35 % begrenzt. Die anfallende Säure kann im Absorptionsteil der Schwefelsäureanlage zur Verdünnung genutzt werden. Bedingt durch die stark schwankenden Rohgas-SO₂-Konzentrationen weisen die Reingas-SO₂-Werte eine große Streubreite von 20–350 mg/m³ (Tagesmittelwerte aus der kontinuierlichen Messung) auf.

Nassverfahren auf Basis Natriumverbindungen

Atlantic Copper verwendet NaOH-Venturiwäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Nasselektrofilter zur Entschwefelung des Abgases aus der Feuerraffination. Der abgeschiedene Staub besteht aus Zersetzungsprodukten und unverbrannten Komponenten des Erdgases sowie kondensierten Metallen und Oxiden, die in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden. SO₂-Emissionsmessungen werden mindestens vierteljährlich durchgeführt. Die Reingas-SO₂-Werte liegen unter 200 mg/Nm³. Das Abgas aus dem Elektro-Schlackeofen wird ebenfalls in einem Venturiwäscher mit geschlossenem Waschkreislauf gereinigt. Die im abgeschiedenen Staub enthaltenen Metalle werden teilweise zurückgewonnen. SO₂-Emissionsmessungen werden vierteljährlich durchgeführt. Es werden Reingas-SO₂-Werte < 200 mg/Nm³ erreicht.

Bei Aurubis Lünen wird das Abgas aus der Konvertierungsstufe in einem Natronlaugewäscher entschwefelt. Diesem Wäscher wird das bei maximaler Blaseleistung anfallende TBRC-Abgas (max. Nennvolumenstrom 70 000 Nm³/h) zugeführt. Als Waschlösung dient Natronlauge (50%ige Lösung). Die Anlage besteht aus einem Wäscher, einem NaOH-Vorratsbehälter sowie drei Tanks zur Behandlung ausgeschleuster Waschlösung. Die verbrauchte Waschlösung wird in der KRS-Quenche zur Kühlung der KRS-Abgases genutzt und dabei verdampft. Es handelt sich also um ein abwasserfreies Verfahren. Schwefeldioxid wird zu Natriumsulfat umgesetzt, das mit dem Filterstaub (KRS-Oxid) abgeschieden und als Produkt vermarktet wird. SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Halbstundenmittelwerte liegen zwischen < 50 mg/Nm³ und 1040 mg/Nm³, die Tagesmittelwerte zwischen < 50 mg/Nm³ und 270 mg/Nm³ und das 90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte bei 206 mg/Nm³.

In der Hütte Głogów 2 wird ein Schwebeschmelzofen zur Direkterzeugung von Blisterkupfer betrieben. Der Abstichbereich des Ofens wird abgesaugt und das Abgas (ca. 100 000 Nm³/h) in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Zur Verbesserung der Staubabscheidung und SO₂-Minderung wird eine kleine Menge Kalk in den Abgasstrom vor dem Filter eingeblasen. Diese Abgasreinigungsanlage wird während des Schlackenabstichs betrieben. Zur Reinigung des beim Abgießen des Blisterkupfers erfassten Abgases ist ein zusätzliches Nassentstaubungssystem – Venturiwäscher mit Na₂CO₃-Waschkreislauf – vorgesehen. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden diskontinuierlich in Vierteljahresintervallen gemessen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 3–5 mg/Nm³ Die SO₂-Werte liegen unter 100 mg/Nm³.

In der Hütte Głogów 2 wird die bei der Reinigung der Schwebeschmelzofenschlacke im Elektro-Schlackeofen anfallende Cu-Pb-Fe-Legierung in Hoboken-Konvertern weiterverarbeitet. Das Konverterabgas wird in einer eigenen Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend

aus Venturiwäscher und Zyklon-Tropfenabscheider gereinigt. Als Waschlösung dient Na_2CO_3 , mit der auch SO_2 wirksam abgeschieden werden kann. Die erreichten Reingaswerte liegen bei $1\text{--}5\text{ mg/Nm}^3$ für Staub und $< 200\text{ mg/Nm}^3$ für SO_2 .

Mg(OH)₂-Wäscher

Die Montanwerke Brixlegg setzen einen Mg(OH)_2 -Wäscher zur Entschwefelung des Konverterabgases ein. Als Waschlösung dient eine Suspension von Mg(OH)_2 in Wasser. In diesem Wäscher wird ein Abgasvolumenstrom von $30\,000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$ mit einer SO_2 -Konzentration von $5\text{--}15\text{ g/Nm}^3$ entstaubt und entschwefelt. Die Anlage besteht aus drei parallel geschalteten Venturiwäschern, die mit einer schwach alkalischen Waschlösung betrieben werden. Der erreichte Reingas- SO_2 -Gehalt liegt bei $5\text{--}30\text{ mg/Nm}^3$. Das als Reaktionsprodukt anfallende MgSO_4 wird als Zuschlagsstoff an die Bauindustrie verkauft.

Abgasrückführung in den Prozess

Einige Sekundärabgasströme können als Prozessluft genutzt und abschließend als Prozessgas entschwefelt werden.

In der Hütte Głogów 1 wird die im Bereich der Schachtofenbeschickung erfasste Abluft nach Entstaubung in Gewebefiltern als Blaswind im Schachtofen genutzt. Die Abluft aus dem Abstichbereich des Schachtofens wird in Gewebefiltern entstaubt und im Kraftwerk vor Ort als Verbrennungsluft genutzt (siehe oben).

Am Standort Legnica wird die gesamte Abluft aus dem Schachtofenbeschickungs- und -abstichbereich in Gewebefiltern entstaubt und im Kraftwerk vor Ort als Verbrennungsluft genutzt (siehe oben). Die Chargier- sowie die Schlacke- und Metallabstichbereiche der Anodenöfen werden abgesaugt und die Abluft entweder als Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner der Anodenöfen oder in der zwischen Anodenöfen und Gewebefilter angeordneten Nachverbrennungskammer genutzt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven
- Soweit die anfallenden Reaktionsprodukte nicht recycelt (intern oder extern) oder anderweitig verwertet werden können, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.
- Das als Reaktionsprodukt in der Wasserstoffperoxidwäsche gebildete H_2SO_4 ist nicht direkt verwertbar und sollte der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden. Die Anwendung dieser Technik hängt davon ab, ob das entstehende H_2SO_4 weiterverarbeitet werden kann (ob Verdünnungswasser in der Schwefelsäureanlage benötigt wird).
- Bei Zugabe von Gips in die Ofenprozesse kann sich erneut SO_2 bilden, das dann wieder abgeschieden werden muss.
- In Nasswäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der zusätzlich behandelt werden muss, um Metalleinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Trockenentschwefelung durch Einblasen von Kalk in den Abgasstrom kann in Primär- und Sekundärhütten angewendet werden, sofern die verfahrenstechnischen Voraussetzungen gegeben sind, d.h. Temperatur (min. 60°C), SO_2 -Gehalt, Konzentrationsschwankungen während der verschiedenen Betriebszustände und Abgasfeuchtegehalt. In bestehenden Anlagen, in denen eine Gewebefilter zur Entstaubung des Schmelzofenabgases eingesetzt wird, kann bei ausreichender Abgastemperatur, Feuchte und Verweilzeit die direkte Kalkeindüsung ohne Nachrüstung der bestehenden Minderungseinrichtung eingesetzt werden, eine ausreichende Filterkapazität zur Abscheidung der zusätzlichen Feststoffbelastung vorausgesetzt. Neuanlagen können von vornherein für optimale Abgasbedingungen ausgelegt werden.

Nasswäscher eignen sich für Neuanlagen sowie auch für umfangreichere Modernisierungsprojekte oder Anlagenertüchtigungen. Allerdings können Nasswäscher nur angewendet werden, wenn eine Lösung für den anfallenden Abwasserstrom vorhanden ist (direkte Ableitung, Ableitung nach Behandlung oder Nutzung). Nach Neutralisation des

Wäscherabwassers mit Kalk kann der Ablauf noch SO_2 -Konzentrationen von bis zu 1,5 g SO_4 /l aufweisen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die anfallenden Nebenprodukte können entweder vermarktet oder einer Wiederverwendung zugeführt werden. Je nach lokaler Nachfrage und Qualitätsvorgaben der Abnehmer ist dies jedoch nicht immer möglich und hat einen Einfluss auf die Auswahl der Verfahrenskombination. Weitere Faktoren, die bei der Wahl der optimalen Emissionsminderungstechnik berücksichtigt werden müssen, sind die höheren Investitionskosten (für den zusätzlichen apparativen Aufwand) und höheren Betriebskosten aufgrund der benötigten Additive (Kalk, Natriumhydroxid, H_2O_2 , usw.).

Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk

Die Investitionskosten bei Aurubis Hamburg beliefen sich auf rund EUR 10 Millionen zuzüglich ca. EUR 7 Millionen für Maßnahmen zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen im Bereich der Anodenöfen und des Gießstands.

Da die Reaktion von SO_2 mit Kalk an der Oberfläche der Kalkpartikel stattfindet und die Reaktionsgeschwindigkeit mit höherer Abgasfeuchte ansteigt, lässt sich der Kalkverbrauch durch folgende Maßnahmen reduzieren:

- gleichzeitige Eindüsung von Wasser (Dampf) (höherer Energieverbrauch)
- Einsatz von Kalkqualitäten mit höherer spezifischer Oberfläche (höhere Kosten: Kalkpreise reichen von EUR 60/t für Calciumhydroxid bis zu EUR 200/t für Spezialkalkhydrate)
- Rückführung des Filterstaubs in den Prozess

Diese Technik kann sehr kostenaufwendig sein, wenn der Flugstaub deponiert werden muss.

NaOH-Wäscher

Aurubis Lünen nennt Investitionskosten von ca. EUR 17,5 Millionen für Umweltschutzmaßnahmen, die im Rahmen des KRS Plus-Projekts (kranintegrierte Absaugung, Gaserfassungssystem, NaOH-Wäscher und ein neues Gewebefilter) umgesetzt wurden.

H_2O_2 -Wäscher

Die Investitionskosten beliefen sich laut Angaben von Aurubis Hamburg auf EUR 4,5 Millionen (2000–2007).

Die Betriebskosten für die Reinigung eines Abgasvolumens von 60 000–70 000 Nm^3/h mit 2 % SO_2 lagen bei EUR 1 Million (2012).

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von SO_2 -Emissionen
- Das Trockenkonditionierungsverfahren mit Kalk bietet den Vorteil einer gleichzeitigen Abgasentstaubung (in einem Gewebefilter) und –entschwefelung.
- Verbrauchte Waschlösungen können in Quenchtürmen zur Abgaskühlung genutzt werden und werden dabei verdampft, womit der Abwasseranfall verringert oder vollständig vermieden wird.
- Das im Wäscher gebildete MgSO_4 kann als Zuschlagsstoff in der Bauindustrie eingesetzt werden.
- Der erzeugte Gips kann in metallurgischen Prozessen eingesetzt werden. Für überschüssigen unreaktierten Kalk bietet sich eine Nutzung in der AWA an.

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE), Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL) und Atlantic Copper (ES)

Literatur

[346, Eurometaux 2010], [238, ECI 2012]

3.3.3.10 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Solventextraktionsanlagen bei der hydrometallurgischen Kupfergewinnung aus Konzentrat oder Sekundärrohstoffen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Wahl eines geeigneten Reagens und Verwendung geschlossener Apparate, wie z.B. geschlossene Mischer, geschlossene Absetzer (Settler) und geschlossene Sammel-/Vorlagebehälter
- Behandlung des Abstoßes aus dem Solventextraktionskreislauf in einer Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) vor Ableitung
- Behandlung des Rückstands (sog. "Crud") zur Rückgewinnung der organischen Phase
- Zentrifugieren des bei Reinigungsvorgängen und in den Settlern anfallenden Schlammes

Technische Beschreibung

Wahl eines geeigneten Reagens und Verwendung geschlossener Apparate, wie z.B. geschlossene Mischer, geschlossene Settler und geschlossene Sammel-/Vorlagebehälter

Potenzielle Luftemissionen treten beim Solventextraktionsprozess im Wesentlichen in Form diffuser VOC-Emissionen aus der Lagerung, Überführung und Verarbeitung der Prozessströme auf. Potenzielle VOC-Emissionen lassen sich durch den Einsatz geschlossener Apparate, wie z.B. geschlossene Mischer, geschlossene Settler und geschlossene Sammel-/Vorlagebehälter, die in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf betrieben werden, verringern. Auch die Wahl eines geeigneten Reagens (Lösemittels) mit einem niedrigeren Dampfdruck trägt zur Minimierung diffuser Emissionen bei.

Behandlung des Abstoßes aus dem Solventextraktionskreislauf in einer Abwasserreinigungsanlage vor Ableitung

Als Hauptabwasserstrom fällt in der Solventextraktion Sekundärraffinat an. Dieser Abwasserstrom ist unvermeidbar, da ein Teilstrom aus dem nassmetallurgischen Prozess ausgeschleust werden muss, um eine Anreicherung von Verunreinigungen in den Solventextraktions-, Laugungs- und Gewinnungselektrolysekreisläufen zu vermeiden. Dieser Abwasserstrom wird der AWA zugeführt, wo die Metalle als Hydroxide und Sulfate ausgefällt werden. Das so gereinigte Abwasser wird in den Vorfluter geleitet.

Behandlung des Rückstands (sog. "Crud") zur Rückgewinnung der organischen Phase

Bei der Solventextraktion fällt ein Rückstand, der sogenannte "Crud" an. Dabei handelt es sich um eine stabile Emulsion aus suspendierten Feststoffen, wässriger Lösung und organischer Lösung, die sich in den Settlern als Phase zwischen der wässrigen und organischen Lösung bildet.

Zur Feststoffabtrennung aus den beiden übrigen Phasen wird die Crud-Suspension aus den Settlern über ein Tonfilter gepumpt. Die aus dem Tonfilter austretende Suspension wird zurück in den Crud-Sammelbehälter (Vorlagebehälter) geführt und solange über das Tonfilter gepumpt, bis die Lösung klar ist. Nach Phasentrennung werden die wässrige und organische Lösung getrennt aus dem Sammelbehälter abgezogen. Die wässrige Lösung wird in den Primärraffinat-Nach-Settler gepumpt. Dort wird die organische Lösung zurückgewonnen und zum Behälter für beladenes Lösemittel zurückgeführt.

Zentrifugieren des bei Reinigungsvorgängen und in den Settlern anfallenden Schlammes

Zum Trennen der Feststoffphase von der Flüssigphase (Lösemittel und Wasser) wird der bei der Reinigung der Settler anfallende Schlamm (wässrige Phase, Crud und organische Phase) zentrifugiert. Auf diese Weise können Lösemittel und Wasser zurückgewonnen und der Anfall

fester Rückstände reduziert werden. Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen ist die Anlage komplett geschlossen ausgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung diffuser Emissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Lösemittel und Wasser

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Cobre Las Cruces wird bei der Auswahl der Produktzusammensetzung für die Solventextraktion auf eine Minimierung diffuser VOC-Emissionen geachtet. Zusätzlich sind die Mischer-Settler-Einheiten geschlossen ausgeführt.

Der Abstoß aus dem Solventextraktionskreislauf weist sehr hohe Metallanteile, einen hohen Sulfatgehalt (der aus der Zugabe von Schwefelsäure in der Laugungsstufe und der Sulfidoxidation herrührt) sowie einen sehr niedrigen pH-Wert auf.

Tabelle 3.53 zeigt typische Kennwerte des bei Cobre Las Cruces anfallenden Sekundärraffinats bei Betrieb der Anlage unter Auslegungsbedingungen.

Tabelle 3.53: Typische Kennwerte des Sekundärraffinats bei Cobre Las Cruces

Parameter	Wert
pH-Wert	0,5–1,5
Temperatur	35–45 °C
C _{org}	2 mg/l
Gesamtstickstoff	10,2 mg/l
Sulfid	5 mg/l
Sulfat	43 169 mg/l
Chlorid	201 mg/l
Calcium	187 mg/l
Eisen(II)oxid	5 678 mg/l
Eisen(III)oxid	5 976 mg/l
Cu	0,01–0,5 g/l
H ₂ SO ₄	16 g/l
<i>Quelle: [358, CLC 2012]</i>	

Das Sekundärraffinat wird in die Neutralisationsstufe geleitet, in der die Metalle als Hydroxide und Sulfate ausgefällt werden. Der Ablauf der AWA wird vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter beprobt und analysiert.

Die Crud-Bildungsrate ist anlagenspezifisch. Bei Cobre Las Cruces hat die mit Kupfer angereicherte Ausgangslösung aus der Laugung eine hohe Konzentration an Eisen, das in erster Linie für die Crud-Bildung verantwortlich ist. Zur Rückgewinnung der organischen Lösung wird das Crud einer Behandlung unterzogen. Die wässrige Lösung wird in den Primärraffinat-Nach-Settler gepumpt, um eventuell noch vorhandene organische Lösung zurückzugewinnen, die in den Behälter für beladene organische Lösung zurückgepumpt wird.

Der bei der Reinigung der Settler anfallende Schlamm (wässrige Phase, Crud und organische Phase) wird in einer Zentrifugenanlage behandelt. Diese besteht aus:

- Vorlagebehältern: zwei Behälter pro Zentrifuge
- Speisepumpen

- Zentrifuge zu Trennung des aus zwei Flüssigkeiten unterschiedlicher Dichte (organische und wässrige Lösung) und einer Feststoffphase bestehenden Gemischs
- Sammelbehälter für die im Dreiphasen-Dekanter abgetrennte wässrige Phase
- Pumpe zur Rückführung der organischen Phase in den Prozess

Die Zentrifugenanlage ist komplett überdacht und im eingehausten Bereich der Solventextraktionsanlage angeordnet.

Bei Cobre Las Cruces wird der bei der Reinigung der Settler und Zentrifugenanlage anfallende Schlamm wie folgt behandelt:

- Nach Reinigung der Settler in der Solventextraktionsstufe mit einem Lösemittel wird der Schlamm in die Vorlagebehälter geleitet und von dort in den Dreiphasen-Dekanter gepumpt.
- Im Dreiphasen-Dekanter wird zunächst die wässrige Phase abgetrennt und zu einem Sammelbehälter geleitet, von wo aus sie über die entsprechende Pumpe in die Settler zurückgeführt wird. Die anfallende organische Phase läuft ebenfalls in einen Sammelbehälter und wird von dort zur weiteren Nutzung in die Solventextraktionsstufe zurückgepumpt.
- Die verbleibende Feststoffphase wird aus dem Dreiphasen-Dekanter ausgetragen, in einem Behälter gesammelt und als Abfall entsorgt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minimierung diffuser Emissionen
- Rückgewinnung des Lösemittels

Beispielanlagen

Cobre Las Cruces (ES)

Literatur

Keine Literaturangaben verfügbar

3.3.4 Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Sekundärkupferhütten verarbeiten eine große Vielfalt an Sekundärrohstoffen, die sich nicht nur stark in ihrem Kupfergehalt, sondern auch in den Gehalten anderer Metalle unterscheiden oder bei denen das Kupfer in komplexierter Form mit anderen Elementen vorliegt (z.B. metallisch, oxidisch, sulfidisch). Darüber hinaus kommen kupfer- oder sonstige metallhaltige Abfallfraktionen, z.B. Elektronikschrott, zum Einsatz. Die Einsatzmaterialien müssen jeweils auf den spezifischen Verhüttungsprozess abgestimmt sein.

Je nach Eingangsmaterialien kommen folgende Verfahren zum Einsatz:

- ISASMELT-Verfahren zur Gewinnung von Blisterkupfer durch Einschmelzen und Konvertieren einer breiten Palette kupfer-/bleihaltiger Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffe (Stäube, Stein, Krätze, Schlacken, Anodenschlämme, usw.), Elektronikschrott, zinkhaltiger Rohstoffe und Abfälle
- KRS-Verfahren zur Gewinnung von Blisterkupfer durch Einschmelzen und Konvertieren sekundärer Kupfermaterialien, wie Kupferlegierungsschrotte, Elektronikschrott, kupferreiche Schlacken, Kupferkrätze, Flugstäube und Schlämme
- Elektroöfen zum Einschmelzen einer Vielzahl von kupfer- und kupfer-/bleihaltigen Materialien in oxidischer, sulfidischer oder metallischer Form, z.B. Stäube, Krätze, Schlacken, Anodenschlämme mit geringen Edelmetallanteilen, Kupferlegierungsschrott, niedriggradiger Kupferstein, Kupfer-/Bleikonzentrate
- Mini-Smelter und Schachtofen zum Einschmelzen sekundärer oxidischer und metallischer kupferhaltiger Materialien unter Zugabe von Eisen oder Kupfer-/Eisenschrott als Reduktionsmittel
- TBRC zum Einschmelzen von Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungsschrotten, Schlacken und komplexen Konzentraten
- Contimelt-Verfahren, ein kontinuierliches zweistufiges Verfahren zur Erzeugung von Kupferkathoden durch Einschmelzen und Behandeln von Schwarz- und Blisterkupfer, hochwertigem Kupferschrott und Anodenschrott (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.6)

Ausmelt/ISASMELT- und KRS-Öfen können in einem diskontinuierlichen zweistufigen Schmelz- und Konvertierungsprozess betrieben werden, so dass hier keine zusätzlichen Emissionen durch den Transport der Schmelze von einem Ofen zum anderen auftreten.

Mit der Einführung neuer Technologien ist die Kupfergewinnung aus Sekundärrohstoffen im Laufe der Jahre energieeffizienter geworden. Mit 1080 kWh/t Einsatzmaterial im Vergleich zu 2300 kWh/t Einsatzmaterial haben KRS-Anlagen einen deutlich niedrigeren Energieverbrauch als konventionelle Anlagen bestehend aus Schachtofen, Konverter und Mischzinnanlage. [234, UBA (D) 2007]

3.3.4.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzöfen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien auf die installierte Ofen- und Abgasreinigungstechnik
- Betrieb bei Unterdruck, gekapselte Öfen/Beschickungssysteme, Aufstellung in einem geeigneten Gebäude, Einhausungen, abgedeckte Rinnen, Sekundärhauben mit wirksamer Absaugung (und anschließender Entstaubung in einer Abgasreinigungsanlage)
- Einsatz eines verstärkten Absaugsystems
- Abgasbehandlung (Primär- und Sekundärabgas)
 - Zyklone in Kombination mit Gewebefiltern

- Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage, Flüssig-SO₂-Anlage, Nasswäscher, Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk/Sorbalit, Zugabe von Adsorbentien, Quecksilberabscheider, Nachverbrennung und Quenche

Technische Beschreibung

Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien auf die installierte Ofen- und Abgasreinigungstechnik

Emissionen können durch richtige Auslegung des Schmelzofens und der Abgasreinigungsanlage sowie durch Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien auf die Auslegungsbedingungen der Anlage vermieden werden.

Zur Erfüllung der prozesstechnischen Anforderungen werden Einsatzmaterialien, wie z.B. feinteilige und schlammförmige Einsatzstoffe, einer Vorbehandlung unterzogen, z.B. pelletiert, oder alternativ gemischt, getrocknet und pneumatisch in den Schmelzofen eingebracht. Je nach Vorliegen organischer Verunreinigungen können weitere Vorbehandlungsschritte wie Entfernen von Beschichtungen oder Entölen zur Anwendung kommen (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.2.2).

Betrieb bei Unterdruck, gekapselte Öfen/Beschickungssysteme, Aufstellung in einem geeigneten Gebäude, Einhausungen, abgedeckte Rinnen, Sekundärhauben mit wirksamer Absaugung

Zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen können geschlossene Beschickungssysteme (z.B. Doppelglockensystem, Türabdichtung, gekapselte Förderbänder und Dosiersysteme) sowie abgedichtete oder gekapselte Öfen eingesetzt werden. Zur Vermeidung eines Druckaufbaus wird das Schmelzaggregat bei Unterdruck mit ausreichendem Absaugvolumen betrieben.

Die Öfen sind gekapselt und in einem abgesaugten Halle aufgestellt oder von Einhausungen umschlossen. Zur Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen im Ofenbeschickungs- und Abstichbereich kommen Erfassungselemente, wie z.B. Absaughauben, zum Einsatz. Der Erfassungsgrad ist abhängig von der Effizienz der Hauben, dem Zustand der Abgaskanäle und einer guten Druck-/Absaugmengenregelung. Bei Einsatz eines Ausmelt/ISASMELT oder KRS-Ofens können Emissionen aus der Überführung der flüssigen Schmelze von einem Ofen zum anderen vermieden werden, da bei diesen Technologien das Einschmelzen und Konvertieren in einem diskontinuierlichen zweistufigen Prozess in ein und demselben Aggregat erfolgen.

Einsatz eines verstärkten Absaugsystems

Drehzahlgeregelte Gebläse ermöglichen eine bedarfsgerechte Absaugung sowie die automatische Anpassung des Absaugsystems an wechselnde Betriebszustände. Automatische Klappensteuerungen gewährleisten eine ausreichende Absaugleistung und eine zielgerichtete Absaugung der Dämpfe/Rauche mit vertretbarem Energieaufwand. Mit Hilfe dieser Steuerungen ist es möglich, die Absaugstellen automatisch während der verschiedenen Betriebszustände zu wechseln. Zur Anpassung der Absaugleistung an wechselnde Betriebszustände werden drehzahlgeregelte Gebläse eingesetzt. Ferner werden Gebläse, Ventile und Klappen automatisch angesteuert, um eine optimale Erfassung zu gewährleisten und diffuse Emissionen zu vermeiden.

Durch kontinuierliche Überwachung oder regelmäßige Kontrolle der Leistung des Gesamtabaugsystems sowie regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Öfen, Hauben, Abgaskanäle, Gebläse und Filteranlagen wird die Dichtigkeit der Systeme sichergestellt, und Leckagen werden vermieden.

Abgasreinigung

Die Schadstoffbelastung des in Sekundärschmelzanlagen entstehenden Abgases (Primär- und Sekundärabgas) ist abhängig von der Zusammensetzung der eingesetzten Rohstoffe/Brennstoffe. Zur Emissionsminderung können TVOC und Dioxine bei Gastemperaturen > 950 °C direkt im Schmelzofen zerstört werden. Eine Neubildung von Dioxinen wird durch schnelle Abkühlung des Abgases (Quenchen oder Abhitzekeessel) vermieden. Staub- und Metallemissionen werden in einem Gewebefilter zurückgehalten, ggf. in Kombination mit Zugabe von Aktivkohle zur Minderung von VOC-, PCDD/F- und Quecksilberemissionen. Die Reinigung des Sekundärabgases kann zusammen mit dem

Prozessabgas erfolgen. Die abgeschiedenen metallhaltigen Stäube werden intern oder extern verwertet.

Primärabgase aus Sekundärschmelzanlagen können je nach Zusammensetzung der Ausgangsstoffe und eingesetzter Technologie (z.B. Koks als Reduktionsmittel in Schachttöfen) mit Schwefeldioxid belastet sein. Bei Öfen, die schwefelhaltige Einsatzmaterialien verarbeiten, wird das Prozessgas einer Doppelkontakanlage zur Schwefelsäureerzeugung oder einer Anlage zur Flüssig-SO₂-Erzeugung zugeführt. Vor Weiterverarbeitung in der Säureanlage kann das Prozessgas in einem Heißgas-Elektrofilter grobentstaubt und nach Kühlen und Wäsche in einen Nasselektrofilter feinentstaubt werden. Die Abwärme des Abgases kann in einem Abhitzekeessel zur Erzeugung von Dampf genutzt werden, der in anderen Prozessen oder zu Heizzwecken eingesetzt wird.

Bei Sekundär-Elektroschmelzöfen wird das Abgas nachverbrannt, gekühlt, in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt, in einer Quecksilberabscheidestufe entquickt und anschließend direkt ohne weitere Wäsche und Kühlung der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt.

Bei SO₂-armen Abgasen kann die Entschwefelung durch Einblasen von Kalk in den Abgasstrom und anschließende Entstaubung in einem Gewebefilter erfolgen (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9).

Zur Quecksilberabscheidung kommen die in Abschnitt 2.12.5.5 beschriebenen Absorptionsverfahren oder andere Techniken zum Einsatz.

Soweit notwendig werden vor Eintritt in die Filteranlage Adsorbentien (z.B. Aktivkohle) zur Minderung von Dioxin- und VOC-Emissionen in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen oder es kommen anderer Techniken zum Einsatz (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.1.2 und 3.3.4.1.3).

Die abgeschiedenen metallhaltigen Stäube werden intern oder extern verwertet.

Sekundärabgase werden in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt, ggf. nach Konditionierung mit Kalk oder Zugabe weiterer Additive.

In Betracht kommende Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von SO₂-, PCDD/F- und NO_x-Emissionen sind in Abschnitt 3.3.3.9, 3.3.4.1.1 und 3.3.4.1.3 beschrieben. Eine Beschreibung der RNV ist in Abschnitt 3.3.4.1.2 zu finden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft
- Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft und Schwefelrückgewinnung
- Minderung von PCDD/F- und VOC-Emissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen aus den abgeschiedenen Stäuben
- Energieerzeugung durch Nutzung der Abwärme in einem Abhitzekeessel

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird der eingehauste Elektroofen über gekapselte Förderbänder und einen geschlossenen Chargierlift beschickt. Der obere Teil des Ofens ist eingehaust. Feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzmaterialien werden pelletiert. Das Primärabgas des Schmelzofens wird mit Hilfe von rückgeführtem Kaltgas in einem Luft/Gas-Wärmetauscher gekühlt. Nach Kühlung wird das Abgas in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend einem Adsorber zur Quecksilberabscheidung zugeführt. Dort erfolgt nach Kondensation die Zugabe von Adsorbentien. Zur weiteren Quecksilberabscheidung ist ein Selenwäscher vorgesehen. Das so vorgereinigte Abgas gelangt bei ausreichend hohem SO₂ Gehalt in die Doppelkontakanlage oder wird bei geringen SO₂-Gehalten über den Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Bei Abstichvorgängen entweichende Sekundärabgase werden über Hauben erfasst. Der Ofenkopf befindet sich komplett innerhalb einer Absaughaube. Sekundärabgase im Bereich des Elektroofens werden abgesaugt und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen im

Bereich von $< 0,5\text{--}5,5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $< 0,5\text{--}4,2 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Tagesmittelwert), die SO_2 -Emissionswerte im Bereich von $50\text{--}840 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $50\text{--}340 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Tagesmittelwert). Der große Schwankungsbereich der SO_2 -Emissionen erklärt sich aus den diskontinuierlichen Schlacke- und Metallabstichvorgängen. Die Daten beziehen sich auf den Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente. Die abgeschiedenen metallhaltigen Stäube werden intern oder extern verwertet.

Bei Aurubis Lünen ist der KRS-Ofen wirksam abgedichtet. Die Beschickungssysteme sind gekapselt und werden abgesaugt. Die Stiche sind mit Hauben und einem Abgasfassungssystem ausgestattet. Das Abgas aus dem KRS-Ofen wird in einem Abhitzekegel gekühlt und zusammen mit dem (über Hauben erfassten) Sekundärabgas in einer Gewebefilteranlage entstaubt. Das Primärabgas des Ofens einschließlich der über die Sekundärhauben erfassten Abgasströme mit einem Gesamtvolumenstrom von ca. $500\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$ und einem Staubgehalt von $5000\text{--}10\,000 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ wird in fünf Gewebefiltern entstaubt.

Staub-, SO_2 -, NO_x -, HCl -, HF - und Hg -Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen zwischen $< 0,5\text{--}5,2 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $< 0,5\text{--}2,7$ (Tagesmittelwert), das 90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte liegt bei $< 0,5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$. Die Reingas- SO_2 -Werte liegen bei $< 50\text{--}1520 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $< 50\text{--}303 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Tagesmittelwert). Für Quecksilber werden Emissionswerte von $0,0037\text{--}0,09 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $< 0,01\text{--}0,05 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Tagesmittelwert) berichtet. Der breite Schwankungsbereich der Emissionen ist auf den diskontinuierlichen Betrieb zurückzuführen. Die MIN- und MAX-Werte zeigen eine starke Abhängigkeit von den Einsatzmaterialien der einzelnen Chargen.

Bei Umicore Hoboken wird in einem chargenweise betriebenen ISASMELT-Ofen aus kupfer-/bleihaltigen Ausgangsstoffen Blisterkupfer und eine Bleioxidschlacke erzeugt. Das Blisterkupfer wird in einem Raffinationsofen weiterbehandelt und anschließend granuliert. Zur Minimierung des Prozessgasvolumenstroms wird der Ofen mit hoher Sauerstoffanreicherung des Windes gefahren. Der ISASMELT-Ofen wird unter Unterdruck betrieben. Das Primärabgas wird bei $1000 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ nachverbrannt, in einem Abhitzekegel unter Dampfgewinnung gekühlt und anschließend durch Wassereindüsung und Verdampfung weiter heruntergekühlt. Im Anschluss wird das Abgas in einem 5-feldrigen Heißgas-EGR entstaubt. Nach Durchlaufen einer Quenche und einer weiteren Nasswäsche, Entstaubung in einem Nass-EGR und Kühlung gelangt das Abgas in die Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage, wo es auf einen Rest- SO_2 -Gehalt von $< 300 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ entschwefelt wird.

Sekundärabgase werden über Hauben oberhalb der Chargieröffnung, Sauerstoffflanzendurchführung, Abstichöffnungen und des Raffinationsofen abgesaugt und vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Gewebefilter (Volumenstrom $230\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) entstaubt. Folgende Emissionswerte werden erreicht: Staub: $< 1 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, SO_2 : $< 300 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ und Dioxine: $< 0,01 \text{ ng I-TEQ/Nm}^3$.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse ist der Mini-Smelter zwecks Erfassung von Staubemissionen eingehaust. Das Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von $100\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$ entstaubt und anschließend einem Adsorber zur Entfernung von Dioxinen und sonstigen flüchtigen organischen Verbindungen zugeführt. Staubemissionen werden monatlich gemessen. Es werden Werte von $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ erreicht. SO_2 -Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen und liegen unter 500 mg/Nm^3 , angegeben als Tagesmittelwert.

Außerdem wird bei Metallo-Chimique ein TBRC betrieben. Das Primärabgas des Konverters wird über einen Luft/Gas-Wärmetauscher geleitet, in einem Zyklon grobentstaubt und nach Einblasen von Sorbalit in einem Gewebefilter ($70\,000 \text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) gereinigt. Zur Entstaubung des

Sekundärabgases aus der Ofenkapselung ist ein weiterer Gewebefilter (70 000 Nm³/h) vorgesehen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 0,5 mg/Nm³–2 mg/Nm³. SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Reingasstaubkonzentrationen werden mittels triboelektrischer Messgeräte kontinuierlich überwacht.

Bei Elmet Berango ist der Mini-Smelter zwecks Erfassung von Staubemissionen eingehaust. Das Primärabgas mit einem Volumenstrom von 120 000 Nm³/h wird in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt. Das Sekundärabgas wird in einem weiteren Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 55 000 Nm³/h entstaubt.

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird ein Gewebefilter zur Entstaubung des Schachtofenabgases (Volumenstrom ca. 50 000 Nm³/h) eingesetzt. Organische Abgasinhaltsstoffe werden in einer regenerativen thermischen Nachverbrennungseinrichtung oxidiert. Die Chargier- und Abstichbereiche des Schachtofens sind mit Absaugeinrichtungen ausgestattet, die an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen sind. Folgende Emissionswerte werden berichtet: Staub: 0,5–1,8 mg/Nm³, SO₂: 0,2–86 mg/Nm³, HCl: 2,1–1,5 mg/Nm³, HF: 0–12,3 mg/Nm³ und CO: 0–11 mg/Nm³ (jeweils Mittelwerte aus drei Messungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 30 Minuten).

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird Elektronikschrott in einem TBRC zur Erzeugung von Schwarzkupfer verarbeitet. Zusätzlich wird der Konverter zur Verarbeitung von Bleikonzentraten genutzt. Die Prozessgase des TBRC (Kaldo-Konverter) werden in einer Flüssig-SO₂- und Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage behandelt. Die Anlage ist gekapselt und wird über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt (44 000 Nm³/h). Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Emissionswerte liegen bei < 5 mg/Nm³ für Staub und < 500 mg/Nm³ für SO₂. NO_x-Emissionen werden einmal pro Jahr gemessen und liegen unter 200 mg/Nm³. PCDD/PCDF-Emissionsmessungen werden jährlich durchgeführt. Es wird ein Emissionswert von 0,05 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ berichtet.

Tabelle 3.54: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 1)

Hütte	Aurubis Hamburg	Umicore Hoboken		Aurubis Lünen
Ofentyp	Elektroofen	ISASMELT-Ofen		KRS
Elektrische Leistung/Schmelzleistung	13,5 MW	100 t/h		25–50 t/h Sauerstoffanreicherung 25 %
Einsatz	Stäube, Krätze, Schlacken, Anodenschlämme mit niedrigen Edelmetallanteilen, Kupferlegierungsschrott, niedriggradiger Stein, Kupfer-/Bleikonzentrate und sonstige kupfer-/bleihaltige Materialien	Nebenprodukte aus der Kupfer-, Blei- und Zinkgewinnung, komplexe Konzentrate, edelmetall-haltige Altgeräte		Kupfer- u. Kupferlegierungsschrotte, Elektro- u. Elektronikschrott, kupferreiche Schlacken, Kupferkrätze, Filter- und Zyklonstaub, Anodenschlämme, sonstige Schlämme, Kupfer-/Eisenmaterialien
Abgasreinigung	Sekundärabgas (Primärabgas wird der H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage zugeführt)	Primärabgas	Sekundärabgas	Primär- + Sekundärhauben
	Einhausung des Ofendachs, Absaughauben an den Abstichen, Gewebefilter	AHK, Verdampfungskühler, Heißgas-EGR, Doppelkontaktanlage	Hauben und Absaugung Abstich-, Rinnenbereich u. Pfannenstände, Gewebefilter	AHK, Gewebefilter mit Zugabe von Spezialadsorbentien zur Hg- und HF-Abscheidung
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	185 000	75 000	270 000	500 000
Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)				
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	3 x pro Jahr (3–5 h)	11 x pro Jahr (3–5 h)	kontinuierlich
Staub	0,5–5,5 (HMW)	0,02–0,44	0,12–0,33	0,5–5,2 (HMW) 0,5–2,7 (TMW)
	< 0,5–4,2 (TMW)	0,44 (90. Perzentil)	0,23 (90. Perzentil)	
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	11 x pro Jahr (3–5 h)	kontinuierlich
SO ₂	50–840 (HMW)	55–246 (TMW)	3–383	50–1520 (HMW)
	< 50–340 (TMW)	125 (90. Perzentil - TMW)	143 (90. Perzentil)	50–303(TMW)
Messintervall	vierteljährlich (3*30 min)	3 x pro Jahr (3–5 h)	halbjährlich (3–5 h)	alle 3 Jahre (6*30 min)
Cu	0,01–0,2	0,003–0,046	0,002	0,03–0,04
Pb	0,01–0,2	0,003–0,046	0,001–0,004	0,01–0,1
As	0,01–0,02	0,0002–0,09	0,0012–0,0018	0,01
Hg	k.A.	0,008–0,018	k.A.	0,0037–0,09 < 0,1–0,05(1)
Cd	<0,02	<0,004	0,0002–0,0009	0,01
Ni	< 0,01–0,1	< 0,036	k.A.	0,01
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	halbjährlich	jährlich	alle 3 Jahre (3*6 h)
PCDD/F	k.A.	0,001	0,004	0,04–0,08

Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	jährlich (2 h)	jährlich (2 h)	alle 3 Jahre (6*30 min)
TVOC	k.A.	2	2	7–40
Messintervall	nicht anwendbar	9 x pro Jahr (1–4 h)	vierteljährlich (1–4 h)	kontinuierlich
NO_x	k.A.	64–168	4–20	2–55 (TMW)
<p>(¹) kontinuierliche Messung, Tagesmittelwert Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt.</p> <p>Legende: AHK = Abhitzekeessel, HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben</p>				

Tabelle 3.55: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkupferschmelzanlagen (Teil 2)

Hütte	Elmet		Metallo-Chimique	Montanwerke Kovohuty	Montanwerke Brixlegg
Ofentyp	Mini-Smelter		Mini-Smelter	Schachtofen	Schachtofen
Schmelzleistung	k.A.		k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Einsatz	Cu-haltige Aschen, Rückstände und Schlacken Niedriggradiger Cu-haltiger Metallschrott		Cu-haltige Aschen, Rückstände und Schlacken Niedriggradiger kupferhaltiger Metallschrott	Oxide mit Cu-Gehalten von ca. 10–70 % werden zs. mit Schlacke, Koks, Silica und eisenhaltigen Materialien (Shredderkupfer, Cu-Fe-Material) eingeschmolzen.	Stäube, Aschen, Schlacken, Cu-Fe-Material
Abgasreinigung	Primärabgas	Sekundärabgas	Gemeinsame Behandlung von Primär- u. Sekundärabgas	Gemeinsame Behandlung von Primär- u. Sekundärabgas (aus den abgesaugten Chargier- und Abstichbereichen)	Primärabgas + erfasstes Sekundärabgas aus Chargier- und Abstichbereichen
	Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter	Kühler, Zyklon, Gewebefilter, Filterschichtverfahren mit Sorbaliteindüsung	Sekundärhauben mit Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter, Quenche, regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV)
Max. Volumenstrom Nm³/h	120 000	50 000	75 000	25 000	50 000
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	halbjährlich (4 h)	1x pro Jahr (3*30 min)	kontinuierlich ⁽¹⁾ alle 3 Jahre ⁽²⁾
Staub	1,7–3,9 (HMW) 2,5 (JMW)	14,6 Max. HMW 1,5 (JMW)	0,5	1,5–19,5 13,5 Mittelwert	3 ⁽¹⁾ (TMW) 0,5–1,8 ⁽²⁾ (3*30 min)
Messintervall	halbjährlich (30 min)	halbjährlich (30 min)	kontinuierlich	alle 3 Jahre (5*30 min)	alle 3 Jahre (3*30 min)
SO₂	3–60	0–17	80 (JMW) 140 (90. Perzentil HMW)	30–85	0,2–86
Messintervall	jährlich (30 min)	jährlich (3*30 min)	halbjährlich (4 h)	alle 3 Jahre (5*30 min)	alle 3 Jahre (3*30 min)
Cu (mg/Nm³)	0,16–0,4	0,15–0,2	0,002–0,007	Es wurden aggregierte Daten berichtet	0,0005–0,0175
Pb (mg/Nm³)	0,029–0,05	0,036–0,064	0,0015–0,03		0,0039–0,012
As (mg/Nm³)	< NWG	0–0,017	< NWG		0,0005–0,001
Hg (mg/Nm³)	0–0,004	0–0,004	k.A.		0,006–0,056
Cd (mg/Nm³)	0,007–0,014	0,007–0,01	0,0005–0,001		0,0001–0,003
Ni (mg/Nm³)	0,005–0,007	0,003–0,005	< NWG		0,0001–0,001
Messintervall	jährlich	jährlich	halbjährlich (6 h)	nicht anwendbar	alle 3 Jahre (3*3 h)
PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm³)	0,05	0,05	<0,005	k.A.	0,293–0,564

Messintervall	jährlich (30 min)	jährlich (30 min)	nicht anwendbar	alle 3 Jahre (5*30 min)	alle 3 Jahre (3*30 min)
TOC	4–10	0–1	k.A.	12–56 Mittelwert 16, angegeben als TVOC	0,1–1,2 angegeben als C _{Org.}
Messintervall	halbjährlich (30 min)	halbjährlich (30 min)	nicht anwendbar	alle 3 Jahre (5*30 min)	alle 3 Jahre (3*30 min)
NO _x	2–22	0–22	k.A.	10–20	87
<p>Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, der eingesetzten Technologie und die Effizienz des Staubabscheiders bestimmt. <i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i></p> <p>Legende: NWG = Nachweisgrenze, HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, JMW = Jahresmittelwert, k.A. = keine Angaben</p>					

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven wie Kalk, Aktivkohle usw. zur SO₂-, Dioxin- und Quecksilberabscheidung
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder einer anderen Verwertung zugeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können je nach verarbeitetem Einsatzmaterial in neuen und bestehenden Sekundärkupferschmelzanlagen eingesetzt werden.

Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit einhergehenden medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Doppelkontakt-H₂SO₄-Anlagen zur Rückgewinnung des hohen Abgas-SO₂-Gehalts werden vorwiegend bei Öfen eingesetzt, die sekundäre schwefelhaltige Materialien oder eine Kombination von Sekundärmaterialien und Primärkonzentraten verarbeiten. Für SO₂-arme Abgase kommen andere Entschwefelungstechniken zum Einsatz (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9). Ob Techniken zur Quecksilberminderung eingesetzt werden, ist abhängig von der Art der verarbeiteten Einsatzmaterialien.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die KRS-Anlage beliefen sich auf EUR 40 Millionen, wobei die bestehenden Filteranlagen und der Kamin weiterverwendet wurden [234, UBA Copper, lead, zinc and aluminium 2007].

Investitionskosten von bis zu EUR 5 Millionen wurden für eine Quecksilberminderungsanlage (einschl. Kondensator, Wärmetauscher, Gewebefilter, Eindüssystem, Absorber und Gebläse). bei Aurubis Hamburg genannt.

Die Investitionskosten für ein Gewebefilter können auf EUR 10/m³ Reingas veranschlagt werden. Müssen komplexere Schadstoffe als Staub abgeschieden werden, z.B. in Entschwefelungsanlagen, Nasswäschern, Nachverbrennungskammern, können sich diese Kosten verzehnfachen. Die jährlichen Betriebskosten werden je nach eingesetzter Technik und Stromkosten auf EUR 0,001/m³ bis EUR 0,01/m³ beziffert.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Energie- und Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE), Umicore Hoboken (BE), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE), Elmet Berango (ES), Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT) und Boliden Rönnskär (SE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.1.1 Verminderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen durch Primär- und Sekundärmaßnahmen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien auf die installierte Ofen- und Abgasreinigungstechnik
- optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen
- bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen: Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen, die eine gleichmäßige Dosierung der Einsatzmaterialien in kleinen Mengen ermöglichen
- Zerstörung von Dioxinen bei hohen Temperaturen ($> 850\text{ °C}$) direkt im Schmelzofen
- Sauerstoffeindüsung in die obere Ofenzone
- Vermeidung von Abgassystemen, die zur Anreicherung von Flugascheablagerungen im kritischen Temperaturbereich $> 250\text{ °C}$ führen
- Nachverbrennungskammer oder Nachbrenner
- schnelles Durchfahren des kritischen Temperaturbereichs 400 °C – 200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung
- Eindüsen eines Sorptionsmittels (z.B. Aktivkohle, Braunkohlekoks, Kalk) in den Abgasstrom vor der Entstaubung
- wirksames Stauberfassungssystem

Technische Beschreibung

Eine detaillierte technische Beschreibung der o.g. Techniken ist in Abschnitt 2.12.5.3 zu finden.

Zu den potenziellen Emissionen organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen zählen auch PCDD/F, die aus der unvollständigen Verbrennung synthetischer oder mineralischer organischer Stoffe (Öl, Kunststoffe, usw.) oder in manchen Fällen aus Halogenen im Einsatzmaterial herrühren oder sich durch De-Novo-Synthese bilden, wenn das Abgas nicht schnell genug abgekühlt wird.

Organische und/oder Halogenverunreinigungen von Sekundärrohstoffen lassen sich im Vorfeld feststellen, so dass die am besten geeignete Kombination von Schmelzofen und Minderungstechnik zur Vermeidung von PCDD/F-Emissionen gewählt werden kann.

Abhängig von der jeweiligen Ofentechnologie oder vom Verfahren können Schrotte zur Entfernung organischer Verunreinigungen ggf. vorbehandelt werden.

Zur Verbesserung der Verbrennungsbedingungen werden sauerstoffangereicherte Luft oder reiner Sauerstoff eingesetzt und die Turbulenz zur intensiven Durchmischung des Sauerstoffs mit den brennbaren Stoffen verstärkt, womit eine höhere Verbrennungstemperatur oder längere Verweilzeit bei hohen Temperaturen erreicht wird. Unter diesen Bedingungen werden flüchtige organische Verbindungen einschl. PCDD/F oxidiert.

Modifizierte Ofenbeschickungssysteme werden bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen eingesetzt, um die Zugabe portionierter kleiner Materialmengen zu gewährleisten. Auf diese Weise wird einer zu

starken Abkühlung des Ofens beim Chargierbetrieb entgegengewirkt, was zur Prozessoptimierung beiträgt und die De-Novo-Synthese von PCDD/F unterbindet.

Dioxine können direkt im Schmelzofen bei Abgastemperaturen $> 850^{\circ}\text{C}$ und ausreichender Verweilzeit zerstört werden. Zur Vermeidung einer De-Novo-Synthese wird das Abgas anschließend schlagartig auf 200°C abgekühlt. Des Weiteren können Nachverbrennungskammern zur thermischen Behandlung des Abgases mit anschließender schneller Kühlung eingesetzt werden. In Fällen, in denen eine thermische Behandlung in einer Nachverbrennungskammer nicht möglich ist, kann eine Nachverbrennung durch Sauerstoffzugabe in den Bereich oberhalb der Schmelzzone erreicht werden.

PCDD/F können durch Adsorption an Aktivkohle entweder in einem Festbett- oder Wanderbettadsorber oder durch Einblasen von Aktivkohle oder anderer Sorbentien in den Abgasstrom und anschließende Abscheidung mit dem Filterstaub vermindert werden. Die erforderliche Additivdosierung und -zusammensetzung werden maßgeblich von den Prozessbedingungen und der Herkunft und Zusammensetzung der Einsatzstoffe bestimmt.

Mit hocheffizienten Entstaubungseinrichtungen wird nicht nur eine wirksame Staubabscheidung erreicht, sondern auch Dioxine, die z.T. an Staub gebunden vorliegen, werden in der Filterschicht zurückgehalten.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung und Minderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Kupfer wirkt als Katalysator bei der De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen. Folglich können bei der Verhüttung von Sekundärrohstoffen selbst bei niedrigen organischen Kohlenstoff- und Chlorgehalten höhere Dioxinkonzentrationen im Rohgas auftreten als bei der Gewinnung anderer NE-Metalle.

In welchem Umfang PCDD/F mit dem Abgas emittiert werden, hängt außerdem von der Prozessführung (beim Schachtofens treten aufgrund der stark reduzierenden Bedingungen gegenüber anderen Öfen verstärkt Dioxine auf) und den spezifischen Abgasrandbedingungen (Temperatur, Verweilzeit in den verschiedenen Temperaturbereichen, SO_2 -Gehalt) ab.

Der KRS-Anlage bei Aurubis Lünen ist für die thermische Verbrennung von Dioxinen, die sich u.a. beim Schmelzprozess bilden können, sowie zur Vermeidung einer De-Novo-Synthese ausgelegt, d.h. schnelle Abkühlung des mit einer Temperatur von 600°C aus dem Abhitzekegel austretenden Abgases. PCDD/PCDF werden in Dreijahresintervallen gemessen (3 Proben über eine Probenahmedauer von je 6 h). Die Messwerte liegen im Bereich von $0,01 \text{ ng I-TEQ/m}^3$ – $0,1 \text{ ng I-TEQ/m}^3$.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden Dioxine durch thermische Nachverbrennung im Elektroofen bei hohen Temperaturen ($> 950^{\circ}\text{C}$) zerstört. Eine Neubildung von Dioxinen wird durch schnelle Abgaskühlung unterbunden. Darüber hinaus wirkt die weitere Abgasbehandlung in der Schwefelsäureanlage der De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen entgegen.

Bei Aurubis Olen wird zur Minderung von Dioxinmissionen dem Abgasstrom vor Eintritt in das Gewebefilter ein Kalk-Aktivkohlegemisch zugegeben. Ferner wird bei der Wahl der eingesetzten Schrotte auf eine Minimierung des Eintrags organischer Vorläufersubstanzen geachtet. PCDD/F-Emissionen werden dreimal pro Jahre gemessen (Probenahmedauer 6 h). Die Messwerte liegen im Bereich von $0,3\text{--}0,5 \text{ ng I-TEQ/Nm}^3$ (Contimelt-Anlage zum Einschmelzen und Raffinieren von Blisterkupfer, hochwertigem Kupferschrott und Anodenschrott) und $0,026\text{--}0,25 \text{ ng I-TEQ/Nm}^3$ (Contirod-Anlage zur Herstellung von Gießwalzdraht aus Kupferkathoden und hochreinem Schrott).

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird das Abgas des TBRC gequenchet und nach Einblasen von Kalk und Aktivkohle in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. PCDD/PCDF werden jährlich gemessen. Der berichtete Emissionswert liegt unter 0,05 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Bei Umicore Hoboken werden die angelieferten Rohstoffe regelmäßig auf ihren Dioxingehalt geprüft. Mit dem Einsatzmaterial eingetragene Dioxine werden im ISASMELT-Ofen oder in der Nachverbrennungskammer zerstört. Eine De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen wird durch schnelle Abgaskühlung unterbunden, wobei auch die Reaktion im Katalysatorbett der Doppelkontakanlage eine Neubildung verhindert. Alle Messwerte am Kamin der H₂SO₄-Anlage liegen unter 0,001 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg werden organische Abgasinhaltsstoffe in einer regenerativen Nachverbrennungsanlage oxidiert. Die PCDD/F-Konzentrationen im Schachtofenabgas konnten Zug um Zug auf 0,31 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ reduziert werden.

Metallo-Chimique Beerse setzt ein Filterschichtverfahren zur Reinigung des Mini-Smelter-Abgases ein. Als Adsorbens dient Sorbalit, ein Kalk-Aktivkohlegemisch. Am Ofenausstritt ist eine Nachverbrennungskammer installiert. Die nachgeschaltete Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Sorbaliteindüsung und Gewebefilter ist für einen Volumenstrom von 100 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt. PCDD/F-Emissionsmessungen werden halbjährlich über eine Probenahmedauer von jeweils sechs Stunden durchgeführt. Es werden Emissionswerte < 0,1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ erreicht.

Das Primärabgas des TBRC wird nach Einblasen von Sorbalit in einem Gewebefilter (70 000 Nm³/h) gereinigt. PCDD/F-Emissionsmessungen werden halbjährlich über eine Probenahmedauer von jeweils sechs Stunden durchgeführt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen zwischen 0,01 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ und 0,1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Der abgeschiedene Staub kann sehr hohe PCDD/F-Konzentrationen aufweisen und muss ggf. deponiert oder vor Rückführung in den Produktionsprozess einer sorgfältigen Behandlung unterzogen werden.
- Einsatz von Additiven/Adsorbentien
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Nachverbrennungskammer)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Die optimale Kombination von Techniken in neuen und bestehenden Kupferschmelzanlagen ist von der Art der verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffe und der jeweiligen Ofentechnologie abhängig.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Zur Reduzierung der Adsorbenskosten kann der Filterstaub in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Umicore Hoboken (BE), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE), Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT) und Boliden Rönnskär (SE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.1.2 Verminderung von Emissionen durch regenerative Nachverbrennung von Ofenabgasen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechniken kommen Gewebefilter und regenerative Nachverbrennungsanlagen (RNV), auch regenerative thermische Oxidation (RTO) genannt, in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

In Sekundärhütten können flüchtige organische Verbindungen (VOC) und Rest-CO als unerwünschte Verunreinigungen in den Ofenabgasen auftreten. Diese Schadstoffe können mit einer Kombination von Nachverbrennungskammern, Kühl- und Entstaubungseinrichtungen aus dem Ofenabgas abgeschieden werden.

Nachverbrennungskammern dienen dazu, den notwendigen Sauerstoffüberschuss, hohe Temperaturen ($> 850\text{ °C}$) sowie eine ausreichende Verweilzeit zum Abbau und Ausbrand aller organischen Kohlenstoffverbindungen und zur technischen Zerstörung aller organischen Verbindungen einschl. PCDD/PCDF (d.h. Dioxine und Furane) sicherzustellen. Zur Vermeidung einer De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen und Furanen wird das Abgas nach Austritt aus der Nachverbrennungskammer gequenchet oder ggf. unter Wärmerückgewinnung gekühlt und abschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Regenerative Nachverbrennungsanlagen (RNV) verwenden Regeneratoren aus keramischen Speichermassen zur Rückgewinnung der Enthalpie des heißen Reingases und Aufheizung des zu behandelnden Abgasstroms. Die Regeneratoren werden abwechselnd von Reingas und Rohgas durchströmt, wobei das heiße Reingas seine Wärme an die Speichermassen abgibt und das Rohgas im nächsten Zyklus mit Hilfe der gespeicherten Wärme aufgeheizt und die organischen Inhaltsstoffe oxidiert werden. Vor Eintritt in die RNV wird das Abgas in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. In einigen Anwendungen ist ein autothermer Betrieb der RNV ohne zusätzliche Verfeuerung von Brenngas möglich.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Reduzierung von CO-, VOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird das Schachtofenabgas über ein drehzahlgeregeltes Gebläse mit Frequenzumrichterantrieb abgesaugt und der RNV zugeführt. Das entstaubte Abgas tritt mit einer Temperatur von 110 °C in die RNV ein. Dort strömt es durch die Regeneratorbetten, wird dabei vorgewärmt und mit Hilfe eines Erdgasbrenners auf 950 °C aufgeheizt, wobei die latente Wärme des Gases zusätzlich die Temperatur im Reaktionsraum erhöht. Dabei werden organische Verbindungen einschl. Dioxine oxidiert und gleichzeitig auch CO zu CO_2 umgesetzt.

Der Reingas-VOC-Gehalt nach dem Gewebefilter wird überwacht. Reingas-Volumenstrom, Staub- und CO-Gehalt werden kontinuierlich am Kamin gemessen. Die Messstation für den Schachtofen ist nach der RNV direkt vor dem Abgaseintritt in den Kamin angeordnet. Die RNV besteht aus drei Kammern, die mit Keramikspeichermassen bestückt sind. Der Erdgasbrenner ist für eine mittlere Gasaustrittsgeschwindigkeit und einen maximalen Gasvolumenstrom von $80\text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ ausgelegt. Die mittlere Verweilzeit des Abgases in der RNV beträgt 1,5 Sek. Das Wartungsintervall beträgt sechs Monate.

Die CO- und Staubkonzentrationen im behandelten Abgas werden kontinuierlich überwacht und die Messwerte in einem internen Server gespeichert. Staub- und CO-Emissionswerte werden kontinuierlich gemessen und aufgezeichnet.

Der Reingaserwert für Gesamt-PCDD/F liegt unter $0,3\text{ ng/m}^3$. CO wird wirksam bis auf eine Restkonzentration von 25 mg/Nm^3 oxidiert, angegeben als Tagesmittelwert der kontinuierlich gemessenen Emissionen. Stichprobenmessungen zeigen hingegen einen CO-Emissionswert von $0,19\text{ mg/Nm}^3$ – 11 mg/Nm^3 (Halbstundenmittelwert). Der Staubemissionswert liegt bei 3

mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert der kontinuierlich gemessenen Emissionen) bzw. bei 0,5 mg/Nm³–1,8 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert der Stichprobenmessungen).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zur Stützfeuerung der RNV wird Erdgas benötigt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik kann zur Reinigung von Ofenabgasen mit hohen Rest-PCCD/F- und CO-Konzentrationen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Betriebskosten einer RNV sind in erster Linie vom Betrieb des emittierenden Ofens abhängig. Der Erdgasverbrauch wird durch die notwendigen thermischen Bedingungen zur Oxidation der organischen Abgasinhaltsstoffe bestimmt.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Im Vergleich zu rekuperativen Nachverbrennungseinrichtungen haben RNV-Anlagen einen um ca. 75 % niedrigeren Energieverbrauch.

Beispielanlagen

Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [249, Austria, Brixlegg 2007], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.1.3 Verminderung von NO_x-Emissionen aus Öfen durch Primär- und Sekundärmaßnahmen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Brennerbetrieb mit reinem Sauerstoff (Oxy-Fuel-Brenner)
- Betrieb mit Sauerstoffanreicherung unter bestimmten Bedingungen
- Eindüsen eines Inertgases

Technische Beschreibung

Die Bildung von thermischem NO_x im Verbrennungsprozess ist eine Funktion der Temperatur und des N₂-Partialdrucks in der Gasphase. Da pyrometallurgische Prozesse bei hohen Temperaturen ablaufen, basieren Maßnahmen zur NO_x-Minderung i.d.R. auf einer Reduzierung des N₂-Partialdrucks. Dies kann durch die Verwendung von reinem Sauerstoff statt Luft für die Verbrennung erreicht werden.

Andererseits kann die Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft auch zu lokalen Verbrennungstemperaturspitzen führen, die die Bildung von NO_x begünstigen, und bedarf daher einer sorgfältigen Prüfung.

Ferner wird die NO_x-Bildung durch Falschlufteintritt in die (heiße) Verbrennungszone begünstigt und sollte daher vermieden oder minimiert werden.

Die Sauerstoffanreicherung führt potenziell zu Energieeinsparungen, da kein atmosphärischer Stickstoff auf Prozesstemperatur aufgeheizt werden muss.

Zur Reduzierung der Stickoxidbildung kann ein Inertgas in die Verbrennungszone eingebracht werden, z.B. durch Abgasrezirkulation in die Brennkammer. In Anwesenheit dieser inerten

Gasmoleküle wird eine schnelle Oxidation der Brennstoffmoleküle gehemmt. Außerdem sollte die Verweilzeit der Reaktanten so kurz wie möglich sein.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung von NO_x-Emissionen
- Verringerung des Abgasvolumenstroms durch geringere Verbrennungsluftmenge
- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Typische berichtete NO_x-Emissionswerte für Sekundärhütten liegen je nach Ofentyp und Hüttenbetrieb im Bereich von 20 mg/Nm³–400 mg/Nm³.

Im Vergleich zum Betrieb mit Luft führt der Brennerbetrieb mit reinem Sauerstoff zu einem niedrigeren Stickstoffpartialdruck in der Flamme und damit zu einer Verringerung der Bildung von thermischem NO_x. Dies ist nicht notwendigerweise der Fall, wenn die Sauerstoffanreicherung im oder in der Nähe des Brenners erfolgt oder bei erheblichem Falschlufteintritt in den Ofen, da unter diesen Umständen die Bildung von thermischem NO_x durch die höheren Temperaturen begünstigt wird. Im letzteren Fall kann Sauerstoff nach dem Brenner zugegeben werden, um diesem Effekt entgegenzuwirken und gleichzeitig eine hohe Schmelzleistung zu erreichen.

Die NO_x-Emissionswerte von Sekundärkupferhütten sind je nach Ofengeometrie, Art des Hüttenbetriebs, Brennstoffart, Brennerkonstruktion, Verbrennungsablauf, Feuerungswärmeleistung und Wärmeübertragungsbedingungen sehr unterschiedlich. Bei hocheffizienten Schmelztechnologien (z.B. Contimelt) muss im Einzelfall eine Abwägung zwischen Energieeinsatz und NO_x-Emissionsziel getroffen werden.

Darüber hinaus ist der Eintritt von Falschluf in den Ofen zu berücksichtigen, was oft nur schwer zu verhindern ist. Zur Vermeidung von Luftzutritt sollte der Ofen vollständig geschlossen sein oder bei Überdruck betrieben werden (was wiederum diffuse Emissionen begünstigen kann).

Tabelle 3.56 zeigt eine Zusammenstellung von NO_x-Emissionswerten.

Tabelle 3.56: NO_x-Emissionswerte und Betriebsdaten von Sekundärkupferhütten

Hütte	Emissionsquelle	NO _x -Bandbreite (mg/Nm ³ , angegeben als NO ₂)	Anmerkungen
Aurubis Lünen, DE	Anodenofen	0–625 (HMW) 280 (95. Perzentil HMW) 0–171 (TMW)	Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft Kontinuierliche Messung
Aurubis Lünen, DE	KRS-Ofen	0–467 (HMW) 105 (95. Perzentil HMW) 0–54 (TMW)	Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft Kontinuierliche Messung
Aurubis Lünen, DE	TBRC	0–260 (HMW) 150 (95. Perzentil HMW) 0–102 (TMW)	Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft Kontinuierliche Messung
Aurubis Olen, BE	Contimelt- Verfahren	178–700	Oxy-Erdgasbrenner Diskontinuierliche Messung, 1 x pro Monat (1*60 min)
Montanwerke Brixlegg, AT	Schachtofen	45 (HMW)	Oxy-Fuel-Brenner (im Gaseintritsbereich)
Montanwerke Brixlegg, AT	Konverter	10 (HMW)	Oxy-Fuel-Brenner (Stirnbrenner)
Montanwerke Brixlegg, AT	Anodenofen (Deckenbrenner)	50–200 (HMW)	Oxy-Fuel-Brenner (Deckenbrenner)
<i>Quelle:</i> [383, Copper subgroup 2012], [385, Germany 2012]			
Legende: HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert			

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Höhere Abgastemperaturen wirken sich nachteilig auf die Standzeit der Feuerfestzustellung aus.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Oxyfuel-Technologie ist auf die meisten pyrometallurgischen Prozesse anwendbar. Welche Techniken angewandt werden, hängt von der Ofengeometrie, Art des Hüttenbetriebs, Brennstoffart, Brennerkonstruktion, dem Verbrennungsablauf, der Feuerungswärmeleistung und den Wärmeübertragungsbedingungen ab. Die beschriebenen Techniken eignen sich zur NO_x-Reduzierung, vorausgesetzt es kann keine Umgebungsluft in den Ofen eindringen. Damit die Vorteile der Oxyfuel-Technologie voll zum Tragen kommen, sollten die Brennkammer und das Emissionsminderungssystem für die niedrigeren Gasvolumina ausgelegt sein. Dies lässt sich bei neuen Teilanlagen/Hütten oder bei der Nachrüstung bestehender Teilanlagen/Hütten bewerkstelligen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die wirtschaftlichen Vorteile von Oxyfuel-Brennern liegen im Wesentlichen in der verbesserten Produktionsleistung und der Reduzierung der Energiekosten (kleiner dimensionierte Emissionsminderungseinrichtungen).

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung der Emissionen
- Energieeinsparungen
- Potenziell kürzer Schmelzzyklen aufgrund höherer Brennerflammentemperaturen

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Lünen (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE) und Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Warmhalteöfen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Warmhalteöfen werden in der Sekundärkupfergewinnung eingesetzt, um eine kontinuierlich Verarbeitung der Metallschmelze (z.B. Schwarzkupfer, Konverterkupfer, Blisterkupfer) zu ermöglichen und eine weitere Metall-/Schlackentrennung zu erreichen.

Warmhalteöfen kommen hinter Schmelzöfen oder Konvertern zum Zwischenspeichern der Metallschmelze oder Schlacke vor der weiteren Verarbeitung und Raffination in anderen Aggregaten zur Anwendung. Auf diese Weise wird ein reibungsloser Produktionsablauf mit ausreichendem Vorrat an Metallschmelze bei gleichzeitiger Senkung der Betriebskosten erreicht. Die Verweilzeit der Schmelze im Warmhalteofen ermöglicht eine weitere Trennung von Schwarz-/Konverterkupfer und Schlacke.

Warmhalteöfen sind i.d.R. als horizontale Trommelöfen ausgeführt und werden über eine Rinne oder Pfanne beschickt. Die Öfen können mit diversen Brennstoffen (Heizöl, Erdgas) beheizt sowie auch mit Oxy-Fuel-Brennern betrieben werden, um die Schmelze auf Temperatur zu halten.

Beschreibung

Zur Reduzierung von Emissionen aus Warmhalteöfen kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- eingehauste Öfen
- Absaughauben oder kranintegrierte Hauben an Chargier- und Abstichöffnungen
- Kapselung oder Einhausung der Aufnahmepfanne
- Tertiärerfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen, wie z.B. Haus-in-Haus-Konzept
- Betrieb der Warmhalteöfen bei niedrigst möglicher Temperatur
- Gasabsaugsysteme im Chargier- und Abstichbereich
- Aufrechterhaltung eines Unterdrucks im Ofen und Abgasweg
- Abgaskühlung und Entstaubung in Gewebefiltern

Technische Beschreibung

Techniken zur Vermeidung und Erfassung diffuser Emissionen sind in Abschnitt 2.12.4.3 beschrieben.

Das Abgas des Warmhalteofens und die Sekundärabgase werden gekühlt und in Gewebefiltern entstaubt (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung und Minderung von Staubemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg erfolgt die Trennung der Schwarzkupferschmelze von der Schlackenphase im Schachtofen. Das Schwarzkupfer läuft über eine ausgemauerte Rinne in den Warmhalteofen. Dieser ist als feuerfest ausgekleideter, horizontaler Trommelofen mit einem Durchmesser von 4,1 m und einer Länge von 8,25 m ausgeführt. Die Badbewegung im Warmhalteofen wird durch aufsteigendes Spülgas (hauptsächlich Luft und daher hauptsächlich Stickstoff) gewährleistet, das über Spülsteine am Boden in die Kupferschmelze eingebracht wird. Zur Aufrechterhaltung der notwendigen Schmelztemperatur wird der Ofen über einen seitlich angeordneten Erdgasbrenner mit einer Leistung von 1,2 MW beheizt. Das

Schwarzkupfer wird in Pfannen abgegossen und mittels Kran in den Konverter überführt. Die beim Pfannentransport auftretenden Emissionen sowie die Rauche/Dämpfe im Bereich des Warmhalteofens werden über einen Saugzug in ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Als Brennstoff für den Warmhalteofen dient Erdgas (~ 500 000 m³/a). Der Kippmechanismus des Warmhalteofens wird elektrisch angetrieben. Der Warmhalteofen ist ca. 240 Tage pro Jahr in Betrieb mit einem Durchsatz von 15 kt Schwarzkupfer. Die Staub- und Abgasmesseinrichtungen des Warmhalteofens sind in einem senkrechten zylindrischen Abgasrohr mit einem Austrittsquerschnitt von 900 mm² angeordnet. Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen und die Messwerte in einem internen Server gespeichert. Das Sekundär- und Primärabgas des Prozesses wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die durchschnittlichen Staubemissionswerte liegen bei ca. 2 mg/m³.

In der Konverteranlage im Werk Nord der Aurubis Hamburg wird das im Elektroschmelzofen erzeugte Schwarzkupfer vor der weiteren Konvertierung in einen Warmhalteofen überführt. Der Warmhalteofen befindet sich innerhalb eines geschlossenen Gebäudes und ist zusätzlich mit einer weitgehend geschlossenen über Filteranlagen abgesaugten Einhausung versehen ("Haus-in-Haus"-Rückhaltesystem). Praktisch alle Chargier- und Gießvorgänge finden in dieser Einhausung statt, die zu diesem Zweck mit einem Katzkran ausgerüstet ist. Während des Pfannentransports wird die Chargierkatze abgesaugt (z.B. mittels Wirbelhauben) (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.4, "Haus-in-Haus"-Rückhaltesystem).

Bei Arubis Lünen werden die Schwarzkupferschmelze und schmelzflüssige Schlacke aus dem KRS-Ofen in Warmhalteöfen überführt. Die Warmhalteöfen sind eingehaust. Diffuse Emissionen bei Chargier- und Abstichvorgängen werden über Hauben und das Absaugsystem erfasst. Die Aufnahmeplatte steht in einer Einhausung. Das Abgas der Warmhalteöfen wird gemeinsam mit dem Sekundärabgas des KRS-Ofens gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.1). Das im TBRC erzeugte Konverterkupfer kann vor der weiteren Raffination ebenfalls in einen Warmhalteofen überführt werden. Warmhalteofen und TBRC sind in einer separaten geschlossenen Halle aufgestellt. Die Hallenluft wird abgesaugt und in einem Abgasfilter gereinigt. Das Chargieren und Abgießen des TBRC-Konverters erfolgen mittels Hallenkran, der mit einer Absaughaube zur Erfassung der auftretenden Rauche/Dämpfe ausgerüstet ist. Die Absaughaube ist über ein Bändersystem an das Abgassystem und die Entstaubungsanlage angeschlossen. Das Abgas des Warmhalteofens wird über eine Haube erfasst und zusammen mit dem Abgas des TBRC in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.3).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (z.B. für Gebläse und Gewebefilter)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Kranintegrierte Absaughauben sind nur bei Neuanlagen oder bei einem kompletten Umbau bestehender Anlagen anwendbar. Haus-in-Haus-Konzepte eignen sich zur Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen aus Chargier- und Abstichvorgängen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg liegt der Erdgasverbrauch des Warmhalteofens bei 500 000 m³/a.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT), Aurubis Hamburg und Lünen (DE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Konvertern in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Als Konverter kommen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung diskontinuierlich arbeitende Peirce-Smith (PS)-Konverter und TBRC-Konverter (engl. top-blown rotary converter, rotierende Aufblaskonverter, auch Treibkonverter genannt) zur Anwendung. In PS-Konvertern werden flüssiger Kupferbleistein, z.T. auch kupferreiche Schlacken oder Schwarzkupfer unter Zugabe von festem Kupferschrott oder Elektronikschrott und anderer kupfer-/bleihaltiger oder qualitativ minderwertiger edelmetallhaltige Materialien verarbeitet. Zu den Einsatzmaterialien von Altmetall-PS-Konvertern zählen Legierungsschrotte, geeigneter Cu-Fe-Schrott sowie Schwarzkupfer. TBRC-Konverter werden in der Verarbeitung von Schwarzkupfer, Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungsschrotten eingesetzt.

Ausmelt/ISASMELT- und KRS-Öfen werden auch zum Einschmelzen und Konvertieren in einem diskontinuierlichen zweistufigen Prozess in ein und demselben Aggregat verwendet (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.1).

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Öfen
- Betrieb bei Unterdruck und verstärktes Absaugsystem
- Kapselung und Einhausung
- Primär- und Sekundärhauben sowie Schrott-/Flussmittelchargierung über die Haube
- kranintegrierte Haube für Chargier- und Abstichvorgänge
- Tertiärerfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen wie z.B. ein "Haus-in-Haus"-System mit wirksamer Absaugung
- Kühlsystem mit Gewebefilter oder EGR
- SO₂-Abscheider

Technische Beschreibung

Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen und Abgaserfassung

Konverter werden bei Unterdruck betrieben und sind mit Primär-, Sekundär- oder Tertiärhauben zur Erfassung von Dämpfen/Rauchen ausgestattet. Stäube, Flussmittel und Schrott können über die Haube aufgegeben werden. Der TBRC ist ein kompaktes Aggregat und zur Erfassung von Sekundärabgasen eingehaust. Eine Steuerungsautomatik verhindert das Blasen beim Aus- und Eindrehen des Konverters aus der/in die Haube.

Zur quellenahen Erfassung diffuser Emissionen bei Chargier- und Abgießvorgängen können Konverter mit Sekundärhauben ausgestattet werden. Rauche/Dämpfe werden direkt am Entstehungsort abgesaugt, um diffuse Emissionen zu reduzieren. Mittels automatischer Steuereinrichtungen werden die Gebläse in emissionsträchtigen Betriebsphasen automatisch angesteuert. Ferner werden drehzahlgeregelte Gebläse eingesetzt. Die Schmelzhalle wird gegebenenfalls mit einer Dachabsaugung ausgestattet.

Gase, die nicht von den Sekundärhauben erfasst werden, können über ein tertiäres Erfassungssystem, das den gesamten Betriebsbereich umschließt, wie z.B. ein "Haus-in-Haus"-System, erfasst werden (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.4). Kranintegrierte Absaughauben sind eine wirksame Lösung zur Verringerung von Emissionen während des Chargierens und Abgießens von Sekundärkonvertern (z.B. TBRC).

Abgasreinigung

In der Sekundärkupfererzeugung wird das Konverterabgas abgekühlt (wenn möglich unter Energie-/Wärmerückgewinnung), grobentstaubt, in einem EGR oder Gewebefilter feinentstaubt und anschließend entschwefelt.

Je nach verarbeiteten Einsatzmaterialien kommen unterschiedliche Entschwefelungstechniken zur Anwendung, z.B. Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage, (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1), $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ -Wäscher, NaOH-Wäscher oder sonstige geeignete Techniken (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9).

Die Sekundärabgase werden in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Bei relevanten SO_2 -Emissionen kommt ein Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk zur Anwendung.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung von Staub-, Metall- und SO_2 -Emissionen
- Minderung diffuser Emissionen
- Flugstaub kann in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder extern verwertet werden.
- Erschöpfte Waschlösung (NaOH-Wäscher) wird als Quenchwasser anstelle von Frischwasser in der KRS-Quenche eingesetzt und dabei verdampft.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Aurubis Lünen wird das Schwarzkupfer in einem TBRC-Konverter verblasen. Die Konverteranlage ist in einer separaten geschlossenen Halle untergebracht. Die Hallenluft wird abgesaugt und in einem Abgasfilter gereinigt. Rauche/Dämpfe, die bei Chargier- und Abgießvorgängen entweichen, werden komplett durch eine neue kranintegrierte Absaughaube sowie zusätzlich über die Dachabsaugung der Schmelzhalle erfasst. Die Absaughaube ist über eine neu entwickelte Bänderkonstruktion an das Abgassystem und die Entstaubungsanlagen angeschlossen. Abgassystem und Entstaubungsanlagen sind für einen Nennvolumenstrom (kranintegrierte Haube, Schmelzhalle und Warmhalteofen) von 230 000 Nm^3/h ausgelegt. Das TBRC-Abgas (70 000 Nm^3/h) wird über eine weitere Haube erfasst und in einem eigenen Filter entstaubt. SO_2 -reiches Konverterabgas (das bei maximaler Blasleistung entsteht) wird zur Minderung von SO_2 -Emissionen in einem NaOH-Wäscher entschwefelt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.9).

Staub-, SO_2 -, NO_x -, HF- und HCl-Emission werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei $< 0,5 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ – $0,8 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. $< 0,5 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ (90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte). Die SO_2 -Werte liegen unter $270 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$, angegeben als Tagesmittelwert (das 90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte beträgt $206 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$). Die NO_x -Emissionswerte liegen zwischen < 50 – $250 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. 50 – $100 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ (Tagesmittelwert) (das 90. Perzentil der Tagesmittelwerte beträgt $60 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$). Der breite Schwankungsbereich der Emissionen ist auf den diskontinuierlichen Betrieb zurückzuführen. Die MIN- und MAX-Werte zeigen zudem eine starke Abhängigkeit von den Einsatzmaterialien der einzelnen Chargen.

Der KRS-Ofen (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.1) kann auch zur Konvertierung eingesetzt werden.

Aurubis Hamburg betreibt einen kleinen PS-Konverter zum Verblasen von Kupferstein oder Kupferbleistein auf Blisterkupfer. Nach Kühlung und Grobentstaubung in einer Staubabsetzkammer wird das Konverterabgas in Elektrofiltern entstaubt und anschließend der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt. Sekundärabgase im Konverterbereich werden erfasst und nach Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk in mehreren Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Der Konverter ist mit Absaughauben ausgestattet und zusätzlich mit einer weitgehend geschlossenen Einhausung versehen, die über eine Filteranlage abgesaugt wird, d.h. ein "Haus-in-Haus"-Rückhaltesystem. Alle Gieß- und Umfüllvorgänge finden innerhalb dieser Einhausung statt, die zu diesem Zweck mit einem Katzkran (Chargierkatze) ausgerüstet ist. Kran- und Konverterbewegungen werden ferngesteuert. Staub- und SO_2 -Emissionen (Sekundärabgas) werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die Emissionswerte liegen bei $0,5$ – $10 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ für Staub und 50 – $1425 \text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$ für SO_2 , angegeben als Halbstundenmittelwert. Beim Ausdrehen des Konverters aus der Primärhaube zum Chargieren oder Abgießen kommt es zu SO_2 -Emissionenspitzen.

Bei Boliden Rönnskär wird der in der Primärkupfergewinnung eingesetzte PS-Konverter auch für die Sekundärkupfererzeugung genutzt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.3.3).

Metallo-Chimique Beerse betreibt einen TBRC-Konverter. Das Primärabgas des Konverters wird über einen Luft/Gas-Wärmetauscher geleitet, in einem Zyklon grobentstaubt und nach Einblasen von Sorbalit in einem Gewebefilter ($70\,000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) gereinigt. Zur Entstaubung des Sekundärabgases aus der Ofenkapselung ist ein weiteres Gewebefilter ($70\,000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$) vorgesehen.

Bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird Schwarzkupfer zusammen mit Kupferlegierungsschrott, Messingschlacke, Bronze und Rotguss in einem PS-Konverter verarbeitet. Die Abgasentschwefelung erfolgt in einem $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ -Wäscher. Das als festes Reaktionsprodukt anfallende MgSO_4 wird als Zuschlagsstoff in der Bauindustrie vermarktet. Darüber hinaus verfügt der Konverter über ein Stickstoffspülsystem. Der Konverterbereich wird abgesaugt und die Abluft ($45\,000\text{ m}^3/\text{h}$) über Gewebefilter geleitet. Folgende Emissionswerte werden berichtet: Staub: $2,1\text{--}5,9\text{ mg/Nm}^3$, SO_2 : $5\text{--}30\text{ mg/Nm}^3$ und HF: $0\text{--}3,2\text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (jeweils Halbstundenmittelwerte aus der diskontinuierlichen Messung). Die Betriebsdaten sind in Tabelle 3.57 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 3.57: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Sekundärkonvertern

Hütte	Aurubis Lünen	Aurubis Hamburg	Metallo-Chimique Beerse	Montanwerke Brixlegg
Einsatz	Schwarzkupfer Legierungsschrotte	Kupferstein (flüssig oder stückig), Kupferbleistein, kupferreiche Schlacken, Schwarzkupfer, stückiger Kupferschrott oder Elektronikschrott u. sonstige kupfer-/bleihaltige oder qualitativ minderwertige edelmetallhaltige Materialien	Schwarzkupfer, Kupfer- und Legierungsschrotte	Schwarzkupfer, Legierungsschrott, Messingschlacke, Bronze und Rotguss
Ofentyp	TBRC* (120 t/Charge)	PS-Konverter	TBRC (120–160 t/Charge)	PS-Konverter
Primärabgasreinigung	Kühlung, Gewebefilter und NaOH-Wäscher	Staubabsatzkammer, EGR, Nassabscheider und Kühlung, Doppelkontakt-H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage (s. Abschnitt 2.7.2)	Kühler, Zyklon, Gewebefilter mit Sorabliteindüsung	Gewebefilter + Mg(OH) ₂ -Wäscher
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	70 000	s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	62 000	40 000
Parameter	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm³)			
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	nicht anwendbar	halbjährlich (4h)	kontinuierlich** diskontinuierlich***
Staub	< 0,5–0,8 (HMW) < 0,5 (TMW) < 0,5 (90. Perzentil TMW)	nicht relevant	< 0,5–1,3 0,9 (JMW)	3 (TMW**) 2,1–5,9 (alle 3 Jahre 3x0,5 h***)
Messintervall	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich** diskontinuierlich***
SO₂	< 50–040 (HMW) < 50–270 (TMW) < 206 (90. Perzentil TMW)	330–1980 (HMW) 270–1080 (TMW) s. Abschnitt 2.7.2	494 (JMW, berechnet aus TMW) 664 (90. Perzentil - TMW)	30 (TMW**) 5–30 (alle 3 Jahre, 3x0,5 h***)
Messintervall	6 x pro Jahr (30 min)	nicht anwendbar	halbjährlich (4h)	Alle 3 Jahre (3*0,5 h***)
Hg	0,001–0,009	nicht relevant	k.A.	k.A.
Cu	k.A.		0,0016–0,02	0,0035
Pb	0,003–0,009		0,0023–0,0026	0,002
As	k.A.		<0,0005	0,0002
Cd	0,001–0,017		< 0,0005–0,0012	< 0,0001
Messintervall	6 x pro Jahr (6 h)	nicht anwendbar	2 x pro Jahr (6 h)	alle drei Jahre (6 h)***
PCDD/F ng I-TEQ/Nm³	0,01–0,06	nicht relevant	0,015–0,019	0,0009–0,0115

Sekundär-abgasquellen	Dachabsaugung Schmelzhalle, kranintegrierte Hauben	"Haus-in-Haus"-System	Konvertersekundärhaube	Absaugung (Teil des zentralen Systems, s. Abschnitt 3.3.4.4)
Sekundärabgasreinigung	Gewebefilter	Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk + Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter
Max. Volumenstrom (Nm³/h)	230 000	250 000	67 000	150 000
Messintervall	kontinuierlich (Sekundär- u. Primärabgasableitung über gemeinsamen Kamin, s.o.)	kontinuierlich	halbjährlich (4h)	kontinuierlich** diskontinuierlich***
Staub	s.o.	< 0,5–10 (HMW) 0,8–2,7 (TMW) 2–4 (JMW)	< 0,5	2 (TMW**) 1,2–5 (alle 3 Jahre 3x0,5 h***) TMW
Messintervall	kontinuierlich (Sekundär- u. Primärabgasableitung über gemeinsamen Kamin, s.o.)	kontinuierlich	nicht gemessen	nicht gemessen
SO₂	s.o.	< 50–1425 (HMW) 65–250 (TMW) 100–200 (JMW)	nicht gemessen	nicht gemessen
Messintervall	s.o.	vierteljährlich (3*30 min)	halbjährlich (4h)	alle 3 Jahre (3*30 min***)
Cu	s.o.	< 0,01-0,23	0,0008-0,0028	0,06
Pb		0,01–0,3	0,0009–0,0032	0,04
As		< 0,01–0,07	< 0,0005	0,0013
Cd		< 0,01-0,02	< 0,0005	0,0005
<p>* Der TBRC-Konverter bei Aurubis Lünen wurde erst vor kurzem in Betrieb genommen und befindet sich noch in der Optimierungsphase, so dass nur vorläufige Daten zur Verfügung stehen. ** Werte aus der kontinuierlichen Emissionsmessung *** Werte aus der diskontinuierlichen Emissionsmessung Anmerkung: Die Metallemissionen werden im Wesentlichen durch die Art der verarbeiteten Rohstoffe, die eingesetzte Technologie und die Effizienz des Filtersystems bestimmt. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [385, Germany 2012]</p> <p>Legende: HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert, JMW = Jahresmittelwert k.A. = keine Angaben</p>				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Bei Nasswäschern können eine Feststoffsuspension sowie ein fester Abfallstoff und Abwasser anfallen, die behandelt werden müssen.
- Verbrauch von Kalk oder sonstiger Additive zur SO₂-Abscheidung

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter eignen sich sowohl für Neuanlagen als auch für bestehende Anlagen. Nasswäscher sind anwendbar bei Neuanlagen und bei umfangreichen Modernisierungs- oder Ertüchtigungsprojekten in bestehenden Anlagen, da der anfallende Abwasserstrom und die zusätzlichen Abwasserbehandlungsmaßnahmen berücksichtigt werden müssen.

Die SO₂-Rückgewinnung in Doppelkontaktanlagen wird vorwiegend bei Sekundär-Steinkonvertern praktiziert, da diese in Primärkupferhütten betrieben werden, die über eine Schwefelsäureanlage verfügen. Kranintegrierte Absaughauben sind nur bei Neuanlagen oder bei einem kompletten Umbau bestehender Anlagen anwendbar.

Die "Haus-in-Haus"-Technik wird zur Reduzierung von Emissionen bei Abgieß- und Chargiervorgängen angewandt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die Errichtung eines Haus-in-Haus-Systems wurden mit bis zu EUR 6 Millionen angegeben.

Die Investitionskosten für Umweltschutzmaßnahmen im Rahmen des TBRC-Projekts bei Aurubis Lünen (kranintegrierte Absaugung, Gaserfassungssystem, NaOH-Wäscher und ein neues Gewebefilter) beliefen sich auf EUR 17,5 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Lünen und Hamburg (DE), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE), Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT) und Boliden Rönnskär (SE)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.4.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Sekundäremissionen aus Nebeneinrichtungen in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Sekundärhauben zur Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen bei Abstich-, Gieß- und Umfüllvorgängen
- Ofeneinhausungen oder Tertiärerfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen, wie z.B. "Haus-in-Haus"-Konzept
- Absaugsysteme mit automatischer Steuerung der Gebläse und anschließende Abgasreinigung in Gewebefiltern oder Nasswäschern

Technische Beschreibung

Rauche/Dämpfe im Bereich der Chargier- und Abstichöffnungen, Gießeinrichtungen, Rinnen und Pfannenstände werden über Absaughauben erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Feuchte Abgase, z.B. aus der Granulierung, werden über Haubenabsaugungen erfasst und vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Nasswäscher gereinigt.

Beim "Haus-in-Haus"-Konzept handelt es sich um eine sehr aufwendige Technologie, bei der die in geschlossenen Hallen stehenden Aggregate (Warmhalteofen, Konverter und Gießstand) zusätzlich zu den Absaughauben mit einer weitgehend geschlossenen, über Filteranlagen abgesaugten Einhausung versehen sind. Dies ermöglicht die nahezu vollständige Durchführung aller Gieß- und Umfüllvorgänge innerhalb der Einhausung, die zu diesem Zweck mit einem Katzkrane (Chargierkatze) ausgerüstet ist. Kran, Abgießvorrichtungen und Konverterbewegungen werden ferngesteuert, so dass das Bedienungspersonal nicht den diffusen Emissionen ausgesetzt ist. Der Kübeltransport schmelzflüssiger Materialien erfolgt – ebenfalls

ferngesteuert – schienengebunden mit Hilfe motorbetriebener Winden. Dies ermöglicht die Erfassung diffuser Emissionen, die auf der Transportstrecke zwischen Konverter und Warmhalteofen von Kübeln mit schmelzflüssigen Materialien ausgehen.

Diffuse Emissionen während Gieß- oder Chargiervorgängen werden entweder über Primärhauben oder das Haus-in-Haus-System erfasst (siehe **Figure 2.2**). Das Abgas aus dem Haus-in-Haus-System wird nach vorheriger Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben.

Über eine programmierbare Steuerung werden die Gebläse in emissionsträchtigen Betriebsphasen automatisch angesteuert. Beim Haus-in-Haus-Konzept wird dieses Prinzip eingesetzt, um den Energieverbrauch in Grenzen zu halten.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung diffuser Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen
- Wertmetallhaltige Stäube werden wieder in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder an externe Verwerter verkauft.
- Mit dem Haus-in-Haus-System werden Staubemissionen aus der Sekundärkonverterhalle um 75 % reduziert, so dass sich eine Hallenabsaugung erübrigt. Mit dieser Maßnahme wird eine deutliche Verbesserung der Arbeitsplatzsituation erreicht, da sich keine Arbeitsplätze mehr in unmittelbarer Nähe von Emissionsquellen befinden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Das Haus-in-Haus-Konzept wird in der Kupfersekundärhütte Aurubis Hamburg angewendet. Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 0,5–10 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. 0,8–2,7 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert). Die SO₂-Emissionswerte werden mit 50–1425 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. 65–250 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert) angegeben. Die Daten beziehen sich auf den Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente. Beim Ausdrehen des Converters aus der Primärhaube zum Chargieren und Abgießen kommt es zu SO₂-Emissionsspitzen.

Bei Umicore Hoboken werden diffuse Emissionen im Bereich der Abstichöffnungen, Rinnen und Pfannenstände erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter mit einer Kapazität von 230 000 Nm³/h gereinigt. Der Reingasstaubgehalt liegt unter 1 mg/Nm³. Die bei der Granulierung von verunreinigtem Kupfer entstehenden Brüden werden über einen Nassabscheider und Tropfenabscheider geführt. Der erreichte Reingasstaubgehalt liegt unter 5 mg/Nm³.

In den Montanwerken Brixlegg sind die Chargier- und Abstichbereiche des Schachtofens, Warmhalteofens, Converters und Anodenofens mit Absaugsystemen und Gewebefiltern zur Erfassung und Reinigung der emittierten Rauche/Dämpfe ausgerüstet. Beide Kamine am Standort Brixlegg sind mit kontinuierlichen Staubemissionsmesseinrichtungen ausgestattet. Der Staubemissionswert beträgt im Mittel 3 mg/Nm³.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Verbrauch von Kalk oder sonstiger Additive zur Abgasentschwefelung
- Der Flugstaub muss vor Verwertung von Verunreinigungen befreit werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Die Haus-in-Haus-Technik kann zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen aus Chargier-, Abstich- und Gießvorgängen in Neuanlagen oder bei umfangreichen Ertüchtigungen bestehender Anlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die Errichtung eines Haus-in-Haus-Systems wurden mit EUR 6 Millionen angegeben.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Vermeidung und Reduzierung diffuser Emissionen und Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Gegenüber einer konventionellen Hallenabsaugung ist das zu erfassende und reinigende Abgasvolumen und damit der Energieaufwand bei Haus-in-Haus-Systemen erheblich geringer.

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Umicore Hoboken (BE) und Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.5 Kupferverarbeitung**3.3.5.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Einschmelz- und Gießanlagen zur Erzeugung von Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungsformaten, Blockmetallen und Gießwalzdraht**

Gießwalzdraht wird aus hochreinen Kupferkathoden, Kupferschrott oder niedrig legiertem Kupfer in kontinuierlichen Verfahren, wie z.B. dem Contirod-, dem SCR (Southwire Continuous Rod)- oder dem Aufwärtsgießverfahren, hergestellt.

Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungsformate (Gussbolzen und Walzplatten), Bänder und Blockmetalle werden größtenteils in kontinuierlichen und halbkontinuierlichen Stranggießanlagen oder Masselbandgießanlagen hergestellt.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien und Chargierung auf die installierte Ofen- und Abgasreinigungstechnik
- integrierte Feuchtigkeitskontrolle zur Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Verwendung von gekapselten Einrichtungen, Absaughauben, Einhausungen oder Abdeckungen
- Abgasnachverbrennung oder Aktivkohle-Flugstromverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Filter
- Gewebefilter
- Nutzung des Schachtofenabgases zum Vorwärmen der Chargensäule und/oder Verbrennungsluft
- Einsatz indirekter Kühlsysteme oder eines geschlossenen Wasserkühlkreislaufs
- Wiederverwendung der Walzemulsion

Technische Beschreibungen

Je nach Gießverfahren und Einsatzmaterialien kommen verschiedene Aggregate zum Aufschmelzen von Kupfer und Kupferlegierungen zur Anwendung. Die Schmelzöfen sind entweder brennstoffbeheizt (Schacht- oder Drehtrommelöfen) oder elektrisch beheizt (Induktions- oder widerstandsbeheizte Öfen).

Schachttöfen werden zum Aufschmelzen von Kupferkathoden und reinen Kupferschrotten in der Produktion von Gießwalzdraht, Formaten oder Bändern eingesetzt. Die Öfen werden i.d.R. über Erdgasbrenner beheizt. Kupferlegierungen und auch Reinkupfer werden in Elektroöfen aufgeschmolzen.

In Tiegel- oder Drehtrommelöfen kann in einem gewissen Umfang auch eine Raffinationsbehandlung zur Legierungseinstellung erfolgen.

In den nachgeschalteten Warmhalteöfen wird die Metallschmelze hinsichtlich Temperatur und Zusammensetzung konditioniert und homogenisiert. Warmhalteöfen können entweder brennstoff- oder elektrisch beheizt sein. Darüber hinaus gibt es auch die kombinierte elektrische/Brennstoffbeheizung. In einigen Anlagen erfolgt das Einschmelzen und Warmhalten in ein und demselben Aggregat.

Die Überführung der Metallschmelze vom Schmelzofen zum Warmhalteofen sowie vom Warmhalteofen zum Gießstand erfolgt in beheizten Rinnen.

Abstimmung der Einsatzmaterialien und Chargierung auf die installierte Ofen- und Abgasreinigungstechnik

Emissionen in die Luft lassen sich durch folgende prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen vermeiden:

- Einsatz sortierter oder vorbehandelter Schrotte (geringerer Verschmutzungsgrad, weitgehend frei von Kühlschmierstoffen, kompaktierte Schrotte, pelletierter Späne). In der Sekundärkupferproduktion wird üblicherweise die Schrottklassifizierung nach EN 12861:1999 verwendet.
- Je nach Ofentyp können Schrotte mit einem niedrigeren Feuchtegehalt eingesetzt werden (getrocknete Späne, Vortrocknung oder thermische Behandlung).
- Beachtung der Chargierfolge und möglichst gleichmäßige Zuführung der Einsatzmaterialien in das Schmelzaggregat
- kontrollierte Aufgabe großformatiger Kathoden (z.B. beim Aufwärtsgießverfahren)
- Gewährleisten eines unmittelbaren Eintauchens von Spänen in die Schmelze bei Tiegelöfen und durch ein entsprechendes Chargierregime beim Beschicken von Schachttöfen
- Betrieb mit einer definierten Verbrennungsluftmenge (Luftzahl) je nach Ofentyp und Betriebszustand

Integrierte Feuchtigkeitskontrolle zur Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Luft

- Temperaturregelung der Schmelze, um eine Überhitzung zu vermeiden
- Einsatz moderner Luftmengenregelungen zur Einstellung einer optimalen Luftzahl für die Verbrennung im Schachtofen

Verwendung von gekapselten Einrichtungen, Absaughauben, Einhausungen oder Abdeckungen

In Kupfer- und Kupferlegierungsschmelzanlagen können diffuse Emissionen im Schmelzbetrieb und, je nach Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, beim Abgießen, Abschlacken, Vergießen sowie beim Pfannentransport und im Bereich der Gießkanäle auftreten.

Zur Abgaserfassung und Prozessoptimierung durch Anpassung des Absaugvolumens an den jeweiligen Prozessschritt kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- Bei Induktionsöfen können Erfassungseinrichtungen in den Ofendeckel integriert werden, die eine Abgaserfassung in allen Betriebszuständen (Chargieren, Schmelzen, Entleeren) gewährleisten. Einige Technologien (z.B. das Aufwärtsgießverfahren) sind emissionsarm, da die der Atmosphäre ausgesetzte Oberfläche der Schmelze durch Spezialhauben mit kleinen Öffnungen auf ein Minimum beschränkt wird. Hier kann auf ein Absaugsystem verzichtet werden.

- Bei Schacht- und Drehtrommelöfen ist die Abgaserfassung in die Ofenkonstruktion integriert. Sie erfolgt beim Schachtofen unmittelbar am Ofenkopf, beim Drehtrommelofen am Abgasaustritt direkt gegenüber der Brennerseite. Einsatz eines geschlossenen Beschickungsaufzugs beim Schachtofen; Beschickung von Drehtrommelöfen über die Abgasaustrittsöffnung.
- Die beim Vergießen der Kupferlegierungen auftretenden Emissionen können über Absaughauben oder Teileinhausungen oder Ringabsaugungen über den Abstichrinnen, Warmhalteöfen oder Gießkanälen erfasst werden, soweit das Gießverfahren dies erlaubt. Im Einsatz sind auch verfahrbare Hauben, die bei emissionsrelevanten Betriebszuständen über die jeweilige Quelle geschwenkt werden können.
- (Teil)abdeckung der Walzgerüste und Beizlinie bei integrierten Formgebungsverfahren wie z.B. der Gießwalzdrahtherstellung
- Abdecken der Schmelze in Warmhalte- und Gießöfen mit z.B. Speziialsalzen, Holzkohle oder Ruß, vorausgesetzt die Produktqualität wird hierdurch nicht beeinträchtigt
- Optimierung der Abgaserfassung durch bedarfsgerechte Anpassung des Absaugvolumens an den jeweiligen Prozessschritt

Abgasreinigung

Erfasste Abgase werden einem Gewebefilter oder Zyklonen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter zur Entstaubung zugeführt. Zuvor muss das Abgas ggf. auf die Filtereintrittstemperatur heruntergekühlt werden. Zur Vermeidung von PCDD/F-Emissionen können heiße Ofenabgase schnell auf eine Temperatur unter 250 °C heruntergekühlt bzw. gequenchet werden. Zu diesem Zweck wird möglichst nahe an der Erfassungsstelle Wasser in den Abgasstrom eingedüst.

Die Abgase aus der thermischen Spänenvorbehandlung und dem Schachtofen können bei hohen Gehalten an organischen Substanzen (Öle, Kühlschmierstoffe) thermisch nachverbrannt werden.

Mit der Entstaubung können auch im Abgas enthaltene Dioxine und Furane abgeschieden werden. Hierzu wird vor Eintritt in den Filter, ein Sorbens (z.B. Aktivkohle) in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen.

Beim Einschmelzen von Messing oder Bronze gehen Zink und Zinkoxide in die Gasphase über und werden mit dem Ofenabgas emittiert. Abhilfe schafft hier eine gute Temperaturführung des Schmelzprozesses. Das Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Mit dem Staub abgeschiedene Zinkoxide werden i.d.R. zurückgewonnen.

Einsatz indirekter Kühlsysteme oder eines geschlossenen Wasserkühlkreislaufs und Wiederverwendung der Walzemulsion

Die meisten Gießverfahren (ausgenommen z.B. das Aufwärtsgießverfahren) arbeiten mit Direktwasserkühlung zum Abkühlen des Gießstrangs auf geeignete Temperaturen für die Weiterverarbeitung. Das Kühlwasser kann nach Abtrennen der Feststoffe zurückgeführt werden.

Bei der Gießwalzdrahtherstellung oder anderen hüttenintegrierten Fertigungsverfahren, wie z.B. bei kontinuierlichen Gieß-Walzverfahren, wird die Walzemulsion (Öl-Wasser-Külschmierstoff) zum Kühlen und Schutz der Walzen sowie zum Schutz der Kupferoberfläche gegen Oxidation durch Luftkontakt in die Walzgerüste eingebracht und ist in den Gieß-Walzprozess integriert. Die Emulsion wird unterhalb der Walzen aufgefangen, zur Feststoffabtrennung (Kupferzunder) über ein Filter gepumpt und in einem Vorlagebehälter gesammelt, von wo aus sie wieder in die Walzgerüste zurückgepumpt wird. Kupferzunder wird zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Kupfers in eine Schmelzanlage zurückgeführt. Je nach Art der verwendeten Emulsion kann die verbrauchte Emulsion aufgearbeitet werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Staub, TVOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen
- Kupferrückgewinnung und Rohstoffeinsparungen

- Rückgewinnung des Wärmeinhalts des Schachtofenabgases

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Aurubis Hamburg betreibt eine SCR-Anlage zur Herstellung von Gießwalzdraht. Beim Southwire-Verfahren handelt es sich um ein kontinuierliches integriertes Gieß- und Warmwalzverfahren. Kupfer wird kontinuierlich in einem Schachtofen (Schmelzleistung 60 t/h) eingeschmolzen. Das Ofenabgas wird erfasst und in zwei Gewebefiltern entstaubt (Volumenstrom 100 000 Nm³/h). Die erreichten Staubemissionswerte liegen bei < 0,5–10 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) bzw. < 0,5–5 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert). Die Kupferschmelze wird über eine gasbeheizte Rinne in einen Warmhalteofen mit einem Fassungsvermögen von 24 t überführt und fließt von dort ebenfalls über eine Rinne in die Gießpfanne (Tundisch). Über eine Gießdüse gelangt die Schmelze in die Kokille, die aus einem rotierenden Gießrad mit trapezförmigen Einschnitt und einem umlaufenden Stahlband als Abdeckung gebildet wird. Das Gießrad ist aus einer Kupferlegierung gefertigt. Primär- und Sekundärkühlung erfolgen mit Wasser.

Außerdem wird an diesem Standort eine Stranggießanlage zur Herstellung von Gussbolzen und Walzplatten betrieben. Die Anlage umfasst zwei Schachtschmelzöfen, drei Induktionswarmhalteöfen sowie drei mehrsträngige Stranggussanlagen. Beide Schachtofen sind i.d.R. kontinuierlich in Betrieb mit einer maximalen Schmelzleistung von 70 t/h. Die Gießleistung beträgt je nach Format, Kupferqualität und Anzahl der Stränge 5–35 t/h.

Kathoden, Kupferschrott und Späne werden mittels Kübelaufzug in die Schachtofen aufgegeben. Die Kupferschmelze wird über eine Rinne vom Schachtofen in den Warmhalteofen überführt. Legierungselemente, wie z.B. Silber oder Phosphor (als Kupferlegierungselement), werden in den Rinnen bzw. den Warmhalteöfen zugegeben und im Warmhalteofen gleichmäßig in der Kupferschmelze verteilt. Das Schachtofenabgas wird erfasst und je nach Temperatur mit Wasser gequenchet und anschließend in Gewebefiltern entstaubt (Volumenstrom je 40 000 Nm³/h). Es werden Staubemissionswerte von < 0,5–6 mg/Nm³ (Halbstundenmittelwert) erreicht. Vom Warmhalteofen fließt die Schmelze über eine Gießdüse in die Kokillen der Vertikalstranggießanlage. In den Kokillen erstarrt die Schmelze zu einem Walzplatten- oder Knüppelstrang, der beim Heraustreten aus der Kokille mit einer fliegenden Säge auf die vorgegebene Länge abgetrennt wird. Der Gussstrang wird mit Wasser gekühlt. Das Kühlwasser wird zum Teil im Kreislauf geführt. Das Abschlämmwasser wird nach Absetzen und Abtrennen der Feststoffe abgeleitet.

Aurubis Olen betreibt eine Contirod-Anlage, in der Gießwalzdraht aus Kupferkathoden und hochreinem Kupferschrott hergestellt wird. Als Schmelzaggregat dient ein Schachtofen. Vom Schachtofen gelangt die Kupferschmelze über eine mit Syphons ausgestattete Rinne und einen kippbaren gasbeheizten Warmhalteofen in den Gießtrichter, der den Schmelzfluss zur Gießmaschine automatisch regelt. Die Gießmaschine ist als Doppelbandmaschine ausgeführt. Die beiden Gießbänder werden über einen kontinuierlichen Wasserfilm gekühlt, der sich mit hoher Geschwindigkeit über die Oberfläche der Bänder bewegt.

Die Beschickung des Schachtofens erfolgt über ein geschlossenes System, das die Freisetzung von Wärme/Gasen in die Hallenatmosphäre unterbindet. Im Ofenschacht wird das Einsatzmaterial durch die nach oben strömenden Reaktionsgase aufgeheizt. Die Abwärme der Abgase wird in einem Wärmetauscher zur Vorwärmung der Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner genutzt. Die Walzgerüste und Beizlinie sind abgedeckt.

Das Abgas wird rasch heruntergekühlt/gequenchet und anschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt (Volumenstrom 30 000 Nm³/h). Vor Eintritt in das Gewebefilter wird ein Kalk-/Aktivkohlegemisch zur Dioxinminderung in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Darüber hinaus wird bei der Auswahl der eingesetzten Schrotte auf eine Minimierung des Eintrags von Vorläufersubstanzen oder organischen Verbindungen geachtet. Die gemessenen Emissionswerte liegen im Bereich von 0,026–0,25 ng I-TEQ/Nm³. Die Staubemissionswerte liegen bei 1–7 mg/Nm³. Der in den Gewebefiltern abgeschiedene Staub wird entweder extern verwertet oder

entsorgt. Das (beim Spülen des Walzdrahts nach dem Beizen) anfallende Abwasser wird nach einer Vorbehandlung (z.B. Neutralisation mit NaOH) über ein gemeinsames Kanalsystem (zusammen mit Kühlwasser, Prozessabwasser und Niederschlagswasser) in eine physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigungsanlage geleitet.

In den Aufwärtsstranggießanlagen wird sauerstofffreier Gießwalzdraht aus Kupferkathoden in einem integrierten Schmelz-, Gieß- und Walzprozess hergestellt. Diese Anlagen zeichnen sich dadurch aus, dass die Schmelze zu keinem Zeitpunkt mit Umgebungsluft in Berührung kommt und das Kupfer somit nicht oxidieren kann. Die Anlagen verfügen über einen Schmelzofen und einem Vergießofen oder beide Arbeitsschritte sind in einem Ofen kombiniert. Nach dem Einschmelzen im Vergießofen erstarrt die Kupferschmelze auf einem Anfahrstück und wird senkrecht nach oben durch wassergekühlte Rohre abgezogen. Der sauerstofffreie Gießwalzdraht wird dann auf Haspeleinrichtungen zu Bündeln gewickelt. Bei diesen Fertigungsschritten werden keine Emissionen in die Umwelt freigesetzt.

Bei Aurubis Avellino wird Kupfergießwalzdraht nach dem Contirod-Verfahren erzeugt. Das Kupfer wird kontinuierlich in einem Schachtofen eingeschmolzen. Der Rinnenbereich des Schachtofens, der Warmhalteofen und die Gießrinne werden über Hauben abgesaugt. Das erfasste Abgas (Volumenstrom 60 000 Nm³/h) wird nach Grobentstaubung in zwei in Reihe geschalteten Zyklonabscheidern und Abkühlung in einem Wärmerückgewinnungssystem in zwei parallel geschalteten Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Die Staubemissionswerte liegen unter 1 mg/m³. Im Ofenschacht wird die Materialsäule durch die nach oben strömenden Reaktionsgase aufgeheizt. Der Abgaswärmeinhalt wird in einem Wärmetauscher zur Vorwärmung der Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner genutzt. Primär- und Sekundärkühlung erfolgen mit Wasser. Kühl- und Prozessabwasser werden einer physikalisch/chemischen Abwasserbehandlung unterzogen.

Bei Aurubis Pori werden in einem kontinuierlichen Verfahren Gussbolzen und Walzplatten in unterschiedlichen Kupfersorten je nach Endanwendung hergestellt. Die Anlage umfasst einen Schachtschmelzofen, einen Induktionsvergießofen und eine Stranggussanlage. Sie ist für eine Schmelzleistung von 22 t/h ausgelegt. Die Gießleistung beträgt je nach Format und Kupferqualität 6–20 t/h. Interner und externer Rücklaufschrott (min. 99,9 % Cu), z.B. Schrottpakete, Späne, Säge- und Schneidabfälle, werden zusammen mit einer kleinen Menge an Kathoden über einen Kübelaufzug in den Schachtofen aufgegeben. Die Schmelzenergie wird über Butangasbrenner eingebracht. Vom Schachtofen gelangt die Kupferschmelze über eine Rinne in den Vergießofen. In den Gießrinnen erfolgt die Zugabe von Legierungselementen und/oder Phosphor (als Kupferlegierungselement). Das Schachtofenabgas wird erfasst, in einer Nachverbrennungszone auf 750 °C aufgeheizt und anschließend in einem Gewebefilter (maximaler Volumenstrom 30 000 Nm³/h) entstaubt. Es werden Staubemissionswerte von < 0,2–4 mg/Nm³ erreicht. Der Abgaswärmeinhalt wird in einem Thermoölsystem zurückgewonnen und an ein externes Kraftwerk zur Dampferzeugung verkauft. Die Abwärme des Abgasstroms aus dem Gießrinnenbereich wird zur Heißwasserbereitung in der Kupfergießerei genutzt.

Vom Vergießofen gelangt die Schmelze über eine Gießdüse in die Kokille der Vertikalstranggießmaschine. Dort erstarrt sie zu einem Walzplatten- oder Knüppelstrang, der beim Heraustreten aus der Kokille mit einer fliegenden Säge auf die vorgegebene Länge abgetrennt wird. Die Kühlung des Gussstrangs erfolgt über einen inneren Wasserkühlkreislauf mit integriertem Kühlturm.

Die Wieland-Werke fertigen Gussbolzen und Brammen und betreiben eine Spezialgießerei für Kupferlegierungen. Die Gießerei arbeitet mit Induktionstiegelöfen. Metalle und Schrott werden in der Gießerei eingeschmolzen und Legierungen zu Bolzen oder Brammen vergossen. Brammen werden im halbkontinuierlichen Vertikalstranggießverfahren hergestellt. Der aus der Kokille heraustretende erstarrte Brammenstrang wird mittels Säge auf Fixlängen geschnitten. Gussbolzen werden im kontinuierlichen Vertikalstranggießverfahren hergestellt. Die Ablängung des aus der Gießform heraustretenden erstarrten Strangs erfolgt mittels fliegender Säge.

Emissionen werden über Gebläse abgesaugt und in Zyklonabscheidern mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter abgereinigt. Die Reingasstaubkonzentration wird kontinuierlich gemessen. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen unter 2 mg/m^3 (Jahresmittelwert).

KGHM Cedynia stellt Gießwalzdraht im Contirod- und Aufwärtsstranggießverfahren her. In der Contirod-Anlage werden Kathoden zusammen mit einer kleinen Menge ($< 1 \%$) hochreinen Kupferschrotts in einem erdgasbeheizten Ofen mit einer Schmelzleistung von 45 t/h erschmolzen. Der Bau einer Gewebefilteranlage zur Abgasreinigung ist derzeit in Planung. Die Kupferschmelze wird über eine Rinne vom Schmelzofen in einen gasbeheizten Warmhalteofen überführt und gelangt von dort in die Gießmaschine. Der erstarrte Gussstrang wird in einer 16-gerüstigen Walzanlage direkt zu Gießwalzdraht weiterverarbeitet. Während des Gieß- und Walzprozesses wird das Kupfer durch Aufspritzen einer Emulsion gekühlt. Die Emulsion wird in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt. Ausgeschleuste Emulsion wird in einer Vakuumdestillationsanlage behandelt. Die Kühlung der Gießbänder ist als Sprühwasserkühlung ausgeführt. Das Kühlwasser wird in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt, der von Zeit zu Zeit mit Zusatzwasser ergänzt wird. Das Abschlämmwasser wird in die AWA geleitet.

In der Aufwärtsstranggießanlage wird sauerstofffreier Gießwalzdraht aus Kupferkathoden in einem integrierten Schmelz-, Gieß- und Walzprozess hergestellt. Die Anlage besteht aus einem Kathodenbesetzsysteem, einem Schmelzofen, einem Abschlackofen, einer Aufwärtsgießmaschine mit Kühlstrecke und Einrollmaschinen. Ein besonderes Merkmal dieser Anlage ist, dass die Kupferschmelze während des gesamten Prozesses nicht mit Umgebungsluft in Berührung kommt und somit nicht oxidieren kann. Das Verfahren arbeitet somit emissionsfrei.

Am KGHM-Standort Legnica werden u.a. Rundbolzen mit einem Durchmesser von 150–310 mm hergestellt. Kupferkathoden und hochreiner Kupferschrott – Startbleche aus der Elektroraffinationsanlage – werden in einem Induktionsofen aufgeschmolzen. Von dort wird die Kupferschmelze in einen Induktionsgießofen überführt. Der Schmelzeffluss zur Kokille wird über Stopfenstangen geregelt. In der Kokille erstarrt die Schmelze zu einem Strang, der über eine Walze senkrecht abgezogen wird. Der Chargierbereich ist mit einer Punktabsaugung ausgerüstet, die die abgesaugten Gase über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgibt. Die Staubemissionswerte liegen bei $1\text{--}8 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (bzw. 3 mg/Nm^3 im Jahresmittel).

Bei Buntmetall Amstetten wird das Abgas der Induktionstiegel-, Induktionsrinnen- und Vergießöfen in zwei Ströme aufgeteilt und einem Zyklon mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter zugeführt. Die Staubemissionswerte liegen bei $0,5\text{--}2 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$, der Summenwert für Metalle wie Zn, Cr, Cu, Sn liegt bei $0,1\text{--}0,6 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (diskontinuierliche Messung in Dreijahresintervallen).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Verbrauch von Additiven
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn keine Verwertungsmöglichkeit für den abgeschiedenen Staub besteht

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die eingesetzten Erfassungs- und Minderungstechniken sind abhängig von den verarbeiteten Ausgangsmaterialien und deren Verschmutzungsgrad (Schrottqualität, Flüchtigkeit der Legierungselemente) und dem Ofentyp.

Absaughauben oder Einhausungen zur Abgaserfassung werden vorrangig bei der Verarbeitung von Kupferlegierungen eingesetzt.

Bei Abgas mit hohen Anteilen an organischen Komponenten kommen Nachverbrennungskammern zum Einsatz. Alternativ kann die Verbrennungsführung im Ofen so erfolgen, dass eine Nachverbrennung der Schadstoffe im Ofen stattfindet.

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

Sofern eine Feuerraffination zur Einstellung der Legierungszusammensetzung erfolgt, muss das bei diesem Prozessschritt entstehende Rauchgas bei der Auslegung der Rauche-/Dämpferfassungs- und -minderungssysteme berücksichtigt werden.

Bei Einsatz gefährlicher Stoffe, wie z.B. Beryllium, oder reaktiven Stoffen, wie z.B. Phosphor, können weitergehende Primär- oder Sekundärmaßnahmen erforderlich werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Für einen typischen Schachtofen mit einer Schmelzleistung von 40–50 t/h und einem Abgasvolumenstrom von ca. 50 000–80 000 Nm³/h liegen die Investitionskosten für ein Gewebefilter mit Abgaskanälen, Wasserquenche und Sorbensdosiereinrichtungen bei EUR 2 Millionen.

Die Betriebskosten für die o.g. Abgasreinigungsanlage bewegen sich in der Größenordnung von EUR 0,5 Millionen bei Annahme einer Fünf-Tage-Woche. Die Hauptkostenfaktoren sind dabei die Energiekosten für das Gebläse und die Wartungskosten für die Anlage, gefolgt von den Kosten für Additive, die Rückstandsentsorgung und die Kühlluft für die Abgasquenche.

Wesentlichen Einfluss auf die Investitions- und Betriebskosten haben die Auslegung der Anlage sowie der Strompreis und der Preis für Verbrauchsmaterialien, die stark schwanken können.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen und Senkung des Energieverbrauchs

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Aurubis Avellino (IT), Aurubis Pori (FI), Wieland-Werke (DE), KGHM Cedynia und Legnica (PL)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.5.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem säurefreien Beizen und dem Säurebeizen von Kupfergießwalzdraht und Halbzeugen aus Kupfer und Kupferlegierungen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Beizlinie betrieben mit einer im geschlossenen Kreislauf geführten Isopropanollösung
- gekapselte Säurebeizlinie mit Absaugeinrichtung, die an eine Minderungsseinrichtung angeschlossen ist
- Abgasreinigung in einem Nasswäscher oder einer katalytischen Nachverbrennungsanlage
- Rückführung der Beizlösungen und Spülwässer in den Prozess
- Behandlung der erschöpften Säure/ Spülabwässer zur Metallrückgewinnung

Technische Beschreibung

Kupfergießwalzdraht und Halbzeuge werden zur Entfernung von Oxidschichten und sonstiger Oberflächenverunreinigungen gebeizt (siehe Abbildung 3.16). Wärmebehandelte Halbzeuge müssen vor der weiteren Verarbeitung einer Oberflächenbehandlung bestehend aus Beizen und Spülen unterzogen werden. Als Beizbäder in kontinuierlich betriebenen Beizlinien (Endlosprodukte) oder Tauchbeizanlagen (Stückgut) werden Isopropanol (IPA)-, Schwefelsäure-, Salzsäure-, Wasserstoffperoxidlösungen und gelegentlich Gemische aus verdünnter Schwefel- und Salpetersäure eingesetzt.

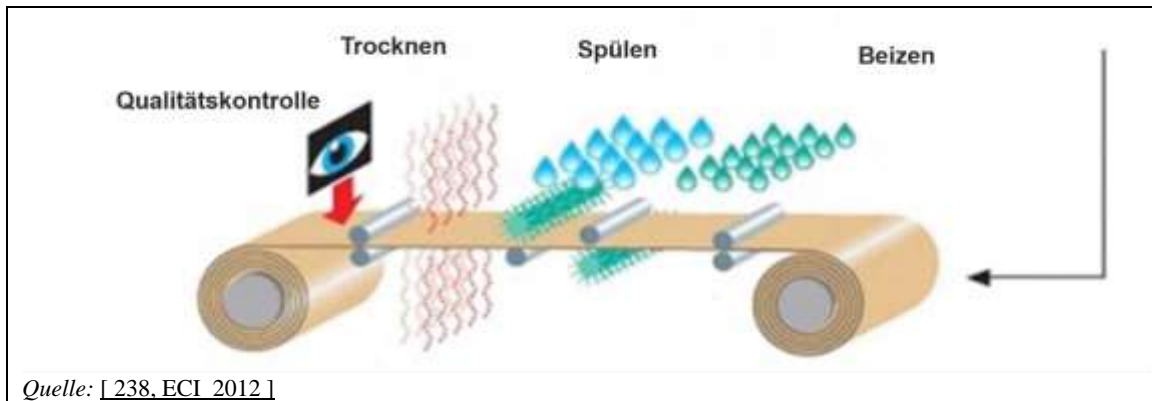


Abbildung 3.16: Kontinuierliches Beizverfahren

Zum säurefreien Beizen von Gießwalzdraht wird eine Isopropanol/Wasserlösung verwendet. Nach dem Beizen wird der Walzdraht mit Druckluft getrocknet und mit einer Wachsschicht überzogen, um eine Oberflächenoxidation zu verhindern.

Zur Minderung von Emissionen kommen folgende Maßnahmen in Betracht:

- Kapselung bei kontinuierlich arbeitenden Beizlinien
- Bei Tauchbeizanlagen ist eine Absaugung nur im Fall von Aerosolbildung erforderlich.
- Betrieb des säurefreien Beizverfahrens im geschlossenen Kreislauf
- Abtrennung von Schlamm/Feststoffen aus den Beizlösungen durch Filtration oder Sedimentation und Reinigung der Anlage
- Verwertung der Schlämme zur Metallrückgewinnung

Zum Säurebeizen von Gießwalzdraht wird verdünnte Schwefelsäure eingesetzt. Anhaftende Restsäure am Walzdraht wird in mehreren Spülgängen durch Besprühen mit Wasser entfernt. Anschließend wird der Draht mit Druckluft getrocknet und mit einer Wachsschicht überzogen.

Zur Oberflächenbehandlung von Kupfer-/Kupferlegierungs-Flachwalzerzeugnissen (Halbzeuge) kommt eine Kombination der folgenden Verfahren zur Anwendung:

- Entfetten (z.B. in einem wässrigen Reinigungsmedium unter Zugabe von Tensiden)
- Spülen (erster Spülgang mit heißem Wasser bei 60 °C, letzter Spülgang mit kaltem vollentsalztem (VE) Wasser)
- Beizen mit einer Schwefelsäurelösung (4–15 %). Bei starker Verzunderung (z.B. bestimmte Legierungen) kann Schwefelsäure im Gemisch mit verdünnter Salpetersäure oder oxidierendem Wasserstoffperoxid eingesetzt werden.
- Spülen
- Polieren/Bürsten zur mechanischen Entfernung von Oberflächenverunreinigungen unter Zugabe von VE-Wasser
- Spülen zum Entfernen von Bürstrückständen
- Trocknen mit Heißluftgebläse

Zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Halbzeugbeizlinien kommen folgende Maßnahmen in Betracht:

- Zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen werden Beizlinien gekapselt und mit Absaugsystemen ausgestattet.
- Erfasste Brüden aus den Säurebeizbädern werden in Luftwäschern mit integrierten Tropfenabscheidern oder Nasswäschern gereinigt. Säuredämpfe werden kondensiert und zurück ins Beizbad geleitet. Aerosolbildung wird entweder vermieden oder Aerosole werden erfasst und in das Beizbad zurückgeführt.
- Im Fall von Salpetersäure-Beizbädern werden Wäscher oder katalytische Nachverbrennungseinrichtungen zur Reduzierung von NO_x-Emissionen und Salpetersäurerückgewinnung eingesetzt.
- Die Standzeit der Beizlösungen wird durch geeignete Maßnahmen, wie z.B. prozessintegrierte Reinigung in Ölabscheidern oder Filtern und Rückführung in den Prozess, verlängert. Verbrauchte Beizsäure kann zur Rückgewinnung gelöster Metalle einer Gewinnungselektrolyse unterzogen werden.
- Kaskadenspülung zur Reduzierung des Wasserverbrauchs
- Das Spülwasser aus der zweiten Spülstufe kann zum Ausgleich von Verdampfungsverlusten im ersten Heißspülgang genutzt werden. So lässt sich der Anfall von behandlungsbedürftigem Abwasser vermeiden.
- Spülwässer können mit Kalk oder Natriumhydroxid neutralisiert werden. Schäume/Rückstände werden soweit möglich verwertet.
- Kreislaufführung des in der Bürstreinigung eingesetzten VE-Wassers; Reinigung des VE-Wassers in einem Ionentauscher
- Zur Oberflächenentfettung von Walzprodukten können Reinigungsmittel eingesetzt werden. Das Abwasser wird über einen Filter gereinigt. Erfolgt die Oberflächenentfettung mit organischen Lösemitteln, werden die Brüden in einem Fettabscheider behandelt.
- Nicht in die Prozessbäder zurückgeführte Abwasserströme werden in einer AWA (physikalisch-chemische Behandlung) gereinigt.

Mit heißem Wasser wird eine bessere Reinigungswirkung erzielt als mit kaltem Wasser, allerdings auf Kosten eines höheren Energieverbrauchs. Die Kaskadenspülung erfordert einen höheren Pumpaufwand, was mit einem höheren Energieverbrauch einhergeht. Andererseits fällt bei der Kaskadenspülung weniger behandlungsbedürftiges Abwasser an. Aufgrund der geringeren Abwassermenge reduziert sich der Abwasserreinigungsaufwand und damit auch der Pumpaufwand für den Ionentauscher.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung von VOC- und Säurenebelemissionen
- Verringerung des Abwasseranfalls durch Rückführung der Beizlösungen oder Spülwässer in den Prozess
- Reduzierung des Wasserverbrauchs durch Kaskadenspülung
- Rückgewinnung von Metallen und damit Rohstoffeinsparungen und Minimierung des Abfallanfalls
- Nutzung der Wärmeenergie von heißem Abwasser zum Vorwärmen von Frischwasser

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Beizlinien werden in großer Anzahl betrieben. Relevante Betriebsparameter sind in Tabelle 3.58 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 3.58: Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem säurefreien und Säurebeizen von Kupfergießwalzdraht und Halbzeugen aus Kupfer und Kupferlegierungen

Verfahren	Entfetten	Spülen	Beizen	Spülen	Bürsten	Trocknen
Kontinuierlich betriebene Beizlinie	Spritz-, Bürst- Ultraschall- oder sonstige Reinigungs- techniken bei 60 °C mit einem Bad- volumen von ca. 3 m ³	Kaskaden- spülung und Ergänzung des Spülwasser mit VE- Wasser	Konti- nuierliche Beizlinie mit einem Beiz- badvolumen von ca. 5 m ³ - Schwefel- säure - Schwefel- /Salpeter- säure- gemisch - IPA für Walzdraht	Kaskaden- spülung und Ableitung zur AWA	Bürstmaschine mit VE-Wasser Kreislaufführung über einen Ionentauscher	Heiß- spülung mit VE- Wasser und an- schlies- sende Trocknung mit Druckluft
Tauch- beizanlage	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar	Beizkorb 8 m ³	Kaskaden- spülung und Ableitung zur AWA	nicht anwendbar	Heißspül- becken

Quelle: [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

In den Wieland-Werken werden die aus den Beizbädern abgesaugten Brüden in Nasswäschern mit nachgeschalteten Tropfenabscheidern behandelt. Säurebrüden werden kondensiert und ins Beizbad zurückgeführt. Aerosolbildung wird vermieden. Die erreichten Emissionswerte liegen bei 0,3 mg/Nm³–10 mg/Nm³, angegeben als Halbstundenmittelwerte. Die Brüden aus dem Salpetersäure-Beizbad werden in einem Nasswäscher oder einer katalytischen Nachverbrennungsanlage entstickt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte, angegeben als Halbstundenmittelwerte, liegen zwischen 250 mg/Nm³ und 350 mg/Nm³. Die Reinigung der Beizbäder erfolgt inline, z.B. durch Ölabscheider, Filtration, Säurerückführung oder -behandlung.

Verdampfungsverluste beim Heißspülgang in der ersten Spülkaskade werden durch Zugabe von Wasser aus der zweiten Spülstufe ausgeglichen. Auf diese Weise wird der Anfall von behandlungsbedürftigem Abwasser vermieden. Das in der Bürstmaschine eingesetzte VE-Wasser wird über einen geschlossenen Kreislauf mit einem Ionentauscher in die Maschine zurückgeführt.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg sind zwischen Walzstraße und Aufwickelstation mehrere Kühlstrecken zum Kühlen und Desoxidieren (Beizen) des Warmwalzdrahts angeordnet. Zur Desoxidation der Oberflächenoxide durch chemische Reduktion wird ein isopropanolhaltiges Kühlmittel eingesetzt. Die IPA-Lösung wird in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt. Die Anlage ist gekapselt. Kupfer- oder Oxidpartikel werden aus der Beizlösung abgeschieden und in die Kupferraffination zurückgeführt.

Aurubis Olen verwendet eine Schwefelsäurelösung zum Beizen von Gießwalzdraht. Die Beizanlage ist gekapselt. Die Abluft aus der Beizlinie wird in einem Nasswäscher behandelt. Der Metallgehalt der verbrauchten Säure wird über eine Gewinnungselektrolyse zurückgewonnen. Das Spülabwasser wird nach Vorbehandlung (z.B. Neutralisation mit NaOH) über ein gemeinsames Kanalsystem (zusammen mit Kühlwässern, Prozessabwässern und Niederschlagswasser) einer physikalisch-chemischen Abwasserbehandlungsanlage zugeführt.

Aurubis Avellino verwendet ein Gemisch aus Wasser, IPA und Alkalisierungsmittel zum Kühlen und Entzundern von Warmwalzdraht. Die Anlage ist gekapselt. Die IPA-Lösung wird in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt.

Bei Schwermetall Halbzeugwerk GmbH & Co KG wird zum Entfetten von Kupferband eine Kombination aus Spritz-, Bürst- und elektrolytischer Reinigung eingesetzt. Das Beizen des Kupferbands erfolgt mittels Schwefelsäure und anschließendes Bürsten. Die Reinigung der Bäder erfolgt inline, z.B. durch Filtration.

KGHM Cedynia verwendet eine 4–5 %ige Isopropylalkohollösung in VE-Wasser zum Beizen von Kupfergießwalzdraht. Da die Beizlösung in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt wird, treten keine Emissionen in die Umwelt auf. Der IPA-Verbrauch beträgt 1,5 dm³/t Kupfergießwalzdraht. Bei Bedarf werden die Walzemulsion und Beizlösung zur Abtrennung von Kupferoxidpartikeln gefiltert. Die Oxide werden einer Kupferschmelzanlage zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Kupfers zugeführt.

Die abgezogene Walzemulsion und Beizlösung werden in einer Vakuumdestillationsanlage behandelt. Die Wasserphase wird zum Ansetzen der Emulsion oder als Zusatzwasser im Kühlkreislauf wiederverwendet, womit dieser Prozess abwasserfrei ist.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Die IPA-Rückgewinnung aus den Brüden ist mit zusätzlichem Energieaufwand für den Betrieb des Wäschers und der Destillationskolonne verbunden. Das Speisewasser für die Destillationskolonne muss in einem Heißwasserkessel auf bis zu 95°C aufgeheizt werden, was ebenfalls mit zusätzlichem Energieaufwand verbunden ist. Durch den Betrieb bei Vakuum erhöht sich der IPA-Verdampfungsverlust, und die Konditionierung der Lösung und Abtrennung des IPA sind nur mit hohem Aufwand bei entsprechend geringer Effizienz möglich.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können je nach Anforderungen an die Oberflächenbeschaffenheit vor der Weiterverarbeitung und Anwesenheit spezifischer reaktiver Legierungsbestandteile in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden. Einschränkungen für die Anwendung dieser Techniken können sich aufgrund des Platzbedarfs ergeben.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten hängen im Wesentlichen von der Form des zu reinigenden Produkts, den eingesetzten Reinigungsmedien und den Anforderungen an die Oberflächenbeschaffenheit ab.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Abwasserbehandlung
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Aurubis Avellino (IT), Wieland-Werke (DE), Schwermetall Halbzeugwerk (DE) und KGHM Cedynia (PL)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.5.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Blei- und Zinnrückgewinnung aus Zwischenprodukten der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Blei und Zinn werden als Nebenprodukte der Sekundärkupferraffination aus den entsprechenden Zwischenprodukten zurückgewonnen. Mischzinn wird in einem mehrstufigen Reduktionsprozess (in einem TBRC, Drehtrommelofen oder einer Schüttelpfanne) gewonnen und weiter raffiniert. Primärzinn wird in der EU-28 nicht erzeugt.

Die Gewinnung von Mischzinn aus Zwischenprodukten der Kupferverhüttung ist nur anwendbar bei Neuanlagen oder einer umfangreichen Anlagenertüchtigung und ist abhängig von den eingesetzten Sekundärrohstoffen.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- eingehauste Öfen
- Hauben mit Absaugsystem
- Gewebefilter

Technische Beschreibung

Techniken zur Vermeidung und Erfassung von Emissionen sind in Abschnitt 2.12.4.3 beschrieben.

Gewebefilter werden in Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4 behandelt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Blei und Zinn

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Metallo-Chimique (Sekundärhütte) wird in einer zweiten Reduktionsstufe hauptsächlich Kupfer aus Schlacke gewonnen [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]. In dieser Stufe können auch weitere zinn- und bleihaltige Schlacken, Rückstände und Schrott verarbeitet werden. In der Schlacke (in oxidischer Form) vorliegendes Blei und Zinn werden unter Zugabe von Stahlschrott oder Blechdosen in einem TBRC-Konverter reduziert. Das Produkt dieser Verarbeitungsstufe ist Roh-Mischzinn. Zur weitgehenden Entfernung von Kupfer, Nickel und Eisen wird diese Legierung anschließend in einer Schüttelpfanne mit Silizium behandelt. In einem nächsten Schritt werden noch verbleibendes Restkupfer, Nickel, Eisen oder Zink durch Zugabe von Schwefel oder Natriumhydroxid in die abgekühlte Schmelze entfernt. Das entkupferte Mischzinn wird anschließend in einer separaten Mischzinn-Raffinationsanlage weiterverarbeitet. Die Betriebsdaten dieser Anlage sind in Tabelle 3.59 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 3.59: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten einer Anlage zur Blei- und Zinnrückgewinnung aus Zwischenprodukten der Sekundärkupferverhüttung

Parameter	TBRC (groß)	TBRC (klein)	Schüttelpfanne
Kapazität	120–160 t/Charge	20 t/Charge	30 t/Charge
Primärabgas (Kühler, Zyklon, Gewebefilter)	70 000 m ³ /h	35 000 m ³ /h (einschl. Sekundärabgas)	max. 46 000 m ³ /h
Staub	0,5–2 mg/Nm ³	0,5–2 mg/Nm ³	0,5–2 mg/Nm ³
Sekundärabgas (Gewebefilter)	70 000 m ³ /h	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Staub	0,5–2 mg/Nm ³	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar

Bei Aurubis Lünen werden in einem speziellen Mischzinnofen (Drehtrommelofen) in einem mehrstufigen Reduktionsprozess [234, UBA (D) 2007] aus KRS- oder TBRC-Schlacke Schwarzkupfer, Mischzinn und Eisensilikatschlacke erzeugt. Als Ausgangsstoffe können neben schmelzflüssiger Konverterschlacke auch andere Zwischenprodukte aus der internen oder externen Kupferverhüttung sowie Sekundärrohstoffe eingesetzt werden. Einsatzmaterialien oder Zuschläge können während des gesamten Prozesses chargiert werden. Zur Erzeugung eines marktfähigen Produkts wird die Schlackenzusammensetzung gezielt eingestellt und die erzeugte Schlacke anschließend granuliert. Das Schwarzkupfer wird in den KRS- oder TBRC-Ofen zurückgeführt. Die Prozess- und Sekundärhaubenabgase werden über Filteranlagen abgesaugt und die abgeschiedenen Flugstäube entweder vermarktet oder wiederum im KRS-Badschmelzofen eingesetzt. Die Raffination der Zinn-Bleilegierung umfasst die folgenden Schritte:

- Phasentrennung und Abkrätzen (Entfernen von Kupfer und Nickel)
- Entfernen des verbleibenden Kupfers, Zinks und Arsens durch Zugabe von Schwefel, Ammoniumchlorid und Aluminium

Tabelle 3.60: Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten des Mischzinnofens (Drehtrommelofen)

Betriebsparameter	Drehtrommelofen	Raffinationsanlage
Kapazität	60–80 t/Charge	30 t/Charge
Abgasvolumenstrom (Prozess- und Sekundärabgas)	100 000 m ³ /h	60 000 m ³ /h

Das Prozessabgas des Mischzinnofens und das über die Sekundärhauben erfasste Abgas werden gemeinsam mit dem KRS-Abgas behandelt (siehe Abschnitt 3.3.4.1).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Lünen (DE) und Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE)

Literatur

[90, Traulsen, H. 1998], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.6 Abwasser

3.3.6.1 Abwasservermeidung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Mehrfachnutzung von Abwasserströmen (Kaskadenführung von Kühlwasser, Nutzung von Kühlwasser oder Dampfkondensat für Prozesszwecke und Wiederverwendung von Prozessabwässern (hier Direktkühlwasser) an anderer Stelle, soweit möglich)
- Verzicht auf Nassverfahren bei der Abgasreinigung, soweit möglich
- Einsatz geschlossener Kühlkreisläufe mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher
- Minimierung des Wasserausfalls in Verdampfungskühlern
- Maximierung der Rückführung von Wässern in die Prozessstufe ihrer Entstehung nach Behandlung
- Getrennte Kanalsysteme für unbelastete Abwässer (Niederschlagswasser, indirektes Kühlwasser) und Prozessabwässer

Technische Beschreibung

Allgemein anwendbare prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen zum Wasser-Recycling und zur Wiederverwendung sind in Abschnitt 2.12.6.1 beschrieben.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung der zu behandelnden Abwassermengen und damit der aufgewendeten Pumpenergie und des Additiveinsatzes
- Verringerung der in das Aufnahmegewässer eingeleiteten Schmutzfracht
- Reduzierung der Wärmelast des Aufnahmegewässers (bei geschlossenen Kühlkreisläufen mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Umicore Hoboken wird das (in der Gewinnungselektrolyse) anfallende Dampfkondensat zum Waschen der Kupferkathoden genutzt. Das in den Abgasstrom des Schmelzofens eingedüστε Quenchwasser wird zusammen mit dem verdampften Wasser aus der Ofencharge kondensiert und wiederum zum Quenchen des Abgasstroms verwendet. Niederschlagswasser, Ablaufwasser aus der Materialbefeuchtung, Kühlwasser, Oberflächenwasser usw. werden in einem getrennten Kanalsystem gesammelt, aufbereitet und als Berieselungs- und Kühlwasser genutzt. Auf diese Weise werden 60 % des Gesamtwasserbedarfs der Hütte gedeckt. Der Wasserausfall in Verdampfungskühlern wird minimiert. Wasser aus der Filterkuchenwäsche in der Laugungsanlage wird im Laugungsprozess wiederverwendet.

Bei KGHM (Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica) wird das Dampfkondensat (das beim Aufheizen des Elektrolyten in der Elektroraffination anfällt) zum Waschen der Kupferkathoden genutzt. Die Kühl- und Prozesswasserkreisläufe sind soweit wie möglich geschlossen ausgeführt. Abschlämmwasser wird in das Abwasserkanalnetz der Hütte und von dort in die Abwasserreinigungsanlage geleitet. Saures Abwasser wird zuerst neutralisiert, Niederschlagswasser gespeichert und Sanitärabwasser in einem Imhoff-Tank biologisch

behandelt. Die so vorbehandelten Teilströme werden mit dem Abschlammwasser aus den Kühlkreisläufen zusammengeführt, koaguliert und in den Fluss abgeleitet. Ein Teil des gereinigten Abwassers wird wiederverwendet.

Die Hütte Legnica verfügt über ein Speicherbecken für gereinigtes Abwasser, das zur Berieselung der Abfall-Freilager und zum Teil auch in den Prozesswasserkreisläufen genutzt wird.

An den Standorten Głogów 1 und Głogów 2 wird ein Drittel des gereinigten Abwassers zur Berieselung der Freilager, zur Versorgung des Anodenkühlkreislaufs und als Zusatzwasser in einigen Wasserkreisläufen genutzt.

Bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird aufgrund von Grundwassernutzungsbeschränkungen der Großteil des Kühlwassers mehrfach genutzt. So wird z.B. der Kühlwasserrücklauf des Anodenofens zur Sauerstoffverdampfung verwendet und anschließend in das Ofenkühlsystem zurückgeführt. Überschusswasser wird an anderer Stelle genutzt

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird das Oberflächenwasser (Niederschlagswasser) erfasst, in einer chemischen Abwasserbehandlungsstufe gereinigt und anschließend zu Kühlzwecken und zur Schlackengranulierung genutzt. Bei Aurubis Avellino wird das Niederschlagswasser in Becken gesammelt und nach physikalischer Behandlung als Kühlwasser verwendet.

Atlantic Copper nutzt den Ablauf der Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) zum Teil anstelle von Frischwasser zur Ergänzung des Waschwasserkreislaufs in der Gasreinigung.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Techniken zur Mehrfachnutzung von Wasserströmen bzw. zum Wasserecycling oder zur Wasserwiederverwendung sind nur anwendbar, wenn die jeweiligen Wasserströme die Kriterien des Prozesses, dem sie zugeführt werden, wie z.B. Volumenstrom, Temperatur, Zusammensetzung und Azidität, erfüllen.

Der Verzicht auf nasse Abgasreinigungsverfahren ist nicht immer möglich, z.B. bei Abgasen mit hohem Feuchtegehalt, bei mit Säurenebeln oder klebrigen Substanzen beladenen Abgasströmen.

Gegenüber Verdampfungskühlern ist der Platzbedarf für geschlossene Kühlkreisläufe mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher wegen deren geringerer Leistung um ein Vielfaches höher.

Dampfkondensate sollten vorzugsweise zur Dampferzeugung genutzt werden. Bei zu großer Entfernung vom Kraftwerk empfiehlt sich stattdessen eine Wiederverwendung als Prozesswasser.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

In einigen bestehenden Hütten kann die Umsetzung dieser Techniken mit einem hohen Investitionsaufwand verbunden sein.

Techniken zur Mehrfachnutzung von Wasserströmen erfordern zusätzliche Investitionen in Pufferkapazitäten, um Mengenschwankungen zwischen dem Wasser-Input und Wasser-Output der jeweiligen Prozesse auszugleichen.

Die Einrichtung getrennter Kanalsysteme für unbelastete Wasserströme und Prozessabwässer wird von wirtschaftlichen Überlegungen bestimmt, wobei der Investitionsaufwand und die

potenziell rückgewinnbare Niederschlagswassermenge gegeneinander abgewogen werden müssen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minimierung des Abwasseranfalls und damit geringere Abwasserbehandlungskosten
- Verringerung von Schadstoffeinträgen in das Aufnahmegewässer

Beispielanlagen

Umicore Hoboken (BE), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 and Legnica (PL), Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Avellino (IT) und Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.6.2 Abwasserbehandlung und -nutzung in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Zur Behandlung von Abwässern (außer Kühlwässer) vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- chemische Fällung
- Sedimentation oder Flotation
- Filtration

Technische Beschreibung

Die wesentlichen Abwasseranfallstellen sind in Abschnitt 3.2.2.4 aufgeführt.

Techniken wie chemische Fällung, Sedimentation, Flotation, Filtration und Prozessführung/-kontrolle sind in der Nichteisenmetallindustrie weit verbreitet und in Abschnitt 2.12.6.2 und 2.12.3.3 näher beschrieben.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung der Abwasserfracht an suspendierten Feststoffen und Grobstoffen, Metallen, Säuren, Sulfaten und Fluoriden auf Restkonzentrationen, die eine Ableitung oder Wiederverwendung erlauben
- Gewinnung eines verwertbaren Schlammes (z.B. verkaufsfähiger Reingips, wertmetallhaltiger Schlamm, der im Produktionsprozess genutzt werden kann) und damit Vermeidung von festem Abfall, der entsorgt werden muss
- Anreicherung umweltschädlicher Schwermetalle (Cadmium, Arsen) in einem konzentrierten Schlamm und damit einhergehend eine Reduzierung der Schlammengen, die als Abfall entsorgt werden müssen
- Gewinnung von Wasser, das im Hüttenbetrieb wieder eingesetzt werden kann, z.B. als Berieselungs-, Kühl- oder Reinigungswasser und z.T. auch als Prozesswasser

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die erreichbaren Abscheidegrade für Metalle, suspendierte Feststoffe und sonstige Schadstoffe sind abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen. Die Zusammensetzung von Abwässern aus pyro- und hydrometallurgischen Prozessen wird maßgeblich durch den Produktionsprozess und die verarbeiteten Einsatzmaterialien bestimmt. Generell sind jedoch Abwässer aus der Kupferproduktion mit Metallen, z.B. Kupfer, Blei, Zink, Zinn, Nickel, Cadmium, Chrom, Arsen, Molybdän, Quecksilber, und suspendierten Feststoffen belastet.

Der erreichbare Metallabscheidegrad ist stark abhängig von der Beschaffenheit des zu behandelnden Abwassers, die ihrerseits wiederum von der Qualität der verarbeiteten Einsatzmaterialien und angewandten Produktionsverfahren abhängt. Je komplexer die

Zusammensetzung des zu behandelnden Abwassers, umso größer sind die auftretenden Wechselwirkungen und umso schwieriger kann sich die Abscheidung der Schadstoffe gestalten. Nicht immer können alle Metalle mit der gleichen Wirksamkeit abgeschieden werden, da die optimalen Bedingungen für die Abscheidung eines Metalls durch die Anwesenheit anderer Metalle beeinträchtigt werden können.

Zur Beurteilung der Wirksamkeit der Minderungsmaßnahmen muss der Abwasserreinigungsprozess durch gezielte Probenahmen im Ablauf überwacht werden. Gegenüber Abwasserströmen, die einer Teilstrombehandlung in separaten Anlagen unterzogen werden, ist Mischabwasser (Oberflächenwasser, Prozessabwasser, indirekte und direkte Kühlwässer), das in einer zentralen AWA behandelt wird, i.d.R. stärker verdünnt. Konzentrierte Prozessabwässer und weniger belastetes Niederschlagswasser erfordern daher unterschiedliche Behandlungskonzepte. So erfordert die Reinigung von Prozessabwässern normalerweise mehr Reinigungsstufen zur Metallfällung, während bei der Behandlung von Niederschlagswasser die stark schwankenden Schmutzfrachten in Abhängigkeit von den Wetterverhältnissen zu berücksichtigen sind.

In der nachfolgenden Tabelle ist die erreichbare Reinigungsleistung für unterschiedliche Abwasserströme zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 3.61: Reinigungsleistung einer Abwasserreinigungsanlage

Quelle	Hauptkomponente (mg/l)					
	Cu	Pb	As	Ni	Cd	Zn
Konzentriertes Prozessabwasser vor Behandlung	≤ 2900	≤ 4500**	≤ 10 000	≤ 4000	≤ 3100	≤ 5000
Nach Behandlung	<0,26	<0,3	<2	<1	<0,1	<2,15
Oberflächenwasser vor Behandlung	≤ 30	≤ 5	≤ 2	≤ 2	≤ 0,5	≤ 10
Nach Behandlung	<0,5	<0,5	<0,09	<0,5	<0,11	<1
Mischabwasser* vor Behandlung	≤ 37	≤ 33	≤ 24	≤ 27	≤ 75	≤ 8
Nach Behandlung	<0,7	<0,25	<0,17	<0,5	<0,021	<1
* Gemeinsame Behandlung von Prozessabwasser, Oberflächenwasser und/oder Kühlwasser in derselben Anlage (d.h. starke Verdünnung)						
** Abwässer aus NE-Metallhütten enthalten in der Regel Sulfationen, die unlösliches Bleisulfat(VI) bilden. Bleisulfat hat eine geringe Löslichkeit von nur ca. 4 mg/l.						
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]						

Bei Aurubis Pirdop werden die Schwachsäure aus der Säureanlage, der Abstoßelektrolyt aus der Elektroraffinationsanlage, der Wäscherabstoß aus der Nassreinigung des Schmelzofen-Sekundärabgases sowie Oberflächenwasser über ein gemeinsames Kanalnetz gesammelt und in einer zentralen chemischen Aufbereitungsanlage bestehend aus den folgenden Stufen behandelt:

- Gipsfällung (Behandlung mit Kalkmilch, pH-Wert 1–1,3, Flockungshilfsmittel, Ausfällung als Reingips)
- Metallfällung (Behandlung mit Kalkmilch, FeCl₃, H₂O₂, Flockungshilfsmittel und Anhebung des pH-Werts auf 9–10, Metallausfällung)

- Arsenfällung (Behandlung mit Kalkmilch, FeCl₃ und H₂O₂ zur Abscheidung von Restarsen, pH-Wert 6–8)

Die Zusammensetzung des Zulaufs schwankt je nach Qualität des verarbeiteten Konzentrats, Abgaseigenschaften und Einsatz von Nassverfahren in der Gasreinigung.

Tabelle 3.62: Zusammensetzung des Prozessabwassers vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Pirdop

Parameter	Einheit	Zulaufwerte	Bandbreite der Ablaufwerte *	
			90. Perzentil	Max.
Volumenstrom	m ³ /h	100	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	950 000	nicht anwendbar	nicht anwendbar
H ₂ SO ₄	g/l	60	k.A.	k.A.
Cu	mg/l	2100	0,05	0,26
As	mg/l	2200	0,07	0,1
Pb	mg/l	30	0,016	0,3
Ni	mg/l	450	0,15	1
Zn	mg/l	500	0,07	1
Cd	mg/l	200	0,015	0,1
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	200	k.A.	50

* Die Bandbreite liegt zwischen dem 90. und 100. Perzentil der Messwerte.
 Anmerkung: Mischproben werden in 6-Stunden-Intervallen aus dem Ablauf der AWA entnommen (4 Mischproben pro Tag). Die Probenahme erfolgt zeitproportional mittels einer automatischen Probenahmeeinrichtung.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Es fallen 6–7 t/h Schlamm (Wassergehalt 40–50 %) mit der folgenden Zusammensetzung an: ~ 30–35 % CaSO₄, ~ 1 % As, ~ 1 % Cu, 1–2 % Fe, ~ 1 % Pb, ~ 0,1 % Ni und ~ 0,1 % Cd.

In der Prozessabwasserreinigungsanlage am Standort Aurubis Hamburg werden schwachsaure Abwässer aus der Abgasreinigung in der primären und sekundären Kupferproduktion, Abwässer aus der Edelmetallproduktion und den chemischen Betrieben, Laborabwässer, Kondensate und Abwässer aus sonstigen kleineren Quellen am Standort behandelt. Diese Teilströme werden direkt der zweistufigen Abwasserreinigungsanlage zugeführt, bestehend aus:

- einer Entarsenierungsstufe zur Oxidation von Arsen mit Eisen(III)salzen, Neutralisation und anschließenden Fällung
- einer Feinreinigungsstufe zur Sulfidfällung mittels Eisen(II)salzen

Wechselnde Abgaszusammensetzungen in Abhängigkeit von der Qualität der verarbeiteten Konzentrate schlagen sich in entsprechenden Schwankungen in den Zulaufkonzentrationen nieder, welche durch diskontinuierlich anfallende Abwasserströme aus weiteren Quellen noch verstärkt werden. Zum Erzielen einer optimalen Reinigungsleistung müssen die Betriebsparameter der AWA häufig angepasst werden. Die optimalen Betriebsparameter werden anhand der Analyseergebnisse der täglich entnommenen Proben von Hand eingestellt.

Tabelle 3.63: Zusammensetzung des Prozessabwassers vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg

Parameter	Einheit	Zulaufwerte	Ablaufwerte *
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	180 000	nicht anwendbar
H ₂ SO ₄	g/l	50	k.A.
Cu	mg/l	2000	0,0–0,2
As	mg/l	2000	0,06–0,09
Pb	mg/l	500	0,03–0,05
Ni	mg/l	1000	0,05–0,06
Zn	mg/l	1000	0,17–0,2
Cd	mg/l	500	0,01–0,02
Hg	mg/l	k.A.	0,019–0,024
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	k.A.	15
* Die Bandbreite liegt zwischen dem 90. und 100. Perzentil der Messwerte. Anmerkung: Der Ablauf der AWA wird mittels Stichproben überwacht: wöchentliche Proben zur Bestimmung von Cu, As, Cd und Hg, monatliche Proben für Pb, Ni und Zn. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]			

Das Oberflächenwasser aus dem Werk Ost und das Abschlammwasser aus der Direktkühlung der Anodengießanlage werden in einer separaten Anlage gereinigt. Die Behandlung erfolgt durch Koagulation, pH-Wert-Einstellung zur Metallfällung mit anschließender Flockung und Sedimentation.

Je nach Wetterverhältnissen und bedingt durch den diskontinuierlichen Anfall von Direktkühlwasser aus der Anodengießanlage treten große Schwankungen in den Abwassermengen und -konzentrationen auf. Zum Erzielen einer optimalen Reinigungsleistung müssen die Betriebsparameter der AWA häufig angepasst werden. Die optimalen Betriebsparameter werden anhand der Analyseergebnisse der täglich entnommenen Proben von Hand eingestellt.

Tabelle 3.64: Zusammensetzung des Oberflächenwassers im Werk Ost und des Abschlammwassers aus der Direktkühlung der Anodengießanlage vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg

Parameter	Einheit	Zulaufwerte, Bandbreite	Ablaufwerte *
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	700 000	nicht anwendbar
Cu	mg/l	15–30	0,35–0,5
As	mg/l	< 2	0,05–0,09
Pb	mg/l	< 5	0,06–0,25
Ni	mg/l	< 2	0,124–0,5
Zn	mg/l	1–10	0,3–1
Cd	mg/l	< 0,5	0,016–0,021
Hg	mg/l	k.A.	0,0032–0,021
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	k.A.	20

* Die Bandbreite liegt zwischen dem 90. und 100. Perzentil der Messwerte.
 Anmerkung: Der Ablauf der AWA wird mittels Stichproben überwacht: wöchentliche Proben zur Bestimmung von Cu, As, Pb, Ni und CD, monatliche Proben für Zn und Hg.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Zur Reinigung des Oberflächenwassers aus dem Bereich der sekundären Kupferproduktion, der Stranggussanlagen und der Bleiraffinationsanlage ist bei Aurubis Hamburg eine separate Anlage vorgesehen. In diesem Fall erfolgt die Behandlung durch Koagulation, pH-Wert-Einstellung zur Metallfällung mit anschließender Flockung und Sedimentation.

Tabelle 3.65: Zusammensetzung des Oberflächenwassers aus dem Bereich der sekundären Kupferproduktion, der Stranggussanlagen und der Bleiraffinationsanlage vor und nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Hamburg

Parameter	Einheit	Zulaufwerte, Bandbreite	Ablaufwerte *
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	500 000	nicht anwendbar
Cu	mg/l	15–30	0,18–0,5
As	mg/l	< 2	0,03–0,09
Pb	mg/l	<5	0,14–0,5
Ni	mg/l	<2	0,14–0,5
Zn	mg/l	1-10	0,25–1
Cd	mg/l	<0,5	0,05–0,11
Hg	mg/l	k.A.	0,0065–0,014
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	k.A.	50

* Die Bandbreite liegt zwischen dem 90. und 100. Perzentil der Messwerte.
 Anmerkung: Der Ablauf der AWA wird anhand von Stichproben überwacht: wöchentliche Proben zur Bestimmung von Cu, As, Pb, Ni und Cd, monatliche Proben für Zn und Hg.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Bei Aurubis Olen werden Niederschlagswasser, Kühlwässer, Sanitärabwasser und Prozessabwässer über ein gemeinsames Kanalnetz gesammelt und in einer physikalisch-chemischen Abwasserreinigungsanlage aufbereitet. Auch das Kühlwasser der Anodengießanlage und der Drahtanlage werden dieser AWA zugeführt.

Spülwässer (aus der Walzdraht-Beizlinie) werden nach Vorbehandlung (z.B. Neutralisation mit NaOH) zusammen mit Kühlwässern, Prozessabwässern und Niederschlagswässern über ein gemeinsames Kanalsystem der physikalisch-chemischen AWA zugeführt. Die Abwasserbehandlung umfasst die folgenden Schritte: Sandfang, Pufferbecken, Ansäuerung, Alkalisierung, Flockung, Sedimentation, Neutralisation des Klarwassers und Schlammentwässerung in einer Zentrifuge.

Je nach Wetterverhältnissen und bedingt durch den diskontinuierlichen Anfall von Direktkühlwässern und sonstigen Prozessabwässern treten große Mengen- und Konzentrationsschwankungen im Zulauf auf. Angaben zu Zulaufkonzentrationen liegen nicht vor.

Tabelle 3.66: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Aurubis Olen

Parameter	Einheit	Ablaufwerte *
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	519 000
Cu	mg/l	0,2–0,7
As	mg/l	0,03–0,1
Pb	mg/l	0,01–0,05
Ni	mg/l	0,08–0,15
Zn	mg/l	0,08–0,16
Cd	mg/l	0,001–0,006
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	0,2

* Die Bandbreite liegt zwischen dem 90. und 100. Perzentil der Messwerte.
 Anmerkung: Die Überwachung der Ablaufqualität erfolgt anhand von 24-Stunden-Mischproben. Die Probenahme erfolgt durchflussproportional mittels einer automatischen Probenahmeeinrichtung. Pro Monat wird eine Probe analysiert.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In der Abwasserreinigungsanlage der Montanwerke Brixlegg werden alle Prozessabwässer aus der Nickelsulfat-, Edelmetall- und Oxychloridanlage sowie Laborabwässer auf Ablaufwerte unterhalb der vorgeschriebenen Einleitungsgrenzwerte gereinigt.

Zu diesem Zweck wird das Abwasser in einer zweistufigen Fällungsanlage behandelt, in der die Metalle als Sulfide ausgefällt und abgeschieden werden. Die Sulfidfällung wurde gewählt, weil die sich bildenden Metallsulfide eine sehr viel geringere Löslichkeit als z.B. die entsprechenden Hydroxide aufweisen. Die AWA ist für einen Durchsatz von 152 m³/d ausgelegt und ist kontinuierlich 24 Stunden am Tag in Betrieb. Bei durchschnittlich 300 Betriebstagen pro Jahr entspricht dies einer Betriebszeit von ca. 7 900 Stunden pro Jahr.

Tabelle 3.67: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg

Parameter	Einheit	Emissionswerte
Volumenstrom	m ³ /d	152
pH-Wert		7
Filtrierbare Feststoffe	mg/l	15,2
Arsen	mg/l	<0,03
Blei	mg/l	0,03
Barium	mg/l	0,10
Cadmium	mg/l	0,01
Chrom	mg/l	0,01
Kupfer	mg/l	0,39
Eisen	mg/l	0,16
Nickel	mg/l	0,12
Quecksilber	mg/l	<0,001
Silber	mg/l	0,006
Zink	mg/l	0,4
Zinn	mg/l	0,01
CSB	mg/l	120
AOX	mg/l	0,11
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

Darüber hinaus sind in der AWA der Montanwerke Brixlegg zwei Sedimentationsbecken zur Reinigung von Oberflächen- und Niederschlagswasser vorgesehen. Die Betriebsdaten der Sedimentationsbecken lassen sich am besten anhand der Reinigungsleistung darstellen. Bei einer Verweilzeit von 30 Minuten wird eine Feststoffabscheidung von nahezu 90 % erreicht. Gleichzeitig erfolgt auch eine Ölabscheidung.

Bei Umicore Hoboken – eine integrierte Metallhütte zur Erzeugung von Blei und Kupfer sowie zur Verhüttung edelmetallhaltiger primärer und sekundärer Rohstoffe – erfolgt die Abwasserreinigung in drei Anlagen (A, B und Mischabwasserreinigungsanlage), in denen jeweils eine separate Vorbehandlung erfolgt. Der Ablauf aus Anlage A, Anlage B und ein Teil des Ablaufs der Mischabwasserreinigungsanlage werden vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter einer weiteren gemeinsamen Behandlung unterzogen.

Externe AWA A zur Behandlung As-belasteter Prozessabwässer

Der Zulauf hat einen pH-Wert von 1, einen As-Gehalt von ~ 1 g/l und einen Sulfatgehalt von ~ 35 g/l, wobei die Konzentrationen je nach Produktionsprozess stark schwanken. Außerdem enthält dieser Abwasserstrom auch Tl, Hg und Cd sowie andere Metalle in gelöster Form.

In einem ersten Behandlungsschritt werden dem Abwasser Kalkmilch und Polyelektrolyt zur Gips-, Calciumfluorid- und Metallhydroxidfällung bei einem pH-Wert von 10,5–11 zugegeben. As wird als Calciumarsenat bis auf einem Restwert von < 50 mg/l ausgefällt. Die Feststoffe werden in einem Absetzbecken von der Wasserphase abgetrennt und gefiltert. Der Filterkuchen hat einen Wassergehalt von 50 % und weist hohe Konzentrationen an nicht

vermarktungsfähigen Metallen wie Cd, Tl und As auf. Er wird in einer Sonderabfalldeponie abgelagert.

In einem zweiten Schritt wird dem Abwasser FeCl_3 , Kalkmilch und NaHS zur weiteren Entfernung von As, Tl^+ und anderer Metalle bei einem pH-Wert von 10 zugegeben. Da in dieser Stufe der Ablauf der externen AWA B mitbehandelt wird, fällt hier ein wertmetallhaltiger Schlamm an, der gefiltert und in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt wird.

Nach Neutralisation mit CO_2 wird der Ablauf dieser Stufe in den Fluss eingeleitet.

Externe AWA B zur Behandlung von As-freien Prozessabwässern

Der Zulauf hat einen pH-Wert von 1 und eine Sulfatkonzentration von +/- 35 g/l.

In der ersten Reinigungsstufe werden dem Abwasser Kalkmilch und Polyelektrolyt zur Gips- und Metallhydroxidfällung bei einem pH-Wert von 10,5–11 zugegeben. Im nachgeschalteten Absetzbecken setzen sich die Feststoffe als Schlamm ab, der hohe Metallgehalte, z.B. Cu, Pb, In und Te, aufweist und daher in die Schmelzanlage zurückgeführt wird.

Die zweite Reinigungsstufe wurde bereits oben beschrieben.

Interne AWA zur Behandlung von Mischabwasser

Der Zulauf dieser AWA umfasst Niederschlagswasser, Ablaufwasser aus der Materialbefeuchtung, Wasser aus der Direktkühlung und einige Prozessabwässer, die über das Abwasserkanalnetz des Standorts erfasst werden. Das Mischabwasser mit einem pH-Wert von +/- 9 und einem hohen Gehalt an Grobstoffen wird zunächst in eine Siebanlage von Grobstoffen befreit. Im nachgeschalteten Vorklärbecken setzen sich die suspendierten Feststoffe ab, werden mittels eines Räumers ausgetragen und gefiltert. Der Filterkuchen wird in die Schmelzanlage zurückgeführt.

Im Anschluss daran erfolgt die Ausfällung der Metalle durch Zugabe von Natriumhydroxid und Polyelektrolyt. Das gereinigte Abwasser wird im Hüttenbetrieb wieder eingesetzt, z.B. als Berieselungs-, Kühl- oder Reinigungswasser und z.T. auch als Prozesswasser. Überschüssiges Wasser wird in die zweite Stufe der externen AWA A gepumpt, um dort die Salzbelastung des internen Wasserkreislaufs zu reduzieren.

Die Ablaufwerte, angegeben als Bandbreiten zwischen den 90. und 100. Perzentilen der gemessenen Tagesmittelwerte, sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 3.68: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Umicore Hoboken

Parameter	Einheit	AWA A Zulaufwerte	AWA B Zulaufwerte	Interne AWA Zulaufwerte	Ablaufwerte
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	1 000 000
pH-Wert		~ 1	~ 1	9	7,5
H ₂ SO ₄	g/l	35	35	k.A.	2,2–2,6
Cu	mg/l	0,08–2,450	0,1–2,900	0,03–37	0,03–0,05
As	mg/l	0,9–10,000	0,2–2,600	0,1–24	0,16–0,17
Pb	mg/l	1,8–1,000	0,4–4,500	0,1–33	0,03–0,04
Ni	mg/l	0,03–450	0,4–270	0,1–27	0,04–0,05
Zn	mg/l	0,1–4,400	0,05–1,100	0,03–8	0,04–0,05
Cd	mg/l	0,2–3,100	0,01–1,850	0,003–75	0,010–0,011
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	6,5

Anmerkung: Bei den angegebenen Zulaufkonzentrationen handelt es sich um MIN–MAX-Werte.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse wird das Abwasser (Mischabwasser bestehend aus Sanitärabwasser, Prozessabwässern, Kühlwasser und Niederschlags-/Oberflächenwasser) in einer zentralen AWA aufbereitet. Die abgesetzte Grobfraction wird regelmäßig abgezogen und in ein Entwässerungsbecken überführt. Der Schlamm wird in den Produktionsprozess zurückgeführt. In der AWA wird das gesamte Abwasser vor der weiteren Nutzung oder Ableitung einer physikalisch-chemischen Behandlung bestehend aus den folgenden Schritten unterzogen:

- Zugabe von Eisen(III)chlorid
- Kalkmilchzugabe
- Polyelektrolytzugabe

Suspendierte Feststoffe werden in einem Sedimentationsbecken abgetrennt. Der Schlamm wird in einer Filterpresse entwässert und der Filterkuchen in den Produktionsprozess zurückgeführt. Vor Einleitung in das Aufnahmegewässer wird das behandelte Abwasser über einen Sandfilter geleitet und durch CO₂-Zugabe neutralisiert.

Es werden nur die Zulaufkonzentrationen von einzelnen Teilströmen überwacht, jedoch nicht die Konzentration des Gesamtabwasserstroms. Die Überwachung der Ablaufqualität erfolgt anhand regelmäßiger Probenahmen und Analysen, wobei die Probenahmedauer je nach Emissionsparameter variiert.

Tabelle 3.69: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse

Parameter	Einheit	Ablaufwerte *
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a (2011)	209 902
Volumenstrom	m ³ /d	307–337
Cu	mg/l	0,0257–0,044
Cd	mg/l	0,001–0,0018
Pb	mg/l	0,02–0,029
Zn	mg/l	0,0232–0,066
Ni	mg/l	0,056–0,075
As	mg/l	0,0178–0,0207
Hg	mg/l	<0,0002
* Basierend auf fünf durchflussproportionalen 24 h-Mischproben in 2011		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

Bei KGHM Głogów 1, 2 und Legnica fallen die folgenden Abwasserströme an:

- Sanitärabwasser aus Kantinen, Wäschereien, Sozial- und Bürogebäuden usw., die über ein getrenntes Kanalsystem erfasst werden
- saures Abwasser einschließlich Abfallsäure, Wäscherabstoß aus der Konverterabgasbehandlung, Niederschlagswasser aus dem Bereich der Schwefelsäureanlage, Abwasser aus der Elektrolytaufbereitung, der VE-Anlage und Laborabwässer
- Industrieabwässer, d.h. Abschlämmwässer aus den Kühlkreisläufen, Abstoß aus den Nassentstaubungsanlagen, Abwässer aus der Betriebs- und Straßenreinigung, sonstige Reinigungsabwässer und Niederschlagswässer, werden in das Industrieabwassernetz geleitet. (Głogów 2 verfügt über ein getrenntes Kanalsystem für Niederschlagswasser).

Alle Abwässer werden in einer AWA behandelt. Saure Abwasserteilströme werden zunächst mit Kalkmilch neutralisiert, Sanitärabwasser wird in Imhoff-Tanks vorbehandelt und Niederschlagswasser in Rückhaltebecken gespeichert. Danach werden alle Teilströme zusammengeführt, die Feststoffe in einem Flockungsbecken durch Zugabe von Kalkmilch, Fe-Salz und Polyelektrolyt ausgeflockt, in einem nachgeschalteten Absetzbecken von der wässrigen Phase abgetrennt und nach Filtration deponiert.

Tabelle 3.70: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung in den Hütten Legnica, Głogów 1 und 2

Parameter	Einheit	Legnica		Głogów 1 und 2		Grenzwerte gemäß Genehmigungsbescheid für Legnica, Głogów 1 u. 2
		Ablaufwerte *	Messintervall	Ablaufwerte *	Messintervall	
Volumenstrom	m ³ /d	6082	kontinuierlich	11 175	kontinuierlich	23 250
pH-Wert		8,4	täglich	8,1	täglich	6,5–9,0
Cu	mg/l	0,23	monatlich	0,031	3 x pro Woche	≤ 0,5
As	mg/l	0,055	monatlich	0,022	3 x pro Woche	≤ 0,1
Pb	mg/l	0,09	monatlich	0,148	alle 2 Monate	≤ 0,5
Ni	mg/l	0,067	monatlich	0,063	alle 2 Monate	≤ 0,5
Zn	mg/l	0,428	monatlich	0,037	alle 2 Monate	≤ 2,0
Cd	mg/l	0,002	täglich	0,0037	täglich	≤ 0,4
Hg	mg/l	0,003	täglich	0,0005	täglich	≤ 0,06
Cr	mg/l	0,011	monatlich	0,012	alle 2 Monate	≤ 0,5
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	7,41	monatlich	2	3 x pro Woche	≤ 35

* Jahresmittelwert
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In der Abwasserreinigungsanlage von Atlantic Copper werden folgende Hauptabwasserströme behandelt: Abstoß des dem Elektro-Schlackenreinigungssofens nachgeschalteten Nasswäschers und Abwasser aus der Regeneration der Ionentauscher in der VE-Anlage, Oberflächenwasser aus dem Konzentratlagerbereich und Abstoß der Nasswäscher in der Feuerraffinationsanlage. Die AWA ist mit drei Sammelbecken und einem Eindicker mit Krählwerk ausgestattet. Hier erfolgen die pH-Wert-Einstellung und Zugabe von Flockungsmitteln, Flockungshilfsmitteln und Reagenzien. Der Überlauf des Eindickers gelangt zur Feinreinigung in eine zweite Fäll- und Dekantierstufe, in der Restarsen und verbleibende Metalle unter Zugabe von Reagenzien einschließlich Eisensalzen entfernt werden. Der Klarlauf des Absetzbeckens fließt in zwei Pufferbecken und wird als Waschwasser zur Nasswäsche des Elektroofenabgases genutzt. Überschüssiges Wasser wird abgeleitet. Der in den Fällungsstufen anfallende Schlamm wird in einer Filterpresse entwässert.

Schwachsäure aus der Säureanlage und der Abstoßelektrolyt aus der Elektroraffination werden einer dreistufigen chemischen Abwasserreinigungsanlage (Gipsanlage) zugeführt, bestehend aus:

- Gipsfällung (Mikro-Filtration, Kalkmilchzugabe und pH-Wert-Einstellung auf ca. 1)
- Anschließende Neutralisation mit Kalkmilch auf einen pH-Wert von 1–1,4, Gipsausfällung und Erzeugung von reinem Gips mit > 96 % CaSO₄ · 2H₂O in einem Vakuumfilter
- Metallfällung (Zugabe von Kalkmilch, FeCl₃, Anstieg des pH-Werts auf bis zu 12 und Ausfällung der Metalle)

Dabei stellt sich ein pH-Wert von nahezu 12 ein. Zur Oxidation und Ausfällung von Arsen und weiterer Metalle werden die notwendigen Reagenzien einschließlich Eisen(III)chlorid dosiert. Der bei der Fällung und Dekantierung der Feststoffphase im Eindicker anfallende Schlamm wird in einer Filterpresse entwässert, wobei ein neutralisierter Filterkuchen anfällt. Zur Beschleunigung der Fällung werden Polyelektrolyte (Flockungsmittel und Flockungshilfsmittel) zugesetzt.

In der nachgeschalteten Feinreinigungsstufe bestehend aus zwei Fällungsbecken und einem Sedimentationsbecken werden noch vorhandenes gelöstes Arsen und Restmetalle durch Zugabe der notwendigen Reagenzien und FeCl₃ ausgefällt und ein pH-Wert von 6–7 im gereinigten Abwasser eingestellt.

Der in dieser Fällungsstufe anfallende Schlamm wird der Metallfällung zugeführt.

Tabelle 3.71: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Atlantic Copper

Parameter	Einheit	Max. Zulaufkonzentration	Ablaufwerte		
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a			200 000	
Cu	mg/l	2000	0,02	0,05	0,21
As	mg/l	10 000	0,02	0,3	2
Pb	mg/l	300	0,03	0,04	0,08
Ni	mg/l	4000	0,02	0,04	0,13
Zn	mg/l	5000	0,16	0,67	2,15
Cd	mg/l	500	0,01	0,03	0,09
Suspendierte Feststoffe	mg/l	1500	5	16	100
Hg	mg/l		0,015	0,015	0,015

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die Ablaufqualität wird anhand durchflussproportionaler 24-Stunden-Mischproben überwacht. Die Probenahme erfolgt mittels einer automatischen Probenahmeeinrichtung.

Boliden betreibt in Harjavalta Kupfer- und Nickelhütten. Belastetes Abwasser (Niederschlagswasser, Schmelzwasser, Oberflächenwasser und Prozessabwässer) werden nach Reinigung in der werkseigenen AWA in den Fluss abgeleitet. Außerdem wird in dieser Anlage auch ein Teil des Oberflächenwassers aus dem Abfalllagerbereich der Norilsk Nickel-Hütte behandelt. Die neue Abwasserreinigungsanlage wurde 2009 in Betrieb genommen. Die Investitionskosten beliefen sich auf rund EUR 4 Millionen. Die jährlichen Betriebskosten liegen bei ca. EUR 800 000.

Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage der Boliden-Hütte umfasst die folgenden Stufen:

- Vorklärung
- Fällung: Metalle werden mit Natriumhydroxid als Metallhydroxide ausgefällt (pH-Wert ca. 10,5)
- Actiflo[®]-Behandlung in vier Schritten
 - o Dosierung von Eisen(III)sulfat (Flockungsmittel). Das Flockungsmittel neutralisiert die Oberflächenladungen der Metallhydroxidpartikel und unterstützt die Bildung von Primärflocken.

- o Zur Homogenisierung wird Mikrosand zugegeben und innig mit dem Abwasser gemischt. Dieser lagert sich an die Flocken an und erhöht so deren Gewicht und Absetzgeschwindigkeit.
- o Dosierung von Flockungshilfsmittel. Das Flockungshilfsmittel vernetzt die gebildeten Metallhydroxidflocken zu großen Flocken mit guten Absetzeigenschaften.
- o Schwere Flocken setzen sich am Boden des Absetzbeckens ab, und das Klarwasser verlässt das Becken über den Überlauf. Zur Verbesserung der Klärleistung sind die Sedimentationsbecken als Lamellenklärer ausgeführt. Das abgesetzte Schlamm/Mikrosandgemisch wird zu Hydrozyklonen gepumpt, in denen der Sand abgetrennt und anschließend in den Prozess zurückgeführt wird. Der metallhaltige Schlamm setzt sich im Vorklärbecken ab, wird von dort in das Schlammbecken gepumpt und der Schlackenflotationsanlage zugeführt.

Tabelle 3.72: Abwasserzusammensetzung vor und nach Behandlung bei Boliden Harjavalta

Schadstoff	Einheit	Zulauf	Ablauf	
		Mittelwert	Mittelwert	(90. Perzentil)
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a		2 426 300	
Cu	mg/l	3,356	0,115	0,120
Ni	mg/l	5,448	0,146	0,170
Zn	mg/l	1,805	0,031	0,040
Pb	mg/l	0,092	0,009	0,008
As	mg/l	0,474	0,053	0,120
Cd	mg/l	0,272	0,006	0,010

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Bei Boliden Rönnskär werden die Prozessabwässer aus allen Teilanlagen (Schmelzanlage, Konverter, Elektrolyseanlage, Zn-Verblaseanlage, Bleianlage, Säure- und Edelmetallanlage) zunächst getrennt gesammelt und dann mit Niederschlagswasser und Spülabwässern vermischt. Die Behandlung erfolgt in zwei Stufen. In der ersten Stufe werden Metalle und Arsen bei einem pH-Wert von 2–4 als Sulfide ausgefällt. Der sich absetzende Sulfidschlamm wird in einem Eindicker eingedickt und in die Kupferproduktion zurückgeführt. In der zweiten Stufe werden Fluoride unter Zugabe von Kalk als Calciumfluorid ausgefällt. Der Kalkschlamm wird deponiert.

Tabelle 3.73: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Boliden Rönnskär

Parameter	Einheit	Ablaufwert *		
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Cu	mg/l	0,003	0,031	0,46
Pb	mg/l	0,001	0,009	0,043
Zn	mg/l	0,01	0,48	12
Cd	mg/l	0,0002	0,002	0,013
As	mg/l	0,005	0,23	1,1
Hg	mg/l	0,00005	0,0003	0,0014

* Werte basierend auf 12 Proben pro Jahr
 Anmerkung: k.A.= keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Bei Cobre Las Cruces wird der Abstoß aus der Solvent-Extraktionsanlage (hydrometallurgisches Verfahren) in einer AWA physikalisch-chemisch behandelt. Die zweistufige Anlage besteht aus einer Neutralisations- und Oxidationsstufe gefolgt von einer Eindick- und Filtrationsstufe. Außerdem erfolgt eine Behandlung mit Kalk und weiteren Additiven (Flockungsmittel). Der Ablauf der Abwasserreinigungsanlage wird vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter überwacht.

Table 3.74 zeigt die 2011 gemessenen Ablaufkonzentrationen.

Table 3.74: Abwasserzusammensetzung nach Behandlung bei Cobre Las Cruces

Parameter	Einheit	Ablaufwert *		
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	m ³ /a	NR	NR	NR
TVOC	mg/l	4,1	5,8	9
Cu	mg/l	0,004	0,04	0,0554
Pb	mg/l	0,0025	0,006	0,006
Zn	mg/l	0,021	0,106	0,123
Cd	mg/l	0,0005	0,003	0,005
As	mg/l	0,017	0,03	0,059
Hg	mg/l	0,0005	0,001	0,0015

* Werte basierend auf 303 Messungen pro Jahr (24h-Mischproben)
 Anmerkung: NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [358, CLC 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, der entsorgt werden muss
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Reagenzien, z.B. Fällmittel oder Biozide zur Kühlwasseraufbereitung
- Die Wiederverwendung oder das Recyceln von behandeltem Abwasser ist häufig durch dessen Leitfähigkeit eingeschränkt.
- Lärmemissionen, z.B. durch Kühltürme
- Wärmeabgabe an die Umgebungsluft
- Mögliche Ausbreitung von Legionellen in geschlossenen Wasserkreisläufen bei Temperaturen zwischen 25 °C und 60 °C

Bei der Auswahl der Techniken müssen die Besonderheiten der Produktionsprozesse und die örtlichen Gegebenheiten berücksichtigt werden. Auch die Größe und Fließgeschwindigkeit des Aufnahmegewässers kann einen Einfluss auf die Auswahl der Techniken haben.

Die Minimierung des Abwasservolumens zugunsten eines höher konzentrierten kleineren Abwasserstroms ermöglicht Energieeinsparungen bei der Behandlung. Die Behandlung hochkonzentrierter Abwässer resultiert in höhere Ablaufkonzentrationen, wobei der Abscheidegrad allerdings höher ist als bei niedrigkonzentrierten Abwasserströmen, so dass sich insgesamt eine bessere Abscheideleistung ergibt.

Der Einsatz von Kühlwasserkreisläufen ist mit Energieaufwand und Verbrauch von Chemikalien verbunden. Soweit verfügbar ist die Deckung des Kühlwasserbedarfs aus Flüssen oder Seen kostengünstiger.

Um die Bildung von Schwefelwasserstoff zu vermeiden, dürfen Sulfide nicht mit Säuren in Kontakt kommen. Der Überschuss an Sulfidionen nach der Metallfällung kann durch Zugabe von Eisen(III)sulfat in einer weiteren Fällstufe entfernt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für die neue Abwasserreinigungsanlage am Aurubis-Standort Pirdop beliefen sich auf EUR 10 Millionen. Stromverbrauch: 220 kWh, Kalkverbrauch: 0,74 t/t Säure, FeCl₃: 8,4 t/t Arsen, H₂O₂: 2 t/t Arsen

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung von Emissionen in das Wasser und Einhaltung der Einleitungsgrenzwerte

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE) (Primärkupferhütte, Sekundärkupfer-/Bleihütte, Edelmetallgewinnung, Kupferverarbeitung), Aurubis Pirdop (BG) (Primärhütte), Aurubis Olen (BE) (Sekundärhütte, Kupferverarbeitung), Umicore Hoboken (BE) (Metallhüttenkomplex), Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE) (Sekundärhütte), Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT) (Sekundärkupferhütte; AWA für die hydrometallurgische Kupfergewinnung; zwei Sedimentationsbecken zur Oberflächenwasserbehandlung), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL) (Primärkupferhütten), Atlantic Copper (ES) (Primärkupferhütte), Cobre Las Cruces (ES) (hydrometallurgische Kupfergewinnung), Boliden Harjavalta (FI) (Primärkupferhütte) und Boliden Rönnskär (SE) (Primärkupferhütte, Sekundärkupfer-/Bleihütte, Edelmetallgewinnung)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.7 Prozessrückstände

3.3.7.1 Verwertung oder Aufbereitung von Prozessrückständen

Beschreibung

In Betracht kommende Maßnahmen sind in folgender Rangfolge:

- Wiederverwendung im Verhüttungsprozess zwecks Rückgewinnung von Kupfer und anderer Metalle
- Metallrückgewinnung bei externen Verwertern
- Aufbereitung zur Nutzung in anderen Anwendungen

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Kupfergewinnung fallen je nach angewandten Verfahren und verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffen eine Vielzahl unterschiedlichster Zwischenprodukte an. Da sich diese in ihrer Form und chemischen Zusammensetzung unterscheiden und ihr Anfall zudem zeitlichen Schwankungen unterliegt, sind die in diesem Abschnitt aufgeführten potenziellen Anwendungen nicht notwendigerweise überall anwendbar. Für alle Zwischenprodukte sollte eine Verwertungslösung unter Beachtung der oben aufgeführten Rangfolge festgelegt werden.

Die meisten Zwischenprodukte aus der Kupferverhüttung enthalten Kupfer und sonstige NE-Metalle in verwertbaren Mengen und werden daher als sekundäre Rohstoffe eingesetzt. Flugstäube können unabhängig von ihrer Herkunft wieder im Verhüttungsprozess eingesetzt oder an Dritte verkauft werden. Zur Vermeidung von Staubeentwicklung bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Flugstäuben sind spezielle Maßnahmen erforderlich, i.d.R. Spezialsysteme, oder die Stäube werden für die anschließende Verwertung aufbereitet.

Einige Ofenausbruchmaterialien können als Stopfmasse zum Verschließen der Abstichlöcher genutzt oder zusammen mit den Einsatzmaterialien dem Schmelzprozess zwecks Einbindung in die Schlacke zugeführt werden. In anderen Fällen muss der Ofenausbruch entsorgt werden.

Die in den Schlackeöfen, der Verblase- oder Schlackenflotationsanlage erzeugte Eisensilikatendschlacke hat einen sehr niedrigen Gehalt an auslaugbaren Metallen und ist stabil.

Schlacken werden in den unterschiedlichsten industriellen Anwendungen eingesetzt und ersetzen dort natürliche Ressourcen, z.B. als Tragschicht- oder Deckschicht im Straßen-/Wegebau, als Zuschlag im Böschungsbau, als Versatzmaterial im Bergbau oder anderen Anwendungen, als Betonzuschlag oder mineralischer Zuschlag für Mischzemente oder als Strahlmittel.

Die Endschlacken werden in unterschiedlichsten Körnungen hergestellt, von grobkörnigem, stückigem Material über Granulat bis hin zu feinen Körnungen je nach Verfahren und Anwendung. Sie zeichnen sich durch hervorragende mechanische Eigenschaften aus, die in einigen Fällen diejenigen von natürlichen Mineralien übertreffen.

Einen Überblick über Techniken zur Reduzierung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen gibt Tabelle 3.75.

Tabelle 3.75: Zwischenprodukte, Rückstände und Abfälle aus der Kupfererzeugung

Anlage	Produktionsrückstand	Verwertungs-/Behandlungstechnik
Abgasreinigungsanlagen in allen metallurgischen Prozessen	Staub (einschl. Schlämme aus Nassentstaubungssystemen)	Metallrückgewinnung mittels pyro- oder hydrometallurgischer Verfahren. Verkaufsfähiger Gips. Nutzung als Kalziumträger in pyrometallurgischen Prozessen
	Verbrauchte Katalysatoren	Recycling/Regeneration
	Schwefelsäure	Vermarktung für verschiedene Anwendungen
	Dünnsäure	Andere Verwertungsmöglichkeiten; z.B. im Laugungsprozess oder zur Gipserzeugung
	Rückstände von Quecksilberabscheidern	Behandlung oder sichere Entsorgung
Schmelzöfen	Schlacke	Behandlung im Schlackeofen oder in der Schlackenflotationsanlage. Anwendung als Tragschicht- oder Deckschicht im Straßen-/Wegebau, als Zuschlag im Böschungsbau, als Versatzmaterial im Bergbau oder anderen Anwendungen, als Betonzuschlag, in der Klinkerherstellung oder als mineralischer Zuschlag für Mischzemente oder als Strahlmittel
	Endschlacke	
	Ofenausbruch	Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle oder Wiederverwendung als Feuerfestmaterial oder geordnete Entsorgung
Konverter	Schlacke	Metallrückgewinnung
	Ofenausbruch	Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle oder Wiederverwendung als Feuerfestmaterial oder geordnete Entsorgung
Schlackeöfen/Verblaseanlage	Endschlacke	Industrielle Anwendungen als Trag- oder Deckschicht im Straßen-/Wegebau, als Zuschlag im Böschungsbau, als Versatzmaterial im Bergbau oder anderen Anwendungen, als Betonzuschlag, in der Klinkerherstellung oder als mineralischer Zuschlag für Mischzemente oder als Strahlmittel
Schlackenflotation	Endschlacke	Industrielle Anwendungen im Straßenbau, als Betonzuschlag, als Versatzmaterial im Bergbau

		oder anderen Anwendungen, in der Klinkerproduktion oder als mineralischer Zuschlag für Mischzemente oder als Zuschlag in der Eisen- und Stahlerzeugung. Geordnete Ablagerung im Bergelager
Raffinationsöfen (Anodenöfen)	Schlacke	Metallrückgewinnung
Schmelzöfen (Kupferverarbeitung)	Ofenausbruch	Metallrückgewinnung oder geordnete Entsorgung
	Skimmings, Schlacke,	Metallrückgewinnung
	Produktionsschrott	Metallrückgewinnung
Elektrolyseanlage	Erschöpfter Elektrolyt/Abstoß	Cu-Rückgewinnung durch Elektrolyse, Zementation oder sonstige Techniken. Rückgewinnung von Ni durch Kristallisation. Nutzung der verbleibenden Säure zum Ansetzen des Elektrolyten, zur Gips- oder Zementherstellung oder Neutralisation und Entsorgung
	Verbrauchte Anoden	Interne Verwertung durch erneutes Einschmelzen oder Nutzung als Kaltschrott in der pyrometallurgischen Kupferraffination
	Anodenschlamm	Rückgewinnung von Edel- und Grundmetallen
Abwasserbehandlung	Reiner Gips	Nutzung als Kalziumträger in pyrometallurgischen Prozessen oder Verkauf als Nebenprodukt
	Kontaminierter Gips	Entsorgung auf Sonderabfalldeponien
	Schlamm	Metallrückgewinnung mittels pyro- oder hydro-metallurgischer Verfahren oder geordnete Entsorgung als Abfall
Hydrometallurgie	Erschöpfter Elektrolyt	Wiederverwendung als Laugungsmittel
Halbzeugherstellung	Säurebeizlösungen	Metallrückgewinnung mittels Elektrolyse, Ionentauscher, Fällung oder sonstiger Methoden. Wiederverwendung der Lösungen oder Ableitung nach Behandlung in einer AWA
Gießwalzdraht-herstellung	Säurebeizlösungen (soweit verwendet)	Metallrückgewinnung mittels Elektrolyse, Ionentauscher, Fällung oder sonstiger Methoden. Wiederverwendung der Lösungen oder Ableitung nach Behandlung in einer AWA
	Zunder	Kupferrückgewinnung mittels pyrometallurgischer Prozesse
<i>Quelle:</i> [238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]		

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung der Abfallmengen zur Beseitigung
- Wiederverwendung von Ressourcen und Rückgewinnung von Wertmetallen
- Schonung natürlicher Ressourcen (Endschlackenanwendungen)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die oben beschriebenen Techniken können je nach Stoffeigenschaften der Zwischenprodukte in allen Hütten angewandt werden. Welche Techniken zur innerbetrieblichen Verwertung

eingesetzt werden, ist abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen, den verarbeiteten Rohstoffen und der eingesetzten Verfahrenskombination.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Wirtschaftliche Gesichtspunkte

Beispielanlagen

Alle Anlagen

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.8 Energie

3.3.8.1 Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs in der Primärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Optimierung des Energieverbrauchs
- Online-Überwachung
- Berichterstattung und Analyseinstrumente
- Regelmäßige Audits

Technische Beschreibung

Einige der beschriebenen Techniken werden sowohl in Primär- als auch in Sekundärkupferhütten eingesetzt.

Optimierung des Energieverbrauchs

- Einsatz von Regenerativbrennern, Rekuperativbrennern, Wärmetauschern und Abhitzekeesseln zur Wärmerückgewinnung
- Vorwärmung von Brenngas und Verbrennungsluft. Dies kann auch unter Nutzung der Abgaswärme in einem Wärmetauscher erfolgen.
- Durch Einsatz eines Schwebeschmelzofens lässt sich der Verbrauch an Regelbrennstoffen aufgrund der optimalen Nutzung des Heizwerts der sulfidischen Konzentrate und deren organischen Kohlenstoffgehalts reduzieren.
- Durch Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft für den Schmelzprozess verringern sich der Verbrauch an fossilen Brennstoffen und die damit verbundenen direkten Emissionen. Gleichzeitig führt die Sauerstoffanreicherung auch zu einer Verringerung des Abgasvolumens und ermöglicht so den Einsatz kleinerer Gebläse. Da zur Sauerstofferzeugung elektrische Energie benötigt wird, muss hier eine sorgfältige Abwägung zwischen Energieverbrauch und Emissionen vorgenommen werden.
- Verwendung wirksamer Ofenzustellungen und Isolierungen in heißgehenden Anlagen; Isolierung von Dampf- und Heißwasserleitungen
- Heiße Prozessgase aus den Schmelzstufen können je nach Ofentyp zur Vorwärmung der Charge genutzt werden, z.B. beim Schachtofen
- Durch Abdecken der Konzentrate während des Transports und der Lagerung wird eine übermäßige Wasseraufnahme der Einsatzmaterialien bei gleichzeitiger Vermeidung von Staubemissionen verhindert.

- Die Vortrocknung der Konzentrate bei niedrigen Temperaturen verringert den Energieverbrauch, da weniger Energie für die Wasserverdampfung im Schmelzaggregat aufgebracht werden muss und geringere Dampf-/Gasmengen erzeugt werden.
- Einsatz von Abhitzekeßeln zur Energierückgewinnung und Dampferzeugung. Der erzeugte Dampf wird zur Prozessluftvorwärmung oder als Heizmedium in den Konzentrat-trocknern, zum Antrieb der Gebläse oder Kompressoren in der Schmelzanlage, zur Stromerzeugung oder als Prozesswärme in anderen Betriebsbereichen genutzt.
- Nutzung der Abwärme von Schmelz- und Konverterprozessen zum Einschmelzen sekundärer Rohstoffe ohne zusätzlichen Brennstoffeinsatz. So kann z.B. in PS-Konvertern die Prozesswärme zum Schmelzen des Schrotts genutzt werden.
- Die Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure aus dem in den Röst- und/oder Schmelzstufen emittierten Schwefeldioxid ist ein exothermer Prozess, der mehrere Gaskühlstufen erfordert. Die bei der chemischen Umsetzung freigesetzte Reaktionswärme der Gase und der Wärmeinhalt der erzeugten Schwefelsäure kann zur Vorwärmung des Einsatzgases der Schwefelsäureanlage oder zur Dampferzeugung oder Heißwasserbereitung genutzt werden.
- Der Einsatz von kohlenstoffhaltigen Konzentraten führt zu hohen CO-Konzentrationen im Abgas. Dieses Abgas wird erfasst und als Brennstoff (in einem Kraftwerk vor Ort) zur Erzeugung von Dampf für das Fernwärmenetz oder zum Antrieb einer Turbine genutzt, wobei gleichzeitig eine Nachverbrennung dieses Luftschadstoffs erfolgt.
- Das Abgas der Anodenöfen kann zur Konzentrat-trocknung oder in anderen Prozessstufen genutzt werden.
- Installation hocheffizienter Elektromotoren mit Frequenzumrichterantrieb, z.B. für Gebläse
- Durch Isolierung und Abdeckung der Elektrolysezellen werden Wärmeverluste vermieden und der Einsatz thermischer Energie zur Aufrechterhaltung der Badtemperatur reduziert.

Online-Überwachung

Eine Online-Überwachung wird häufig für die Hauptenergieflüsse und Verbrennungsprozesse am Standort eingesetzt. Die Daten werden langzeitgespeichert und ermöglichen so eine Analyse typischer Betriebssituationen.

Berichtswesen und Analyseinstrumente

Zur Kontrolle des durchschnittlichen Energieverbrauchs der Hauptprozesse wird häufig ein Berichtswesen eingerichtet. Ein Energiecontrolling-System dient der Erfassung und Auswertung der Energiedaten eines Unternehmens und ermöglicht einen Vergleich des aktuellen Energieverbrauchs mit historischen Verbrauchswerten.

Energieaudits

Audits sind ein wichtiges Instrument zur Erkennung kosteneffizienter Energieeinsparpotenziale.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minimierung des Energieverbrauchs

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

An den Aurubis-Standorten Hamburg und Pirdop wird die Abwärme des Konzentrat-Schwebesmelzofens in einem Abhitzekeßel zurückgewonnen. Der erzeugte Dampf wird zur Konzentrat-trocknung, in der Elektrolyseanlage, zur Medienvorwärmung in verschiedenen chemischen Prozessen sowie zur Gebäudeheizung genutzt. Im Konverter werden die heißen Reaktionsgase zum Einschmelzen von Schrott genutzt. In den Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlagen wird die bei der Umsetzung von SO_2 in H_2SO_4 freigesetzte Reaktionswärme in Wärmetauschern zurückgewonnen.

An den KGHM-Standorten Głogów 1 und Legnica wird das Schachtofenabgas (mit einem CO-Gehalt von ca. 10 %) dem Kraftwerk vor Ort zwecks CO-Ausbrand und Energierückgewinnung

zugeführt. Das Sekundärabgas aus dem Chargier- und Abstichbereich der Schachtofen wird als Verbrennungsluft im Kraftwerk vor Ort eingesetzt.

An den Standorten Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica wird die in den Konvertern (Primärkupfererzeugung) freigesetzte Wärme zum Einschmelzen von (mitchargiertem) Schrott genutzt.

In den Schwefelsäureanlagen der vorgenannten Hütten wird die bei der chemischen Umsetzung freigesetzte Wärme in Wärmetauschern zurückgewonnen und zur Vorwärmung des Einsatzgases der Schwefelsäureanlage genutzt.

Am Standort Legnica wird das im Chargier-, Abstich- und Abschlackbereich der Anodenöfen erfasste Sekundärabgas zum Teil zur Vorwärmung der Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner der Anodenöfen genutzt. Die Warmluft aus den atmosphärischen Kühlern in der Konverteranlage wird zur Vorwärmung des dem Kraftwerk zugeführten entstaubten Schachtofenprimärabgases verwendet.

Am Standort Głogów 2 wird die Abwärme des Konzentrat-Schwebeschmelzofens zur Dampf- und Heißwassererzeugung in einem Abhitzeessel genutzt.

Der in den Kraftwerken und Abhitzeesseln erzeugte Dampf (sowie Dampf aus anderen Quellen) wird zur Elektrolytaufheizung, zum Entladen von Schwarzlauge und, im Fall von Legnica, als Strippdampf zur Regeneration der Polyetherwaschlösung im Gaswäscher genutzt.

Bei Boliden wird die Abwärme aus den Konzentratschmelzöfen und Konvertern in einem Abhitzeessel zurückgewonnen und zwecks Energieeinsparung und Reduzierung staub- und gasförmiger Emissionen aus dem Trocknungsprozess zur Konzentrattrocknung genutzt. Ein Teilstrom des heißen Abgases aus dem Anodenofen wird ebenfalls zur Konzentrattrocknung verwendet.

Bei Atlantic Copper wird die Abwärme des Konzentratschmelzofens in einem Abhitzeessel zurückgewonnen. Der Dampf wird zur Konzentrattrocknung, Heizzwecken innerhalb der Hütte sowie zur Stromerzeugung genutzt. Die Prozesswärme im Konverter wird zum Einschmelzen von Schrott verwendet. Das Rauchgas des Kraftwerks wird ebenfalls zur Konzentrattrocknung genutzt. Zur kontinuierlichen Verbesserung der Energieeffizienz wurde ein Energiemanagementsystem eingeführt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Bei Maßnahmen zur Reduzierung des Wassergehalts der Einsatzmaterialien ist zu beachten, dass eine gewisse Materialfeuchte zur Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen gewährleistet sein muss.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Anwendbarkeit der beschriebenen Techniken ist abhängig vom Ofentyp, den installierten Minderungseinrichtungen, den zur Verfügung stehenden Brennstoffen, der Zusammensetzung der Einsatzmaterialien und dem Alter der Anlage. So gehören z.B. Abhitzeessel zur Wärmerückgewinnung aus dem Schmelzofenabgas zur Standardausrüstung bei der Verhüttung sulfidischer Konzentrate. Dabei sind spezielle Vorkehrungen zur Vermeidung von Korrosion und Betriebsbeeinträchtigung durch hohe Staubbelastungen erforderlich.

Eine Nutzung als Energieträger in Kraftwerken eignet sich für CO-reiche Abgase (ca. 10 % CO).

In einigen Fällen schließt die Abgasstaubbelastung den Einsatz von Wärmetauschern aus.

Zum Schutz des Filtergewebes gegen unzulässig hohe Temperaturen ist eine Abgaskühlung vor Eintritt in das Gewebefilter zwingend.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die beschriebenen Maßnahmen sind mit erheblichen Investitionen verbunden (z.B. in Isolier-/Feuerfestmaterialien), die sich jedoch langfristig bezahlt machen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minimierung der Energiekosten

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Hamburg (DE), Aurubis Pirdop (BG), KGHM Głogów 1, Głogów 2 und Legnica (PL), Boliden Rönnskär (SE), Boliden Harjavalta (FI) und Atlantic Copper Huelva (ES)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012] [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.3.8.2 Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Optimierung des Energieverbrauchs
- Online-Überwachung
- Berichtswesen und Analyseinstrumente
- Regelmäßige Audits

Technische Beschreibung

Einige der beschriebenen Techniken werden sowohl in Primär- als auch in Sekundärkupferhütten eingesetzt.

Optimierung des Energieverbrauchs

- Einsatz von Regenerativbrennern, Rekuperativbrennern, Wärmetauschern und Abhitzeesseln zur Wärmerückgewinnung
- Reduzierung des Wassergehalts im Einsatzmaterial. Durch die Vortrocknung der Einsatzstoffe reduziert sich die einzubringende Schmelzwärme, da die Wasserverdampfung bei niedrigen Temperaturen gegenüber der Verdampfung im Hochtemperaturprozess energieeffizienter ist. Diese Maßnahmen müssen gegen die Notwendigkeit einer gewissen Materialfeuchte zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen abgewogen werden.
- Verwendung wirksamer Ofenzustellungen und Isolierungen in heißgehenden Anlagen; Isolierung von Dampf- und Heißwasserleitungen
- Vorwärmung von Brenngas und Verbrennungsluft. Dies kann auch unter Nutzung der Abgaswärme in einem Wärmetauscher erfolgen.
- Heiße Prozessgase aus den Schmelzstufen können je nach Ofentyp zum Vorwärmen des Einsatzmaterials genutzt werden, z.B. beim Schachtofen, wo die Vorwärmung der Charge innerhalb des Ofens stattfindet.
- Bei Oxy-Fuel-Brennern führt die Abgasrezirkulation über den Brenner zu erheblichen Energieeinsparungen. Im Brenner erfolgt die Rückgewinnung des Abgaswärmeinhalts und die Nachverbrennung von Luftschadstoffen bei gleichzeitiger Nutzung deren Energiegehalts.
- Durch Einsatz einer RNV zur Nachverbrennung lässt sich der Energieaufwand für die Minderung von C_{org} -Emissionen reduzieren.
- Einsatz von Warmhalteöfen hinter chargenweise betriebenen Schmelzöfen, wenn Pufferkapazitäten für den nachgeschalteten Prozess erforderlich sind. Aufgrund des

Chargenbetriebs und der unterschiedlichen Dauer der Prozesszyklen in den einzelnen Verarbeitungsstufen (z.B. Schmelzöfen, Konverter, Anodenöfen) muss das Metall zwischenzeitlich flüssig gehalten werden. Andernfalls muss das Schwarzkupfer oder Konverterkupfer vor Einsatz im nachgeschalteten Ofen/Konverter unter erheblich höherem Energieeinsatz erneut eingeschmolzen werden.

- Durch Sauerstoffanreicherung der Verbrennungsluft für den Schmelzprozess verringern sich der Verbrauch an fossilen Brennstoffen und die damit verbundenen direkten Emissionen. Gleichzeitig führt die Sauerstoffanreicherung auch zu einer Verringerung des Abgasvolumens und ermöglicht so den Einsatz kleinerer Gebläse. Da zur Sauerstofferzeugung elektrische Energie benötigt wird, muss hier eine sorgfältige Abwägung zwischen Energieverbrauch und Emissionen vorgenommen werden.
- Installation hocheffizienter Elektromotoren mit Frequenzumrichterantrieb, z.B. für Gebläse
- Einsatz von Abhitzeesseln zur Energierückgewinnung und Dampferzeugung. Der erzeugte Dampf wird zur Vorwärmung der Prozessluft, als Heizmedium in Dampftrocknern, zum Antrieb von Gebläsen oder Kompressoren, zur Stromerzeugung oder als Prozesswärme in anderen Anlagen genutzt.
- Der aus der Abwärme des Anodenofens erzeugte Dampf wird zur Elektrolytaufheizung in der Elektroraffinationsanlage oder zur Stromerzeugung in einer KWK-Anlage genutzt.
- Durch Isolierung und Abdeckung der Elektrolysezellen werden Wärmeverluste vermieden und der Einsatz thermischer Energie zur Aufrechterhaltung der Badtemperatur reduziert.
- Nutzung der Abwärme von Schmelz- und Konverterprozessen zum Einschmelzen verschiedener Schrottqualitäten ohne zusätzlichen Brennstoffeinsatz
- Einsatz von Altkupfer im Schmelzprozess zur Verbesserung der Energiebilanz. Dabei sind Qualitätsschwankungen bei den Sekundärrohstoffen und deren Verfügbarkeit zu berücksichtigen.
- Beim Einschmelzen von Elektronikschrott decken brennbare Kunststoffanteile einen Teil des Energiebedarfs des Schmelzprozesses und reduzieren so den Verbrauch an fossilen Brennstoffen.

Da die Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials einen wesentlichen Einfluss auf die einzubringende Schmelzwärme hat, sollte die Chargenzusammenstellung im Hinblick auf maximale Wärmefreisetzung durch exotherme Reaktionen optimiert werden. Dies ist jedoch nicht als vorbeugende Maßnahme zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs zu sehen, da die Zusammensetzung des Sekundärrohstoffs von den vorgelagerten Verfahrensschritten, der Verfügbarkeit am Markt und der installierten Minderungseinrichtung abhängig ist.

Online-Überwachung

Eine Online-Überwachung wird häufig für die Hauptenergieflüsse und Verbrennungsprozesse am Standort eingesetzt. Die Daten werden langzeitgespeichert und ermöglichen so eine Analyse typischer Betriebsituationen.

Berichtswesen und Analyseinstrumente

Zur Kontrolle des durchschnittlichen Energieverbrauchs der Hauptprozesse wird häufig ein Berichtswesen eingerichtet. Ein Energiecontrolling-System dient der Erfassung und Auswertung der Energiedaten eines Unternehmens und ermöglicht einen Vergleich des aktuellen Energieverbrauchs mit historischen Verbrauchswerten.

Energieaudits

Audits sind ein wichtiges Instrument zur Erkennung kosteneffizienter Energieeinsparpotenziale.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Ziel der Energieoptimierung ist die Minimierung des Energieverbrauchs innerhalb der systemimmanenten Randbedingungen und folglich der damit einhergehenden direkten und indirekten Emissionen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Die Verarbeitung von Elektronikschrott erfordert einen zusätzlichen apparativen Aufwand zur Einhaltung der Umweltschutzvorschriften.
- Bei Maßnahmen zur Reduzierung des Wassergehalts der Einsatzmaterialien ist zu beachten, dass eine gewisse Materialfeuchte zur Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen gewährleistet sein muss.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Aurubis Lünen wird die Abwärme der KRS- und Anodenöfen in einem Abhitzeessel zurückgewonnen und zur Elektrolytaufheizung genutzt.

In der Contimelt-Anlage von Aurubis Olen werden die heißen Prozessgase des ASO-Schachtofens zum Vorwärmen der Charge und die Abwärme des Abgases zur Dampferzeugung in einem Abhitzeessel genutzt. In der Contirod-Anlage wird das Einsatzmaterial (Kupferkathoden) im Asarco-Ofen durch die nach oben strömenden Reaktionsgase aufgeheizt. Die Abwärme der Abgase wird in einem Wärmetauscher zur Vorwärmung der Verbrennungsluft für die Brenner genutzt. Ein geschlossenes Beschickungssystem verhindert die Freisetzung von Wärme/Gasen in die Umgebung. Die Abwärme der Stranggießanlage wird zur Beheizung der Produktionshalle genutzt.

Bei Aurubis Avellino wird die Abwärme des Schachtofenabgases zur Erdgasvorwärmung genutzt.

Bei Umicore Hoboken wird der Wassergehalt der Schmelzofencharge durch Mischen trockener mit nassen Einsatzmaterialien soweit wie möglich reduziert, wodurch das Anfeuchten trockener Materialien entfällt. Die Schrottchargierung wird maximiert. Gebläse, Pumpen, usw. sind mit hocheffizienten Frequenzumrichterantrieben ausgestattet. Ofen und Dampfkessel sind isoliert. Die Prozesstemperatur wird überwacht und die Energiezufuhr entsprechend geregelt. Die Gewinnungselektrolyse wird mit einer hohen Stromausbeute von > 95 % betrieben.

Bei den Montanwerken Brixlegg wird die Abwärme des Anodenofenabgases in einem Abhitzeessel zurückgewonnen. Der Wärmeinhalt des Schachtofenabgases wird in einer RNV zur thermischen Abgasbehandlung genutzt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Von den oben aufgeführten Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieeinsatzes sind ausgewählte Techniken und Maßnahmen abhängig vom Ofentyp, den installierten Minderungseinrichtungen, den zur Verfügung stehenden Brennstoffen, der Zusammensetzung der Einsatzmaterialien und dem Alter der Anlage anwendbar.

Bei hoher Staubbelastung des Abgases scheidet der Einsatz von Wärmetauschern als Option aus. Eine Abgaskühlung vor Eintritt in das Gewebefilter ist zum Schutz des Filters gegen unzulässig hohe Temperaturen notwendig. Das heißt, dass die Temperaturdifferenz zwischen der Kühlung über Strahlungsheizflächen (+/- 600 °C) und der Filtereintrittstemperatur durch Wassereindüsung zur weiteren Herunterkühlung des Gases überbrückt werden muss.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die beschriebenen Maßnahmen erfordern beträchtliche Investitionen (z.B. in Isolier-/Feuerfestmaterialien), die sich jedoch langfristig bezahlt machen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minimierung der Energiekosten

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis Lünen (DE), Aurubis Olen (BE), Aurubis Avellino (IT), Umicore Hoboken (BE) und Montanwerke Brixlegg (AT)

Literatur

[238, ECI 2012], [383, Copper subgroup 2012]

3.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Badschmelzverfahren

Laut [135, Gershel, T. 1998] sind Aktivitäten zur Weiterentwicklung und Optimierung von Badschmelzverfahren im Gange. Aufgrund der in modernen Anlagen realisierbaren hohen Reaktionsgeschwindigkeiten und in Verbindung mit geschlossenen oder halbgeschlossenen Öfen bieten Badschmelzverfahren eine kostengünstige Alternative. Der Nachweis der Betriebssicherheit im Langzeitbetrieb ist noch zu erbringen. Hierzu sollten Daten zu den in China und Russland realisierten Anlagen mit Baiyin- oder Vanyukov-Öfen, sobald diese zur Verfügung stehen, analysiert werden. Die in Entwicklung befindlichen Technologien sind in Tabelle 3.76 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 3.76: In Entwicklung befindliche Badschmelzverfahren

Verfahren	Bemerkungen
Kontinuierliche Schmelz-/Konvertierungsverfahren Kombination einer Noranda-Reaktors mit einem Mitsubishi-Konverterofen	Eine Auswertung der Inbetriebnahmeergebnisse 1999 steht noch aus.

Hydrometallurgische Verfahren

Hydrometallurgische Verfahren, wie z.B. die Biolaugung, sind ebenfalls in Entwicklung und eignen sich für oxidisch-sulfidische Mischerze mit geringen Edelmetallgehalten. Zur Unterstützung der Laugung werden eisen- und sulfidoxidierende Bakterien eingesetzt.

Das Outotec HydroCopper®-Verfahren

Das Outotec HydroCopper®-Verfahren, ein Chlorlaugungsverfahren, wird bereits in einer ersten Demonstrationsanlage angewendet. Einige Verfahren zur Laugung von Konzentraten und Stäuben, z.B. das L-SX-EW-Verfahren (Kombination von Laugung, Solventextraktion und Gewinnungselektrolyse), befinden sich derzeit in Entwicklung. [308, Haavanlammi 2007], [309, Pekkala 2007]

4 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE ALUMINIUM FROM PRIMARY AND SECONDARY RAW MATERIALS INCLUDING THE PRODUCTION OF ALUMINA AND ANODES FABRICATED FOR ALUMINIUM PRODUCTION

4.1 Applied processes and techniques

4.1.1 Alumina

Alumina is usually produced from bauxite in the well-established Bayer process as shown in Figure 4.1. This process utilises the different thermodynamic properties of the caustic soda - aluminium hydroxide system. There are three main aluminium-based compounds in bauxite: aluminium oxide trihydrate (gibbsite), γ -aluminium oxide monohydrate (boehmite) and α -aluminium oxide monohydrate (diaspore). The solubility of each form of aluminium oxide hydrate is heavily dependent on the temperature. Hence, in the Bayer process, aluminium compounds dissolve in the digestion area at temperatures of up to 280 °C, and at lower temperatures the dissolved aluminium hydroxide is precipitated as solid material in the precipitation area, i.e. at around 55–70 °C and, thus, the aluminium compounds can be removed from the process.

In this process, caustic soda flows in a circuit and is fed with ground bauxite and then heated up to digestion temperature. The alumina compound of the bauxite dissolves at these elevated temperatures and pressures in the digesters. Afterwards, the undissolved material from the bauxite, i.e. the red mud, is removed from the process by means of thickeners and/or filters. The supersaturated liquor is then cooled down in the presence of fine particles of aluminium oxide trihydrate to induce crystallisation. The aluminium oxide trihydrate (also called aluminium hydroxide) crystallises in the precipitation area and can be removed by filters from the Bayer circuit. A solution of sodium hydroxide is used to dissolve more bauxite and the circuit starts again. In a last process step, the aluminium hydroxide is converted to alumina by calcination.

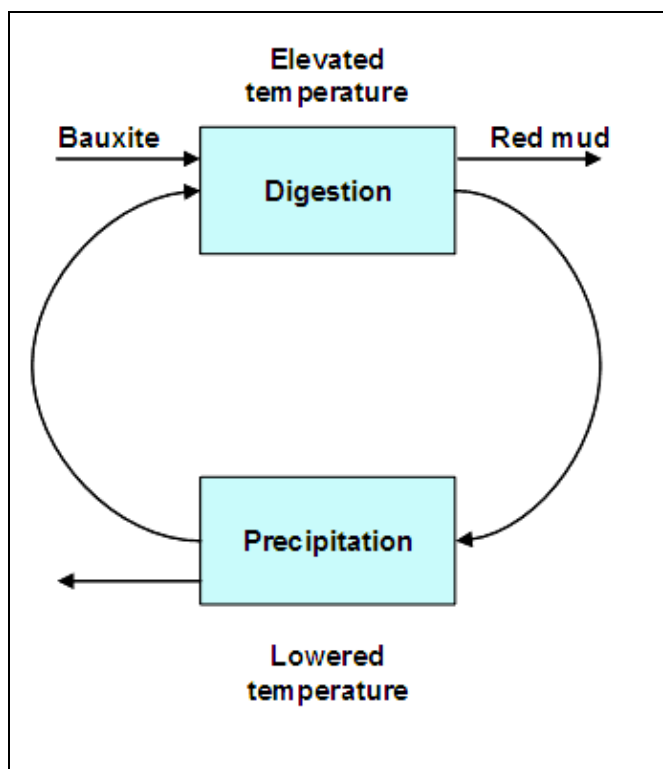


Figure 4.1: General principle of the Bayer process

Although the basic process is standard across the industry, there are variations in the conditions and equipment used, in particular the digesters and calciners. These variations mainly affect the energy used in the process [75, Nordheim, E. 1998].

Digestion

First of all the bauxite is ground in order to make it pumpable and to increase the surface for extraction. The bauxite is ground in ball or rod mills or a combination of both, and caustic soda (liquor) is added. The resultant slurry is then usually stored in slurry tanks. The digesters are fed with this bauxite slurry and additional liquor in order to achieve optimum dissolution properties.

The bauxite slurry is heated up to digestion temperature, which varies from 100 °C to 320 °C depending on the bauxite quality, at which the aluminium compound dissolves. The hot slurry is cooled down in flash tanks. The evaporated steam is used to preheat the bauxite slurry and, thus, heat is recovered. In order to achieve to the final digestion temperature, primary energy is used, either indirectly or directly by the injection of live steam. The condensate is used for various washing purposes, e.g. to remove the soluble caustic from the bauxite residues and aluminium hydroxide.

Due to the reaction taking place during the digestion of soda and silica compounds present in the bauxite, sodalite precipitates and is removed from the process with the bauxite residue. The amount of sodalite depends on the silica content of the bauxite, on the form of the silica and on the extraction conditions. Also, depending on the bauxite quality, lime is added in order to remove vanadium and phosphate from the liquor and to improve the extraction yield.

Red mud or bauxite residue removal

(See also the reference document on the Management of Tailings and Waste-Rock in Mining Activities [332, COM 2009]). Bauxite residue, usually known as red mud, is the remaining solid material after the extraction of the bauxite and it does not dissolve in the liquor. It is removed from the process liquors by means of thickeners. With these thickeners, the flow velocity of the liquor is reduced and the solid residue settles out. Some refineries separate the coarse particles of the residue, known as sand, prior to the thickeners, therefore avoiding erosion in the subsequent stages. This sand is frequently used for road construction within the site.

The separated residue is then washed with condensate, which flows in a countercurrent direction through a washer train. Before each washer, the slurry from the previous washer and the overflow from the subsequent washer are mixed and settle out in the washer. In this way the alkali concentration is reduced in each stage of washing. The more washers that are installed, the lower the final alkali concentration of the bauxite residue.

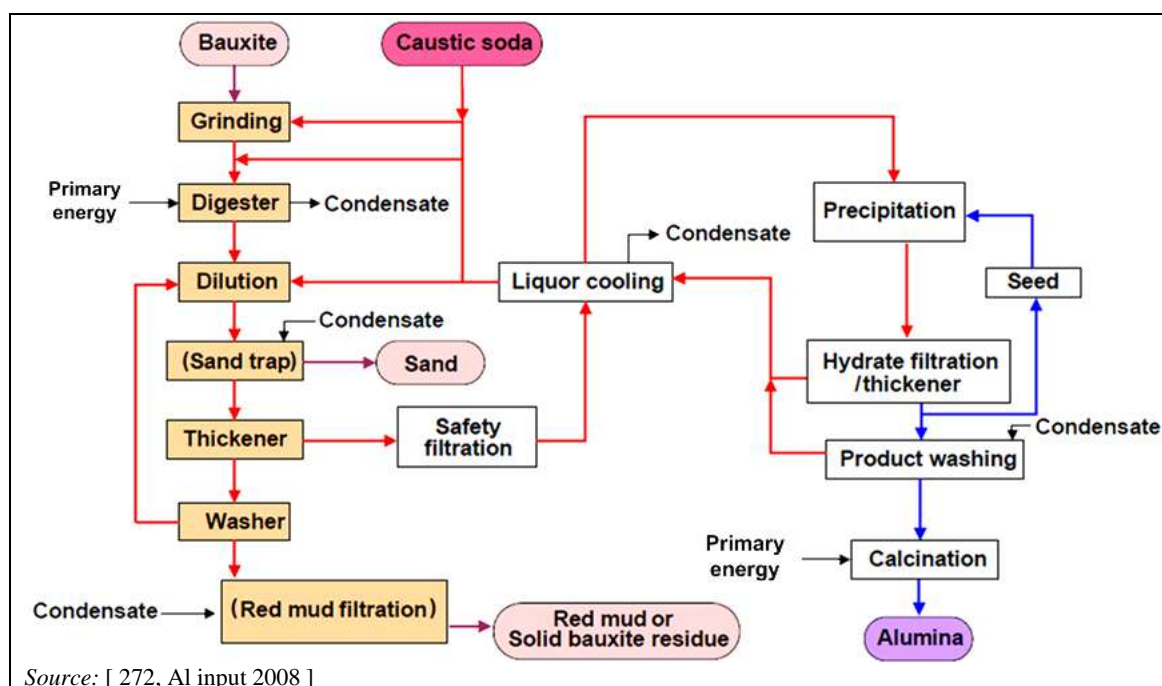
Improvements in thickener design using deep thickeners have enabled some plants to achieve better control of solid contents and alkali. In some refineries, the last step of recovering the alkali is a filtration stage (this is the most efficient way to aid alkali recovery and final residue dewatering), in which the residue is washed with condensate and the filter cake is stored in a specific disposal area. In this manner, the free alkali concentration can be reduced to a very low level. Either drum filters or plate and frame filters are used, occasionally sequentially. When a high-pressure filtration is used, the solid residue produced has a very low water content and can be stored as a solid or economically transported to be used in various other applications.

Precipitation and calcination

At first, the overflow of the settlers is filtered in order to remove the finest solid particles from the liquor. The liquor is then cooled down to the precipitation temperature and the precipitation is started by adding aluminium hydroxide as the seed. In some Bayer plants, the hydrate slurry flows through a tank cascade where hydrate is precipitated in each tank. At the end of the cascade, the solid hydrate is removed from the liquor by either filtration or thickeners. The separated hydrate is then washed with condensate and can afterwards be calcined. The solid-free liquor, after passing, in some cases, through an evaporation plant, is fed to the digestion area where it runs through the circuit again.

In the calcination stage, the hydrate is heated to temperatures of around 1000 °C. Under these conditions, the aluminium hydroxide is converted to alumina. This process can be carried out in circulating fluidised beds, and stationary or rotary calciners. Circulating fluidised bed calciners are used to make smelter-grade alumina (SGA). Rotary calciners are less energy-efficient than fluidised bed calciners and are generally operated at higher temperatures (1200–1300 °C) to produce an alumina with a higher α -aluminium² oxide content, which is required to produce speciality alumina. A smelter-grade alumina will typically have an α -aluminium oxide content of about 5 %, in comparison to a value of > 95 % for a rotary calcined speciality alumina. Either gas or oil can be used for calcination.

A typical process flow diagram for the Bayer process is shown in Figure 4.2, brackets indicate non-obligatory process steps.



Source: [272, Al input 2008]

Figure 4.2: The Bayer process

Impurities such as oxalate and carbonate from the process are usually removed in side-streams by various techniques. Both salts originate from the digestion stage and come from the organic and carbonate content of the bauxite; in addition, carbonates arise from reaction with carbon dioxide during the process. The salt is generated as a residue or a by-product. If alumina production is based on bauxite that contains high levels of vanadium, the salt can be further used to obtain vanadium pentoxide for the steel industry. This process may have a waste water problem, as the salt also contains arsenic that is transported into the leach liquor and then to the waste water.

4.1.2 Anodes for aluminium production

Carbon anodes produced for primary aluminium smelting are commonly produced on the same site as the smelter itself. In some cases though, they can be produced in stand-alone anode production plants. The production of anodes is similar to the production of carbon and/or graphite electrodes and shapes, but there are significant differences in the percentage of coal tar pitch, the baking temperature and gradient, and other process parameters. Also, anode plants include the recycling of anode butts. A brief comparison is shown in Table 4.1.

² Alpha phase is the most stable crystallographic form of aluminium oxide.

Table 4.1: Comparison of baking processes

Parameter	Anode production	Carbon electrode first baking stage
Baking temperature (°C)	800–1200	800–1100
Pitch content (%)	13–18	Up to 40
Heating gradient (°C/h)	10–14	1–2
Specific gas volume (m ³ /h per tonne produced per year)	5000	50–110
<i>Source: [318, Hagen et al. 2007]</i>		

The production of anodes for the primary aluminium industry is reported here. The production of carbon electrodes is reported in Chapter 10.

Processes use coke, pitch and cleaned anode butts to produce pastes, which are then formed into anode blocks. Raw material storage and handling stages use enclosed coke delivery and handling systems and integral dust filters. Coal tar pitch delivery and storage systems use tank back-venting and condensers for tank breathing when using liquid pitch and silos for solid pitch. In some cases, a catalytic thermal oxidiser (CTO) or regenerative thermal oxidiser (RTO) can be used to treat the gases. There are also other secondary raw materials used, which range from fine dusts to large single items. Secondary raw materials that contain water-soluble components, such as small amounts of fluorides from the recycled products, are stored under cover. Some secondary materials need to be pretreated by media and magnetic separation in order to remove ferrous contamination. Søderberg paste and prebaked anodes are formed and the latter are baked ready for use in appropriate facilities.

The basic process for green anode production is described in Figure 4.3.

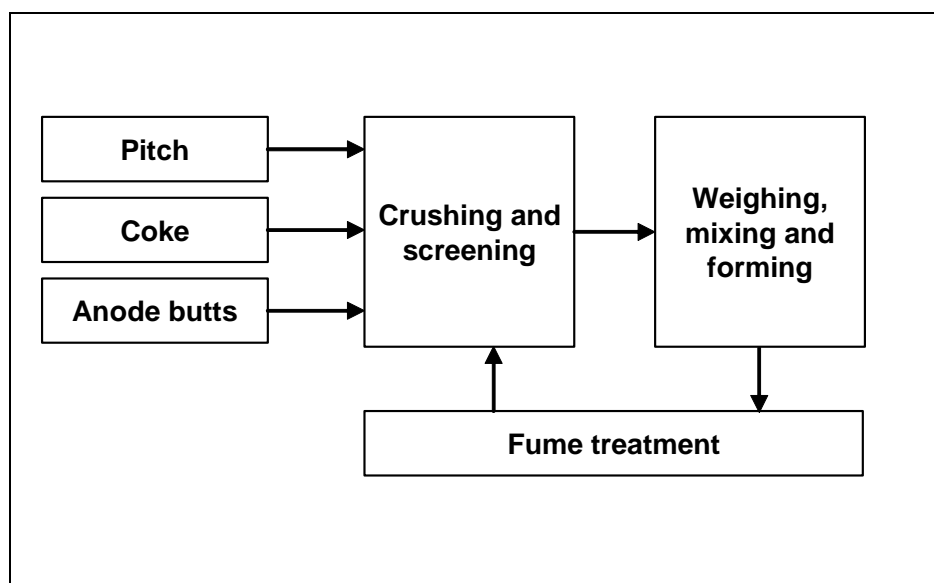


Figure 4.3: Production of green anodes

Production of green paste

Green paste production is the starting point for the production of all carbon anodes. All green pastes are manufactured from a mixture of calcined petroleum coke, cleaned and recycled anode butts, and coal tar pitch which acts as a binder. The petroleum cokes are a residue from the distillation of crude oils and may therefore be contaminated with substances like metals (e.g. nickel) and sulphur compounds.

Coke and solid pitch are normally transferred by sealed conveyors or dense phase pneumatic systems, and are stored in silos. Liquid pitch is transported in a molten state and is transferred

by pumping, and is stored in heated tanks. The tank ventilation gases contain hydrocarbon fume and are usually cleaned in the anode paste plant's pitch vapour treatment system (usually coke dry scrubbers, CTO/RTO, or a combination of these systems). Condensers or oil scrubbers are used [75, Nordheim, E. 1998] and back-venting of the tank gases is also used. Petroleum coke and anode butts are ground, preheated and then mixed with pitch in heated mixers. The ratio of coke to pitch is adjusted according to the application and to allow the paste to be handled and formed into blocks.

In the case of Söderberg paste, the blend is produced to allow it to be added to the anode shell. Dry anode paste (lower pitch content) is preferred, to minimise the amount of hydrocarbons released during use [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993]. Green shapes are formed by pressing the green paste in moulds to create 'briquettes' and are fed at the top of the anode, where the metallic stubs are used for the electrical connection.

Prebaked anodes

These anodes are manufactured from a mixture of petroleum coke and 13–18 % coal tar pitch and residual material from anode butts [75, Nordheim, E. 1998].

Anode production involves crushing, grinding, preheating and mixing of the raw materials. The mixed materials are then formed into green anodes, usually using a vibro-compactor. The green anodes are then baked in ring furnaces comprising a large number of pits which contain the anodes. Refractory brick walls separate the pits. Flue-gases are transferred from pit to pit through refractory bricks' built-in gas channels. Green anodes are stacked in the anode furnace in rows. Layers of packing coke separate the anodes and prevent oxidation. This coke is partially consumed during the heating and cooling cycle at a rate of 12–18 kg per tonne of anode and the remaining coke is reused. At any one time, pits in separate sections of the furnace are being filled, heated, cooled or emptied [91, OSPARCOM 1992].

Hot air is passed through the ducts using movable gas-fired burners, and the anodes are baked at 1100 °C in the absence of air. The ducts are kept under negative pressure to contain the fumes. At the end of the heating cycle the ducts are then connected to blowers to cool the section. Hot air passing from the furnace section being cooled is then recycled through the burners or through other furnace sections to preheat that part of the system.

The layout of baking furnaces is illustrated in Figure 10.6.

Two types of furnace are used for anode baking: open and closed ring furnaces. Open furnaces use a horizontal duct, and closed furnaces use a vertical flue. Open furnaces account for more than 60 % of capacity and are used in new plants. The horizontal ducts of the open furnace are separate and parallel, which allows the heating cycle to be optimised for each duct and so reduces fuel consumption [91, OSPARCOM 1992]. The use of multiple chambers in the furnace allows heat from one section to be used in other sections.

During the baking process, the coal tar pitch is converted into coke, making the material electrically conductive. There is approximately a 5–10 % loss in weight during baking [75, Nordheim, E. 1998] and the baking process takes approximately 14 to 21 days.

In the most common case, anode production taking place at the site of a primary smelter, alumina is used in a dedicated fume treatment centre to clean the fumes by the adsorption of PAH, fluorides from the anode butts, and some VOCs. These techniques are described in Section 4.3.2.3.

In a few rare cases, furnace fumes are combined with the gases from the potline to be scrubbed by alumina in a common gas and fume treatment centre.

Regenerative afterburners (or regenerative thermal oxidisers) are the preferred option for stand-alone anode production plants to treat gases from the baking furnaces. The techniques are described in Section 4.3.2.3.

Flow diagrams of the three possibilities described above are shown in Figure 4.4.

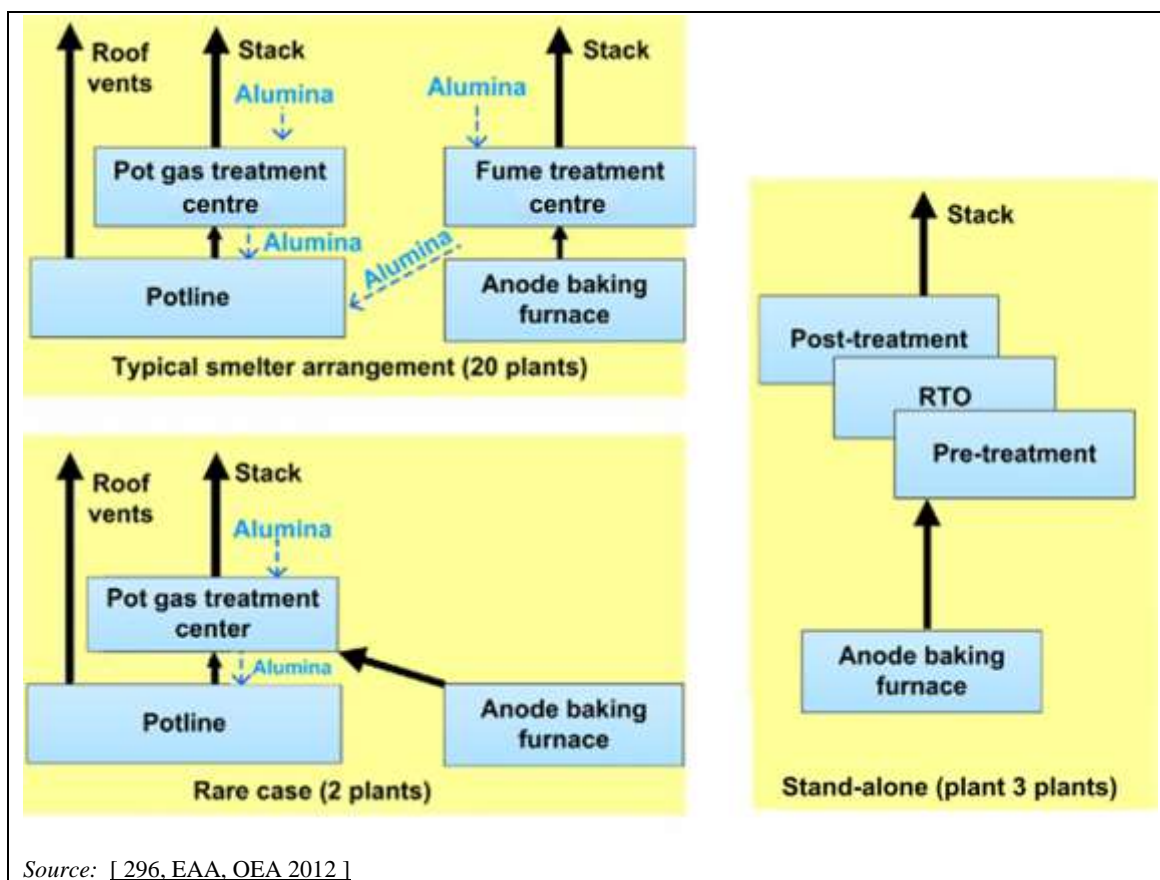


Figure 4.4: Anode baking furnace configurations and approximated number of plants

Once cooled down, the anodes are unloaded from the furnaces and stored. When needed they are taken to the rodding plant, where they are connected to aluminium rods through steel studs. This process allows the rodded anodes (anode assemblies) to be hung onto the anode beams of the electrolytic cells. The anodes are consumed during electrolysis and have to be replaced after about 80 % of the anode is consumed. The remaining part of the anode is called the 'anode butt'. [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [28, OSPARCOM 1997]. The butts (20 % of the original anode weight) are reused for anode production after residual electrolyte has been removed. The rods are reconditioned for further use although a small proportion are scrapped if corroded.

The residual electrolyte from the cleaning of the butts is cooled down, then crushed in dedicated bath recycling units and finally recycled to the electrolytic cells.

4.1.3 Primary aluminium

Primary aluminium is produced from aluminium oxide (alumina), [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [312, VDI 2008] in a two-stage process starting from bauxite.

- Stage one: the production of alumina from bauxite.
- Stage two: the production of primary aluminium from alumina, usually at a different site to the site carrying out stage one production, mainly for logistical reasons and the availability of electricity.

Some aluminas, known as speciality aluminas, do not go through the second stage process if they are mostly intended for metal production.

Aluminium is produced by the electrolytic reduction of aluminium oxide (alumina) dissolved in a molten bath of mainly sodium aluminium fluoride (cryolite) at a temperature of approximately 960 °C. The electrolytic cells (also known as 'pots') each comprise a carbon cathode, insulated by refractory bricks inside a rectangular steel shell, and carbon anodes suspended from an electrically conductive anode beam [312, VDI 2008]. In the pot room, the cells are connected in series to form an electrical reduction line (cell line or potline). A direct current is passed from the carbon anodes through the bath and a layer of metal to the cathode and then, by a set of current conductors known as 'busbars', to the next cell [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

Alumina is added to the cells to maintain an alumina content of 2–6 % in the molten bath. Additions are computer-controlled in modern plants. Fluoride compounds are added to lower the bath melting point, enabling the cells to be operated at a lower temperature. Aluminium fluoride (AlF_3), the most common additive, also neutralises the sodium oxide present as an impurity in the alumina feed. Aluminium fluoride can be added separately from alumina, and additions can be controlled based on an algorithm of the cell flow pattern [233, COM 2008]. Most cells are now operated with the AlF_3 content of the bath significantly in excess of the stoichiometric cryolite composition. However, fluoride emissions increase as the excess AlF_3 in the bath is increased [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. When the alumina content of the electrolyte falls below 1–2 %, the so-called anode effect occurs. During an anode effect, instead of decomposing alumina, the cryolite bath is decomposed into metal and fluoride ions that react with the anode carbon and form gaseous PFC emissions.

Liquid aluminium is deposited on the cathode at the bottom of the cell. Molten aluminium is periodically withdrawn from the cells by vacuum siphons into crucibles. During electrolysis, oxygen from the alumina combines with the carbon anode, to form carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide. The carbon anodes are therefore continuously consumed during the process.

Cell systems vary according to the type of anode and the method used to feed alumina, as illustrated in Figure 4.5 [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [16, HMIP (UK) 1994] [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. There are two main types of electrolytic cells, Søderberg and prebaked. In a Søderberg cell, there is only one continuous anode, regenerated through the addition of carbon materials at the top while it is consumed at the bottom; in a prebaked cell, a number of anodes need to be changed when they are approximately 80 % consumed.

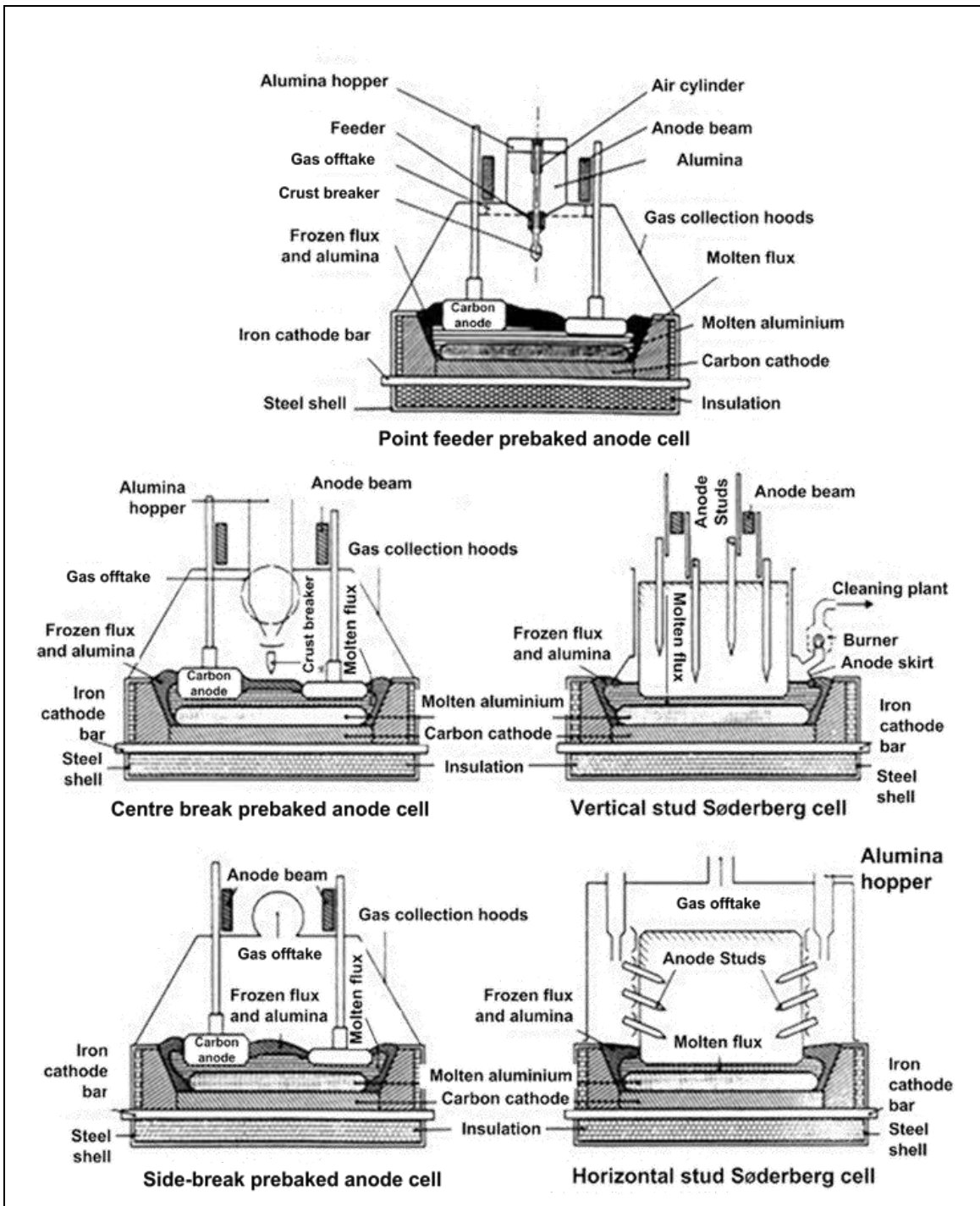


Figure 4.5: Primary aluminium electrolytic cells

a) Søderberg cells

Søderberg technology uses a continuous anode which is made *in situ* from a paste of calcined petroleum coke and coal tar pitch, and is baked by the heat arising from the molten bath and the electric current through the anode. The current is fed into the Søderberg anode through studs that have to be withdrawn and resited higher in the anode as the anode is consumed. As this happens, more paste descends through the anode shell, thus providing a process that does not require the anodes to be changed. Alumina is added periodically to Søderberg cells through holes made by breaking the crust of alumina and frozen electrolyte which covers the molten bath. Automatic point feeding systems are used in upgraded plants, eliminating the need for regular breaking of the crust. A gas skirt is attached to the lower part of the anode casing for gas

collection. Fumes are collected and combusted in burners to reduce the emission of tars and PAH. Pot room ventilation gases may also be collected and treated.

Modernised Söderberg technology consists of equipping the cells with point feeders, improved burners and dry paste. Point feeding the alumina avoids the need for the regular crust-breaking that was necessary in the former technology and subsequently reduces the fluoride and dust emissions associated with these operations. The use of dry paste with a lower pitch content, together with a reduction in the temperature at the anode top, achieved by an increase of the anode height, reduces PAH emissions from the anode top. PAH emissions can be absorbed by the dry paste in the higher anode casing or, when necessary (i.e. with high current density and high anode temperature), collected by anode covers [365, Karuppanan et al. 2002].

b) Prebaked cells

Prebake technology uses multiple anodes, which are manufactured from a mixture of calcined petroleum coke, clean and recycled anode butts and coal tar pitch. Anodes are formed into blocks and baked in a separate anode plant. The anode production plant is often integrated into the primary aluminium plant.

The anodes are suspended in the cells by hanger rods attached to anode beams, which also serve as the electrical conductor. The anodes are gradually lowered as they are consumed and are replaced before the rods are attacked by the molten bath. The remnants of the anodes, which are known as anode butts, are cleaned of bath material and recycled through the anode plant.

Prebaked cells normally have 12 to 40 individual anodes, which are changed at regular intervals. In a large pot room, anode changing is a frequent occurrence and involves the removal of the cell cover shields, known as 'hoods'. This can result in an increase in diffuse emissions if several hoods are removed at the same time. However, there is usually little leakage from the cell being maintained (depending on the rating of the extraction system), and the overall extraction rate from other cells is not reduced. In some plants, an automatic system to increase the rate of air extraction is used for periods when hoods are open.

Prebaked cells can be one of three types depending on how alumina is added.

- **Side-worked prebaked anode cells (SWPB)**, where alumina is fed into the cells after the crust is broken around the circumference between the pot-shell and the anodic equipment. Gas collection hoods covering the entire length of the cells have to be opened during this operation. In some cases, gas collection funnels in the centre channel or between anodes, known as 'mini-hoods', are used instead.
- **Centre-worked prebaked anode cells (CWPB)**, where alumina is fed in after the crust is broken along the centre line
- **Point feed prebaked anode cells (PFPB)**, where alumina is fed in after the crust is broken at selected points on the centre line of the cell.

Both CWPB and PFPB can be carried out without opening the gas collection hoods. PFPB are the most commonly used and allow better control of the process. Indeed, there are no longer any CWPB or SWPB plants in operation in Europe (2013).

An overview of aluminium smelting technologies is given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Aluminium smelting categories

Cell technology	Cell type	Anode configuration	Alumina feed configuration	Acronym	Breakdown in Europe
Prebaked cell	Centre-worked	Vertical	Bar broken centre feed	CWPB (*)	None
		Vertical	Point centre feed	PFPB	90 %
	Side-worked	Vertical	Manual side feed	SWPB (*)	None
Söderberg cell	Vertical stud	Vertical	Manual side feed	SWVSS (*)	None
			Point feed	PFVSS	10 %
	Horizontal stud	Horizontal	Manual side feed	HSS (*)	None
			Bar broken feed		
			Point feed		
(*) No longer in operation in Europe. Source: [366, International Aluminium Institute 2013]					

The gas collection system extracts the process gases to an abatement system that uses dry alumina scrubbers to remove and reclaim HF and fluorides. The scrubber also removes residual tars in the case of a Söderberg installation, but does not remove sulphur dioxide. The fluorinated alumina leaving the scrubbers is separated from the gas flow through filters and is usually fed directly back to the cells. As hooding and gas treatment efficiencies are high in modern plants, pot room ventilation gases are most commonly released through roof vents. The collection and treatment in a wet scrubber of pot room ventilation gases may be done if the pot room concentration of pollutants is high [312, VDI 2008].

The cathode is not consumed in the process but it does deteriorate over time. Carbon blocks absorb electrolyte and after four to eight years have to be replaced due to erosion, swelling and cracking, which can result in the penetration of molten electrolyte and aluminium to the cathode conductor bar and steel shell. Small amounts of cyanides are formed through a reaction between nitrogen and carbon. The cathode residue is known as spent pot lining and several disposal and recycling routes are used for this material [41, Ausmelt Ltd. 1996], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998] and these are described in Section 4.2.3.4.

Molten aluminium is periodically withdrawn from the cells by vacuum siphon into crucibles. The crucibles with the siphoned aluminium from the reduction cells are transported to the casting plant and the aluminium is emptied into heated holding furnaces.

4.1.3.1 Melting and molten metal treatment

Liquid metal from electrolysis is kept in induction or reverberatory holding furnaces. Reverberatory holding furnaces may be equipped with regenerative burners in order to preheat combustion air and so save energy. Alloying additions are made in these furnaces by the addition of the required metal (Si, Mg, Pb, Sn, Zn, Cu, Zr, Sr) or master alloy of the metal with aluminium (Ti, Cr, Fe, Mn, Ni). Other additions are also made to refine the grain of the metal; titanium or titanium boride are the most common. Homogenisation can be achieved by moving the melt with the help of stirrers or stirring machines. Electromagnetic or mechanical liquid metal pumps may also be used to achieve melt circulation and improve homogenisation of the alloyed metal in reverberatory furnaces.

The temperature for casting is controlled in the holding furnaces.

The metal is treated to remove metallic impurities such as sodium, magnesium and calcium, and non-metallic particles and hydrogen. This treatment is performed in two stages: in the first

stage, fluxing salts consisting of aluminium fluoride, magnesium chloride or potassium chloride are added to the furnace to remove metallic impurities and, in the second stage, gas is injected into the molten metal usually in an in-line reactor. The treatment gas used varies depending on the impurities; argon or nitrogen is used to remove hydrogen while mixtures of chlorine and argon or nitrogen are used to remove metallic impurities of the alkali and alkaline earth group. The metal is then filtered before casting.

Primary aluminium sites melt commercial metal and scrap. The scrap melted in these sites includes internal company scrap from extrusion and rolling without substances such as paint or plastic (including customer returns without paint or plastic and scrap from sites belonging to the same company), and scrap bought on the market that does not contain substances such as paint, plastic or oil. This scrap can be melted in two ways: either in the furnace before adding liquid metal from electrolysis or by adding it to a furnace that already contains liquid metal.

Skimmings/dross are formed by the reaction products of the purging treatment and the oxidation of molten aluminium on the surface of the melt. This dross is skimmed off. Sealed containers or dross presses, nitrogen or argon blanketing or compaction can be used to minimise further oxidation of the skimmings/dross [103, COM 1998]. Throughout this chapter, the terms skimmings and dross are used interchangeably. Both are either processed locally to recover aluminium or recycled by the secondary aluminium industry. The residue left after recovering the aluminium from the dross or skimmings from primary casthouses is normally landfilled.

4.1.3.2 Casting

Slabs, T-bars or billets are cast in vertical direct-chill casting machines that use water-cooled metal moulds and a holding table at the bottom of the moulds. The table is lowered as the ingot is formed. Billets and slabs with smaller cross sections can also be produced by horizontal direct-chill casting. Other casting methods include the use of metal moulds (static or continuously moving) and the continuous casting of thin sheets as well as wire rod, [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993]. Additional small quantities of skimmings/dross are also produced at this stage and are removed from the surface of the molten metal.

4.1.4 Secondary aluminium

Secondary aluminium is produced from the scrap melting. Two main features of secondary aluminium production are the diversity of raw materials encountered and correspondingly the variety of furnaces used [113, ALFED 1998]. Scrap is graded using a number of criteria such as source, impurities and metal yield under the EU standard EN 13920. Other categorisations also exist, such as Council Regulation (EU) No 333/2011, and national or industry specifications, which have their own criteria for grading. The type of raw material and its pretreatment are used to decide the most appropriate type of furnace, flux and abatement systems to be used for a particular type of scrap, based on its size, oxide content and degree of contamination, among other factors [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [312, VDI 2008].

4.1.4.1 Production processes

The metals are first sorted into cast alloys and wrought alloys. The majority of wrought alloy scrap is remelted in chamber or hearth furnaces. The cast alloys are mostly remelted in (sometimes tiltable) rotary drum furnaces. The choice of suitable treatment processes, furnace type and other necessary process steps (holding, alloying, melt treatment) depends primarily on the type and composition of the raw materials employed and on the product quality required. Direct comparisons between the performances of different smelters, for instance, are not helpful, as the processes are optimised for their specific application. However, industrial experience has yielded typical fields of application that permit the practical selection of smelters

for the specific application. Typical process steps include pretreatment, charging, melting, skimming, holding, treating the molten metal, and casting. As a result, the process parameters of relevance to the plant's emissions (e.g. waste gas temperature, raw gas contamination) are subject to strong fluctuations. The comparability of data is also hampered by different measuring locations.

Salt slags arise when salt mixtures are used to cover the molten metal to prevent oxidation, increase yield and increase thermal efficiency. These slags are generally produced in rotary furnaces and have an adverse environmental impact if they are deposited on land. The quantity of salt slag produced varies considerably and is dependent on the type of material, the furnace and the degree of contamination of the aluminium, etc. There are options available for salt-free melting in some furnaces using many types of feed materials and there are options for recycling all of the components of salt slag] [312, VDI 2008].

The choice of the process technique used will vary from plant to plant. The number of factors that influence the choice of process means that there is the potential for many viable strategies which can address similar circumstances. The generic secondary aluminium production process is shown in Figure 4.6.

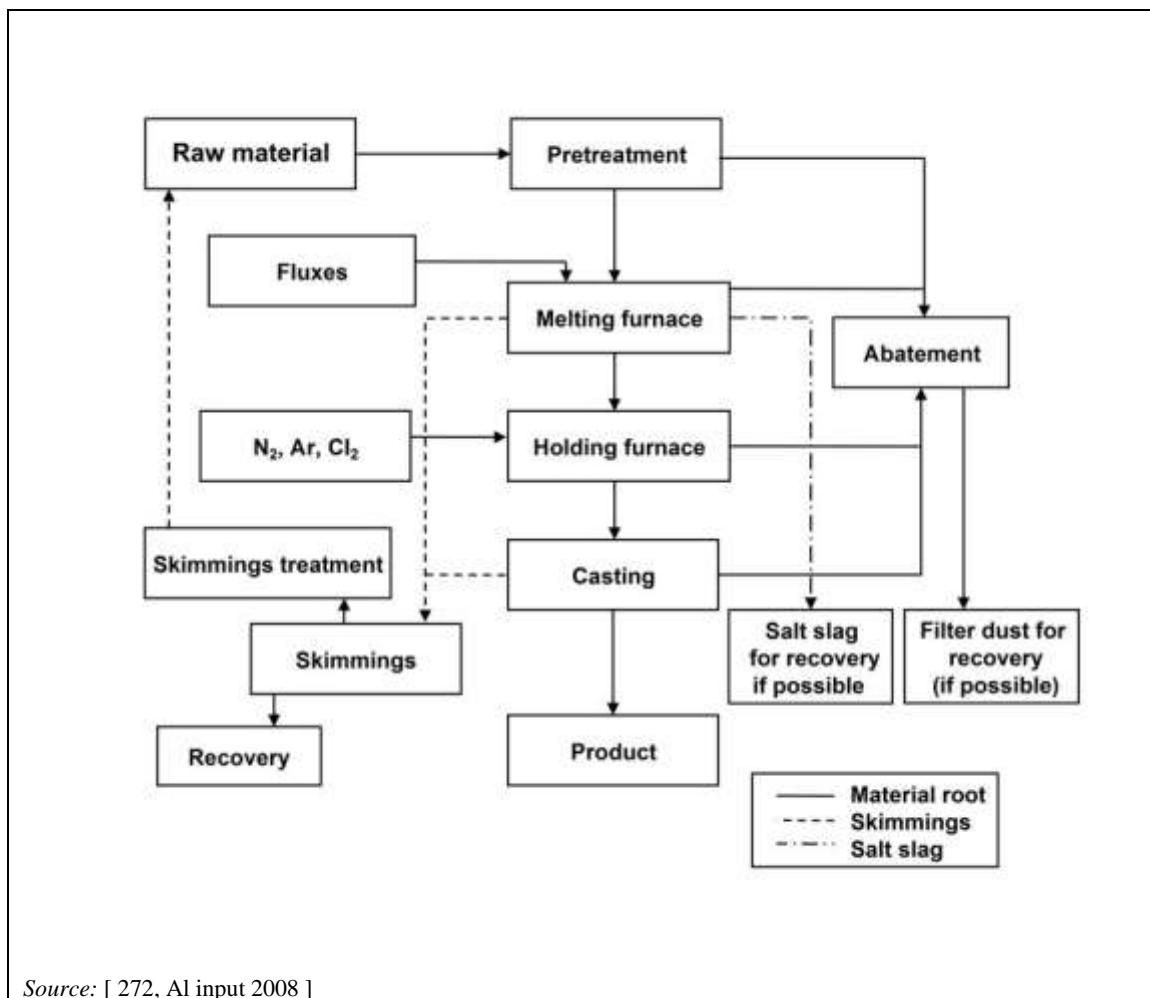


Figure 4.6: Generic secondary aluminium production process

4.1.4.1.1 Pretreatment

Typical sources of aluminium scrap are process scrap, used beverage cans (UBCs), foils, extrusions, commercial scraps, turnings, and old rolled or cast metal. In addition, aluminium is also recovered from skimmings/dross and salt slags. Various contaminants may be present and

this is taken into account in the choice of pretreatment or in the design of the furnace [75, Nordheim, E. 1998]. Scrap is generally sorted first into alloy types for producing the desired alloy with the minimum amount of reprocessing [113, ALFED 1998] [118, Laheye, R. et al. 1998].

Scraps such as UBCs and turnings are major sources of material feedstock, but may be contaminated. As a consequence, they sometimes need to be decoated or de-oiled prior to melting, to improve their melting rate (and thermal efficiency) and to reduce the potential for emissions [118, Laheye, R. et al. 1998], [119, McLellan 1998]. The melting of cleaned material can save energy and reduce the generation of skimmings/dross.

4.1.4.1.2 Melting process

The ranges of typical furnace, process and emission parameters (raw gas) of various aluminium melting plants are shown in Table 4.28 [312, VDI 2008].

Rotary or reverberatory furnaces (also known as closed well, chamber or hearth furnaces) are used for melting a wide range of secondary raw materials. Rotary furnaces can incorporate a tilting mechanism. The tilting mechanism in some cases allows increases in efficiency for melting raw materials that contain low amounts of aluminium including skimmings/dross, and the amount of flux needed for these materials can also be reduced, [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [256, Winter 2007]. Induction furnaces and shaft furnaces (the Meltower) are used to melt cleaner aluminium grades. Reverberatory furnaces often include a side well. A pumping system (mechanical or electromagnetic) is sometimes used to convey molten metal through the side well and a charging well to assist the melting of small particles.

Electromagnetic pumps have no moving parts and rely on an external coil to induce the electromagnetic force; stirring is induced in the charging well and in the furnace. Other pumps, which have heat-resistant internal parts and metal 'spinners' are also used [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998].

The use of a side well reverberatory or chamber furnace with a charging well and pumping system can increase the number of grades of scrap, including foil and small turnings, that can be melted in these furnaces. It can also reduce the loss of metal by oxidation without using large quantities of salt or another cover [118, Laheye, R. et al. 1998] [119, McLellan 1998], [120, McLellan 1998].

Reverberatory furnaces (closed well, chamber or hearth furnaces) may also use a sloping hearth in the metal feed area, where items containing large pieces of iron can be placed. Aluminium is melted off the iron substrate, which remains in the hearth. Contamination of the melt by iron is therefore minimised [75, Nordheim, E. 1998], [113, ALFED 1998].

A range of different fluxes, which are normally mixtures of salts, is used within the secondary aluminium industry to assist in the processing of the metal in a number of ways. An example is the use of fused salt (a mixture of sodium and potassium chlorides and some fluorides) to reduce oxidation, absorb impurities and increase thermal efficiency. Furnace gases contain chlorides and hydrogen chloride produced from the salt. Refractory fluxes and fluorinated fluxes are also used. Salt slag is tapped separately from the metal. There are variations in the quantity of salt flux cover used and this depends on the furnace used and the oxide content of the raw material. Pretreatment of the feed material can reduce the salt usage. It has also been reported that up to 1.1 kg of salt per kg of non-metallic constituents is used for a static rotary furnace, and < 0.5 kg per kg for a tilting rotary furnace [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [312, VDI 2008].

4.1.4.1.3 Molten metal treatment and casting process

Metal may be tapped from the melting furnace, where alloy additions are made either directly to a casting system or via a transfer system into a holding furnace (where other alloying additions can be made). The metal is then refined either in the holding furnace or in an in-line reactor, to remove gases and other metals. Magnesium and other impurities can be present in secondary aluminium and may also need to be reduced. To remove magnesium, molten aluminium is treated with chlorine gas mixtures; sodium aluminium fluoride and potassium aluminium fluoride are also used [113, ALFED 1998]. The latter material is a by-product of the production of some master alloys.

Aluminium is easily oxidised and this is a significant factor in the production processes. The melting of aluminium produces an oxide layer known as skimmings/dross. This is skimmed from the metal surface before casting.

Large ingots, billets and slabs are cast in the same way as described for primary aluminium casting in Section 4.1.3.2. Moulds are used to cast a range of smaller ingots (e.g. for supplying the casting industry), which may be produced in a large variety of alloys depending on the final application. Casting alloys may also be tapped into preheated crucibles, and may be used to transport molten aluminium by road in special thermally insulated containers to end-users.

4.1.5 Salt slag

In secondary aluminium production, rotary or tilting rotary furnaces [256, Winter 2007] are used to melt various grades of scraps and also skimmings/dross. Salt flux is usually used to facilitate this process, as it reduces oxidation and promotes the removal of some impurities (e.g. Mg, Ca, Li). The used salt flux tapped from the furnace is called salt slag. At the time of writing (2014), one million tonnes of salt slag are generated and treated in the EU-28 every year.

Proprietary salt flux is a mixture of NaCl, KCl and a minor amount of calcium fluoride (CaF₂). Some other fluoride may also be added, up to 5 %. The salt slag contains large amounts of aluminium oxides and various impurities that the flux has separated from the molten metal. A total of 4–10 % of the total weight of salt slag is metallic aluminium (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Typical composition of the salt slag

Contents	Typical value (%)	Range (%)
Al, metallic	6	4–10
Water-soluble salts	37	20–55
Metal oxides, unrecovered metal and insoluble salts	55	35–75

Several installations exist where salt slag can be recovered using a washing and crystallisation process, which separates the components in salt slag based on their own different physical characteristics. There is sufficient capacity to recover salt slag from the secondary aluminium industry operating in the EU-28. The process produces recycled aluminium granules and salt. The metal oxide fraction (mainly oxides of aluminium, calcium and magnesium) can be further processed and washed to produce fine aluminium oxide, which can be sold to the cement industry [359, Tsakiridis 2012].

4.1.5.1 Salt slag recovery

Salt slag can be completely recovered to produce marketable products without producing any residues except for some activated carbon (if used at all). Two types of recovery processes exist: the full recycling process and the partial recycling process. In the full recycling process, all the components in salt slag are completely recovered and there is no generation of waste water. There are three partial recycling processes in operation.

- One is part of a fertiliser production plant that only recovers KCl and aluminium granules, while other components (sodium chloride and oxides) are used for recultivation of potash tailings piles. The process principally uses the same main steps as the full recycling process (mechanical pretreatment, leaching with waste gas treatment, solid-liquid separation, and crystallisation). In this case, only the KCl content (10–20 % in typical salt slag) is recycled as salt product. After further processing in an internal salt-refining step of the potash plant, it is sold to the fertiliser industry. The water-soluble NaCl content (20–40 % in typical salt slag) remains in the leaching [360, Germany 2013]. Waste water can be generated by gas cleaning.
- In another partial recycling process, besides the recovery of salt, all process steps are similar to full recycling [233, COM 2008]. The process water and waste water from the gas-cleaning treatment filter is directed to an old mine system that ends in an outlet to the sea. In this mine system, the remaining particles are sedimented to the ground. The calculated retention time for the process water going to the mine before entering the sea outlet is two years.
- In the third one, the aluminium and the other metallic products are recovered through electromagnetic and mechanical processing and the residues are disposed of [361, Spain 2013].

The full recycling process is a combination of different physico-chemical process steps for the recovery of aluminium salt slag. In each process step, the three main salt slag components used to separate the material fractions are:

- metallic aluminium (4–10 % in typical salt slag), which is insoluble in water; during crushing, the ductile nature of aluminium means that small particles are pressed into flakes with a larger surface area which can be removed by sieving;
- oxidic components (35–75 % dry solids in typical salt slags), which are insoluble in water and are brittle; crushing tends to break them into finer particles;
- alkaline chlorides (20–55 % in typical salt slag), which are highly soluble in water and are also brittle.

It is also technically possible to recover dust produced during the pretreatment processes of the aluminium slags and scrap, as well as the dust from the filtration of the furnaces, and this is already being carried out in some plants. This shows that all the solid wastes generated by the secondary aluminium industry can be recycled. Washing water is normally returned to the dissolvers to make up for the water evaporated in the process. The typical contents of the insoluble, non-metallic portion of salt slag are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Typical contents of the insoluble non-metallic portion of salt slag

Component	wt-% ⁽¹⁾	Component	wt-% ⁽¹⁾
Al ₂ O ₃	60–75	TiO ₂	0.5–1.5
MgO	3–14	MnO	< 0.3
SiO ₂	3–12	Na ₂ O	< 1.0
CaO	1.5–5	K ₂ O	< 1.2
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.5–3.0	Cl ⁻	< 0.8
Bound water	7–16		
⁽¹⁾ Refers to dry substances. Source: [272, Al input 2008]			

4.2 Current emission and consumption levels

4.2.1 Alumina

The material and energy inputs to the process are significant. Approximately two tonnes of bauxite are required to produce one tonne of alumina, which in turn produces about 0.53 tonnes of aluminium. The carbon anodes are consumed and approximately 0.4–0.45 tonnes of carbon are used per tonne of aluminium produced. The energy costs are also high and can account for approximately 30 % of the production costs. Input ranges for alumina production are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Input ranges for alumina production

Parameter	Typical range (kg/t of alumina)
Bauxite	2065–2275
NaOH (50 %)	30–70
CaO	30–80
Water	1000–5000
Energy (GJ/t)	7.6–11.7
<i>Source: [272, Al input 2008]</i>	

The production of alumina requires energy for digestion and calcination. The energy used is influenced mainly by the origin and chemical composition of the bauxite, the type of digesters used and the type of calciners used. The quantities of NaOH and CaO used are also linked to the composition of the bauxite.

The reduction of energy demand is mainly related to using tube digesters, which are able to operate at higher temperatures using a fused salt heat transfer medium and which enable plants to operate with an energy consumption of less than 10 GJ per tonne. However, tube digesters are virtually impossible for existing plants for both cost and space reasons.

4.2.1.1 Emissions to air from alumina production

The calcining of bauxite generates dust, SO₂, CO₂ and NO_x emissions. The abatement technique applied is a bag filter or ESP.

4.2.1.2 Red mud

One major output of the Bayer process is 'red mud', which is the remaining solid material after the extraction of the bauxite and which does not dissolve in the liquor. The specific amount and composition of the red mud depends strongly on the bauxite quality. The quantity produced varies between 600 kg per tonne of Al₂O₃ and 1500 kg per tonne of Al₂O₃ and, therefore, this represents a major disposal requirement. Current practice is to deposit red mud on or near the site in specially designed, sealed ponds. Excess water from the ponds is normally returned to the process.

Some refineries use high-pressure filtration as a last step for red mud treatment. The output from this operation is a solid bauxite residue, which can be easily and safely transported over long distances and which can be used in various applications, such as in the cement industry for the production of clinker, in the ceramic industry as an alternative raw material, or in road construction. [247, France 2008]. The production of saleable products from this process is reported in Section 4.4.

At one site, the red mud is resuspended to 20–25 % solids using fresh seawater and free water from the tailings pond and is then pumped to the tailings pond. The neutralisation of the mud is performed by the flue-gas desulphurisation in the wet scrubbing operation and also takes place due to the magnesium chloride content of the fresh seawater which is added to the system [295, Gaver C. Jr 2013]

Despite repeated washes, the solution entrained within the red mud still contains small amounts of caustic (sodium hydroxide), which causes the elevated pH, and alumina. Most of the caustic converts to sodium carbonate and sodium bicarbonate on the tailings stack.

4.2.1.3 Emissions to water

The production of alumina from bauxite is carried out in a closed system to eliminate emissions to water. Water that is contained in the red mud or that is used to transport the red mud to the disposal site is highly alkaline and is pumped back to the plant and reused. [75, Nordheim, E. 1998].

4.2.2 Anodes for aluminium production

The production of carbon anodes for aluminium production is primarily a source of dust and emissions to air. When abatement techniques are applied to reduce emissions, cross-media effects may occur. Sections 4.2.2.2 to 4.2.2.4 below describe the most relevant environmental issues for the production of carbon anodes for primary aluminium production.

4.2.2.1 Mass stream overview and input/output data

The energy used in anode production is 2000–2400 MJ per tonne of anode, which is accounted for by the fuel used. Packing coke is consumed at a rate of ~ 12–18 kg per tonne of anode. [116, VDI 1998]

4.2.2.2 Emissions to air from anode production

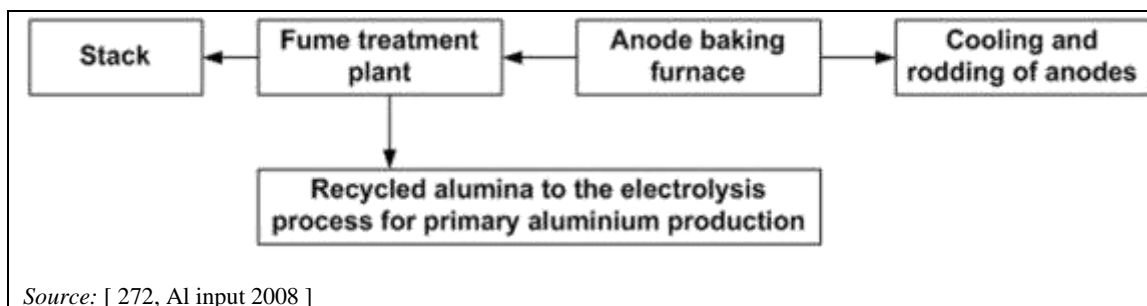
There are potential emissions to air of hydrocarbons and PAH, sulphur dioxide, dust, and fluorides (only if anode butts are used in the anode production). The formation of SO₂ is influenced by the fuel and raw materials used, whereas the formation of NO_x is determined by the combustion temperature.

Emissions can escape the process either as stack emissions or as diffuse emissions, depending on the age of the plant and the technology used. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically and reported by on-site staff or off-site consultants to the competent authorities. Provisions are made for fume treatment plants to be bypassed in the event of scrubber failure or during maintenance periods.

When a new anode plant is associated with a primary aluminium smelter, the process gases from the plant can be combined with the electrolytic cell gases for scrubbing processes using alumina. In an existing plant, the gases are treated separately in a dry scrubber using alumina. A bag filter is used and the alumina collected is used in the electrolytic cells. Dust from handling and mechanical processes such as grinding, mixing and forming is collected in fabric filters [75, Nordheim, E. 1998], [88, Nordheim, E. 1998], [272, Al input 2008]

When pitch vapours are present in the gas, dry coke scrubbers, CTOs or RTOs can be used.

The basic anode baking process and associated fume treatment for aluminium smelters producing primary aluminium by electrolysis are shown in Figure 4.7.



Source: [272, Al input 2008]

Figure 4.7: Anode baking process and fume treatment

Table 4.6 shows the untreated mass emissions from anode production when it is associated with a primary aluminium smelter.

Table 4.6: Raw gas from anode production in a plant associated with a primary aluminium smelter

Component	Raw gas content (kg/t of aluminium ⁽¹⁾)	Remarks
Fluorides (gaseous)	0.05–0.6	Emissions of solid fluoride are usually negligible
PAH	0.15–0.5	Estimated value based on a weight loss of about 5 % during baking
Hydrocarbons	25–40	
Dust	5–10	Estimated value

⁽¹⁾ For a process associated with primary aluminium production, with raw gas masses of various pollutants, and where captured emissions are treated in the same alumina scrubber/fabric filter that is used for the electrolysis gases.

Source: [272, Al input 2008]

Emissions for the various abatement systems employed are shown in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8.

Table 4.7: Emission concentration ranges for anode production processes

Source	Abatement type	Pollutant	Concentration range (mg/Nm ³)
Material storage and handling of coke	Cyclone	Dust	20–60
	Fabric filter	Dust	1–20
Material storage and handling of pitch	Pitch fume dry scrubber or CTO or RTO (if dust is not present) or Cooling and condenser	Hydrocarbons	< 25
Grinding, mixing and forming	Fabric filter	Dust	< 5
Baking	Open furnaces: Dry scrubbing with alumina and dust removal in a fabric filter	Dust	< 10
		HF	< 0.5
		Total F	< 0.8
		PAH (OSPAR 11)	0.2–0.5
	Closed furnaces: ESP and scrubber Regenerative thermal oxidiser (RTO) with HF adsorption	BaP	< 0.5 µg/Nm ³
		Dust	< 5
		Hydrocarbons	< 2 (total) ⁽¹⁾
		PAH	0.05–2.5 ⁽²⁾
		HF	< 5
		SO ₂	< 250
	NO _x	< 150	
⁽¹⁾ Condensable and volatile hydrocarbons. Can also be reported as TVOC, measured by FID with a limit of 50 mg/m ³ . ⁽²⁾ PAH sampling is carried out in accordance with BS ISO 11338 and the subsequent analysis reports 16 PAH. <i>Source:</i> [272, Al input 2008], [345, UBA (D) 2009]			

Table 4.8: Emission specific load ranges from the production of prebaked anodes

Component	Typical range
Fluoride (kg/t)	0.01–0.1
Dust (kg/t)	0.01–1.0
BaP (g/t)	0.0015–3.0
SO ₂ (kg/t)	0.1–6.0
NO _x (kg/t)	0.1–0.4
<i>Source:</i> [272, Al input 2008]	

4.2.2.2.1 VOCs, hydrocarbons and PAH

Paste for anodes is produced from petroleum coke, cleaned anode butts and coal tar pitch. Emissions of hydrocarbons as tars can occur during delivery, transfer, mixing and baking. About 40 % of the coal tar pitch is volatilised during baking and more than 95 % of the volatile hydrocarbons are burnt off at the high temperature in the furnace. Baking therefore results in the residual emission of hydrocarbons and PAH due to their presence in the coal tar pitch. PAH are potentially hazardous to the environment, as well as inside industrial plants. Emissions are therefore controlled by the various types of abatement equipment described. The preferred reporting convention for PAH is the EPA 16, as this is compatible with the PRTR reporting requirements. However, within the European aluminium industry, there is an increasing consensus for using BaP as a tracer for all other PAH, as this is compatible with the European legislation on ambient air quality.

4.2.2.2.2 Dust

During production, dust emissions occur during all process stages (storage, transfer, crushing, mixing and baking). The emissions are mainly caused by dust generated during crushing and from the carbonisation gases. The mechanical handling and treatment stages are usually enclosed and vented [116, VDI 1998]. The source of dust and its characteristics influence the abatement method used to remove it; carbon dust can be very fine and abrasive.

4.2.2.2.3 Combustion gases

Gases produced from the combustion of gas or fuel oil will be emitted from the process. These include potential emissions of carbon oxides and the oxides of sulphur and nitrogen. Optimisation of the combustion conditions and the use of low-NO_x burners are commonly practised, and the choice of fuel depends on the site conditions.

4.2.2.2.4 Sulphur dioxide

The raw materials from which the anodes are made contain sulphur, and the fuel used for heating can also contain sulphur. This results in a small emission of sulphur dioxide during baking [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993]. The emissions of SO₂ are in the range of 0.5 kg (gas) to 2 kg (fuel oil) per tonne of aluminium depending on the fuel used. This is far less than the emissions of sulphur dioxide produced during electrolysis as the anode is consumed.

4.2.2.2.5 Fluorides (anode production if anode butts are used)

Fluorides are emitted when anode butts from the aluminium electrolytic process are used in the blend for anode production. The anode butts are slightly contaminated with fluorides from the electrolyte. Emissions of particulate fluoride from anode baking plants are negligible. The HF emissions from the anode baking (if scrubbed) equal about 1 % of the emissions generated by aluminium electrolysis [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

4.2.2.2.6 PCDD/F

The latest information (up to 2009) for test results on emission sources and abatement units in this sector indicate that PCDD/F are not relevant for conventional carbon manufacturing processes. This will need to be examined if chlorine compounds or additives are used.

4.2.2.3 Emissions to water

The production of carbon anodes is an inherently dry process, although small quantities of water may be added to increase the homogeneous nature of the mix. The discharge of process waste water is usually limited to cooling water, although most processes use a sealed cooling system. Rainwater run-off from surfaces and roofs may contain carbon dust and associated material. The open storage of raw materials and deposited solid emissions are a source of potential contamination. Typical values for processes associated with primary aluminium production for this contamination are < 0.03 kg/tonne for suspended solids and < 0.02 kg/tonne for dissolved fluoride [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. Best practice is to use vacuum systems for material transfer and closed silos for storage, so that contamination of run-off water is reduced.

Indirect water systems can also be used to cool the flue-gases, to make them suitable for abatement with regular techniques (i.e. fabric filters, electrostatic precipitators). [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

4.2.2.4 Process residues

Refractory bricks from the baking furnaces can be reused in other applications after cleaning or can be disposed of as waste. The typical furnace lining life for prebaked anodes is about 100 cycles and this represents approximately 10 kg of bricks per tonne of anode produced.

Other residues include the material removed during the forming process together with tar or pitch fractions. Depending on the material, they are usually suitable for recycling within the process as raw materials or in other processes as a fuel or carburetant.

4.2.3 Primary aluminium

4.2.3.1 Mass stream overview and input/output data

Inputs and outputs from primary aluminium production are shown in Figure 4.8.

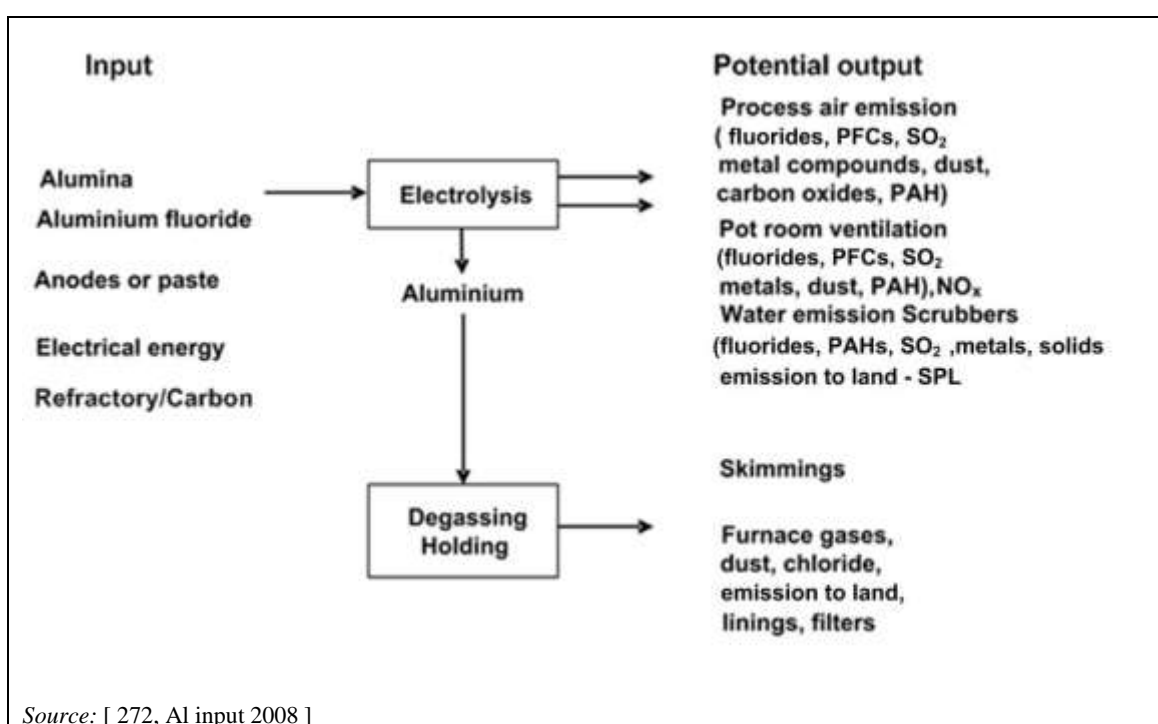


Figure 4.8: Input and output from primary aluminium production

The aluminium electrolysis stage has a high energy use, ranging from 53 GJ per tonne for the best operated PFPB (including anode production) to 61 GJ per tonne for some traditional Söderberg cells. The energy costs are also high and can account for up to 50 % of production costs. Energy requirements are also influenced by cell geometry, busbar configuration and other factors influencing the magnetic upheaval of the liquid metal pad. Input ranges for electrolysis, energy consumption and raw materials used are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Input ranges for electrolysis

Parameter	Prebake	Söderberg
Alumina (kg/t Al)	1910–1960	
Anodes net (kg/t Al)	410–450	NA
Anode paste (kg/t Al) ⁽¹⁾	NA	470–530
Al F ₃ (kg/t Al)	13–30	18–25
Cathode life (years)	5–8	4–6
Amperage (kA)	90–360	
Power for alumina production (GJ/t Al)	< 10	< 10
Specific energy consumption for electrolysis (kWh/kg Al)	13.2–15.0	14.5–17.0 ⁽²⁾
Total electrical power (kWh/kg Al) ⁽³⁾	13.6–15.7	15.1–17.5
<p>⁽¹⁾ Expressed as total Söderberg paste. In the case of Söderberg cells, the figures represent the gross carbon consumption as the baking losses happen during the electrolysis.</p> <p>⁽²⁾ In the Söderberg process, these figures account for all energy consumption, while in the Prebake process there is additional consumption in the baking furnace.</p> <p>⁽³⁾ Including rectifier loss, pollution control and auxiliary consumption.</p> <p>NB: Energy data are produced based on the conventions used by Industry. NA = Not applicable.</p> <p>Source: [272, Al input 2008].</p>		

The production of aluminium from recycled metal uses only 5 % of the energy of primary production [28, OSPARCOM 1997]. The consumption data for the casthouse are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Casthouse consumption data

Parameter	Range
Skimmings/dross produced (kg/t Al)	10–50
Fluxes (kg/t Al)	0–1.5
Gases (kg/t Al)	0–0.04
Swarf, etc. (kg/t Al)	0–3
Water (kg/t Al)	200–10 000
Homogenisation energy (MJ/t Al)	500–1200
Casthouse energy (MJ/t Al)	300–2500 ⁽¹⁾
<p>⁽¹⁾ Excluding remelting of cold metal.</p> <p>Source: [272, Al input 2008].</p>	

It must be noted that the airflow going through the roof vents can be much higher (typically 5–15 times higher) than the gas flow being sucked from the pots and directed to the gas treatment centres.

4.2.3.2 Emissions to air

Emissions from the production of aluminium by electrolysis are mainly emissions to air. There are three distinct sources of emissions to air from this process:

- process gases from electrolytic cells;
- pot room ventilation;

- degassing and casting.

The potential emissions from the electrolysis stage are:

- carbon dioxide (CO₂) and carbon monoxide (CO) (accounted for as CO₂ in the further provided emission figures), linked to anode consumption;
- polyfluorocarbons (PFCs) in connection with anode effects;
- dust, mainly linked to alumina and fluorinated product handling, from around the pots or the handling systems;
- fluorides, both gaseous and as particulates, at the surface of the bath;
- sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and other sulphur compounds, resulting mainly from anode consumption, and due to the sulphur contained in coke and pitch;
- tars and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) in the case of Söderberg electrodes;
- metal compounds;
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x).

The emissions from the electrolytic cells and via the pot room ventilation are related to each other by the efficiency with which the flue-gases from the cells are captured [28, OSPARCOM 1997], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [357, VDI 1998]. The specific gas emission rate from the electrolytic cells due to the cell extraction system is reported to be 80 000–120 000 Nm³ per tonne of aluminium [348, Solios 2010].

The potential emissions from the degassing and casting stages are:

- dust;
- organics, chlorides and fluorides, associated with the use of fluxing agents;
- SO₂, depending on the fuel used;
- NO_x, depending on the type of burner.

4.2.3.2.1 Capture of the gases

The capture of the gases is affected by the technology and design of the pots used. Most of the gases released from the pots occur during crust-breaking and anode changes. Therefore, the way the crust is broken and the alumina is fed into the pot makes a significant difference to the amount of gases emitted from the pot.

Plants operating point feeding systems break the pots through specific 'points' where the crust-breaker and feeders are located. This type of plant allows a much higher capture efficiency than conventional Söderberg pots or side-worked prebaked pots, where alumina is not fed continuously and is fed into the cells after the crust is broken around the circumference and where collection hoods over the length of the cells have to be opened.

Today, all European plants, using either Prebake or Söderberg technology, apply point feeding systems.

a) Prebaked cells

The cells are totally enclosed and have a fume extraction system. A typical hooding efficiency range for point feed prebaked cells (PFPB) is 95–98.5 %, and up to > 99 % when a boosted suction system (BSS) is used, depending on the design of the extraction system, the effectiveness of the cell covers and the arrangement of the extraction and filter systems. [357, VDI 1998]

b) Söderberg cells

Several improvements have been made to the conventional Söderberg electrode system, with the objective being to reduce anode effects and emissions from the pots to a level comparable with the total emission from prebaked pots, including anode baking. The main features are:

- automatic and closed alumina point feeding and control of electrolysis;
- improved coverage of the bath crust;
- the use of dry paste with a lower pitch content;
- improved burner for incineration of PAH and other hydrocarbons in the pot exhaust gas;
- for pots with a high current density, complete hood coverage of the anode top, which is connected to a separate gas exhaust and dry alumina scrubber;
- for pots with a lower current density, increased anode height to create a solid barrier at the top of the anode that serves as a filter for PAH emissions.

These improvements result in a significant increase in the capture of gases [28, OSPARCOM 1997], [226, Nordic Report 2008]. The range encountered in improved Söderberg plants equates to a capture efficiency of up to 95 % based on the HF concentration, depending on the degree of modification. It also depends on the extent of evaporation from the bath of HF which cannot be captured (usually lower in Söderberg cells due to the bath chemistry) [75, Nordheim, E. (EEA) 1998], [233, COM 2008]. The HF concentration in the pot room atmosphere can be monitored continuously using an open path continuous monitoring system.

The pot room emissions from Söderberg cells are therefore significant and these processes can include wet scrubbing systems, such as wet scrubbers with seawater to remove fluoride and PAH from pot room ventilation air. PFPB are inherently more efficient at capturing process gases but rely on good design, maintenance and operating procedures.

4.2.3.2.2 Fluorides

Airborne gaseous and solid fluorides are emitted from the pots during electrolysis; 50–80 % of the fluoride is gaseous HF, with the remainder being solid fluorides (mainly aluminium fluoride and cryolite). HF is formed by the reaction of aluminium fluoride and cryolite with hydrogen introduced to the pot as fixed water in aluminium oxide, as residual hydrogen in anodes, and as moisture in the air. As modern pots are often operated with a high stoichiometric excess of AlF_3 (10–13 %), fluoride generation has increased over the years and fume capture has become more important [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

The total fluoride emissions from the pots vary between 20 kg and 50 kg per tonne of aluminium. With a capture efficiency of > 98 % and a cleaning efficiency of 99.8–99.9 % in dry scrubbing installations, stack emissions can be 0.06–0.3 kg of total fluoride per tonne of aluminium. Alumina is used as the scrubbing medium. The alumina is normally collected, with the process dust, in a fabric filter, and is then used directly in the electrolytic cells. The fluorides collected in the alumina form aluminium fluoride and sodium fluoride (after reaction with any sodium oxide present in the alumina) and contribute to the amount of cryolite in the cell bath. Most plants that operate alumina scrubbers produce excess cryolite from the reaction of fluorides with the sodium content of the alumina and this is sold as excess bath. This is not produced all of the time, as its formation depends on the sodium content in the alumina, which can change over time or when suppliers are changed [348, Solios 2010].

Uncaptured emissions are discharged to the pot room ambient air and emitted through the ventilation system. When no roof ventilation wet scrubber or boosted suction system is applied, total emissions (stack and roof) of gaseous fluorides can be 0.4–0.8 kg per tonne of aluminium, giving a total fluoride emission (including particulate fluorides, stack and roof) in the range of 0.46–1.1 kg per tonne of aluminium [28, OSPARCOM 1997]. These emissions relate to plants where suction rates to the pots are constant, and where there is no provision for increasing them during hood-opening phases for anode change or metal tapping. Temporary increased suction

systems have been developed and are commonly known as boosted suction systems (BSS). BSS can reduce roof vent emissions to levels around 0.25 kg F/t Al plus 0.05 kg F/t Al (stack), thus, the total being 0.30 kg F/t Al.

Several aluminium smelters operating in Norway and Sweden use wet scrubbers (using seawater or caustic soda) in addition to the dry scrubber to remove sulphur dioxide (SO₂) from the cell exhaust gases (and in one case also from the roof ventilation gas). [28, OSPARCOM 1997]. [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. Cross-media effects from the use of wet scrubbers have to be considered.

Fluorides and chlorides are also emitted during the degassing and refining stages. The quantity and components of the emissions depend on the degassing and refining agents used.

4.2.3.2.3 PFCs (polyfluorocarbons)

The PFCs tetrafluoromethane (CF₄) and hexafluoroethane (C₂F₆) are formed during the anode effects. They are emitted in the ratio CF₄:C₂F₆ of approximately 10:1. They cannot be removed from the gas stream with existing technology once they are formed [28, OSPARCOM 1997].

The amount of PFCs generated is directly linked to the frequency and the duration of anode effects and to the overvoltage reached during them. The gases form an electrically isolating layer below the anode. This isolating film increases the cell voltage from 4–5 volts to 8–50 volts, thus significantly impacting the process efficiency. The control of cell voltage and alumina additions is a major factor in controlling anode effects [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993].

The PFC emission from modern plants can be minimised by using semi-continuous point feeding of alumina, and by improved process control. These plants can be operated with an anode effect frequency of < 0.1–0.5 per pot per day and an anode effect duration of 0.5–2 minutes, resulting in PFC emissions ranging from 0.01 kg to 0.1 kg per tonne of aluminium [75, Nordheim, E. 1998] [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. PFC emissions can also be calculated with overvoltage methods. PFC emissions ranging from 0.01 kg to 0.1 kg per tonne of aluminium would correspond approximately to overvoltages of up to 1 mV. Many older plants use anode effects as a control for bath alumina content, and consequently PFC emissions can be much higher. The use of modern control systems and automatic point feeding of alumina in both prebaked and Söderberg cells minimises the number and duration of anode effects, [28, OSPARCOM 1997], [75, Nordheim, E. 1998]. In some cases, an automated anode effect killing system can also be used in conjunction with the control system, for example the use of anode height variation or compressed air.

In the late 1990s, considerable efforts were made by the European aluminium industry to lower PFC emissions. Advanced process control measures were implemented in order to closely control cell voltages and the alumina content in the cell, and therefore to avoid anode effects and limit the duration of any that do occur.

PFC emissions are regulated to a benchmark performance by EU ETS Phase III.

4.2.3.2.4 Tar and PAH

The emissions of tar and PAH during electrolysis in prebake plants are negligible due to the fact that the anodes are baked in a separate operation. Also, only very small amounts of tar and PAH may be emitted from a limited number of prebake plants using carbon paste for anode pin connection and for protection collars. Measurements at the start-up of new cells and from plants using collar paste indicate that emissions are negligible [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

Installations that include an anode production plant will have a source of tars and PAH from this part of the process. There are only two examples of the process gases from an anode plant sharing the same alumina scrubber and fabric filter as the electrolytic process. The results from these plants show no difference in performance of the abatement plant when anode process gases are included. It may be concluded therefore that the alumina scrubber is efficient at removing tar and PAH from an anode plant or from Söderberg cells. Spent alumina from the scrubbers is used as feed to the cells (but not for covering the bath).

In older plants, ESPs are also used to remove tar. Wet scrubbers for the ventilation gases will also remove some PAH, particularly the dust fraction, although SO₂ reduction (and sometimes fluoride) is normally the driver for installing this technology.

At Söderberg plants, tar and PAH are emitted during the electrolysis (anode consumption) and during the anode self-baking process. Emissions occur by evaporation of the paste and depend on the anode design, the paste quality and the operating practices. Emissions are abated in two different paths:

- emissions from the electrolysis are captured, burnt and eventually abated in dry scrubbers;
- emissions from the baking process are reduced by the use of dry paste combined with either an upper anode case or an anode top hood.

Reporting PAH emissions properly is a concern, as the trapping efficiency and the analytical errors on the lighter molecular weight fractions can be high. Many different standards and lists are used worldwide. Within the European aluminium industry, there is an increasing consensus for using BaP as a tracer for all other PAH.

4.2.3.2.5 Sulphur dioxide and sulphur compounds

The anodes used have a sulphur content ranging from 1 % to over 3.5 %. The sulphur is emitted as carbonyl sulphide (COS), which reacts with oxygen, resulting in the emission of sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide. Due to the differences in the sulphur content of the anodes, the emissions of sulphur dioxide via the process gas from the cells can range from about 10 kg to 25 kg per tonne of aluminium, on a yearly basis, based on an anode consumption of 0.43 tonnes per tonne of aluminium for a prebake plant and of 0.48–0.50 tonnes per tonne of aluminium for a Söderberg plant. For COS, it has been reported that ~ 10–20 % of sulphur in the anode is formed into carbonyl sulphide, equivalent to 2 kg per tonne of aluminium for anodes that contain 2.5 % sulphur [348, Solios 2010]. In concentration terms, emissions via the process air from the cells have a typical concentration range from 50 mg/Nm³ to 400 mg/Nm³ [28, OSPARCOM 1997], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. These values depend on the specific flow rate, the anode consumption and the percentage of sulphur in the anodes. The values in concentration terms for Söderberg cells are higher, as the flows are significantly lower compared with those of prebake plants. A mass balance based on the sulphur content of the anodes and the alumina used has been reported as a method used in several countries to estimate emissions of SO₂.

In Norway and Sweden, where the process gas is wet scrubbed, SO₂ emissions are decreased to levels of 1–2.5 kg per tonne of aluminium. The concentration range in the emissions to air will typically be 5–40 mg/Nm³. Cross-media effects must be considered on a case-by-case basis if wet scrubbers are used.

The alumina used can also have an impact on SO₂ emissions. For instance, alumina that has been calcined using heavy fuel oil might have a sulphur content of up to 300 ppm and consequently 10–15 % higher SO₂ emissions [367, Authier-Martin et al. 2001].

The emissions of SO₂ via the pot room ventilation will range from 0.2 kg to 0.6 kg per tonne (concentration: 0.1–3 mg/Nm³), depending on the hooding efficiency.

It has been reported that sulphur in the anodes may have a beneficial effect in suppressing the adverse effects of sodium contained in the anode butts for recycling [75, Nordheim, E. 1998] [88, Nordheim, E. 1998]

European cokes, while being of consistent quality and good density, have the disadvantage that anodes made exclusively from these cokes have a shorter life and may cause smelter operational problems through excessive reaction with carbon dioxide, a phenomenon called dusting. In a modern computer-controlled smelter where stable operation and maximum power and cost efficiencies are the norm, this is unacceptable.

Low-sulphur cokes from Latin America and China show the same phenomenon and are also low in density. The CO₂ reactivity is suppressed by the presence of sulphur in increased quantities, so it is considered desirable and beneficial to blend European calcined petroleum coke with higher sulphur calcined coke from the US. This is a recognised and commonplace practice in European smelters, and limits the lower level of sulphur content of anodes used in Europe. Meanwhile, some smelters are testing calcined pitch coke in combination with calcined petroleum cokes which increase density and lower the sulphur content. The high sulphur value reduces dusting so, for some, this coke is considered preferable to all others. However, because of the higher sulphur content, US West Coast coke has not made major inroads into European markets.

4.2.3.2.6 Dust

Alumina and bath solid-related materials (cryolite, chiolite, crushed bath, anode cover mix, etc.) are the principal dusts emitted during electrolysis. Alumina that is used to remove fluorides from the exhaust gases is called secondary or fluorinated alumina and is also emitted if the dust collection system is not efficient. This secondary alumina will contain some HF adsorbed on the surface.

Total dust generation varies and depends on the type of process applied and the type of alumina, but ranges from 0.6 kg to 10 kg per tonne of aluminium. Typical dust concentrations for pot room ventilation are 0.5 mg/Nm³ to 5 mg/Nm³ whereas the dust concentration in the process air ranges from 150 mg/Nm³ to 500 mg/Nm³ before abatement and from 1 mg/Nm³ to 20 mg/Nm³ after abatement [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

Casting is another source of dust (and metals) and casthouse fumes are sometimes collected and treated in a bag filter. Gases emitted from the casthouse in primary smelters have been calculated and are shown in Table 4.11 [28, OSPARCOM 1997]. The calculation was based on the concentration of the components in the cell gases and the capture efficiency of the hood and extraction system. This calculation is relevant for establishing the significance of uncaptured emissions. To reduce the uncaptured emissions, an efficient fume capture system is used. Most smelters monitor this efficiency regularly.

Table 4.11: Primary aluminium casthouse emissions to air

Parameter	Emission (kg/t of aluminium)
Dust	0.01–0.1 ⁽¹⁾ ⁽²⁾
NO _x	< 0.1–0.4
SO ₂	0–1.8 ⁽²⁾
⁽¹⁾ Depending on filter system.	
⁽²⁾ Depending on fuel used.	
Source: [272, Al input 2008]	

Some studies have been carried out on the presence of PCDD/F in fumes from the casting process as the use of chlorine for degassing and the presence of carbon from combustion gases may lead to their formation. All measurements from primary smelter casthouses show levels significantly below 1 g/yr. Regular measurements at a French smelter show typical values around 0.05 g/yr.

4.2.3.2.7 Metals

Metals are known to occur in trace concentrations in raw materials (alumina, aluminium fluoride, coke and pitch) and can therefore be emitted during electrolysis. Tellurium is extracted from alumina produced at one installation and is therefore a potential contaminant. Other volatile metals are also present and can be emitted from the pot room and the casthouse. A limited amount of information is available about the environmental impact, but trace metals are not considered to be a significant release. [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [367, Authier-Martin et al. 2001].

4.2.3.2.8 Oxides of nitrogen

Oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) are produced during electrolysis due to the presence of nitrogen in the anode, which can be oxidised to NO_x. The nitrogen content in the anodes generally ranges from 0.2 % to 0.4 %. When the nitrogen is completely converted into NO_x, the emission may be 0.5 kg to 2 kg NO₂ per tonne of aluminium (which would imply concentrations of 5 mg/Nm³ to 20 mg/Nm³ in the stack for flows of 100 000 Nm³/h, and concentrations of up to 25 mg/Nm³ for flows of 80 000 Nm³/h). The actual amount of NO_x released is still subject to discussion. Control measurements at two prebake plants in Norway showed emission levels of 0.1 kg to 0.2 kg NO₂ per tonne of aluminium [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. The combustion gases from the burners used in holding and melting furnaces in the casthouse also contain oxides of nitrogen.

4.2.3.2.9 Carbon monoxide

Carbon monoxide (CO) is produced during electrolysis by the back reaction of aluminium metal dissolved in the electrolyte with the CO₂ produced at the anode ($2\text{Al} + 3\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + 3\text{CO}$), which lowers the cell efficiency. In a modern smelter, the generation of CO before any reoxidation to CO₂ is in the order of 100 kg to 150 kg per tonne of aluminium. The production of CO also increases during an anode effect [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

4.2.3.2.10 Carbon dioxide

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is formed during electrolysis by the reaction of the carbon anode with the oxygen formed by electrolysis and by a secondary reaction with air. An efficient prebake plant consumes about 0.43 tonnes of carbon anodes per tonne of aluminium, corresponding to 1.4 to 1.7 tonnes of CO₂ per tonne of aluminium. These emissions are, however, far lower than the emissions of CO₂ from combustion of fossil fuels when used for the generation of the electrical power required for electrolysis [75, Nordheim, E. 1998]. Carbon dioxide is also emitted from burners used in the holding and melting furnaces.

4.2.3.2.11 Summary of main air pollutants

A summary of the relevance of the main air pollutants and their emission sources, as discussed above and based on literature findings, is given in Table 4.12

Table 4.12: Significance of potential emissions from primary aluminium production

Component	Flue-gases from electrolytic cells	Pot room ventilation	Degassing and holding
Fluorides (gaseous and total F)	•	•••	• (chlorides)
PFCs	•••	•	NR
Tars and PAH ⁽¹⁾	•	••	NR
SO ₂ (without scrubbers) ⁽²⁾ and COS	•• ⁽¹⁾	NR	•
Carbon dioxide	••	NR	NR
Dust	•	•	NR

⁽¹⁾ Tars and PAH are relevant to Söderberg processes and Prebake processes that have an integrated electrode production process. They can also be relevant for the small number of plants using paste for anode pin connection and for protection collars.
⁽²⁾ Wet scrubbers are generally used after dry scrubbing in Scandinavia to remove SO₂ and are usually associated with the use of seawater as the scrubbing medium.
 NB: •• More significant – • Less significant.
 NR = Not relevant.

Total emissions to air from primary aluminium smelters are shown in

Table 4.13 and Table 4.14. Ranges represent the variations in terms of technology and plant age and size.

Table 4.13: Total emissions (roof + stack) to air from primary aluminium smelters with direct emissions of roof vents to the atmosphere and without wet scrubbing

Parameter	Prebake	Modified Söderberg
Total fluoride (kg/t Al)	0.46–1.1	0.5–1.5
Dust (kg/t Al)	0.6–1.7	0.9–4.0
SO ₂ (kg/t Al)	10–25	10–25
BaP (g/t Al)	Not reported	5–15

Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

Table 4.14: Total emissions (roof + stack) to air from primary aluminium smelters with BSS for pot gas (prebake plants) or roof vent wet scrubbing (modified Söderberg)

Parameter	Prebake	Modified Söderberg
Total fluoride (kg/t Al)	0.25–0.45	0.30–0.60
Dust (kg/t Al)	0.2–0.6	0.8–1.4
SO ₂ (kg/t Al)	10–25	
BaP (g/t Al)	Not reported	5–15

Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

When a wet scrubber is applied to pot gas, the performance shown in Table 4.15 can be achieved.

Table 4.15: SO₂ emissions to air from primary aluminium smelters with wet scrubbing applied to pot gas

Parameter	Prebake	Modified Söderberg
SO ₂ (kg/t Al)	1–2.5	0.8–2.5

Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

The relevance of the uncontrolled emissions from the pot room ventilation is based on 98 % fume capture from the cells. Regular PFPB can achieve this efficiency, but when a lower efficiency is achieved, for example in SWPB or Söderberg cells, the relevance of the pot room ventilation increases [75, Nordheim, E. 1998], [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

4.2.3.3 Emissions to water

The production of primary aluminium is inherently a dry process. The discharge of waste water is usually limited to cooling water, rainwater run-off from surfaces and roofs, and seawater from scrubbing pot room ventilation gases. The rainwater run-off can be contaminated by the open storage of raw materials and deposited solids. Typical values for this contamination are < 0.03 kg/tonne of aluminium for suspended solids and < 0.02 kg/tonne of aluminium for dissolved fluoride. In addition, considerable amounts of waste water can be discharged when wet systems are used for air pollution control [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

Anode production can account for the production of some waste water, consisting of cooling water used to cool the green anodes and green Söderberg paste or the flue-gases. Also, the cooling process may be performed using indirect water systems, resulting in a discharge of cooling water, although, in modern smelters, this water is recycled, resulting in almost zero discharge. Indirect water systems can also be used to cool the flue-gases, to make them suitable for abatement with regular techniques (fabric filters, electrostatic precipitators) [97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

The electrolysis stage is a dry process and no waste water is produced directly. Rainwater contamination is prevented by the techniques outlined in Section 0.

In modern smelters with dry alumina scrubbers, water discharge is usually as low as 1 m³ per tonne of aluminium. In plants where water is used once through as a cooling agent, mainly in order to reduce the energy cost of evaporation cooling towers, water discharge may be as high as 100 m³ per tonne of aluminium.

Emissions to water from the primary aluminium electrolysis plants using ventilation air wet scrubbers or SO₂ wet scrubbers are shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Process emissions to water from the primary aluminium electrolysis plants using ventilation air wet scrubbers or SO₂ wet scrubbers

Parameter	Söderberg
Fluorides (kg/t Al)	0.5–1.5
Suspended solids (kg/t Al)	0.5–2.0
PAH (Borneff 6) (g/t Al)	6–15
<i>Source:</i> [272, Al input 2008]	

PAH emitted to water might be reported as the six compounds in the Borneff list [28, OSPARCOM 1997], [125, Euroalliances (B) 1998].

4.2.3.4 Process residues

The production of metals is related to the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, which are also listed in the European Waste Catalogue. The most important process-specific residues are described in Sections 4.2.3.4.1 and 4.2.3.4.2 below.

The main sources of waste from electrolysis are spent pot lining (SPL) materials.

4.2.3.4.1 Spent pot lining

With a cathode lifetime of five to eight years, which is common for modern plants, the quantity of spent pot lining (SPL) generated is 20–50 kg per tonne of aluminium produced. The SPL normally consists of two distinct fractions plus steel cathode bars. The two wastes are the carbon part (first cut) and the refractory material (second cut). The carbon part is the actual cathode from the electrolytic cell, and the remainder is varying types of insulating material [272, Al input 2008].

The two fractions are often separated when dismantling the cathode. The spent cathode also contains some bath material, steel bars used to conduct electricity to the carbon cathode, and often flakes of aluminium metal from metal penetration into the cathode. These parts are either reused directly at the plant or, in the case of steel bars, sent outside the plant for recycling. The carbon part is relatively homogeneous, while the refractory part can be composed of a number of different types of refractory materials or other types of insulation.

Table 4.17 gives an analysis of typical SPL.

Table 4.17: Composition of spent pot lining

Compound	Carbon lining (1 st cut)	Insulation (2 nd cut)
	Range (wt-%)	
Al ₂ O ₃	0–10	10–50
C	40–75	0–20
Na	8–17	6–14
F	10–20	4–10
CaO	1–6	1–8
SiO ₂	0–6	10–50
Metallic Al	0–5	0
CN (total)	0.01–0.5	0–0.1
CN (free)	0–0.2	0–0.05
<i>Source: [131, Nordheim 1998]</i>		

The constituents of concern linked to this material are soluble fluoride and soluble cyanide. In addition, any wetting of this material will produce an alkaline leachate and liberate minor quantities of NH₃ and flammable gases. PAH are not considered to be a problem since the carbon lining has already been carbonised at temperatures above 1250 °C and any ramming paste has been heated to above 900 °C in the electrolytic cell. The constituents mentioned are mainly linked to the carbon part of the SPL and the refractory parts in immediate contact with this. As can be seen from Table 4.17, the content of these constituents is lower in the refractory part or other types of insulation.

SPL can be reused, treated, partially treated or disposed of [131, Nordheim 1998]

Reuse

Available recovery routes for most European smelters are:

- reuse in cement manufacturing;
- reuse as a secondary raw material (rock wool, salt slag recovery, etc.);
- reuse as a fuel;
- reuse as a carburiser (steel industry).

Treatment processes

- Rio Tinto Alcan low caustic leaching and liming (LCLL);

- Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace;
- Elkem ferro-alloy process [226, Nordic Report 2008]
- An emerging technique developed by BEFESA, described in Section 4.4.

Disposal

Pretreat followed by disposal in a disposal site that is compliant with EC Directive 1999/31/EC.

4.2.3.4.2 Other materials

Skimmings/dross from the holding and treatment processes represent 15–30 kg per tonne of aluminium produced. This material contains 30–80 % aluminium. Cooling under an inert gas blanket prevents oxidation. Skimmings/dross are used as a raw material in the secondary aluminium industry. Spent filters from metal treatment are usually disposed of. Solid wastes produced by gas-cleaning installations (dust and sludge) can be [75, Nordheim, E. 1998].

In rare cases, anode butts from some plants are also disposed of if they fail to meet quality standards. If there is no anode plant on site, anode butts can be used in the steel industry as a coke substitute, therefore lowering primary coke demand.

Spent anode shot blasting and cleaning residues, containing mainly carbon and cell bath, are also dealt with in most of the smelters, as well as dust from floor sweeping and basement cleaning materials, which consist mainly of a mix of alumina and bath particulates. These materials are often recycled internally or disposed of when they do not meet the minimum quality standards.

Furnace linings from metal ladles and anode baking furnace bricks may be recovered or disposed of. Refractory bricks from the baking furnaces can be reused in other applications after cleaning or can be disposed of as waste. Typical furnace lining life for prebaked anodes is about 100 cycles and this represents approximately 10 kg of bricks per tonne of anode produced.

Good waste management practice and the use of recovery methods make it possible to reduce the amount of waste sent for disposal. Options and quantities are shown in Table 4.18 and Table 4.19.

Table 4.18: Options to reduce waste in a primary aluminium smelter

Source	Use/treatment options
Aluminium	Recovery
Filter dust	Reuse in process
Bricks	From anode furnaces, reuse
Steel	Recovery
Carbon dust (anode plant)	Reuse or landfill, depending on the ash content
<i>Source: [272, Al input 2008]</i>	

Table 4.19: Specific waste quantities from primary aluminium production

Source ⁽¹⁾	kg/t of aluminium
Al skimmings/dross	15–30
Other hazardous waste	7–15
Non-hazardous waste	12–14
⁽¹⁾ Provided no external scrap is melted.	
<i>Source: [272, Al input 2008]</i>	

Steel from the anode plant is normally remelted in an induction furnace and recast for use in the process. The melting of steel that is contaminated with fluorides is a further potential source of these emissions and appropriate collection and abatement is required.

4.2.4 Secondary aluminium

The type and quality of scrap have a major influence on the significance of the emissions. There are potential emissions to air of dust, metal compounds, Cl_2 , HCl , NO_x , SO_2 and HF and products of poor combustion such as PCDD/F and other organic compounds from the melting and treatment furnaces. The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible.

Figure 4.9 gives an overview of the typical input and output of a secondary aluminium plant.

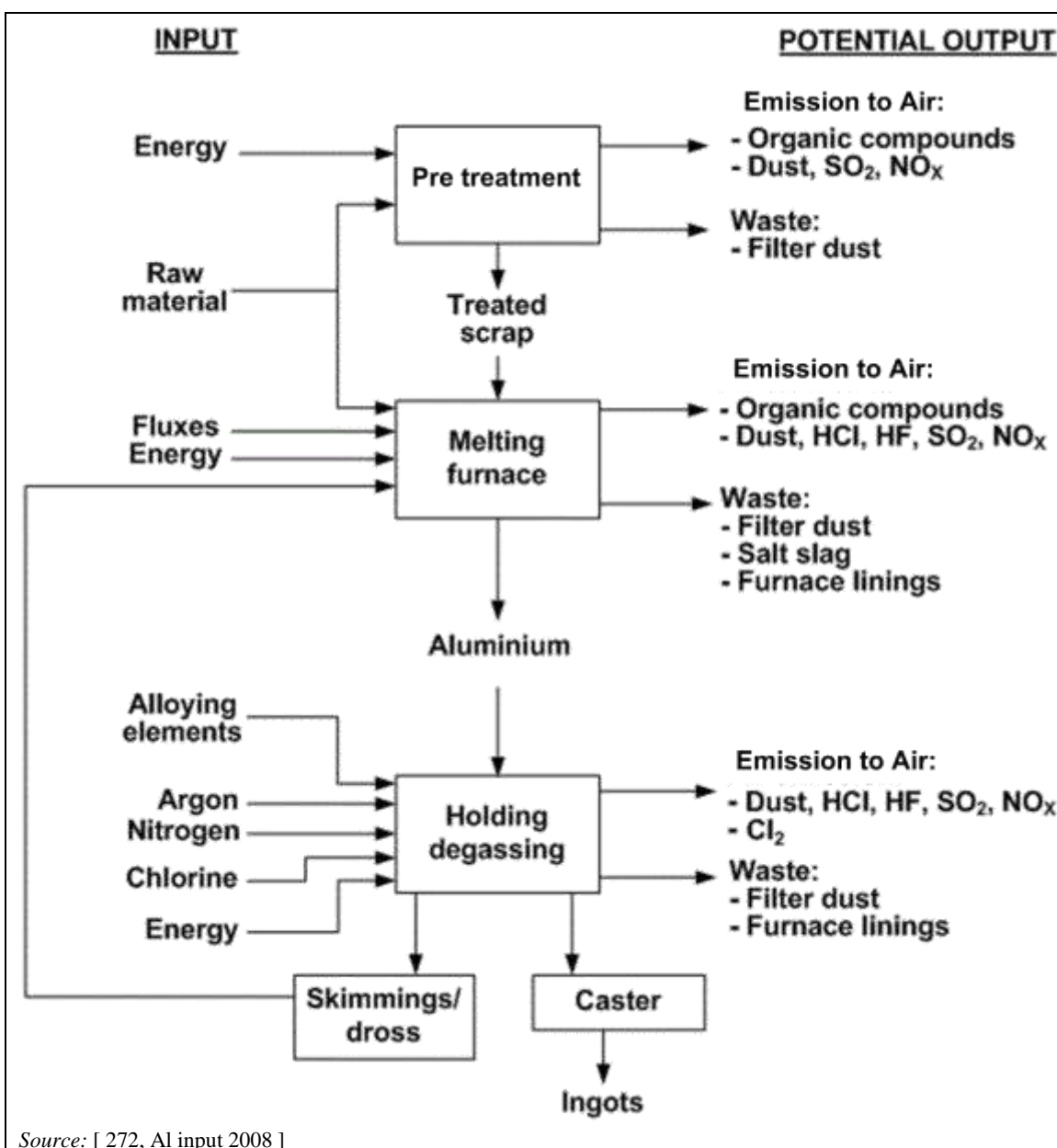


Figure 4.9: Input and output from secondary aluminium production

The emissions can escape the process either as stack emissions or as diffuse emissions, depending on the age of the plant and the technology used. Stack emissions can be monitored continuously, such as dust, or periodically, such as PCDD/F, and reported by on-site staff or off-site consultants to the competent authorities.

Ammonia and other gases can be emitted from the reaction with humidity in the air, due to improper storage or treatment and from the transport of skimmings/dross [32, Mantle et al. 1998]. Dust will also arise from the handling and treatment of the skimmings/dross. There are potential emissions to water of suspended solids, metals and oils in the event of improper product and material storage.

4.2.4.1 Emissions to air

The potential emissions to air are shown in Table 4.20 and are:

- dust, PM₁₀ and PM₅;
- metal compounds;
- organic compounds (TOCs and PCDD/F) and CO;
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x);
- sulphur dioxide (SO₂);
- chlorine, hydrogen chloride and hydrogen fluoride (Cl₂, HCl and HF).

A significant proportion of the emissions of these substances is produced from contamination of the feed material and from the fuel used. Some dust is produced by fine dusty scrap and by salt fumes REFERENCE BOOKMARK 8151[75, Nordheim, E. 1998]

Table 4.20: Significance of potential emissions to air

Component	Pretreatment	Melting	Molten metal treatment and degassing
HCl, HF and Cl ₂	••	••	•••
Metals and compounds	••	••	••
Oxides of nitrogen	•	••	• (combustion gases)
SO ₂	• (with suitable fuel)	• (with suitable fuel)	• (combustion gases)
Organic compounds (CO, TOCs, PCDD/F)	•••	•••	NR
Dust	•••	•••	••
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant. NR = Not relevant.			

4.2.4.1.1 Collection and prevention of emissions

In aluminium remelting/recycling plants, diffuse emissions mainly arise during the storage, handling and loading/unloading of dust-emitting materials (e.g. slag), and as a result of the insufficient capture of furnace off-gases, particularly when the furnace is open (e.g. for charging, melt treatment, slag tapping, skimming and casting). Diffuse emissions occurring in the process during charging, melt treatment, slag tapping, skimming and casting are subsequently emitted from the buildings, e.g. via open doors or ventilation openings in the roof (roof lights), if no extraction devices of sufficient capacity are available. [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Fume extraction is an important element of secondary aluminium production, as dust and smoke can be formed from contaminants in the feed, as well as during the combustion and melting stages [32, Mantle et al. 1998]. The presence of several possible emission points in a furnace is also significant, and the collection of the emissions from such points should be addressed. In

addition, various systems may be employed to reduce diffuse emissions during the charging phase of the process. For example, docking cars that seal against the charging door can be used to prevent emissions during charging.

Another important factor is the combustion of organic coatings in the pretreatment or melting furnace. Extraction and abatement systems can be designed to treat these emissions. Diffuse emissions can be significant though unless the fume collection systems are well designed.

4.2.4.1.2 Dust and metals

Dust is generated mainly by the composition of the input material (skimmings/dross and fine dusty scrap) and by salt fume. Incomplete combustion of fuel may contribute to dust emissions too. Dust is also generated when handling, e.g. storing, loading and charging the input materials, such as scrap, fluxes and skimmings/dross. Dust will also arise from the pretreatment of the skimmings/dross, e.g. cold milling. On-site mechanical treatment of salt slag such as crushing generates dust as well.

Dust and metals occur together and can be produced from the combustion gases or from the scrap or fluxes used. Some metals, which are present as contaminants of raw materials such as Cu, Mg, Zn and Hg, will be fumed off during melting and will form dusts.

The production of smoke is due to the presence of organic carbon and the presence of chloride and may lead to the formation of PCDD/F which will then also be associated with the particles [312, VDI 2008].

Treatment materials such as lime, sodium bicarbonate and carbon are injected into the raw gas stream to reduce emissions of acid gases and PCDD/F and they are removed by filters together with dust. Most installations use (high-efficiency) bag filters to remove dust; emissions range from below 0.6 mg/Nm³ to 5 mg/Nm³. A spark arrester or cooling chamber often precedes them to provide filter protection. The emissions of metals depend on the raw materials used and the dust levels achieved.

In Table 4.21, an overview of dust emissions from secondary aluminium production is reported.

Table 4.21: Dust emissions from secondary aluminium production

Source	Emission control	Dust (mg/Nm ³)
		Min.–max.
Material (scrap, dross) mechanical treatment (crushing, milling), loading, transporting ⁽¹⁾	Bag filter	< 1–5
Swarf dryer	Bag filter	< 1–5
Different types of furnaces	Bag filter	< 1–5
⁽¹⁾ Loading refers to loading and unloading of trucks with salt slag and dross. Transporting refers to the conveyor transfer points. [296, EAA, OEA 2012]		

4.2.4.1.3 Organic compounds (TOC, PCDD/F) and CO

Poor combustion of fuel or the organic content of the feed material can result in the emission of organic compounds. The provision of effective burner and furnace controls is used to optimise combustion. Peak combustion rates from organic compounds need to be taken into account if they are fed to the furnace. It is reported that precleaning of scrap removes much of the organic

material and improves the melting rate [119, McLellan 1998]. The use of chlorine and chlorides (salt flux) provides a source of chlorine and hence the potential for the formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis).

The use of modern regenerative burners can prevent or minimise de novo synthesis. Efficient dust filtration removes organic compounds and the PCDD/F that are associated with dust; carbon may be added to increase the cleaning efficiency. Afterburning of the off-gases may also be carried out to destroy organic compounds produced in the furnace or in pretreatment stages.

In Table 4.22 an overview of PCDD/F and TVOC emissions from secondary aluminium production is reported.

Table 4.22: PCDD/F and TVOC emissions from secondary aluminium production

Source	Emission control	PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	Source	Emission control	TVOC ⁽¹⁾ (mg/Nm ³)
		Min.–max.			Min.–max.
Different types of furnaces	Activated carbon injection and bag filter	< 0.1–0.44	Swarf dryer	Afterburner	< 1–32
Different types of furnaces	Afterburner/activated carbon injection with bag filter	< 0.01–0.22	Different types of furnaces	Afterburner	0.5–18

(¹) Peak value from continuous measurement.
 Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012].

4.2.4.1.4 Sulphur dioxide and oxides of nitrogen

Both of these compounds are produced as a result of the sulphur and nitrogen contents of the raw materials, fuels and combustion systems used in the furnaces. For example, salt fluxes can contain sulphate. Low-NO_x burners and low-sulphur fuels can be used to minimise emissions. The use of oxy-fuel burners can reduce the formation of thermal NO_x, but there is a possibility that oxygen enrichment might have the opposite effect due to the higher operating temperatures. Similarly, preheating the combustion air will also increase concentrations of NO_x, which is measured as NO₂. Higher concentrations are associated with lower gas volumes and overall quantities. Preheating combustion air in regenerative or recuperative burners may also increase emissions of NO_x. A correct correlation between NO_x emissions and the effect of the oxy-fuel or oxygen enrichment can only be calculated by comparing the amount of pollutant emitted per tonne of aluminium produced each cycle.

SO₂ emissions in all cases depend on the type of fuel used, which itself depends on the availability of the fuel in the region where the plant operates. The yearly average SO₂ emission does not exceed 100 mg/Nm³.

In Table 4.23, an overview of NO_x (measured as NO₂) emissions from secondary aluminium production is reported.

Table 4.23: NO_x (measured as NO₂) emissions from secondary aluminium production

Source	NO _x (mg/Nm ³)
	Min.–max.
Swarf dryer, normal burner	10–150
Different types of furnaces, oxy-fuel burner	1–300
Different types of furnaces, normal burner	< 1–200
Different types of furnaces, regenerative burner	72–340
<i>Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012].</i>	

4.2.4.1.5 HF, HCl and chlorine

Chlorine may be used to treat molten aluminium before casting to remove hydrogen, magnesium (demagging) and other impurities. One possible use of rotary furnaces is to remove magnesium without using any further chlorine. This is useful as an excess of chlorine could end up being emitted as chlorine or aluminium chloride. The latter can hydrolyse with humidity in the air to produce HCl. Most sites use dry or semi-dry scrubbing to remove these compounds and only a few use wet scrubbers. Their formation can be minimised by good control and by using mixtures of chlorine and inert gases instead of pure chlorine. The use of salt cover in a melting furnace can also result in the emission of very fine fumes that contain metal chlorides. The use of fluorides for demagging or as a flux can result in the release of HF and fluorides in small quantities.

In Table 4.24, an overview of HCl, Cl₂ and HF emissions from secondary aluminium production is reported.

Table 4.24: HCl, Cl₂ and HF emissions from secondary aluminium production

Source	Emission control	HCl (mg/Nm ³)	Cl ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	HF (mg/Nm ³)
		Min.–max.	Min.–max.	Min.–max.
Different types of furnaces	Lime injection and/or NaHCO ₃	< 1–16.3 ⁽¹⁾	< 0.1–2.1	< 0.1–2.5
Hearth/induction furnaces	Lime injection	0.1–7	0.1–0.23	< 1
⁽¹⁾ Measured during chlorination. <i>Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012].</i>				

4.2.4.2 Emissions to water

The production of aluminium from secondary raw materials is essentially a dry process. Any discharge of waste water is usually limited to cooling water, which is often recirculated, and rainwater run-off from surfaces and roofs. A closed water circuit returns the used water to the process; only water used to cool the metal is evaporated to the atmosphere and is regarded as lost and must be replaced. Sometimes fresh water is added to maintain the cooling water below a certain temperature for safety reasons. The cooling water basin of a closed loop system will collect some contaminants due to abrasion in the equipment and as precipitation products originating from water conditioning. These contaminants collect in the basin and have to be discharged from time to time. As they are not toxic or otherwise harmful to the environment they are usually passed on to public waste water treatment plants. Similarly, considerable

amounts of water are used when wet systems are used for air pollution control. However, the waste water is often purified and recirculated within the system.

The rainwater run-off can be contaminated by the open storage of raw materials such as oily scrap and deposited solids. Typical values for this contamination are < 0.03 kg/tonne of aluminium for suspended solids. In addition, considerable amounts of waste water can be discharged when wet systems are used for air pollution control. Waste water from swarf washing is also recirculated inside the plant.

The main sources of the waste water in secondary aluminium production are:

- surface water;
- water from swarf washing (usually completely reused);
- waste water from gas treatment;
- cooling water from casting ($0.15\text{--}0.3$ m³/t Al).

4.2.4.3 Process residues

Typical residues from secondary aluminium production are shown in

Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Typical residues from secondary aluminium production

Residue	Origin	Volume	Treatment	Driving force
Salt slag	Melting in rotary furnaces	Up to 500 kg/t Al	Recovery via dissolution and crystallisation techniques. Production of reusable substances: Al metal granulate, mixed salt, non-metallic oxidic products	Salt is not used in all furnaces. Ban on landfill
Filter dust	Exhaust gas cleaning	Up to 35 kg/t Al 0.1 to 10 kg/t Al ⁽¹⁾	Disposal with pretreatment or to underground site, partly reconditioned with salt slag or used in the steel industry	Ban on surface disposal in some countries, thermal treatment possible (neutralisation with NaHCO ₃ or Na ₂ CO ₃ → use with salt slag)
Furnace lining	Melting furnace	Up to 4 kg/t Al	Potential for reconditioning with skimmings/dross, otherwise leaching and landfill	Aim to prevent landfill. Recycle to produce moulds
Skimmings or dross	Cleaning of smelter and foundries	Up to 80 kg/t Al ⁽²⁾	Smelting in rotary furnace. Recovery, pellets used in rotary drum furnace, dross dust used in the recovery of salt slag	Ban on landfill
Grease/oil	Swarf washing/centrifugation		Collection and separation	Oil recycling

(¹) Non-metallic products (oxide compounds from Al scrap).
(²) Using a closed well furnace provided no external scrap is melted.
Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [256, Winter 2007].

Skimmings/dross

Skimmings/dross from the holding and treatment processes occur in amounts of 15–30 kg per tonne of aluminium produced, and contain a significant amount of aluminium, around 20–80 %.

Skimmings/dross are used as a raw material in parts of the secondary aluminium industry. Sometimes hot skimmings/dross are directly charged to the furnaces for recovery of aluminium metal. Mostly, they are cooled and pretreated as soon as they are removed from the furnace, to reduce emissions and prevent further oxidation of the metal present and to separate aluminium from aluminium oxide. Methods include inert gas cooling, hot pressing to remove molten aluminium, and cooling in purpose-built coolers [312, VDI 2008].

During storage, skimmings/dross can react with moisture (from the air) to produce ammonia and other gases.

Cold skimmings/dross are further treated by a number of processes to recover aluminium. Rotary or tilting rotary furnaces [256, Winter 2007], are used to recover aluminium from skimmings/dross and the metallic fraction produced from it. Salt flux is usually used to facilitate this process, as it reduces oxidation and promotes the removal of some impurities (e.g. Mg, Ca, Li). Salt slag is generated and treated in salt slag recovery processes. Another further treatment is the use of separation techniques such as milling and processing, e.g. air classification, to separate oxide from the metal. Using the separation techniques, the metal can be remelted in relevant furnaces and the fine fraction can be further processed, e.g. recycled in the steel industry or in the salt slag recovery process. It has been reported that the final generation of salt slag and waste is reduced and the use of energy is lower due to a lower burden of inert material in the furnace. Skimmings/dross recovery processes are shown in Figure 4.10.

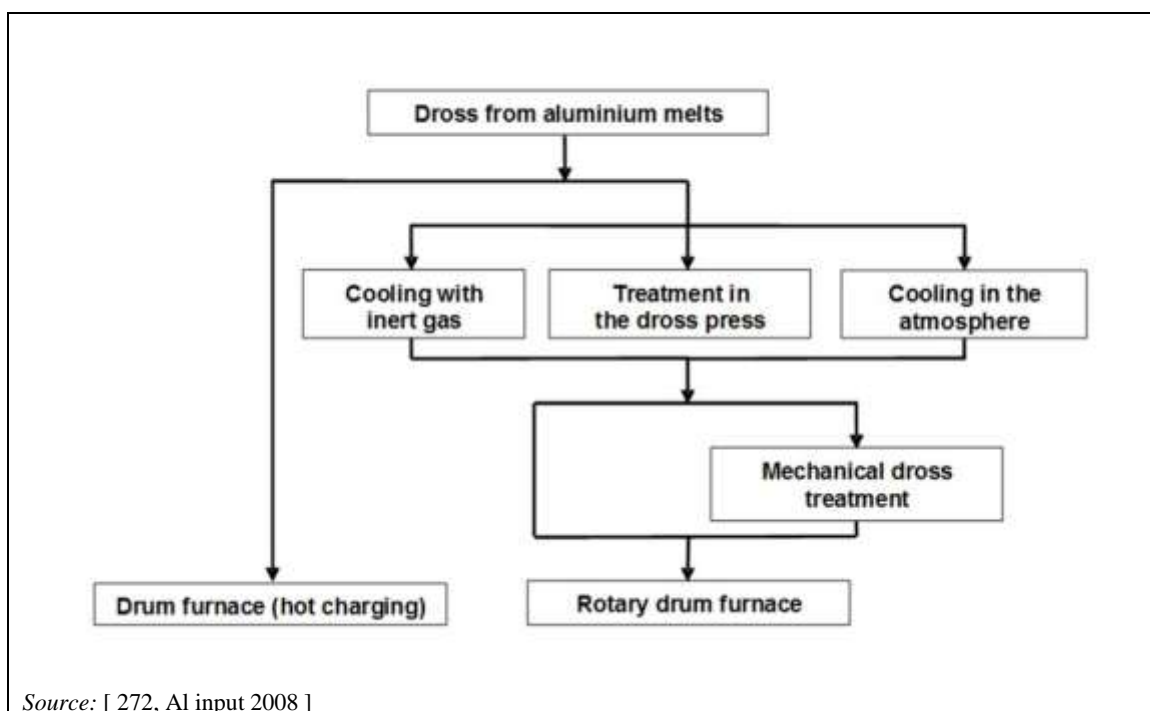


Figure 4.10: Skimmings/dross recovery processes

Figures relating to the emissions from the treatment of skimmings/dross are shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Emissions from skimmings/dross treatment

Emissions	Range
Dust (mg/Nm ³)	1–5
Dust (kg/t) ⁽¹⁾	300–700
Energy consumption (MJ/t)	300–800
⁽¹⁾ The quantity of dust depends on the metallic content of the original skimmings/dross. Source: [272, Al input 2008]	

Spent filter and filter dust

Spent filters from metal treatment are usually disposed of. In some cases, when sodium bicarbonate is used for gas cleaning, solid residues can be recovered with the salt cover [2, McLellan et al. 1993], [32, Mantle et al. 1998], [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [312, VDI 2008]

Alternatively, filter dust can be treated thermally to destroy PCDD/F. The typical composition of filter dust from secondary aluminium production is shown in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Typical composition of filter dust from secondary aluminium production

Contents	Typical value (%)	Range (%)
CaO	25	0–50
Al ₂ O ₃	15	6–25
NaCl, KCl	35	20–50
Carbon	6	1–6
Metals ⁽¹⁾	-	0.01–10
Al metal	3	2–7
PCDD/F as I-TEQ	5 µg/kg	3–10 µg/kg
⁽¹⁾ Zn, Pb, Cu, Mn, V, Cr, Ni, Sn, (and in traces: Co, As, Tl, Be, Sb). Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

Furnace linings

Furnace linings and dust can be recovered in salt slag treatment processes or disposed of.

Salt slag

When used salt flux is tapped from the furnace (at this stage called salt slag) it contains large amounts of aluminium oxide, which the flux has separated from the raw materials. Of the total weight of the salt slag, 4–10 % is metallic aluminium. The sodium and potassium chlorides can be recovered for further use, using separation and crystallisation processes. In most salt slag recycling plants the oxide portion is sold, after a washing stage, to the cement or mineral wool industry.

Both filter dust and salt slag are recycled, which means that all the solid wastes generated by the secondary aluminium industry can be recovered, avoiding the need for landfill.

4.2.4.4 Energy consumption

Many factors influence the energy demand for processing scrap to secondary aluminium products. The furnace design and efficiency affect energy consumption, as they do in all similar industry processes. For secondary aluminium production, there are a few specific factors, as discussed below.

The quality of scrap to a large extent determines the choice of furnace as well as the energy consumption. In principle, contaminated scrap requires the addition of salt, which needs to be melted together with the scrap, thus resulting in higher specific energy consumption than for less contaminated scrap. The melting of salt demands roughly the same amount of energy as for melting the metal, i.e. every 100 kg salt used increases the energy consumption by 10 % per tonne of product.

Some contaminated scrap such as swarf will need to be pretreated before melting. On average, the washing and drying of swarf consume a similar amount of energy as the melting and molten metal treatment process. Some briquetting, especially of fine swarf, may also help to reduce the loss of metal when it is subsequently being melted.

Secondary casting alloys can be produced in the form of ingots and liquids (transported in crucibles). The additional energy required to heat the liquid to a higher temperature and to heat the crucible is in the range of 20–30 %. A benefit of this liquid metal delivery, apart from meeting foundry demands for just-in-time services, is that no remelting is needed at the foundry, thus the overall energy consumption of the final casting products is reduced.

Secondary wrought alloys may be produced in the form of slabs and billets. In many cases, a homogenisation process needs to be carried out at the secondary plant before the production is finalised. The energy consumption for this process is in the range of 1–1.6 GJ per tonne of aluminium depending on the alloys required by the customers.

In summary, the specific energy consumption of secondary aluminium products ranges from 2 GJ/tonne to 9 GJ/tonne. Although the recycling of the lower quality scraps usually requires more energy, secondary aluminium production consumes only 5 % of the energy needed for the production of primary aluminium.

4.2.4.5 Mass stream overview and input/output data

The range of the typical plant, process and emission parameters (raw gas) of aluminium smelting plants is shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Range of the typical plant, process and emission parameters (raw gas) of secondary aluminium production plants

Parameter ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Rotary drum furnace	Tilting rotary furnace	Closed well or Hearth furnace		Shaft furnace	Crucible furnace	Channel induction furnace	
				Single chamber	Multiple-chamber, hearth furnace with melting bridge				
Preferred application		Production of secondary aluminium	Production of secondary aluminium	Production of secondary aluminium, foundries		Production of secondary aluminium	Moulding shops	Moulding shops	Production of secondary aluminium
Purpose		Melting	Melting	Melting	Holding, casting	Melting	Melting, holding	Melting, holding	Melting, holding
Preferred feedstock		New scrap (thin-walled, in small pieces), old scrap, dross	Old scrap, dross	Ingots, new/old scrap	Molten metal	Thin-walled new/old scrap (painted/coated)	Ingots, new scrap (recycled material)	Ingots, new scrap	Ingots, new/old scrap
Preferred melt treatment		Salt cover	Reduced salt cover compared to rotary drum	No salt cover, chlorination		No salt cover	No salt cover	No salt cover	No salt cover, chlorination
Capacity	t	Up to 150	Up to 30	Up to 180		Up to 180	0.5–4 (possibly up to 15)	0.1–0.6 ^(b) , 0.5–6 ^(c) , 0.1–1.2 ^(a)	Approximately 50
Melting efficiency	t feedstock/h	Up to 20	Up to 7	Up to 30	NA	3–28	Up to 2.5 (typically 1.5)	0.075–0.26 ^(b) , 0.25–3 ^(c) , 0.1–0.43 ^(a)	Approximately 7 (melting efficiency)
Preferred fuels		Natural gas, LPG, light fuel oil, medium/heavy fuel oil	Natural gas, LPG, extra-light fuel oil	Natural gas, LPG, extra-light fuel oil		Natural gas, LPG, extra-light fuel oil	Natural gas, LPG, extra-light fuel oil	Natural gas, LPG, extra-light fuel oil or electrically heated	Electrically heated
Energy use ⁽⁵⁾	GJ/t metal	2–4.7	2–2.5	2.5–4.4	No details	2.4–4.3	2.1–3.3 (depending on the mode of operation)	5.1–7.4 (M), ^(a) , 1.7–3.5 (H), ^(a) , 2.7/1.9–2.1 (M), ^(b) / ^(c) , 0.4/0.9–1.2 (H), ^(b) / ^(c)	Approximately 3.6 (M/H)
Waste gas rate ⁽⁵⁾	m ³ /t metal	9000–18 000	9000–13 000	5000–13 000	No details	10 000–15 000	2000–4000	2000–4000 (M), ^(a)	Max. 14 500
Dust generation		+++	+++	++	+	++	NR	NR	+
Nitrogen oxides ⁽³⁾		+ (assuming optimised combustion conditions) or ++ (for fuel-/oxygen-heated furnaces)						NR	NR
Sulphur dioxides ⁽³⁾		NR							

Parameter ⁽¹⁾	Unit	Rotary drum furnace	Tilting rotary furnace	Closed well or Hearth furnace		Shaft furnace	Crucible furnace	Channel induction furnace	
				Single chamber	Multiple-chamber, hearth furnace with melting bridge				
Chlorine ⁽⁴⁾				++ (chlorination)					
Hydrogen chloride ⁽⁴⁾		+++	++	+, ++ (chlorination)	+, ++ (chlorination)	++	NR	++ (chlorination)	++ (chlorination)
Hydrogen fluoride		+++	++	+	+	+	NR	++	+
Total organic carbon ⁽²⁾		++	++	+	+	+	NR	NR	NR
PCDD/F ⁽²⁾		+++	++	++	NR	+	NR	NR.	NR

⁽¹⁾ Relevance of process emissions: +++ high, ++ moderate, + low, NR not relevant (e.g. because of very low melting rate).

⁽²⁾ Primarily dependent on type and composition of feedstock.

⁽³⁾ Primarily dependent on firing (choice of fuel, flame control).

⁽⁴⁾ Primarily dependent on type and extent of melt treatment, *inter alia* dependent on variables such as metal yield, air preheating, plant capacity utilisation.

⁽⁵⁾ Overall plant (sum of energy needs for treatment, smelting and holding, inclusive of auxiliary energy).

(M) For melting furnace.

(H) For holding furnace.

^(a) Fuel-heated crucible furnaces.

^(b) Resistance-heated crucible furnaces.

^(c) Inductively heated crucible furnaces.

NB: NR = Not relevant, NA = Not applicable.

Source: [312, VDI 2008], [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.2.5 Salt slag

Aluminium salt slags (also referred to as aluminium salt cake or black dross) are hazardous wastes and are usually [361, Spain 2013] not suitable for landfill. As they create harmful gases when wet, they should be stored under cover and on concrete floors to avoid leaking into the drainage.

An example input and output mass flow of a salt slag recovery process is shown in Figure 4.11, and Table 4.29 presents the typical composition of outputs from various salt slag recovery processes.

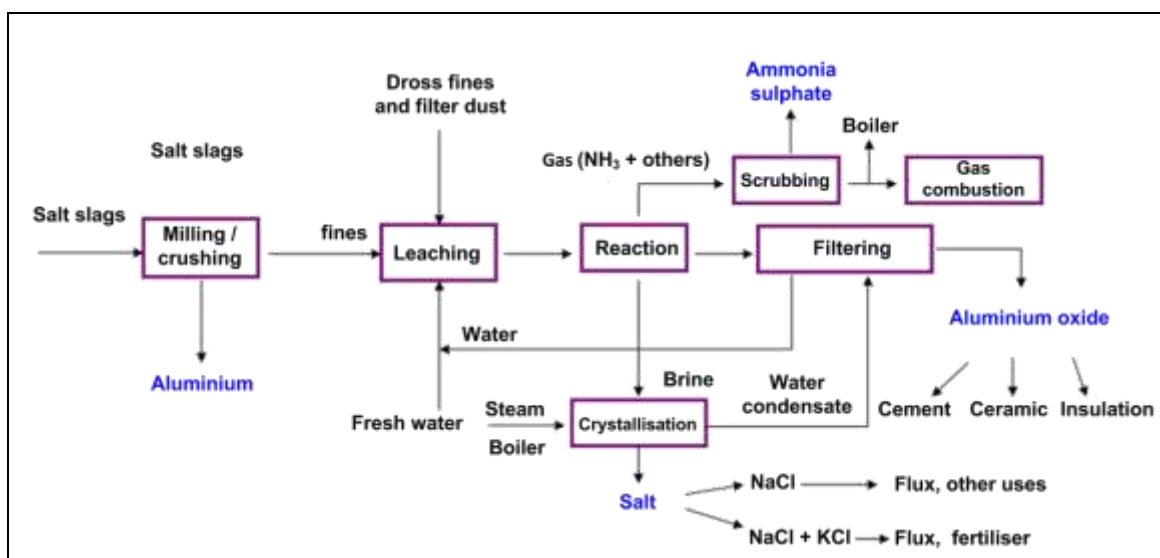


Figure 4.11: Mass flow of a salt slag full recycling process

Table 4.29: Typical outputs from salt slag recovery

Process	Intermediate product or residue	Quantity (t/t of salt slag)	Use or disposal option
Full recycling	Aluminium granulate	0.04–0.1	Sale or internal use in secondary Al melter
	Salt (NaCl/KCl)	0.2–0.55	Sale or internal use in secondary Al melter
	Aluminium oxides	0.46–0.68 ⁽¹⁾	Sale to brick, ceramics, clay, cement and mineral wool industries
	Ammonium sulphate	0.08	Sale to fertiliser industry
Partial recycling	Aluminium granulate	0.08	Sale to secondary Al melter
	Salt (95 % KCl)	0.09	Sale to fertiliser industry
	Leaching residue (including 20 % moisture, aluminium oxides, NaCl)	0.97	Cover layer for tailing piles; disposal in a deposit in or on land or in permanent storage
	Ammonium sulphate	0.03	Sale to fertiliser industry
	Phosphate solution (waste gas treatment)	0.07 m ³ /t salt slag	Sale to fertiliser industry

⁽¹⁾ Wet product.
 Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.2.5.1 Dust and other emissions to air

Gases arise from all the wet stages of the process, mainly hydrogen and methane, but also minor amounts of ammonia, phosphane and hydrogen sulphide. All these process emissions are collected and cleaned, and the ammonia is separated to produce ammonium sulphate (solution or salt) for sale. It is also possible to use some of these gases as a fuel, to generate heat for other parts of the process [113, ALFED 1998]. In some plants, all grinding stages are carried out under dry conditions, so there is no gas emission in this stage except dust recovered in a bag filter. Also, diffuse emissions of dust from the crushing of salt slag can be highly significant, and grinding installations should be sealed in order to avoid dust leaking out. In others, the final stage is carried out using water, in which case an activated carbon filter is used to reduce potential emissions of phosphane and hydrogen sulphide [267, BEFESA 2008].

Dust is generated in different plant sections, especially during all the dry crushing and grinding stages. Diffuse emissions of dust from the crushing of salt slag can be substantial. Grinding installations should be sealed in order to avoid dust leaking out. All off-gases are treated in a bag filter and the separated dust is sent directly to the dissolvers.

In Table 4.30 typical collected air and dust emissions from salt slag recycling plants (excluding boiler exhaust, if fitted) are shown.

Table 4.30: Collected air and dust emissions from salt slag recycling plants

Source	Emission control	Dust	Ammonia	Phosphane	Hydrogen sulphide
		(mg/Nm ³)	(mg/Nm ³)	(mg/Nm ³)	(mg/Nm ³)
		Min.–max.	Min.–max.	Min.–max.	Min.–max.
Dry milling, crushing, grinding, loading	Bag filter	< 1–5	-	-	
Wet milling	Activated carbon filter	-	-	< 0.1	< 0.1
Hot leaching	Afterburner with or without bag filter	1–9	1–9	< 1	< 1–1.7
Ammonia treatment, storage	Wet (H ₂ SO ₄) scrubber	5–7	1–9	< 1	< 1

Source: [296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.2.5.2 Water and solid waste

In the case of full recycling, the process is waste-water-free. Washing water and condensates of the intermediate process stages are normally returned to the dissolvers to replace the water evaporated in the process and lost in the form of wet oxides as process outputs. Waste water is generated in the partial recycling process.

In the full recycling process, the only solid waste occurring is activated carbon when it is used in the wet milling process.

In some partial recycling processes, the leaching residues are used to cover a tailings pile or are deposited on land [361, Spain 2013]. Salt is leached from the tailings.

4.2.5.3 Energy use

The energy consumption, including both fuel and electricity, for the full recycling process ranges from 1900 MJ to 3845 MJ per tonne of salt slag processed.

One partial recycling process has an average total energy consumption of 81 MJ per tonne of salt slag treated. Partial recycling uses relatively small amounts of energy, as the process recovers just one substance instead of all three products in the salt slag.

When only aluminium and other metallic products are recovered, the energetic cost can be estimated as 0.120 g of CO₂ per kg of salt slag treated.

4.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigenden Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Table 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

4.3.1 Tonerde

4.3.1.1 Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Bauxit und Tonerde

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und dem Transport von Rohstoffen für die Tonerdegewinnung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006].

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Freigesetzter Staub aus Mahl-, Klassier-, Verpack- und Transportvorgängen kann erfasst und in einer Entstaubungsanlage abgeschieden werden. Für Prozessschritte, die bei Umgebungstemperatur ablaufen, werden gewöhnlich Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) eingesetzt. Mit Gewebefiltern lassen sich in dieser Prozessstufe höhere Staubabscheidegrade erreichen als mit Elektrofiltern.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte liegen zwischen 10 mg/Nm³ und 70 mg/Nm³.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Einschränkungen für die Anwendung von Gewebefiltern ergeben sich durch die Gastemperatur und -feuchte.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen.
- Rückgewinnung verwertbarer Materialien

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in EL, FR, ES, DE, RO und IE

Literatur

[290, COM 2006]

4.3.1.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Trocknern, Dampferzeugern und Kalzinieröfen in der Tonerdeproduktion

Die Bauxittrocknung wird selten praktiziert. Sollte dennoch eine Trocknung erforderlich sein, so erfolgt diese am Standort des Bauxitbergwerks und fällt somit nicht in den Anwendungsbereich des vorliegenden Dokuments. Dampferzeuger mit einer thermischen Leistung von > 50 MW sind Gegenstand des BVT-Merkblatts zu Großfeuerungsanlagen und werden hier nicht näher behandelt. Der vorliegende Abschnitt ist ausschließlich Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus Kalzinieröfen gewidmet.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1) oder Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Einsatz von schwefelarmen Brennstoffen oder Erdgas, soweit verfügbar
- NO_x-arme Brenner

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Abscheidung von Aluminiumoxid-Feinstäuben wird unabhängig vom Kalzinierverfahren in der Regel ein Elektrofilter (EGR) eingesetzt. Inzwischen können bei einigen Ofentechnologien je nach Abgastemperatur auch Gewebefilter zur Anwendung kommen.

SO₂-Emissionen werden direkt durch den Schwefelgehalt des eingesetzten Brennstoffs beeinflusst. Erdgas ist wegen seines geringen Schwefelgehalts durch sehr niedrige SO₂-Emissionswerte gekennzeichnet. Dabei ist jedoch zu berücksichtigen, dass der Schwefelgehalt je nach Erdgasherkunft, Aufbereitung und Verteilung stark schwanken kann.

Ferner wird NO_x während des Verbrennungsprozesses gebildet. Wesentlichen Einfluss auf die NO_x-Bildung haben dabei der eingesetzte Brennstoff, die Brenner- und Brennkammerkonstruktion sowie die Verbrennungstemperatur. Hohe NO_x-Emissionswerte wurden bei der Spezialtonerdenherstellung beobachtet, die höhere Betriebstemperaturen erfordert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Abfallanfall

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionswerte von Tonerdekalzinieranlagen sind in Tabelle 4.31 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 4.31: Emissionswerte von Tonerdekalzinieranlagen

Anlage	Minderungs- technik	Wert	Volumen- strom	Messwerferfassung und Messintervall	Staub		NO _x	
			Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³	kg/t	mg/Nm ³	kg/t
E (Brennstoff: Bunkeröl)	EGR	Min.	151 384	diskontinuierliche Messung	10,00	0,01	123,00	0,14
		Max.	245 288		145,00	0,19	236,00	0,20
		Mittelwert	219 133		68,00	0,10	157,00	0,18
B	EGR	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	7,00	0,0006	186,55	0,03
		Max.	300 000		76,00	0,01	1519,05	0,30
		Mittelwert	k.A.		23,00	0,002	536,25	0,09
D	Gewebe- filter	Min.	106 900 (berechnet)	kontinuierliche Messung (MMW)	19,09	0,07	23,661	0,10
		Max.			29,97		44,85	
		Mittelwert			23,23		35,75	
D	Gewebe- filter	Min.	92608 (berechnet)	kontinuierliche Messung (JMW)	10,53	0,05	0	0,33
		Max.			29,97		272,6	
		Mittelwert			22,89		118,83	

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]
 Legende: **MMW** = Monatsmittelwert, **JMW** = Jahresmittelwert

Weitere Emissionswerte aus der kontinuierlichen Messung hinter drei Kalzinieröfen wurden für Anlage A berichtet. Diese erscheinen nicht in der obigen Tabelle, da sie Messwerte aus dem Anfahr- und Abfahrbetrieb (d.h. nicht bestimmungsgemäßem Betrieb) der Kalzinieröfen enthalten.

Die Staubemissionen werden maßgeblich durch den eingesetzten Brennstoff und die Art des erzeugten Produkts beeinflusst.

Die im oberen Bereich liegenden NO_x-Emissionswerte beziehen sich auf Kalzinieranlagen zur Herstellung von Spezialtonerden, die einen höheren Kalzinierungsgrad erfordern.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Der Einsatz von sauberen Brennstoffen und Hochleistungsbrennern in Verbindung mit Elektrofiltern ist gängige Praxis in Kalzinieranlagen. Die jeweilige Konfiguration richtet sich nach der Anlagenauslegung, die ihrerseits wiederum durch das erzeugte Produkt bestimmt wird (Hüttentonerde, Spezialtonerden, usw.).

Bei Gewebefiltern sind die Einsatzgrenzen bezüglich Abgastemperatur und -feuchtigkeit zu berücksichtigen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in ES, FR, DE, EL, IE und RO

Literatur

[386, EAA 2012]

4.3.1.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung des bei der Tonerdeerzeugung anfallenden Rotschlamm

Der bei der Tonerdegewinnung aus Bauxit anfallende Rotschlamm, auch Bauxitrückstand genannt, ist von hoher Umweltrelevanz und erfordert entsprechende Vermeidungs- und Verminderungstechniken. Die nachstehend aufgeführten Techniken stützen sich auf das BVT-Merkblatt zum Management von Bergbauabfällen und Taubgestein und ergänzen die dort beschriebenen Maßnahmen.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Eindickung
- Reduzierung der Restalkalität/Neutralisation des Rotschlamm

Technische Beschreibung

Die beste Methode zur Handhabung des Rotschlamm ist anerkanntermaßen die weitgehende Senkung des pH-Werts und/oder Feuchtigkeitsgehalts. Ziel in Tonerderaffinerien sollte deshalb die Minimierung der Alkalinität und die Maximierung der Feststoffanteil des Bauxitrückstands sein. Dazu gehören auch eine sorgfältige Auslegung und Ausführung des Damms/der Deichwände und die Ablagerung des Materials in einer Art und Weise, die die spätere Sanierung/Rekultivierung/erneute Nutzung der Rotschlammdeponien und letztendlich deren Renaturierung oder Umwandlung in Nutzflächen ermöglicht.

Durch (Hoch- oder Niederdruck)filtration kann ein halbtrockner Filterkuchen erzeugt werden, der anschließend mit Wasser oder Dampf gewaschen wird, um die Alkalinität vor Transport, Ablagerung oder Nutzung zu reduzieren.

Vom getrockneten Rotschlamm geht ein Staubemissionsproblem aus. Mittel-/langfristiges Ziel sollte die Oberflächenabdeckung/Restaurierung der Deponien und deren Begrünung sein. Kurzfristig wird die Staubentwicklung durch Wasserberieselung gemindert.

Obwohl bedeutende Erfolge bei der Nutzung von Rotschlamm im Straßenbau, der Zementherstellung, als Abdeckmaterial und als Substitut für Feuerfestmaterial zu verzeichnen sind, wird derzeit nur ein sehr geringer Teil der anfallenden Rotschlammengen genutzt.

Des Weiteren kann die Alkalinität des Rotschlamm auch zur CO₂-Absorption genutzt werden. Diese Möglichkeit bietet sich für Primäraluminiumhütten, die am oder in der Nähe des Bauxitbergwerks oder in der Nähe einer anderen größeren CO₂-Emissionsquelle, z.B. einer Ammoniakanlage, wie in Australien praktiziert, angesiedelt sind.

Weitere Einzelheiten können dem BVT-Merkblatt zum Management von Bergbauabfällen und Taubgestein entnommen werden [332, COM 2009].

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minimierung der abgelagerten Bauxitrückstandsmengen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Kammerfilterpressen zur Rotschlammwässerung werden in Tonerdewerken in Griechenland und Frankreich eingesetzt. Mit dieser Technik lassen sich Feststoffgehalte von > 70 % erreichen.

Eine signifikante Senkung des Wassergehalts kann auch durch mechanische Oberflächenbearbeitung (Pflügen, sog. "farming") der Rotschlammdeponien erreicht werden. Nach geeigneter Behandlung und entsprechenden Absetzzeiten sind mit dieser Methode Feststoffgehalte von > 50 % erreichbar.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die erreichbare Umweltentlastung wird durch Faktoren wie Alter der Anlage, Anlagentechnik, Flächenangebot, Nähe zum Meer sowie lokale Gegebenheiten, wie z.B. Vorhandensein stillgelegter Bergwerke, Klima, Logistik, Beschaffenheit des Rückstands und gesetzliche Vorgaben, bestimmt.

Einige der im vorliegenden Dokument aufgezeigten Lösungen sind nur in wenigen Fällen anwendbar, da sich die spezifischen Produktionsbedingungen und örtlichen Gegebenheiten von Anlage zu Anlage unterscheiden. So bestehen z.B. bei einigen Anlagen Einschränkungen bezüglich des maximal zulässigen Feststoffgehalts, da der Rotschlamm über Pumpanlagen in das Endlager gefördert wird.

Nutzung der Alkalinität des Bauxitrückstands

Die Nutzung von Rotschlamm zur CO₂-Absorption befindet sich noch im Entwicklungsstadium. Die technische Machbarkeit und Wirtschaftlichkeit dieser Option wird derzeit noch untersucht.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

An einem Standort in Frankreich, an dem insgesamt über 400 000 t/a Rotschlamm zur Entwässerung anfallen, beliefen sich die Kosten für die erste Ausbaustufe der Kammerfilterpresse mit einem Durchsatz von 130 000 t/a auf EUR 8 Millionen. Die Investitionen für den Ausbau der Anlage auf die volle Kapazität in naher Zukunft werden mehr als das Dreifache dieser Summe betragen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Spanien und Irland verwenden Vakuumtrommelfilter zur Rotschlammwässerung. Ein Betrieb in Frankreich wird 2016 die Verklappung auf See einstellen und auf Filterpressen umsteigen.

Literatur

[247, France 2008], [332, COM 2009], [387, EAA 2013]

4.3.1.4 Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs bei der Erzeugung von Tonerde aus Bauxit

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Plattenwärmetauscher
- Kalzinieröfen nach dem Prinzip der zirkulierenden Wirbelschicht (ZWS)
- Schaltung des Aufschlussprozesses
- Bauxitrohstoffauswahl

Technische Beschreibung

Plattenwärmetauscher

Plattenwärmetauscher ermöglichen im Vergleich zur Entspannungsverdampfung eine höhere Wärmerückgewinnung aus der zum Ausfällungsbereich geleiteten Aluminatlauge.

ZWS-Kalzinieröfen

Aufgrund der besseren Nutzung der in der Tonerde enthaltenen chemischen Energie und der höheren Wärmerückgewinnung aus dem Abgas haben ZWS-Kalzinieröfen aus Sicht der Energieeffizienz einen deutlichen Vorteil gegenüber Drehrohröfen.

Zur Optimierung des Energieeffizienz von Drehrohröfen können die Brennerkonstruktion oder die Position der Brenner im Ofen angepasst und die heißen Abgase zur Vorwärmung des Einsatzhydrats genutzt werden.

Bei Alunorte wurde der spezifische Energieverbrauch eines Wirbelschicht-Kalzinierofens auf 2790 kJ/kg Tonerde gesenkt.

Schaltung des Aufschlussprozesses

Bei der Einstrom-Verfahrensvariante wird die Suspension in nur einem Kreislauf ohne Einsatz von Frischdampf aufgeheizt, wodurch im Gegensatz zum Zwei-Stromverfahren keine Verdünnung der Suspension beim Aufheizen auf Aufschlusstemperatur stattfindet. Ein Beispiel für ein Einstrom-Verfahren ist die Rohraufschlussanlage.

Bauxitrohstoffauswahl

Die Qualität des eingesetzten Bauxits hat einen Einfluss auf den Energieverbrauch. Im Fall von Bauxit mit höheren Feuchtigkeitsgehalten wird mehr Wasser in den Prozess eingetragen, das verdampft werden muss. Bauxite mit hohem Monohydratgehalt (Böhmit und/oder Diaspor) erfordern höhere Aufschlussdrücke und -temperaturen, was sich in einem höheren Energieverbrauch niederschlägt. Bauxitsorten werden hauptsächlich nach ihrem Tonerdegehalt und nach der Form, in der das Aluminiumoxid im Bauxit vorliegt (Gibbsit, Böhmit, Diaspor) unterschieden.

Gibbsit lässt sich am leichtesten aus Bauxit extrahieren und benötigt relativ niedrige Aufschlusstemperaturen (150 °C). Zur Gewinnung von Aluminiumoxid aus Bauxit mit Böhmitgehalten über 4 % muss die Aufschlusstemperatur auf 250 °C erhöht werden, um das Böhmit in der Alkalilauge zu lösen (Hochtemperatur- oder Hochdruck-Bauxitaffinerie). Noch höhere Aufschlusstemperaturen werden für Diaspor benötigt. Einige Bauxiterze, die sowohl Böhmit als auch Gibbsit enthalten, können im Zweistrom-Verfahren aufgeschlossen werden, bei dem kein vollständiger Aufschluss bei hohen Temperaturen notwendig ist, um das in geringen Mengen vorhandene Böhmit zu lösen.

Bei Bauxiten mit höheren Tonerdegehalten reduziert sich nicht nur der Energieaufwand für den Transport und Umschlag, sondern es fallen auch geringere Rotschlammengen an.

Bei Bauxiten mit hohem Siliziumdioxidgehalt entstehen höhere Natronlaugeverluste durch Reaktion von SiO₂ mit NaOH unter Bildung von Natrium-Aluminium-Silikat (Sodalith) sowie

Natrium- und Aluminiumverluste mit der Folge einer Verdünnung der Lauge und einer Verringerung der Energieeffizienz.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Energiebedarfs für den Bauxitaufschluss
- Verminderung der relevanten Emissionen in alle Umweltmedien

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Durch Prozessoptimierung lässt sich bei Einsatz von Rohrreaktoren der spezifische Energieverbrauch auf 7,0 GJ/t Al_2O_3 senken.

Bei anderen Anlagen mit konventioneller Aufschlusstechnologie kann der verfahrensspezifische Energieverbrauch auf < 10 GJ/t Al_2O_3 gesenkt werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Plattenwärmetauscher

Diese Technik bietet sich an, wenn der Energiegehalt der Kühlflüssigkeit im Prozess genutzt werden kann, d.h. soweit es die Kondensatbilanz und die Laugenparameter erlauben.

ZWS-Kalzinieröfen

Diese Technologie eignet sich nicht für Spezial-/„Non-Smelter-Grade“-Tonerden, da diese einen höheren Kalziniergrad erfordern, der nur mit Drehrohröfen erreicht werden kann. Neuere Studien [388, Finland 2013] zeigen, dass mit ZWS-Kalzinieröfen ein Kalzinat mit einem Feinanteil erzeugt werden kann, der nur geringfügig über dem mit Drehrohröfen erreichbaren Wert liegt.

Drehrohröfen können durch Änderung der Brennerkonstruktion oder Brenneranordnung im Ofen und Nutzung der heißen Abgase zur Vorwärmung des Einsatzhydrats energetisch optimiert werden.

Schaltung des Aufschlussprozesses

Eine Umstellung vom Zweistrom-Aufschlussverfahren mit Dampfeindüsung auf ein Einstromverfahren ist ohne eine komplette Neuauslegung und einen vollständigen Umbau der Anlage nicht möglich. Auch stehen häufig die hierzu benötigten Flächen nicht zur Verfügung.

Bauxitrohstoffauswahl

Einige Anlagen sind auf eine bestimmte Bauxitqualität ausgelegt, so dass ein Wechsel zu alternativen Rohstoffquellen nicht ohne weiteres möglich ist. Dies betrifft Anlagen, die für Betrieb bei hoher Temperatur und hohem Druck ausgelegt sind und verfahrensbedingt eine geringere Energieeffizienz haben (z.B. Anlagen, die Bauxite mit hohen Anteilen an Böhmit und verfügbarem Gesamtaluminiumoxid verarbeiten).

Wirtschaftlichkeit

ZWS-Kalzinieröfen

Durch Umstellung von konventionellen Drehrohröfen auf ZWS-Kalzinieröfen lassen sich Brennstoffeinsparungen von schätzungsweise 30–35 % realisieren. Bei Drehrohröfen mit optimaler Brennerkonstruktion, optimaler Brenneranordnung und Hydratvorwärmung liegen die erzielbaren Brennstoffeinsparungen um etwa die Hälfte niedriger.

Schaltung des Aufschlussprozesses

Sowohl aus Kostengründen als auch aus Gründen des Platzbedarfs ist eine Umstellung bestehender Anlagen auf Rohraufschluss praktisch unmöglich. In diesem Zusammenhang ist zu erwähnen, dass in einigen Tonerdewerken Verkrustungsprobleme bei den Rohrautoklaven aufgetreten sind, wodurch ein Großteil der Energieeinsparungen durch die

Instandsetzungskosten hinfällig wird. Nach den der TWG vorliegenden Information wird die Rohraufschlusstechnologie in nur zwei Anlagen weltweit eingesetzt (eine davon in Deutschland)

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung der Energiekosten
- Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen

Beispielanlagen

- WS-Kalzinieröfen: Anlagen in Spanien und Irland
- Drehrohröfen: Anlagen in Frankreich und Griechenland
- Sonstige Kalzinieröfen: Anlagen in Griechenland und Rumänien
- Rohrautoklaven: eine Anlage in Deutschland
- Spezialtonerdeanlagen: Anlagen in Frankreich und Griechenland

Literatur

[386, EAA 2012], [389, EAA 2012]

4.3.2 Anodenproduktion für die Aluminiumerzeugung

4.3.2.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Primärrohstoffen für die Anodenproduktion sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006]. Nachstehend werden die sektorspezifischen Techniken zur Emissionsminderung beim Lagern und Umschlagen von Koks und Pech erörtert.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Zyklon mit nachgeschaltetem EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3), RNV oder KNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Zyklon mit nachgeschaltetem EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)

Zur Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen beim Lagern, Umschlagen, Brechen, Mahlen und Sieben von Koks werden Entstaubungsanlagen vorgesehen. Gewebefilter sind die am weitesten verbreitete Technik und Elektrofiltern in der erreichbaren Entstaubungsleistung überlegen.

Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3), RNV oder KNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Diese Techniken werden vereinzelt zur Reinigung des Abgases aus den Flüssigpechlagertanks eingesetzt. Die Gaspendingung wird ebenfalls praktiziert. Als Adsorbens in Trockensorptionsverfahren wird üblicherweise pulverförmiger Koks verwendet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen.
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Verminderung von VOC-Emissionen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höhere Lärmemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die nachfolgende, von der EAA zur Verfügung gestellte Tabelle 4.32 zeigt Staubemissionsbandbreiten für ausgewählte Techniken.

Tabelle 4.32: Bandbreite der Staubemissionen aus Rohstoffumschlag, -lagerung und -transport

Quelle	Minderungs- technik	Luftschadstoff	Reingas- konzentration (mg/Nm ³)
Materialumschlag und -lagerung: Koks und recyceltes Kohlenstoffmaterial	Zyklon + EGR	Staub	20–60
	Gewebefilter	Staub	5–20
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>			

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen der Anlage

Beispielanlagen

- Gewebefilter oder Elektrofilter: alle europäischen Anlagen
- Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks: eine Anlage in Spanien
- RNV oder KNV: Anlagen in Norwegen und Spanien

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.2.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen aus der Mahlung, Mischung und Formgebung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Kondensatoren
- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter
- RNV oder KNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Nur in vereinzelt Fällen wird den Abgasreinigungsanlagen dieser Prozessstufe auch die erfasste Abluft aus dem Lagerbereich zugeführt, da Mahlen, Mischen und Formen in einem anderen, von der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport getrennten Bereich durchgeführt werden.

Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Der beim Mahlen und der Vorwärmung des Koks und der recycelten Ausgangsstoffe freigesetzte Staub kann erfasst und in Gewebefiltern abgeschieden werden. Die beim Mischen und Formen des Pechs auftretenden PAK-Emissionen können kondensiert und/oder an Koksstaub adsorbiert und anschließend in Gewebefiltern abgeschieden werden. Die Kondensation kann durch externe und/oder interne Luftkühlung und/oder Wasserkühlung in einem Konditionierturm erfolgen. Der beladene Staub wird anschließend, soweit es die Qualitätsanforderungen an die hergestellte Anodenmasse erlauben, in die Mischstufe zurückgeführt.

In Anlagen, in denen noch festes Pech verarbeitet wird, kann das Abgas aus der Einschmelzstufe in der gleichen Weise behandelt werden wie die Pechdämpfe aus den Mischmaschinen.

RNV oder KNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1).

Die beim Mischen und Formen auftretenden Staub- und PAK-Emissionen können in einer RNV oder KNV nachverbrannt werden. Die dabei freigesetzte Wärme kann zum Teil im Prozess genutzt werden und einen Teil der zur Aufrechterhaltung der Temperatur in den Lagertanks und Mischern erforderlichen Wärmeenergie ersetzen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen
- Verwertung des abgeschiedenen Staubs

RNV oder KNV

- Minderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter und RNV

Tabelle 4.33: Reingaswerte nach Koksstaubminderungseinrichtungen

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Volumenstrom Nm ³ /h	Messwertaufzeichnung und Messintervall	Staub	
					mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden
1	RNV	Min.	55 559	diskontinuierliche Messung (Bezugsjahr 2010)	0,06	8,8E-05
		Max.	72 577		0,25	3,82E-04
		Mittelwert	67 359		0,16	3,23E-04
1	RNV	Min.	55 559	diskontinuierliche Messung (Bezugszeitraum 2008–2010)	0,01	1,7E-05
		Max.	72 577		0,44	5,88E-04
		Mittelwert	67 359		0,15	3,05E-04 k.A.
2	Gewebefilter	Min.	3 000	diskontinuierliche Messung (Bezugsjahr 2010)	0,80	k.A.
		Max.	35 000		10	
		Mittelwert	18 000		3	
3	Gewebefilter	Mittelwert	13 212	diskontinuierliche Messung (1 x pro Jahr, Bezugszeitraum 2007–2010)	5,65	0,01
4	Gewebefilter	Min.	3 924	diskontinuierliche Messung (12 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2011)	0,30	k.A.
		Max.	35 532		15,07	
		Mittelwert	25 200		3,05	
5	Gewebefilter	Min.	k.A.	diskontinuierliche Messung	2	k.A.
		Mittelwert			16,70	
6	Gewebefilter	Min.	24 840	diskontinuierliche Messung	6,60	k.A.
		Max.	27 000		20,50	
		Mittelwert	25 830		10,70	
7	Gewebefilter	Min.	2 892	diskontinuierliche Messung (10 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2010)	0,15	5,8E-05
		Max.	4 665		k.A.	0,037
		Mittelwert	3 726		20,04	0,008
		Min.	17 997		1,13	0,003
		Max.	22 943		3,35	0,008
		Mittelwert	21 398		2,11	0,005
		Min.	3 373		0,98	4,15E-04
		Max.	4 799		17,75	0,008
		Mittelwert	4 024		5,61	0,002

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter

Die Trockensorptionsstufen in europäischen Anodenwerken sind gewöhnlich für Abgasvolumenströme von 25 000 Nm³/h – 100 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt, wobei ca. 10 000 Nm³/h auf die Heißpechmischanlagen entfallen.

Tabelle 4.34: Reingaswerte nach Pechminderungseinrichtungen

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Volumenstrom	Messwernerfassung und Messintervall	Staub	
			Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden
2	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Min.	5 000	diskontinuierliche Messung	0,20	k.A.
		Max.	35 000		17,00 *	
		Mittelwert	18 000		3,00	
4	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Min.	10 476	diskontinuierliche Messung (Bezugsjahr 2011)	1,33	k.A.
		Max.	14 040		10,93	
		Mittelwert	12 064		4,23	
5	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Min.	k.A.	diskontinuierliche Messung	0,30	k.A.
		Max.			4,80	
		Mittelwert			2,00	
6	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Min.	6 120	diskontinuierliche Messung (4 x pro Jahr)	0,20	k.A.
		Max.	7 200		1,90	
		Mittelwert	6 480		0,80	
7	RNV	Min.	9 348	diskontinuierliche Messung (12 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2010)	0	0
		Max.	12 900		4,11	0,005
		Mittelwert	11 770		0,98	0,001
8	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Min.	20 985	diskontinuierliche Messung (12 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2010)	4,10	0,006
		Max.	27 421		k.A.	k.A.
		Mittelwert	23 891		11,93	0,015
DE 1	Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Koks + Gewebefilter	Max.	k.A.	kontinuierliche Messung (Bezugsjahr 2008; 17 293 Halbstundenmittelwerte)	79,69 % der Werte < 4 mg/Nm ³ *	
					98,18 % der Werte < 6 mg/Nm ³ *	

* Emissionsgrenzwert: 5 mg/Nm³
 Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [385, Germany 2012], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage FR1 wurde 2011 ein Spitzenwert von 9,64 mg Staub/Nm³ beim nichtbestimmungsgemäßen Betrieb der Anlage gemessen. Nach einer internen Untersuchung stellte sich heraus, dass die Ursache in einer Betriebsstörung des Dosiersystems lag.

Emissionswerte für B[a]P in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe wurden nur für die Anlagen 8, DE 1 und FR 1 berichtet. Der Mittelwert aus der diskontinuierlichen Messung liegt bei 21,67 µg/Nm³ (0,0277 g/t Anoden). Für Anlage DE 1 werden Werte von 0,7–1,4 µg/Nm³ (Stichproben), für Anlage FR 1 ein Wert von 1,9 µg/Nm³ (der Emissionsgrenzwert für diese Anlage ist auf 0,5 µg/Nm³ festgelegt) berichtet.

RNV oder KNV

Der Betreiber von Anlage 7 gab zwar an, eine RNV zur Reinigung der heißen teerhaltigen Gase einzusetzen, jedoch ohne Nennung von PAK/B[a]P-Werten.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Gaskühlung)

RNV oder KNV

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für den Betrieb der RNV/KNV). Wird die RNV ausschließlich zur Reinigung von konzentriertem pechhaltigem Abgas verwendet, ist jedoch ein weitgehend autothermer Betrieb mit einem entsprechend geringeren Energiebedarf möglich. Je mehr Emissionsquellen an die RNV angeschlossen werden, umso höher ist deren Energiebedarf.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit*Gewebefilter*

Gewebefilter alleine ohne weitere Minderungseinrichtungen werden nur zur Abscheidung von inertem Koksstaub aus z.B. der Abluft des Kokslagerbereichs oder der Mahlanlage eingesetzt.

Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter

Diese Techniken sind auf alle Bereiche des Anodenwerks anwendbar, in denen Pechdämpfe bzw. Staub emittiert werden.

RNV oder KNV

Diese Techniken können bei erhöhten Pechkonzentrationen im Abgas der Grünmassenmisch-, kühl- und formgebungsanlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit*Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter*

Die Investitionskosten für eine Trockensorptionsstufe für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von 50 000 m³/h liegen bei ca. EUR 1,4 Millionen (einschl. Montagekosten, aber ohne Abgasfassungssystem).

RNV oder KNV

Die Investitionskosten für eine 2002 installierte kleine KNV-Anlage beliefen sich auf USD 300 000 im Vergleich zu EUR 600 000 für eine ähnliche Anlage in 2006.

Die jährlichen Betriebskosten werden mit rund USD 6 000 angegeben (hauptsächlich für Reinigungsarbeiten und Katalysatoren).

Für den Anfahrbetrieb über ca. 8 Stunden muss elektrische Energie (50 kWh) aufgewendet werden. Danach kann die notwendige Wärme zur Aufrechterhaltung der Oxidationstemperatur über das Reingas der KNV eingebracht werden. Zusätzlich entsteht ein Energieaufwand für die Absaugung eines Gasvolumenstroms von 1000 m³/h durch das Gebläse.

Für eine RNV-Anlage in Norwegen mit einem Durchsatz von 10 000 m³/h wurden Investitionskosten in Höhe von EUR 1,9 Millionen genannt. Die Wartungskosten liegen bei EUR 20 000 pro Jahr.

Für eine RNV-Anlage mit einem Durchsatz von 50 000 m³/h kann von Investitionskosten in Höhe von ca. EUR 4 Millionen ausgegangen werden. Bei gleichem Volumenstrom lägen die Kosten für eine Verfahrenskombination bestehend aus einer RNV zur Behandlung von Abgasen mit hohem Pechgehalt und einer Trockensorptionsstufe für niedrigkonzentriertes Abgas bei EUR 3 Millionen (ohne Gasfassungssystem, aber einschl. Montagekosten).

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Staub- und Pechrückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

- Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter: die meisten europäischen Anlagen
- RNV oder KNV: Anlagen in Norwegen und Spanien

Literatur

[272, AI input 2008]

4.3.2.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Anodenbrennerei

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) unter Verwendung von Tonerde als Adsorbens mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)
- RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1) mit Vor- und Nachreinigung
- Einsatz schwefelarmer Rohstoffe

Technische Beschreibung

Das über die Ringleitung eines oder mehrerer Anodenbrennöfen erfasste Abgas wird über ein Abgaskanalsystem einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage zugeführt. Die angewandten Minderungstechniken sind abhängig von der Art der Anlage (Aluminiumhütte mit integrierter Anodenproduktion oder eigenständiges Anodenwerk).

Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Beim Trockensorptionsverfahren werden Fluoride und PAK durch Adsorption an Tonerde zurückgewonnen. Zur Einstellung optimaler Temperaturbedingungen für die Fluorid- und PAK-Adsorption wird das Abgas vor Eintritt in die Reaktorstufe gewöhnlich in einem Verdampfungskühler auf Prozesstemperatur abgekühlt. Im nachgeschalteten Reaktor wird frische Tonerde in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen und mit diesem innig vermischt. Die Adsorption der Fluoride und PAK erfolgt überwiegend im Reaktor. Das Gas-/Tonerdegemisch gelangt anschließend in einen Entstauber, in dem die fluoridbeladene Tonerde aus der Gasphase abgeschieden wird. Als Entstaubungsaggregat kommen gewöhnlich Gewebefilter zum Einsatz. In dem sich auf dem Filtermedium aufbauenden Filterkuchen finden weitere Sorptionsprozesse statt, so dass die Abscheideleistung insgesamt gesteigert wird. Die beladene Tonerde wird als Ausgangsstoff in der Schmelzflusselektrolyse genutzt.

Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)

Fluoride und PAK werden in der Waschflüssigkeit absorbiert bzw. Staub durch Anlagerung an Flüssigkeitströpfchen aus der Gasphase abgeschieden. Das Waschwasser wird im geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt, aus dem regelmäßig ein Teilstrom ausgeschleust wird, um das notwendige Konzentrationsgefälle aufrechtzuerhalten.

RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1) mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

RNV-Anlagen werden bevorzugt in Anodenwerken ohne direkten Zugang zu Tonerde (eigenständige Anlagen) und aus historischen Gründen auch in anderen Anlagen eingesetzt. Eine RNV-Anlage besteht aus mehreren mit Wärmespeichermassen bestückten Kammern, sog. Regeneratoren, die abwechselnd den Rohgas-, Reingas- und Spülbetrieb sicherstellen.

Da in eigenständigen Anodenwerken auch Anodenreste mitverarbeitet werden, muss hier eine Abgasnachreinigung zur Rückgewinnung der Fluoride erfolgen.

Die Abgasreinigung erfolgt in vier Schritten:

1. Abscheidung von groben Teercomponenten und Staub: Das Brennofenabgas wird über eine keramische Füllkörperschicht geleitet. Dabei kondensieren die schweren Teercomponenten auf dem Bett aus, das periodisch mit Heißgas aus der RNV gespült wird. Das Abgas aus der Spülphase wird in die RNV, nicht in die Vorreinigungsstufe geleitet.
2. RNV: Das Rohgas wird vor Eintritt in die Brennkammer in mit Keramik-Wärmespeichermassen bestückten Regeneratoren vorgewärmt, die zuvor durch das heiße Reingas aus der Brennkammer aufgeheizt wurden. Durch regelmäßigen Wechsel der

Gasdurchströmungsrichtung werden die Regeneratoren abwechselnd auf Rohgas- und Reingasbetrieb geschaltet.

3. Brennkammer: Das Abgas wird über eine Brennkammer geführt, in der feine Teerbestandteile und PAK bei Temperaturen von ca. 800°C thermisch nachverbrannt werden.
4. Fluoridabsorption: Zur Abscheidung von Fluoriden wird das Abgas über eine Schüttschicht aus gebrochenem Kalk oder Kalkstein geleitet. Des Weiteren werden zur Fluoridabscheidung das Meerwasser-Waschverfahren in einer Anlage in Norwegen und das Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde und nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter in einer Anlage in Deutschland angewendet.

Einsatz schwefelarmer Rohstoffe

Die SO₂-Emissionen des Brennofens werden maßgeblich vom Schwefelgehalt der erzeugten Anoden und dem eingesetzten Brennstoff beeinflusst.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Staub-, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen
- Vollständige Rückgewinnung aller Produkte zum Einsatz im Elektrolyseprozess
- Verwendung von Tonerde als Adsorbens, womit der Einsatz von anderen Reagenzien oder Brennstoff entfällt

Nasswäscher

- Minderung von Staub- und Fluoridemissionen

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

- Minderung von Staub-, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen

Einsatz schwefelarmer Rohstoffe

- Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei den meisten Anodenbrennöfen fällt je nach Ofentechnologie ein spezifischer Abgasvolumenstrom von 3500–7500 m³/t Anoden an. Moderne offene Öfen sind i.d.R. für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von ca. 5500 m³/t Anoden ausgelegt

Mit zunehmendem Alter des Ofens können die Emissionen infolge von Undichtigkeiten in der Feuerfestauskleidung und dem Absaugsystem ansteigen.

Emissionswerte für Anodenbrennöfen in integrierten Primäraluminiumhütten und eigenständigen Anodenwerken sind jeweils in Tabelle 4.35 bis Tabelle 4.40 und Tabelle 4.41 bis Tabelle 4.42 dargestellt.

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Tabelle 4.35: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in Anlage E

Minderungs-technik	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Messwerterfassung und Messintervall	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	Fluoride (mg/Nm ³)	SO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	Min.	61 200	diskontinuierliche Messung (Bezugsjahr 2011)	1,30	0,41	99,48
	Max.	79 200		3,85	0,76	151,28 *
	Mittelwert	71 460		2,21	0,59	124,35

* Zum S-Gehalt der Anoden liegen keine Angaben vor.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 4.36: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in einer Anlage in Deutschland

Minderungstechnik	Wert	Messwerterfassung und Messintervall	Staub	B[a]P	Formaldehyd	Benzol	HF	SO ₂
			mg/Nm ³	µg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³
Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	Min.	kontinuierliche Emissionsmessung für Staub (17 300 Halbstundenmittelwerte in 2008), diskontinuierliche Messung der übrigen Emissionsparameter	k.A.	k.A.	0,4	0,6	k.A.	22,9
	Max.		79,09 % der Werte < 4 mg/Nm ³	<1,0	2,9	2,4	<0,2	35,2 *
			90,03 % der Werte < 6 mg/Nm ³					
			94,65 % der Werte < 10 mg/Nm ³					

* Schwefelarmer Brennstoff; keine Schwefelzugabe bei der Mischung der Anodenmasse
 Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [385, Germany 2012]

Tabelle 4.37: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter in einer Anlage in Frankreich

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Messererfassung und Messintervall	Staub		HF	Fluoride
				mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³
FR 1	Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	Min.	diskontinuierliche Messung (2x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2012)	1,36	0,02	0,02	0,03
		Max.		2,56	0,04	0,04	0,07
		Mittelwert		1,96	0,03	0,03	0,05
FR 1		Min.	diskontinuierliche Messung (3 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2011)*	1,30	0,02	0,03	0,02
		Max.		4,67	0,06	0,06	0,11
		Mittelwert		3,10	0,04	0,03	0,06

* Der Betreiber berichtet einen Störfall mit einem Spitzenwert von 15,4 mg/Nm³. Nach einer internen Untersuchung stellte sich heraus, dass die Ursache in einer Betriebsstörung eines der Filter lag.
 Quelle: [390, France 2012]

Nasswäscher in Kombination mit anderen Techniken

Nasswäscher werden auch in unterschiedlichen Kombinationen mit anderen Techniken eingesetzt, z.B. zusammen mit einem Trockensorptionsverfahren (Anlage A) oder einem EGR + Trockensorptionsverfahren (Anlage F).

Tabelle 4.38: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher und Trockensorptionsverfahren in einer integrierten Aluminiumhütte

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Volumenstrom	Staub		BaP		Fluoride		SO ₂ (1)	
			Nm ³ /h	mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	µg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	g/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden
A	Nasswäscher in Kombination mit Trockensorptionsverfahren	Min.	191 130	0,85	1,47E-04	0,001		0,002	3E-08	0,46	8,1E-05
		Max.	254 785	5,06	8,52E-04	0,207		0,08	1,4E-05	2,57	4,91E-04
		Mittelw.	12 976	1,01	4,70E-04	0,058		0,01	2E-06	1,41	2,67E-04

(1) S-Gehalt der Anoden: 1,4 %
 Werte 2010
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 4.39: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher, EGR und Trockensorptionsstufe in einer integrierten Aluminiumhütte

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Volumenstrom	Messererfassung und Messintervall	Staub		B[a]P		Fluoride		SO ₂	
			Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	µg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	g/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden
F	Nasswäscher mit EGR und Trockensorptionsverfahren	Min.	40 000	diskontinuierliche Messung (9 x pro Jahr)	0,80	0,004	0,53	0,002	0,002	2E-05	7,32	0,03
		Max.	44 800		7,16	0,032	87,02	0,026	0,37	0,001	18,14	0,08
		Mittelw.	42 873		2,79	0,012	13,01	0,011	0,06	4E-04	11,81	0,05

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Weiterhin liegen Daten für eine Anlage in Norwegen vor, in der zusätzlich zur RNV ein Meerwasserwäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Nass-EGR eingesetzt wird (Tabelle 4.40).

Tabelle 4.40: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in Kombination mit einem Meerwasserwäscher und EGR

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Volumenstrom	Messererfassung und Messintervall	Staub		B[a]P		Fluoride		SO ₂	
			Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	µg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	g/t Anoden	mg/Nm ³	kg/t Anoden
G	RNV + Meerwasserwäscher + EGR	Min.	33 633	diskontinuierliche Messung (12 x pro Jahr, Bezugsjahr 2010)	0,18	0,001	1,00	0,002	0,002	3E-06	1,30	0,003
		Max.	118 184		4,71	0,03	47,00	0,365	0,006	5,3E-5	27,06	0,17
		Mittelwert	55 582		1,25	0,004	11,00	0,056	0,004	1,3E-05	9,28	0,04

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

Die in Tabelle 4.41 und Tabelle 4.42 aufgeführten Beispiele beziehen sich auf einen Anodenbrennofen in den Niederlanden (80 000 Nm³/h).

Tabelle 4.41: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in einem eigenständigen Anodenwerk (Teil 1)

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Staub	Fluoride	SO ₂	NO _x	Wert	Messwertaufzeichnung und Messintervall
		mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³		
C	RNV	3,5	1,6	250 ⁽¹⁾	61	Mittelwert	kontinuierliche Messung (Halbstundenmittelwerte)

⁽¹⁾ In den vorangegangenen Jahren wurde ein Emissionswert von 174 mg/Nm³ erreicht bedingt durch niedrigere Brenntemperaturen und den Einsatz schwefelarmer Rohstoffe.
 Quelle: [391, The Netherlands 2012]

Zusätzliche Angaben zu dieser Anlage für den Zeitraum Januar bis August 2013 zeigen starke Schwankungen in den Tagesmittelwerten für SO₂ (Werte zwischen ca. 100 mg/Nm³ und > 500 mg/Nm³) und HF (Werte zwischen < 0,5 mg/Nm³ und > 5 mg/Nm³). Der durchschnittliche Schwefelgehalt der Anoden in 2011, 2012 und 2013 betrug 1,5 %.

Tabelle 4.42: Emissionswerte eines Anodenbrennofens mit nachgeschalteter RNV in einem eigenständigen Anodenwerk (Teil 2)

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Wert	Messwertaufzeichnung und Messintervall	PAK (EPA)	PAK (EPA)	PAK (OSPAR/NeR)	PAK (OSPAR/NeR)	C _x H _y
				µg/Nm ³	µg/Nm ³	µg/Nm ³	µg/Nm ³	
C	RNV	Min.	diskontinuierliche Messung	28	160	2,8	2,6	2,8
		Max.		430	160	13,8	2,6	2,8
		Mittelwert		180	160	7,8	2,6	2,8

Quelle: [391, The Netherlands 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

- Höherer Energieaufwand (Trockensorptionsverfahren einschl. Gebläse haben einen Energiebedarf von 30–50 kWh/t Anoden).

Nasswäscher

- Zusätzlicher Energie- und Wasserverbrauch bei Wäscherbetrieb im Durchlaufverfahren
- Anfall eines festen Abfallprodukts
- Bei Einsatz eines Meerwasserwäschers zur Abgasnachreinigung ist das Wäscherabwasser mit Fluoriden, Sulfatsalzen und PAK/BaP belastet.

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

- Zusätzlicher Energieverbrauch (zur Aufrechterhaltung der Temperaturen in der Verbrennungszone). Der Gesamtenergiebedarf des Standorts erhöht sich um 10%.
- Höhere CO₂- und NO_x-Emissionen
- Bei Einsatz eines Meerwasserwäschers zur Abgasnachreinigung ist das Wäscherabwasser mit Fluoriden und Sulfatsalzen belastet.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Diese Techniken sind in den meisten Prozessen, in denen Aluminiumoxid als Sorbens eingesetzt werden kann, anwendbar. Da Tonerde in Aluminiumhütten als Rohstoff zur Verfügung steht, ist dies die am häufigsten eingesetzte Verfahrenskombination in Aluminiumhütten mit integrierter Anodenproduktion.

Nasswäscher

Diese Technik kann bei Neuanlagen angewendet werden. Sollen Nasswäschern in bestehenden Anlagen eingesetzt werden, so sind hier die erhöhten Fluorid-, Sulfat- und Teeremissionen in das Abwasser zu berücksichtigen. Einschränkungen für die Anwendung von Nasswäschern können sich auch ergeben, wenn die Inhaltsstoffe des Wäscherabstoßes nicht in der AWA abgeschieden werden können und das Waschwasser nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder abgeleitet werden kann. Weitere Einschränkungen für die Anwendung dieser Technik ergeben sich bei großen Abgasvolumenströmen durch die anfallenden großen Abfall- und Abwassermengen sowie in Trockengebieten durch die großen benötigten Wassermengen.

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

Diese Technik eignet sich am besten für eigenständige Anodenfabriken, die keinen Zugang zu Tonerde haben. Bei Einsatz in bestehenden Anlagen mit Zugang zu Tonerde werden der RNV zusätzliche Entstaubungseinrichtungen nachgeschaltet.

Einsatz schwefelarmer Rohstoffe

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Für ein Anodenwerk mit einer Kapazität von 133 000 t/a gebrannte Anoden belaufen sich die Gesamtinvestitionskosten für eine schlüsselfertige zentrale Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter einschließlich Bauarbeiten auf rund EUR 10 Millionen (europäische Basis).

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

Die Kosten für eine 2003 an einem niederländischen Standort errichtete RNV-Anlage zur Reinigung des Abgases eines Brennofens beliefen sich auf EUR 12 Millionen (ohne Betriebsmittelversorgung, Infrastruktur, usw.). Die Wartungskosten insgesamt liegen bei EUR 300 000/a zuzüglich EUR 42 000/a für Gas und EUR 5 000/a für Strom. Für die Abfallentsorgung (Kalkrückstand) fallen Kosten in Höhe von EUR 22 000/a an. Mit den in jüngerer Zeit errichteten zwei weiteren RNV-Anlagen für eine Investitionssumme von EUR 47

Millionen (ohne Betriebsmittelversorgung, Infrastruktur usw.) erhöhen sich die Betriebskosten um mehr als das Dreifache.

Damit liegen der Energieverbrauch und die Investitionskosten bei vergleichbarer Reinigungsleistung erheblich höher als bei der Kombination Trockensorptionsverfahren und Gewebefilter. Diese Technik empfiehlt sich daher nicht für Anlagen, die Zugang zu Tonerde haben und sollte vorzugsweise in nicht integrierten Anodenwerken eingesetzt werden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Minderung von Staub-, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen

Nasswäscher

Minderung von Staub-, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen

RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung

Minderung von Staub-, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen

Beispielanlagen

- Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter: Anlagen in UK, FR, IT, NL, NO, RO und weiteren Ländern
- Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher: eine Anlage in Norwegen
- Nasswäscher: eine Anlage in Spanien
- RNV mit Vor- und Nachreinigung: Anlagen in NL, NO und DE

Literatur

[233, COM 2008], [242, Infomil 2008], [286, OSPAR 1998], [312, VDI 2008], [318, Hagen et al. 2007], [348, Solios 2010], [375, Mannweiler et al. 2006]

4.3.3 Primäraluminium

4.3.3.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Lagerung, beim Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Primäraluminiumerzeugung

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Primäraluminiumerzeugung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006].

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)

Technische Beschreibung

In Anbetracht des Staubpotenzials der Tonerde und Flussmittel können Bandübergabestellen und die Mahl- und Siebanlagen abgesaugt und der erfasste Staub in einer Minderungseinrichtung abgeschieden werden. Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) sind die gebräuchlichste Technik und Elektrofiltern in der erreichbaren Entstaubungsleistung überlegen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1).

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Rückgewinnung verwertbarer Stoffe

Beispielanlagen

Gewebefilter oder Elektrofilter werden in allen europäischen Anlagen eingesetzt.

Literatur

[290, COM 2006]

4.3.3.2 Techniken zur Verringerung von Perfluorkohlenwasserstoffemissionen aus der Primäraluminiumerzeugung

Beschreibung

Als Techniken kommen Elektrolysezellen mit Punktdosierung und vorgebrannten Anoden (PFPB-Elektrolysezellen; engl. Point Feed Prebake Cells) und Söderberg-Zellen mit Punktdosierung und Anoden mit vertikalen Strombolzen (PFVSS-Elektrolysezellen; engl. Point Feed Vertical Stud Söderberg cells) mit den folgenden Merkmalen in Betracht:

- automatische Mehrfachpunkt-Tonerdedosierung
- computergestützte Prozessführung basierend auf Messwertaufzeichnungen der aktiven Zellen und Überwachung aller Betriebsparameter
- automatische Löschung von Anodeneffekten

Technische Beschreibung

Die PFPB- und PFVSS-Technologien sind in Abschnitt 4.1.2 beschrieben.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung der Häufigkeit und Minimierung der Dauer von Anodeneffekten
- Minderung der CO₂- und PFC-Emissionen insgesamt
- Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs
- Optimierung der Prozessparameter, wie z.B. der Prozessstabilität, zur Verbesserung des Wirkungsgrads des Gesamtprozesses
- Weitere Reduzierung der Freisetzung von Staub und Fluoriden in die Hallenatmosphäre, da die Hauben seltener abgenommen werden

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die zur erwartenden Emissionen sind in Abschnitt 4.2 aufgeführt. Benchmarks für CO_{2eq}-Emissionen einschließlich PFC-Emissionen wurden bereits im Rahmen des Emissionshandelssystems festgelegt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Bei Söderberg-Zellen ist die automatische Unterdrückung von Anodeneffekten nicht anwendbar, da die (einteilige) Konstruktion der Söderberg-Anode den mit dieser Technik verbundenen Badstrom nicht zulässt. Bei Prebake-Zellen kann eine automatische Unterdrückung von Anodeneffekten durch Absenken der Anoden erreicht werden. Dadurch wird die mit dem Elektrolyt in Kontakt stehende Anodenfläche vergrößert, und es stellt sich ein höherer Schmelzbadspiegel in der Zelle ein. Bei Söderberg-Zellen ist diese Technik nicht anwendbar, da ein Badstrom hier konstruktionsbedingt nicht möglich ist und diese somit nicht mit einem höheren Schmelzbad-/Elektrolytspiegel betrieben werden können.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Energieeinsparungen und verbesserte Prozessleistung
- Verminderung von CO_{2eq}-Emissionen und – zu einem geringeren Teil – von Staub- und Fluoridemissionen

Beispielanlagen

Alle europäischen Aluminiumhütten

Literatur

[233, COM 2008], [286, OSPAR 1998], [312, VDI 2008]

4.3.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus den Elektrolysezellen und der Elektrolysehalle in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung nach dem Söderberg-Verfahren

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Verwendung einer Rohanodenpaste (Grünpaste) mit einem niedrigeren Pechgehalt von 25 %–28 % (trockene Elektrodenpaste)
- Anpassung der Verteilerkonstruktion zur Ermöglichung einer geschlossenen Punktdosierung und effizienteren Abgaserfassung und Abgasbehandlung mittels Trockensorptionsverfahren auf Basis Tonerde
- Punktdosierung der Tonerde
- größere Anodenhöhe zur Senkung der Temperatur im oberen Anodenbereich
- Haubenabdeckung der Anoden und Abgasbehandlung mittels Trockensorptionsverfahren
- optimierte Brenner zur thermischen Nachverbrennung von PAK und anderen Kohlenwasserstoffen

Technische Beschreibung

Die optimierte Söderberg-Technologie weist Konstruktionsmerkmale auf, die allen Anlagen gemeinsam sind (z.B. Einsatz von Anodenpaste mit niedrigerem Pechgehalt, Behandlung des Elektrolyseabgases durch Einblasen von Tonerde, optimierter Brenner und Punktdosierung der Tonerde sowie andere Merkmale, die aus der früheren Zellenkonstruktion stammen (z.B. Haubenabdeckung der Anoden und Abgasbehandlung mit einem Trockenverfahren bei Anoden mit hoher Stromdichte oder größere Anodenhöhe bei Anoden mit niedriger Stromdichte).

Alle europäischen Anlagen, die mit Söderberg-Zellen arbeiten, wurden mit neuer Söderberg-Technologie nachgerüstet. Da von einer Weiterentwicklung dieser Technologie nicht auszugehen ist, sollten noch in Betrieb befindliche Söderberg-Anlagen mit einer geeigneten Kombination der oben beschriebenen Systeme nachgerüstet werden.

Die Reinigung des Zellenabgases erfolgt im Trockensorptionsverfahren durch Einblasen von Tonerde (siehe Abschnitt 4.3.3.5). Bei Haubenabdeckung der Anoden erfolgt eine zusätzliche Abgasreinigung in separaten Wäschern.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung der Gesamtemissionen (Fluoride, Staub und PAK)
- Verringerung des Energieeinsatzes
- Vollständige Rückgewinnung und Rückführung fluorierter Produkte in die Elektrolyse
- Verwendung des Einsatzmaterials für den Produktionsprozess (Aluminiumoxid) als Sorptionsmittel und somit geringerer Bedarf an Reagenzien
- Verbesserte Arbeitsplatzsituation für das Betriebspersonal

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionswerte für Söderberg-Zellen können Abschnitt 4.3.3.5 und 4.3.3.8 entnommen werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Für Elektrolysezellen, die mit hoher Stromdichte betrieben werden, hat sich eine komplette Haubenabdeckung der Anoden mit Anschluss an ein separates Abgassystem und Abgasbehandlung im Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde als die beste Lösung erwiesen.

Eine größere Anodenhöhe zur Schaffung einer physischen Barriere im oberen Anodenbereich, an der PAK-Emissionen abgeschieden werden, ist allgemein anwendbar. Der mit dieser Lösung erreichte Erfassungsgrad entspricht dem der Haubenabdeckung der Anoden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die berichteten Nachrüstungskosten variieren sehr stark von Anlage zu Anlage, je nach früherer Zellenkonstruktion und anderen technischen Randbedingungen. Die Kosten für in jüngerer Zeit realisierte Nachrüstungsprojekte in Europa liegen in einer Größenordnung von USD 250/t bis USD 600/t. Weitere Faktoren, wie z.B. Nebeneinrichtungen und Betriebsmittelversorgung, können einen Einfluss auf die Investitionskosten haben.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen
- Reduzierung der Energiekosten

Beispielanlagen

- Tonerde-Punktdosierung, trockene Anodenpaste, größere Anodenhöhe, Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und Nachverbrennungskammer: eine Anlage in Spanien (Anoden mit niedriger Stromdichte)
- Tonerde-Punktdosierung, trockene Anodenpaste, größere Anodenhöhe, Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde und nachgeschaltetes Gewebefilter zur Reinigung des erfassten Zellenabgases, Nasswäscher und Nachverbrennungskammer: eine Anlage in Norwegen (Anoden mit hoher Stromdichte)

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.3.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung mit vorgebrannten Anoden

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommt die (in Abschnitt 4.1.3 beschriebene) PFPB-Technologie mit den folgenden Merkmalen in Betracht:

- automatische Mehrfach-Punktdosierung der Tonerde
- vollständige Abdeckung der Zellen mit robusten Zellenhauben und geeignete Absaugvolumina unter Berücksichtigung der Fluoridbildung im Bad und des Kohlenstoffanodenverbrauchs. Das verstärkte Absaugsystem, soweit vorhanden, kann an ein getrenntes Abgas- und Filtersystem angeschlossen werden.
- Minimierung der Öffnungszeit der Zellenhauben beim Anodenwechsel und anderen Bedienvorgängen
- Zwischenlagerung der entnommenen Anodenreste in einem eingehausten und abgesaugten Bereich in Zellennähe und Reinigung des erfassten Abgases in der zentralen Abgasreinigung
- effiziente Prozesssteuerung zur Vermeidung von Prozessabweichungen, die zu einer verstärkten Gasbildung in der Zelle und zu erhöhten Emissionen führen
- Einsatz speicherprogrammierbarer Steuerungen für Zellenbetrieb und –wartung
- Einsatz bewährter, wirksamer Abgasreinigungstechniken in der Anodenanschlagerei zur Rückgewinnung von Fluoriden und Kohlenstoff; Erfassung gas- und staubförmiger Emissionen aus der Anodenrestereinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Eine Beschreibung der PFPB-Technologie kann Abschnitt 4.1.3 entnommen werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung der Gesamtemissionen
- Verbesserte Arbeitsplatzsituation für das Betriebspersonal

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Im Jahresmittel sind mit Absaugsystemen mit konstanter Absaugleistung Erfassungsgrade zwischen 95 % und 98,5 % erreichbar bzw. > 99 %, wenn aufgrund der standortspezifischen Randbedingungen verstärkte Absaugsysteme eingesetzt werden (siehe Abschnitt 4.2).

Die aus den Zellen abgesaugten und der zentralen Abgasreinigung zugeführten Abluft- und Abgasmengen gegenüber den durch natürliche Konvektion über die Dachreiter austretenden Abluftmengen können anhand mehrerer Beispiele dargestellt werden, wobei die über das Hallendach austretenden Abluftmengen nicht mit der gleichen Präzision wie das gefasste Abgas gemessen werden können. Die jeweiligen Volumenströme sind anhand von Beispielanlagen in

Tabelle 4.43 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 4.43: Erfasste Abgasmengen zur Reinigung und Hallenabluftmengen in einigen europäischen Primäraluminiumhütten

Beispielanlage in:	Erfasste Abgasmenge zur Reinigung (Nm ³ /t Al)	Abluftmenge über die Dachreiter ⁽¹⁾ (Nm ³ /t Al)
Frankreich	80 000	1 140 000
Deutschland	80 000 –120 000	700 000 –1 400 000
Niederlande	110 000	880 000–1 520 000
Island	75 000–100 000	500 000–1 500 000
Spanien (Prebake)	90 000–120 000	250 000–400 000 ⁽²⁾
Slowenien	84 000–110 000	900000–1 200 000
Spanien (Söderberg) ⁽³⁾	20 000–30 000	Keine Angaben verfügbar.

⁽¹⁾ Der über die Dachreiter emittierte Abluftvolumenstrom wird maßgeblich durch die meteorologischen Bedingungen bestimmt.
⁽²⁾ Dachabsaugung: in diesem Fall sind die spezifischen Abluftströme i.d.R. niedriger, da das Absaugvolumen in Abhängigkeit von den Erfordernissen der Hallenbelüftung bei gleichzeitiger Optimierung des Energieeinsatzes geregelt wird.
⁽³⁾ Söderberg-Zellen werden mit geringerem Absaugvolumen betrieben, um einen optimalen Betrieb der Nachverbrennungskammern zu gewährleisten.
Quelle: EAA, 2012

Wenn verstärkte Absaugsysteme eingesetzt werden müssen, wird das Absaugvolumen bei Bedienungsvorgängen an der jeweiligen Zelle (Anodenwechsel, Metallabsaugung, usw.) um das 1,5- bis 3-fache des Grundabsaugvolumens (Abgas erfassung zur Reinigung) erhöht.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Zellengasabsaugung) bedingt durch den Gesamtenergiebedarf der nachstehend in Abschnitt 4.3.3.5 beschriebenen zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage
- Im Bereich der Gebläse treten relevante Lärmemissionen auf, die durch Minderungsmaßnahmen reduziert werden müssen, um Lärmbelästigungen zu vermeiden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken sind je nach Anlage auf die meisten Prozesse anwendbar.

Verstärkte Absaugsysteme müssen bereits im Planungsstadium der Anlage berücksichtigt werden und sind deshalb nur auf Neuanlagen anwendbar. Ob ein verstärktes Absaugsystem installiert wird, ist abhängig von den jeweiligen Emissionsminderungsaufgaben oder den klimatischen Verhältnissen und topographischen Gegebenheiten.

Verstärkte Absaugsysteme eignen sich nicht für Elektrolyseanlagen mit Einzelhauben auf jeder Zellen- seite, da der Effekt hinfällig wird, wenn diese voll geöffnet sind.

Die Zwischenlagerung der entnommenen Anodenreste in einem eingehausten und abgesaugten Bereich ist wegen des begrenzten Platzangebots in bestehenden Anlagen nur in Neuanlagen möglich.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten für die Zellenabgas erfassung sind in den in Abschnitt 4.3.3.5 aufgeführten Gesamtkosten für die Emissionsminderung enthalten.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen

Beispielanlagen

- Absaugsystem mit konstantem Absaugvolumen: Mehrzahl der europäischen Anlagen
- Verstärktes Absaugsystem Anlagen in NO, IS und SK

Literatur

[233, COM 2008], [312, CONCAWE 2008]

4.3.3.5 Techniken zur Staub- und Fluoridabscheidung aus dem Zellenabgas

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit Tonerde als Adsorbens und nachgeschaltetes Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- ggf. zusätzlicher Einsatz eines Nasswäschers (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Das erfasste Zellenabgas wird über ein Kanalsystem einer oder mehreren zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlagen bestehend aus Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter zugeführt. Beim Trockensorptionsverfahren werden die im Abgas enthaltenen Fluoride durch Adsorption an Tonerde zurückgewonnen. Dazu wird frische Tonerde in einen Reaktor eingeblasen und innig mit dem Prozessabgas der Elektrolyse vermischt. Die Adsorption der gasförmigen Fluoride und PAK erfolgt überwiegend im Reaktor. Das Gas-/Tonerdegemisch gelangt anschließend in eine Entstaubungsanlage, in der die fluoridbeladene Tonerde aus der Gasphase abgeschieden wird. Als Entstaubungsaggregat kommen gewöhnlich Gewebefilter zum Einsatz. In dem sich auf dem Filtermedium aufbauenden Filterkuchen finden weitere Sorptionsprozesse statt, so dass die Abscheideleistung insgesamt gesteigert wird. Die aus dem Prozessabgas abgeschiedene Tonerde wird als Ausgangsstoff in der Schmelzflusselektrolyse genutzt (sog. Sekundär- oder fluorierte Tonerde).

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verminderung der Gesamtfluorid- und Staubemissionen
- Verringerung der PAK-Emissionen bei Anschluss von Söderberg-Zellen an die zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlagen
- Vollständige Rückgewinnung fluorierter Produkte, die in die Elektrolyse zurückgeführt werden
- Geringerer Verbrauch an Aluminiumfluoriden
- Verwendung des Einsatzstoffs für den Produktionsprozess (Tonerde) als Sorptionsmittel und somit geringerer Bedarf an Reagenzien

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die berichteten anlagenspezifischen Emissionswerte beziehen sich zum einen auf die Reingaswerte nach der Abgasreinigung (gefasste Emissionen) und zum anderen auf die Gesamtemissionen (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach). Die Reingaswerte sind in Tabelle 4.44 bis Tabelle 4.53, die Gesamtemissionen in Tabelle 4.54 und Tabelle 4.55 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 4.44 zeigt die gefassten Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) europäischer Primäraluminiumhütten, in denen Prebake-Zellen und das Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde gefolgt von einem Gewebefilter eingesetzt werden.

Tabelle 4.44: Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) aus PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /t Al)	Staub (kg/t Al)	HF (kg/t Al)	Gesamtfluoride (kg/t Al)	Messwertfassung/ Messintervall	Mittelwertbildung
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	1	Min.	1 992 965	k.A.	0,273	0,024	0,063	kontinuierlich	Monatsmittelwert
		Mittelwert	2 058 291	94 595	0,377	0,045	0,094		
		Max.	2 114 101	k.A.	0,451	0,073	0,127		
	1	Min.	2 014 707	k.A.	0,377	0,04	0,094	kontinuierlich	Jahresmittelwert
		Mittelwert	2 062 179	94 595	0,490	0,06	0,127		
		Max.	2 157 600	k.A.	0,535	0,09	0,155		
	2	Min.	849 672	k.A.	0,0196	k.A.	0,01	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat, Probenahmedauer 24 h)	(Mittelwert über Probenahmedauer)
		Mittelwert	939 096	79 364	0,0658		0,036		
		Max.	1 008 000	k.A.	0,1496		0,112		
	2	Min.	876 335	k.A.	0,048	k.A.	0,029	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat, Probenahmedauer 24 h)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	920 347		0,057		0,034		
		Max.	939 096		0,066		0,038		
	3	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	0,050	k.A.	0,020	diskontinuierlich (ca. 1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert über Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert		88 151	0,120		0,037		
		Max.		k.A.	0,200		0,048		
	5 ⁽¹⁾	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	0,027	0,009	0,01	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr) ..	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	2 825 000	80 000	0,035	0,028	0,032		
		Max.	k.A.	k.A.	0,051	0,05	0,09		
	6	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	0,470	0,030	0,070	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		..	3 000 000	110 000	0,670	0,050	0,090		
		Max.	k.A.	k.A.	0,900	0,170	0,180		
7	Min.	828 000	k.A.	0,280	0,013	0,030	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr	
	Mittelwert	1 228 300	86 000	0,320	0,020	0,050			
	Max.	1 656 000	k.A.	0,330	0,030	0,080			
8	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	0,080	0,010	0,020	diskontinuierlich (2 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr	
	Mittelwert	1 114 800	82 229	0,150	0,038	0,030			
	Max.	1 260 000	k.A.	0,330	0,060	0,060			
9	Min.	878 471	k.A.	0,050	0,040	k.A.	kontinuierlich	Jahresmittelwert	
	Mittelwert	1 413 529		0,090	0,060				
	Max.	1 604 478		0,170	0,070				

(¹) Anlage mit verstärktem Absaugsystem
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Eine detailliertere Darstellung der gefassten Staubemissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Elektrolyseanlage mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter ist in Tabelle 4.45, Tabelle 4.46 und Tabelle 4.47 wiedergegeben. Die Werte basieren auf monatlichen Messungen.

Tabelle 4.45: Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2013

Minderungs- technik	Anlage	Wert (Staub) in mg/Nm ³	Januar	Februar	März	April	Mai	Juni	Juli
Trockensorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	FR 1	Mittelwert über Probenahmedauer (1 Messung pro Monat, Probenahmedauer 24 h)	1,73	0,89	1,42	2,44	1,37	1,27	1,53
Quelle: [390, France 2012]									

Tabelle 4.46: Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2012

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert (Staub) in mg/Nm ³	Januar	Februar	März	April	Mai	Juni	Juli	August	September	Oktober	November	Dezember	Jahresmittelwert
Trocken- sorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	FR 1	Mittelwert über Probe- nahmedauer (1 Messung pro Monat, Probenahmedauer 24 h)	1,90	0,04	1,10	0,69	1,35	2,90	1,55	0,71	1,92	0,88	0,99	1,46	1,29
Quelle: [390, France 2012]															

Tabelle 4.47: Gefasste Emissionen (Konzentrationen) einer PFPB-Anlage in 2011

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert (Staub) in mg/Nm ³	Januar	Februar	März	April	Mai	Juni	Juli	August	September	Oktober	November	Dezember	Jahresmittelwert
Trocken- sorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	FR 1	Mittelwert über Probenahme- dauer (1 Messung pro Monat, Probenahmedauer 24 h)	1,02	0,47	0,28	0,53	0,68	0,70	0,77	0,95	0,71	0,67	0,81	3,00	0,88
Quelle: [390, France 2012]															

Detaillierte Angaben zu Emissionen wurden auch für Anlage UK 1 zur Verfügung gestellt. Die Messwerte aus den vierteljährlich durchgeführten Emissionsmessungen sind in Tabelle 4.48 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 4.48: Anlage UK 1 - Gefasste Emissionen (Emissionsfrachten) in 2012

Minderungs- technik	Anlage	Wert		Staub (kg/t Al)	HF (kg/t Al)	F _{ges.} (kg/t Al)
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	UK 1	Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer (vierteljährliche Messung)	1. Quartal	0,282	0,107	0,211
			2. Quartal	0,379	0,153	0,169
			3. Quartal	0,439	0,023	0,04
			4. Quartal	0,169	0,021	0,024
<i>Quelle: [392, UK 2013]</i>						

Das Zellenabsaugvolumen für Anlage UK 1 wurde mit 80 000 Nm³/t Al bis 90 000 Nm³/t Al angegeben.

Die Angaben zu gefassten Staub- und HF-Emissionen von deutschen PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter sind in Tabelle 4.49 und Tabelle 4.50 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 4.49: Gefasste Staubemissionen (Konzentrationen) deutscher PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	DE 1 (Bezugsjahr 2008)	98,64 % der Werte < 6	kontinuierlich	Halbstundenmittelwerte (17 313 Werte)
		99,92 % der Werte < 9		
	DE 2 (Bezugsjahr 2008)	0,52 % der Werte < 1	kontinuierlich	Halbstundenmittelwerte (17 529 Werte)
		98,8 % der Werte < 3 99,95 % der Werte < 5		
<i>Quelle: [385, Germany 2012]</i>				

Tabelle 4.50: Gefasste HF-Emissionen (Konzentrationen) deutscher PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	HF (mg/Nm ³)	Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	DE 1 (Bezugsjahr 2008)	32,86 % der Werte < 0,6	kontinuierlich	Halbstundenmittelwerte (17 281 Werte)
		94,04 % der Werte < 1,05		
		98,45 % der Werte < 1,2		
	DE 2 (Bezugsjahr 2008)	5,16 % der Werte < 0,5	kontinuierlich	Halbstundenmittelwerte (17 494 Werte)
		88,44 % der Werte < 1		
		98,76 % der Werte < 1,1		
<i>Quelle: [390, France 2012]</i>				

Außerdem existieren PFPB-Anlagen, in denen zusätzlich zu den üblichen Minderungstechniken (Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter) ein Nasswäscher eingesetzt wird. Die gefassten Emissionen dieser Anlagen sind in Tabelle 4.51 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 4.51: Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) von PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe, Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Staub (kg/t Al)	HF (kg/t Al)	Gesamtfluoride (kg/t Al)	Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	A	Min.	212 151	0,00001	0,0002	0,001	diskontinuierlich (1x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	277 391	0,0347	0,0118	0,013		
		Max.	305 933	0,1555	0,0502	0,052		
	A	Min.	260 362	0,003	0,0001	0,0005	diskontinuierlich (1x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	272 228	0,047	0,046	0,026		
		Max.	278 931	0,286	0,073	0,109		
	B	Min.	123 287	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (2 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	158 473	0,098	0,055	0,060		
		Max.	202 761	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.		
	C	Min.	241 963	0,022	0,006	0,006	diskontinuierlich (2x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	284 575	0,048	0,015	0,016		
		Max.	326 893	0,106	0,052	0,052		
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]								

Söderberg-Zellen werden in drei europäischen Primäraluminiumhütten eingesetzt, wovon zwei das Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde und Gewebefilter und eine Hütte zusätzlich einen Nasswäscher einsetzen.

Tabelle 4.52 zeigt die gefassten Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) der europäischen Primäraluminiumhütten, die mit Söderberg-Zellen arbeiten und das Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter einsetzen.

Tabelle 4.52: Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) von Söderberg-Elektrolyseanlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /t Al)	Staub (kg/t Al)	HF (kg/t Al)	Gesamtfluoride (kg/t Al)
Trockensorption mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	D	Min.	20 000	0,090	k.A.	0,003
		Mittelwert	k.A.	0,360	k.A.	0,021
		Max.	30 000	1,070	k.A.	0,330
	E	Min.	20 000	0,013	0,04	0,007
		Mittelwert	k.A.	0,063	0,06	0,060
		Max.	30 000	0,190	0,09	0,194
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]						

Die gefassten Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) der einzigen europäischen Primäraluminiumhütte auf Basis Söderberg-Technologie, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzt, sind in Tabelle 4.53 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 4.53: Gefasste Staub-, HF- und Gesamtfluoridemissionen (Frachten) einer Söderberg-Elektrolyseanlage mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe, Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Staub (kg/t Al)	HF (kg/t Al)	Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorption mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter	F	Min.	100 000	0,003	0,0003	diskontinuierlich (1x pro Monat)	Mittelwert über Probenaumkehrdauer
		Mittelwert	118 000	0,005	0,001		
		Max.	129 000	0,007	0,002		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Die Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach) von Anlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter sind in Tabelle 4.54 aufgeführt. Bei den Mittelwerten handelt es sich um Jahresmittelwerte. Bei einigen Dachkonfigurationen (z.B. bei weit geöffneten Dachreitern) ist eine exakte Messung der Emissionen in die Luft nicht möglich. In diesen Fällen werden die am Kamin gemessenen Emissionen und die Immissionswerte zur Beurteilung der Umweltleistung herangezogen.

Tabelle 4.54: Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert	Bezugsjahr (und Messintervall)	Staub (kg/t Al)	Gesamtfluoride (kg/t Al)
Trockensorptions- verfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter (Kamin) ohne Dachabsaugung	A	Min.	2006–2010	0,62	0,50
		Mittelwert		0,78	0,59
		Max.		0,87	0,68
	E	Min.	2011	0,72	0,43
		Mittelwert		0,82	0,52
		Max.		1,07	0,61
	F ⁽¹⁾	Min.	2010	0,14	k.A.
		Mittelwert		0,39	0,31
		Max.		0,54	0,73
	G	Min.	2010	0,91	0,36
		Mittelwert		1,14	0,41
		Max.		1,41	0,43
	H	Min.	2008–2010	0,59	0,40
		Mittelwert		1,12	0,45
		Max.		1,54	0,52
	I	Mittelwert	2010	1,16	0,74
	L	Mittelwert	2010	1,66	0,74
	FR 1	Min.	2012 (1 x pro Monat)	0,62	0,41
Mittelwert		0,97		0,58	
Max.		1,16		1,00	
FR 1	Min.	2011 (1 x pro Monat)	0,77	0,42	
	Mittelwert		0,96	0,51	
	Max.		1,13	0,55	
UK 1	Min.	2011 (4 x pro Jahr)	0,56	0,42	
	Mittelwert		0,98	0,53	
	Max.		1,48	0,67	

⁽¹⁾ Anlage mit verstärktem Absaugsystem
 Anmerkung: (Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen)
 k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]; [390, France 2012]; [392, UK 2013].

Tabelle 4.55 zeigt die Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach) von Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen. Bei den aufgeführten Mittelwerten handelt es sich um Jahresmittelwerte.

Tabelle 4.55: Gesamtemissionen an Staub und Fluoriden (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert	Bezugsjahr	Staub (kg/t Al)	Gesamtfluoride (kg/t)
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter + Nasswäscher (Kamin)	1	Min.	2008–2010	0,10	0,22
		Mittelwert		0,18	0,25
		Max.		0,48	0,35
	2	Mittelwert	2010	0,62	0,30
	3	Min.	2009	0,12	k.A.
		Mittelwert		0,36	0,22
		Max.		0,70	0,44

Anmerkung: (Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen).
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Angaben zu Emissionen über das Hallendach liegen für PFPB-Elektrolyseanlagen in Deutschland vor (siehe Tabelle 4.56).

Tabelle 4.56: Staub- und HF-Emissionen über das Hallendach in deutschen PFPB-Anlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter

	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	HF (mg/Nm ³)	Messwernerfassung	Mittelwert
Emissionen über das Hallendach	0,1-1,5	0,1-0,6	kontinuierlich	Tagesmittelwert

Quelle: [385, Germany 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Das Trockensorptionsverfahren ist mit einem hohen Energieaufwand von 300–400 kWh pro Tonne Aluminium verbunden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde als Adsorbens und nachgeschaltetes Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Nasswäscher

Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Wäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit einhergehenden medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Eine Kostenschätzung aus dem Jahr 2012 für den geplanten Bau einer neuen zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage für eine moderne Elektrolyseanlage mit PFPB-Technologie in Frankreich mit einer Kapazität von 260 000 t Al/a kommt auf EUR 60 Millionen (einschließlich

des in Abschnitt 4.3.3.4 erwähnten Abgaskanal-systems). Höhere Kosten sind bei Nachrüstung einer bestehenden Anlage zu erwarten.

Würde gleichzeitig ein verstärktes Absaugsystem mit realisiert, wäre bei einer Neuanlage mit zusätzlichen Kosten von EUR 12 Millionen für ein zweites Abgaskanal-system einschließlich Armaturen, Filter und Gebläse zu rechnen bzw. mit dem doppelten Betrag bei Nachrüstung einer bestehenden Anlage.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung negativer Umwelteinwirkungen
- Minimierung der Kosten für Reagenzien

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in UK, ES, DE, NO, FR, NL, EL, IS, usw.

Literatur

[233, COM 2008], [286, OSPAR 1998], [312, VDI 2008], [368, Haberl A. et al. 2002]

4.3.3.6 Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und Fluoridemissionen über das Zellenabgas und die Prozessgase der Anodenproduktion

In nur eine Anlage in Europa und zwei weiteren weltweit wird das Zellenabgas und das Abgas des Anodenbrennofens gemeinsam in einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt. Die in Betracht kommenden Techniken sind die gleichen wie in Abschnitt 4.3.3.5 beschrieben (d.h. Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde als Adsorbens und nachgeschaltetes Gewebefilter). Die Umweltleistung hinsichtlich Fluorid- und Staubemissionen ist deshalb vergleichbar. Für PAK wird die gleiche Minderungsleistung wie im Fall eines Trockensorptionsverfahrens mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter erreicht (siehe Abschnitt 4.3.2.3).

4.3.3.7 Techniken zur Vermeidung von SO₂-Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen

[312, VDI 2008]

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen schwefelarme Anoden in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

SO₂-Emissionen aus der Schmelzflusselektrolyse können durch Einsatz von Rohstoffen mit niedrigerem Schwefelgehalt gesenkt werden. Normalerweise stammen mehr als 85 % des in die PFPB-Elektrolyse eingetragenen Schwefels aus dem in der Anodenherstellung eingesetzten Koks. Die Kontrolle dieser Eintragsquelle ist daher die gängigste Maßnahme zur Reduzierung von SO₂-Emissionen, die in der Trockensorptions- und Gewebefilteranlage nicht abgeschieden werden.

Aus prozesstechnischer Sicht ist ein Mindestschwefelgehalt der vorgebrannten Anoden eine zwingende Voraussetzung, um die Anforderungen an die Dichte und mechanische Festigkeit für den Elektrolyseprozess einzuhalten und den Einfluss des über die Anodenreste eingetragenen Natriums auf die Reaktivität des Anodenkohlenstoffs zu hemmen. Gemäß vorliegenden Informationen zu einer Anlage in Deutschland wurden dort im ersten Halbjahr 2008 Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 0,81 % und im zweiten Halbjahr 2008 Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 0,97 % eingesetzt (entsprechend 0,89 % im Jahresmittel, basierend auf 616 Messungen). Im ersten Halbjahr 2009 wurden in dieser Anlage Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 0,89 %, im zweiten Halbjahr 2009 Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 1,05 % (entsprechend 0,97 % im

Jahresmittel, basierend auf 679 Messungen) eingesetzt. Dem Einsatz von Kokssorten mit einem Schwefelgehalt von > 3 % stehen keine technischen Einschränkungen entgegen.

Zur Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft ist der Einsatz von Anoden mit niedrigem S-Gehalt (unter 1,5 % im Jahresmittel), soweit produktionstechnisch möglich und wirtschaftlich vertretbar, bei der Herstellung der Anoden oder Anodenmassen in Betracht zu ziehen. Je nach Marktbedingungen und Verfügbarkeit werden in einigen Hütten sogar Kokssorten mit noch niedrigerem S-Gehalt eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung der Gesamt-SO₂-Emissionen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die berichteten anlagenspezifischen Emissionen beziehen sich zum einen auf die Reingaswerte nach der Abgasreinigung (gefasste Emissionen) und zum anderen auf die Gesamtemissionen (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach). Die Reingaswerte sind in Tabelle 4.57 bis

Tabelle 4.58, die Gesamtemissionen in Tabelle 4.59 wiedergegeben.

Laut vorliegender Daten liegen die SO₂-Emissionen bei PFPB-Anlagen im Bereich von 4,6–14,2 kg SO₂/t Al (wobei sich der obere Wert auf eine Anlage bezieht, in der Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 1,67 % eingesetzt werden) und 0,83–9,64 kg SO₂/t Al für Söderberg-Anlagen (wobei sich der obere Wert auf eine Anlage bezieht, in der Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von 1,2 % eingesetzt werden).

Bei einem mittleren S-Gehalt der Anoden von 1,5 % liegt die SO₂-Massenkonzentration zwischen 100 mg/Nm³ und 175 mg/Nm³.

Tabelle 4.57: Gefasste SO₂-Emissionen von PFPB-Anlagen, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind)

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /t Al)	SO ₂ (kg/t)	S-Gehalt Anoden (%)	Messwert-fassung/ Mess-intervall	Mittelwert
Anoden mit niedrigem S-Gehalt	1	Min.	1 992 965	k.A.	12,41	1,40	kontinuierlich	Monatsmittelwert
		Mittelwert	2 058 291	94 595	12,92	1,45		
		Max.	2 114 101	k.A.	13,97	1,53		
	1	Min.	2 014 707	k.A.	12,92	1,45	kontinuierlich	Jahresmittelwert
		Mittelwert	2 062 179	94 595	13,10	1,48		
		Max.	2 157 600	k.A.	13,30	1,50		
	2	Min.	849 672	k.A.	10,93	1,08	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert über Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	939 096	79 364	12,03	1,11		
		Max.	1 008 000	k.A.	13,64	1,16		
	2	Min.	876 335	k.A.	11,55	1,08	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	920 347		12,02	1,11		
		Max.	939 096		12,47	1,16		
	3	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (ca. 1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert über Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert		88 151	14,20	1,67		
		Max.		k.A.	k.A.	k.A.		
	6	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	10,27	1,40	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	3 000 000	110 000	12,33	1,60		
		Max.	k.A.	k.A.	13,63	1,80		
	7	Min.	828 000	k.A.	4,64	1,72	diskontinuierlich (1 x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr
		Mittelwert	1 228 300	86 000	7,91	2,08		
		Max.	1 656 000	k.A.	12,03	2,67		
8	Min.	k.A.	k.A.	6,20	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (2x pro Monat)	Mittelwert aller Proben in einem Jahr	
	Mittelwert	1 114 800	82 229	9,58				
	Max.	1 260 000	k.A.	12,75				
9	Min.	878 471	k.A.	10,72	k.A.	kontinuierlich	Jahresmittelwert	
	Mittelwert	1 413 529		11,70				
	Max.	1 604 478		13,16				

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 4.58: Gefasste SO₂-Emissionen von Söderberg-Anlagen, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind)

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /t Al)	SO ₂ (kg/t)	S-Gehalt Anoden (%)
Anoden mit niedrigem S-Gehalt	D	Min.	20 000	0,83	k.A.
		Mittelwert	k.A.	3,30	1,20
		Max.	30 000	7,56	k.A.
	E	Min.	20 000	3,36	k.A.
		Mittelwert	k.A.	6,43	1,20
		Max.	30 000	9,64	k.A.

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die Gesamt-SO₂-Emissionen (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach) von Anlagen mit Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und Gewebefilter sind in Tabelle 4.59 wiedergegeben. Bei den Mittelwerten handelt es sich um Jahresmittelwerte.

Tabelle 4.59: Gesamt-SO₂-Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die schwefelarme Anoden einsetzen (und nicht mit einem Nasswäscher ausgestattet sind)

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Bezugsjahr	SO ₂ (kg/t)	S (%)
Anoden mit niedrigem S-Gehalt	A	Min.	2006–2010	13,15	1,45
		Mittelwert		13,35	1,48
		Max.		13,56	1,50
	E	Min.	2011	6,44	k.A.
		Mittelwert		9,93	
		Max.		13,22	
	F ⁽¹⁾	Min.	2010	10,27	1,40
		Mittelwert		12,33	1,60
		Max.		13,63	1,80
	G	Min.	2010	9,68	1,40
		Mittelwert		10,12	1,60
		Max.		10,60	1,80
	H	Min.	2008–2010	10,67	k.A.
		Mittelwert		11,78	
		Max.		13,19	
	I	Mittelwert	2010	10,29	1,30
	L	Mittelwert	2010	8,92	1,30
	FR 1 ⁽²⁾	Min.	2012 (Massenbilanz)	9,25	1,02
Mittelwert		10,77		1,06	
Max.		12,17		1,10	
FR 1 ⁽²⁾	Min.	2011 (Massenbilanz)	10,03	1,07	
	Mittelwert		11,70	1,09	
	Max.		13,64	1,12	

⁽¹⁾ Anlage mit verstärktem Absaugsystem
⁽²⁾ Der Schwefelgehalt hat sich gegenüber 1 % im Jahresdurchschnitt 2010 im ersten Halbjahr 2013 auf durchschnittlich 1,3 % erhöht.
Anmerkung: (Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen).
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], France 2013.

Bei Einsatz von Anoden mit einem S-Gehalt von bis zu 2 % im Jahresmittel und unter Annahme eines Nettoanodenverbrauchs von 0,43 t/t Al ist eine Gesamt-SO₂-Emissionsfracht von ca. 19 kg/t Al im Jahresmittel zu erwarten (einschl. des Beitrags des Schwefelgehalts der Tonerde bei Annahme eines Tonerdeverbrauchs von 1945 kg/t Al und eines S-Gehalts der Tonerde von 0,04 %).

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Zu niedrige Schwefelgehalte in den Anoden können infolge der höheren Anodenreaktivität zu höheren SO₂-Emissionen führen mit der Folge eines höheren Nettoanodenverbrauchs.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Koksauswahl erfordert einen ständigen Kompromiss zwischen Kosten (Kokssorten mit niedrigerem S-Gehalt sind normalerweise teurer) und der Entfernung zwischen Bezugsquelle und Verbraucher.

Kurz- und Langzeitprognosen sagen eine Verknappung schwefelarmer Kokssorten voraus.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in UK, FR, IS, NL, ES, IT, DE, usw.

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.3.8 Techniken zur Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen über das Zellenabgas und die Elektrolysehallenabluft

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Eine zusätzliche nasse Gaswäsche (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) wird in erster Linie zur SO₂-Abscheidung eingesetzt. Gleichzeitig werden mit dieser Technik aber auch verbliebene Restgehalte an Fluoriden und in geringerem Umfang Reststaub abgeschieden. Nasswaschverfahren können zur Entschwefelung des Zellenabgases nach Trockensorption mit Tonerde und Entstaubung im Gewebefilter unmittelbar vor Ableitung in den Kamin angewendet werden. Derzeit werden Nasswäscher in nur einer Anlage eingesetzt, in diesem Fall zur Behandlung der Elektrolysehallenabluft. In Anbetracht des hohen Erfassungsgrads der Zellenabsaugung in Anlagen mit Punktdosiertechnik kann hier eine Reinigung der Hallenabluft entfallen, es sei denn, dies ist aufgrund der standortspezifischen Randbedingungen notwendig.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen und - in geringerem Umfang - Staub- und Fluoridemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die mit Nasswäschern erreichbaren SO₂-Abscheidegrade liegen bei 80–90 %. Mit einer zusätzlichen Nasswäsche des Zellenabgases werden Reingas-SO₂-Konzentrationen von 5–40 mg/Nm³ erzielt bzw. Emissionsfrachten von 0,5–2,5 kg SO₂/t Al. Gleichzeitig erfolgt im Nasswäscher auch eine weitere Minderung der Fluorid- und Staubemissionen. Für Anlagen mit zusätzlichem Nasswäscher werden Reingas-Emissionsfrachten an Gesamtfluoriden (gas- und partikelförmig) von 0,02–0,2 kg/t Al und Reingasstaubwerte von 0,1–0,3 kg/t Al berichtet.

SO₂-Emissionswerte von PFPB- und Söderberg-Anlagen, die jeweils zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen, sind in Tabelle 4.60 bzw. Tabelle 4.61 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 4.60: SO₂-Emissionen von PFPB-Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen

Minderungs-technik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	SO ₂ (kg/t)	S-Gehalt Anoden (%)	Messwertfassung/Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter + Nasswäscher	A	Min.	260 362	0,02	1,4	k.A.	k.A.
		Mittelwert	272 228	0,10	1,4		
		Max.	278 931	0,24	1,4		
	B	Min.	123 287	k.A.	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (2x pro Monat)	über die Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	158 473	2,07			
		Max.	202 761	k.A.			
	C	Min.	241 963	1,12	k.A.	diskontinuierlich (2x pro Monat)	über die Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	284 575	1,36			
		Max.	326 893	1,87			

Anmerkung: Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen.
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 4.61: SO₂-Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Söderberg-Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	SO ₂ (kg/t)	S-Gehalt Anoden (%)	Messwertfassung/Messintervall	Mittelwert
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter + Nasswäscher	F	Min.	260 362	0,09	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
		Mittelwert	272 228	0,12	1,4		
		Max.	278 931	0,14	k.A.		

Anmerkung: Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen.
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 4.62 zeigt die Gesamt-SO₂-Emissionen (Summe der Emissionen aus Kamin und Hallendach) von Anlagen, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensorptionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen. Bei den aufgeführten Mittelwerten handelt es sich um Jahresmittelwerte.

Tabelle 4.62: Gesamt- SO₂-Emissionen (Kamin und Hallendach) von Primäraluminiumhütten, die zusätzlich zu einer Tonerde-Trockensortionsstufe und einem Gewebefilter einen Nasswäscher einsetzen

Minderungstechnik	Anlage	Wert	Bezugsjahr	SO ₂ (kg/t)
Trockensortionsverfahren mit Tonerde + Gewebefilter + Nasswäscher (Kamin)	G	Min.	2008–2010	0,28
		Mittelwert		0,38
		Max.		0,54
	H	Mittelwert	2010	2,23
	I	Min.	2009	1,17
		Mittelwert		1,44
		Max.		2,01

Anmerkung: Die Anlagen-Codes können von den zuvor verwendeten Anlagenkennungen abweichen.
 Quelle: [378. Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Die Meerwasserwäsche ist je nach Wäscherausführung und standortspezifischen Randbedingungen mit einem zusätzlichen Energieaufwand von 100–150 kWh/t Al verbunden. So haben zum Beispiel die Entfernung vom Meer und die Aufstellungshöhe der Anlage einen wesentlichen Einfluss auf den Energieverbrauch.

Einleitung von absorbierten Schadstoffen und Reaktionsprodukten in Oberflächengewässer

Bei der Meerwasserwäsche können große Abwassermengen, alkalische Abwässer oder Gipsschlämme anfallen. Da bei diesem Verfahren eine Verlagerung der Umweltverschmutzung von der Luft in das Wasser bzw. den Boden stattfindet, müssen bei der Beurteilung der in der Gesamtschau erreichten Emissionsminderung und der Anwendbarkeit des Verfahrens die Ergebnisse der Immissionsüberwachung (Meer und Luft) mitberücksichtigt werden [355, NERC 2010]

Das Abwasser von Meerwasserwäschern (ca. 80–200 m³/t Al) ist schwach sauer, sauerstoffarm und mit Sulfit/Sulfat, Fluoriden und suspendierten Feststoffen belastet. Für die Einleitung des Wäscherabwassers in das Meer sind die Anforderungen der nationalen Abwasservorschriften zu beachten. Zu diesem Zweck können in Anlagen, die Meerwasser zur Gaswäsche einsetzen, Einrichtungen zur Oxidation der Sulfite zu Sulfat und zur Feststoffabtrennung vorgesehen werden. Die Abwasserbehandlung kann durch Flockung und Sedimentation erfolgen. Dabei entsteht Schlamm als Abfallprodukt, der entsorgt werden muss. Vor Einsatz im Nasswäscher müssen dem Meerwasser ggf. Biozide zugegeben werden, die dann über das Abwasser ebenfalls ins Meer gelangen.

Bei NaOH-Wäschern fällt ein konzentrierter Abwasserstrom an (ca. 1 m³/t Al), der abgeleitet werden muss. Dieser Abwasserstrom ist mit den gleichen Schadstoffen belastet wie das Abwasser aus der Meerwasserwäsche, jedoch in höheren Konzentrationen mit den entsprechenden Auswirkungen auf das aquatische System.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Wäschers können sich ergeben

- bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen aufgrund medienübergreifender Auswirkungen (große Abfall- und Abwassermengen) und
- in Trockengebieten aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen, der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung und der damit einhergehenden medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Vorliegende Kostenabschätzungen für eine zusätzliche Nasswaschstufe zur Reinigung des Zellenabgases werden nachstehend jeweils für mit Meerwasser und NaOH betriebene Nasswäscher dargestellt.

- Meerwasserwäscher: Kostenschätzung für die geplante Realisierung dieser Technik in einer Primäraluminiumhütte mit einer Kapazität von 260 000 t Al/a in Frankreich. In diesem Fall würden zwei Meerwasserwäscher benötigt mit einem zusätzlichen Investitionsaufwand von EUR 35 Millionen pro Wäscher entsprechend EUR 125–130/t Al unter der Annahme, dass das Wasser über 3 km gepumpt werden muss und keine Oxidationsstufe vorgesehen wird.
- NaOH: Die Investitionskosten liegen je nach Anlagengröße bei EUR 12–40 Millionen entsprechend EUR 100–250/t Al. Jährliche Gesamtkosten: EUR 4–7 Millionen entsprechend EUR 100–200/t Al.
- Dual-Alkali-Verfahren einschließlich Deponierung der anfallenden kontaminierten Schlämme: eine vorläufige Kostenschätzung für eine Anlage in Frankreich ohne Zugang zum Meer zeigt deutlich höhere Kosten: EUR 69–92 Millionen, d.h. EUR 650–850/t Al. Jährliche Gesamtkosten: EUR 6,5–9,5 Millionen entsprechend EUR 60–90/t Al.

Eine vergleichende Studie zur Kosteneffizienz unterschiedlicher SO₂-Minderungstechniken, die in den Niederlanden für zwei Primäraluminiumhütten durchgeführt wurde [241, Infomil 2008] bestätigt die o.g. Größenordnungen für Meerwasser- und NaOH-Wäscher. Insgesamt wurden in dieser Studie Kostendaten für verschiedene Produktionsprozesse und Minderungstechniken zusammengestellt. Wenn diese Daten auch sehr standortspezifisch sind und von verschiedenen Faktoren abhängen, so können sie doch zu Vergleichszwecken herangezogen werden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft an Standorten, an denen die Steuerung über den Schwefelgehalt des Kokes nicht ausreicht, um die Immissionsgrenzwerte einzuhalten.

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Norwegen (sechs Meerwasserwäscher an küstennahen Standorten und ein NaOH-Wäscher an einem Binnenstandort) und Schweden sowie vorläufige Kostenschätzungen für zwei Anlagen in Frankreich (die bislang noch nicht realisiert wurden)

Literatur

[97, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [303, ENVIRONNEMENT CANADA 2008], [316, Wedde et al. 2004], [347, Alcoa 2010], [348, Solios 2010], [368, Haberl A. et al. 2002]

4.3.3.9 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzprozessen, der Schmelzebehandlung und Gießprozessen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Einsatz von Flüssigaluminium aus der Elektrolyse und sauberen sekundären Eisatzstoffen (d.h. frei von Lack-, Kunststoff-, Ölanhaftungen, usw.)
- Gewebefilter

Technische Beschreibung

In integrieren Primäraluminiumhütten dürfen in den Gießereien nur Hüttenaluminium und Neuschrotte eingeschmolzen werden. Zu den verarbeiteten Schrotten zählen sauberer interner Rücklaufschrott aus den Fließpress- und Walzanlagen, der frei von Lack-, Kunststoff- oder Ölanhaftungen ist (einschließlich sauberer Rücklaufschrott von Kunden und anderen

Produktionsstandorten des Unternehmens) sowie am Markt zugekaufter Schrott, der frei von Lack-, Kunststoff- und Ölanhaftungen ist.

In integrierten Aluminiumhütten entfallen 5 % der Gesamtstaubemissionen auf die Gießerei. In einigen Hütten werden Gewebefilter zur Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen aus dem Gießprozess eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gemäß vorliegenden Angaben zu Staubemissionen aus Gießereien in integrierten Primärhütten, in denen eine Abgasentstaubung in Gewebefiltern erfolgt, liegen die Jahresmittelwerte unter 2,5 mg/Nm³ und die maximalen Mittelwerte über die Probenahmedauer bei 7,9 mg/Nm³.

Für hüttenintegrierte Gießereien, bei denen keine Abgasentstaubung erfolgt, werden Jahresmittelwerte von 7,38 mg/Nm³–40 mg/Nm³ berichtet, wobei die Jahresmittelwerte bei mindestens drei Anlagen um 20 mg/Nm³ oder niedriger liegen.

Aus den vorliegenden Informationen geht hervor, dass unabhängig davon, ob eine Minderungstechnik eingesetzt wird oder nicht, die Staubemissionen dieses Verarbeitungsschritts überwacht werden.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Da die Staubemissionen von Gießereien in integrierten Primärhütten nur einen geringen Anteil der Gesamtstaubemissionen ausmachen, muss im Einzelfall beurteilt werden, ob es effizienter ist, die für Staubminderungsmaßnahmen verfügbaren Ressourcen in diesem Prozessschritt oder aber an einer anderen Stelle in der Prozesskette einzusetzen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Drei Primärhütten gaben an, Gewebefilter zur Entstaubung des Gießereiabgases einzusetzen.

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

4.3.3.10 Techniken zur Verwertung des Ofenausbruchs

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommt die Nutzung des Kohlenstoffgehalts als Ausgangsstoff für andere Anwendungen in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Der Kohlenstoffgehalt des Ofenausbruchs wird in mehreren thermischen Prozessen erfolgreich genutzt, z.B.

- als Zementzuschlag
- als Aufkohlungsmittel in der Stahl- und Ferrolegierungserzeugung
- als Kokssubstitut in der Steinwolleherstellung

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung des Verbrauchs an fossilen Brennstoffen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen, wenn der AlF_3 -Gehalt des Ofenausbruchs genutzt wird
- Zerstörung der enthaltenen Cyanide
- Verringerung der zu deponierenden Abfallmengen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Keine Nettoerlöse, aber Vermeidung von Entsorgungs- und Behandlungskosten

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen und Rückgewinnung des Kohlenstoffgehalts

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in FR, NO und ES

Literatur

[103, COM 1998], [233, COM 2008], [376, Regain 2011]

4.3.4 Sekundäraluminium

4.3.4.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Lagerung, beim Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006].

Beschreibung

Als Technik zur Minderung gefasster Staubemissionen kommen Gewebefilter in Betracht (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Technische Beschreibung

Sekundäraluminiumhütten verarbeiten ein breites Spektrum an sekundären Rohstoffen, die in ihrer Stückgrößen von feinen Stäuben (Flussmittel, Salz, Skimmings oder Krätze) bis hin zu großformatigen Einzelteilen reichen. In Anbetracht des Staubpotenzials der Flussmittel, des Schmelzsatzes und der Skimmings/Krätze können die jeweiligen Bandübergabestellen und die Mahl- und Siebanlagen abgesaugt und der erfasste Staub in einer Minderungseinrichtung abgeschieden werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 4.63 zeigt die vorliegenden Informationen zu Emissionen aus dem Transport und dem Verladen/Entladen/Umladen von Einsatzstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung.

Tabelle 4.63: Staubemissionen beim Transport und Verladen von Einsatzstoffen für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Emissionswerte (mg/Nm ³)			Diskontinuierliche Messung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
65	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,5	0,75	1	2 x pro Jahr
67	Gewebefilter	Staub	2,3	3,25	4,2	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Rückgewinnung verwertbarer Stoffe
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage 65 und Anlage 67

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.4.2 Techniken zur Abtrennung von nichtmetallischen Komponenten und Fremdmetallen sowie zur Schrottzerkleinerung vor Aufgabe in die Schmelzanlage

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Magnetscheidung (für Fe-Metalle)
- Wirbelstromscheidung
- Dichtentrennung (z.B. Schwimm-Sink-Verfahren)

Technische Beschreibung

Diese Techniken dienen der Erweiterung der Palette verwertbarer Schrotte und der Verbesserung der Qualität der Ausgangsstoffe für die Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung. Nach Aufbereitung können die Schrotte in Drehtrommel- oder stationären Öfen eingeschmolzen werden.

Der in der Regel vorzerkleinerte Schrott durchläuft die folgenden Sortierstufen:

Magnetscheidung

Nach Zerkleinerung, i.d.R. in einer Hammermühle, wird der Schrott auf Förderbändern durch die Sortieranlage transportiert, wobei in einem ersten Schritt Eisenbestandteile mittels Magnetabscheidern aussortiert werden.

Wirbelstromscheidung

Dem Magnetabscheider ist ein Wirbelstromscheider nachgeschaltet, in dem nichtmetallische Komponenten aus dem vorzerkleinerten Schrott abgetrennt werden. Das Verfahrensprinzip beruht auf der unterschiedlich starken magnetischen Abstoßung verschiedener Stoffe in einem Wechsellagerfeld und ermöglicht die Trennung von Aluminium und anderen Nichteisenmetallen (Kupfer, Zink, Magnesium, usw.) von nichtmetallischen Komponenten (Gummi, Kunststoffe und Holz).

Dichtentrennung

Diese Technik ermöglicht die Trennung von Aluminium von anderen Nichteisenmetallen und so die Erzeugung eines qualitativ hochwertigen Aluminiumschrotts. Der vorzerkleinerte Schrott wird durch Dichtestufen geleitet, die mit Schwertrüben (in der Regel ab 1–3 kg/l) unterschiedlicher Dichte betrieben werden. Nach der Dichtentrennung wird das Material entwässert und vor Aufgabe in den Ofen zur Trocknung zwischengelagert. Andernfalls wird eine Trocknungsstufe erforderlich.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Rückgewinnung weiterer Metalle (Eisen, Kupfer, Blei)
- Bessere Qualität der Ausgangsmaterialien für den Schmelzprozess
- Reduzierung von Schadstoffemissionen, geringerer Schmelzsatzbedarf und Krätzeanfall

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Der Hauptumweltentlastungseffekt dieser Techniken besteht in der Reduzierung der Schrottverunreinigungen (insbesondere der nichtmetallischen Komponenten).

Staubemissionswerte für die Zerkleinerungsstufe sind in Tabelle 4.64 dargestellt.

Tabelle 4.64: Staubemissionen aus der Schrottzerkleinerungsstufe in der Sekundär-aluminiumerzeugung

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Diskontinuierliche Messung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
66	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,6	0,95	1,3	2 x pro Jahr
75	Gewebefilter	Staub	k.A.	3,8	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr

k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall von Abfallstoffen (nichtmetallische Bestandteile)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Techniken sind allgemein anwendbar zur Verbesserung der Schrottqualität und Herstellung eines auf die Ofentechnologie und die Minderungsstechnik abgestimmten Einsatzguts.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verbesserte Qualität des Aluminiumschrotts
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Vier Anlagen in Italien

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.4.3 Techniken zum Entfernen von Öl und organischen Verbindungen vor Späneaufgabe in den Schmelzofen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Zentrifugieren
- Trocknung in einem Trommeltrockner

Technische Beschreibungen

Aluminiumspäne aus der Metallverarbeitung sind gewöhnlich mit Schneidöl und sonstigen bei der spanenden Bearbeitung zugesetzten Chemikalien verunreinigt.

Zentrifugieren

Durch Zentrifugieren können stark verschmutzte Metallspäne weitgehend entölt werden.

Trocknung in einem Trommeltrockner

Öl und sonstige organische Anhaftungen können durch Trocknung der Späne in einem Trommeltrockner vollständig entfernt werden. Zur Spänetrocknung kommen direkt oder indirekt beheizte Trommeltrockner zur Anwendung. Um eine lokale Überhitzung mit der Folge einer verstärkten Oxidation der Späne zu vermeiden, werden bevorzugt indirekt beheizte Trockner eingesetzt. Die Aufgabe der Späne in die Trocknertrommel erfolgt über Förderband und Becherwerk.

Um ein Abschwelen der organischen Verunreinigungen bei gleichzeitiger Minimierung von Oxidationsverlusten zu gewährleisten, werden Spänetrockner häufig mit einer Temperatur von 300–400°C betrieben. Die entstehenden Schwelgase werden über eine Nachverbrennungskammer geleitet und dort ausgebrannt. Moderne Trockner sind mit neuer Nachverbrennungstechnologie ausgestattet, die eine Rückführung der beim Ausbrand der Schwelgase freigesetzten Energie in den Trocknungsprozess ermöglichen (geschlossener Kreislauf). Aufgrund des hohen Organikgehalts der Schwelgase ermöglichen Nachbrenner oder Nachverbrennungsanlagen in den meisten Fällen eine effektive Umsetzung von organischen Verbindungen zu CO₂ ohne zusätzliche Energiezufuhr von außen.

Die getrockneten Späne werden nach Austritt aus der Trocknertrommel an der Luft gekühlt und über einen Magnetabscheider geleitet, um verbliebenes Resteisen zu entfernen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Entfernen von Öl und organischen Verbindungen vor Aufgabe der Späne in den Schmelzofen
- Minderung von Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess (insbesondere organische Verbindungen)
- Reduzierung des Einsatzes von Schmelzsalzen und des Krätzeanfalls

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Das Abgas wird in Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Die diskontinuierlich gemessenen Staubemissionen liegen zwischen 1 mg/Nm³–8,6 mg/Nm³.

Organische Verbindungen (z.B. VOCs) werden in einer Nachverbrennungskammer oxidiert. Die berichteten, diskontinuierlich gemessenen Emissionswerte liegen zwischen 1 mg/Nm₃ und 6 mg/Nm₃. Der Spitzenwert der kontinuierlichen Messung liegt bei 18 mg/Nm³.

Für PCDD/F werden Emissionswerte von 0,002 ng/Nm³–0,15 ng/Nm³ berichtet.

Einen Überblick über Emissionen von Spänetrocknern gibt Tabelle 4.65.

Tabelle 4.65: Emissionen von Spänetrocknern

Anlage	Verfahren	Luftschadstoff (Einheit)	Werte			Messwert- erfassung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
20	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	0,1	0,2	0,2	diskontinuierlich
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	n.v.	0,043	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	10	20	22	diskontinuierlich
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³) ¹⁾	0,7	0,9	1,1	diskontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	3	3	4	diskontinuierlich
		HCl (mg/Nm ³)	0,7	1,3	2,7	diskontinuierlich
22	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	0,3	0,5	0,6	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	43	44	45	diskontinuierlich
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	< 1	< 1	< 1	diskontinuierlich
24	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Wasserquenche – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	1,1	1,4	2	k.A.
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	n.v.	0,009	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	28	30	31	k.A.
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	< 1	1	1	kontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	24	26	30	diskontinuierlich
25	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Wasserquenche – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	< 0,3	0,3	0,4	k.A.
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	n.v.	0,006	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	30	31	31	k.A.
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	< 1	< 1	< 1	kontinuierlich

		CO (mg/Nm ³)	13	14	20	diskontinuierlich
26	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Wasserquenche – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	< 0,5	0,6	0,8	k.A.
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	n.v.	0,021	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	31	33	40	k.A.
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	< 1	< 1	< 1	kontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	7	7	10	diskontinuierlich
29	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Kalkdosierung – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	< 0,3	k.A.	k.A.
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	n.v.	0,002	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	0,01	k.A.	k.A.
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	<1	4	18,3	kontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	106	k.A.	diskontinuierlich
		HCl (mg/Nm ³)	< 0,03	< 0,26	0,5	diskontinuierlich
39	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner	NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	51	80	101	diskontinuierlich
		TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	0,3	8	32	kontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	3	46	96	diskontinuierlich
68	Spänetrockner – Gewebefilter– NaHCO ₃ - und Aktivkohledosierung	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	1,2	2,2	3,2	diskontinuierlich
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	0,25	k.A.	0,44	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	80	100	120	diskontinuierlich
		VOC (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	3,5	k.A.	diskontinuierlich
		HCl (mg/Nm ³)	3,2	5	6,8	diskontinuierlich
		HF (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	1,5	k.A.	diskontinuierlich
70	Spänetrockner – Gewebefilter– NaHCO ₃ -Dosierung	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	0,2	2,0	3,9	diskontinuierlich
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	0,03	0,06	0,09	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	62	74	87	diskontinuierlich
		VOC (mg/Nm ³)	2	4	6	diskontinuierlich

		CO (mg/Nm ³)	27	61	96	diskontinuierlich
		HCl (mg/Nm ³)	0,8	1,5	2,3	diskontinuierlich
		HF (mg/Nm ³)	0,1	0,25	0,4	diskontinuierlich
74	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	0,9	5,1	9,3	diskontinuierlich
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	0,05	0,15	0,25	diskontinuierlich
		NO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	60	105	150	diskontinuierlich
		SO ₂ (mg/Nm ³)	k.A.	15	k.A.	diskontinuierlich
		VOC (mg/Nm ³)	16	28	40	diskontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	70	82	95	diskontinuierlich
		HCl (mg/Nm ³)	7	8	9	diskontinuierlich
		HF (mg/Nm ³)	1	1,4	1,8	diskontinuierlich
AT	Spänetrockner – Nachbrenner – Gewebefilter	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	1,3	k.A.	2,8	diskontinuierlich
		NO _x (mg/Nm ³)	69	k.A.	101	diskontinuierlich
		VOC (mg/Nm ³)	0,3	k.A.	29	diskontinuierlich
		CO (mg/Nm ³)	3	k.A.	97	diskontinuierlich
Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar; k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [393, Austria 2012]						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- O₂- und NO_x-Emissionen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar, sofern der Schmelzofen und die Minderungseinrichtung nicht speziell für die Nutzung des Organikgehalts ausgelegt sind

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verbesserte Qualität des Aluminiumschrotts und höheres Metallausbringen
- Reduzierung des Schmelzsalzeinsatzes
- Reduzierung von VOC-Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in AT, DE und IT

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.4.4 Auswahl geeigneter Sekundärschmelzöfen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Herdöfen (Einkammer- oder Closed Well-Öfen)
- Drehtrommelöfen
- Induktionsöfen
- Schachtöfen

Technische Beschreibung

Je nach Schrotart sind unterschiedliche Anforderungen an den Schmelzprozess zu beachten. So kommt man zum Beispiel bei Einsatz von Blockmaterial im Vergleich zu feinstückigem Schrott mit größeren spezifischen Oberflächen mit weniger Schmelzsatz zum Oxidationsschutz aus. Die Art des zu verarbeitenden Schrotts, die Stückgröße, der Oxidgehalt und der Verschmutzungsgrad haben daher einen großen Einfluss auf die Auslegung und Auswahl des Schmelzaggregats.

Schmelzöfen werden nach Art ihrer Beheizung in brennstoffbeheizte und elektrisch beheizte Systeme unterschieden. In der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung kommen vorrangig brennstoffbeheizte Schmelzöfen zur Anwendung.

Tabelle 4.66 zeigt eine Gegenüberstellung der Vor- und Nachteile von Sekundäraluminiumschmelz- und Umschmelzöfen zusammen mit den jeweiligen Hauptanwendungen.

Herdöfen (Einkammer- oder Zweikammeröfen mit geschlossenem Vorherd (Closed-Well-Öfen))

Der Herdofen ist das "klassische Schmelzaggregat", aus dessen Grundaufbau mehrere Varianten für die jeweiligen Anwendungen entwickelt wurden. Der Einkammerherdofen ist als rechteckiger, feuerfest ausgekleideter Kammerofen ausgeführt. Die Schmelzenergie wird über einen oder mehrere Brenner eingebracht. Das Abgas wird über eine Öffnung am Ofenkopf oder in der Ofenwand abgezogen. Herdöfen können stationär oder kippbar ausgeführt sein. Der Einkammerherdofen eignet sich hervorragend zum salzfreien Einschmelzen großformatiger Einsatzmaterialien, wie z.B. Ofensauen, Masseln, Schrottpaketen, usw.

Bei Ofenausführungen mit externem Vorherd können Schrotte direkt in das Schmelzbad aufgegeben und so der Kontakt mit Rauchgas und Umgebungsluft minimiert werden. In diesem Fall können auch kleinteiligere Schrotte verarbeitet werden. Nachteilig bei dieser Ofentechnologie sind die großen Wärmeverluste über den Vorherd und die niedrige Schmelzleistung.

Stark organisch verschmutzte Schrotte mit geringen Anteilen an Metallverunreinigungen werden vorzugsweise in einem Herdofen eingeschmolzen. Schmelzsatz wird in diesem Fall nicht benötigt, da die Organik im Ofen nachverbrannt wird.

Drehtrommelöfen

Dieser Ofentyp (der starr oder kippbar ausgeführt sein kann) besteht aus einem zylindrischen, drehbar angeordneten, horizontalem Stahlgehäusemantel mit Feuerfestauskleidung. Die Beschickung erfolgt über die stirnseitige Öffnung. Die Brenner können entweder auf der Stirnseite oder auf der Rückseite angeordnet sein. Konventionelle Drehtrommelöfen haben eine starre Achse, d.h. die Rotationsachse bleibt in der horizontalen Position. Dieser Ofentyp eignet sich zum Einschmelzen einer Vielzahl von Schrotten in den unterschiedlichsten Stückgrößen. Ungeachtet der großen spezifischen Oberfläche von kleinteiligem Schrott, ist die der

Ofenatmosphäre ausgesetzte Oberfläche relativ klein. Zum Schutz des Materials gegen Oxidation erfolgt das Einschmelzen unter Salz. Im Vergleich zu Drehtrommelöfen mit starrer Achse ist der Zusatz von Schmelzsalz bei Dreh-Kipp-Öfen deutlich geringer. Je nach Schrottqualität können kippbare Drehtrommelöfen mit einem Salzfaktor (kg Salz pro kg nichtmetallische Komponenten) von weniger als 0,5 betrieben werden.

In Öfen mit starrer Rotationsachse wird die Schlacke über eine große am Umfang der Trommel angeordnete Abstichöffnung abgegossen und in Schlackenkübeln unterhalb des Ofens gesammelt. Der Flüssigmetallabstich und das Abgießen der Schlacke können sehr zeitaufwendig sein.

Bei Dreh-Kipp-Öfen wird der Ofen zum Chargieren nach hinten gekippt, so dass eine sehr große Chargieröffnung zur Verfügung steht. Während des Schmelzbetriebs rotiert die Ofentrommel in nach hinten geneigter Position. Zum Abgießen des Metalls wird die Trommel in die horizontale Position gebracht oder leicht nach vorne gekippt, so dass die Metallschmelze in ein Rinnensystem abfließen kann. Nach Abgießen des Metalls wird der Ofen weiter nach vorne gekippt und die Schlacke bei langsam rotierender Trommel in Kübel unterhalb der Ofenöffnung abgegossen. Auf diese Weise wird der bei konventionellen Drehtrommelöfen große Aufwand beim Metall- und Schlackenabgießen vermieden.

Induktionsöfen

In Induktionsöfen erzeugt eine Induktionsspule ein Magnetfeld, das die Energie auf die elektrisch leitfähige Charge, d.h. den Aluminiumschrott, überträgt. Da bei dieser Ofentechnologie kein Abgas entsteht und keine Beaufschlagung des Metalls durch Brennergase stattfindet, sind die Abbrandverluste sehr gering. Induktionsöfen sind für das Einschmelzen von Drehspänen oder sauberem Schrott konzipiert und haben häufig ein zu geringes Fassungsvermögen für moderne Sekundäraluminiumhütten.

Schachtofen

Schachtschmelzöfen für den Sekundäraluminiumsektor ähneln in ihrem Aufbau der in Anhang 13.1. beschriebenen Schachtofenausführung. In der Aluminiumindustrie werden Schachtofen zum Einschmelzen von Masseln und Gießereirückläufen eingesetzt.

Tabelle 4.66: Vor- und Nachteile von Sekundärschmelzöfen

Ofentyp	Varianten	Hauptanwendung	Vorteile	Nachteile	Abgaserfassung	Bemerkungen
Herdofen oder Closed-Well-Ofen	Einkammerherdofen	Einschmelzen größerer Mengen sauberen Schrotts und organisch verschmutzter Einsatzstoffe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Großes Fassungsvermögen (100 t) • Wenig Einschränkungen bezüglich Stückgröße • Kein Salzeinsatz 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geringerer thermischer Wirkungsgrad • Einschränkungen bez. Einsatzgut 	halbgeschlossen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hohes Ausbringen aufgrund der Qualität des Einsatzguts • Evtl. Einsatz von Metallpumpen
	Herdofen mit Vorherd (Side well)	Wie oben, jedoch effiziente Verarbeitung feinerer Einsatzstoffe möglich	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Großes Fassungsvermögen (100 t) • Breitere Palette an Einsatzstoffen möglich • i.d.R. kein Salzeinsatz 	Geringerer thermischer Wirkungsgrad	halbgeschlossen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hohes Ausbringen möglich, je nach Qualität des Einsatzguts • Evtl. Einsatz von Metallpumpen
	Herdofen mit Abschmelzbrücke	Trennung von Aluminium und höherschmelzenden metallischen Verunreinigungen (z.B. Eisen/Stahl)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hocheffiziente Abtrennung von höherschmelzenden Verunreinigungen 	Geringerer thermischer Wirkungsgrad	halbgeschlossen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gelegentlich in andere Ofentechnologien integriert • Ausbringen abhängig vom Verschmutzungsgrad
Drehtrommelofen	Konventionell mit starrer Rotationsachse	Verarbeitung einer breiten Palette von Einsatzmaterialien	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keine Einschränkungen bez. Einsatzgut • Guter thermischer Wirkungsgrad • Effiziente Entfernung von Magnesium • Keine Skimmings/ Krätze • Große Chargenmengen möglich (> 65 t) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relativ hoher Schmelzsalzeinsatz • Evtl. Einschränkungen bez. Stückgröße des Einsatzguts 	halbgeschlossen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entstehende Salzschlacke muss aufgearbeitet werden

	Dreh-Kipp-Ofen	Wie oben	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wie oben, jedoch geringerer Salzeinsatz und geringeres Fassungsvermögen 	Evtl. Einschränkungen bez. Stückgröße des Einsatzguts	halbggeschlossen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Entstehende Salzschlacke muss aufgearbeitet werden. Bevorzugter Einsatz für qualitativ minderwertige Schrotte und Krätze
Induktionsofen	Kernlos	Einschmelzen von relativ sauberen Schrotten oder primären Einsatzstoffen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hohes Ausbringen Keine Verbrennungsabgase Kein Abdecksalz notwendig Flexibler Betrieb (Chargen- und kontinuierlicher Betrieb möglich) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relativ kleines Fassungsvermögen (< 10 t) Einschränkungen bez. Einsatzgut Evtl. Einschränkungen bez. Stückgröße des Einsatzes 	Offen, mit Haubenabdeckung	
	Rinnen-induktions-ofen	Wie oben	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hohes Ausbringen Keine Verbrennungsabgase Kein Abdecksalz notwendig 	Wie oben, aber größeres Fassungsvermögen (~ 20–25 t)	halbgeschlossen	
Schachtofen		Einschmelzen von sauberen Masseln und Rücklaufschrott in Gießereien	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Besserer thermischer Wirkungsgrad 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Einschränkungen bez. Einsatzgut Evtl. Einschränkungen bez. Stückgröße des Einsatzes 	halbggeschlossen	Einsatz im Meltower-Prozess

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlagen in Spanien, Österreich und Italien werden die Filterstäube aus der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt. Zur Abscheidung der aus dem Abdecksalz stammenden Chloride werden Natriumbicarbonat und Aktivkohle in den Abgasstrom aus dem Drehtrommelofen eingeblasen. Als Reaktionsprodukt entsteht Natriumchlorid, das in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden wird und zusammen mit dem Schmelzsatz in den Ofen zurückgeführt werden kann.

Häufig ist das Einsatzmaterial, d.h. der Schrott, mit Organik verunreinigt, eine Quelle für Emissionen organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen (angegeben als Gesamtgehalt an flüchtigen organischen Verbindungen, TVOC). Je nach Ofenbauart kann zur Minderung von TVOC-Emissionen zusätzliche Luft oder Sauerstoff in den Ofen eingeblasen werden (Deutschland).

Abhängig vom Ofentyp sollten Metallpumpen oder elektromagnetische Rührwerke zur Steigerung der Effizienz, geschlossene Chargiersysteme und gezielte Absaugung zur Vermeidung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt und die Charge vorgewärmt werden. Die Auswahl der Ausgangsstoffe muss auf die Ofen- und Minderungstechnik abgestimmt werden. Ungeeignete Einsatzstoffe sollte an andere Verwertungsbetriebe weitergegeben werden, die über eine entsprechende Ofentechnologie verfügen. Siehe Table 4.28.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Siehe Tabelle oben, Nachteile

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken eignen sich je nach verarbeitetem Einsatzmaterial für alle Sekundäraluminiumhütten.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höheres Metallausbringen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in DE, BE, UK, AT, ES und IT

Literatur

[256, Winter 2007], [272, Al input 2008], [269, Broom 2005], [312, VDI 2008], [394, Schmitz 2006]

4.3.4.5 Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzöfen in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Haube und abgedichtete Ofentür
- gegen die Ofentür abdichtende Chargierwagen
- gezielte Rauch-/Dämpferfassung

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Ofenbetrieb, insbesondere bei Chargier- und Abgießvorgängen, können Gase in die Umgebung freigesetzt werden. Diese Gase sind staubhaltig und häufig mit nicht ausgebrannten organischen Verunreinigungen des eingesetzten Schrotts und möglicherweise mit Produkten unvollständiger Verbrennung des Brennstoffs belastet. Bei Einsatzmaterialien mit erheblichen organischen Verunreinigungen, z.B. Beschichtungen, Öl, Lacke, wird dem Ofen Luft im Überschuss oder Sauerstoff zum Ausbrand der abgeschwulsten organischen Verbindungen zugeführt. Auf diese Weise wird nicht nur der Energiegehalt der organischen Verunreinigungen genutzt, sondern gleichzeitig auch die Freisetzung organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen in das Abgas verhindert. Zur vollständigen Umsetzung von organischem Kohlenstoff zu CO₂ kann ggf. ein Nachbrenner eingesetzt werden.

Haube und abgedichtete Ofentür

Die Ofentür muss den Wärmespannungen standhalten, die sich aus der heißen Ofenatmosphäre innen und der kalten Umgebungsluft außen ergeben. Sie muss leicht bedienbar sein und gut abdichten, um den Überdruck im Ofen aufrechtzuerhalten. Die Absaughaube dient dazu, bei geöffneter Tür (z.B. bei Chargiervorgängen) die Freisetzung von Rauchen in die Umgebungsluft zu verhindern und diffuse Emissionen zu erfassen.

Herdofen: Eine der moderneren Türkonstruktionen besteht aus einem robusten Rahmen aus hitzebeständigen Gussprofilen. Der Türrahmen ist weitgehend in die Feuerfestauskleidung eingelassen, so dass die zum Wärmeaustausch zur Verfügung stehende Fläche sehr klein ist. Der Türrahmen dient gleichzeitig auch zur Aufnahme des Dichtsystems. Als Dichtmaterial dient Dichtschnur aus hitzebeständiger asbestfreier Steinwolle. Die Dichtschnurhalterungen bestehen

aus Einzelprofilen, die ein Nachziehen der Dichtung erlauben. Die Tür wird über Hydraulikzylinder betätigt, die beim Schließen das gesamte Türblatt gegen den Türrahmen drücken und so einen gasdichten Abschluss gewährleisten.

Bei einigen Öfen wird der Anpressdruck der Tür über Laufrollen, die sich in Führungsschienen bewegen, erzeugt. Zum besseren Aufbringen der Anpresskraft sind die Führungsschienen als Schwenkarme ausgeführt, die beim Öffnen die komplette Türkonstruktion aus dem Türrahmen herausziehen und anheben, wobei die Dichtschnur komplett freigelegt wird bzw. beim Schließen die Tür gegen den Rahmen anpressen.

Bei Herdöfen befindet sich die Abgasaustrittsöffnung vorzugsweise oberhalb der Chargiertür, wo auch die Absaughaube angeordnet sein sollte. Dies ist der Bereich, in dem die Materialvorwärmung stattfindet. Hier herrschen optimale Bedingungen für den Wärmeaustausch zwischen dem nach oben strömenden Abgas und der Charge. Der Abgaskanal kann auch an anderer Stelle angeordnet sein, ohne dass die Temperaturverteilung im Ofen dadurch beeinträchtigt wird. Dies ist dank Hochgeschwindigkeitsbrennern möglich, die eine hohe Turbulenz erzeugen und so unabhängig von der Hauptfließrichtung des Gases gute Wärmeübergangsbedingungen im Ofen gewährleisten.

Drehtrommelöfen mit starrer Rotationsachse: Mit Ausnahme der Ofentür und der Abgießöffnung ist der gesamte Ofen zur Vermeidung von Wärmeverlusten und diffuser Emissionen geschlossen ausgeführt und isoliert. Der Konstruktion der Ofentür kommt daher große Bedeutung zu. Die Tür ist für einen gasdichten Abschluss und leichte Bedienung konzipiert. Zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen wird über der Ofentür eine Absaughaube angebracht.

Bei starren Drehtrommelöfen kann die gesamte Chargiertür von einer Stahleinhausung umschlossen sein. Solch eine Anordnung ist jedoch betriebstechnisch schwieriger zu handhaben. Außerdem müssen zur wirksamen Erfassung diffuser Emissionen große Luftmengen abgesaugt werden, was entsprechend große Filteranlagen erfordert.

Bei Drehtrommelöfen existiert eine Türkonstruktion, bei der die Tür die untere Hälfte der Ofenöffnung abdeckt und über ein dynamisches System mit Luftschleuse gegen die Drehtrommel abdichtet. Die Luftzufuhr erfolgt über den Schwenkarm der Tür. Die Absaughaube ist in der oberen Hälfte der Ofenöffnung angebracht. Zur Abdichtung gegen die Drehtrommel wird das gleiche System wie bei der Ofentür verwendet. Bei entsprechender Dimensionierung der Haube wird das aus der Ofentrommel austretende Abgas wirksam erfasst und in das Abgassystem geleitet.

Alternativ kommt eine Einhausung zur Anwendung, die den Chargier- und Abgießbereich des Drehtrommelofens umschließt, so dass nur eine Absaugstelle benötigt wird. Siehe Abbildung 4.12.

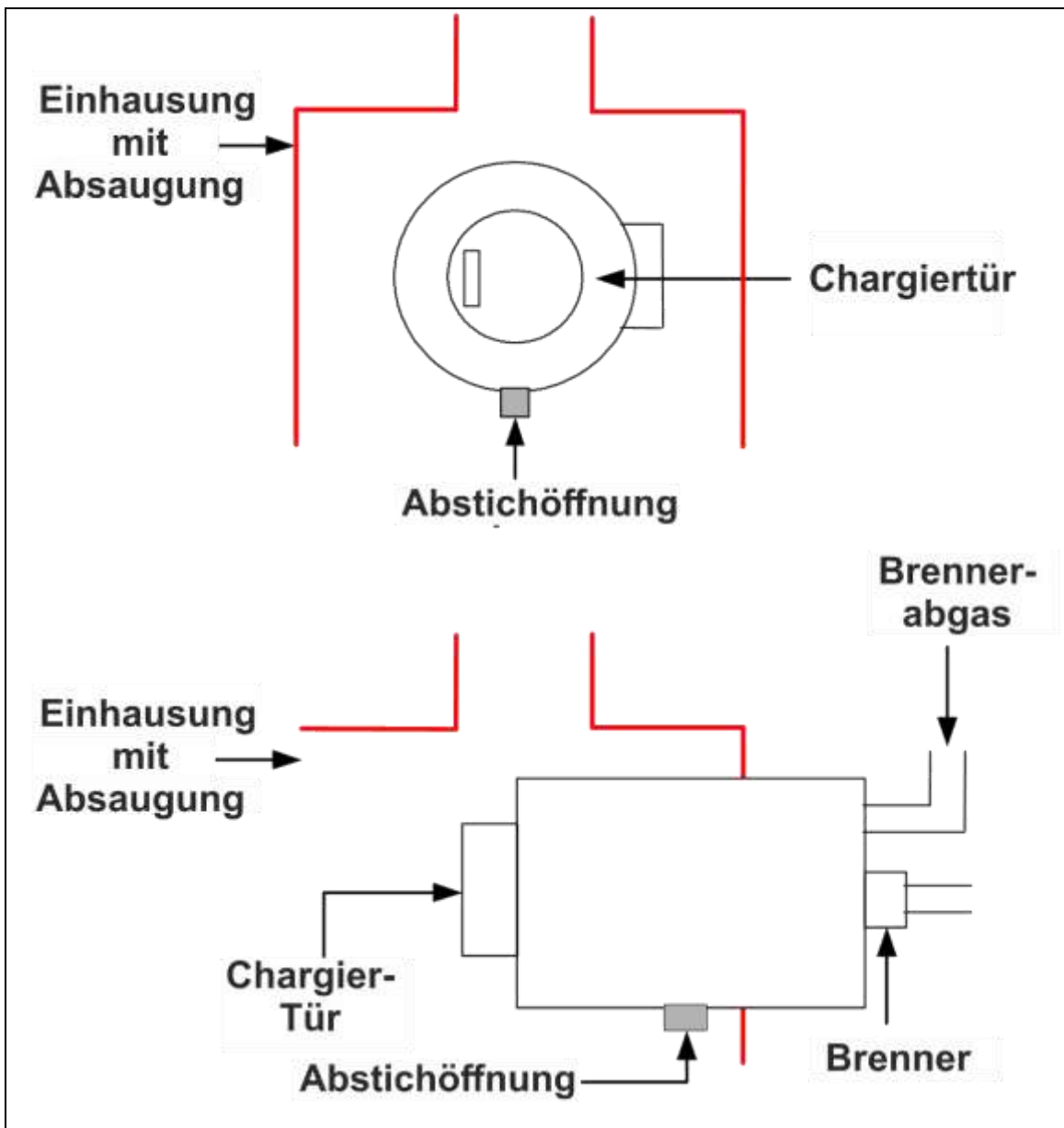


Abbildung 4.12: Integriertes Abgasersfassungssystem

Gegen die Ofentür abdichtender Chargierwagen

Der Schrott wird über einen Chargierwagen oder Kübel in den Schmelzofen eingebracht. Das System ist so ausgeführt, dass die Kübel beim Entleeren des Schrotts in den Ofen gegen die geöffnete Ofentür abdichten und so die Abdichtung des Ofens während des Chargiervorgangs gewährleisten. Das Abdichtsystem kann auch mit einer Kammer zur Schrottvorwärmung vor Aufgabe in den Ofen ausgestattet werden.

Gezielte Rauch-/Dämpferfassung

Rauch-/Dämpferfassungssysteme können so ausgeführt werden, dass das Absauggebläse automatisch auf die mit den Betriebszuständen (Chargieren, Schmelzen, Abgießen) wechselnden Emissionsquellen umschaltet. Zur zielgerichteten Absaugung der Dämpfe/Rauche können automatische Klappensteuerung mit der Ofensteuerung gekoppelt werden, z.B. Öffnen der Klappen bei Status Tür offen, in Abhängigkeit vom Brennerstatus oder der Position des Ofens. Auf diese Weise werden die Klappen automatisch bei Chargier-, Schmelz- und Abgießvorgängen angesteuert, und es wird eine zielgerichtete und bedarfsgerechte Absaugung erreicht. Gleichzeitig wird die Brennerleistung während Chargiervorgängen automatisch

heruntergefahren, um den Abgasvolumenstrom bei geöffneter Tür auf ein Minimum zu beschränken.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Haube und abgedichtete Ofentür

- Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen
- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Gegen die Ofentür abdichtende Chargierwagen

- Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen während der Schrottchargierung

Gezielte Rauch-/Dämpfeerfassung

- Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen
- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Gegen die Ofentür abdichtende Chargierwagen können nur bei stationären Öfen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen.
- Energierückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in BE, AT, ES, DE und IT

Literatur

[118, Laheye, R. et al. 1998], [231, COM 2007], [296, EAA, OEA 2012], [394, Schmitz 2006]

4.3.4.6 Techniken zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzprozess

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen kommen in Sekundäraluminiumhütten vorwiegend Gewebefilter zum Einsatz. Als Filtermedium dienen feine Filtergewebe oder Nadelfilze. Beim Durchströmen des Filtermediums werden Partikel durch Siebeffekte und andere Abscheidemechanismen aus dem mit Partikeln beladenen Abgas abgeschieden. Der sich auf der Anströmseite des Filtermediums aufbauende Filterkuchen trägt wesentlich zur Abscheideleistung des Filters bei. In Kombination mit einem Trockensorptionsverfahren zur Minderung sonstiger Luftschadstoffe (z.B. Sauer gases) finden innerhalb des Filterkuchens weitergehende Sorptionsprozesse und Reaktionen statt, die zu einer weiteren Bindung dieser Abgasbestandteile führen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die nachstehende Abbildung 4.13 zeigt die MAX-, Mittel- und MIN-Werte der berichteten Emissionsdaten [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

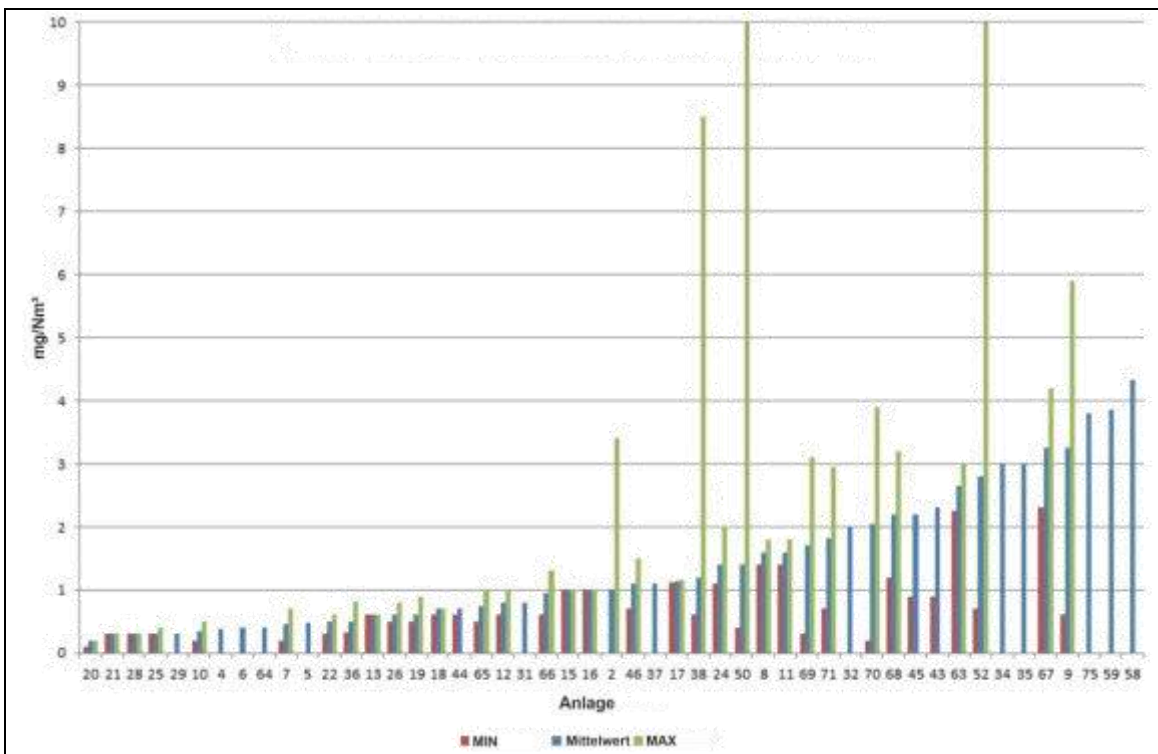


Abbildung 4.13: Staubemissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess in Sekundäraluminiumhütten

In 55 % der Sekundärhütten werden Staubemissionen kontinuierlich gemessen. Betrachtet man nur die Hütten mit einer Emissionsbandbreite von 2 g/h – 100 g/h im Jahresmittel oder den Mittelwert aller Messungen in einem Jahr so erhöht sich dieser Prozentsatz auf 65 %.

Tabelle 4.67: Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess in einer österreichischen Sekundärhütte

Technik	Schadstoff	Einheit	Werte			Messwert- erfassung
			Max.	Mittelwert	Min.	
Drehtrommelofen – Gewebefilter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	1,6	k.A.	1,4	diskontinuierlich
	NO ₂	mg/Nm ³	157	k.A.	10	diskontinuierlich
	PCDD/F	ng/Nm ³	k.A.	<0,1	k.A.	diskontinuierlich
	HCl	mg/Nm ³	24,6	k.A.	3,5	diskontinuierlich
	HF	mg/Nm ³	4,7	k.A.	0,2	diskontinuierlich
	Hg	mg/Nm ³	0,002	k.A.	0,001	diskontinuierlich
	Pb, Zn, Cr, Cu, Mn, V, Sn	mg/Nm ³	0,047	k.A.	0,045	diskontinuierlich
Kippbarer Drehtrommelofen - Nachbrenner - Kalkdosierung - Gewebefilter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	1,1	k.A.	0,7	diskontinuierlich
	VOC	mg/Nm ³	398	k.A.	0,3	kontinuierlich
	HCl	mg/Nm ³	1,8	k.A.	1,6	diskontinuierlich
	HF	mg/Nm ³	0,8	k.A.	0,06	diskontinuierlich
	Hg	mg/Nm ³	0,0007	k.A.	0,0005	diskontinuierlich
	Pb, Co, Ni, Se, Te	mg/Nm ³	0,005	k.A.	0,003	diskontinuierlich
	PCDD/F	ng/Nm ³	k.A.	< 0,1	k.A.	diskontinuierlich

k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [393, UBA Austria 2012].

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallprodukts, wenn keine Verwertungsmöglichkeit für den abgeschiedenen Staub besteht

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Alle Anlagen in der EU-28

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

4.3.4.7 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzofen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Nachverbrennungseinrichtung
- internes Brennersystem

Technische Beschreibung

In Abhängigkeit von der Schrottart, insbesondere der organischen Verunreinigung der eingesetzten Schrotte, können die Schmelzofenabgase mit diversen organischen Verbindungen, angegeben als Gesamtgehalt an flüchtigen organischen Verbindungen (TVOC), belastet sein. Nachverbrennungskammern oder interne Brennersysteme dienen dem Zweck, das Abgas auf ausreichend hohe Temperaturen zur Nachverbrennung und Umsetzung der organischen Verbindungen zu CO₂, H₂O und HCl aufzuheizen.

Nachverbrennungskammer

Nachverbrennungskammern bestehen aus einer feuerfest ausgekleideten Kammer mit einem oder mehreren Brennern. Bei der Auslegung der Brennkammer ist die notwendige Verweilzeit des Abgases zu berücksichtigen, die von der Zusammensetzung der organischen Bestandteile und insbesondere vom Chlorgehalt des Abgases abhängig ist.

Internes Brennersystem

Im internen Brennersystem wird der Abgasstrom über die Brennerflamme geführt, wobei organischer Kohlenstoff mit freiem Sauerstoff unter Bildung von CO₂ reagiert. Interne Brennersysteme werden gewöhnlich in Zweikammer-Herdöfen eingesetzt. In der ersten Kammer (Abschmelzkammer) werden die organischen Komponenten abgeschwelt. Die Schwelgase gelangen in die zweite Kammer (Aufheizkammer), in der die Verbrennung der organischen Verbindungen erfolgt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung von Emissionen organischer Verbindungen einschließlich VOC, CO und PCDD/F
- Reduzierung des Energieaufwands bei internen Brennersystemen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Jahresmittelwerte der diskontinuierlichen Emissionsmessungen (oder periodischen Emissionsberichte) liegen zwischen < 1 mg/Nm³ und 26 mg/Nm³.

In der nachstehenden Tabelle 4.68 sind die kontinuierlich gemessenen TVOC-Emissionswerte einer Sekundäraluminiumhütte wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 4.68: Kontinuierlich gemessene TVOC-Emissionswerte einer Sekundäraluminiumhütte

Luftschadstoff	Emissionswerte				Mittelwert
	MIN	Mittelwert	95. Perzentil	MAX	
TVOC (mg/Nm ³)	0,1	16,34	45,85	98	Halbstundenmittelwert
	2,4	17,28	29,8	42,5	Tagesmittelwert

In Abbildung 4.14 sind die berichteten TVOC-Emissionswerte grafisch dargestellt [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

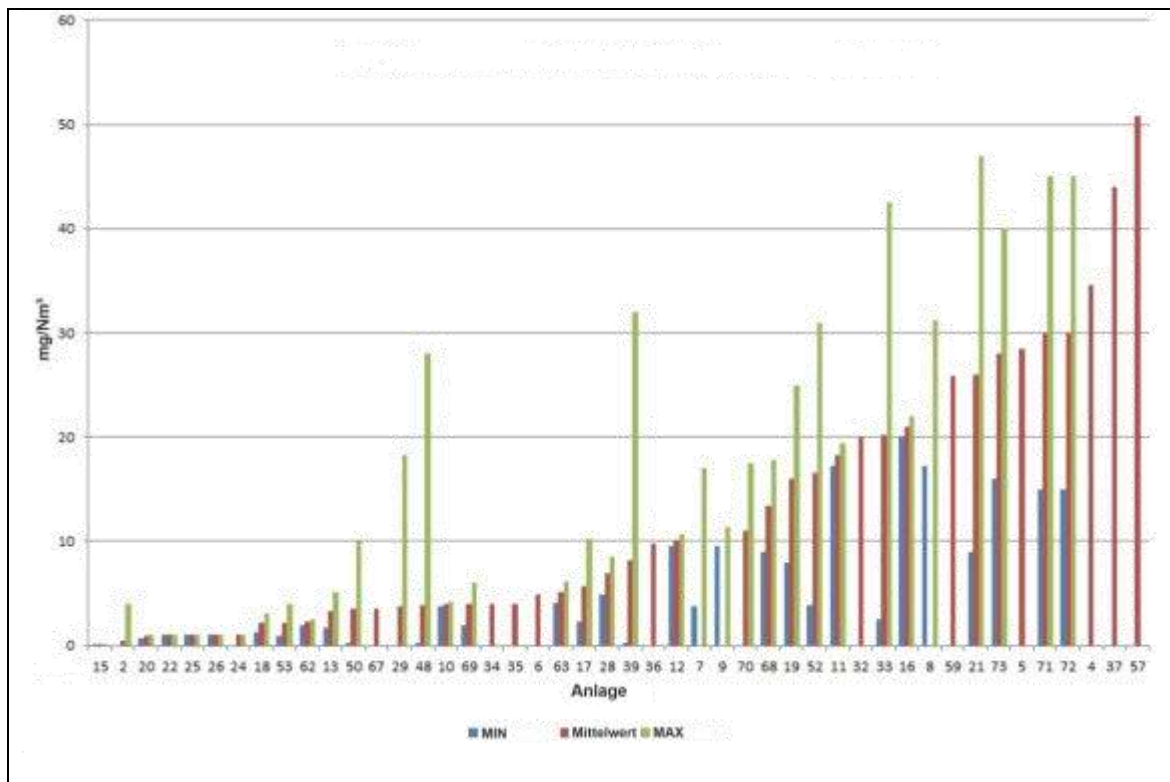


Abbildung 4.14: TVOC-Emissionen von Sekundäraluminiumhütten

TVOC-Emissionen werden nur in 28 % der Sekundäraluminiumhütten kontinuierlich gemessen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Nachverbrennungskammer

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höhere NO_x- und CO₂-Emissionen

Internes Brennersystem

Es wurden keine Verlagerungseffekte berichtet.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Reduzierung des Energieaufwands bei Einsatz interner Brennersysteme

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in AT, DE und IT

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

4.3.4.8 Techniken zur Verminderung von Sauer gas- und organischen Emissionen einschl. PCDD/F in die Luft

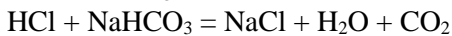
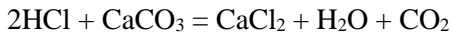
Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Kalk- oder Natriumbicarbonatdosierung
- Aktivkohledosierung

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter an sich sind nicht in der Lage, gasförmige Luftschadstoffe direkt aus dem Abgasstrom abzuschneiden. Wird allerdings ein Sorptionsmittel in den Abgasstrom dosiert, finden in dem sich aufbauenden Filterkuchen weitere Sorptionsprozesse statt, die zu einer weitgehenden Bindung gasförmiger Luftschadstoffe beitragen. Zur Neutralisation von Sauer gasen und Chlor durch chemische Reaktion und Adsorption organischer Verbindungen wie PCDD/F werden Sorptionsmittel in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. In Sekundäraluminiumhütten kommen hierzu i.d.R. Aktivkohle und Calciumcarbonat (CaCO_3) oder NaHCO_3 zum Einsatz. Aktivkohle wird zur adsorptiven Abscheidung von PCDD/F und ggf. vorhandenen Metallen eingesetzt. Die Sauer gasreaktionen werden durch die folgenden Gleichungen beschrieben:



Die erforderliche Dosierung der Sorptionsmittel richtet sich nach der Art des verarbeiteten Schrotts und den Durchmischungsbedingungen. Im Mittel liegen die Dosiermengen bei 0,5–1 g/m³ für Absorptionsmittel und 0,1–0,2 g/m³ für Aktivkohle.

Alternativ wird z.B. auch ein Sorbengemisch aus Calciumhydroxid (Ca(OH)_2), Calciumcarbonat (CaCO_3) und einer Gruppe mineralischer Reagenzien eingesetzt

Die Sorptionsmittel werden i.d.R. über eine Förderschnecke in den Reaktor eingebracht, wobei die Dosierung über eine drehzahlgeregelte Zellenradschleuse geregelt wird, oder aber über ein pneumatisches Dosiersystem. Nach der Reaktorstufe gelangt das Abgas in das Gewebefilter.

In einigen Hütten wird das Abgas bei Einsatz stark organisch verunreinigter Ausgangsstoffe, z.B. Schrott, vor Zugabe der o.g. Sorptionsmittel über eine Nachverbrennungskammer geleitet, um eine wirksame Minderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen sicherzustellen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Verminderung von Emissionen an organischer Verbindungen (PCDD/F) und Sauer gasen (HCL, HF)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit der Dosierung von Kalk/ NaHCO_3 /Aktivkohle oder sonstigen Sorbengemischen in den Abgasstrom werden folgende Emissionswerte erreicht:

PCDD/F:

Mittelwert über eine Probenahmedauer von 6 Stunden:

Bandbreite: < 0,01–0,44 ng I-TEQ/Nm³

Datenverteilung: < 0,1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³: 86,5 %; 0,1–0,2 ng I-TEQ/Nm³: 5,4 %

< 0,2–0,44 ng I-TEQ/Nm³: 8,1 %.

HCl:

In Drehtrommelöfen entsteht HCl aus der Reaktion des Schmelzsatzes mit Feuchtigkeit. Die HCl-Emissionen liegen gewöhnlich unter 10 mg/Nm^3 . Zur Minderung von HCl-Emissionen wird Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen.

Bei Einsatz von Rotoren (Impellern) oder porösen Bodensteinen zur Chlorgasbehandlung werden normalerweise HCl-Emissionswerte $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ erreicht. Keramikklappen führen zu erheblich höheren HCl-Emissionen und sollten ausgemustert werden.

Mittelwerte aus jährlich oder halbjährlich durchgeführten diskontinuierlichen Emissionsmessungen über eine Probenahmedauer von i.d.R. 30 Minuten oder 1 Stunde:

Bandbreite: $< 1\text{--}8 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$

MAX-Wert: $16,3 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$

HF:

Mittelwerte aus jährlich oder halbjährlich durchgeführten diskontinuierlichen Emissionsmessungen über eine Probenahmedauer von i.d.R. 30 Minuten oder 1 Stunde:

Bandbreite: $< 0,1\text{--}2,3 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$

MAX-Wert: $2,5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$

Die berichteten Emissionswerte für HCl, Cl_2 , HF und PCDD/F sind in Abbildung 4.15, Abbildung 4.16, Abbildung 4.17 und Abbildung 4.18 jeweils grafisch dargestellt [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

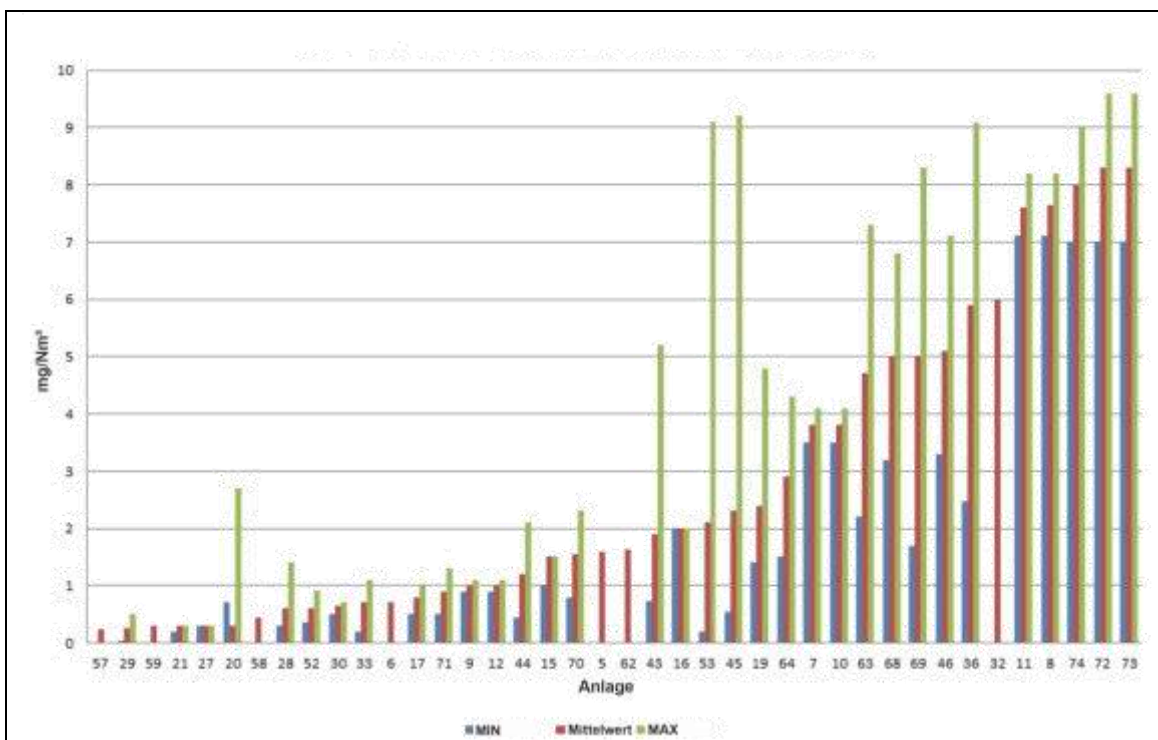


Abbildung 4.15: HCl-Emissionen aus Sekundäraluminiumhütten

In einer Hütte werden die HCl-Emissionen kontinuierlich gemessen.

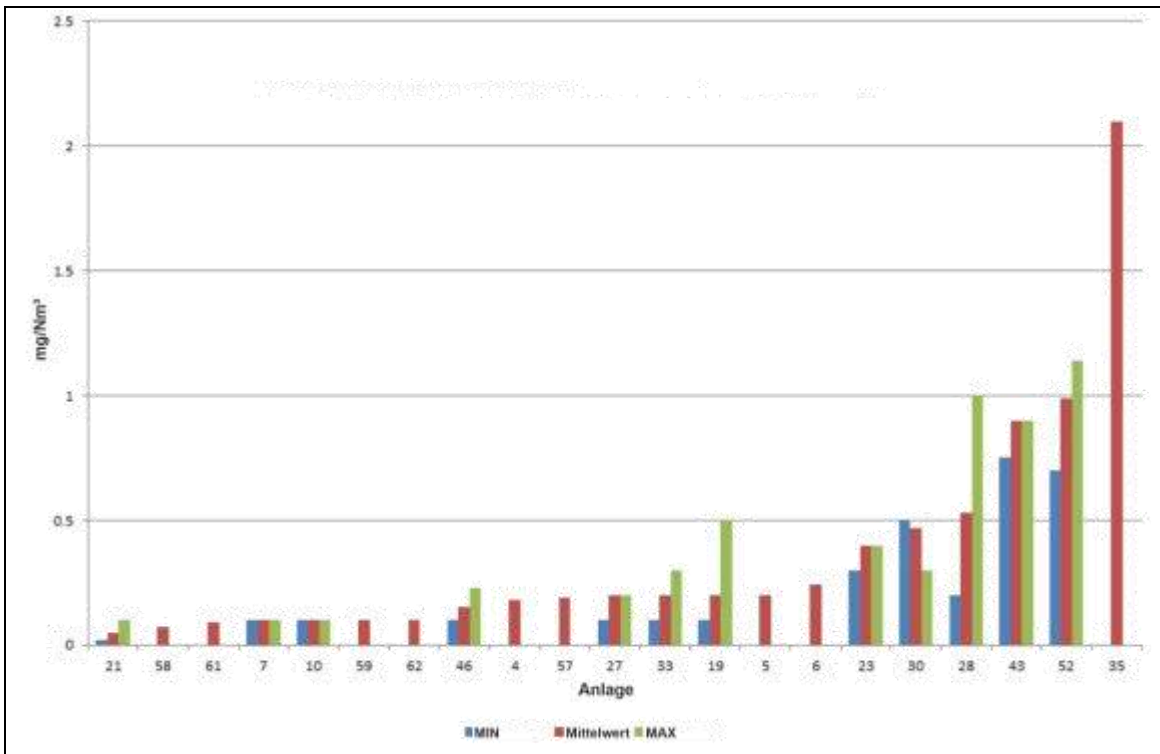


Abbildung 4.16: Cl₂-Emissionen aus Sekundäraluminiumhütten

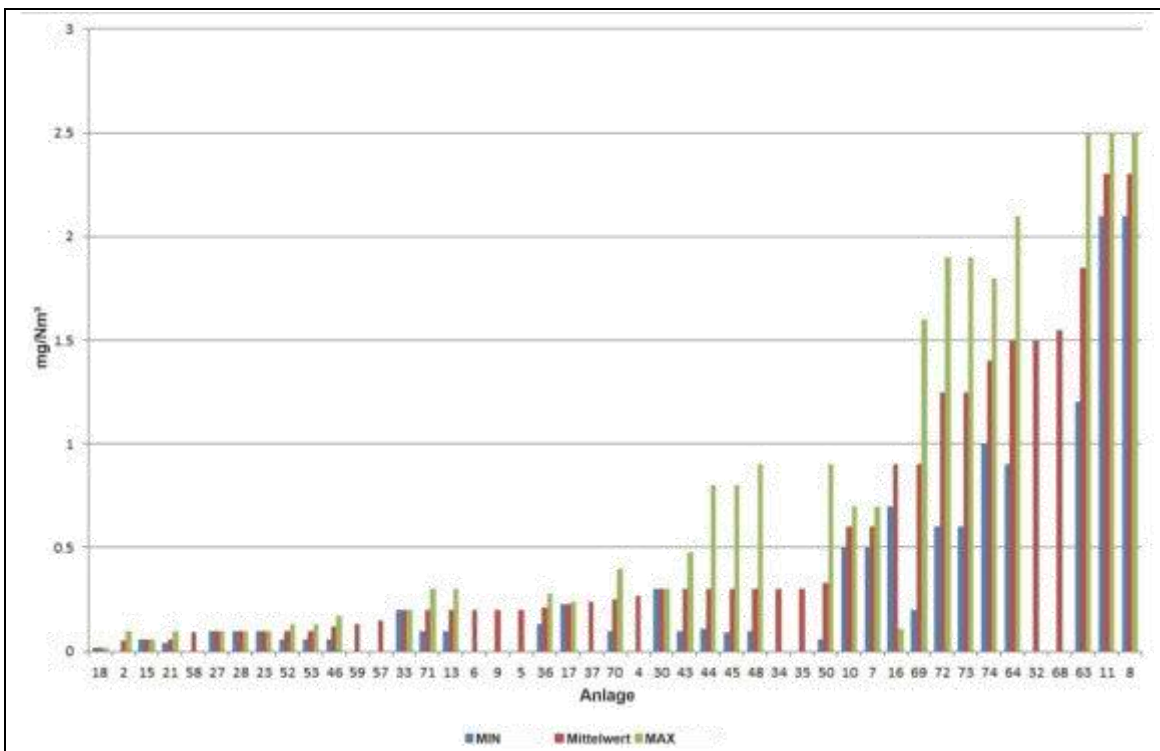


Abbildung 4.17: HF-Emissionen aus Sekundäraluminiumhütten

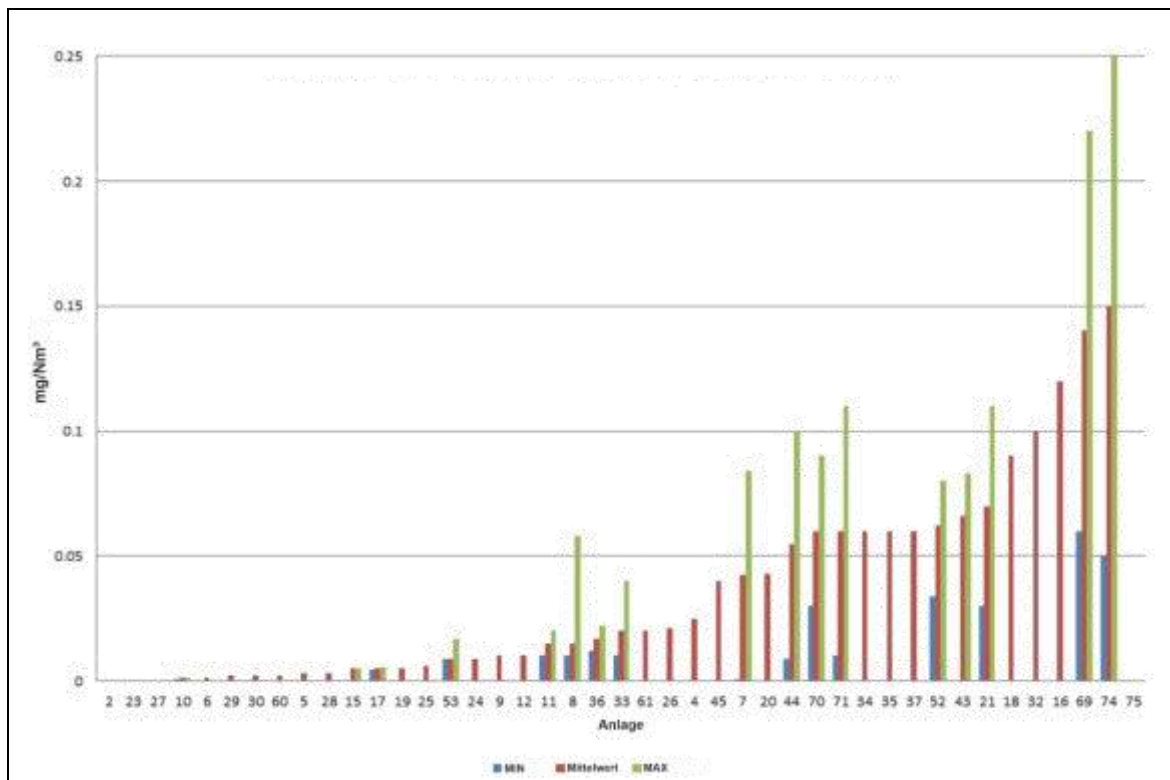


Abbildung 4.18: PCDD/F-Emissionen aus Sekundäraluminiumhütten

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Verbrauch von Additiven und Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn keine Verwertungsmöglichkeit für den abgeschiedenen Staub besteht

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Hütten in AT, DE, ES, IT und UK

Literatur

[298, Mensink 2005], [394, Schmitz 2006]

4.3.4.9 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Schmelzbehandlung in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses und Einsatz eines Chlor/Inertgasgemischs
- Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel
- Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand zum direkten Vergießen

Technische Beschreibung

Das Reinigen der Schmelze dient der Entfernung von Gasen und unerwünschten metallischen Verbindungen. Zur Raffination wird ein Gemisch aus Chlor oder anderen chemisch reagierenden Gasen und Inertgas eingesetzt, was zu Chlor- HCl- und HF-Emissionen führt.

Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses und Einsatz eines Chlor-/Inertgasgemischs

Wenn Chlor im Überschuss dosiert wird, kommt es zur Bildung von Aluminiumchlorid, das bei Kontakt mit Luft zu HCl hydrolisiert. Die Vermeidung oder Verminderung von HCl-Emissionen erfordert eine gute Prozessführung sowie den Einsatz eines Chlor/Inertgasgemischs anstelle von reinem Chlor.

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel

Zur Minderung von Sauergasemissionen wird Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom unmittelbar vor dem Gewebefilter eingeblasen.

Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand zum direkten Vergießen

Zur Minimierung des Energieaufwands für das erneute Einschmelzen der Aluminiumlegierung wird das Metall den Gießereien in flüssiger Form geliefert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses und Einsatz eines Chlor/Inertgasgemischs

Vermeidung von Sauergasemissionen

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel (siehe Anlage 19)

Minderung von Sauergasemissionen

Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand zum direkten Vergießen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionswerte für HCl, Cl₂ und HF sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle aufgeführt.

Tabelle 4.69: HCl-, Cl₂- und HF-Emissionen aus der Schmelzebehandlung in der Sekundär-aluminiumerzeugung

Anlage	Techniken	Luft-schad-stoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Messintervall
			MIN	Mittel-wert	MAX	
19	Kalkdosierung	Staub	0,5	0,6	0,9	3 x pro Jahr
		HCl	1,4	2,4	4,8	
		Cl ₂	0,1	0,2	0,5	
28	Kalkdosierung	Staub	< 0,3	<0,3	<0,3	3 x pro Jahr
		HCl	< 0,3	0,6	1,4	
		Cl ₂	< 0,2	0,53	1	
		HF	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	
Deutsche Anlage	Kalkdosierung	HCl	0,12	k.A.	0,56	4 x pro Jahr
		Cl ₂	0,17		0,3	
		HF	0,19		0,2	3 x pro Jahr
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [385, Germany 2012]						

Zur Herstellung von Halbzeugen müssen die Aluminiummasseln erneut in einem Schmelzofen eingeschmolzen werden, was mit Energieaufwand, Metallverlusten und Schadstoffemissionen einhergeht. Durch Anlieferung des Metalls in flüssiger Form zum direkten Vergießen wird eine Energieeinsparung von ca. 1 MWh/t Sekundäraluminium erzielt. Mit dem Wegfall eines gasbeheizten Schmelzofens wird eine Minderung der diffusen und gefassten Emissionen um ca. 80 g/t Al für Staub und bis zu 300 kg/t Al für CO₂ erreicht.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses und Einsatz eines Chlor/Inertgasgemischs

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel (siehe Anlage 19)

Einsatz von Additiven und Anfall eines festen Abfallprodukts, wenn der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann

Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand zum direkten Vergießen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses und Einsatz eines Chlor/Inertgasgemischs

Allgemein anwendbar

Trockensorptionsverfahren mit Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel

Allgemein anwendbar

Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand zum direkten Vergießen

Die Gießerei darf nicht mehr als drei bis fünf Stunden Fahrzeit vom Aluminium-Schmelzwerk entfernt liegen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Durch die Anlieferung des Metalls im schmelzflüssigen Zustand ergeben sich Kosteneinsparungen von ca. EUR 80/t Al.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage 19, Anlage 28, Frankreich und Deutschland

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012], [395, France 2013]

4.3.4.10 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschmelzen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Einsatz von sauberem Aluminiumschrott
- Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Minderung von Staubemissionen
- Gewebefilter

Technische Beschreibung

Der Staubgehalt im Rohgas schwankt in einem weiten Bereich und wird im Wesentlichen von Art und Umfang der Verunreinigungen in den metallhaltigen Einsatzstoffen sowie den

einzelnen Prozessschritten (Chargieren, Schmelzebehandlung, Abkrätzen) bestimmt. Bei Einsatz von sauberen Schrotten oder Blockmaterial und geringen Schmelzleistungen sind die spezifischen Staubfrachten praktisch ohne Bedeutung und erfordern keine sekundären Maßnahmen [357, VDI 1998].

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Jüngere Untersuchungen an Aluminiumschmelzanlagen zeigen, dass bei Einsatz von Blockmaterial und sauberen Rücklaufschrotten in Herdöfen auch ohne sekundäre Maßnahmen niedrige Staubemissionswerte eingehalten werden können. Kurzzeitige Emissionsspitzen treten im Wesentlichen bei den Prozessschritten Chlorieren und Abkrätzen (siehe Abschnitt 4.3.4.9) sowie beim Metallabbrand (direkte Oxidation des Metalls in einem eng begrenzten Bereich des Ofens) auf. Als Schlussfolgerung dieser Untersuchungen ist festzuhalten, dass eine Vermeidung von Metallabbränden sowie eine Teilstromentstaubung der Abgase eine im Hinblick auf die Gesamtbilanz des Prozesses ökologisch und ökonomisch sinnvolle Variante darstellt ([357, VDI 1998].

Die Emissionswerte für Standort 1 sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle aufgeführt. Dort werden vier Umschmelzanlagen und ein Warmhalteofen betrieben. In den erdgasbefeueten Öfen wird ausschließlich sauberer Schrott eingeschmolzen. Sekundärmaßnahmen zur Minderung von Staubemissionen sind an diesem Standort nicht vorgesehen.

Tabelle 4.70: Staubemissionswerte am Standort 1

Anlage		Max. Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Staub		
			Wert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾		Jahr
1	Umschmelzen + Gießen	14 000	Max.	9	2008
		k.A.	Min.	< 0,2	2011
2	Umschmelzen + Gießen	7650	Max.	17	2008
		k.A.	Min.	1	2009
3	Umschmelzen + Gießen	12 000	Max.	14	2008
		k.A.	Min.	1,5	2009
4	Umschmelzen	k.A.	Max.	2,2	2011
		k.A.	Min.	1,1	2010
5	Warmhalteofen	k.A.	Max.	15	2011
		k.A.	Min.	1,4	2010

⁽¹⁾ Die Emissionen werden halbjährlich gemessen (Probenahmedauer: 3 h)
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Tabelle 4.71 sind die Emissionswerte für Standort 2 wiedergegeben. In den erdgasbefeueten Öfen wird ausschließlich sauberer Schrott eingeschmolzen. An diesem Standort werden keine Sekundärmaßnahmen zur Minderung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt.

Tabelle 4.71: Staubemissionswerte am Standort 2

Anlage		Max. Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Jahr	Staub (max.)		Mittelwert
				mg/Nm ³	kg/t	
1	3 Schmelzöfen + 3 Warmhalteöfen	102 000	2009	12,7	0,0076	Max-Wert: Mittelwert aus 3 Messungen über eine Probe- nahmedauer von je 20 min
2	3 Schmelzöfen + 3 Warmhalteöfen	61 300	2009	12,7	0,0038	Max-Wert: Mittelwert aus 3 Messungen über eine Probe- nahmedauer von je 20 min
		n.v.	2012	6,53	n.v.	Kontinuierliche Überwachung
3	Schmelzöfen + Warmhalteöfen	40 000	2007	14,7	0,0047	Max-Wert: Mittelwert aus 3 Messungen über eine Probe- nahmedauer von je 20 min
		–	2012	20,08	n.v.	Kontinuierliche Überwachung

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die Emissionswerte für Standort 3 und Standort 4 sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle aufgeführt. An beiden Standorten wird Erdgas als Brennstoff eingesetzt und ausschließlich sauberer Schrott verarbeitet. Am Standort 3 wird ein Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt.

Tabelle 4.72: Staubemissionswerte an den Standorten 3 und 4

Standort		Max. Volumen- strom (Nm ³ /h)	Jahr	Staub (max.)		Mittelwert
				mg/Nm ³	kg/t	
3		n.v.	2012	1,4	n.v.	Kontinuierliche Messung
4	Schmelzöfen + Warmhalteöfen	14 000	2009	12	0,035	Probenahmedauer 1h
	n.v.	52 000	2009	4	0,013	Probenahmedauer 1h
	n.v.	n.v.	2009	n.v.	0,007	Probenahmedauer 1h

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Der Betrieb von Gewebefiltern ist mit zusätzlichen Energieaufwand verbunden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Standorte 1, 2, 3 und 4

Literatur

[357, VDI 1998]

4.3.4.11 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Skimmings-/Krätzeaufbereitung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen für die Skimmings-/Krätzeaufbereitung in Betracht:

- Kühlung in geschlossenen Behältern unter einer Inertgasatmosphäre
- Kühlung in geschlossenen Behältern
- Verdichtung in Verbindung mit einem Abgaserfassungs- und Entstaubungssystem
- Vermeidung von Feuchtigkeitszutritt

Technische Beschreibung

Skimmings/Krätze entstehen als Reaktionsprodukte der Spülgasbehandlung und durch Oberflächenoxidation der Aluminiumschmelze. Vor dem Vergießen der Schmelze werden diese von der Badoberfläche abgezogen. Zur Emissionsminderung und Vermeidung von Oxidationsverlusten werden die Skimmings/Krätze direkt nach Abzug zwecks Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Aluminiums weiterverarbeitet. Die Behandlung kann in geschlossenen Behältern oder Krätzepressen, die mit Stickstoff oder Argon geflutet werden oder durch Verdichtung erfolgen [103, COM 1998]. Skimmings/Krätze werden entweder vor Ort zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Aluminiums aufgearbeitet oder in der Sekundäraluminiumindustrie recycelt (siehe Abschnitt 4.2.4.3).

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Reduzierung von Materialverlusten durch Abbrand

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Literatur

[103, COM 1998]

4.3.4.12 Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von Salzschlackenfall

4.3.4.12.1 Einsatz von Metallpump- oder Rührsystemen zur Steigerung des Metallausbringens und Reduzierung des Salzverbrauchs

Beschreibung

Diese Technik besteht in der Verwendung eines Herdofens (auch als Flammofen oder Mehrkammerherdofen bekannt) mit Vorherd (Side Well), Chargierkammer (Charge Well), und einem Metallpumpsystem. Die Schrotte werden in den Vorherd chargiert und dort im Kontakt mit der heißen Metallschmelze geschmolzen. Der Wärmetransport aus dem Hauptherd in den Vorherd erfolgt durch Umpumpen von flüssigem Aluminium. Hierzu dienen mechanische oder elektromagnetische Pumpsysteme. Da die Schrotte nicht mit der Flamme in Berührung kommen, sind die Abbrandverluste minimal und das Verfahren kommt ohne Schmelzsatz aus.

Technische Beschreibung

Unterhalb des Ofens angeordnete elektromagnetische Rührsysteme werden auch zur Steigerung des Metallausbringens eingesetzt. In diesem Fall wird der gesamte Ofeninhalt umgewälzt. Der Einsatz eines Vorherds bietet den Vorteil, dass feine Aluminiumpartikel in der umlaufenden Schmelze in Lösung gehen und verringert so die Abbrandverluste (siehe Abbildung 4.19).

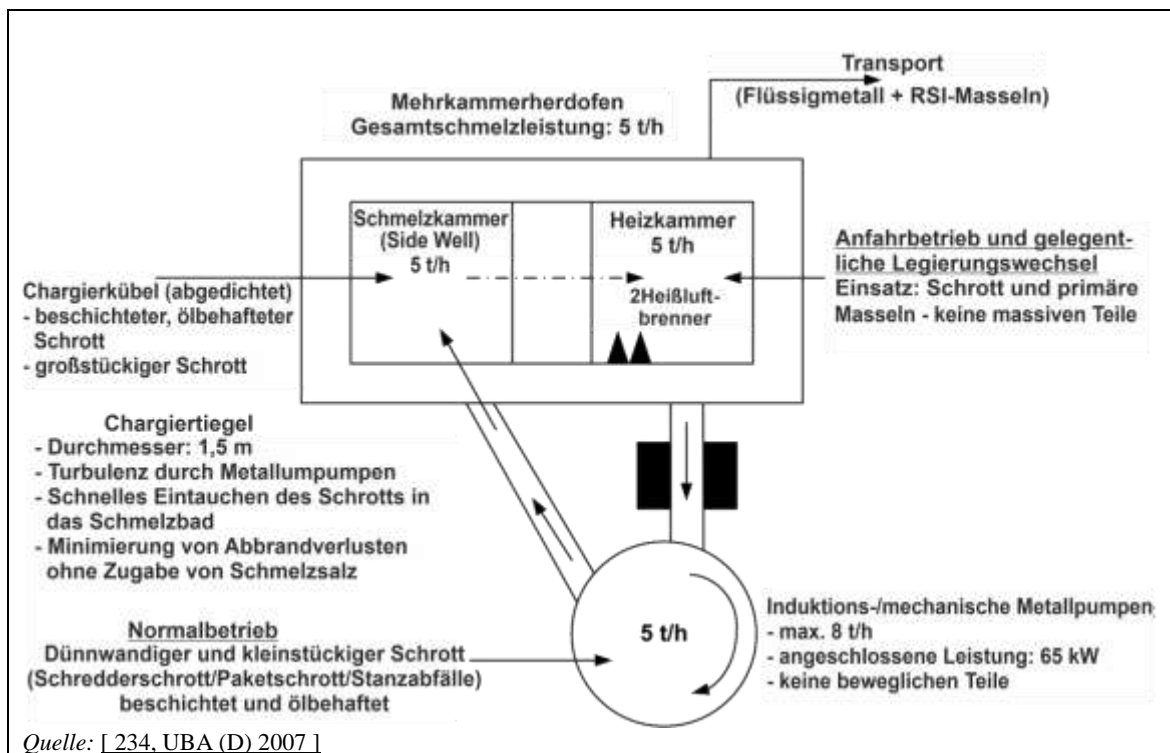


Abbildung 4.19: Beispiel eines Metallpumpsystems

Herdöfen mit Vorherd zum Einschmelzen des Schrotts in Kombination mit Metallpumpsystemen zeichnen sich durch hohe Energieeffizienz aus. Organische Schrottanhaftungen werden beim Vorwärmen der Charge abgeschwemmt und treten in Form von Kohlenwasserstoffen in die Gasphase über. Die freigesetzten Schwelgase werden über das Brennersystem des Ofens geführt, wo die Kohlenwasserstoffe unter Nutzung ihres Energiegehalts für den Schmelzprozess nachverbrannt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Möglicher Verzicht auf Schmelzsatz und größere Bandbreite an Einsatzstoffen als bei herkömmlichen Herdöfen
- Verbesserte Erfassung der Ofenabgase

- Reduzierung der anfallenden, behandlungsbedürftigen Abfallmenge und folglich Reduzierung des Energieeinsatzes und der damit verbundenen Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Betriebsdaten sind in Abbildung 4.19 aufgeführt. Die Vorteile dieser Technik liegen in einem höheren Metallausbringen und den erzielten Energieeinsparungen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik ist auf neue Herdöfen anwendbar und eignet sich auch zur Nachrüstung bestehender Öfen, die entsprechend umgebaut werden können.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten für einen Ofen (Fassungsvermögen 30 t) einschließlich elektromagnetischem Pumpsystem lagen 1997 bei EUR 2,73 Millionen. Die Kosteneinsparungen (Energie, höheres Ausbringen, geringerer Schmelzsatzverbrauch und Einsparungen bei der Schmelzbehandlung) wurden auf EUR 1,26 Millionen beziffert entsprechend einer Amortisationszeit von 2,2 Jahren.

Die Kosten für das Pumpsystem und den Chargiertiegel lagen bei rund EUR 456 000.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung der eingesetzten Schmelzsatzmengen
- Höheres Metallausbringen
- Bessere Metallqualität

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in UK, BE, DE, AT, ES und IT

Literatur

[119, McLellan 1998], [120, McLellan 1998], [232, COM 2008], [256, Winter 2007]

4.3.4.12.2 Technik zur Steigerung der Effizienz und Minimierung des Schmelzsatzes

Beschreibung

Um eine ausreichende Badabdeckung bei geringerem Salzeinsatz und gleichzeitig eine gute Baddurchmischung zum Entfernen von Verunreinigungen zu erzielen, kommen als Technik kippbare Drehtrommelöfen in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Im Vergleich zu starren Drehtrommelöfen kommen kippbare Drehtrommelöfen mit einem geringeren Salzeinsatz aus. Starre Drehtrommelöfen werden mit einem Salzfaktor, d.h. kg Salz pro kg nichtmetallischem Einsatz, von 1,8 betrieben im Vergleich zu einem Salzfaktor von 0,1–0,5 (je nach Beschaffenheit des Einsatzmaterials) bei kippbaren Drehtrommelöfen. Ermöglicht wird der geringe Salzeinsatz durch die Betriebsweise des Ofens. Beim starren Trommelofen muss die Salzschlacke über den Schlackenabstich abgezogen werden, während sie beim Kipp-Dreh-Ofen durch Kippen des Ofens abgegossen wird. Während des Schmelzbetriebs befindet sich die Trommel in rückwärts geneigter Position, wodurch die der Ofenatmosphäre ausgesetzte Badoberfläche kleiner ist und somit weniger Abdecksalz benötigt wird.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Salzschlackenarfs
- Reduzierung der anfallenden behandlungsbedürftigen Abfallmengen und folglich Reduzierung des mit der Abfallbehandlung verbundenen Energieverbrauchs und der resultierenden Emissionen [256, Winter 2007]

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

- Reduzierung des Salzfaktors auf < 0,5 kg Salz pro kg nichtmetallisches Einsatzmaterial
- Höheres Aluminiumausbringen
- Verbreiterung der einsetzbaren Rohstoffpalette

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik ist nur auf neue Öfen anwendbar. Eine Nachrüstung bestehender/älterer Öfen ist nicht möglich. Außerdem sind Einschränkungen bezüglich der Stückgröße des chargierten Schrotts zu beachten. Sehr feine Partikel werden oxidiert, großformatige Schrottteile passen nicht in den Ofen, so dass diese Technik nicht für alle Einsatzmaterialien geeignet ist.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Kosteneinsparungen durch den Wegfall des Abdecksalzes und der Salzschlackenaufbereitung machen diese Technik wirtschaftlich attraktiv.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung der anfallenden Salzschlackemengen
- Höheres Metallausbringen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in AT, DE, ES, FR, IT und UK

Literatur

[142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [256, Winter 2007]

4.3.5 Salzschlacke**4.3.5.1 Vollständiges Recycling der Salzschlacke****Beschreibung**

Das Verfahren zum vollständigen Salzschlacken-Recycling umfasst mehrere physikalisch-chemische Aufbereitungsschritte, die sich die unterschiedlichen Materialeigenschaften der drei Hauptkomponenten der Schlacke (Aluminium, Aluminiumoxid und Salz) zunutze machen.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Voll-Recyclingverfahren werden alle Bestandteile der Salzschlacke als verkaufsfähige Produkte ohne Anfall von Rückständen zurückgewonnen. Ebenso kann der Anfall von Abwasser vermieden werden.

Eine typische Salzschlacke besteht aus den folgenden drei Hauptkomponenten:

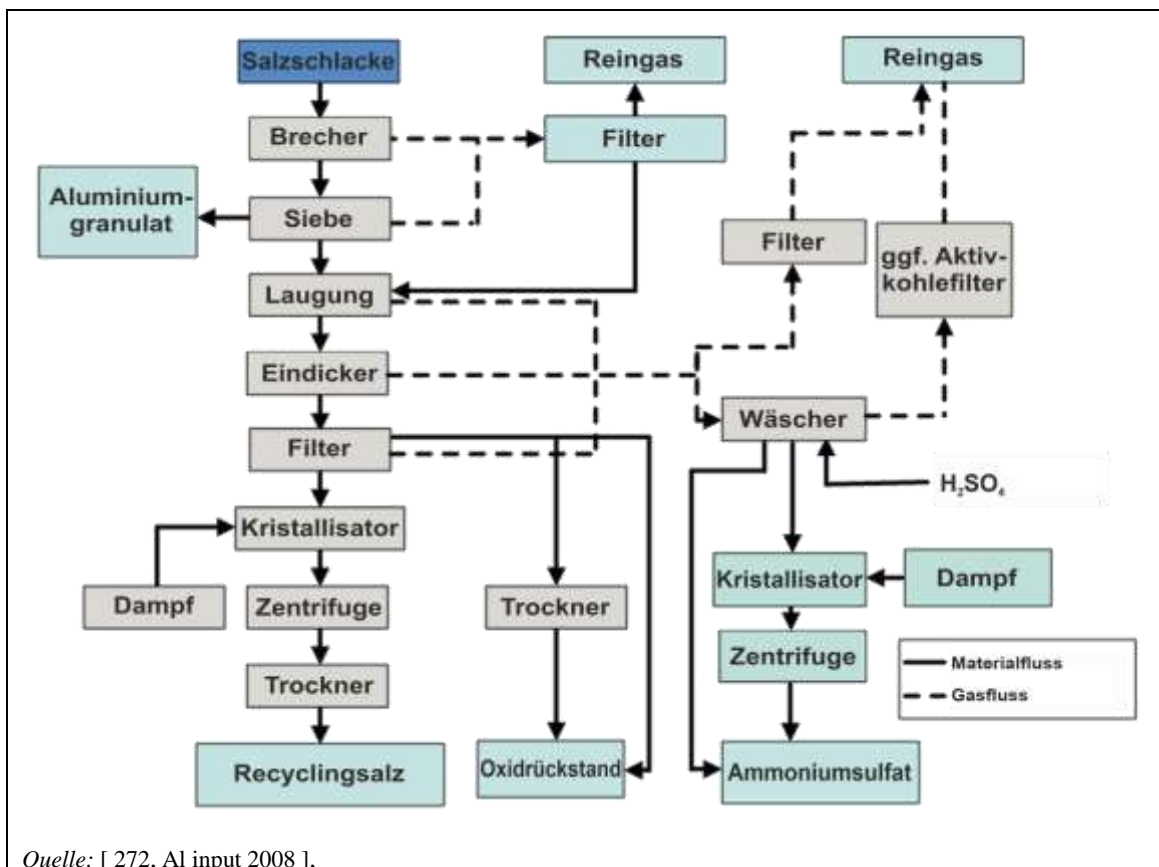
- metallisches Aluminium (4–10 Gew. %), das praktisch wasserunlöslich ist und beim Zerkleinern ein duktileres Verhalten zeigt
- oxidische Komponenten (35–75 Gew.%), die wasserunlöslich und spröde sind und beim Zerkleinern zu Staub zerfallen

- Alkalisalze (20–55 Gew.%), die gut wasserlöslich und spröde sind und zerkleinert werden können

Die großen Salzschlackenblöcke werden in mehreren Schritten durch Brechen und Mahlen auf verarbeitbare Stückgrößen zerkleinert und anschließend zur Rückgewinnung des metallischen Aluminiumgranulats (i.d.R. bis zu 10 %) abgeseibt. Die feineren restlichen Schlackenanteile werden in Wasser aufgeschlämmt, wobei die Alkalichloride unter Bildung einer Salzsole in Lösung gehen. In einer Trocken- und Nasssiebstufe wird das grobe Aluminiumgranulat von der wasserunlöslichen Fraktion bestehend aus Metalloxiden (vorwiegend Tonerde) und pulverförmigem metallischen Aluminium abgetrennt. Unlösliche Oxide in der Salzsole werden abfiltriert und das Filtrat anschließend verdampft und kristallisiert, wobei die ursprünglichen Natrium- und Kaliumchloride zurückgewonnen werden. Diese Salze werden als Flussmittel im Aluminiumschmelzprozess wieder eingesetzt.

Während des Rückgewinnungsprozesses entstehen in den verschiedenen Aufbereitungsstufen Wasserstoff-, Ammoniak-, Schwefelwasserstoff-, Phosphan-, Methan- und staubförmige Emissionen. Diese werden erfasst und entweder unter Energierückgewinnung thermisch nachverbrannt oder in einer Nasswaschanlage behandelt, in der Ammoniak zu Ammoniumsulfat umgesetzt wird, das als verkaufsfähiges Produkt zurückgewonnen werden kann [267, BEFESA 2008].

Abbildung 4.20 zeigt ein typisches Fließschema des Salzschlacke-Voll-Recyclingverfahrens



Quelle: [272, Al input 2008].

Abbildung 4.20: Beispielhaftes Schema des Salzschlacke-Voll-Recyclingverfahrens

Die verbleibenden Metalloxide bestehen aus Aluminium-, Magnesium- und Kalziumoxiden (bis zu 75 % Al_2O_3), Siliziumoxiden sowie Sulfaten, Nitraten und Chloriden. Durch Reduzieren dieser Anionen auf geeignete Werte in weiteren Behandlungsschritten (Waschen und Trocknen) erhält man ein feinkörniges Aluminiumoxid, das an Ziegeleien, die Keramik-, Ton-, Zement-

und Mineralwolleindustrie verkauft werden kann und dort natürliche Rohstoffe ersetzt. Zur Herstellung qualitativ hochwertiger Spezialprodukte können zusätzliche Wasch- oder Kalzinierungsprozesse zur Anwendung kommen. Die Salzlösung aus der Waschstufe kann in die Lösestufe zurückgeführt werden. Auf diese Weise können alle Salzschlackenbestandteile zu 100 % zurückgewonnen werden.

Die einzelnen Verfahrensvarianten unterscheiden sich z.B. in der mechanischen Aufbereitung, der Laugungsstufe, der Abgasbehandlung und der Fest-Flüssig-Trennung. Bei einigen Verfahrensvarianten wird die Salzschlacke trocken aufgemahlen, so dass hier keine gasförmigen Emissionen auftreten, während bei anderen Varianten die letzte Mahlstufe als Nassmahlstufe ausgeführt ist. Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen sind alle Aggregate der mechanischen Aufbereitungsanlage gekapselt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung der Deponierung
- Rückgewinnung von Salz zur Wiederverwendung und von Aluminium zur Rückführung in den Produktionsprozess sowie Erzeugung von verkaufsfähiger Tonerde und Ammoniumsulfat, das als Düngemittel eingesetzt werden kann. Als festes Abfallprodukt fällt lediglich verbrauchte Aktivkohle an, sofern ein Aktivkohleabsorber zur Abgasreinigung vorgesehen ist.
- Die Vollrecycling-Verfahren arbeiten abwasserfrei.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Für die einzelnen Komponenten werden die folgenden Rückgewinnungsraten erreicht:

- metallisches Aluminium: 100 %
- lösliches Salz: 100 %
- unlösliche Aluminiumoxide: 100 %

Im Vergleich zur Abgasnachverbrennung bietet die Phosphanabscheidung durch Adsorption an Aktivkohle deutliche Vorteile, wobei jedoch die Entsorgung oder Behandlung der verbrauchten Aktivkohle zu berücksichtigen ist. Soweit keine Stauberfassung erfolgt, können beim Brechen und Mahlen erhebliche Staubemissionen in die Umgebung freigesetzt werden.

Die mit den einzelnen Minderungstechniken erreichbaren Emissionswerte sind in Abschnitt 4.3.5.3 aufgeführt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höhere Ammoniak-, Phosphan-, Schwefelwasserstoff- und Staubemissionen in die Luft

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Aufarbeitungskosten liegen in etwa der gleichen Größenordnung wie die Entsorgungskosten, wobei jedoch zukünftige Verbindlichkeiten vermieden werden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Rückgewinnung aller Schlackenbestandteile und Vermeidung der Deponierung

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in DE, ES, FR, IT und UK

Literatur

[113, ALFED 1998], [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998], [202, Fundación Entorno, Empresa y Medio Ambiente 1999], [233, COM 2008], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [267, BEFESA 2008], [312, VDI 2008]

4.3.5.2 Teil-Recycling der Salzschlacke

Beschreibung

Die Prozessschritte sind identisch mit denen des Voll-Recyclingverfahrens mit dem Unterschied, dass nicht alle Salzschlackenbestandteile zurückgewonnen werden. Aluminium und Kaliumchlorid werden zurückgewonnen. Der Oxidanteil und die Granulationssole werden zur Rekultivierung von Pottascheabraumhalden genutzt.

Technische Beschreibung

Das Verfahren umfasst drei Prozessschritte, wobei die ersten beiden Schritte identisch mit denen des Voll-Recyclingverfahrens sind.

1. Trockenaufbereitungsstufe: Brechen, Absiebung und Abtrennung der in der Schlacke enthaltenen festen Aluminiumtropfen. Dies ist notwendig, da die Aluminiumtropfen anders als die spröde Salzschlacke beim Mahlprozess nicht zerfallen.
2. Nassaufbereitungsstufe: Chemische Umsetzung der feineren restlichen Schlackenteile durch Verlösen in einer wässrigen Lösung und Absorption der sich bildenden Gase. Dies geschieht in zwei Schritten: alkalische Wäsche (NH_3 , H_2) und saure Wäsche (H_2S , PH_3 , H_2). Es entstehen Ammoniumsulfat und eine phosphat-/sulfathaltige Lauge, die zur Rekultivierung von Salzhalden genutzt wird.
3. Das Kaliumchlorid wird bei 110°C in einer mit Halit (NaCl) übersättigten und Sylvit (KCl) untersättigten Lösung gelöst. NaCl verbleibt in Lösung und wird abgefiltert. KCl wird durch Abkühlung unter Vakuum rekristallisiert und zu einem verkaufsfähigen Produkt weiterverarbeitet. Der Rückstand wird zur Rekultivierung von Potascheabraumhalden genutzt.

Die ersten beiden Prozessstufen sind identisch mit denen anderer Salzschlacke-Recyclingverfahren. Der Unterschied liegt in der dritten Behandlungsstufe.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Rückgewinnung von Al und KCl

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit diesem Verfahren werden die folgenden Rückgewinnungsraten erreicht:

- metallisches Aluminium: 95 %
- KCl: 100 %
- Oxide: 0 %

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Staub-, Ammoniak-, Phosphan- und Schwefelwasserstoffemissionen
- Einsatz von Stabilisatoren (Verschneiden), die zu einer Erhöhung der anfallenden Rückstandsmenge um ca. 40 Gew.% führen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Anwendbarkeit dieser Technik ist abhängig von den örtlichen Gegebenheiten, wie z.B. Vorhandensein von Potascheabraumhalden, die rekultiviert werden sollen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Daten zu Investitions- und Betriebskosten liegen nicht vor. Eine Anlage ist derzeit in Betrieb. Gegenüber dem Vollrecycling-Verfahren ist der Energieaufwand für das Teil-Recycling geringer, wobei allerdings kein wiederverwendbares Salz zurückgewonnen wird.

Für Rückstände, die nicht recycelt werden, fallen Entsorgungskosten an.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Rückgewinnung einiger Bestandteile der Salzschlacke

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Deutschland

Literatur

[234, UBA (D) 2007], [272, Al input 2008], [312, VDI 2008]

4.3.5.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Salzschlackenaufarbeitung

Emissionen in die Luft treten beim Salzschlacken-Recyclingverfahren in Form von Staub beim Brechen und Trockenmahlen auf. Der Staub wird i.d.R. erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden. Bei der Nassmahlung hingegen entstehen gasförmige Emissionen in Form von Wasserstoff, Methan und Ammoniak sowie kleinerer Mengen an Phosphan und Schwefelwasserstoff. Diese Luftschadstoffe können in einem Aktivkohlefilter oder Nasswäscher abgeschieden werden. In einigen Fällen werden auch geeignete Nachverbrennungskammern eingesetzt. Aktivkohleadsorber eignen sich insbesondere zur Behandlung von Abgasströmen mit niedrigen Ammoniak-, Phosphan- und Schwefelwasserstoffgehalten. Bei höheren Ammoniakkonzentrationen kommen Nasswäscher zum Einsatz. Mit Nachverbrennungskammern können alle vorgenannten Emissionskomponenten aus dem Abgasstrom entfernt werden. Im Folgenden werden diese Techniken im einzelnen beschrieben.

4.3.5.3.1 Filter zur Enstaubung der Abluft aus der Brech- und Trockenmahlstufe

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Kapselung der Aggregate oder Absaughaube mit Absaugsystem
- Gewebefilter

Technische Beschreibung

Staubemissionen treten nur bei der Zerkleinerung und Trockenmahlung der Salzschlacke auf. Als Zerkleinerungsaggregate kommen u.a. Brechhämmer, Backenbrecher, Prallbrecher, Hammermühlen, Stabmühlen, Kugelmühlen oder Walzenmühlen zur Anwendung. Diese Aggregate können komplett eingehaust oder mit Absaughauben versehen und über Gebläse und ein geeignetes Absaugsystem abgesaugt werden. Kapselungen und Absaughauben können auch bei Förderanlagen, wie z.B. Band- und Schneckenförderer, an Materialaufgabe-, Abwurf- und Übergabestellen eingesetzt werden.

Die abgesaugte staubhaltige Luft wird über Gaskanäle Gewebefiltern zur Enstaubung zugeführt. Der an den Filterschläuchen abgeschiedene Staub fällt in Staubsammeltrichter oder -tröge und wird von dort in Silos abgezogen. Von dort wird er einer nachgeschalteten Prozessstufe des Salzschlackenaufbereitungsprozesses zugeführt.

Nach der Entstaubung ist die gereinigte Abluft bis auf geringe Mengen an filtergängigem Feinstaub weitgehend staubfrei und wird über den Kamin in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Kapselung der Aggregate oder Absaughaube mit Absaugsystem

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen.
- Vermeidung geruchsintensiver Ammoniakemissionen

Gewebefilter

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit Trockenentstaubern, wie z.B. dem oben beschriebenen Gewebefilter, wird eine Reduzierung der Staubkonzentration von 1–50 g/Nm³ im Rohgas auf < 5 mg/Nm³ im Reingas erreicht.

Bei sehr hoher Staubbeladung der Prozessgase (> 50 g/Nm³) kann dem Gewebefilter ein Vorabscheider (Zyklon) vorgeschaltet werden.

Tabelle 4.73 zeigt Staubemissionswerte der Brecher- und Trockenmahlstufe.

Tabelle 4.73: Staubemissionen aus der Salzschlackenvorzerkleinerung und Trockenmahlung

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Diskontinuierliche Messung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
Italien	Gewebefilter	Staub	k.A.	4,8	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr
Deutschland	Gewebefilter	Staub	1	k.A.	2	k.A.

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [385, Germany 2012] [396, Italy 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Gasförmige Luftschadstoffe wie Ammoniak werden in Gewebefiltern nicht zurückgehalten. Vielmehr besteht das Risiko einer Reaktion von im Abgas vorhandenem Ammoniak, Wasser usw. mit den Werkstoffen des Gewebefilters, insbesondere dem Filtermaterial. Durch die in der Abluft enthaltene Feuchte können die Staubpartikel zusammenbacken und das Filtergewebe verstopfen. Aus den o.g. Gründen sind Gewebefilter nicht zur Entstaubung feuchter Prozessgase zu empfehlen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Betriebskosten eines Gewebefilters stellen sich wie folgt dar:

- Stromverbrauch: EUR 0,55/t Al;
- Betriebskosten: EUR 0,18/t Al

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umwelt- und Gesundheitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in DE, ES, IT und UK

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.5.3.2 Aktivkohlefilter

Beschreibung

Zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft durch den Nassmahl- und Verlöseprozess kommt ein saurer Wäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) mit nachgeschaltetem Aktivkohlefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Nassmahlen und Verlösen reagieren die feinteiligen Schlackenbestandteile mit Wasser unter Bildung von Wasserstoff und Ammoniak als Hauptreaktionsprodukte sowie geringer Mengen an Phosphan und Schwefelwasserstoff. Um die Abgaskonzentration unterhalb der Zündgrenze zu halten, wird das Abgas mit Luft verdünnt. Das Abgas wird am Austritt der Mühle und der Reaktionsbehälter abgesaugt, auf Prozesstemperatur abgekühlt (ca. 70 °C) und anschließend im sauren Wäscher (siehe Beschreibung unten) von Ammoniak befreit. Im nachgeschalteten Aktivkohlefilter werden abschließend vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre Schwefelwasserstoff und Phosphan aus dem Abgasstrom entfernt.

Aktivkohle

Aktivkohle ist ein kohlenstoffhaltiges Adsorptionsmittel mit stark ausgeprägter Porenstruktur und damit sehr großer innerer Oberfläche für Adsorptions- und Chemisorptionsvorgänge, die durch einen Aktivierungsschritt ausgebildet wird.

Vor Eintritt in das Aktivkohlefilter wird das wasserdampfgesättigte Abgas in einem Wärmetauscher auf bis zu 70 °C aufgeheizt, um eine Kondensation im Adsorber zu vermeiden. Die Anlage besteht aus vier Adsorbern (mit den Aktivkohlebetten), von denen jeweils zwei parallel geschaltet sind. Zwei Adsorber sind jeweils in Beladebetrieb, während die anderen beiden regeneriert werden. Die Phosphan- und H₂S-Konzentrationen im gereinigten Abgas werden überwacht.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von H₂S (Schwefelwasserstoff)- und PH₃ (Phosphan)-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionen

Das Rohgas weist ein PH₃-Konzentration von 25 ppm (19 mg/Nm³) bis 75 ppm (55 mg/Nm³) entsprechend einem Durchschnittswert von 50 ppm (37 mg/Nm³) auf. Die Reingaskonzentration liegt unter 0,1 ppm.

Die H₂S-Konzentration im Rohgas liegt im Mittel bei 20 ppm (15 mg/Nm³). Die Reingaskonzentration liegt unter 0,1 ppm. Roh- und Reingaswerte werden regelmäßig gemessen.

Tabelle 4.74 zeigt die berichteten Emissionswerte für eine Anlage in Deutschland

Tabelle 4.74: Emissionswerte nach dem Aktivkohlefilter der Nassmahanlage

Anlage	Technik	Schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)		
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
K + S	Aktivkohlefilter	PH ₃	0,1	k.A.	0,42
		H ₂ S	0	k.A.	0
		NH ₃	0	k.A.	5
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [360, Germany 2013]					

Prozessrückstände

Die Aktivkohle wird regeneriert. Erschöpfte Aktivkohle, die sich nicht mehr regenerieren lässt, muss ausgetauscht werden. Die verbrauchte Aktivkohle wird einem Entsorgungsbetrieb übergeben.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik wird in Salzschlackenaufbereitungsanlagen mit Nassmahlsystem angewendet. Bei Trockenmahlanlagen wird das Abgas thermisch behandelt (Nachverbrennungskammer), womit sich ein Aktivkohlefilter erübrigt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten bewegen sich zwischen EUR 0,5 und EUR 1 pro Tonne Salzschlacke.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Deutschland

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.5.3.3 Sauer Wäscher

Beschreibung

Beim Verfahren mit Trockenmahlung kommen saure Wäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) zur Reinigung der Abgase (außer der Mühlenabluft) aus dem Salzurückgewinnungsprozess zum Einsatz. Beim Verfahren mit Nassmahlung wird das Abgas aus der Nassmahl- und Lösestufe in einem Nasswäscher gereinigt.

Technische Beschreibung

Im Nasswäscher werden gasförmige luftverunreinigende Stoffe (insbesondere Ammoniak) durch Absorption in einer sauren Waschlösung (H_2SO_4) abgeschieden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verminderung der relevanten Emissionen des Salzurückgewinnungsprozesses (z.B. Ammoniak)
- Der Wäscher arbeitet abwasserfrei.
- Als Reaktionsprodukt fällt eine vermarktungsfähige Ammoniumsulfatlösung an (z.B. Verwendung als Düngemittel).

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Wesentlichen Einfluss auf die Minderungsleistung dieser Technik haben:

- pH-Wert der Waschlösung
- Druckverlust

Typische Reingaskonzentrationen

- Ammoniak: 1–20 mg/Nm³;
- Phosphan: 0,2–1 mg/Nm³
- Schwefelwasserstoff: 0,2–5 mg/Nm³

Zur Aufrechterhaltung der Abscheideleistung werden pH-Wert- und Differenzdruckregler eingesetzt.

Wichtige Auslegungs- und Betriebsparameter sind:

- Relativgeschwindigkeit zwischen Waschflüssigkeit und Gas
- Waschflüssigkeitsmenge und Gasvolumenstrom
- Konzentration des sauren Waschmediums und der gasförmigen Luftschadstoffe
- Phasengrenzfläche für Gas-Flüssig-Kontakt

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Vier Anlagen in Italien

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.5.3.4 Nachverbrennungseinrichtung

Beschreibung

Das Abgas aus der Heißlaugung des Salzschlackenpulvers (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1) wird einer Nachverbrennungseinrichtung zugeführt.

Technische Beschreibung

Nachverbrennungseinrichtungen bestehen aus einem Brennersystem (das nicht notwendigerweise kontinuierlich in Betrieb ist). Hochtemperatur-Nachverbrennungskammern sind gewöhnlich für eine Verbrennungstemperatur von 700 °C–900 °C und eine Verweilzeit von mindestens 5 Sekunden ausgelegt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung gasförmiger Emissionen aus dem Laugungsprozess, z.B. Ammoniak und Phosphan
- Abwasserfreier Prozess
- Mögliche Wärmerückgewinnung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Minderungsleistung dieser Technik ist abhängig von der notwendigen Betriebstemperatur und Verweilzeit, um eine wirksame Zerstörung der Abgasinhaltsstoffe sicherzustellen.

Nachverbrennungseinrichtungen werden mit Erdgas betrieben.

Typische Reingaskonzentrationen:

- Ammoniak: 1–20 mg/Nm³
- Phosphan: 0,2–1 mg/Nm³
- Schwefelwasserstoff: 0,2–5 mg/Nm³

Tabelle 4.75 zeigt berichtete Emissionswerte für Anlagen in Deutschland und Italien.

Tabelle 4.75: Emissionen aus der Salzschlackenaufbereitung (Mahl-, Löse-, Filtrations- und Waschstufen)

Anlage	Verfahren	Luftschadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)		
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
K + S	Thermische Behandlung	PH ₃	0,02	k.A.	0,02
		H ₂ S	< 0,7	k.A.	< 1,5
		NH ₃	< 0,2	k.A.	< 0,2
Italien	Nachverbrennungskammer/Nasswäscher	PH ₃	k.A.	0,7	k.A.
		H ₂ S	k.A.	4,5	k.A.
		NH ₃	k.A.	5	k.A.
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [360, Germany 2013]					

Vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre muss das Abgas (möglichst unter Wärmerückgewinnung) gekühlt und ggf. entstaubt werden.

Zur Überwachung der Verbrennungstemperatur und der Reingastemperatur am Brennkammeraustritt sind Temperaturregler vorgesehen. Die Verbrennungstemperaturregelung dient zum einen der Sicherstellung der Minderungsleistung und zum anderen dem Schutz des Gewebefilters (soweit vorgesehen).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Potenziell höherer Energieverbrauch, wenn die entstehende Wärme nicht genutzt werden kann

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Drei Anlagen in Italien

Literatur

[296, EAA, OEA 2012]

4.3.6 Abwasser

Zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Abwasseranfall werden entsprechende Maßnahmen vorgesehen. Kühlwasser wird im Kreislauf geführt. Alle Abwasserströme werden einer Behandlung zur Entfernung von Feststoffen und Ölen/Teeren unterzogen. Das saure Abwasser aus der Abgasreinigung (z.B. Schwefeldioxid, HCl) wird neutralisiert. Hierzu kommen die in den Unterkapiteln 0 und 4.1 beschriebenen Techniken in Betracht. In einigen Anlagen werden Kühlwasser, aufbereitetes Abwasser und Niederschlagswasser wiederverwendet oder in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

4.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Rotschlamm

Zur Nutzung von Rotschlamm und dessen Eigenschaften wurden verschiedene Verfahren entwickelt

[247, France 2008]:

- Eindickung des Schlamms zur Steigerung der Aluminiumoxidausbeute bei niedrigen Produktionskosten oder Hochdruckfiltration zur Erzeugung eines Filterkuchens, der in der Baustoffindustrie, als Bodenverbesserer in der Landwirtschaft, im Böschungsbau, als Abdeckmaterial in geordneten Deponien, Versatzmaterial oder als Zuschlag bei der Zementherstellung verwendet werden kann
- Nutzung der Färbungseigenschaften für mögliche Pigmentanwendungen, wie z.B. bei Thermoplasten, Zementbeschichtungen, Lacken und Spezialfußbodenbelägen
- Adsorption und Bindung von Schadstoffen, wie z.B. Arsen

Inerte Anoden

Die Entwicklung neuartiger kohlenstofffreier Anoden würde eine komplett neue Konstruktion der Elektrolysezelle ohne verzehrbare Anoden ermöglichen. Statt Kohlendioxid würde an der Anode Sauerstoff gebildet, und es käme nicht mehr zur PAK-Bildung. Diese Technologie befindet sich noch im Pilotstadium. Bislang ist es nicht gelungen, mit diesen Anoden(Anm. d. Übs.:Satz unvollständig) [303, ENVIRONNEMENT CANADA 2008]

Benetzbare Kathoden

Entwicklung neuer Kathodenwerkstoffe oder Beschichtungen für bestehende Kathodenwerkstoffe zur Steigerung der Effizienz des Elektrolyseprozesses. Diese Technologie befindet sich noch im Entwicklungsstadium und wurde im Labormaßstab erprobt.

Sortenreine Trennung unterschiedlicher Aluminiumlegierungen

Zur Auftrennung von Aluminiumschrott in einzelne Legierungstypen wurden Laser- und Wirbelstromabscheidetechniken erprobt. Diese Techniken ermöglichen eine gezielte Vorauswahl der Legierungsschrotte und vereinfachen so die Herstellung der gewünschten Legierung in der sekundären Aluminiumerzeugung.

Salzfreie Krätzeaufbereitung

Bei diesem Verfahren wird die Krätze ohne Einsatz von Schmelzsalzen in einem Drehtrommelofen unter Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Aluminiums aufgearbeitet. Zwar sind die erzielten Aluminiumausbeuten etwas geringer als beim Schmelzen unter Salz, doch die verbleibenden Skimmings sind salzfrei und können in Elektrostahlwerken zur Stahlproduktion eingesetzt werden. Das Verfahren ist nicht nur vorteilhaft aus Umweltsicht, sondern bietet auch wirtschaftliche Vorteile für beide Industriesektoren. Vorteile für die Aluminiumindustrie ergeben sich durch die Einsparung von Schmelzsatz und die Erzeugung eines Nebenprodukts, das sich in einem anderen Industriesektor leicht verwerten lässt. Die Stahlindustrie profitiert von einer verbesserten Entschwefelung, Energieeinsparungen, höherer Metallausbeute und der Substitution ähnlicher teurerer Rohstoffe (z.B. Al/Al₂O₃-haltige Flussmittel als Desoxidationsmittel und Schlackebildner).

Rückgewinnung von Ofenausbruch

Rückgewinnung von Ofenausbruchmaterial mittels des derzeit eingesetzten Voll-Recyclingverfahrens für Salzschlacke. Das Verfahren entspricht dem Vollrecycling-Verfahren für Salzschlacke und umfasst die folgenden Prozessschritte: Trockenmahlung des Einsatzmaterials, Verlösen, Trennung in eine lösliche und eine unlösliche Fraktion, Waschen der unlöslichen Fraktion und Eindampfung der löslichen Fraktion. Durch Mischen von Ofenausbruchmaterial mit Salzschlacken wird die Cyanidoxidation in der Reaktionsstufe beschleunigt. Lösliche Fluoride werden abgetrennt und zusammen mit dem Salz aus der

Salzschlacke in einer Verdampfungsstufe kristallisiert. Dieses Verfahren arbeitet abfall- und abwasserfrei.

Salzfreies Schmelzen

Einsatz eines Elektrolichtbogenofens zum salzfreien Schmelzen von Krätze

Salzschlacken-Recycling mittels Elektrodialyse

Salzrückgewinnung durch Elektrodialyse statt einem Anreicherungsverfahren

Kontinuierliche HF-Überwachung

Kontinuierliche Messung der HF-Emissionen im Reingas zur Betriebsüberwachung der Abgasreinigungsanlagen (Trockensorptionsstufe mit Tonerde/Gewebefilter)

Die kontinuierliche HF-Messung kann auch zur Regelung der Tonerdedosierung beim Trockensorptionsverfahren genutzt werden. Neben einer optimalen Nutzung der Adsorptionskapazität der Tonerde werden damit auch eine homogenere Zusammensetzung der beladenen Tonerde und eine bessere Beherrschung von Emissionsspitzen erreicht.

5 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE LEAD AND TIN

5.1 Applied processes and techniques

Lead and tin are produced mainly by pyrometallurgical processes, which implies the use of furnaces. Lead production can be divided into primary and secondary processes, depending on the materials treated. Primary lead smelting focuses on the conversion of lead ores and concentrates, complex secondary materials, and often some lead-acid battery scrap fractions (paste or grids) into crude lead bullion requiring further refining. Secondary lead smelting focuses mainly on recycling lead-acid battery scrap, but other residues and scrap can also be used as feed material.

The techniques used can, in some cases, be the same for secondary or mixed primary and secondary raw materials, [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. In other cases, secondary materials are separated and some portions, such as battery paste, are sent to other processors who deal with such material.

Tin may be recovered from the residues produced during lead production and secondary copper refining, or from the detinning of coated steel cans. Tin can also be produced from ores.

5.1.1 Primary lead

There are two basic pyrometallurgical processes available for the production of lead from lead sulphide or from mixed lead and zinc sulphide concentrates:

- sintering/smelting in a blast furnace or Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF);
- direct smelting.

The last primary sinter and shaft furnace operating in the EU-28 switched over to the direct smelting process in October 2013.

All smelting processes may also be used for concentrates mixed with secondary raw materials.

The composition of raw materials varies depending on the concentrates and their pretreatment. The feasibility of processing certain concentrates is, among others, defined by the capability of the process to treat and recover the accompanying metals like zinc, cadmium and mercury.

Some ranges for the contents of the main constituents of lead concentrate are given in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Composition ranges for the main constituents of lead concentrate

Constituent	Content (%)	Constituent	Content (%)
Pb	35–90	Cu	0–5
Zn	0–15	Ni	0–1
S	0–35	Cd	0–0.2
SiO ₂	0–10	Cr	0–10
CaO	0–20	As	0–5
FeO	0–30	Hg	0–0.01
<i>Source: [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]</i>			

5.1.1.1 Sintering/smelting using a blast furnace or Imperial Smelting Furnace

In the EU-28 there is only one site which operates an ISF furnace for the production of zinc and lead from zinc/lead concentrates. This process is described in Section 6.1.1.2.

Blast furnaces and ISFs are still in use in non-EU countries for primary lead production. Also, in some countries a combination of direct smelting and blast furnaces are used (e.g. China).

5.1.1.2 Direct smelting

In direct smelting, the sintering stage is not carried out separately. Several processes are used for the direct smelting of lead concentrates and some secondary material to produce crude lead and slag. The following processes/furnaces involve direct smelting and are used both in the EU-28 and worldwide: Ausmelt/ISASMELT (bath furnace, top submerged lance furnace) sometimes in combination with blast furnaces, Kaldo (TBRC), the QSL (bath furnace) integrated processes and electric furnaces (used for processing primary lead concentrates together with secondary materials). The Kivcet integrated process is also used and is a flash smelting process. The Ausmelt/ISASMELT and QSL furnaces take moist feed, and the Kaldo and Kivcet furnaces use dried feed [254, VDI 2004]. The processes are summarised in Table 5.2 and Table 5.3.

Other furnaces such as the Shuikoushan melting furnace (SKS bottom-blowing furnace) are not used in Europe, but are in operation elsewhere.

In all direct smelting processes, concentrates, alone or together with secondary material, are mixed with other smelting additives and fluxes to produce a fairly constant feed. The general practice is to sample and characterise the concentrates and to store individual concentrates separately, so that an optimum blend can be prepared for smelting. Feed blends can be prepared from dosing bin systems using belt weighers or loss-in-weight systems. Final mixing and homogenisation can take place in mixers, pelletisers or in the conveying and metering systems. If the smelting process requires a dry feed, a hot dryer can be used. Drying can also be used for reducing feed humidity when the moisture content is a limiting factor for the smelting process.

In all furnaces, the lead sulphide concentrates and secondary materials mix is charged directly to a furnace and then melted and oxidised. Sulphur dioxide is formed and is collected, cleaned and converted to sulphuric acid. Carbon (coke or gas) and fluxing agents are added to the molten charge. Lead oxide is reduced to lead and a slag is formed. Some zinc and cadmium are fumed off in the furnace, and their oxides are captured in the abatement plant and recovered [117, Krüger, J. 1999] [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

All processes produce a slag that contains lead, and to limit this the QSL and Kivcet furnaces incorporate an integral reduction zone to reduce the lead content of the slag to an acceptable level. Silica-based slag from the QSL furnace is accepted as construction material. The Kaldo furnace (also known as the top-blown rotary converter) uses an adjacent slag fuming furnace. The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace may be operated in a two-stage operation, with one furnace (batch-wise) or with two parallel furnaces (continuous) in order to treat the primary slag for use in similar applications. Otherwise, a single furnace may be operated continuously for the production of raw lead and lead-rich slag for the further treatment and recovery of lead.

Heat recovery and the conversion of sulphur dioxide into sulphuric acid are also part of these processes. Process control is based on the measurement of SO₂ in the off-gas and this leads to a delayed reaction in the sulphuric acid plant process.

Dust collected in the abatement plant is returned to the process and can be washed or leached to reduce halides [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

All of these processes took some time to be commissioned fully and achieve the anticipated throughput and conversion rates. The Kaldor is a two-stage process [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [34, UNECE 1995], [99, Hähre, S. 1998] and has been well established since 1976. The QSL and the Ausmelt/ISASMELT processes have overcome their initial problems and are now operating effectively [234, UBA (D) 2007]. The Ausmelt process in Germany can be operated with a slag reduction phase but actually produces a metallurgical lead oxide concentrate for sale. The Kivcet process has been operating successfully since 1990. [117, Krüger, J. 1999], [305, Ausmelt 2009].

Table 5.2: Summary of direct smelting processes

Process	Lead content of slag (%)	Comments
QSL	< 3	Efficient operation. Viable process
Kivcet	3–5	Successful operation
Ausmelt/ISASMELT	No slag produced ⁽¹⁾	Efficient operation. Viable process
Kaldo	2–4	Effective operation - mixed Pb/Cu
Electric furnace		Effective processing of a wide range of Cu/Pb-bearing materials
⁽¹⁾ Ausmelt in Nordenham stop the process after the oxidising step and sell the lead oxide concentrate instead of reducing the slag. <i>Source:</i> [117, Krüger, J. 1999]		

Table 5.3: Raw materials used in different direct smelting processes

Furnace	Raw materials	Comments
Kaldo (TBRC) (totally enclosed)	Pb concentrate and secondary material (most grades)	Dry feed, variable sulphur dioxide. Operated in a complex installation with a Cu smelter
QSL	Pb concentrate and secondary material	Moist feed
Kivcet	Cu/Pb concentrate and secondary material	Dry feed
Ausmelt/ISASMELT	Pb concentrate and secondary material	Moist, pelletised feed
Electric	Cu/Pb concentrates and secondary Cu/Pb-bearing materials	Dry feed, fine sludge-type feed materials are pelletised

5.1.2 Primary tin

Primary tin is produced using pyrometallurgical processes, by the reduction of the oxidic ore with carbon or coke. In the EU-28, there is no production of tin directly from ores.

5.1.3 Secondary lead and tin production

In secondary lead and tin production, there is a wide range of material that can be used. This can include lead- and tin-containing drosses, ashes, matte, residues and slag with broad ranges for all constituents. Scrap from lead sheet and flashings can also be used. However, lead-acid batteries represent the major proportion of feedstock for secondary lead production

5.1.3.1 Recovery of lead from lead-acid batteries

Scrap automotive and industrial batteries (automotive, motive power and standby) are the major sources of secondary lead. Directive 2006/66/EC on batteries contains a target for the recycling efficiency of lead-acid batteries of 65 % as of September 2010. The typical composition of lead-acid battery scrap is given in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Composition of typical lead-acid battery scrap

Component	wt-%
Lead (alloy) components (grid, poles, etc.)	25–30
Electrode paste (fine particles of lead oxide and lead sulphate)	35–45
Dilute sulphuric acid (10–20 % H ₂ SO ₄)	10–25
Polypropylene	5–8
Other plastics (PE, etc.)	2–5
Others materials (glass, etc.)	< 1
<i>Source: [377, ILA 2013]</i>	

There are two main types of processes for the recovery of lead from automotive batteries [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [34, UNECE 1995], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

1. **Blast furnace recycling process:** After collection, used lead-acid batteries are drained of acid which, depending on local circumstances, is sold as an acid solution for aqueous leaching processes or is neutralised. The polypropylene plastic fraction may then be separated from all or part of the batteries. Drained batteries are then mixed with coke, fluxes and any other lead scraps and intermediates to make up the charge (the mix of materials) of the blast furnace. Antimonial lead bullion is produced, along with a silica-based slag and a lead-iron matte that can be recovered in a primary lead smelter [117, Krüger, J. 1999] [254, VDI 2004]. The overall process is shown in Figure 5.1.

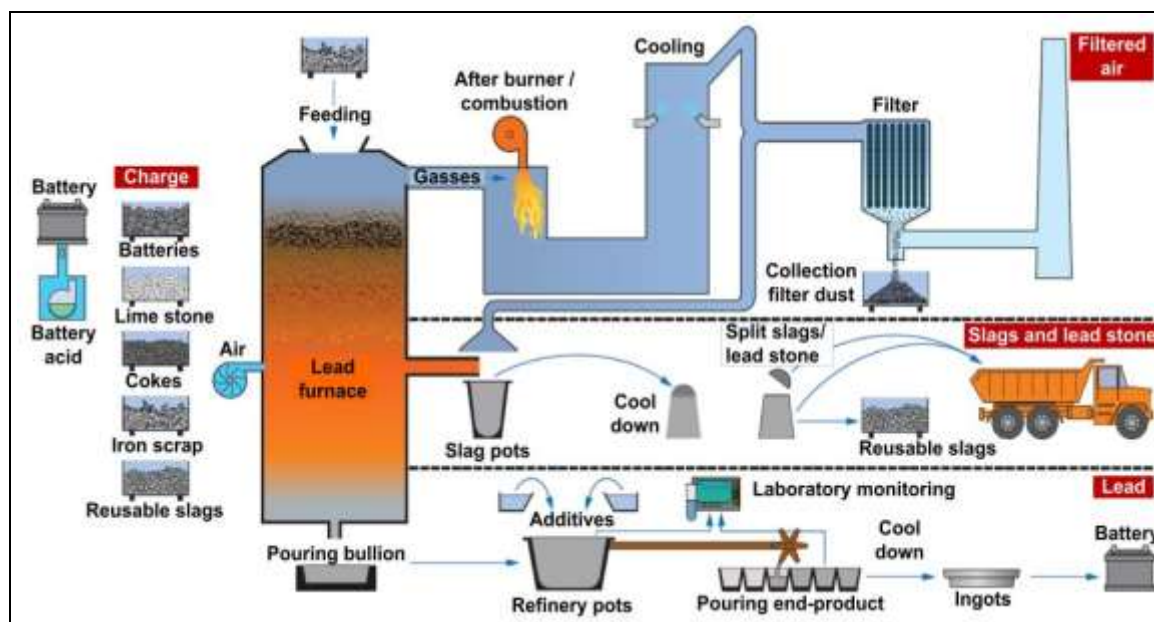


Figure 5.1: Outline of a typical shaft furnace lead-acid battery recovery process

Organic compounds in the furnace off-gases are oxidised in an afterburner and the gases are then cooled and filtered in a fabric filter. The filter dust is dechlorinated and returned to the furnace.

2. **Mechanical battery separation processes followed by smelting:** Examples of mechanical separation processes are the MA and CX (Engitec) processes. These processes are similar in principle but the technical solutions are quite different for the treatment of battery paste and sulphuric acid. In both cases, batteries are drained of acid, broken and separated into various fractions using automated proprietary equipment. Paste desulphurisation prior to smelting can reduce the quantity of slag produced and, depending on the smelting method used, the amount of sulphur dioxide released to the air [254, VDI 2004]. The process is shown in Figure 5.2.

Both the MA and CX processes use hammer-type mills to crush the whole batteries. The crushed material then passes through a series of screens, wet classifiers and filters to obtain separate fractions that contain the metallic components, lead oxide-sulphate paste, polypropylene, non-recyclable plastics and rubber and dilute sulphuric acid [103, COM 1998]. Some processes use a second milling stage before the plastic fraction is finally treated. Polypropylene is recycled as far as possible in a wide range of applications.

Battery acid contains 10–15 % sulphuric acid and some impurities. Potential further uses depend on the local situation, and several options are available to deal with the sulphur contained in the battery materials:

- alkaline leaching using an alkali salt or hydroxide solution to remove sulphates from the secondary materials prior to smelting;
- desulphurisation of the input materials;
- fixation of sulphur in the smelt phase using additives;
- treatment of the SO₂-containing gas stream by lime or sodium bicarbonate injection;
- alkaline or lime/limestone scrubber after dust filtration;
- sulphuric acid production.

These techniques are described in detail in Sections 5.3.2.5 and 5.3.4.3.

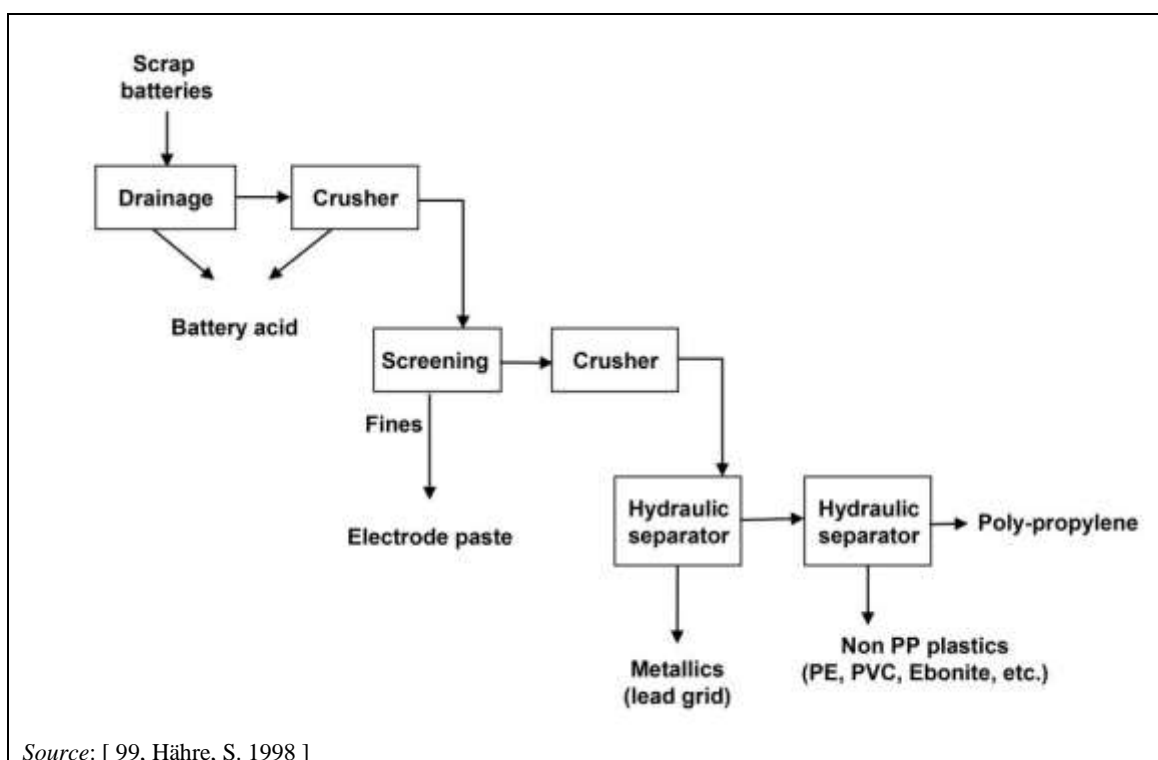


Figure 5.2: Outline of a typical lead-acid battery recovery process

Secondary lead smelting can be carried out in four main types of furnace:

- blast furnaces;
- rotary furnaces;
- reverberatory furnaces;
- electric furnaces.

In the blast furnace process (approximately 15 % of secondary lead production in the EU-28), the charge is filled at the top of the furnace. At the bottom of the furnace, oxygen-enriched air is blown inside to ignite the coke and smelt the materials in the charge. Air injected at the bottom reacts in the furnace, and the reacted gas flows to the top of the furnace through the material which has been charged from the top. Sulphur from the battery paste (lead sulphate) is mainly (> 90 %) captured in an iron matte. The remaining sulphur in the furnace (< 10 % of input) which has not been captured by the iron in the matte leaves the furnace as SO₂ gas. For the off-gas, unreacted hydrocarbons and residual CO are treated in a dedicated afterburner, followed by SO₂ scrubbing with dry lime or alkali water. These techniques are described in detail in Section 5.3.4.3. Where applicable, significant heat recovery can be achieved from the furnace flue-gas.

Rotary (the most common furnace currently employed), tilting rotary and reverberatory (the most common furnace in the US, and also used in the EU-28) furnaces can be either gas- or oil-fired, with oxygen enrichment also used in several installations. In rotary furnaces, smelting is usually carried out in batches, slag and metal are tapped out separately and batches of slag are treated to recover more lead and to produce a stable slag. The bulk of the sulphur in the charge is fixed in the slag. The slag can be a sodium-iron-sulphur compound with small amounts of lead and other metals or a silica slag, which is generally more acceptable for disposal. In tilting rotary furnaces, smelting is also carried out in batches but slag and metal can be successfully tapped together with no detrimental effects and separated after cooling. Sulphur fixing is also achieved very successfully in the slag and can be between 40 % and 80 % more efficient than with rotary furnaces (both using desulphurised paste), see Tabelle 5.26. In reverberatory furnaces, smelting is continuous; sinter and metal are tapped separately. The sinter is smelted (usually in a rotary furnace) to produce a silica slag. The off-gas stream from the reverberatory furnace contains SO₂, which can react with lime to produce gypsum.

The following furnaces are described in Section 5.1.1.2 under primary smelting, but are briefly covered here as they can also be used to process secondary input materials.

In the Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace, sulphur-containing paste and reducing agent are continuously fed into the furnace, and lead bullion is tapped periodically. When the process vessel contains the maximum volume of slag, a reducing agent and fluxes are added to produce a high-antimony bullion and a slag, [40, Ausmelt Ltd. 1996], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The slag may also be reduced in a separate furnace.

In the QSL furnace, some battery components such as battery paste are treated together with other secondary materials (e.g. dross, sludges, leaching residues, flue-dusts) [254, VDI 2004].

Crude bullion produced by either smelting method is refined by the methods described below in Section 5.1.4.

5.1.3.2 Recovery of lead from residues and scrap

Metallic lead scrap may be in a variety of forms. It may be contaminated by plastic material or bitumen and may be alloyed with other elements, notably tin, antimony and silver.

Clean scrap is melted in specially designed kettles, which are indirectly heated by oil or gas. Scrap is charged from a hopper situated above the kettle. Dross and tramp materials are skimmed from the surface of the molten metal and then pass through a screen that separates fine

and coarse fractions. The dross is the fine fraction and is recycled as a non-metallic residue. The tramp material is mostly metal with a higher melting point than lead, and is treated elsewhere. Residues, largely non-metallic in character, but often mixed with metallic lead scrap, are smelted with fluxes in rotary or blast furnaces.

The lead or lead alloy recovered from scrap or process residues is refined using the techniques described in Section 5.1.4.

5.1.3.3 Recovery of lead and tin from residues and from flue-dusts from copper smelting

The following techniques are applied to recover lead and tin in secondary copper smelters.

- Use of a second reduction stage. This is practised at one secondary copper smelter [90, Traulsen, H. 1998] where lead and tin are reduced with steel scrap or tin cans in a TBRC. Lead and tin scrap, slag and residues are added and a lead-tin alloy is produced. The alloy passes to a shaking ladle to remove residual copper, nickel and silicon and the decoppered alloy is then treated in a three-stage vacuum distillation system to separate lead and tin. The tin is refined by crystallisation before the second vacuum distillation stage.
- Use of flue-dust from the secondary copper converter (sometimes also from the blast furnace) as a feed material. Under reducing conditions, zinc is volatilised and recovered as oxide, while lead and tin are produced in the form of an alloy.
- Use of tin-lead alloy furnace technology in a multistage reduction process to produce black copper, tin-lead alloy and iron silicate slag from the KRS or TBRC slag [234, UBA (D) 2007]. As well as the molten converter slag, other intermediates from on-site production or from third parties and secondary materials are used as input materials. Materials or additives can be charged throughout the process. The slag composition is controlled within defined limits to obtain a marketable product. After a final granulation step, the slag can also be sold. The black copper is recirculated into the KRS or TBRC furnace. The process and secondary hood off-gases are routed to filter systems. The collected flue-dust is either marketed or returned to the KRS bath furnace. Refining of the tin-lead alloy includes the following steps:
 - o segregation and dedrossing (removal of copper and nickel);
 - o removal of the rest of the copper, zinc and arsenic by adding sulphur, ammonium chloride and aluminium.
- Use of a rotary rocking furnace to recover lead from the flue-dust from primary copper smelting. The streams of flue-dust from copper smelting furnaces, captured in dry and wet dedusting systems, with sodium carbonate (flux) and (if necessary) coke, are mixed in the required proportion and hermetically enclosed and transported into a container situated above the furnace. Iron scrap is essential for the process, and this is stored in a separate storage container. The furnace is loaded using a special loading device, and the melting process then takes place. Crude lead is poured into moulds, to be further refined. The flue-gas, after dedusting in a bag filter, is transferred to a (semi-dry) desulphurisation plant, where lime milk (a suspension of fine calcium hydroxide particles in water) is sprayed. The desulphurisation product is collected in a final bag filter and disposed of or returned to the copper smelting furnaces as flux. Lead slag obtained from lead smelting of the copper smelter's flue-dust is returned on site to copper production, where it is added to shaft furnaces together with briquetted copper concentrate.
- Use of electric furnaces for complex secondary materials such as those containing copper/lead, i.e. dusts, drosses, slags, slimes, copper alloy scrap, low-grade matte, copper/lead concentrates and other copper/lead-bearing materials. The furnace is operated on a campaign basis. Depending on the feed material, lead bullion, copper/lead matte or copper/lead species are separated from the slag. Reducing agents include iron, coal and coke. Fine and sludge-type feed materials are pelletised to prevent diffuse emissions, and

then dried to less than 2–3 wt-% of water with hot air in a conveyor-type dryer or a vacuum dryer. Raw materials are fed onto the top of the bath where they react to produce metal and slag, which are tapped periodically. Flue-dust is collected and zinc is recovered from it. Crude lead bullion is further refined by pyrometallurgical lead refining.

5.1.3.4 Recovery of tin from steel scrap

Steel scrap can be detinned by either electrolytic or chemical leaching processes using caustic soda and sodium nitrite [8, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993]. In the latter case, ammonia is released (0.048 kg per kg of tin). Tin is dissolved and then recovered by electrolysis, during which the tin is removed from the cathodes by dipping in a molten bath of tin. Ingots or tin powder are produced, and these can be used to produce a range of alloys and coating materials.

Tin is melted in kettles similar to those used for lead, and alloys are produced. Scrap tin is also recovered in the melting processes. The most common alloys are solders and they use lead as the alloying material. Other melting furnaces are used but temperature control is not as easy.

5.1.3.5 Recovery of lead, tin and other metals from secondary raw materials and wastes

Lead and other metals can be recovered from secondary raw materials and wastes, such as leaching residues from zinc smelters, drosses from lead refineries, mattes, slags, sludges and flue-dust. Additional feed can consist of complex primary raw materials (e.g. copper/lead concentrates) and end-of-life materials (e.g. electronic scrap). This leads to a complex flowsheet where not only lead, but also other metals such as copper, nickel, tin, antimony, precious metals, selenium, tellurium and indium can be recovered.

A calculated mix of these materials is fed into an oxidising smelter, such as an ISASMELT one, where copper containing precious metals is separated from the other metals, which are oxidised in the form of a slag.

This slag is then reduced (e.g. in a blast furnace), and an impure lead bullion is produced together with depleted slags. The lead bullion is sent for further refining in a lead refinery, where tin, antimony, arsenic, bismuth and precious metals are concentrated in separate fractions.

Process gases from the oxidising smelter contain higher amounts of SO₂. They are sent to a sulphuric acid plant after thorough dedusting and drying.

5.1.4 Refining of primary and secondary lead and tin

In primary and secondary lead and tin production, the raw metals produced are refined, alloyed and cast to market qualities. Alloying and casting are described in Section 5.1.5. In addition, metals from other sources (lead and lead scrap, tin and tin scrap, alloying metals) are used.

Lead bullion may contain varying amounts of copper, silver, bismuth, antimony, arsenic and tin. Lead recovered from secondary sources may contain similar impurities, but generally antimony dominates. There are two methods of refining crude lead: electrolytic refining and pyrometallurgical refining. Electrolytic refining uses anodes of decoppered lead bullion and starter cathodes of pure lead. This is an expensive process and is not currently used by plants in the EU-28, although it is used in a number of other countries worldwide.

Pyrometallurgical refining consists of a series of kettles, which are indirectly heated by oil or gas [4, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [304, KGHM 2009]. Remelting is needed as a first step if the metals are not received in a liquid state. Refining kettles are not

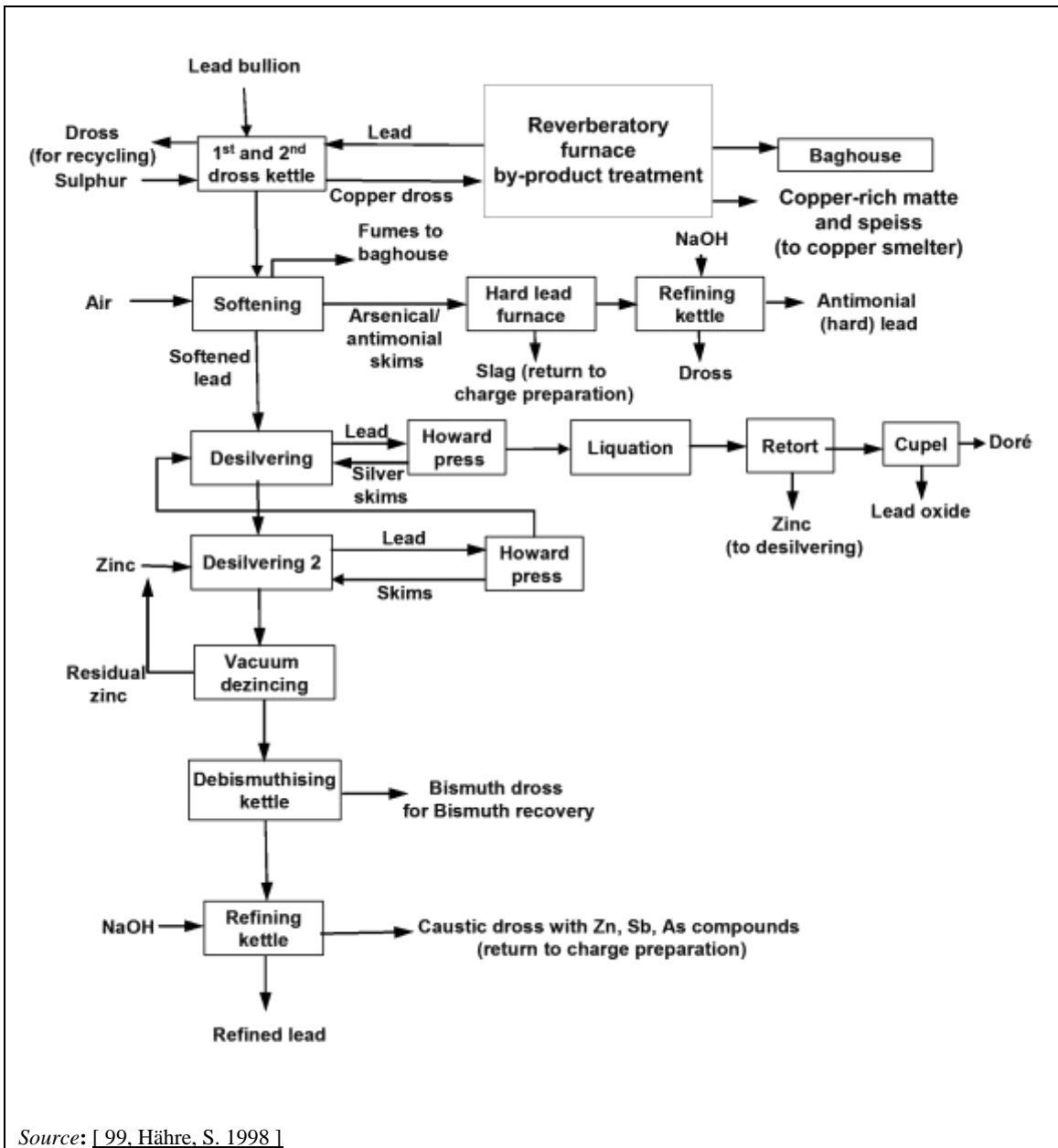
considered suitable for melting scrap lead contaminated with organic materials. Copper is the first element to be removed and separates as sulphide dross. If the crude metal is deficient in sulphur, more must be added in the form of sulphur powder or galena/pyrite. The sulphide dross is removed from the metal surface by mechanical skimmers that discharge into containers.

Tellurium, arsenic, antimony and tin are removed by oxidation (in the Harris process). The usual method, often referred to as 'lead softening', involves a reaction with a mixture of sodium nitrate and caustic soda, followed by mechanical skimming to remove the oxide dross. Air or oxygen can also be used as the oxidising agent. Depending on the crude lead composition, i.e. the amount of impurities, the molten salt mixture may be granulated in water and the impurities separated hydrometallurgically [254, VDI 2004].

Tin and lead can also be separated from each other by vacuum distillation at high temperatures. As a result of this, both pure lead and tin can be recovered.

Desilvering is carried out by the Parkes process, which makes use of the preferential solubility of silver in zinc. Zinc is added to the lead at about 470 °C and the mix is then allowed to cool to 325 °C. A silver-lead-zinc alloy separates and forms a crust on the surface. The crust is removed and zinc is separated from the silver by vacuum distillation. The silver bullion is further refined using oxygen to produce crude silver. Excess zinc is removed from the desilvered lead by vacuum distillation and then by treatment with caustic soda.

Bismuth is removed by treatment with a mixture of calcium and magnesium (the Kroll-Bettertone process). A calcium-magnesium-bismuth alloy is formed as dross on the surface of the lead and is removed by skimming. The dross is then oxidised using lead chloride, chlorine gas, or a mixture of caustic soda and sodium nitrate, and the calcium and magnesium oxide is removed by skimming. A bismuth-lead alloy is recovered and undergoes further refining to produce bismuth. An example diagram of lead refining processes is given in Figure 5.3.



Source: [99, Hähre, S. 1998]

Figure 5.3: Example diagram of lead refining processes

If thallium is present it can be removed using zinc chloride and silica, forming a thallium-rich dross which is skimmed off [304, KGHM 2009].

The pure lead is cast into blocks or ingots as pure lead or lead alloy. Fume, dross, litharge and other residues are usually smelted in a small blast furnace or a rotary furnace to produce lead bullion, which is recycled to the refining circuit.

Tin and tin-lead alloys are refined by both hydrometallurgical and pyrometallurgical routes. The hydrometallurgical method uses electrorefining. This, however, is only applied on a very small scale in the EU (< 1000 t/yr). Pyrometallurgical refining is very similar to lead refining. Iron is removed by liquation, copper is removed by the addition of sulphur, and arsenic or antimony is removed by the addition of aluminium or sodium.

5.1.5 Melting and alloying processes for lead

Melting and alloying are usually carried out in indirectly heated crucible furnaces or kettles, using electricity, oil or gas. Refined lead is melted in a kettle and alloying elements are added. Temperature control of the melt may be important [254, VDI 2004]. Lead and lead alloys are usually cast into permanent cast-iron moulds [4, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993].

Static moulds and conveyor casting machines are used to produce blocks, slabs and ingots. Continuous casting machines are used to produce rods for reduction to wire. Fume extraction is used at the launders and tapping points.

5.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The main environmental issues of the lead and tin industry are air and water pollution and the generation of hazardous wastes. Plants generally have their own waste water treatment facilities, and waste water recycling or reuse is usually practised.

Many wastes are reused, but the main issue is leach residue, which has a high environmental impact [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. Some local aspects, like noise, are also relevant to the industry. Due to the hazardous nature of some solid and liquid waste streams, there is also a significant risk of soil contamination [237, UBA (A) 2004].

Table 5.5 to Table 5.8 give input and output balances for some lead plants in Europe.

Table 5.5: Input and output data for an Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace

Inputs	(t/yr)	Outputs	(t/yr)
Battery lead paste	100 000	Lead bullion	125 000
Lead concentrates	60 000	Sulphuric acid	50 000
Battery grids	35 000	Lead concentrate	43 500
Other secondary	5000	Silver	30–70
Coal or coke	5000	Furnace lining	300–400
Oxygen	15 000 000 Nm ³ /yr	CO ₂	50 000
Natural gas	140 000 MWh/yr	Waste water (process)	2 m ³ /h
Electrical energy	45 000 MWh/yr	Off-gas	32 000–49 000 m ³ /h
<i>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</i>			

Table 5.6: Input and output data for a QSL plant

Inputs	(t/yr)	Outputs	(t/yr)
Lead concentrates	145 000	Lead bullion	135 000
Secondary materials	100 000	Sulphuric acid	100 000
Fluxes	8000	Slag	75 000
Coal	15 000	Copper/lead matte	4500
Oil	100	Silver	260–300
Oxygen	50 000 000 Nm ³ /yr	Zn/Cd carbonate	250
Natural gas	3 300 000 Nm ³ /yr	CO ₂	61 500
Electrical energy	9 000 000 MWh/yr	Off-gas	20 400 m ³ /h
		Waste water (cooling)	2 m ³ /h
<i>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</i>			

Table 5.7: Input and output data for a battery recovery plant with desulphurisation (preparation and short rotary furnace)

Inputs	(t/yr)	Outputs	(t/yr)
Melting materials			
Battery scrap	42 000	Crude lead	43 000
Lead scrap	5400	Polypropylene chips	1800
Secondary materials	2600	Slag	10 000
Internal returns	10 700	Sodium sulphate	4700
Fluxes			
		Furnace lining	35
NaOH	7000	CO ₂	10 800
Steel borings	2300	Off-gas	22 000 m ³ /h
Soda	2200	Waste water (process)	105 000 m ³ /yr
Leaded glass	1700	Slag	10 000
Energy			
Coke	2400		
Oxygen	3 700 000 Nm ³ /yr		
Natural gas	1 400 000 Nm ³ /yr		
Electrical energy	3 800 000 kWh/yr		
<i>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</i>			

Table 5.8: Input and output data for a battery recovery plant with whole battery smelting (shaft furnace)

Inputs	(t/yr)	Outputs	(t/yr)
Used batteries, dry	50 000–60 000	Lead bullion	49 000–50 000
Other lead scrap, waste	13 250–16 500	Flue-dust	2500–2800
Other inputs (iron)	5500–7000	Excess slag	1500–3000
Slag (return)	12 500–14 000	Return slag	12 500–14 000
Sludge from water treatment	3850–4450	Off-gas	65 000 Nm ³ /h
Flue-dust	500–650	Iron/lead matte	9800–10 200
Coke	4950–5950	Spent acid	4000–8000
Coal	0	CO ₂	
Oxygen	1 000 000 Nm ³ /yr	Off-gas	65 000 m ³ /h
Natural gas	477 500 Nm ³ /yr	Waste water (process)	0 m ³ /yr
Electrical energy	10 390 000 Wh/yr	Furnace lining	110
<i>Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [340, ILA 2013]</i>			

5.2.1 Energy

The energy requirements for different lead and tin production processes vary widely, depending on the quality of the feed and the products, the use of latent or waste heat, and the production of by-products. Table 5.9 shows the average energy requirements of the different processes, excluding the energy content in the raw material.

Table 5.9: Energy requirement of various lead processes

Process	Electric (kWh/t Pb)	Coke (kg/t Pb)	Coke (kWh/t Pb) ⁽¹⁾	Gas (Nm ³ /t Pb)	Gas (kWh/t Pb) ⁽²⁾	O ₂ (Nm ³ /t Pb)
QSL ⁽³⁾	70	Coal: 110	900	25	275	370
Ausmelt/ISASM ELT with refinery and other operations ⁽³⁾	360	40	350	102	1120	120
Pb shaft furnace secondary ⁽⁴⁾	100–150	110–130	930–1150	20–30	200–300	20
Rotary furnace with mechanical battery breaking system and sodium or calcium sulphate production ⁽⁴⁾	180–250	60–100	520–900	90–180	1000–2000	150–200
Reverberatory furnace ⁽⁴⁾	80–140	20–30	175–270	55–70	600–800	110–150
⁽¹⁾ Conversion of kt/t into kWh/t by multiplying by a factor of 8.85. ⁽²⁾ Conversion of Nm ³ /t into kWh/t by multiplying by a factor of 11. ⁽³⁾ Primary furnaces. ⁽⁴⁾ Secondary furnaces. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [397, ILA 2012]						

5.2.2 Emissions to air

The emissions to air are either captured as stack emissions or can escape the process as diffuse emissions, depending on the age of the plant and the technology used. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically and reported. Diffuse emissions are a cause for concern and should be captured.

The main emissions to air from lead and tin production are:

- sulphur dioxide (SO₂), other sulphur compounds and acid mists;
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and other nitrogen compounds;
- metals and their compounds;
- dust;
- VOCs and PCDD/F.

Other pollutants are considered to be of negligible importance for the industry, because they are not present in the production process or because they are immediately neutralised (e.g. chlorine or HCl) or because they occur in very low concentrations (e.g. CO). Emissions are to a large extent bound to dust (except cadmium, arsenic and mercury which can also be present in the vapour phase) [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

The sources of emissions depend on the process used and are shown in

Table 5.10.

These include:

- roasting (most emissions occur during unscheduled shutdowns);
- other pretreatments (e.g. battery breaking);
- transport and handling of material;
- the sulphuric acid plant;
- smelting (including slag granulation) and refining;
- casting.

Table 5.10: Significance of potential emissions to air from lead production

Component	Roasting, Sintering, smelting	Refining	Battery breaking	Casting, etc.	Sulphuric acid plant
Sulphur oxides	•• ⁽¹⁾	•	•	•	•••
Nitrogen oxides	• ⁽¹⁾	NR	NR	•	•
Dust and metals	••• ⁽¹⁾	•	•••	•••	NR
VOCs and PCDD/F	•(••) ⁽²⁾	NR	NR	• ⁽¹⁾	NR

(¹) The direct emissions from the roasting or smelting stages are treated and/or converted in the gas-cleaning steps and sulphuric acid plant; the remaining emissions of sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxides from the sulphuric acid plant are still relevant. Diffuse or uncaptured emissions are also relevant from these sources. Secondary smelting of battery paste is a source of SO₂.
(²) PCDD/F and VOCs may be present if secondary materials are used that contain PCDD/F or are contaminated with organic materials.
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant.
NR = Not relevant.

Besides process emissions, diffuse emissions occur. The major diffuse emission sources are:

- dust from the storage and handling of concentrates;
- leakage from roasters and smelters;
- dust from the exhaust gases of casting furnaces;
- miscellaneous.

Although diffuse emissions are difficult to measure and estimate, there are some methods that have been used successfully to do so (see Section 2.3.5). Table 5.11 gives some emission data for a primary lead process using an Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace [99, Hähre, S. 1998], and illustrates the potentially high level of diffuse emissions.

Table 5.11: Significance of the diffuse emissions

Ausmelt/ISASMELT plant (2009) (kg/yr)			
Emissions	Controlled	Diffuse	Total
Lead	596	312	908
Cadmium	3.07	0.24*	3.31
Antimony	5.05	1.77*	6.82
Arsenic	0.93	1.55*	2.48
Thallium	1.83	< 0.01*	1.83
Mercury	0.87	< 0.01*	0.87
Sulphur dioxide (t/yr)	343	NR	343
* Estimated values. NB: Lead production in 2009: 114 161 t. NR: Not relevant. Source: [397, ILA 2012]			

5.2.2.1 Sulphur dioxide and other sulphur compounds

The major sources of sulphur dioxide emissions are diffuse emissions from the oxidation stages, direct emissions from the sulphuric acid plant and the emissions of residual sulphur in the furnace charge. Good extraction and sealing of the furnaces prevents diffuse emissions, with the collected gases from the oxidation stages passed to a gas-cleaning plant and then to the sulphuric acid plant or gypsum plant.

After cleaning, the sulphur dioxide in the gas from the sintering, roasting or direct smelting stages is converted to sulphur trioxide (SO₃) (see Section 2.7.1). During start-up and shutdown, there may be occasions when weak gases are emitted without conversion. These events need to be identified for individual installations. However, many companies have made significant improvements to process controls to prevent or reduce these emissions [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

Lead sinter and some secondary raw materials contain residual sulphur and sulphates. It has been reported [126, Madelin, B. et al. 1991] that 10 % of the sulphur content of lead concentrate remains in the sintered material that is fed into the furnaces. Similarly, the sulphate content of battery scrap may be significant depending on the way it is pretreated [266, Italy 2008] and whether the paste is included. In most cases, the sulphur is fixed in the slag or in other by-products. The extent of fixation depends on the fluxes used and the other metals associated with the process, for example copper matte may be produced when copper and lead concentrates are treated together. Pb-Fe matte is produced under reducing conditions when iron turnings are added. In other cases, SO₂ may be emitted and may need further treatment.

Emissions from several lead processes are shown in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Sulphur dioxide production from several lead processes

Process	Total lead production (t/yr)	Sulphur dioxide produced (g/t of lead)
QSL ⁽¹⁾	135 000	700
ISASMELT ⁽¹⁾	120 000	3000
Battery - whole ⁽²⁾	50 000	4000–6000
Battery - desulphurised paste ⁽²⁾	35 000–50 000	1070–3000
Battery - paste excluded ⁽²⁾	35 000	3200
Batteries + extra paste ⁽²⁾	10 000	210 (FGD system)
Lead shaft furnace and sinter plant ⁽¹⁾	110 000	10 000–45 000
Batteries - MA process ⁽²⁾	33 000	6600
⁽¹⁾ Primary furnaces. ⁽²⁾ Secondary furnaces. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007], [377, ILA 2013]		

Mists from battery breakers can also cause similar emissions. Emissions from smelters using battery-derived material contain SO₂, the concentration depending on whether the paste is smelted or is desulphurised first or is fixed with the slag. Typical figures are 50 mg/Nm³ to 500 mg/Nm³ [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

5.2.2.2 Nitrogen oxides

The smelting stages are potential sources of nitrogen oxides (NO_x). NO_x may be formed from nitrogen components that are present in the concentrates or as thermal NO_x. The sulphuric acid produced can absorb a large part of the NO_x, and this can affect the sulphuric acid quality. Other furnaces that use oxy-fuel burners can also exhibit a reduction in NO_x. The range for all the processes is 20 mg/Nm³ to 300 mg/Nm³.

5.2.2.3 Dust and metals

Dust carry-over from the smelting processes is a potential source of direct and diffuse emissions of dust and metals. The gases are collected and treated in the gas-cleaning processes and for SO₂-rich gases in the sulphuric acid plant. Dust is removed, leached to bring out Cd or Cl₂ if necessary, and returned to the process.

Slag treatment and quenching also give rise to dust. The range of dust emissions from these channelled sources is < 1 mg/Nm³ to 20 mg/Nm³. The slags and dross produced during the recovery of lead from batteries can contain antimony. When these residues become wet, there are potential emissions of stibane, which is a poisonous gas. However, this is not the case for all slags (i.e. if they do not contain hydrogen-generating materials).

Emissions of aerosols take place in the cell room and battery breakers and may contain metals. The range of mist and dust emissions from these sources is 0.1 mg/Nm³ to 4 mg/Nm³.

While controlled emissions have known sources and can be captured and treated, diffuse emissions can evolve almost anywhere on a plant site. The main sources of diffuse emissions

are material storage and handling, dust sticking to vehicles or streets, and open working areas or areas where no abatement has been performed. The mass releases of metals from some European processes are given in Table 5.13

In recent years, some companies have reduced their diffuse emissions efficiently by applying measures such as [234, UBA (D) 2007], increasing the burden of the shaft furnace and improving the off-gas collection;

- renewing the off-gas collection and filter units;
- reducing the furnace downtime by improving the refractory lining (thereby reducing start-up and shutdown times, which can cause higher emissions for a limited time);
- closing the roofs of the process buildings and modernising the filters;
- closing/housing the delivery, material storage and refining areas and installing off-gas collection systems;
- improving material handling procedures (e.g. by wetting bulk materials before and during loading), and reducing transport frequencies (e.g. by using bigger wheel loaders);
- installing obligatory vehicle washing (for plants and external vehicles);
- applying reinforcements to plant areas and driveways and optimising cleaning procedures;
- closing and decontaminating old slag disposal areas.

Table 5.13: Mass release of metals from some European processes

Process	Product	Production (tonnes)	Dust (g/t _{product})	Zn (g/t _{product})	Pb (g/t _{product})	Cd (g/t _{metals})	As (g/t _{metals})
QSL	Lead						
- process	Pb bullion	120 000	1	NA	< 0.1	< 0.01	< 0.0001
- refinery	Pure Pb, Pb alloys	135 000	5.4	NA	< 0.1	< 0.01	< 0.01
- secondary ⁽¹⁾			12	NA	2.3	0.03	0.09
Ausmelt/ISASMELT	Lead						
- process	Pb bullion	113 000	< 1	0.09	2.5	< 0.1	0.01
- refinery	Pure Pb and Pb alloys	120 000	NA	1	4	0.01	0.02
- secondary ⁽¹⁾			NA	0.04	0.3	< 0.01	< 0.01
Battery - whole (shaft)	Lead						
- process		49 000	10–25	0.1	2.5	< 0.1	< 0.15
- refinery		53 000	0.49	NA	0.024	NA	NA
- secondary ⁽¹⁾			< 2 mg/Nm ³	NA	< 0.01 mg/Nm ³	NA	NA
Battery - desulphurised paste	Lead						
- process		43 000	1–3	NA	0.1–1	0.01	0.18
- refinery		52 000	4	NA	0.5	0.02	0.24
- secondary ⁽¹⁾			6	NA	0.3	NA	0.02
Battery - whole (short rotary)	Lead						
- process		10 000	15–35	NA	< 0.5	NA	< 0.3

NB: NA = not available.
⁽¹⁾ Secondary hood dedusting.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

5.2.2.4 Organic compounds (VOCs, PCDD/F) and CO

Organic carbon compounds and CO can be emitted from the drying stage depending on the raw materials and the fuel used for drying. But, in lead production, the most significant source of organic carbon compounds and CO is the reduction step of the smelting process, especially when plastic/plastic residues are present in the furnace charge. An afterburner is the most common technique used to abate these pollutants [ILA 2012].

In the production of lead, the emissions of total volatile organic carbon (TVOC), expressed as C, depend on the type of furnace and processes employed. Where afterburners are used the TVOC emissions are, on average, below 10 mg/Nm³ and the maximum values are usually below 40 mg/Nm³.

The emissions of CO from the shaft furnace are in the range of 500 mg/Nm³ [ILA 2012].

The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible in some processes, particularly if plastic components are included in the secondary materials that are fed into the process [237, UBA (A) 2004].

In the production of lead, the emissions of PCDD/F are, on average, below 0.1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³, and the maximum values are usually below 0.4 ng I-TEQ/Nm³. The values are independent of the feed material due to the use of abatement techniques [234, UBA (D) 2007].

5.2.3 Emissions to water

Metals and their compounds and materials in suspension are the main pollutants emitted to water. The metals concerned are Zn, Cd, Pb, Hg, Se, Cu, Ni, As, Co and Cr [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [27, M. Barry et al. 1993], [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Other significant substances that are emitted to water are chlorides, fluorides and sulphates.

The possible waste water streams that contain the aforementioned substances are:

- waste water from wet scrubbers;
- waste water from wet electrostatic precipitators;
- waste water from the mercury removal step;
- waste water from battery breaking and classification stages;
- waste water from slag granulation;
- sealing water from pumps;
- water from general operations, including cleaning of equipment, floors, etc.;
- discharge from cooling water circuits;
- rainwater run-off from surfaces (in particular storage areas) and roofs.

Waste water from the smelter stage gas cleaning can be the most significant waste water source.

5.2.3.1 Waste waters from abatement plants

Generally, wet gas cleaning systems operate with liquid recycling. A monitored bleed keeps suspended solids and dissolved salts within certain defined limits. The bleed is either treated separately or in an integrated water treatment plant to remove solids and dissolved species before discharge. The destination of the separated material depends on the origin of the waste water.

Wet electrostatic precipitators will also produce an acidic scrubbing liquid. This is recycled after filtering. Some liquid should be bled from this circuit to remove build-up of contaminants. This bleed liquid is treated and analysed before discharge [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

The mercury removal step takes place prior to the sulphuric acid plant and involves a gas-liquid contact tank or spray tower in which the liquid contains a reagent that combines with mercury and removes it. Mercury chloride (HgCl_2) is frequently used as the reagent and reacts with metallic mercury from the gas to form a solid precipitate of Hg_2Cl_2 (calomel). The relatively clean liquid is discharged as waste water for further treatment. The solid Hg_2Cl_2 is sold for mercury recovery or treated to produce mercury chloride again or stabilised for final disposal.

Table 5.14 provides an indication of the composition of the gas-cleaning liquids before treatment.

Table 5.14: Typical gas-cleaning effluents before treatment

Component	Concentration (dissolved)	Composition of suspended solids
Solids		250–1500 mg/l
Sulphate	13–25 g/l	
Chloride	1.3–1.8 g/l	
Fluoride	0.3–0.5 g/l	
Mercury	0.1–9 mg/l	5–30 % of suspended solids
Selenium	0.1–50 mg/l	10–60 % of suspended solids
Arsenic	5–95 mg/l	< 0.05 % of suspended solids
Zinc	0.1–2.5g/l	2–6 % of suspended solids
Cadmium	1–95 mg/l	
Lead	1–13 mg/l	5–50 % of suspended solids
<i>Source:</i> [99, Hähre, S. 1998]		

5.2.3.2 Waste waters from battery recovery

The battery breaking and washing stages produce an effluent which is acidic and contains lead and other metals in suspension and solution. This effluent is neutralised and the water is recycled in the process. If possible, the acid is used elsewhere. A portion is usually bled from the system to control dissolved salts. Cooling water can also arise from cooling the crushing process [237, UBA (A) 2004].

These processes produce contaminated surface water as well and consequently this water is also treated and reused. It is common practice to discharge a bleed of this sealed water circuit after further treatment and analysis. Road and surface contamination is minimised by the frequent wet cleaning of roads, hardstanding areas and lorries, and by cleaning up spillages.

The quality and quantity of waste water depend on the process used, the composition of the raw materials used in the process and the practices used by the operators. The reuse of process water and rainwater is common.

Cooling water from the granulation of slag or the cooling pond is usually recirculated in a closed circuit system.

Typical waste water analyses of some processes are given in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Typical waste water analyses

Process	Effluent	Flow	Main components (mg/l)					
	(m ³ /yr)	(m ³ /h)	Pb	Cd	As	Zn	Ni	COD
QSL ⁽¹⁾	158 000	18	0.06	0.02	0.04	0.15	0.01	20
Ausmelt/ ISASMELT ⁽¹⁾ ⁽²⁾	110 000	13	0.01–0.09	0.001–0.01	0.001–0.1	0.01–0.2		50–200
Mechanical battery separation (CX) + rotary furnace ⁽³⁾	190 000	< 0.2 ⁽⁴⁾						
Mechanical battery separation (MA) + rotary furnace ⁽³⁾	124 000		0.02	0.07	< 0.0005	0.27	0.09	
Whole battery ⁽³⁾	150 000	40	0.4	0.01	< 0.001	0.01	< 0.05	96
Shaft furnace ⁽³⁾	17 000		< 0.2	< 0.1		< 0.3		
CX + rotary furnace + Pb refinery ⁽³⁾	105 000	2.1	0.13	0.01	0.01		0.03	
⁽¹⁾ Primary furnaces. ⁽²⁾ The Ausmelt plant has no waste water treatment plant. The treated effluent is from a Zn smelter, Pb smelter and surface water. ⁽³⁾ Secondary furnaces. ⁽⁴⁾ The CX process produces condensate from the crystalliser which has a very low metal content and a conductivity of < 10 microsiemens. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]								

A summary of potential waste water sources and treatment techniques is given in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Potential waste water sources and treatment techniques

Process unit	Operation/source	Use/treatment options
General	Rainwater from roads, yards, roofs, wet cleaning of roads, cleaning of lorries, etc.	Waste water treatment plant then reuse or recirculation
Battery separation	Process liquor	Used in the desulphurisation process/waste water treatment plant
Paste desulphurisation	Process liquor	Used in the desulphurisation process/waste water treatment plant
Smelting and melting operation	Cooling water from furnace, machinery and equipment	Recirculation
Slag granulation	Wet ESP effluent. Granulation water	Recirculation, waste water treatment plant. Recirculation
Gas-cleaning system	Condensate from gas cooling and wet ESP. Condensate from mercury removal	Removal of suspended dusts and reuse as raw material, waste water treatment plant. After mercury removal, to waste water treatment plant. Recirculation
Sulphuric acid plant	Cooling water equipment. Leakage	Recirculation. Waste water treatment plant
Feed storage	Surface water (rain/wetting)	Waste water treatment plant
Sinter plant	Scrubber (sinter fine cooling)	Waste water treatment plant
All process units	Maintenance	Waste water treatment plant
Waste water treatment plant	Effluent treatment	Reuse for certain applications/discharge

5.2.4 Process residues

The production of metals results in the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, which are listed in the European List of Wastes (Commission Decision of 3 May 2000 replacing Decision 94/3/EEC).

Solid residues derived from various processes and abatement stages may have one of three possible destinations:

1. recycling in, or upstream of, the process;
2. downstream treatment to recover other metals;
3. final disposal after treatment to ensure safe disposal.

The refining stage of lead generates other metal-rich solids. These are usually rich in a specific metal and are thus recycled to the appropriate production process. Also, slag from the production of tin from cassiterite is the main source of tantalum and niobium.

Solid residues also arise as a result of the treatment of liquid effluents. The main waste stream is gypsum waste (CaSO_4) and metal hydroxides that are produced at the waste water neutralisation plant. These wastes are considered to be a cross-media effect of these treatment techniques, but many are recycled to the pyrometallurgical process to recover the metals.

Dust or sludge from the treatment of gases are used as raw materials for the production of other metals, such as Ge, Ga, In and As, or can be returned to the smelter or into the leach circuit for the recovery of lead and tin.

Mercury and selenium residues arise from the pretreatment of mercury or selenium streams from the gas-cleaning stage. This solid waste stream amounts to approximately 40–120 t/yr in a typical plant. Because of the restrictions on mercury use, mercury recovery from Hg-Se residues, or from calomel from the mercury removal stage, is no longer an option. Both by-

products need to be stabilised for final disposal. In exceptional cases when the Se to Hg ratio is high, recovery of selenium may be an option.

5.2.4.1 Pyrometallurgical slags and residues

Slags from the blast furnace and direct smelting usually contain very low concentrations of leachable metals. They are therefore generally suitable for use in construction [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The slag output is between 10 wt-% and 70 wt-% of the metal produced, depending on the raw materials used.

Slags from the battery processing plants account for 13–25 % of the weight of lead produced. They may be suitable for construction uses depending on the leachability of the metals they contain. The leachability is influenced by the fluxes used and the operating conditions [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The use of sodium-based fluxes (Na_2CO_3) to fix sulphur in the slag causes an increase in the quantity of leachable metals. These slags and dross from battery recovery processes can contain antimony. This is normally recovered, but storage in damp conditions can, under certain conditions, cause the emission of stibane.

A number of standard leachability tests are used by Member States and these are specific to the country in question. Processes are under investigation to lower the contents of entrained metals, in order to ensure the future suitability for construction and other applications.

The dross and solids removed during lead and tin melting and refining stages contain metals that are suitable for recovery.

Table 5.17 details some of the solid material output from the refining of lead bullion.

Table 5.17: Solid material from the refining of lead bullion

Refining step	Solid output	Use/treatment options
Drossing/decoppering	Copper dross	Further processing to recover copper and lead
Softening (Harris process/ oxygen softening)	Harris slags Antimony slag	Hydrometallurgical treatment for metal recovery Pyrometallurgical treatment for metal recovery
Desilvering	Zinc-silver crust	Recovery of noble metals
Dezincing	Zinc metal	Reuse for desilvering
Debismuthising	Bismuth crust	Recovery of bismuth
Removal of alkali metals and alkaline earth metals	Mg-Ca oxide dross	Internal recycling as flux
Finishing	Caustic dross	Internal recycling

Source: [13, HMIP (UK) 1994]

Table 5.18 and Table 5.19 show the use or treatment options for the residues produced by several processes.

Table 5.18: Residues from lead processes

Production step	Product or process residue	Quantity (kg/t Pb)	Use or treatment option
Slag fuming plant			
Slag fuming	Slag	700	Water-resistant construction material
	Matte Steam	2.5–25 2500	To Cu smelter Energy conversion
Battery process - short rotary ⁽¹⁾			
Physical treatment of batteries	Na ₂ SO ₄ (CX)	220	Sale
	Battery paste (MA)	700	To primary and secondary smelter
	Polypropylene	100–130	Sale
	Residual plastics	70–80	Disposal or incineration
Smelting	Lead bullion	830	To refinery
	Slag	80–120	Disposal
	Flue-dust	30–50	After treatment back to Pb smelter
Refining	Dross	60–90	To primary smelter
Waste water	Precipitated sludge		Return to smelter
All stages	Slag, flue-dust, etc.	500–550	Internal recirculation
Battery process - blast furnace			
Feed preparation	Spent acid	70–120	External use or neutralisation
Shaft furnace	Fe-Pb matte	80–250	Sale to Pb-Cu smelter or disposal
	Slag	40–60	Road construction or disposal
	Flue-dust	30–80	Return slag External/internal recycling
Refining	Dross	70–120	Sale to metal recovery
All stages	Slag, flue-dust, etc.	500–550	Internal recirculation
⁽¹⁾ Short rotary furnaces may also be used in primary lead production to treat residues from refining. Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999], [377, ILA 2013], [397, ILA 2012]			

Table 5.19: Residues from direct lead smelting processes

Production step	Product or process residue	Quantity (kg/t Pb)	Use or treatment option
Kivcet			
Smelter	Slag	700	Controlled disposal
	Flue-dust I	110	Return to smelter
	Flue-dust II	100	To zinc leach
	Steam	1300	Energy conversion
H ₂ SO ₄ plant	H ₂ SO ₄	1100	Sale
	Calomel	< 0.10	Sale
	Acid sludge	0.5	Controlled disposal
Water treatment	Sludge		
Kaldo			
TBRC (Kaldo)	Slag	350	To fuming
	Flue-dust	160	Return to smelter
	Steam	700	Energy conversion
H ₂ SO ₄ plant	H ₂ SO ₄	500	Sale
	Calomel		
	Acid sludge		
Water treatment	Sludge		
QSL			
Smelter	Slag	550	Road construction
	Flue-dust	60	Return to smelter
	Copper dross	100	After Cd leach
	Steam	1300	Sale
Refining	Silver	2	Energy conversion
H ₂ SO ₄ plant	H ₂ SO ₄	700	Sale
	Calomel	0.02–0.05	Sale
	Acid sludge	0.5	Return to smelter
Dust leaching	CdZn precipitate	1.9	Controlled disposal
Water treatment	Sludge		Return to smelter or disposal ⁽¹⁾
All stages	Slag, flue-dust, sludges, etc.	130–150	Internal recirculation
Ausmelt/ISASMELT			
Smelter	Dross	125	Return to smelter ⁽²⁾
	ZnO dust	50	To zinc smelter
	Steam	NA	Energy conversion
H ₂ SO ₄ plant	H ₂ SO ₄	400	Sale
	Acid sludge	< 1	Return to smelter
	Hg precipitate	0.2	Calomel production
Dust leaching	CdZn precipitate	1.1	To zinc smelter
	Lead residue	40	Return to smelter
Water treatment	Sludge	< 5	Return to smelter or disposal ⁽¹⁾
All stages	Slag, flue-dust sludges, etc.	~ 420	Internal recirculation
Rotary rocking furnace processing flue-dust from primary copper smelter			
Smelter	Slag	1330	Return to copper smelter
	Speiss	36	Landfilled
	Dust	340	Return to lead smelter
	Product from semi-dry flue-gas neutralisation	115	Returned to copper smelter as flux, partially stored
⁽¹⁾ Depending on the value of the metals contained in the sludge. ⁽²⁾ Special campaigns for slag reduction. Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [305, Ausmelt 2009], [397, ILA 2012]			

5.2.4.2 Plastics from battery processing

Some battery processing plants also produce polypropylene and polyethylene from the crushed battery cases. The total plastic content accounts for 11–20 wt-% of lead produced [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. There are a number of plastics production plants designed specifically for this material and they produce granular polypropylene for a number of industrial and domestic applications, including automobiles, pipes and drainage, and components in domestic kitchens. Effective washing of the polypropylene fraction and separation of other plastic components such as ebonite or PVC is essential to produce products within specification.

5.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Table 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt dargestellt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zum Aufzeigen von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

5.3.1 Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung

Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006].

5.3.2 Materialvorbereitung

5.3.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbereitung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen (außer Batterien)

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Förderanlagen oder pneumatische Fördersysteme (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- gekapselte Einrichtungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Durchführung von Mischvorgängen in einer geschlossenen Halle (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Staubbiederschlagssysteme
- Pelletierung der Einsatzstoffe (siehe Abschnitt 2.5.1.6);
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

In der Primärbleigewinnung werden Konzentrate, sonstige Einsatzstoffe und Flussmittel miteinander gemischt, um ein homogene Beschickung des Schmelzofens zu gewährleisten. Zur Herstellung der Einsatzmischungen kommen Dosierbunkersysteme mit Bandwaagen oder Differentialverwiegesystemen zum Einsatz. Die abschließende Mischung und Homogenisierung kann in Mischern, Pelletieranlagen oder in den Förder- und Dosiersystemen erfolgen. In Anbetracht des Staubpotenzials dieser Arbeitsschritte werden zum Umschlag und zur Aufbereitung staubender Materialien gekapselte Maschinen und Förderbänder oder pneumatische Fördersysteme eingesetzt.

In der Sekundär-Blei-/Zinnengewinnung wird eine große Bandbreite an blei- und zinnhaltigen Krätzen, Aschen, Rückständen, Elektronikschrotten und Schlacken verarbeitet, die in ihrem

Metallgehalt ebenso wie in ihrem Gehalt an anderen Metallen und Verunreinigungen sehr unterschiedlich sind. Durch Mischen vieler Einzelfraktionen kann ein homogenes Aufgabegut zusammengestellt werden. Zur Herstellung der Einsatzmischung kommen konventionelle Fördermittel (Flurförderzeuge, Radlader) und automatische Brückenkräne zum Einsatz. Ferner werden auch Dosierbunker mit Wiegevorrichtungen eingesetzt. In einzelnen Fällen wird die über die Dosierbunker hergestellte Einsatzmischung vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen über einen Intensivmischer oder eine Mischtrommel geführt. Mischvorgänge können in einer geschlossenen Halle durchgeführt werden. Zusätzlich kann die Halle mit Staubniederschlagssystemen (z.B. Benebelungs- oder konventionelle Wassersprühsysteme) und/oder Ablufterfassungs- und Enstaubungseinrichtungen im Mischbereich oder einer kompletten Hallenabsaugung mit Abluftreinigung ausgestattet werden. In bestehenden Anlagen mit begrenztem Platzangebot können die Einsatzstoffe auch im Freien gemischt und aufbereitet (z.B. geschreddert) werden, wenn entsprechende Vorkehrungen zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen getroffen werden, d.h. Feuchthalten des Materials mittels Staubniederschlagssystemen, z.B. Wassersprühsysteme. Feinkörnige Materialien können pelletiert werden. Die Pelletieranlagen sind eingehaust und werden in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt. Förderanlagen sind gekapselt. Staubemissionen werden über Absaugsysteme erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter abgereinigt.

Zur Zerkleinerung von Sekundärrohstoffen für die anschließende Weiterverarbeitung werden Brecher- Mahl- und Siebanlagen eingesetzt. Diese Anlagen sind potenzielle Staubemissionsquellen und werden daher in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt und mit Stauberfassungs- und Minderungseinrichtungen ausgestattet. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Ferner können Wassersprüh- oder Benebelungssysteme zur Staubbindung eingesetzt werden.

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Aufbereitung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1 und 2.12.4.2) beschrieben. Die Ausführungen im vorliegenden Abschnitt konzentrieren sich auf die Anwendung und Leistung der aufgeführten Techniken.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen durch Verwertung der Filterstäube

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei KGHM Polska Miedź S.A. in Polen wird der in der Kupferhütte bei der Reinigung des Elektroofen- und Konverterabgases anfallende Filterstaub gesammelt und in Spezialcontainern zu den Vorratsbehältern in der Bleihütte transportiert. Die Entleerung der Container erfolgt pneumatisch. Der bei der Reinigung des Schachtofenabgases im Venturi-Wäscher anfallende Schlamm wird über Rohrleitungen in den Vorlagebehälter der Filterpresse überführt. Diskontinuierlich anfallende Reststoffe, wie z.B. Stäube und Filterkuchen aus der Filterpresse, werden in vorgegebenen Mengen mechanisch in den "Heiß-Mischer" zur Chargenvorbereitung aufgegeben. Die so hergestellte Charge wird in oberhalb der Öfen angeordnete Container überführt. Zur Vermeidung von Staubemissionen sind alle Förderaggregate der Bleihütte gasdicht ausgeführt. Die Chargencontainer oberhalb der Schaukelöfen haben ein ausreichendes Fassungsvermögen für einen Schmelzyklus. Eisenschrott wird in einem separaten Vorratsbehälter bevorratet und über eine spezielle Beschickungsvorrichtung in die Öfen chargiert.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg, Deutschland wurde 2011 ein neuer überdachter Lagerbereich für bleihaltige Sekundärrohstoffe mit integrierten Brecher- und Siebanlagen sowie gekapselten Bandförderern errichtet. Feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzmaterialien werden pelletiert. Die Pelletieranlage ist eingehaust und in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt. Die Förderanlagen sind gekapselt. Die Abluft wird über ein Gewebefilter geleitet.

Bei Metallo-Chimique in Belgien werden staubende Materialien in einer geschlossenen, mit einer Dachabsaugung versehenen Halle gelagert. Die Hallenabluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt (120 000 Nm³/h). Es werden Staubemissionswerte von < 0,5 mg/Nm³ erreicht. Dieser Wert basiert auf zwei Messungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 4 Stunden (Stichproben) im Jahr 2011. Seit Anfang 2009 werden alle staubenden Materialien in der Lagerhalle gelagert und umgeschlagen.

Bei Umicore Hoboken werden die gelagerten Materialien durch häufige Befeuchtung der Lagerhalden mittels Benebelungsanlagen feucht gehalten. Zur Herstellung der Einsatzmischung werden Schaufellader eingesetzt. Stark staubende Materialien werden in geschlossenen Hallen gelagert und vor Zugabe zur Einsatzmischung mit feuchten Einsatzstoffen gemischt.

Im Badschmelzofen der Weser-Metall in Nordenham, Deutschland, werden hauptsächlich Stäube eingeschmolzen. Die Anlieferung der Stäube erfolgt per Schiff (an die werkseigene Anlegestelle), Eisenbahnwagons und Lkws.

Aus dem Lager wird das Einsatzmaterial mittels Schaufellader in den Aufgabebunker des Schlauchförderbands aufgegeben, ein Spezialförderband, bei dem die Längsseiten des Fördergurts über ein Stützgerüst zu einem geschlossenen Zylinder zusammengeführt sind. Zum Schutz gegen Windeinwirkungen ist die Förderstrecke Lager - Dosierbunkeranlage - Schmelzofen zusätzlich gekapselt.

Zum Materialabzug und zur Herstellung der Einsatzmischung sind die Dosierbunker mit Bandwaagen ausgestattet. Die Förderung des Einsatzguts zum Schmelzofen erfolgt ebenfalls über ein gekapseltes Schlauchförderband. Die Dosierbunker werden über ein Gewebefilter (30 000 Nm³/h) entstaubt. Es werden Staubemissionswerte < 1 mg/Nm³ berichtet.

Weitere Staubemissionswerte für die Materialvorbereitung sind in Tabelle 5.20 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 5.20: Staubemissionen aus der Materialvorbereitung

Anlage	Quelle	Technik	Luftschadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Messintervall
				Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
6	Lagerhalle	Gewebe-filter	Staub	<0,1	<0,1	<0,1	alle 3 Jahre
			Pb	<0,1	<0,1	<0,1	
16	Lagerhalle	Gewebe-filter	Staub	0,004	0,015	0,055	12 x pro Jahr
			Pb	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01	
			Cd	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01	
			Sb	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01	
Sekundärhütte A	Doppelwalzenbrecher + Hammermühle	Venturiwäscher	Staub	0,3	k.A.	0,8	diskontinuierliche Messung (2h-Mittelwerte)
			Pb	0,03	k.A.	0,14	
			Cd	<0,005	k.A.	<0,005	
			Sb	<0,005	k.A.	<0,005	
Sekundärhütte B	Nassklassierer zur Abtrennung der Kunststofffraktion	Nasswäscher	Staub	0,5	k.A.	0,8	diskontinuierliche Messung (Halbstundenmittelwert)
Anmerkung: Nachweisgrenze Staub: 0,3 mg/m ³ Nachweisgrenze Metalle: 0,005 mg/m ³ k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [385, Germany 2012]							

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gekapselte Förderanlagen oder pneumatische Fördersysteme
Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Gekapselte Einrichtungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Durchführung von Mischvorgängen in einer geschlossenen Halle

- Der Einsatz von Wassersprühsystemen zur Staubniederschlagung führt aufgrund der Materialanfeuchtung zu einem erheblich höheren Energieaufwand für den Schmelzprozess.
- Insbesondere Dachabsaugungen sind mit großen behandlungsbedürftigen Abluftvolumenströmen und einem hohen Energieaufwand verbunden.

Staubniederschlagssysteme

Höherer Energieaufwand für den Schmelzprozess aufgrund der Feuchte des Einsatzmaterials;
Abwasseranfall

Pelletieren der Rohstoffe

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Gewebefilter

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar, wobei jedoch in bestehenden Hütten die Errichtung einer separaten Halle zur Lagerung und zum Mischen staubender Materialien aufgrund der Platzverhältnisse und Anforderungen an die Ausführung der Halle eingeschränkt sein kann.

Eine Pelletierung der Einsatzstoffe ist nur möglich, wenn der Ofen und der Prozess für pelletiertes Material ausgelegt sind.

Hallenabsaugungen können vorgesehen werden, wobei jedoch verschiedene Aspekte, wie z.B. die Partikelgröße, die Größe und Nutzung der Lagerhalle und die jeweilige Emissionssituation zu berücksichtigen sind.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für den Bau eines überdachten Lagerbereichs für staubende Materialien bei Metallo-Chimique, Belgien, beliefen sich auf ca. EUR. 6,5 Millionen (2007–2008). Die Lagerhalle mit einer Fläche von 8000 m², einem Volumen von 180 000 m³ und einer maximalen Lagerkapazität von 20 000 t ist für einen maximalen Durchsatz von 50 000 t/a ausgelegt. Das pneumatische Fördersystem für trockenes, staubendes Material ist mit einer doppelwandigen Förderleitung ausgestattet und wird seit 2010 zusätzlich durch ein Leckageerkennungssystem überwacht. Die Investitionskosten werden im Wesentlichen von der Durchsatzleistung (ca. 36 000 t/a) und der Länge des Transportwegs (120 m) bestimmt. In den Investitionskosten von rund EUR 400 000 inbegriffen sind das pneumatische Fördersystem zwischen Silo und Schmelzanlage sowie die doppelwandigen Förderleitungen zwischen dem Trockner und Silo und dem Silo und Schmelzofen.

Die Kosten für den Bau eines überdachten Lagerbereichs (mit einer Fläche von 5000 m²) mit integrierten Brecher-, Sieb- und Bandanlagen und Anbindung an ein Gewebefilter (70 000 Nm³/h) am Standort Aurubis Hamburg beliefen sich auf EUR 7,5 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Metallo-Chimique (BE), Weser-Metall (DE), BSB Recycling (DE), Aurubis (DE), Umicore (BE) und KGHM (PL)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.2.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der Trocknung von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen

Wenn der Schmelzprozess trockenes Einsatzgut oder eine Reduzierung der Materialfeuchte verlangt (der Feuchtigkeitsgehalt ist ein limitierender Faktor beim Schmelzprozess), können Heißgas-Trommeltrockner, Dampftrockner, Heißluft-Bandrockner oder Vakuumtrockner zur Trocknung des Einsatzguts eingesetzt werden. Durch die Vortrocknung der Einsatzmaterialien reduziert sich zudem die einzubringende Schmelzwärme, da die Wasserverdampfung bei niedrigen Temperaturen gegenüber der Verdampfung im Hochtemperaturprozess energieeffizienter ist. Dampftrockner werden, soweit es die Wärmebilanz erlaubt, mit Abwärme aus anderen Prozessstufen betrieben.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Förderanlagen oder pneumatische Fördersysteme (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- gekapselte Einrichtungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nachverbrennungskammer (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der primären und sekundären Blei-/Zinnerzeugung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt und 2.12.4) beschrieben. Die Ausführungen im vorliegenden Abschnitt konzentrieren sich auf die Anwendung und Leistung der aufgeführten Techniken.

Gekapselte Einrichtungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)

Da das zu trocknende Material normalerweise stark staubend ist, sind zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen alle Teilanlagen einschließlich Aufgabeaggregate und Abgasersfassungsstelle eingehaust. Der Materialtransport erfolgt mittels gekapselter Förderanlagen oder pneumatischer Fördersysteme. Das erfasste Abgas wird einer Abgasreinigungsanlage zugeführt, die für die Abscheidung der jeweiligen Luftschadstoffe ausgelegt ist. Um eine Freisetzung von Gasen in die Umgebungsluft zu vermeiden, wird das Abgassystem unter Unterdruck betrieben. Wenn von dem getrockneten Einsatzgut diffuse Emissionen ausgehen können, erfolgt dessen Transport ebenfalls in gekapselten und abgesaugten Förderaggregaten.

Gewebefilter

Gemäß vorliegenden Informationen setzen alle Bleihütten in der EU-28 Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen ein (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Nachverbrennungskammer

Soweit CO- und VOC-Emissionen aus dem Trocknungsprozess auftreten, wird das Abgas zwecks Oxidation dieser Komponenten über eine Nachverbrennungskammer geführt (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1). Zur Reduzierung des Energieaufwands für die Nachverbrennung kann eine regenerative Nachverbrennungsanlage (RNV) vorgesehen werden. In diesem Fall wird der Staubabscheider vor der RNV angeordnet, um eine Verstopfung der keramischen Wärmespeichermassen zu verhindern.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gekapselte Förderanlage oder pneumatische Fördersysteme und gekapselte Prozesseinrichtungen

Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen

Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen durch Rückführung des abgeschiedenen Staubs in den Prozess

Nachverbrennungskammer

Minderung von VOC- und CO-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Aufgrund des hohen Staubpotenzials des getrockneten Materials muss der freigesetzte Staub erfasst und in einem Entstauber abgeschieden werden. Mit Gewebefiltern lassen sich in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe höhere Staubabscheidegrade als mit Elektrofiltern erzielen. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse werden staubende Materialien in einer geschlossenen Lagerhalle entladen, gelagert und gemischt (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.1). Die vorgemischten Chargen werden dann über einen automatischen Hallenkran und eine Vibrationsförderrinne in den gasbeheizten Trommeltrockner aufgegeben. Die Vibrationsförderrinne ist gekapselt und wird abgesaugt. Die erfasste Abluft wird vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Das Abgas aus dem Trommeltrockner wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und zur Abscheidung organischer Bestandteile über einen im Kamin integrierten Brenner nachverbrannt. Nach der Trocknung wird das Trockengut durch Siebung in eine Grobfraction und eine Feinfraction (< 2 mm) aufgetrennt. Die Grobfraction wird über ein gekapseltes Förderband in die Lagerhalle zurückgeführt, die Feinfraction über eine doppelwandige Förderleitung in ein Vorratssilo gefördert. Die Staubemissionen dieser Anlage basierend auf Stichprobenmessungen in 2011 sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 5.21: Emissionen der Materialtrocknungsanlage bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse

Trockner-typ	Durchsatzleistung	Heizmedium	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen	Messintervall
Trommel-trockner	15 t/h (2 t Wasser/h – Trocknung von einem Ausgangswasser- gehalt von 12 Gew.%, auf < 1 Gew.%)	Erdgas	Primärabgas: Gewebefilter + Nachverbren- nungskammer Sekundärabgas: Gewebefilter	Staub: 1–3 mg/Nm ³	2 x pro Jahr (Probenahme- dauer 4 h)
<i>Quelle: [397, ILA 2012]</i>					

In anderen Hütten werden die Einsatzmaterialien in einer geschlossenen Lagerhalle mit Hallenabsaugung gelagert und über einen Hallenkran in den Trockner aufgegeben. Die Förderung des getrockneten Materials erfolgt über gekapselte und abgesaugte Förderbänder. Das Trocknerabgas wird zusammen mit den Abgasströmen aus der Absaugung in einem gemeinsamen Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzmaterialien zwecks Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen pelletiert und anschließend mit Heißluft in einem Band- oder Vakuumtrockner auf einen Restwassergehalt von 2–3 Gew. % getrocknet. Das Trocknerabgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Staubemissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Im

Zeitraum 2009–2011 lagen die Staubemissionswerte zwischen $0,5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ und 10 mg/Nm^3 (Halbstundenmittelwerte). Aufgrund der breiten Palette an verarbeiteten Sekundärmaterialien (z.B. Stäube, Krätzen, Schlacken, Schlämme) sind die gemessenen MIN- und MAX-Werte in hohem Maße von der Korngröße, der Beschaffenheit, Zusammensetzung, Geometrie und dem Feuchtigkeitsgehalt der Einsatzstoffe, dem abrasiven Verschleiß der Staubminderungseinrichtungen und dem Alter und Verschleiß der Filterelemente abhängig.

Tabelle 5.22: Emissionen der Materialtrochnungsanlage bei Aurubis Hamburg

Trocknertyp	Durchsatzleistung	Heizmedium	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
Heißluft-Bandrockner	bis zu 10 t/h	Heißluftherzeugung durch Dampf	Gewebefilter	Kontinuierliche Staubbemessung Staubemissionswerte: < $0,5\text{--}12 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (HMW) < $1,1\text{--}4,6 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (HMW)
Vakuum-trockner	2 t/h	Erdgas	Gewebefilter	
Legende: HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert				

Tabelle 5.23 zeigt Emissionsdaten, die von der ILA übermittelt wurden.

Tabelle 5.23: Emissionswerte von Materialtrochnungsanlagen in der primären und sekundären Blei-/Zinnerzeugung

Anlage	Technik	Luftschadstoff	Einheit	Emissionswerte bei bestimmungsgemäßem Betrieb			Messintervall	Anmerkung (*)
				Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
12	Gewebe- filter	Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,179	0,234	0,269	Stich- proben- messung 2 x pro Jahr	s
		Pb	mg/Nm ³	0,037	0,046	0,052		
		Cu	mg/Nm ³	0,237	0,289	0,373		
		Cr	mg/Nm ³	0,049	0,086	0,195		
		Mn	mg/Nm ³	0,006	0,007	0,008		
		Sn	mg/Nm ³	0,018	0,023	0,026		
		Ni	mg/Nm ³	0,003	0,005	0,006		
		As	mg/Nm ³	< NWG	< NWG	< NWG		
		Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,01	0,013	0,014		
		Hg	mg/Nm ³	0,002	0,023	0,036		
	CO	mg/Nm ³	181	188	193			
		NO _x	mg/Nm ³	29	34	37		
		TVOC	mg/Nm ³	16	23,9	31,9		
PCDD/F I-TEQ		ng/Nm ³	0,18	0,18	0,18			
13	Gewebe- filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	1,8	2,3	2,7	2 x pro Jahr (4h-Mittel- werte)	s
		Sb	mg/Nm ³	0,0024	0,0027	0,0030		
		As	mg/Nm ³	0,0016	0,0017	0,0018		
		Cu	mg/Nm ³	0,5815	0,6270	0,6725		
		Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,0118	0,0195	0,0272		
		Pb	mg/Nm ³	0,0911	0,1008	0,1105		
		Ni	mg/Nm ³	0,0095	0,0103	0,011		
		Sn	mg/Nm ³	0,047	0,054	0,060		
16	Gewebe- filter	Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,11	0,52	1,77	12 x pro Jahr	p und s
		Pb	mg/Nm ³	0,01	0,26	1.19		
		Cd	mg/Nm ³	<0,01	<0,01	<0,01		
		Sb	mg/Nm ³	< 0,01	<0,01	<0,01		

(*) p steht für Primärbleihütte
s steht für sekundäre Blei-/Zinnhütte
NWG = Nachweisgrenze
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gekapselte Förderanlage oder pneumatische Fördersysteme

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gekapselte Einrichtungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.

Nachverbrennungskammer

- Höhere NO_x-Emissionen
- Wenn die Enthalpie der Abgase nicht ausreicht, um die Verbrennung ohne zusätzlichen Energieeinsatz aufrechtzuerhalten, wird Brennstoff benötigt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit*Gekapselte Förderanlage oder pneumatische Fördersysteme*

Allgemein anwendbar

Gekapselte Prozesseinrichtungen

Allgemein anwendbar

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Nachverbrennungskammer

Diese Technik wird zur Verminderung von CO- und VOC-Emissionen eingesetzt, wenn bei den vorherrschenden Betriebstemperaturen ein Risiko besteht, dass diese Komponenten aus dem Trocknungsgut freigesetzt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit*Gewebefilter*

Ein Kostenbeispiel für die Installation eines Gewebefilters mit nachgeschaltetem Nachbrenner liegt für den Metallo-Chimique-Standort Beerse vor. Dort wurde 2007–2008 das bestehende Gewebefilter in der Trocknungsanlage durch ein neues Filter ersetzt (Kapazität: 19 500 Nm³/h). Die Investitionskosten für das Filter einschließlich Kamin mit integriertem Nachbrenner beliefen sich auf EUR 665 000 im Vergleich zu EUR 400 000 für das 1994–1995 installierte Sekundärabgasfilter (20 500 Nm³/h).

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Metallo-Chimique (BE), Elmet (ES), Aurubis (DE) und Weser-Metall (DE)

Literatur[397, ILA 2012]**5.3.2.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Zerlegung, Sinterung, Brikettierung und Pelletierung**

Aufbereitungsschritte wie Stofftrennung, Zerlegung, Sintern, Brikettieren und Pelletieren werden zur gezielten Herstellung des Aufgabeguts für den Schmelzprozess und Optimierung der Metallausbeute eingesetzt. Diese Aufbereitungsschritte dienen entweder dazu, eine kleinere Korngröße mit einer größeren spezifischen Oberfläche zu erzeugen oder zum Agglomerieren des Materials in Form von Sinter, Briketts oder Pellets. Bei einigen Schmelzverfahren werden die Konzentrate vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen gesintert. Zu diesem Zweck eignen sich sowohl Druck- als auch Saugzug-Sinteranlagen. Neuere Technologien, wie z.B. das Stahlbandsinterverfahren, sind ebenfalls geeignet.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Einrichtungen mit Abgasfassungssystem (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der primären und sekundären Blei-/Zinnerzeugung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4) beschrieben.

Feinkörniges Material wird brikettiert oder pelletiert. Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen ist die Pelletieranlage gekapselt und in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt. Die Förderanlagen sind gekapselt. Die Aggregate werden abgesaugt und die Abluft in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Brech- und Mahlanlagen werden mit leistungsfähigen Stauberfassungssystemen und einem Gewebefilter zur Abgasentstaubung ausgestattet.

Besonders wichtig ist die Erfassung von Dämpfen und Gasen bei Sinteranlagen, wobei sich prozessbedingt die Dämpferfassung beim Druck-Sinterverfahren einfacher gestaltet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gekapselte Prozesseinrichtungen mit Abgaserfassungssystem

Vermeidung staubförmiger Emissionen

Gewebefilter

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Am Aurubis-Standort Hamburg werden feinkörnige und schlammförmige Einsatzmaterialien pelletiert. Feinstäube werden bis zur Pelletierung in geschlossenen Silos gelagert. Die Pelletieranlage ist eingehaust und in einem überdachten Bereich aufgestellt. Die Förderanlagen sind gekapselt. Das erfasste Abgas wird über ein Gewebefilter geleitet.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gekapselte Einrichtungen mit Abgaserfassungssystem und Gewebefilter

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gekapselte Einrichtungen mit Abgaserfassungssystem

Allgemein anwendbar

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis (DE)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.2.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung von Batterien

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Einrichtungen und Abgaserfassungssystem (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)
- säurebeständige Oberflächen und System zur Erfassung der abgetrennten Säure
- Säurerückgewinnung oder Wiederverwendung
- Behandlung der abgeschiedenen Säurenebel in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage

Technische Beschreibung

Gekapselte Einrichtungen und Abgaserfassungssystem (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)

Staub- und Säurenebelemissionen aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung (Zerkleinerung, Siebung und Nassklassierung) werden erfasst und über eine Minderungseinrichtung, z.B. ein Gewebefilter oder einen Nasswäscher, geleitet.

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Bei säurenebelhaltigen Abgasen muss dem Gewebefilter ein Nebelabscheider vorgeschaltet werden.

Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)

Nasswäscher kommen zur Abscheidung von Staub und Säurenebeln zur Anwendung. Das Wäscherabwasser wird in die Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) geleitet und dort zusammen mit der erfassten verdünnten Batteriesäure aus der Batterieaufbereitung gereinigt. Im Abwasser enthaltene Metalle werden in der AWA durch Neutralisation und Zugabe von Na_2CO_3 und Flockungsmitteln ausgefällt. Der anfallende Fällschlamm wird dem Schmelzofen zugeführt.

Säurebeständige Oberflächen und System zur Erfassung der abgetrennten Säure

Von der Batteriesäure geht eine Boden- und Grundwasserverschmutzungsgefahr aus. Die Oberflächen im Batterieaufbereitungsbereich müssen daher mit einer säurebeständigen Beschichtung ausgeführt und einem Erfassungssystem ausgestattet sein, das die abgetrennte Säure in die Altsäurebehälter oder die AWA ableitet. Alle eingesetzten Ausrüstungen sollten säurebeständig ausgeführt sein.

Säurerückgewinnung oder Wiederverwendung

Siehe Abschnitt 5.3.7.2.

Behandlung der abgeschiedenen Säurenebel in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gekapselte Einrichtungen und Abgaserfassungssystem

Vermeidung von gasförmigen Emissionen und Säureaustritt

Gewebefilter

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Nasswäscher

Verringerung von Staub- und Säurenebelemissionen

Säurebeständige Oberflächen und System zur Erfassung der abgetrennten Säure

Vermeidung von Boden- und Grundwasserverschmutzung

Säurerückgewinnung oder Wiederverwendung

- Wiederverwendung von Sekundärstoffen
- Verringerung von Schadstoffeinleitungen in Gewässer

Behandlung der abgeschiedenen Säurenebel in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage

Reduzierung von Säurenebelemissionen und Schadstoffeinleitungen in Gewässer

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In einer deutschen Hütte werden die Altbatterien in einem Doppelwalzenbrecher vorzerkleinert. Vor Eintritt in die Nachzerkleinerungsstufe wird der vorzerkleinerte Schrott über einen Magnetabscheider geführt. Der Doppelwalzenbrecher und die Hammermühle werden abgesaugt und das Abgas in einem Venturiwäscher entstaubt. Die abgetrennte Schwefelsäure wird zu Gips weiterverarbeitet. Die Staubemissionen werden mit $0,32 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ – $0,8 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Stichprobenmessung), die Bleiemissionen mit $0,031 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ – $0,14 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Stichprobenmessung) angegeben [385, Germany 2012].

In Anlage 7 erfolgt die Stoffstromauftrennung in Bleipaste, metallisches Blei, Schwefelsäure, Polypropylen und sonstige Kunststoffe in einem mehrstufigen Aufbereitungsprozess. Das Abgas der Nassklassierer wird einem Nasswäscher zur Reinigung zugeführt. Es werden Staubemissionswerte von $0,5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ – $0,9 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ berichtet [385, Germany 2012].

In **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.** and Tabelle 5.25 sind jeweils die Emissionen in die Luft und das Wasser von vier Anlagen wiedergegeben, die einige der beschriebenen Techniken einsetzen..

Tabelle 5.24: Emissionen in die Luft aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung

Anlage	Technik	Schadstoff	Unsi- cher- heit (%)	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Messintervall
				Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.	
5	Nass- wäscher	Staub	40	0,18	0,59	0,9	4 x in 2011 (Mittelwerte über 4 Stunden)
		Blei und seine Verbindungen	40	0,097	0,591	0,903	
		Cadmium und seine Verbindungen	40	0,001	0,001	0,002	
		Cu+Pb+Zn+N und ihre Verbindungen	40	0,099	0,205	0,343	
		Sb, Sn, Te und ihre Verbindungen	40	0,003	0,005	0,007	
		Cd, As, Hg, Tl, Se und ihre Verbindungen	40	0,004	0,018	0,054	
6	Gewebe- filter	Staub ⁽¹⁾	k.A.	< 0,5	< 0,5	< 0,5	alle drei Jahre
		Pb ⁽¹⁾	k.A.	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	
		As+Cd ⁽¹⁾	k.A.	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	
7	Nass- wäscher	Staub	k.A.	<0,5	0,5	0,9	kontinuierliche Messung (Tagesmittelwerte)
		Pb	k.A.	<0,5	<0,5	<0,5	4 x pro Jahr
19	Emissionen aus dem Batterie- aufbrechen	Staub	k.A.	0,2	0,5	1	1 x pro Jahr

⁽¹⁾ Messungen in 2011
k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [393, Austria 2012]

Tabelle 5.25: Emissionen in das Wasser aus der Batterieaufbereitung in Anlage 5

Quelle	Abwasser- behandlung	Schad- stoff	Unsi- cher- heit (%)	Werte (kg/d)			Mess- intervall
				Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.	
Prozess- abwasser, Oberflächen- wasser aus dem Bereich der Sekun- därbleige- winnungs- anlage	pH-Wert- Einstellung	Pb	16	0,06	0,57	1,45	diskonti- nuierliche Messung, 24h- Mischprobe
	-	Cd	12	0,003	0,115	0,552	
	Eisen(III)- chloriddosierung	Sb	20	0,002	0,212	1,096	
	-	As	25	0,001	0,018	0,092	
	Flockung und Sedimentation	Cu	10	0,001	0,017	0,046	
	-	Hg	25	0,001	0,002	0,009	
	Flockung mit anion./kation. Flockungs- hilfsmitteln	Ni	10	0,001	0,130	0,428	
	- Mechanische Filtration	NH ₄ ⁺	25	0,21	2,478	6,17	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gekapselte Einrichtungen und Abgaserfassungssystem

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder einer anderen Verwertung zugeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.

Nasswäscher

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- In den Wäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Säure- und Metalleinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.

Säurebeständige Oberflächen und System zur Erfassung der abgetrennten Säure

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Säurerückgewinnung oder Wiederverwendung

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Behandlung der abgeschiedenen Säurenebel in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Chemikalien

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gekapselte Einrichtungen und Abgaserfassungssystem

Allgemein anwendbar

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Nasswäscher

Allgemein anwendbar. In Nasswäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Säure- und Metalleinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.

Säurebeständige Oberflächen und System zur Erfassung der abgetrennten Säure

Allgemein anwendbar

Säurerückgewinnung oder Wiederverwendung

Siehe Abschnitt 5.3.7.2.

Behandlung der abgeschiedenen Säurenebel in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage

Nur anwendbar in Hütten, die über eine entsprechende Abwasserreinigungsanlage verfügen

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Höhere Investitionskosten infolge der benötigten zusätzlichen Infrastruktur und Ausrüstungen

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Harz-Metall (DE), BSB Recycling (DE), Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE) und BMG Metall und Recycling GmbH (AT)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.2.5 Techniken zur Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen aus dem Schmelzprozess

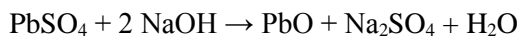
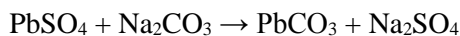
Beschreibung

Zur Entfernung von Sulfaten werden sekundäre Einsatzstoffe vor dem Einschmelzen einer alkalischen Laugung unterzogen.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Einschmelzen schwefelhaltiger sekundärer Einsatzstoffe können SO₂-Emissionen entstehen. Ein typisches Beispiel hierfür ist die Batteriepaste von Blei-Säure-Batterien, die unterschiedliche Bleiverbindungen, darunter Blei-Schwefel-Verbindungen wie PbSO₄, enthalten kann. Zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen beim Einschmelzen kann sulfatisch gebundener Schwefel durch alkalische Laugung des Einsatzmaterials vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen entfernt werden.

Die Entschwefelung von Batteriepaste durch Reaktion mit einer alkalischen Lösung (Natriumcarbonat oder Natriumhydroxid) kann durch die folgenden Bruttoreaktionsgleichungen beschrieben werden:



Diese Reaktionen laufen sehr schnell und mit hohem Stoffumsatz ab. Das entschwefelte Material wird anschließend in das Schmelzaggregat aufgegeben. Ein Blockschema des Verfahrens ist in Abbildung 5.4 dargestellt.

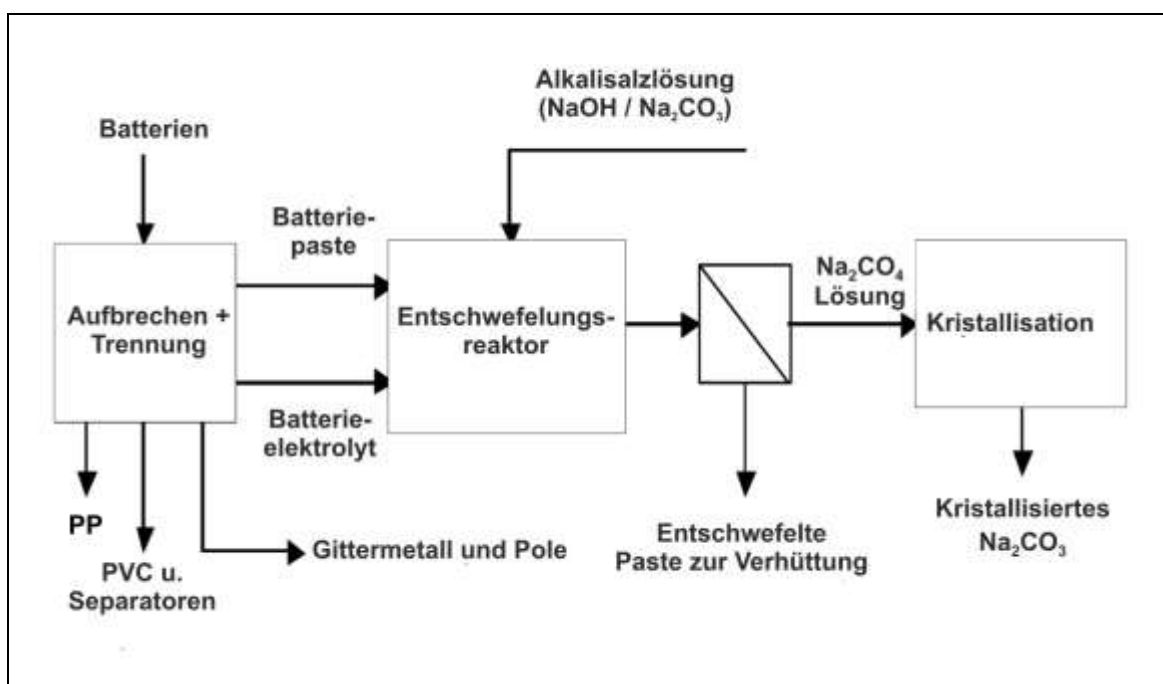


Abbildung 5.4: Blockschema einer Anlage zur Vorentschwefelung von Batteriepaste durch alkalische Laugung

Statt Aufgabe in den Entschwefelungsreaktor zur Erzeugung von Natriumsulfat kann der Batterieelektrolyt (Säure) auch abgetrennt und verwertet werden.

Die bei der Vorentschwefelung anfallende Natriumsulfatlösung kann, je nach standortspezifischen Randbedingungen, Wirtschaftlichkeit und Produktspezifikation, auf zwei Wegen weiterverarbeitet werden:

- Rückgewinnung von Natriumsulfat durch Kristallisation
- Entsorgung der Natriumsulfatlösung nach Entfernung sonstiger Verunreinigungen (z.B. Metalle)

Beim Kristallisationsverfahren zur Rückgewinnung von Natriumsulfat wird das in den Prozess eingetragene Wasser im Kreislauf geführt, so dass hier kein Abwasser anfällt. Dieser Verfahrensweg setzt eine vorhandene Nachfrage nach dem zurückgewonnenen Natriumsulfat voraus. Dies ist jedoch nicht immer der Fall und abhängig von der lokalen Nachfrage und den Qualitätsvorgaben der Abnehmer. Ist eine Vermarktung nicht möglich, muss die Natriumsulfatlösung entsorgt werden.

Als Vorkehrung gegen Flüssigkeitsaustritt und zum Schutz gegen korrosive Flüssigkeiten oder Salze müssen die Oberflächen im Bereich der alkalischen Laugungsstufe gewöhnlich flüssigkeitsundurchlässig und säure- bzw. sulfatbeständig ausgeführt sein. Ausgetretene Lösung und Reinigungswasser werden recycelt oder der Abwasserreinigungsanlage zugeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen während des Schmelzprozesses
- Reduzierung des Schmelzadditiveinsatzes, des Schlackenarfs und der Bleiverluste über die Schlacke
- Reduzierung des Energieaufwands für das Einschmelzen aufgrund der geringeren Materialmengen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei der alkalischen Laugung handelt es sich um ein hydrometallurgisches Verfahren, das bei einer Temperatur von 50 °C abläuft und aufgrund der exothermen Reaktion ohne Wärmezufuhr von außen auskommt. Das Laugungsprodukt ist ein feuchter entschwefelter Filterkuchen. Staubemissionen fallen bei diesem Prozessschritt nicht an. Wenn die Ofentechnologie trockenes Einsatzmaterial verlangt, muss zwischen der Laugungs- und Einschmelzstufe eine Trocknungsstufe vorgesehen werden. Was den Reaktionsmittelverbrauch angeht, so benötigt man für eine Batteriepaste üblicher Zusammensetzung 220 kg Na₂CO₃ pro Tonne zurückgewonnenes Blei (einschl. Säureneutralisation), um ca. 280 kg Na₂SO₄ /t erzeugtes Blei zu erzeugen. Unter diesen Bedingungen wird ein hoher Entschwefelungsgrad erreicht.

In Tabelle 5.26 sind die SO₂-Emissionen einer Anlage aufgeführt, in der diese Technik eingesetzt wird.

Tabelle 5.26: Emissionen von Trommelöfen, in denen vorentschwefelte Einsatzstoffe verarbeitet werden

Quelle	Technik	Luftschadstoff	Einheit	Werte			Messwert- erfassung
				Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
Trommelofen	Alkalische Laugung	SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	< 10	109	375	kontinuierlich/ Charge
Trommelofen	Alkalische Laugung	SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	< 10	134	NR	kontinuierlich/ Charge
Trommelofen	Alkalische Laugung	SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	150	350	480	kontinuierlich/ Tagesmittelwert
Kippbarer Trommelofen	Alkalische Laugung	SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	< 20	66	148	kontinuierlich/ extraktiv

Anmerkung: NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Chemikalien (Na_2CO_3 , NaOH)
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn das Sulfat nicht zu einem verkaufsfähigen Produkt weiterverarbeitet werden kann
- Höherer Energieaufwand aufgrund der zusätzlichen Prozessstufe

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik ist nur bei Einsatzstoffen anwendbar, in denen der Schwefel sulfatisch gebunden vorliegt und ist mit zusätzlichem apparativen Aufwand verbunden.

Die Kristallisation ist in zweifacher Hinsicht vorteilhaft, da hierdurch nicht nur Na_2SO_4 als verkaufsfähiges Produkt erzeugt, sondern auch das Wasser in den Prozess zurückgeführt wird, was sich in einer deutlich verbesserten Wasserbilanz niederschlägt. Die Anwendung dieser Technik setzt jedoch eine vorhandene Nachfrage nach dem zurückgewonnenen Natriumsulfat voraus. Dies ist jedoch nicht immer gegeben und ist abhängig von der lokalen Nachfrage und den Qualitätsvorgaben der Abnehmer. Ist eine Vermarktung nicht möglich, muss die Natriumsulfatlösung entsorgt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Potenziellen Kosteneinsparungen beim Schmelzprozess stehen die höheren Kosten für die zusätzliche Prozessstufe zur Vorentschwefelung der Einsatzstoffe gegenüber.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Geringere Kosten für die Abgasbehandlungsanlage
- Geringerer Verbrauch an Schmelzadditiven, geringerer Schlackenfall und geringere Bleiverluste über die Schlacke
- Brennstoffeinsparungen beim Schmelzprozess aufgrund der geringeren Menge an einzuschmelzendem Material
- Höhere Produktionsleistung des Ofens (+ 20–30 % im Fall von Bleibatteriepaste)

Beispielanlagen

BMG Metall und Recycling (AT) und Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE)

Literatur

[237, UBA (A) 2004], [266, Italy 2008], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.3 Bleierzeugung aus Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen (Primärhütten)

5.3.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Primärschmelzöfen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- geschlossene/gekapselte Aggregate (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Heißgas-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Quecksilberabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5);
- Schwefelsäureanlage (siehe Abschnitts 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2);
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Geschlossene/gekapselte Aggregate (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)

Zur Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Luft kommen Einhausungen zum Einsatz, z.B.

- gekapselte Beschickungssysteme (Doppelglocken-Beschickungssystem, Türabdichtung, gekapselte Förder- und Dosiersysteme)
- geschlossene oder gekapselte Öfen
- Betrieb unter Unterdruck mit einem ausreichendem Absaugvolumen, um einen Druckaufbau im Ofen zu vermeiden

Vor Weiterverarbeitung in der Schwefelsäureanlage wird das Prozessabgas der Primärschmelzanlage einer gründlichen Reinigung zur Entfernung von staub- und gasförmigen Verunreinigungen unterzogen. Dies ist zum einen zum Schutz des Katalysators in der Doppelkontakanlage notwendig und zum andern auch zur Erzeugung einer Schwefelsäure hinreichender Qualität.

Die Abgasreinigung umfasst in der Regel die folgenden Schritte:

- Schritt 1: Entstaubung in einem Heißgas-EGR mit nachgeschaltetem Nass-EGR. Der im Heißgas-EGR abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt, ggf. nach vorheriger Laugung zur Abtrennung von Chloriden oder Cadmium.
- Schritt 2: Entfernung von Quecksilber unter Anwendung einer der in Abschnitt 2.12.5.5 beschriebenen Techniken. Zur Erzeugung einer qualitativ hochwertigen Schwefelsäure muss das Prozessgas bis auf sehr niedrige Quecksilbergehalte gereinigt werden. Die im Nass-EGR und Quecksilberabscheider anfallenden Reststoffe werden deponiert, sofern eine Verwertung in anderen Prozessen nicht möglich ist.
- Schritt 3: Weiterverarbeitung des gereinigten Abgases in der Schwefelsäureanlage. Schwefelsäureanlagen sind in Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2 beschrieben.
- Nasswäscher werden zur Staubabscheidung vor der Schwefelsäureanlage oder zur SO₂-Abscheidung (Endgas-Wäscher) nach der Schwefelsäureanlage eingesetzt.

SO₂-reiche Abgasströme fallen im Vergleich zu anderen Abgasströmen in relativ kleinen Mengen an.

Der abgeschiedene metallhaltige Staub bzw. die Reststoffe werden intern oder extern verwertet, gegebenenfalls nach vorheriger Aufbereitung zum Entfernen von Chloriden, Cadmium und/oder sonstigen unerwünschten Inhaltsstoffen.

Im Fall von Elektroöfen wird das Abgas vor Eintritt in die Schwefelsäureanlage nachverbrannt, gekühlt, in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und abschließend in einer Quecksilberabscheidestufe entquickt ohne zusätzliche Wäsche und Kühlung in der Schwefelsäureanlage.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Geschlossene/gekapselte Aggregate

Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen

Heißgas-EGR

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Nass-EGR

Minderung von Staub- und Quecksilberemissionen

Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Quecksilberabscheider

Minderung von Quecksilberemissionen

Schwefelsäureanlage

- Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen
- Schwefelrückgewinnung

Nasswäscher

Minderung von Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Quecksilberkonzentrationen (Hg_{ges.}) im Rohgas liegen zwischen 10 µg/m³ und 9900 µg/m³. Je nach eingesetzter Minderungstechnik werden Reingas-Hg_{ges.}-Konzentrationen von 3 µg/m³–10 µg/m³ entsprechend einer Abscheideleistung von 70–99,7 % erreicht.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden Primärbleikonzentrate in einem gekapselten Elektro-Schmelzofen (13,5 MW, 8,4 m Durchmesser) verarbeitet. Das Primärabgas des Elektro-Schmelzofens wird mit Hilfe von rückgeführtem Kaltgas in einem Luft-/Gas-Wärmetauscher gekühlt, anschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und vor Zuführung zur Schwefelsäureanlage in einer Quecksilberabscheidestufe entquickt.

Der Ausmelt-TSL-Ofen bei Weser Metall in Nordenham besteht aus einem stehenden zylindrischen Ofengefäß (mit einer Höhe von 10 m und einem Durchmesser von 4 m). Bei der TSL-Technologie (TSL steht für top submerged lance) werden die Prozessgase, d.h. Erdgas und sauerstoffangereicherte Luft, durch von oben eintauchende Lanzen in die Schmelze eingebracht. Verarbeitet werden schwefelhaltige Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffe. Es entstehen Werkblei, ein Bleioxidkonzentrat und SO₂- und staubhaltiges Abgas (6–10 % SO₂). Das Abgas wird in einem Abhitzeessel heruntergekühlt und dann in einem Heißgas-EGR vorentstaubt. Im nachgeschalteten Venturi-Wäscher wird das mit einer Temperatur von ca. 240 °C aus dem Heißgas-EGR austretende Abgas auf 80°C gequench und durchläuft anschließend eine erste Nass-EGR-Stufe, einen Füllkörperwäscher und eine zweite Nass-EGR Stufe. Im nachgeschalteten Gegenstrom-Füllkörperwäscher wird das Abgas vor Weiterleitung in die fünfstufige Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage von Quecksilber befreit. Die Tagesmittelwerte der (kontinuierlich gemessenen) SO₂-Emissionen liegen zwischen 160 mg/Nm³ und 750 mg/Nm³ entsprechend einem Mittelwert von 470 mg/Nm³.

Tabelle 5.27 zeigt die Emissionswerte von Anlage 8, in der eine Kombination der oben beschriebenen Techniken eingesetzt wird.

Tabelle 5.27: Emissionen aus dem Schmelzofen in Hütte 8

Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Einheit	Jahresmittelwert	Messwerterfassung
Doppelkontakanlage mit BAYQIK®	SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	490	kontinuierliche Messung (Halbstundenmittelwerte)
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>				

Der Ausmelt-TSL-Ofen in der neuen Bleihütte der KCM (2103) in Bulgarien (Plovdiv) wird chargenweise betrieben, wobei nacheinander die folgenden Prozessschritte ablaufen:

- Schmelzen (ca. 7 Stunden)
- Reduktion (ca. 1,5 Stunden)
- Standby/Warmhaltebetrieb (ca. 1 Stunde)

Der Schmelzofen ist für eine Verfügbarkeit von 7008 Stunden pro Jahr bzw. 738 Chargen pro Jahr ausgelegt (jeder Produktionszyklus umfasst drei Prozessschritte: Schmelzen, Reduktion, Standby/Warmhaltebetrieb).

In diesem Schmelzofen werden 74 500 t Werkblei pro Jahr aus primären (Bleikonzentraten) und sekundären Ausgangsstoffen (Batteriepaste und Kreislaufmaterial vornehmlich aus der pyrometallurgischen Bleiraffination) erzeugt.

Zur Erfassung des Ofenabgases ist der Ausmelt-TSL-Ofen gekapselt. Vor Weiterverarbeitung in der Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage wird das Ofenabgas einer umfassenden Reinigung zur Entfernung von Staub und gasförmigen Verunreinigungen unterzogen. Die Abgasreinigungsanlage umfasst:

- einen Quenchturm zur Abkühlung des Gases auf adiabatische Sättigungstemperatur und ersten Grobabscheidung von Staub
- einen Nasswäscher mit regelbarem Druckverlust, mit dem der erforderliche Staubabscheidegrad bei allen Betriebszuständen erreicht wird
- einen Kläreindicker zur Eindickung des aus dem Waschkreislauf ausgeschleusten Teilstroms vor Entwässerung in einer Filterpresse
- einen Sammelbehälter zur Aufnahme des Kläreindickerunterlaufs
- einen weiteren Kühlturm zur Kühlung des Gases auf Endtemperatur vor Eintritt in die Schwefelsäureanlage
- ein Natriumsilikatdosiersystem zur Senkung des Abgasfluoridgehalts auf zulässige Werte für die Schwefelsäureproduktion
- zwei (in Reihe geschaltete) Elektrofilter zur Feinentstaubung und Säurenebelabscheidung mit einem separaten Spülwassertank
- zwei Nassgasgebläse (eines als Reserve) zur Regelung des notwendigen Ofenzugs im Standby-Betrieb, Anfahrbetrieb oder bei Betriebsstörungen
- Während des Abstich-/Warmhaltebetriebs wird über ein Bypass-Gebläse ein Teilstrom des gereinigten Abgases hinter dem Nassgasgebläse in den Nasswäscher zurückgeführt, um einen Mindestgasvolumenstrom zur Aufrechterhaltung des Differenzdrucks im Wäscher und einen konstanten Ofenzug zu gewährleisten.

Das Endgas der Schwefelsäureanlage wird in einem Gegenstrahlwäscher gereinigt. Mit zunehmender SO₂-Absorption sinkt der pH-Wert der umlaufenden Waschflüssigkeit. Zur Aufrechterhaltung des notwendigen Konzentrationsgefälles für die SO₂-Abscheidung wird

Kalkmilch ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$) pH-Wert-geregelt in den Waschkreislauf dosiert. In der Waschlösung reagiert das absorbierte SO_2 mit Kalk unter Bildung von Calciumsulfid/-sulfat. Der Rohgas- SO_2 -Gehalt am Austritt des Abhitzekeessels (Eintritt der Abgasreinigungsanlage) schwankt zwischen 0,32 Vol.% (Reduktionsphase) und 6,48 Vol.% (Schmelzphase). In der Abstichphase (Warmhaltebetrieb) treten keine SO_2 -Emissionen auf.

Das SO_2 -reiche Abgas aus der Schmelzphase wird zu H_2SO_4 weiterverarbeitet. Die Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage in der neuen KCM-Bleihütte (Plovdiv) ist für einen SO_2 -Umsatz von mindestens 99,8 % ausgelegt. Damit wird eine SO_2 -Emissionsfracht von $< 2,6$ kg/t erzeugter Schwefelsäure (bezogen auf 100 % H_2SO_4) im Reingas nach dem Endgaswäscher und bei allen Betriebszuständen ein SO_2 -Emissionswert von max. 400 mg/Nm^3 erreicht. Der garantierte Reingas- SO_2 -Wert für diese Anlage beträgt 110 ppmv (trockenes Abgas) entsprechend 322 mg/Nm^3 (trockenes Abgas). In diesem Zusammenhang sei darauf hingewiesen, dass die Vorgabe eines SO_2 -Umsatzes von 99,8 % schwerer zu erfüllen ist als die vorgeschriebene Emissionsfracht von $2,6 \text{ kg SO}_2/\text{t}$ 100 %iger Schwefelsäure.

Aufgrund des niedrigen SO_2 -Gehalts des Abgases während der Reduktionsphase, ist der vorgegebene Umsatz von 99,8 % bzw. eine Emissionsfracht von $2,6 \text{ kg SO}_2/\text{t}$ erzeugter Schwefelsäure nicht sinnvoll, da unter diesen Bedingungen die Emissionswerte entweder kaum noch messbar oder nicht erreichbar sind ($< 10 \text{ ppmv}$ oder $29,3 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$). Die erwarteten Reingas- SO_2 -Werte nach dem Endgaswäscher werden mit $< 10 \text{ ppmv}$ entsprechend $< 29,3 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ angegeben.

Die garantierten Reingaswerte und Abscheideleistung der Schwefelsäureanlage sind in Tabelle 5.28 nochmals dargestellt.

Tabelle 5.28: SO_2 -Emissionswerte der Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage in der neuen KCM-Bleihütte in Plovdiv

Betriebsphase	Reingasvolumenstrom	Dauer	SO_2 (trockenes Abgas)	SO_2 (trockenes Abgas)	SO_2 -Umsatz	SO_2 -Emission
Einheit	Nm^3/h , trocken	h	mg/Nm^3	ppmv	%	kg/Zyklus
Schmelzen	$< 37\,950$	7	< 322	< 110	99,8	$< 85,54$
Reduktion	$\sim 21\,700$	1,5	$< 29,3$	< 10	-	$< 0,95$
Warmhaltebetrieb/ Abstich	-	1	-	-	-	0
Insgesamt	-	9,5	-	-	-	$< 86,49$
Quelle: [377, ILA 2013], [397, ILA 2012]						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gekapselte Aggregate

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Heißgas-EGR

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Nass-EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Im Nass-EGR fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Metall- und sonstige Schadstoffeinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.
- Die Reststoffe müssen deponiert werden.

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an. Zur Rückführung in den Prozess muss der Staub zwecks Entfernung von Verunreinigungen aufbereitet werden.

Quecksilberabscheider

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Verbrauch von Additiven
- Bei der Quecksilberabscheidung fällt ein festes oder flüssiges Abfallprodukt an, das deponiert werden muss.

Schwefelsäureanlage

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2. Die medienübergreifenden Auswirkungen sind abhängig von der eingesetzten Technologie zur Schwefelsäureerzeugung.

Nasswäscher

In den Wäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Metall- und weitere Schadstoffeinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden. Die Reststoffe müssen aufbereitet werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Geschlossene/gekapselte Aggregate

Allgemein anwendbar

Heißgas-EGR, Nass-EGR, Gewebefilter, Quecksilberabscheider

Allgemein anwendbar. Welche Kombination von Techniken gewählt wird, hängt von der Abgaszusammensetzung ab.

Schwefelsäureanlage

Anwendbar auf Abgas mit einem SO₂-Gehalt von > 1 Gew.%. Alternativ kommen bei Schmelzöfen, in denen ein Mix aus primären und sekundären Einsatzstoffen verarbeitet wird, oder an Standorten, an denen Primär- und Sekundärbleigewinnungsanlagen betrieben werden, Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlagen zur SO₂-Rückgewinnung zur Anwendung.

Nasswäscher

Bei Nasswaschverfahren fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter behandelt werden muss. Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich auch bei sehr großen Abgasvolumenströmen und aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen in Trockengebieten ergeben.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Laut Aurubis Hamburg belaufen sich die Investitionskosten für eine Quecksilberminderungsanlage (einschl. Kondensator, Wärmetauscher, Gewebefilter, Dosiersystem, Absorber und Gebläse) auf bis zu EUR 5 Millionen [397, ILA 2012].

Die Investitionskosten für einen neuen Abhitzeessel (nur Strahlungszug) liegen bei EUR 5,1 Millionen (neue Bleihütte im KCM-Werk Plovdiv) [397, ILA 2012].

Die Investitionskosten für den Bau einer Nassgasreinigungsanlage mit nachgeschalteter Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage wurden mit bis zu EUR 20 180 000 angegeben (Quenchturm, Radialstromwäscher, Kühlturm, Kläreindicker, Sammelbehälter für Kläreindickerunterlauf, Natriumsilikatdosierstation, Nass-EGR, Nassgasgebläse, Bypass-Gebläse, Anfahr-/Notkamin; Nassgas-Schwefelsäureanlage: Hauptgasgebläse, Gasvorwärmer, Wärmerückgewinnungssystem auf Basis Salzsäure, Reaktor, Absorptionsturm, Schwefelsäuresystem, Nass-EGR, Endgaswäscher, Kamin) (neue Bleihütte im KCM-Werk Plovdiv) [397, ILA 2012].

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Schwefelrückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

Aurubis (DE), Weser-Metall (DE), neue KCM-Bleihütte (BG) und Anlage 8

Literatur

[117, Krüger, J. 1999], [305, Ausmelt 2009], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei Beschickungs-/Abstichvorgängen und der Vorentkupferung in der Primärbleierzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Beschickungssysteme
- Hauben/Einhausungen im Bereich der Chargier- und Abstichöffnungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- gekapselte Aggregate mit Abgaserfassungssystem und Betrieb des Ofens und Abgaswegs bei Unterdruck (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Quellenabsaugungen in den Chargier- und Abstichbereichen und Entstaubung des erfassten Abgases in einem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- geschlossene Halle (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Aufrechterhaltung der Ofenabdichtung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Warmhaltebetrieb der Öfen bei niedrigst möglicher Temperatur (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen bei Beschickungs- und Abstichvorgängen sowie bei der Vorentkupferung werden die Emissionsquellen eingehaust oder über Hauben abgesaugt. Die erfassten Abgase werden in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Eine ausführliche Beschreibung von Abgaserfassungstechniken zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen ist Abschnitt 2.12.4 zu entnehmen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Der Ausmelt-Ofen in der Weser-Metall-Hütte Nordenham ist vollständig eingehaust. Die Dachreiter der Produktionshalle werden über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Die Chargieröffnung und das Beschickungsband werden über ein kleines Filtersystem mit sternförmigen Filterkassetten abgesaugt.

Die Schlacke wird kontinuierlich aus dem Ofen abgezogen und in einem Wasserstrahl granuliert. Feuchtes und trockenes Abgas werden über ein Gebläse abgesaugt und in einem Nass-EGR gereinigt (10 000–12 000 m³/h).

Am Boden des Ofens sind vier Entkupferungskessel angeordnet. Alle Kessel sind mit einem Stahldeckel mit integrierten Wellendurchführungen für das Rührwerk und den Krätze-Skimmer verschlossen. Der Deckel hat eine Absaugöffnung, die über einen Abgaskanal an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen ist, in dem auch das am Bleiabstich erfasste Abgas entstaubt wird.

Die Krätze wird über eine gekapselte Skimmer-Vorrichtung oder eine Schnecke in einen kleinen Stahlbehälter abgezogen, der über einen an eine Absaugvorrichtung angeschlossenen Schlauch in einen Container entleert wird. Sobald ein Container gefüllt ist, wird er mittels Kran aus der Halle abtransportiert. Zu diesem Zweck wird das normalerweise geschlossene Krantor der Halle geöffnet. Der Transport des Containers zum Krätzlager erfolgt mittels Gabelstapler.

Nach dem Nass-EGR und Gewebefilter werden die beiden Reingasströme zusammengeführt und kontinuierlich auf Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen überwacht.

Das für einen Volumenstrom von 111 000 Nm³/h ausgelegte Gewebefilter hat eine Filterfläche von 1400 m² und ist mit 748 Filterschläuchen bestückt. 2010 wurden folgende Emissionswerte im Jahresmittel erreicht: Staub: 0,66 mg/Nm³, Blei: 0,39 mg/Nm³, SO₂: 230 mg/Nm³.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird der geschlossene Elektroofen über einen gekapselten Chargieraufzug beschickt. Der Ofenkopf ist eingehaust, und alle Abstichbereiche sind mit Absaughauben ausgestattet. Die Sekundärabgase des Elektroofens werden erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Tabelle 5.29 zeigt die erreichten Emissionswerte nach Reinigung des Elektroofen-Sekundärabgases. Der große Schwankungsbereich der Staub- und SO₂-Konzentrationen erklärt sich aus den diskontinuierlichen Schlacke- und Metallabstichvorgängen. Die Daten beziehen sich auf den Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente.

Tabelle 5.29: Sekundäremissionen des Elektroofens in Anlage 18

Quelle	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)		Messwernerfassung/ Messintervall
			Min.	Max.	
Sekundär-abgas Elektroofen	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	5,5	kontinuierlich (Halbstundenmittelwert)
		Staub	< 0,5	4,2	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)
		SO ₂	< 50	840	kontinuierlich (Halbstundenmittelwert)
		SO ₂	< 50	800	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)
		Cu	< 0,01	0,2	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)
		Pb	< 0,01	0,2	
		Ni	< 0,01	0,1	
		As	< 0,01	0,02	
		Cd	< 0,02	<0,02	

Die Sekundäremissionen der Schmelzaggregate in Anlage 17 sind in Tabelle 5.30 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 5.30: Sekundäremissionen der Schmelzaggregate in Anlage 17

Technik	Luftschadstoff	Werte mg/Nm ³			Unsicherheit (%)	Messintervall
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Gewebefilter (*)	Staub	1	1,1	5	10	12 x pro Jahr
	Cu	0,002	0,006	0,4	30	
	Pb	0,3	0,458	2,8	20	
	As	0,03	0,037	0,6	50	
	Cd	0,006	0,014	0,1	20	
	SO ₂	0	3,4	38	10	
	NO _x	0	2,3	13	10	
	H ₂ S	0,0	1,28	4,5	20	
	CS ₂	0,0	0,45	1,5	15	
Gewebefilter (**)	Staub	1	1,1	5	10	12 x pro Jahr
	Cu	0,002	0,006	0,05	30	
	Pb	0,3	0,462	3,5	20	
	As	0,03	0,042	0,75	50	
	Cd	0,006	0,014	0,1	20	
	SO ₂	9	16,9	38	10	
	NO _x	0	4,1	20	10	
	H ₂ S	0,0	0,87	4,5	20	
	CS ₂	0,0	0,19	1,6	15	

(*) Angeschlossene Emissionsquellen: Trommelofen, Rohbleiießstand, Aufgabebunker, Siloabsaugung Lagerhalle, Konzentratchargierbereich, Schrotchargierbereich, Vorratsbehälter
(**) Angeschlossene Emissionsquellen: Verbindung Öfen-Brennkammern, Absaugung Brennkammern

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Hauben

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gekapselte Aggregate mit Gaserfassungssystem

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzaufgaben und Vorschriften für Arbeitssicherheit und Gesundheitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Alle Primärbleihütten in Europa

Literatur

[117, Krüger, J. 1999], [305, Ausmelt 2009], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der Schlackenreinigung in der Primärbleierzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Schlackenlagerung in Silos oder Einsatz von Wassersprühsystemen bei Lagerung im Freien
- gekapselte Aggregate und Haube mit Absaugeinrichtung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Schlackenlagerung in Silos oder Wassersprühsysteme bei Lagerung im Freien

Zur Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen bei der Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Schlacken werden alle Schlackenhalde mit einem Wassersprühsystem befeuchtet.

Darüber hinaus werden gekapselte Förderbänder und Lagersilos eingesetzt.

Bezüglich Informationen zu weiteren eingesetzten Techniken, siehe Abschnittsverweise oben.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Schlackenlagerung in Silos oder Wassersprühsysteme für Freilager und gekapselte Aggregate und Haube mit Absaugeinrichtung

Vermeidung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Gewebefilter

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die im QSL-Ofen anfallende Schlacke wird mit Wasser granuliert und als Nassschlacke im Bausektor eingesetzt.

Im Ausmelt-Ofen bei Weser-Metall in Nordenham fällt eine Schlacke mit einem Bleigehalt von 40–60 % an, die als "Bleikonzentrat aus metallurgischer Gewinnung" verkauft wird. Diese Schlacke kann kampagnenweise im selben Aggregat gereinigt werden, um eine bleiarmer Endschlacke zu erzeugen.

In Nordenham wird das Blei(oxid)konzentrat durch Granulierung der Flüssigschlacke mit Wasser beim Abstich erzeugt. Feinanteile werden mit dem Granulierwasser in ein Sammelbecken ausgeschwemmt, von dort mittels eines Trogkettenförderers auf ein Förderband ausgetragen und zur Zwischenspeicherung in ein Doppelsilo gefördert. Eine weitere Behandlung findet nicht statt.

Die bei der Schlackengranulation freigesetzten Dämpfe und Rauche werden über ein Gebläse abgesaugt und in einem Nass-EGR gereinigt (10 000–12 000 m³/h). Das Reingas wird mit dem gereinigten Abgas aus dem Bereich der Entkupferung zusammengeführt und kontinuierlich auf Emissionen überwacht (Reingaswerte, siehe Abschnitt 5.3.3.2).

In Primärbleihütten in Deutschland wurden Staubemissionen von < 1 mg/Nm³ gemessen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Schlackenlagerung in Silos oder Einsatz von Wassersprühsystemen bei Lagerung im Freien

- Höherer Wasser- und Energieverbrauch
- Das über die Entwässerung der versiegelten Oberfläche im Lagerbereich erfasste Oberflächenwasser muss, sofern es nicht wiederverwendet wird, in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage behandelt werden.

Gekapselte Aggregate und Haube mit Absaugeinrichtung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter und Nass-EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Alle Primärbleihütten in Europa

Literatur

[117, Krüger, J. 1999], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4 Blei- und Zinnerzeugung aus Sekundärrohstoffen (Sekundärhütten)

5.3.4.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der sekundären Blei- und Zinnerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Hauben (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- gekapselte Aggregate mit Abgaserfassung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- "Haus-in-Haus"-System (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Warmhaltebetrieb der Öfen bei niedrigst möglicher Temperatur (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Betrieb bei Unterdruck mit einem ausreichenden Absaugvolumen, um einen Druckaufbau im Ofen zu vermeiden (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen bei Chargier- und Abstichvorgängen sowie bei der Vorentkupferung werden die Emissionsquellen eingehaust oder über Hauben abgesaugt. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Eine ausführliche Beschreibung von Techniken zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen und Abgaserfassung findet sich in Abschnitt 2.12.4.3.

"Haus-in-Haus"-System

Beim "Haus-in-Haus"-System sind die Ausrüstungen in einem geschlossenen Gebäude aufgestellt und zusätzlich mit einer weitgehend geschlossenen Einhausung versehen, die über eine Filteranlage abgesaugt wird. Gieß- und Umfüllvorgänge finden innerhalb dieser Einhausung statt, die zu diesem Zweck mit einem Katzkran (Chargierkatze) ausgerüstet ist. Kran- und Ofenbewegungen werden ferngesteuert. Über eine programmierbare Steuerung werden die Gebläse in emissionssträchtigen Betriebsphasen automatisch angesteuert.

Im Vergleich zu einer konventionellen Hallenabsaugung ist das zu erfassende und reinigende Abgasvolumen bei Haus-in-Haus-Systemen geringer, was sich in erheblichen Energieeinsparungen niederschlägt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Staubrückgewinnung
- Bei Anwendung eines "Haus-in-Haus"-Systems erübrigt sich eine Hallenabsaugung.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 5.31 zeigt die erreichte Staubminderungsleistung bei Metallo-Chimique, Belgien.

Tabelle 5.31: Staubemissionen nach Sekundärabgasreinigung bei Metallo-Chimique

Quelle	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
Absaughauben	Gewebefilter	Staub < 5 mg/Nm ³
<i>Quelle: [397, ILA 2012]</i>		

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird ein geschlossener Elektroofen eingesetzt, der über einen gekapselten Chargieraufzug beschickt wird. Verarbeitet wird ein breites Spektrum an kupfer-/bleihaltigen Ausgangsstoffen. Der obere Teil des Ofens befindet sich in einer Einhausung, und alle Abstichbereiche sind mit Absaughauben ausgestattet. Sekundärabgase im Bereich des Elektroofens werden erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Die Kokillen zum Vergießen des Rohbleisteins (Werkblei) befinden sich in einer geschlossenen Halle und sind zusätzlich von einer weitgehend geschlossenen abgesaugten Einhausung (Haus-in-Haus-Rückhaltesystem) umschlossen. Das erfasste Abgas wird nach Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt. Dies ermöglicht die nahezu vollständige Durchführung aller Gießvorgänge innerhalb der Einhausung, die zu diesem Zweck mit einem Katzkran (Chargierkatze) ausgerüstet ist oder in abgesaugten Bereichen (z.B. über eine Tornado-Haube). Die Kran- und Kokillenbewegungen werden ferngesteuert.

In

Tabelle 5.32 sind exemplarisch Emissionswerte für die Rohblei-Gießmaschine nach Abgaserfassung über ein Haus-in-Haus-System und Reinigung in einem Gewebefilter nach vorheriger Kalkdosierung dargestellt. Die Daten stammen aus der kontinuierlichen Emissionsmessung im Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente.

Tabelle 5.32: Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen nach Abgaserfassung über ein Haus-in-Haus-System und Reinigung in einem Gewebefilter nach vorheriger Kalkdosierung

Quelle	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Emissionswerte bei bestimmungsgemäßem Betrieb (mg/Nm ³)		Messwerterfassung/Messintervall
			Min.	Max.	
Rohbleißmaschine	Hauben und Haus-in-Haus-System Trockensorption mit Kalk und Gewebefilter (maximaler Volumenstrom 250 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	< 0,5	10	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		Staub	0,8	2,7	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Staub	2	4	kontinuierlich (JMW)
		SO ₂	<50	1425	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		SO ₂	65	250	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		SO ₂	100	200	kontinuierlich (JMW)
		Cu	<0,01	0,23	4 x pro Jahr (3*30 min)
		Pb	0,01	0,3	
		Ni		<0,02	
		As	< 0,01	0,07	
		Cd	< 0,01	0,02	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Legende: **HMW**=Halbstundenmittelwert, **TMW**=Tagesmittelwert, **JMW**=Jahresmittelwert

Tabelle 5.33 zeigt die erreichten Emissionswerte nach Reinigung des Elektroofen-Sekundärabgases. Der große Schwankungsbereich der Staub- und SO₂-Konzentrationen erklärt sich aus den diskontinuierlichen Schlacke- und Metallabstichvorgängen. Die Daten stammen aus der kontinuierlichen Emissionsmessung im Langzeit-Normalbetrieb bei unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen, wie z.B. Schwankungen in der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials, unterschiedliche Last- und Betriebszustände, abrasiver Verschleiß der Ausrüstungen und Verschleiß der Filterelemente.

Tabelle 5.33: Sekundäremissionen eines Elektroofen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Anlage	Quelle	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)		Messwerterfassung/Messintervall
				Min.	Max.	
18	Sekundärabgas Elektroofen	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	5,5	kontinuierlich (HMW)
			Staub	< 0,5	4,2	kontinuierlich (TMW)
			SO ₂	< 50	840	kontinuierlich (HMW)
			SO ₂	< 50	800	kontinuierlich (TMW)
			Cu	< 0,01	0,2	diskontinuierlich 4 x pro Jahr (3*30 min)
			Pb	< 0,01	0,2	
			Ni	< 0,01	0,1	
			As	< 0,01	0,02	
		Cd	< 0,02	< 0,02		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Legende: **HMW**=Halbstundenmittelwert, **TMW**=Tagesmittelwert, **JMW**=Jahresmittelwert

Tabelle 5.34 zeigt die Emissionswerte von drei weiteren Anlagen.

Tabelle 5.34: Staub- und Metallemissionen der Anlagen 6, 15 und 19

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Messwerterfassung/Messintervall
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
6	Ofenabsaugung (Sekundärabgas) /Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1	< 1	6	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)
		Pb	k.A.	< 1	2	
		Hg+Tl	<0,002	<0,002	< 0,002	
		Pb+Ni+Se	<0,05	< 0,05	0,06	
		Sb+Cu+Sn	k.A.	0,05	0,08	
15	Gewebefilter – Sekundärabgas	Staub	0,03	k.A.	0,33	basierend auf 11 Staub- und 2 Metallemissionsmessungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 3–5 Stunden
		Cu	<0,002	k.A.	0,002	
		Pb	<0,001	k.A.	0,002	
		Sb	k.A.	k.A.	0,1	
		As	k.A.	k.A.	0,002	
		Cd	k.A.	k.A.	0,001	
19	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,2	0,5	1	diskontinuierlich (Halbstundenmittelwert)
		Pb+Cr+Cu +Mn+V	0,002	0,1	0,1	

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Hauben

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gekapselte Aggregate mit Abgaserfassung

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Gegenüber einer konventionellen Hallenabsaugung ist der zu erfassende und zu reinigende Abgasvolumenstrom und damit der Energieaufwand beim "Haus-in-Haus"-Konzept erheblich geringer.

"Haus-in-Haus"-System

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Hauben und gekapselte Aggregate mit Abgaserfassung

Allgemein anwendbar

"Haus-in-Haus"-System

Aufgrund des Platzbedarfs und der notwendigen Einbindung in andere Systeme ist die "Haus-in-Haus"-Technik zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen aus Chargier-, Abstich- und Gießvorgängen nur in Neuanlagen oder bei umfangreichen Ertüchtigungen bestehender Anlagen anwendbar.

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Der größte Anteil der Betriebskosten der Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlage entfällt auf den elektrischen Energieverbrauch des Gebläses. Ein Gewebefilter hat einen Energieverbrauch von 1,5 KWh pro 1000 m³ Abgas. Die Stromkosten für eine typische Sekundärschmelzanlage mit einem Abgasvolumenstrom von 300 000 m³/h (wovon weniger als 10 % auf das Prozessabgas entfallen) belaufen sich auf ca. EUR 400 000 pro Jahr (EUR 0,10 pro KWh).

Des Weiteren fallen folgende Betriebskosten für Gewebefilter an:

- Austausch der Filterschläuche: bis zu zweimal pro Jahr
- Kosten für die routinemäßige Wartung sonstiger Einrichtungen: 5 % - 10 % der Investitionskosten pro Jahr
- Kosten für die Behandlung des Filterstaubs

Mit höheren Investitionskosten ist zu rechnen, wenn

- allseitige geschlossene Hallen erforderlich sind,
- die Hallenentlüftungssysteme angepasst werden müssen oder
- die Hallenabluft vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre gefiltert werden muss.

Die Investitionskosten für die Errichtung eines "Haus-in-Haus"-Systems bei Aurubis werden mit EUR 6 Millionen angegeben [397, ILA 2012].

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umwelt- und Gesundheitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

BSB Recycling (DE), Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE), Metallo-Chimique (BE), Umicore (BE), Aurubis (DE), Elmet (ES), Weser-Metall (DE) und BMG Metall und Recycling GmbH (AT)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4.2 Techniken zur Verminderung gefasster Staubemissionen aus Sekundärschmelzanlagen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Zyklone (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.3)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (Radialstrom- oder Strahlwäscher) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)
- Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2)
- Quecksilberabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5)

Diese Techniken können entweder einzeln oder in Kombination angewendet werden.

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Reduzierung von Staubemissionen über das Abgas von Sekundärschmelzanlagen kommen folgende Techniken zur Anwendung:

- Zykclone können in Verbindung mit Gewebefiltern als Vorabscheider eingesetzt werden. Siehe 2.12.5.1.3.
- Gewebefilter erreichen auch für feine Partikel sehr hohe Abscheideleistungen und finden breite Anwendung. Zur Abscheidung gasförmiger Luftschadstoffe können Sorbentien in den Abgasstrom vor dem Gewebefilter dosiert werden. Generell wird der gesamte anfallende Filterstaub recycelt (ggf. nach Laugung zum Entfernen unerwünschter Inhaltsstoffe). Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4.
- Zur Quecksilberabscheidung kommen je nach Beschaffenheit der Einsatzstoffe die in Abschnitt 2.12.5.5 beschriebenen Absorptionsverfahren oder andere Techniken zum Einsatz.

Zur Reinigung von Abgasen mit hohem Feuchtegehalt (z.B. aus der Materialtrocknung oder Schlackengranulierung) oder bei Staub mit pyrophorischen Eigenschaften kommen folgende Minderungstechniken zur Anwendung:

- Nasswäscher (Radialstrom- oder Strahlwäscher). Bei Verwendung einer geeigneten Waschlösung (z.B. alkalische Lösung) können Nasswäscher neben der Staubabscheidung auch zur Abscheidung gasförmiger Luftschadstoffe eingesetzt werden. Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2.
- Nass-Elektrofilter ermöglichen die Abscheidung von Feinstaub bei niedrigem Energiebedarf. Nachteilig sind jedoch die hohen Investitionskosten. Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2.
- Der in den Nassabscheidern abgeschiedene Staub wird in Form einer Feststoffsuspension entweder in ein separates System ausgetragen oder in der Abwasserreinigungsanlage abgetrennt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Nachstehend sind einige Anwendungsbeispiele für die Kombination der oben aufgeführten Techniken aufgeführt.

Bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse und Elmet Berango können (kampagnenweise) sekundäre Blei-Zinn-Materialien in den Schmelzöfen verarbeitet werden. Bei Metallo-Chimique wird hierzu ein TBRC-Ofen eingesetzt. Das Ofenabgas wird vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem Luft/Luft-Kühler abgekühlt und anschließend in einem Zyklon mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

In Tabelle 5.35 sind die Staubemissionen unterschiedlicher Schmelzaggregate zur Erzeugung von Sekundärblei dargestellt.

Tabelle 5.35: Staubemissionen am Beispiel unterschiedlicher Sekundärschmelzöfen

Ofentyp	Schmelzleistung	Abgas-vorreinigung	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
Schachtofen	50 000 t/a	k.A.	k.A.	< 2 mg/Nm ³
				Volumenstrom 90 000 m ³ /h
TBRC (klein)	30 t/Charge	Kühler + Zyklon	Gewebefilter	Staub < 5 mg/Nm ³
Mini-Smelter	60 t/Charge	Kühler + Zyklon	Gewebefilter + Trockenadsorptionsfilter mit Sorablit	Staub < 5 mg/Nm ³
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [397, Germany 2012]				

Bei Umicore Hoboken werden in einem chargenweise betriebenen ISASMELT-Ofen aus komplexen Pb-, Cu- und Ni-haltigen Sekundär- und zum Teil Primärrohstoffen ein verunreinigtes Kupfergranulat und eine bleioxidreiche Schlacke erzeugt. Die Abwärme des Prozessgases wird zur Dampferzeugung genutzt. Nach weiterer Abkühlung wird das Prozessgas in einem Trocken-EGR entstaubt, gequench und anschließend der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt. Die Chargieröffnung, Lanzendurchführung, Abstichöffnungen und der Raffinationsofen sind mit Absaughauben ausgestattet. Das erfasste Sekundärabgas (Volumenstrom 230 000 Nm³/h) wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Es werden Reingaswerte von < 1 mg/Nm³ für Staub und < 300 mg/Nm³ für SO₂ erreicht.

Die Bleioxidschlacke wird gebrochen und zusammen mit anderen bleihaltigen sekundären Einsatzstoffen, Koks und Kalkstein im Schachtofen unter Gewinnung von Rohblei, Stein und minderwertiger Schlacken verarbeitet. Zur Oxidation pyrophorischer Metallpartikel wird das Prozessgas zunächst teilnachverbrannt, dann unter Energierückgewinnung gekühlt, in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und abschließend thermisch behandelt, um einen vollständigen CO-Ausbrand sicherzustellen. Die Abwärme wird zur Vorwärmung des Blaswinds für den Schachtofen genutzt. Nach weiterer Kühlung in einem Wärmetauscher und Zumischung von Sekundärabgas zur Kondensation dampfförmiger Schwermetalle (As, Hg) wird das Abgas vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem weiteren Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte sind in Tabelle 5.36 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 5.36: Staubemissionen am Beispiel der ISASMELT- und Schachtofenanlagen zur Gewinnung von Sekundärblei und -zinn bei Umicore Hoboken

Ofentyp	Schmelzleistung	Abgasvorreinigung	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
ISASMELT	1000 t/d	Energierückgewinnung, Trocken-EGR, Quenche	Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage	Staub < 1 mg/Nm ³
Schachtofen	1000 t/d	Teilnachverbrennung, Kühlung, Gewebefilter	CO-Ausbrand, Kühlung, Mischen mit Sekundärabgas, Gewebefilter	Staub < 1 mg/Nm ³

Quelle: [397, ILA 2012]

KGHM betreibt Primärkupferhütten in Legnica, Głogów 1 und Głogów 2. Der in den Gewebefiltern und Nassabscheidern der Kupferschmelzöfen abgeschiedene Flugstaub wird am Standort Głogów 1 in vier Schaukelöfen in einem diskontinuierlichen Verfahren zu Rohblei weiterverarbeitet.

Nach Chargieren der Aufgabemischung und der notwendigen Eisenschrottmenge beginnt der Produktionszyklus. Im ersten Schritt wird das Material aufgeheizt und getrocknet. Dabei gehen Kohlenwasserstoffe in die Gasphase über und organischer Kohlenstoff wird verbrannt. Die Hauptreaktionen – Reduktion der Bleiverbindungen – laufen bei einer Temperatur von ca. 1000 °C, d.h. im Schmelzbad, ab. Die Schmelze wird bei einer Temperatur von 1050–1100 °C in Pfannen abgestochen, wo die Trennung in eine Metall- und eine Schlackephase stattfindet. Die Dauer eines Schmelzzyklus beträgt ca. vier Stunden.

Jeder Schmelzofen ist mit einem eigenen Abgasnachverbrennungs- und Kühlsystem ausgestattet. Das Abgas der Schmelzöfen wird in einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus einer Mischkammer und einem Entstaubungssystem entstaubt und anschließend einer Abgasentschwefelungsanlage zur weiteren Behandlung zugeführt. Dort wird das Abgas der Schaukelöfen (65 000 m³/h) gemeinsam mit dem Rauchgas des Kraftwerks (1 000 000 m³/h) entschwefelt. 2014 (in der Endphase der Erstellung des vorliegenden Referenzdokuments) liefen die Montagearbeiten für eine separate Anlage zur Reinigung des Abgases der vier Schaukelöfen. Die neue Abgasreinigungsanlage besteht aus einem Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen sowie einem Nasswäscher zur Abgasentschwefelung.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg wird das Primärabgas des Elektro-Schmelzofens mit Hilfe von rückgeführtem Kaltgas in einem Luft/Gas-Wärmetauscher gekühlt, in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und vor Weiterverarbeitung in der Schwefelsäureanlage in einer Quecksilberabscheidestufe entquickt. Das Sekundärabgas des Elektroofens wird erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Weitere Emissionsdaten von Bleischmelzöfen in Sekundärhütten sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 5.37: Staub- und Metallemissionen von Bleischmelzöfen in Sekundärhütten

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Werte (mg/Nm ³)			Messwerterfassung/Messintervall
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
1	Geschlossenes System, Kalkdosierung, Gewebefilter	Staub	0,2	< 0,5	2	2 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,1	0,2	0,6	
3.1	nicht bekannt	Staub	0,0	0,061	6,829	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		Pb	0,295	0,311	0,328	2 x pro Jahr
		Cu	0,0107	0,0212	0,0317	
		Ni	0,009	0,0237	0,0384	
		Zn	0,0256	0,231	0,438	
		As	0,002	0,0074	0,0128	
		Cd	0,0003	0,0017	0,128	
Hg	0,0003	0,0015	0,003			
3.2	nicht bekannt	Staub	0,014	0,72	6,627	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		Pb	1,707	3,653	5,6	2 x pro Jahr
		Cu	0,0192	0,0233	0,0275	
		Ni	0,0208	0,022	0,0232	
		Zn	0,0605	0,0727	0,085	
		As	0,004	0,0068	0,0095	
		Cd	0,0098	0,006	0,0021	
		Hg	0,0003	0,0007	0,001	
		Tl	0,0	0,0019	0,0038	
		Se	0,0015	0,0018	0,002	
		Sb	0,0607	0,0683	0,076	
Sn	0,0001	0,0115	0,0228			
4	Kalkdosierung + Gewebefilter	Staub	0,2	0,8	3	kontinuierlich (MMW)
		Pb	0,1	0,3	1	
5	Nachverbrennungskammer, Hochtemperatur-Gewebefilter, Flüssigmedien, Abgasentschwefelung	Staub	0,140	0,460	1,24	4 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,010	0,030	0,059	
		Cu+Pb+Zn+Ni u. ihre Verbindungen	0,011	0,035	0,062	
		Sb, Sn, Te und ihre Verbindungen	0,003	0,01	0,01	
		Cd+As+Hg+Tl+Se und ihre Verbindungen	0,01	0,02	0,05	

6	Gewebefilter	Staub	k.A.	< 1	5	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Pb	k.A.	< 1	2	
		Hg+Tl	k.A.	< 0,01	< 0,01	1 x pro Jahr
		Pb+Ni+Se	k.A.	0,3	0,4	alle 3 Jahre
		Sb+Cu+Sn	k.A.	< 0,1	0,2	
7	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	< 0,5	1	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Pb	< 0,05	0,06	0,16	11 x pro Jahr
		As+Cd	< 0,005	< 0,005	0,007	
	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	< 0,5	0,5	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Pb	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	9 x pro Jahr
		As+Cd	< 0,005	0,005	0,018	7 x pro Jahr
9	Kalkdosierung am Austritt Nachverbrennungskammer und vor dem Gewebefilter	Staub	0,2	0,7	2	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Pb	0,1	0,2	0,7	alle 3 Jahre
11	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,1	0,8	5	3 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,06	0,5	3	
12.1	Gewebefilter	Staub	1,7	2,5	3,9	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		Zn	0,14	0,219	0,304	1 x pro Jahr (Die dem MIN-, MAX- und Mittelwert zugrundeliegenden Messwerte stammen aus verschiedenen Jahren.)
		Pb	0,029	0,034	0,05	
		Cu	0,16	0,286	0,444	
		Cr	0	0,015	0,029	
		Mn	0,005	0,006	0,008	
		Sn	0,01	0,015	0,024	
Hg	0	0,0016	0,004			
12.2	Gewebefilter	Staub	k.A.	1,5	14,6	kontinuierlich (HMW)
		Zn	0,139	0,17	0,204	1 x pro Jahr (Die dem MIN-, MAX- und Mittelwert zugrundeliegenden Messwerte stammen aus verschiedenen Jahren)
		Pb	0,036	0,047	0,064	
		Cu	0,147	0,18	0,204	
		Cr	0,0002	0,006	0,01	
		Sn	0,001	0,015	0,026	
		As	0	0,006	0,017	
		Cd	0,007	0,009	0,011	
Hg	0	0,002	0,004			
13.1	Gewebefilter + Trockenadsorptionsfilter mit Sorbalit	Staub	< 0,5	< 0,5	< 0,5	2 x pro Jahr
		Sb	< 0,0005	0,0011	0,0016	
		Cu	0,0018	0,0046	0,0073	
		Cd	< 0,0005	0,0008	0,0011	
		Pb	0,0015	0,0160	0,0305	
		Sn	< 0,001	0,002	0,003	
		Zn	0,0055	0,0352	0,0649	
13.2 (TBRC)	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	< 0,5	< 0,5	2 x pro Jahr
		Cu	0,0011	0,0067	0,0116	
		Pb	0,0022	0,0063	0,0104	
		Sn	< 0,001	0,003	0,004	

		Zn	0,0066	0,0136	0,0206	
13.3 (TBRC)	Gewebefilter	Staub	<0,5	<0,5	<0,5	2 x pro Jahr
		Cu	< 0,000 5	0,0007	0,0008	
		Pb	0,0023	0,0082	0,0141	
		Sn	<0,001	0,002	0,003	
		Zn	0,0018	0,0044	0,0070	
15.1	Nachbrenner, Gewebefilter 1, Wärmerück- gewinnung, Mischen mit Sekundärabgas, Gewebefilter 2	Staub	0,07	0,27	0,91	11 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,03	0,08	0,15	
		Cu	< 0,001	0,001	0,001	
		Cd	0,0004	0,003	0,01	
		As	0,004	0,09	0,24	
		Zn	0,01	0,02	0,03	
		Sb	0,0003	0,01	0,04	
		Sn	0,002	0,006	0,03	
Hg	< 0,001	0,019	0,08			
15.2	Nasswäscher	Staub	0,42	2,17	6,01	13 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,01	0,17	1,19	
		Cu	0,0004	0,01	0,05	
		Cd	0,002	0,006	0,01	
		As	0,001	0,02	0,09	
		Sb	0,14	0,92	2,18	
		Zn	0,0	0,03	0,2	
15.3 (ISA- SMELT)	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,03	0,12	0,33	11 x pro Jahr
		Pb	< 0,001	k.A.	0,004	2 x pro Jahr
		Cu	< 0,002	k.A.	0,002	
		Cd	< 0,000 2	k.A.	0,0009	
19	k.A.	Staub	0,4	3	7	kontinuierlich (TMW)
		Sb+Cr+Cu+Mn +V+Zn+Sn+ Fluorid+ Cyanid	0,05	<0,1	0,1	3 x pro Jahr
		Pb+Co+Ni+Se+ Te	< 0,05	<0,05	0,01	
		Hg	0,0012	0,032	0,05	
		As+Cd+ Cr(VI)	0,001	0,001	0,002	
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [385, Germany 2012], [393, Austria 2012] Legende: HMW = Halbstundenmittelwert, TMW = Tagesmittelwert, MMW = Monatsmittelwert						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zyklon

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Gewebefilter und EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Sofern der abgeschiedene Staub nicht in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden kann, fällt ein fester Abfallstoff an. Zur Verwertung der Flugstäube müssen diese intern oder extern zwecks Entfernung von Verunreinigungen aufbereitet werden.

Nasswäscher und Nass-EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Bei Nasswäschern fällt ein Abwasserstrom an, der behandelt werden muss, um Metall- und sonstige Schadstoffeinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden. Zur Verwertung der Flugstäube müssen diese intern oder extern zwecks Entfernung von Verunreinigungen aufbereitet werden.

Quecksilberabscheider

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven
- Anfall eines festen oder flüssigen Abfallprodukts, das intern oder extern behandelt werden muss
- Quecksilberhaltige Abfälle müssen deponiert werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Zyklon

Allgemein anwendbar. Zyklone alleine reichen zur Minderung von Staubemissionen nicht aus und müssen deshalb in Kombination mit einem anderen Entstaubungssystem, z.B. einem Gewebefilter, eingesetzt werden.

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Nasswäscher und Nass-EGR

Diese Techniken kommen nur bei Abgasen mit hohem Feuchtegehalt oder bei pyrophorischen Stäuben zur Anwendung.

Quecksilberabscheider

Der Einsatz eines Quecksilberabscheiders ist von der Zusammensetzung der Einsatzstoffe abhängig.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Laut Aurubis Hamburg können die Investitionskosten für eine Quecksilberminderungsanlage (einschl. Kondensator, Wärmetauscher, Gewebefilter, Dosiersystem, Absorber und Gebläse) bis zu EUR 5 Millionen betragen [397, ILA 2012].

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE), Aurubis (DE), HJ Enthoven & Sons (UK), Umicore (BE), KGHM (PL), Boliden Bergsöe (SE), Metallo-Chimique (BE) und Elmet (ES)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen aus Sekundärschmelzöfen

Beschreibung

Zur Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen aus Sekundärschmelzöfen kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials
- Fixierung des Schwefels in der Einschmelzphase durch Zugabe von Additiven
- Einblasen von Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den SO₂-haltigen Abgasstrom
- alkalische Wäsche nach vorhergehender Entstaubung
- Schwefelsäureerzeugung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials

Diese Technik ist in Abschnitt 5.3.2.5 näher beschrieben und wird vor Aufgabe des Einsatzmaterials in den Schmelzöfen angewendet.

Schwefelfixierung

SO₂-Emissionen aus Sekundärschmelzöfen können durch Zugabe von Eisen und/oder Soda zur Schmelzcharge gemindert werden. Eisen reagiert mit dem im Einsatzmaterial enthaltenen Schwefel zu Stein (z.B. Eisensulfat). Damit werden der Schwefel im Stein gebunden und SO₂-Emissionen vermieden. Mit dieser Technik wird unter optimalen Bedingungen ein Entschwefelungsgrad von 90 % erzielt. Der flüssig aus dem Ofen abgezogene Stein erstarrt bei Umgebungstemperatur, womit Staubemissionen vermieden und die Handhabung vereinfacht werden.

Kupfer, sofern im Einsatzmaterial enthalten, hat den gleichen Effekt wie Eisen, wobei der Schwefel jedoch als Kupfersulfid gebunden wird.

Der Stein, der hauptsächlich aus Eisen, Schwefel, Na₂S und kleineren Anteilen an Blei besteht, kann entweder als Reduktionsmittel oder zur Zurückgewinnung der enthaltenen Wertelemente an Verwertungsbetriebe verkauft oder deponiert werden. Um eine geeignete Schlackenzusammensetzung für den Verkauf, die Verwertung oder Deponierung (ggf. nach vorheriger Aufbereitung mit minimalem Metallverlust) zu erhalten, ist eine gezielte Chargenzusammenstellung erforderlich.

Einblasen von Kalk- oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom

Zur SO₂-Abscheidung wird Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in das 1100 °C heiße Abgas am Austritt der Nachverbrennungskammer oder bei niedrigerer Abgastemperatur in den Abgaskanal unmittelbar vor dem Gewebefilter eingeblasen. Zur Erzielung höherer Abscheidegrade kann gleichzeitig Wasser in den Abgasstrom eingedüst werden, die Kalkdosiermenge erhöht oder eine Kalkqualität mit einer größeren spezifischen Oberfläche gewählt werden.

In bestehenden Abgasreinigungsanlagen mit einem Gewebefilter zur Abscheidung von Prozessstaub kann dieses Trockensorptionsverfahren bei ausreichender Filterkapazität zur Abgasentschwefelung eingesetzt werden. Wenn die notwendigen prozesstechnischen Voraussetzungen gegeben sind, d.h. ausreichende Abgastemperatur, Feuchtegehalt und Verweilzeit, kann das Sorptionsmittel direkt in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen werden. Um eine optimale Durchmischung des Abgases mit dem eingedüsten Wasser und Kalk zu gewährleisten, wird jedoch unter Umständen eine Mischkammer benötigt. Bestehende Filteranlagen müssen ggf. ersetzt werden, wenn ihre Kapazität zur Abscheidung der erheblich größeren Staubmengen nicht ausreicht.

Alkalische Wäsche

Das aus dem Ofen austretende Abgas wird zunächst durch Quenchen mit Wasser auf 200 °C heruntergekühlt, dann in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend in einem Nasswäscher

mit Hilfe einer Waschlösung (z.B. Kalk, NaOH oder H₂O₂) entschwefelt. Das entstehende Sulfit wird zu Sulfat oxidiert, das im Fall von Kalk nach Filtration als Gips oder im Fall von Natriumhydroxid nach Wasserverdampfung als Natriumsulfat zurückgewonnen wird. Abschließend wird das wasserdampfgesättigte Abgas zur Kondensation der Feuchte gekühlt. Unter optimalen Bedingungen lassen sich mit dieser Technik SO₂-Abscheidegrade von mindestens 99 % erreichen.

Schwefelsäureanlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2)

Zur Schwefelsäureerzeugung kann eine Kombination der beschriebenen Techniken eingesetzt werden, wobei die Auswahl der Technik von der Zusammensetzung des Einsatzmaterials und der eingesetzten Offentechnologie abhängig ist.

Diese Techniken sind unter Umständen auch zur Abgasentschwefelung in Schmelzanlagen geeignet, in denen Filterstäube aus der Primärkupfererzeugung verarbeitet werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen. SO₂ wird in Schwefelsäureanlagen in Form von Schwefelsäure zurückgewonnen. Der bei der alkalischen Wäsche anfallende Gips kann wiederverwendet werden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Abscheideleistung der beschriebenen Abgasreinigungstechniken ist abhängig von der Abgaszusammensetzung (Feuchtigkeitsgehalt und SO₂-Konzentration), der Ofentechnologie, den zeitlichen Schwankungen der Abgaszusammensetzung und der Abgastemperatur.

Schwefelfixierung

Mit dieser Technik wird unter optimalen Bedingungen ein Entschwefelungsgrad von 90 % erreicht.

Einblasen von Kalk- oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom

Diese Technik ermöglicht die gleichzeitige Abscheidung von SO₂ und Staub im Gewebefilter. Außerdem werden damit auch staubgebundene Dioxine zurückgehalten. Das anfallende Kalk-/Gipsgemisch kann in anderen metallurgischen Prozessen oder bei der Abwasserbehandlung wiederverwendet werden.

Da die Reaktion von SO₂ mit Kalk an der Oberfläche der Kalkpartikel stattfindet und die Reaktionsgeschwindigkeit mit höherer Abgasfeuchte zunimmt, lässt sich der Kalkverbrauch durch folgende Maßnahmen reduzieren:

- gleichzeitige Eindüsung von Wasser (Dampf)
- Einsatz von Kalkhydrat mit hoher spezifischer Oberfläche/großem Porenvolumen
- und/oder Rezirkulation des abgeschiedenen Filterstaubs

Mit dieser Technik wird unter günstigen Bedingungen ein Gesamt-SO₂-Abscheidegrad von 95 % erreicht.

Die nachstehenden Leistungsdaten beziehen sich auf eine typische Sekundär-Schachtofenanlage mit einer typischen Produktionskapazität von 30 000–50 000 t Blei/a, in der die Abgasentschwefelung durch Einblasen von Kalk, Natrium oder einer Alkalisuspension in den Abgasstrom erfolgt (z.B. Boliden Bergsöe, Schweden; Johnson Controls Recycling, Deutschland; Kovohute Pribram, Tschechische Republik; Campine, Belgien).

- Prozessgasvolumenstrom: 50 000–90 000 Nm³/h
- SO₂-Emission: 500 mg/Nm³ (*) (Jahresmittelwert)
- Staubemission: < 2 mg/Nm³
(*Endgasreinigung durch Eindüsen von Kalk oder einer Alkalisuspension in den Abgasstrom nach der Nachverbrennungskammer.

Bei Beerse, Belgien, wird das Trockenentschwefelungsverfahren zur Behandlung eines Abgasstroms mit schwankenden SO_2 -Konzentrationen aus einem kontinuierlichen Produktionsprozess eingesetzt. An zwei Stellen im Abgasweg wird bei jeweils hoher und niedriger Temperatur Kalk in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Um ein Verstopfen oder Verkleben der Filterschläuche zu vermeiden, sind der möglichen Kalkdosiermenge Grenzen gesetzt. Während das abgeschiedene Bleisulfat-/Staubgemisch intern recycelt wird, besteht für den anfallenden Gips keine interne Verwertungsmöglichkeit. Das Gips-/Staubgemisch muss zu hohen Kosten entsorgt werden.

Bei Bergsöe, Schweden, entsteht in einem kontinuierlich arbeitenden Bleischmelzprozess ein Abgasstrom mit schwankenden SO_2 -Konzentrationen. Die Hauptentschwefelung erfolgt durch Zugabe von Eisen in den Ofen und Einbindung des Schwefels in den sich bildenden Eisenstein. Mit der Schwefelumsetzung zu Stein wird ein Entschwefelungsgrad von ca. 90 % erzielt. Zur weiteren Entschwefelung wird in einem Trockensorptionsverfahren Kalk (~ 60 kg/h) direkt am Austritt der Nachverbrennungskammer in den 1100 °C heißen Abgasstrom eingeblasen.

Eine Wassereindüsung ist wegen der Gefahr der Verstopfung und Verklebung der Filterschläuche und möglicher Kondensationsprobleme in den Gewebefiltern nicht möglich. Durch eine Erhöhung der Kalkdosiermenge ließen sich höhere SO_2 -Umsätze erzielen, doch dies ist wegen der Gefahr der Verklebung und Verstopfung der Filterschläuche nicht möglich. Wegen seines Bleigehalts wird der Filterstaub nach Entchlorung als Schlackebildner in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Der Filterstaub kann relativ kostengünstig aufgearbeitet werden.

Die Leistungsdaten der beschriebenen Beispielanlagen sind in Tabelle 5.38 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 5.38: Leistungsdaten von Beispielanlagen

Anlage	SO_2 (mg/Nm ³)		Staub (mg/Nm ³)		Anmerkungen
	Rohgas	Reingas	Rohgas	Reingas	
Metallo-Chimique Beerse (Sekundärschmelzanlage ohne Batterieaufbereitung)	1000	400	k.A.	k.A.	Kalkdosierung an zwei Stellen
Boliden Bergsöe (Bleihütte)	1000	400	k.A.	< 1	Bindung des Schwefel in Eisenstein und Dosierung von 650 kg/h Kalk am Austritt der Nachverbren- nungskammer. Der Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt.
k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [346, SO ₂ - Lime injection FINAL 4.2.2010]					

Schwefelsäureanlage

Die folgenden Leistungsdaten beziehen sich auf einen ISASMELT-Ofen mit einer Schmelzleistung von 1000 t/d (diskontinuierliches Verfahren) in der Umicore-Bleihütte in Belgien.

- Einsatz: blei- und kupferhaltige Stoffe
- Produkte: verunreinigtes Kupfer und Bleioxidschlacke
- Prozessgasvolumenstrom: 54 000 Nm³/h
- SO_2 -Gehalt Prozessgas: bis zu 10 %
- SO_2 -Gehalt nach der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage: < 300 mg/Nm³ (Tagesmittelwert)

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden blei- und kupferhaltige sekundäre Rohstoffe, Schlacke, Steinstäube sowie Primärbleikonzentrate in einem Elektroofen verhüttet. Das Primärabgas des

Elektroofens wird mit Hilfe von rückgeführtem Kaltgas in einem Luft/Gas-Wärmetauscher gekühlt. Nach Kühlung wird das Abgas in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend einem Selen-Wäscher zur Quecksilberabscheidung zugeführt. Das so vorgereinigte Abgas gelangt bei ausreichend hohem SO₂-Gehalt in die Doppelkontakanlage oder wird bei geringfügigen SO₂-Gehalten über den Kamin in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet. SO₂-Emissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die berichteten Emissionswerte liegen bei 330–1980 mg/Nm³, angegeben als Halbstundenmittelwert. Die Sekundärabgase des Elektroofens (Einhausung des Ofenkopfs, Absaughauben über den Abstichöffnungen) werden abgesaugt und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Es werden Emissionswerte von 0,5–5,5 mg/Nm³ für Staub und 50–840 mg/Nm³ für SO₂, jeweils angegeben als Halbstundenmittelwerte, berichtet.

Tabelle 5.39 zeigt Emissionswerte von Sekundär-Blei- und Zinnhütten in der EU-28, die eine Kombination der oben aufgeführten Techniken einsetzen.

Tabelle 5.39: SO₂-Emissionen von Sekundär-Blei- und Zinnhütten in der EU-28

Anlage	Technik	SO ₂ -Emissionen mg/Nm ³			Messwerterfassung/ Messintervall
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
1	Bindung des Schwefels in Stein, Entschwefelungsgrad ca. 90 %, gekapseltes System Kalkdosierung in den Abgasstrom mit einem Gesamtentschwefelungsgrad von > 95%	200	360	800	kontinuierliche Messung (Jahresmittelwert) (MIN- und MAX-Werte sind als Tagesmittelwerte angegeben)
4	Kalkdosierung + Gewebefilter	350	480	1000	kontinuierliche Messung (Stundenmittelwert)
5	Nachverbrennungskammer, Hochtemperatur-Gewebefilter, Flüssigmedien, Abgasentschwefelung	1	102	202	2 x pro Jahr (Mittelwert über 4 h)
7	Einsatz von vorentschwefelter Batteriepaste und Zugabe von Flussmitteln (Soda) in den Ofen	< 10	109	375	kontinuierliche Messung (Mittelwert über die Chargendauer)
9	Einbindung von bis zu 90 % des mit der Charge eingetragenen Schwefels in der Steinphase (Eisensulfid) durch Zugabe von Eisen; Abgasentschwefelung durch Einblasen von Kalk in die Nachverbrennungskammer	200	370	500	kontinuierliche Messung (Tagesmittelwert)
11	Eisenzugabe zur Charge, Einblasen einer Alkalisuspension in die Nachverbrennungskammer	279	402	800	4 x pro Jahr
13	Gewebefilter + Trockenadsorptionsfilter mit Sobalit-Dosierung	0	80	500	kontinuierliche Messung (Stundenmittelwert)
15	Entschwefelung der Feststoffphase > 97 %, Nachverbrennungskammer, Gewebefilter, Wärmerückgewinnung, Mischen mit Sekundärabgas, zweiter Gewebefilter	50	83	154	11 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 1-2 h)
18	Schwefelsäureanlage	330		1080	kontinuierliche Messung (Tagesmittelwert)

Quelle: [385, Germany 2012], [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials

Siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.5.

Fixierung des Schwefels in der Einschmelzphase durch Zugabe von Additiven

- Einsatz von Additiven
- Größere Schlackenmenge und höhere Bleiverluste über die Schlacke

Einblasen von Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Bei Einsatz einer Mischkammer entsteht ein zusätzlicher Druckverlust mit einem entsprechend höheren Energieverbrauch des Gebläses.
- Einsatz von Additiven
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn keine Verwertungsmöglichkeit für den abgeschiedenen Staub besteht

Alkalische Wäsche nach vorhergehender Entstaubung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Der anfallende Abwasserstrom muss behandelt werden, um Metall- und sonstige Schadstoffeinträge in Oberflächengewässer zu vermeiden.

Schwefelsäureanlage

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Entscheidungsgrundlage für die Auswahl der Technik sind die lokalen Marktbedingungen für die anfallenden Nebenprodukte und die Qualitätsvorgaben der Abnehmer.

Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials

Siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.5.

Fixierung des Schwefels in der Einschmelzphase durch Zugabe von Additiven

Die In-situ-Entschwefelung durch Zugabe von Eisen oder alkalischen Flussmitteln zur Charge kann angewendet werden, wenn eine Verwendungsmöglichkeit für den anfallenden Eisenstein oder die Schlacke besteht.

Einblasen von Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den Abgasstrom

Das Trockenverfahren kann zur Abgasentschwefelung bei Sekundärschmelzöfen angewendet werden, die schwefelhaltige Ausgangsstoffe verarbeiten, sofern die verfahrenstechnischen Voraussetzungen gegeben sind (d.h. SO₂-Gehalt, SO₂-Konzentrationsschwankungen, Temperatur, Feuchtigkeitsgehalt, Additive).

Alkalische Wäsche nach vorhergehender Entstaubung

Nassverfahren sind nur anwendbar, wenn geeignete Lösungen für den anfallenden Abwasserstrom (Abwasserbehandlung oder Verdampfung) und die anfallenden Sulfatprodukte (Vermarktung, Verwertung oder Deponierung) vorhanden sind. Einschränkungen für den Einsatz eines Nasswäschers können sich aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermengen in Trockengebieten ergeben.

Schwefelsäureanlage

Die SO₂-Rückgewinnung in einer Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage wird vorrangig bei Schmelzöfen angewendet, in denen eine Mischung aus primären und sekundären Einsatzstoffen verarbeitet wird, oder an Standorten, an denen Primär- und Sekundärblei erzeugt wird.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Da die Prozessbedingungen von Hütte zu Hütte sehr unterschiedlich sein können, müssen die Kosten der einzelnen Techniken im Einzelfall ermittelt und gegen die erreichbare Leistung abgewogen werden.

Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials

Bei einer Vorentschwefelung der Einsatzstoffe reduziert sich der Verbrauch von Zuschlägen und der Energieaufwand für die Schlackenbildung. Daher müssen die Kosten für die Vorentschwefelung des Einsatzmaterials gegen die resultierenden Vorteile, wie Fluss- und Schmelzmitteleinsparungen, kürzere Schmelzzeit, Energieeinsparungen und geringere Schlackenmengen zur Beseitigung, abgewogen werden.

Fixierung des Schwefels in der Einschmelzphase durch Zugabe von Additiven

Die Schwefelfixierung durch Zugabe von Eisen oder Soda ist aufgrund der Kosten für die Additive und der Handhabung der Produkte mit höheren Betriebskosten verbunden. Andererseits weist die entstehende Schlacke eine geringere Eluierbarkeit auf, was ihre Verwertung bzw. Deponierung vereinfacht.

Einblasen von Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat in den SO₂-haltigen Abgasstrom

Die Nachrüstung bestehender Anlagen mit einer Trockensorptionsstufe (Einblasen von Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat) ist relativ kostengünstig, sofern die Kapazität des vorhandenen Gewebefilters zur Abscheidung der zusätzlichen Staubmengen ausreicht. Hingegen sind die Kosten eines zusätzlichen Gewebefilters beträchtlich. Bei Einsatz von Kalksorten mit höherer spezifischer Oberfläche und/oder Rezirkulation des abgeschiedenen Filterstaubs werden geringere Kalkdosiermengen benötigt. Alternativ kann Natriumbicarbonat als Absorptionsmittel eingesetzt werden, das jedoch wesentlich teurer ist als Kalk.

Für die Anlage in Beerse wurden Investitionskosten von EUR 550 000 genannt (Mischkammer: EUR 100 000, zusätzliche Kosten für das Gewebefilter: EUR 190 000, Dosiersystem einschl. Silo: EUR 60 000).

Alkalische Wäsche nach vorhergehender Entstaubung

Nasswäscher sind mit einem hohen Investitionsaufwand verbunden. Bei einer Nachrüstung müssen unter Umständen auch Anpassungen in der bestehenden Abwasserreinigungsanlage vorgenommen werden.

Unabhängig davon welche Technik gewählt wird, sind die anfallenden Neben- oder Abfallprodukte bei den Betriebskosten zu berücksichtigen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Boliden Bergsöe (SE), Johnson Controls Recycling (DE), Kovohute Pribram (CZ), Campine (BE), Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE), HJ Enthoven & Sons (UK), Aurubis (DE), Umicore (BE), KGHM (PL) und Metallo-Chimique (BE)

Literatur

[346, Eurometaux 2010], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4.4 Einsatz von Nachverbrennungskammern zur thermischen Oxidation von Kohlenstoffmonoxid und organischen Kohlenstoffverbindungen einschl. PCDD/F

Beschreibung

Ein vollständiger Abbau und Ausbrand aller Kohlenstoffverbindungen und die Zerstörung von Dioxinen in der Nachverbrennungskammer setzt ein ausreichendes Sauerstoffangebot, hohe Temperaturen, eine intensive Durchmischung und ausreichende Verweilzeit voraus.

Technische Beschreibung

Zum Abbau organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen (einschl. PCDD/F) und CO kann eine Kombination aus Nachverbrennungskammer und Kühlsystem mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt werden.

In der Nachverbrennungskammer wird das Abgas mit Luftüberschuss unter turbulenten Bedingungen bei hohen Temperaturen ($> 850\text{ °C}$) und ausreichender Verweilzeit für die Oxidation aller organischen Kohlenstoffverbindungen und Zerstörung von Dioxinen nachverbrannt. Um eine Neubildung von Dioxinen zu unterbinden, wird das Abgas nach der Nachverbrennungskammer gequenchet (auf $< 250\text{ °C}$) oder ggf. in einem Wärmerückgewinnungssystem gekühlt.

Abbildung 5.5 zeigt eine Nachverbrennungskammer am Beispiel einer Bleibatterieeverwertungsanlage, in der das Schachtofenabgas zum Ausbrand und zur Zerstörung organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen (einschl. PCDD/F) thermisch behandelt wird.

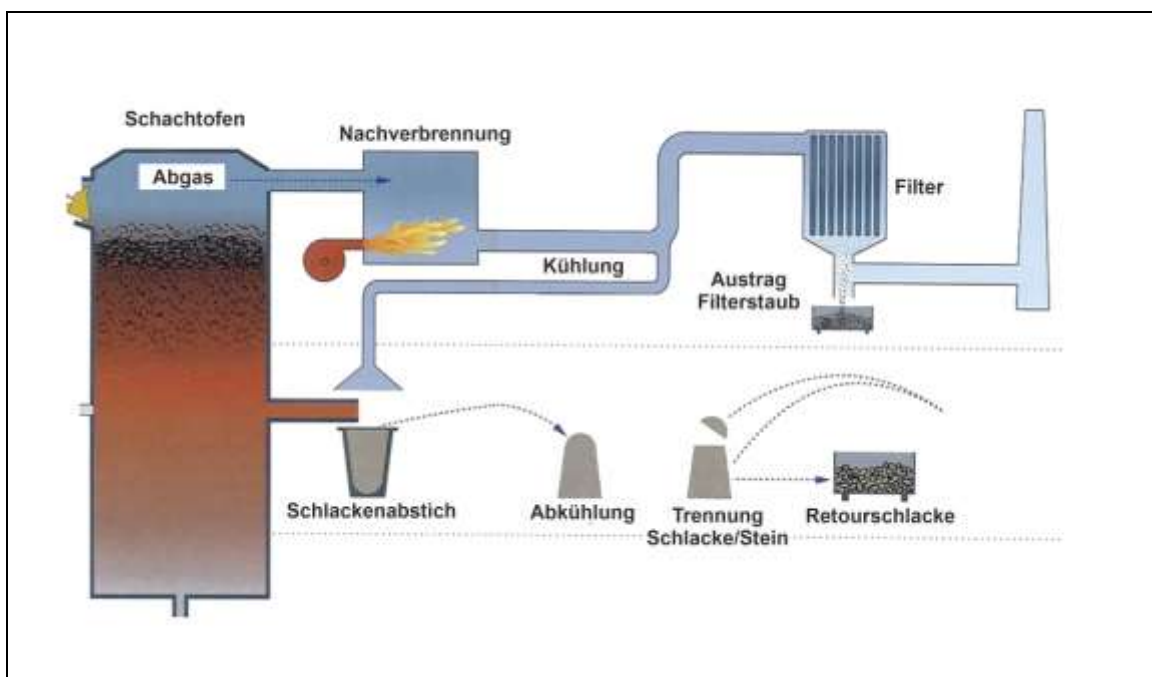


Abbildung 5.5: Nachverbrennungskammer in einer Sekundärbleihütte ohne Batterieaufbereitung (VARTA-Verfahren)

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung von CO- und VOC-Emissionen (einschl. PCDD/F)
- Energierückgewinnung, soweit möglich
- Geringere Kalkzugabemengen zur Schlackenbildung, wenn der kalkhaltige Staub in den Ofen zurückgeführt wird

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gegebenenfalls kann die im Abgas enthaltene Energie zurückgewonnen und intern zu Heizzwecken genutzt und/oder in ein Fernwärmenetz ausgekoppelt werden. Durch Nachverbrennung des Schachtofenabgases können 30-40 GWh Energie zurückgewonnen werden.

Am KGHM-Standort Głogów 1 wird in einem diskontinuierlichen Prozess Rohblei aus Kupferflugstaub gewonnen. Die Bleischmelzanlage besteht aus vier Schaukelöfen. Im ersten Schritt wird das Material aufgeheizt und getrocknet. Dabei gehen Kohlenwasserstoffe in die Gasphase über und organischer Kohlenstoff wird verbrannt. Jeder Schmelzofen ist mit einem

eigenen Nachverbrennungs- und Kühlsystem ausgestattet. Das Abgas der Schmelzöfen wird in einer zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus einer Mischkammer und einem Entstaubungssystem entstaubt und anschließend mit dem Rauchgas des Kraftwerks zusammengeführt und gemeinsam mit diesem entschwefelt.

Bei Umicore Hoboken wird das Abgas der Schachtofenanlage zunächst teilnachverbrannt, dann gekühlt und entstaubt und abschließend in einer Nachverbrennungskammer unter Wärmerückgewinnung vollständig ausgebrannt. Es werden Emissionswerte von < 0,005 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ für PCDD/PCDF und < 50 mg/Nm³ für CO erreicht.

Typische Emissionswerte einer Schachtofenanlage mit Nachverbrennungskammer sind in Tabelle 5.40 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 5.40: Emissionswerte einer Schachtofenanlage mit Nachverbrennungskammer

Parameter	Einheit	Wert
Prozessgasvolumenstrom (am Kamin)	m ³ /h	50 000–90 000
CO	mg/Nm ³	< 500
PCDD/PCDF	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	< 0,1
<i>Quelle: [397, ILA 2012]</i>		

Im Falle einer Wärmerückgewinnung können infolge von De-Novo-Synthese erhöhte PCDD/PCDF-Werte auftreten. Normalerweise liegen die Werte jedoch unter 0,3 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Tabelle 5.41: Emissionen aus Nachverbrennungskammern in der Sekundär-Blei- und Zinnerzeugung

Anlage	Technik	Luft-schadstoff	Mess-methode	Einheit	Werte			Messintervall
					Min.	Mittel-wert	Max.	
1	Nachbrenner	VOC		mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	
		CO		mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	
5	Nachverbren-nungskammer	VOC (angegeben als C)	EN13526	mg/Nm ³	31,2	32,4	33,5	2 x pro Jahr (4h-Probe)
		CO		mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	
11	Nachbrenner	TVOC	k.A.	mg/Nm ³	5	8	33	Stichprobe (4 x pro Jahr)
		CO		mg/Nm ³	7	47	315	Stichprobe (4x pro Jahr)
		NO ₂		mg/Nm ³	40	77	260	Stichprobe (4x pro Jahr)
15	Nachbrenner	TVOC	EN12619 EN13526	mg/Nm ³	3	15	27	2 x pro Jahr (1h-Probe)
		CO		mg/Nm ³	16	23	33	Stichprobe (4x pro Jahr)
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben <i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>								

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Höhere NO_x-Emissionen
- Brennstoffverbrauch, wenn die Enthalpie der Abgase nicht ausreicht, um die Verbrennung ohne zusätzlichen Energieeinsatz aufrechtzuerhalten

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Nachverbrennungskammern werden in Anlagen eingesetzt, in denen keine Kunststoffabtrennung vor dem Einschmelzen erfolgt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Folgende Kostenauswirkungen sind zu berücksichtigen:

- höherer Energieaufwand
- höhere Investitionskosten

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Wärmerückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

Metallo-Chimique (BE), Boliden Bergsöe (SE), Johnson Controls Recycling (DE), Kovohute Pribram (CZ), Campine (BE), KGHM Głogów (PL) und Umicore (BE)

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4.5 Einsatz regenerativer Nachverbrennungsanlagen (RNV) zur Oxidation organischer Kohlenstoffverbindungen einschl. PCDD/F

Beschreibung

Regenerative Nachverbrennungsanlagen (RNV) nutzen die Energie des aus der Brennkammer abgeführten Reingases zur Erwärmung des eintretenden Rohgases.

Technische Beschreibung

Eine RNV besteht aus einem oder mehreren mit keramischen Speichermassen bestückten Reaktoren, den sogenannten Regeneratoren, die wechselweise mit Rohgas und Reingas beaufschlagt werden. Das in den Regenerator eintretende Rohgas durchströmt das zuvor über das Reingas aufgeheizte Keramikbett und wird dort vor Eintritt in den Brennraum aufgeheizt.

Der Verfahrensablauf der RNV ist wie folgt:

- Das Rohgas tritt über den gemeinsamen Eintritt in die RNV ein und wird über eine zyklisch gesteuerte Klappe in einen zuvor aufgeheizten Regenerator geleitet.
- Beim Durchströmen der Wärmespeichermassen wird es auf eine Temperatur knapp unterhalb der Reaktionstemperatur aufgeheizt.
- Anschließend gelangt es in die Reaktionszone, in der mittels Brennern eine Temperatur von 850°C aufrechterhalten wird.
- Nach Oxidation der Schadstoffe im Brennraum wird das Reingas über einen weiteren Regenerator geleitet und gibt dort seine Energie wieder an die Speichermasse ab, die bei der nächsten Umschaltung wiederum zur Aufheizung des Rohgases genutzt wird.
- Das gekühlte Reingas tritt über die Austrittsklappe aus der Anlage aus.

Durch Nutzung der beim Schadstoffumsatz freigesetzten Wärme reduziert sich der Brennstoffverbrauch der Brenner.

Staubbeladene Abgase müssen vor Eintritt in die RNV in einem vorgeschalteten leistungsfähigen Staubabscheider entstaubt werden, um eine Verstopfung der Keramikbetten zu vermeiden. Das Ofenabgas kann mit VOC, Rest-CO, PCDD/F und Staub belastet sein. Die Abgasreinigung erfolgt in einem Gewebefilter mit nachgeschalteter RNV (siehe Abbildung 5.6). Der VOC-Gehalt im Reingas nach dem Gewebefilter wird überwacht. Bei Anstieg der VOC-Konzentration wird der Abgasweg auf die RNV umgeschaltet. Die RNV dient als optionale zusätzliche Reinigungsstufe und wird nur bei hohen VOC (einschl. PCDD/F)-Konzentrationen im Abgas, wie sie bei einigen Prozessen auftreten können, zugeschaltet. Staub-, SO₂- und VOC-Emissionen sowie der Reingasvolumenstrom werden kontinuierlich am Kamin gemessen.

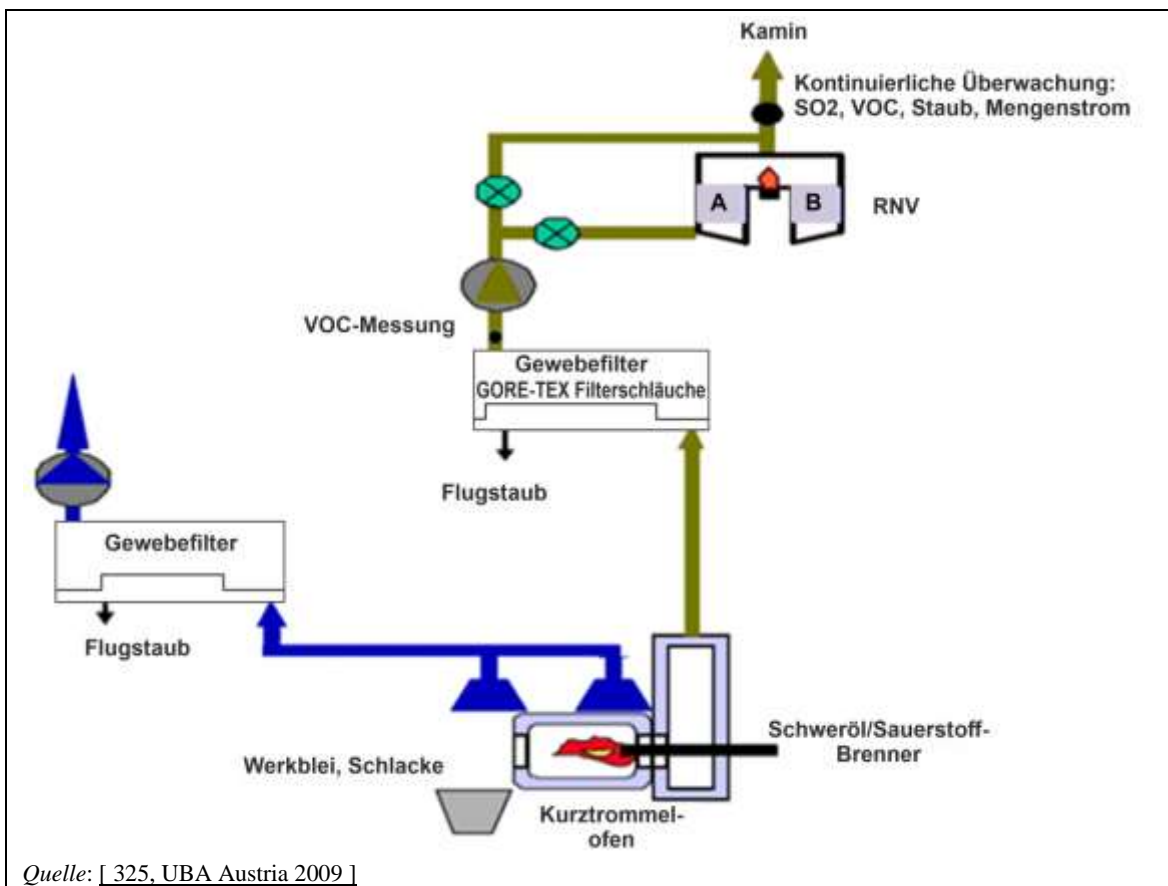


Abbildung 5.6: Prinzipschema einer regenerativen Nachverbrennungsanlage

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung von CO-, VOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen
- Brennstoffeinsparungen durch Rückgewinnung der im Abgas enthaltenen Energie

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zur Vermeidung von Emissionen beim Umschalten des Abgasstroms von einem Regenerator auf den anderen, wird eine Pufferkammer benötigt. Alternativ kann die RNV auch mit drei Regeneratoren betrieben werden.

Tabelle 5.42 zeigt die erreichten Emissionskonzentrationen für einige organische Luftschadstoffe nach Behandlung in einer RNV.

Tabelle 5.42: Gesamt C- und B[a]P-Emissionen am Hauptkamin

Emissionsstelle	Jahr	Gesamtkohlenstoff mg/Nm ³	Benzo[a]pyren mg/Nm ³
Kamin	2000	15,8	0,0016
	2003	11,4	n.v.
	2007	7,9	0,00685
Anmerkung: kontinuierliche Messung			

Die VOC-Emissionen liegen bei 15 mg/Nm³–40 mg/Nm³ mit einem Tagesmittelwert von 20 mg/Nm³ (kontinuierliche Messung), die PCDD/F-Emissionen bei 0,0231–0,0898 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ (Stichprobenmessung, Mittelwert über eine Probenahmedauer von 6 Stunden) [237, UBA (A) 2004], [372, BMG Metall und Recycling GmbH 2010]. Diese Technik ermöglicht einen autothermen Betrieb mit entsprechenden Brennstoffeinsparungen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieverbrauch, wenn die durch die Oxidation der Abgaskomponenten freigesetzte Wärme nicht ausreicht, um die notwendige Verbrennungstemperatur aufrechtzuerhalten

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Höhere Investitionskosten

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Geringerer Energiebedarf im Vergleich zu einer Nachverbrennungskammer

Beispielanlagen

BMG Metall und Recycling (AT)

Literatur

[325, Austria 2009], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.4.6 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft

Beschreibung

Die nachstehend aufgeführten Techniken können entweder einzeln oder in Kombination angewendet werden. Eine Beschreibung dieser Techniken ist in Abschnitt 2.12.5.3 zu finden.

- Reduzierung des Organik- und/oder Halogengehalts (z.B. Cl, Br) der Einsatzstoffe
- optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen
- bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen: Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen, die eine gleichmäßige Dosierung der Einsatzmaterialien in kleinen Mengen ermöglichen
- thermische Zerstörung von Dioxinen bei hohen Temperaturen (> 850 °C) im Schmelzofen
- Sauerstoffeindüsung in die obere Ofenzone
- Vermeidung von Abgassystemen, die zur Anreicherung von Flugascheablagerungen im kritischen Temperaturbereich > 250 °C führen
- Einsatz einer Nachverbrennungskammer, eines Nachbrenners (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.4.4) oder einer RNV (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.4.5)

- schnelles Durchfahren des kritischen Temperaturbereichs 400 °C–200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung
- Eindüsen eines Adsorbens (z.B. Aktivkohle, Braunkohlekoks, Kalk) in den Abgasstrom vor der Entstaubung
- Einsatz einer leistungsfähigen Entstaubungseinrichtung

Technische Beschreibung

Eine Beschreibung dieser Techniken ist Abschnitt 2.12.5.3 zu entnehmen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Reduzierung des Organik- und/oder Halogengehalts (z.B. Cl, Br) der Einsatzstoffe

- Minderung von PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft
- Höhere Schmelzleistung des Ofens

Optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen, Sauerstoffeindüsung in die obere Ofenzone und Einsatz einer TNV, eines Nachbrenners oder einer RNV

Reduzierung von PCDD/F-, VOC- und CO-Emissionen. Wenn die Abhitze des Nachbrenners nicht genutzt wird oder nicht verwertbar ist, ist eine RNV die energieeffizientere Lösung.

Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen, die bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen eine gleichmäßige Dosierung der Einsatzmaterialien in kleinen Mengen ermöglichen

- Vermeidung der Neubildung von PCDD/F
- Optimierung des Schmelzprozesses

Thermische Nachverbrennung von Dioxinen bei hohen Temperaturen (> 850 °C) im Schmelzofen, schnelles Durchfahren des Temperaturbereichs 400 °C–200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung und Vermeidung von Abgassystemen, die zur Anreicherung von Flugascheablagerungen im Temperaturbereich > 250 °C führen

Vermeidung der Bildung von PCDD/F im Wege der De-Novo-Synthese

Eindüsen eines Adsorbens (z.B. Aktivkohle, Braunkohlekoks, Kalk) in den Abgasstrom vor der Entstaubung

Minderung von PCDD/F-, VOC- und Metallemissionen

Einsatz einer leistungsfähigen Entstaubungseinrichtung

Minderung von PCDD/F-, Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zur Entfernung von organischen und Halogenverunreinigungen kann eine Vorbehandlung des Schrotts erfolgen. Üblicherweise werden jedoch Nachverbrennungskammern in Verbindung mit einer nachgeschalteten Gasquenche zur Behandlung der entstehenden Abgase eingesetzt. In Fällen, in denen eine thermische Behandlung des Ofenabgases in einer Nachverbrennungskammer nicht möglich ist, kann eine Nachverbrennung durch Sauerstoffzugabe in den Bereich oberhalb der Schmelzzone erreicht werden.

Der Mini-Smelter bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse ist mit einem nachgeschalteten Trockenadsorptionsfilter (Sorbaliteindüsung und Gewebefilter) zur Dioxinabscheidung ausgestattet. Zusätzlich ist am Ofenaustritt ein Nachbrenner installiert (siehe Abbildung 5.7).

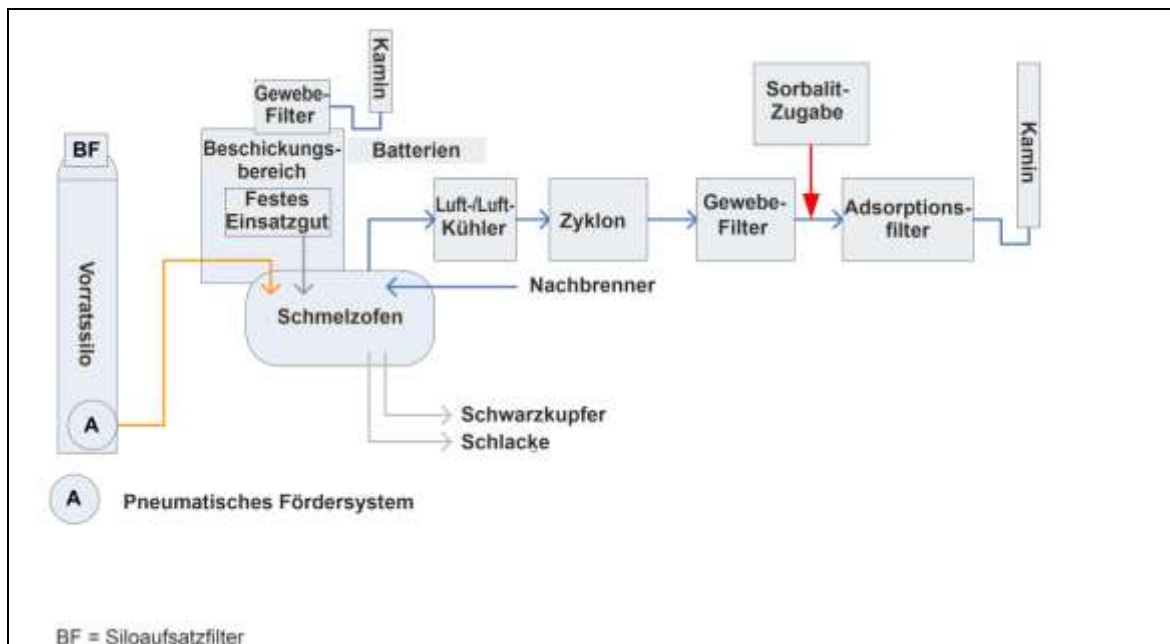


Abbildung 5.7: Nachgeschaltete PCDD/F-Minderungstechniken des Mini-Smelters bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse

Das nachgeschaltete Trockenadsorptionsfilter ist für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von 100 000 Nm³/h ausgelegt. PCDD/F-Emissionsmessungen werden zweimal pro Jahr über eine Probenahmedauer von jeweils sechs Stunden durchgeführt. Es werden Emissionswerte < 0,1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ erreicht. Reingasstaubemissionen werden mittels eines triboelektrischen Messgeräts kontinuierlich überwacht.

Bei Aurubis Hamburg werden Dioxine durch thermische Nachverbrennung im Elektroofen bei hohen Temperaturen (> 950°C) zerstört. Eine Neubildung von Dioxinen wird durch schnelle Abgaskühlung unterbunden. Darüber hinaus wirkt die weitere Abgasbehandlung in der Schwefelsäureanlage der De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen entgegen.

Umicore betreibt am Standort Hoboken einen ISASMELT-Ofen mit einer Schmelzleistung von 1000 t/d (diskontinuierliches Verfahren). Das Primärabgas wird einer Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt. Die PCDD/F-Werte nach der Schwefelsäureanlage liegen unter 0,001 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ (Stichprobenmessung, Mittelwert über eine Probenahmedauer von sechs Stunden). Das Schachtofenabgas wird in zwei Stufen nachverbrannt und durchläuft danach zwei Filterstufen. Die PCDD/F-Konzentrationen liegen unter 0,005 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Tabelle 5.43 zeigt Dioxinemissionswerte aus der Überwachung einiger Anlagen in der EU-28 gemäß Angaben der ILA.

Tabelle 5.43: PCDD/F-Emissionen von Blei- und Zinnschmelzöfen

Anlage	Technik	PCDD/F-Emissionen (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)			Ofentyp	Messintervall
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
1	Nachbrenner, De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen im Economiser und Kalkdosierung	0,1	0,2	0,3	Schachtofen	1 x pro Jahr
5	Nachverbrennungskammer, HT-Gewebe- filter, Flüssigmedien, Abgasentschwefelung	0,1	0,1	0,1	Kombination von Herd- und Trommelöfen	1 x pro Jahr
6	Gewebe- filter	0,1	0,1	0,1	Kurztrommel- ofen	alle 3 Jahre
7	k.A.	< 0,01	0,025	0,08	Trommelofen A	5 x pro Jahr
	k.A.	0,01	0,1	0,21	Trommelofen B	4 x pro Jahr
9	Nachverbrennungskammer, schnelle Abgaskühlung, z.T. De-Novo-Synthese von Dioxinen im Economiser und Kalkdosierung	0,01	0,04	0,2	Schachtofen	alle 3 Jahre
11	Nachbrenner	0,0181	0,038	0,0584	Schachtofen	Stichproben (3 x pro Jahr)
12	Gewebe- filter	0,05	0,05	0,05	Schmelzofen	1 x pro Jahr
13	Sorbalitdosierung + Gewebe- filter	<0,005	<0,005	<0,005	Mini-Smelter	2 x pro Jahr
14	Gewebe- filter	0,0187	0,0413	0,0639	Trommelofen	2 x pro Jahr
15	Nachbrenner und Gewebe- filter	k.A.	<0,005	k.A.	Schachtofen	1 x pro Jahr
	Schwefelsäureanlage	k.A.	<0,001	k.A.	ISASMELT	2 x pro Jahr

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die erforderliche Additivdosierung und -zusammensetzung werden maßgeblich von den Prozessbedingungen und der Herkunft und Zusammensetzung der Einsatzstoffe bestimmt. Zur Reduzierung der Adsorbenskosten kann der Filterstaub komplett oder teilweise in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Reduzierung des Organik- und/oder Halogengehalts (z.B. Cl, Br) der Einsatzstoffe

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Kosten für zusätzliche Ausrüstungen und/oder Additive

Optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Sauerstoffeindüsung in die obere Ofenzone

Höhere Betriebskosten aufgrund der Kosten der Sauerstoffbereitstellung

Einsatz einer Nachverbrennungskammer, eines Nachbrenners oder einer RNV

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Zusätzlicher apparativer Aufwand
- Eventuell höhere NO_x-Emissionen

Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen, die bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen eine gleichmäßige Dosierung der Einsatzmaterialien in kleinen Mengen ermöglichen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Thermische Nachverbrennung von Dioxinen bei hohen Temperaturen (> 850 °C) im Schmelzofen, schnelles Durchfahren des Temperaturbereichs 400 °C–200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung und Vermeidung von Abgassystemen, die zur Anreicherung von Flugascheablagerungen im Temperaturbereich > 250 °C führen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Eindüsen eines Adsorbens (z.B. Aktivkohle, Braunkohlekoks, Kalk) in den Abgasstrom vor der Entstaubung

Höhere Kosten bedingt durch die erforderlichen Additive und die Aufbereitung des anfallenden Reststoffs

Leistungsfähige Entstaubungseinrichtung

Der abgeschiedene Staub kann sehr hohe PCDD/F-Konzentrationen aufweisen und muss ggf. deponiert oder vor Rückführung in den Produktionsprozess einer sorgfältigen Behandlung unterzogen werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können je nach Art der verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffe und eingesetzten Ofentechnologie in Blei- und Zinnkreisläufen in neuen und bestehenden Kupferhütten angewendet werden.

Reduzierung des Organik- und/oder Halogengehalts (z.B. Cl, Br) der Einsatzstoffe

Welche Techniken zur Kontrolle, Auswahl und Sortierung der Einsatzstoffe und Schrotte eingesetzt werden, hängt von der jeweiligen Ofentechnologie und dem eingesetzten Verfahren ab.

Optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen

Allgemein anwendbar

Sauerstoffeindüsung in die obere Ofenzone

Allgemein anwendbar

Einsatz einer Nachverbrennungskammer, eines Nachbrenners oder einer RNV

Allgemein anwendbar

Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen für halbgeschlossene Öfen, die eine gleichmäßige Dosierung der Einsatzmaterialien in kleinen Mengen ermöglichen

Abhängig vom Ofentyp und eingesetzten Verfahren allgemein anwendbar

Thermische Nachverbrennung von Dioxinen bei hohen Temperaturen (> 850 °C) im Schmelzofen

Allgemein anwendbar

Schnelles Durchfahren des Temperaturbereichs 400 °C–200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung

Allgemein anwendbar. Bei der Wärmerückgewinnung können sich Dioxine durch De-Novo-Synthese bilden.

Vermeidung von Abgassystemen, die zur Anreicherung von Flugascheablagerungen im Temperaturbereich > 250 °C führen

Allgemein anwendbar

Eindüsen eines Adsorbens (z.B. Aktivkohle, Braunkohlekoks, Kalk) in den Abgasstrom vor der Entstaubung

Allgemein anwendbar

Leistungsfähige Entstaubungseinrichtung

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Zur Reduzierung der Adsorbenskosten kann der Filterstaub in den Prozess zurückgeführt werden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Metallo-Chimique Beerse (BE), Aurubis (DE), Umicore (BE) und BMG Metall und Recycling GmbH (AT)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.5 Umschmelzen, Raffinieren, Legieren und Gießen in der Blei- und Zinnerzeugung

5.3.5.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Umschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und Zinn

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Temperaturführung der Schmelze
- geschlossene mechanische Skimmer zum Abziehen staubender Krätze/Rückstände
- Verschließen der Öfen oder Kessel mit Deckeln oder Hauben mit Dämpfeerfassung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)
- Vakuumschmelz- und Raffinationstechnologie

Technische Beschreibung

Welche Minderungstechniken eingesetzt werden, ist abhängig von den jeweiligen Raffinationsschritten und den gebildeten Reaktionsprodukten.

Temperaturführung der Schmelze

Neben der Reduzierung von Blei- und sonstigen gasförmigen Emissionen ist eine gute Temperaturführung der Schmelze auch im Hinblick auf die Prozessführung und die Energieeffizienz des Ofens wichtig.

Zinnemissionen lassen sich vermeiden, wenn die Schmelze bei Temperaturen < 500 °C raffiniert und vergossen wird. Wie aus den Dampfdruckkurven in Abbildung 5.8 hervorgeht, hat Zinn bis zu mehreren hundert Grad Celsius über seinem Schmelzpunkt einen sehr niedrigen (im

Vergleich zu Blei vernachlässigbaren) Dampfdruck. Die Grafik wurde von Metallo-Chimique auf Basis der in [364, Metallo-Chimique 2014] aufgeführten Daten erstellt.

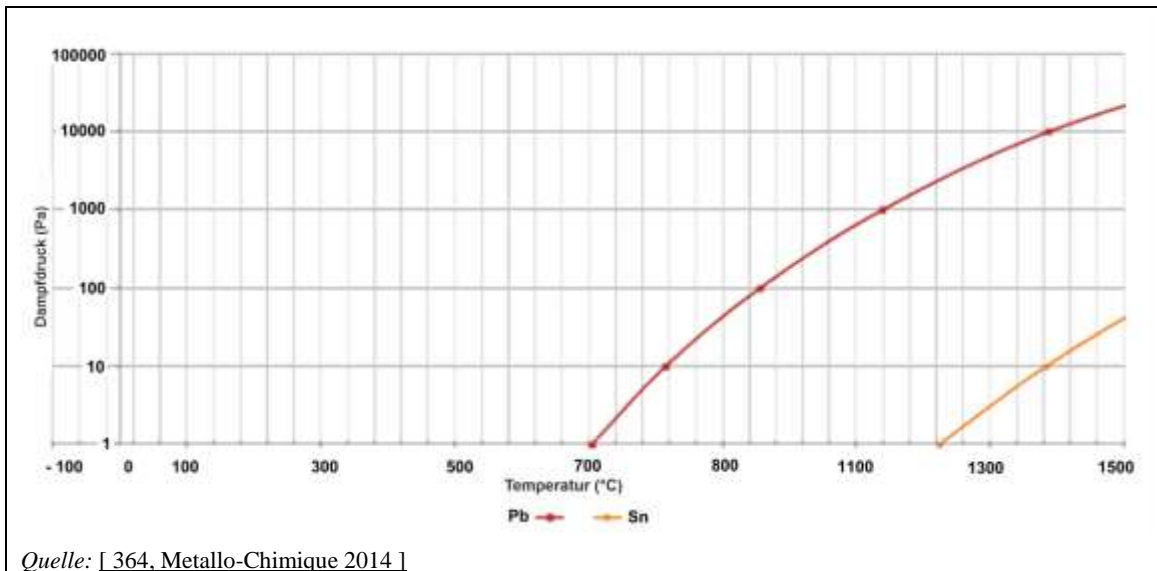


Abbildung 5.8: Gegenüberstellung von Blei- und Zinndampfdrücken

Geschlossene mechanische Skimmer zum Abziehen staubender Krätze/Rückstände

Staubende Krätze/Rückstände werden mittels eines mechanischen Skimmers abgezogen und in geschlossene Behälter ausgetragen.

Verschließen der Öfen oder Kessel mit Deckeln oder Hauben mit Dämpferfassung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3)

Blei- und Zinnmaterialien werden in Tiegelöfen oder Raffinationskesseln eingeschmolzen. Zur Erfassung von Emissionen sind diese unter einer Absaughaube angeordnet. Raffinationskessel können mit Deckeln versehen werden, die während der Raffinationsreaktionen und Chemikaliengabe verschlossen bleiben. Die Bleischmelze wird automatisch in einem geschlossenen System umgepumpt und von einer Raffinationsstufe zur nächsten geleitet. Gießrinnen und Abstichöffnungen sollten ebenfalls mit Abgasersfassungssystemen ausgestattet werden. Das erfasste Abgas wird anschließend in einem Gewebefilter bzw. im Fall von Abgas aus nassen Raffinationsprozessen oder bei Vorliegen klebriger Abgasinhaltsstoffe (z.B. Natriumsulfat) in Nasswäschern gereinigt.

Vakuumschmelz- und Raffinationstechnologie

Eine weitere Methode zur Trennung von Blei-Zinnlegierungen in Blei und Zinn ist die Vakuumdestillation bei hohen Temperaturen.

Bezüglich Informationen zu weiteren eingesetzten Techniken, siehe Abschnittsverweise oben.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Temperaturführung der Schmelze

Vermeidung von Schwermetallemissionen und Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs

Geschlossene mechanische Skimmer zum Abziehen staubender Krätze/Rückstände

Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen

Verschließen der Öfen oder Kessel mit Deckeln oder Hauben mit Dämpferfassung

Minderung diffuser Emissionen

Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Staub- und Schwermetallemissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt.

Nasswäscher

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2.

Vakuumschmelz- und Raffinationstechnologie

Minderung von Staub- und Schwermetallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zum Umschmelzen, Raffinieren und Legieren werden gewöhnlich indirekt beheizte Tiegelöfen oder elektrisch-, öl- oder gasbeheizte Raffinationskessel eingesetzt. Darüber hinaus kommen auch direkt beheizte Kessel mit Gasbrennern zur Anwendung. Raffinationskessel sind nicht geeignet zum Einschmelzen von stark organisch verunreinigten Schrotten (Blei und Zinn). Alle Aggregate sind in einer geschlossenen Halle untergebracht und mit zusätzlichen Maßnahmen zur Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Hallenatmosphäre versehen.

Metallo-Chimique verwendet ein Vakuumdestillationsverfahren zur Trennung einer Blei-Zinn-Legierung. Das (Um)schmelzen und die Raffination erfolgen in Kesseln. Die Staubemissionswerte dieser Verarbeitungsschritte sind in Tabelle 5.44 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 5.44: Emissionen aus dem Raffinationsprozess bei Metallo-Chimique Beerse

Ofentyp	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen
Kessel	Gewebefilter	Staub < 5 mg/Nm ³
Vakuuofen	keine	nicht relevant
<i>Quelle: [397, ILA 2012]</i>		

Bei Aurubis Hamburg und KGHM Legnica sind die Raffinationskessel mit Deckeln versehen, die während der Raffinationsreaktionen und Chemikalienzugabe verschlossen bleiben. Im Schmelzofen wird ausschließlich großformatiges Blockmaterial/Schrott eingeschmolzen. Rauche/Dämpfe werden über Absaugeinrichtungen erfasst. Die Bleischmelze wird automatisch in einem geschlossenen System umgepumpt und von einem zum nächsten Raffinationsschritt geleitet. Staubende Krätze/Rückstände werden mit Hilfe eines mechanischen Skimmers abgezogen und in geschlossene Behälter ausgetragen. Die beim Vergießen der Bleischmelze freigesetzten Dämpfe/Rauche werden über Absaughaben erfasst. Alle erfassten Abgasströme aus der Bleiraffination werden in einem zentralen Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die Staubemissionen werden kontinuierlich gemessen. Die Halbstundenmittelwerte liegen bei 0,5 mg/Nm³–10 mg/Nm³, die Tagesmittelwerte bei 0,5 mg/Nm³–4,9 mg/Nm³.

In der Bleiraffinerie am Standort Umicore Hoboken wird Rohblei in einer Reihe von Kesseln, die über Low-NO_x-Brenner beheizt werden, raffiniert. Die Abwärme der Brenner wird zur Erzeugung von 10 bar-Dampf in einem Dampfkessel genutzt. Alle Kessel sind mit Deckeln verschlossen und werden unter Unterdruck gehalten. Das Abziehen der Krätze erfolgt automatisch über ein geschlossenes Skimmer-System mit Absaugeinrichtung. Das Abgas aus allen trockenen Prozessen wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Sb-, Sn- und As-Salze werden in der Harris-Apparatur vom Blei abgetrennt und nassmetallurgisch weiterverarbeitet. Die in diesen Prozessen freigesetzten Abgase und Dämpfe werden mit dem Abgasstrom der Raffinationskessel, in denen Natriumhydroxid eingesetzt wird, zusammengeführt und gemeinsam in einem Nasswäscher gereinigt.

Emissionsdaten für den Gieß- und Raffinationsprozess sind aufgeführt.

Tabelle 5.45: Emissionen aus dem Raffinations- und Gießprozess

Anlage	Technik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)			Messwerterfassung/ Messintervall	
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
2.1	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,28	0,44	1,02	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	1,56	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,04	k.A.		
2.2	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,27	0,64	2,75	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	0,61	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,08	k.A.		
2.3	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,33	0,46	2,37	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	0,32	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,14	k.A.		
2.4	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,14	0,23	3,81	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	0,79	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,06	k.A.		
2.5	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,16	0,26	0,94	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	1,1	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,04	k.A.		
2.6	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,13	0,4	2	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	1,3	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,03	k.A.		
2.7	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,98	1,78	3	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)	
		Staub	k.A.	0,35	k.A.	1 x pro Jahr	
		Pb	k.A.	0,25	k.A.		
5.1	Gewebefilter (85 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	0,015	0,097	0,26	4 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 4 h)	
		Pd	0,003	0,014	0,033		
		Cd	0	0	0		
		Cu+Pb+Zn+Ni und ihre Verbindungen	0,005	0,017	0,036		
		Sb, Sn, Te und ihre Verbindungen	0,004	0,005	0,006		
		Cd+As+Hg+Tl+Se und ihre Verbindungen	0,006	0,008	0,01		
		TVOC	12,3	15	17,6		2 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 4 h)
PCDD/F (ng I-EQ/Nm ³)	0,05	0,05	0,05	1 x pro Jahr			
5.2	Venturi- wäscher, Gewebefilter (42 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	0,3	1	10	4 x pro Jahr (Mittelwert über 4 h)	
		Pb und seine Verbindungen	0,009	0,39	1,3		
		Cd und seine Verbindungen	0,001	0,001	0,003		
		Cu+Pb+Zn+Ni und ihre Verbindungen	0,09	0,41	1,3		
		Sb, Sn, Te und ihre Verbindungen	0,003	0,032	0,094		
		Cd+As+Hg+Tl+Se und ihre Verbindungen	0,007	0,027	0,054		
		VOC (angegeben als Kohlenstoff)	9,5	29,3	49		2 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 4 h)
		HCl	0,17	0,17	0,17		1 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 4 h)
		SO ₂	1	5	10		
		PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)	0,06	0,06	0,06		1 x pro Jahr

6.1	Gewebefilter (Kessel- absaugung)	Staub	< 1	< 1	< 1	kontinuierlich (Halbstundenmittelwert)
		Pb	< 1	< 1	< 1	1 x pro Jahr
		Hg+Tl	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01	
		Pb+Ni+Se	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	alle 3 Jahre
		Sb+Cu+Sn	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	
As+Cd	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01			
7.1	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	1	4,6	5 x pro Jahr
		Pb	< 0,05	0,11	0,4	
		As+Cd	< 0,005	0,07	0,26	
7.2	Gewebefilter	Staub	< 0,5	0,16	0,3	3 x pro Jahr
		Pb	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	1 x pro Jahr
		As+Cd	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	
10.1	Gewebefilter	PM ₁₀	0,02	0,82	2	4 x pro Jahr
		Cu staubgebunden	0,0003	0,006	0,04	
		Pb staubgebunden	0,0008	0,11	0,8	
		As staubgebunden	0,0001	0,004	0,028	
		NO ₂	0,02	2	36	
		SO ₂	0,15	1,6	21	
		CO	2,5	15	37	
10.2	Gewebefilter	PM ₁₀	0,02	0,82	2	4 x pro Jahr
		Cu staubgebunden	0,0003	0,006	0,04	
		Pb staubgebunden	0,0009	0,11	0,8	
		As staubgebunden	0,0001	0,0042	0,028	
		NO ₂	0,02	2	36	
		SO ₂	1,5	180	770	
		CO	2,5	15	37	
13	Gewebefilter	PM ₁₀	k.A.	< 0,5	k.A.	2 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 4h)
		Cu		<0,0005		
		Pb		0,0011		
		Zn		0,0018		
		Cd		<0,0005		
		As		<0,0005		
		Sb		<0,0005		
		Ni		<0,0005		
14	Gewebefilter	Staub	0,17	1,4	4,6	alle 15 Tage
		Pb	0,001	0,04	0,4	
		Zn+Sb+Cu+Cr +Mn+As+Cd+Ni	0,003	0,04	0,13	
15.1	Gewebefilter (90 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	0,02	0,2	0,86	Staub: 6 x pro Jahr Metalle: 2 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 3–5 h)
		Pb	0,02	0,06	0,09	
		Cu	0,005	0,006	0,007	
		As	0,0007	0,004	0,007	
		Sb	0,02	0,25	0,49	
		Zn	0,007	0,008	0,008	
15.2	Nasswäscher (70 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	0,42	2,17	6,01	13 x pro Jahr (Probenahmedauer 2–5 h)
		Pb	0,01	0,17	1,19	
		Cu	0,0004	0,01	0,05	
		As	0,001	0,02	0,09	
		Sb	0,14	0,92	2,18	
		Zn	0,0006	0,03	0,2	
16	Absaughauben, Gewebefilter, Saugzuggebläse	Staub	0,03	0,31	0,84	24 x pro Jahr
		Pb	0,02	0,13	0,4	12 x pro Jahr
		Cd	< 0,001	< 0,001	0,002	
		Sb	< 0,001	< 0,001	0,011	
18	Gewebefilter (100 000 Nm ³ /h)	Staub	0,5	k.A.	4,9	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwert)
		Cu	< 0,01		0,1	4 x pro Jahr (3 Proben x 30 min)
		Pb	0,01		0,31	

		Ni		< 0,02	
		As	< 0,01	0,3	
		Cd	< 0,01	0,02	
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [385, Germany 2012]					

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Temperaturführung der Schmelze

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Geschlossene mechanische Skimmer zum Abziehen staubender Krätze/Rückstände

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Verschließen der Öfen oder Kessel mit Deckeln oder Hauben mit Dämpfeerfassung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Der abgeschiedene Staub muss intern oder extern zur Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle aufgearbeitet werden.

Nasswäscher

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2.

Vakuumschmelz- und Raffinationstechnologie

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken sind generell anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

KGHM (PL), Muldenhütten Recycling und Umwelttechnik (DE), BSB Recycling (DE), HJ Enthoven & Sons (UK), Metallo-Chimique (BE), Weser-Metall (DE), Aurubis (DE) und Umicore (BE)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.6 Abwasser

5.3.6.1 Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung

Beschreibung

Alle Abwässer der Blei- und Zinngewinnungsanlage müssen vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter einer Behandlung unterzogen werden [397, ILA 2012].

Zur Reduzierung der behandlungsbedürftigen Abwassermengen kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- Mehrfachnutzung von Abwasserströmen durch
 - Kaskadenführung von Kühlwasser
 - Nutzung von Kühlwasser oder Dampfkondensat für Prozesszwecke
 - Wiederverwendung von Prozessabwässern an anderer Stelle, soweit möglich
- Verzicht auf Nassverfahren bei der Abgasreinigung
- Einsatz geschlossener Kühlkreisläufe mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher
- Minimierung des Wasserausfalls in Verdampfungskühlern
- Rückführung von Wässern in die Prozessstufe ihrer Entstehung nach Behandlung
- getrennte Kanalsysteme für unbelastete Abwässer (Niederschlagswasser, indirektes Kühlwasser) und Prozessabwässer. Anmerkung: direktes Kühlwasser gilt als Prozessabwasser.

Technische Beschreibung

Mehrfachnutzung von Abwasserströmen durch Wiederverwendung von Dampfkondensat für Prozesszwecke

Beim alkalischen Laugungsverfahren wird das bei der Natriumsulfat-Kristallisation anfallende Wasser wieder zum Ansetzten der Alkalisalzlösung verwendet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Frischwasserverbrauchs
- Reduzierung der aufzuwendenden Pumpenenergie
- Reduzierung des Additiveinsatzes für die Abwasserbehandlung
- Verringerung der in das Aufnahmegewässer eingeleiteten Abwassermengen und damit der eingeleiteten Schmutzfracht
- Reduzierung der Wärmelast des Aufnahmegewässers

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Umicore Hoboken wird das zur Kühlung in den Abgasstrom des Schmelzofens eingedüste Wasser zusammen mit dem verdampften Wasser aus der Ofencharge kondensiert und wieder zum Quenchen des Abgasstroms verwendet. Die Reinigung des Schachtofengases erfolgt mittels eines trockenen Verfahrens, so dass hier kein Abwasser anfällt. Alle trockenen Abgase aus der Bleiraffination werden in einem Gewebefilter gereinigt. Nasswäscher werden nur bei Abgasen mit hohem Feuchtigkeitsgehalt oder mit klebrigen Inhaltsstoffen eingesetzt. Niederschlagswasser, Ablaufwasser aus der Materialbefeuchtung, Kühlwasser, Oberflächenwasser usw. werden in einem getrennten Kanalsystem gesammelt, aufbereitet und als Berieselungs- und Kühlwasser genutzt. Auf diese Weise werden 60 % des Gesamtwasserbedarfs der Hütte gedeckt. Der Wasserausfall in Verdampfungskühlern wird minimiert.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Höhere Investitionskosten
- Höherer verfahrenstechnischer Aufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Mehrfachnutzung von Abwasserströmen bzw. Rückführung von Wässern in die Prozessstufe ihrer Entstehung nach Behandlung

Diese Techniken sind nur anwendbar, wenn die jeweiligen Wasserströme die Kriterien des Prozesses, dem sie zugeführt werden, wie z.B. Volumenstrom, Temperatur, Zusammensetzung und Azidität, erfüllen.

Verzicht auf Nassverfahren bei der Abgasreinigung

Der Verzicht auf Nassverfahren ist nicht immer möglich, z.B. bei Abgasen mit hohem Feuchtegehalt oder Abgasen, die mit Säurenebeln oder klebrigen Substanzen beladen sind.

Einsatz geschlossener Kühlkreisläufe mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher

Gegenüber Verdampfungskühlern ist der Platzbedarf für geschlossene Kühlkreisläufe mit Luftkühlern als Sekundärwärmetauscher wegen deren geringerer Wärmeübertragungsleistung um ein Vielfaches höher.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Bei einigen bestehenden Hütten kann die Umsetzung dieser Techniken mit einem hohen Investitionsaufwand verbunden sein.

Mehrfachnutzung von Abwasserströmen

Die Mehrfachnutzung von Wasserströmen erfordert zusätzliche Investitionen in Pufferkapazitäten, um Mengenschwankungen zwischen dem Wasser-Input und Wasser-Output der jeweiligen Prozesse auszugleichen.

Getrennte Kanalsysteme für unbelastete Abwässer und Prozessabwässer

Die Einrichtung getrennter Kanalsysteme wird von wirtschaftlichen Überlegungen bestimmt, wobei der Investitionsaufwand und die potenziell rückgewinnbare Niederschlagswassermenge gegeneinander abgewogen werden müssen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Kosteneinsparung bei der Abwasserbehandlung durch Abwasservermeidung

Beispielanlagen

Alle Hütten in Europa

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.6.2 Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserbehandlung

Beschreibung

In der Mehrzahl der Anlagen in der EU 28 wird das Abwasser physikalisch-chemisch behandelt. Die Abwasserreinigung umfasst die folgenden Stufen:

- Sedimentation
- ggf. Oxidation
- Hydroxidfällung
- Sulfidfällung
- ggf. Eisen(III)sulfatzugabe zur Nachfällung von überschüssigem Sulfid
- FeCl₃-Dosierung zur Eliminierung von Arsen
- Filtration
- pH-Wert-Einstellung

Technische Beschreibung

Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) besteht aus mehreren Stufen, in denen alle anfallenden Abwasserströme behandelt werden. Auf eine Teilstrombehandlung oder Vorbehandlung einzelner Abwasserströme kann im Allgemeinen verzichtet werden, da hierdurch keine Verbesserung der Abwasserqualität erreicht werden kann [397, ILA 2012].

In Blei- und Zinngewinnungsanlagen in der EU 28 besteht eine typische AWA aus einer Hydroxidfällstufe, der in einigen Fällen eine Sulfidfällstufe nachgeschaltet ist. Zur Entfernung von Restarsen durch Zugabe von FeCl_3 kann zusätzlich eine Arsenfällstufe vorgesehen sein. Soweit notwendig (z.B. bei Direkteinleitung in einen Fluss) kann der Sulfidüberschuss durch Zugabe von Fe-(III)-sulfat eliminiert werden.

Sedimentation und ggf. Oxidation

Alle Prozessabwässer können in einem Sammelbecken mit ausreichender Kapazität zusammengeführt werden. Das Sammelbecken kann vor oder nach dem Eintritt einen ausreichend dimensionierten Bereich mit einem Untertritt haben, so dass aufschwimmende Anteile im Abwasser (Kunststoffe, Öle) mechanisch entfernt werden können. Durch Zugabe von Schwefelsäure oder Natriumhydroxid wird sichergestellt, dass sich der pH-Wert des weiter zu behandelnden Abwasserstroms im Regelbereich der nachfolgenden Dosiereinrichtungen befindet. Bei Abwässern mit höheren Sulfitgehalten kann eine Oxidation (mit Luft oder Chemikalien) erforderlich werden.

Das gleiche Konzept bietet sich auch für Niederschlagswasser an, wobei in diesem Fall ein Teil des Wassers zur Wiederverwendung zurückgepumpt werden kann.

Hydroxidfällung

Aus dem Sammelbecken wird das Abwasser in die erste Fällstufe gepumpt. In einem Rührwerksbehälter erfolgt die Zudosierung von Natronlauge bis zu einem pH-Wert von 9,5–10,0 und die Zugabe von Flockungshilfsmitteln. Die ausgeschiedenen Hydroxidflocken werden durch Filtration oder Sedimentation und Filtration von der Wasserphase getrennt. In dieser Reinigungsstufe oder einer zweiten Hydroxidfällstufe kann dem Abwasser FeCl_3 zur Arsenentfernung zugegeben werden.

Sulfidfällung

Das Abwasser gelangt anschließend in eine zweite Fällstufe, in der durch Zugabe von Schwefelsäure ein pH-Wert von 7,5–8,5 eingestellt wird. Durch Zudosierung einer Natriumsulfid-/Natriumhydrogensulfidlösung werden noch gelöste Metallionen als schwer löslicher Sulfidniederschlag ausgefällt, der durch Filtration oder Sedimentation und Filtration von der Wasserphase abgetrennt werden kann.

Dosierung einer Eisen-(II)-sulfatlösung

Der Überschuss an Sulfidionen wird ggf. durch Zugabe einer ausreichenden Menge an Fe-(III)-Salz-Lösung in einer weiteren Fällstufe beseitigt und der entstandene Niederschlag abfiltriert (z.B. in einer Filterpresse plus Sandfilter oder einem Membranfilter).

Unbelastetes Kühlwasser sollte vorzugsweise wiederverwendet werden, ggf. nach vorheriger Kühlung in einem Luftkühler. Sollte eine Wiederverwendung nicht möglich sein, kann eine separate Ableitung erfolgen, sofern das Aufnahmegewässer die Wärmelast aufnehmen kann.

Abhängig von den lokalen Bedingungen kann eine Vorreinigung zur Abtrennung von Feststoffen, in denen der überwiegende Metallanteil enthalten ist, erforderlich werden, um die Metallbelastung des in der kommunalen Abwasserreinigungsanlage anfallenden Klärschlammes zu reduzieren, insbesondere wenn dieser in der Landwirtschaft verwertet wird.

Wenn die Bleigewinnungsanlage in eine Kupferhütte integriert ist, werden die relativ kleinen Abwasserströme der Bleigewinnungsanlage in die jeweiligen Abwassersysteme eingeleitet. Niederschlagswasser und Abschlammungen aus Kühlwasserkreisläufen werden in den

Abwasserkanal geleitet und der AWA zugeführt. Zu diesem Zweck wird das Niederschlagswasser in einem Pufferbecken gesammelt. Die Reinigung erfolgt durch Koagulation mit Hilfe eines Polyelektrolyten.

Sanitärabwasser wird über ein separates Abwasserkanalsystem in die öffentliche Abwasserkanalisation oder einen geeigneten Faultank geleitet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Verringerung der Abwasserschadstofffracht

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zur Überwachung der Abwasserqualität werden im Ablauf kontinuierlich der pH-Wert und Volumenstrom gemessen und je nach Genehmigungsaufgaben kontinuierlich (täglich, pro Schicht oder in anderen Intervallen) Sammelproben oder in regelmäßigen Abständen Stichproben gezogen. Von den Proben werden die Gehalte an Pb, Cd, As, Cu, Fe und je nach Genehmigungsaufgaben weitere Metalle und Parameter untersucht. Abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen und Produktionsverfahren können bis zu 6 m³ Abwasser pro Tonne Blei anfallen [397, ILA 2012].

Tabelle 5.46: Emissionen in das Wasser aus der Blei- und Zinnerzeugung

Anlage (Aufnah- mege- wässer)	Abwasser und Behandlungstechnik	Schadstoff	Frachten (mg/l)			Messintervall
			Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.	
1 (Meer)	Prozessabwässer und erfasstes Niederschlags-/Oberflächenwasser aus dem Betriebsbereich Hydroxidfällung mit Natriumhydroxid	Pb	< 0,01	0,04	0,06	Kontinuierliche Entnahme von Mischproben und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		Zn	< 0,005	0,01	0,02	
		Cd	< 0,001	0,004	0,005	
		As	< 0,02	0,01	0,02	
		Cu	< 0,005	0,007	0,03	
2.4 (Fluss)	Niederschlags- und Oberflächenwasser Flockung, pH-Wert-Einstellung, Filtration und abschließende pH-Wert-Einstellung vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter	Pb	< 0,001	0,096	0,267	128 x pro Jahr (d.h. jede Ableitung) Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse
		As	0,004	0,032	0,071	
		Cd	0,001	0,007	0,023	
		Cu	< 0,001	0,016	0,034	
		Ni	0,007	0,05	0,201	
		Zn	0,005	0,143	1,072	
		Sb	0,04	0,196	0,465	
		Susp. Feststoffe	3	10	25	
		pH-Wert	7,4	8,2	9	
		Ag	< 0,001	< 0,001	0,001	
4 (Fluss)	Prozessabwasser und Niederschlagswasser Kombination physikalisch-chemischer Behandlungsverfahren	Pb	0,1	0,22	0,4	Stichproben und diskontinuierliche Messung (Monatsmittelwert)
		Ni	0,01	0,02	0,03	
		Cu	< 0,005	0,008	0,03	Mischproben (Wochenmittelwert)
5	Prozessabwässer und Oberflächenwasser aus dem Betriebsbereich der Sekundärbleihütte	Pb (kg/d)	0,06	0,57	1,45	156 x pro Jahr Diskontinuierliche Entnahme von Mischproben und Analyse
		Cd (kg/d)	0,003	0,115	0,552	
		Sb (kg/d)	0,002	0,212	1,096	
		As (kg/d)	0,001	0,018	0,092	
		Cu (kg/d)	0,001	0,017	0,046	
		Hg (kg/d)	0,001	0,002	0,009	

	pH-Wert-Einstellung, Eisen-(III)-chlorid-Dosierung, Flockung und Sedimentation Zugabe von anionischen/kationischen Flockungshilfsmitteln, mechanische Filtration (Fluss)	Ni (kg/d)	0,001	0,13	0,428	
		NH ₄ (als Ammonium-N) (kg/d)	0,21	2,47	6,17	
6	Prozessabwasser (Brecheranlage), Kühlwasser (Reduktion, Raffination), Oberflächenwasser (Beregnungsanlage, Niederschlagswasser, Kehrmaschine, usw.) (Fluss) Sedimentation der Schlämme, Sulfidfällung, Neutralisation, Flockung, Sedimentation, Ionentauscher, pH-Wert-Einstellung	Pb	k.A.	< 0,05	0,13	50 x pro Jahr Einfache Stichprobe
		Cu		0,023	0,06	
		Ni		0,096	0,13	
		Zn		< 0,05	0,62	
		As		0,011	0,05	
		Hg		0,01	0,01	
		Sb		0,084	0,52	
		Cd		0,03	0,22	
		Fe		0,3	1,2	
		N		8	8	
		P		0,05	0,05	Einfache Stichprobe
		AOX		0,05	0,06	12 x pro Jahr
		CSB		14	39	50 x pro Jahr
		KW		1	1	2 x pro Jahr
		Fischtoxizität	2	2	2 x pro Jahr	
7	50 % des zu behandelnden Abwassers entfallen auf die Sekundärbleierzeugung (Brecher, Schmelz- u. Raffinationsanlage und Oberflächenwasser). Die restlichen 50 % stammen aus anderen Aktivitäten. Natriumsulfidfällung, Sedimentation + Sandfilter (Fluss)	Pb	< 0,05	0,07	0,26	365 x pro Jahr Einfache Stichprobe
		Cd	< 0,005	< 0,005	0,005	
		Cu	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	
		As	< 0,01	0,02	0,05	
		Ni	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1	
		AOX	< 0,05	0,1	0,237	
		CSB	< 15	24	36	
8	Gesamte Anlage 4-stufige Behandlung: 1. Arsenfällung und Flockung mit FeCl ₃ , H ₂ O ₂ 2. Hydroxidfällung (hauptsächlich Pb, Cd, Zn) und Flockung mit Ca(OH) ₂ 3. Thalliumfällung und Flockung mit Na ₂ S, Al ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ 4. Neutralisation (öffentlicher Abwasserkanal)	Pb	0,031	0,05	0,074	820 x pro Jahr
		Cd	< 0,01	< 0,01	0,13	Einfache Stichprobe
		Zn	0,021	0,05	0,6	
		Cu	< 0,05	< 0,05	0,05	
		As	0,01	0,02	0,1	
		Ni	< 0,05	< 0,05	0,2	
		Tl	0,02	0,1	0,9	
		Chlorid	971	k.A.	2580	
		Sulfat	1270	k.A.	2260	
9	Prozessabwässer, Niederschlags- und Oberflächenwasser (Fluss) Metallfällung über Anhebung des pH-Werts durch Zugabe von Natronlauge und Eisen-(III)-chlorid (1.Stufe) und Ionentauscher (2. Stufe)	Pb	0,01	0,033	0,2	300 x pro Jahr
		Cd	0,01	0,015	0,03	Diskontinuierliche Mischproben (Wochenmittelwert)
		Zn	0,01	0,05	0,1	
		Fe	0,04	0,051	0,06	
		Cu	0,01	0,015	0,02	
		Ni	0,01	0,015	0,1	
11	Niederschlagswasser	Pb	0,05	0,05	0,05	12 x pro Jahr
		As	0,001	0,0015	0,0044	Diskontinuierliche 24h-Mischproben
		Zn	0,01	0,041	0,057	
		Cd	0,005	0,046	0,25	
		Ni	0,015	0,0165	0,033	
		TDS	1200	2899	6600	
		CSB	2,5	21,9	44	

(Fluss)	Neutralisation mit Ca(OH) ₂ , Flockung, Behandlung mit Bentonit	C10-C40	0,01	0,028	0,032	
		TSS	2,5	3,96	14	
12	Mischabwasser bestehend aus Sanitär-, Prozessabwasser und Niederschlagswasser	Pb	0	0,14	0,3	4 x pro Jahr Stichproben
(k.A.)	Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung	Cu	0	0,61	1	
		Cd	0,068	0,13	0,165	
		Zn	0,32	0,89	1,2	
		Ni	0	0,01	0,02	
		As	0	0	0	
		Na	550	674	950	
		Sn	0,13	0,42	0,66	
		Fe	0	0,05	0,2	
Sulfide	483	528	590			
13	Mischabwasser bestehend aus Sanitär-, (Multi-Metall)-Prozessabwasser und Niederschlagswasser Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung (Fe-(III)-salz-, Kalkmilch- und Elektroytdosierung); Sedimentation suspendierter Feststoffe, Schlammwässerung in einer Filterpresse. Feinreinigung des behandelten Abwassers in einem Sandfilter u. CO ₂ -Zugabe zur pH-Werteinstellung vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter	Pb	0,02	0,022	0,029	5 x pro Jahr Diskontinuierliche tägliche Mischproben
Cu	0,0257	0,0323	0,044			
Cd	0,001	0,0012	0,0018			
Zn	0,0232	0,0369	0,066			
Ni	0,056	0,062	0,075			
As	0,0178	0,0198	0,0207			
14	Reinigungsabwässer, Niederschlagswasser und Wasser aus der Reinigung der PP-Stufe Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung: Zugabe von NaOH zur pH-Werteinstellung und Flockungshilfsmitteln zur Abtrennung von Schmutzstoffen	Pb	0,02	0,103	0,25	alle 7-10 Tage Einfache Stichprobe
Fluss		As	0,1	0,1	0,1	
		Cd	0,09	0,242	0,7	
		Ni	0,25	0,645	2,47	
		Cu	0	0	0	
		Zn	0,18	0,7467	2	
		pH-Wert	8,4	8,93	9,48	
15	Prozessabwässer, Niederschlagswasser, Ablauf aus Haldenbefeuchtung, Kühlabwässer und Oberflächenwasser Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung: Kalkzugabe, As-Fällung mit FeCl ₃ , Feinreinigung mit NaSH	Pb	0,005	0,02	0,04	12 x pro Jahr Kontinuierliche Mischproben
(Fluss)		Cd	0,003	0,007	0,011	
		Zn	0,01	0,03	0,05	
		Cu	< 0,002	0,01	0,05	
		As	0,04	0,09	0,17	
		Ni	0,01	0,03	0,05	
		Tl	< 0,01	0,22	0,83	
		Sn	0,03	0,14	0,31	
		Sb	< 0,01	0,14	0,31	
AOX	0,88	1,8	2,9			
16	Abwasser aus Blei- und Zinkgewinnungsanlagen Dreistufige Behandlung: 1. Hydroxidfällung: Fällung verschiedener Metalle und Flockung durch NaOH-Zugabe, Filtration des Hydroxidniederschlags 2. Sulfidfällung: Fällung noch gelöster Metallionen durch	Sulfid (gelöst)	< 0,04	k.A.	0,09	15 Messungen in 2008–2010
Pb	0,001	0,05				
Cd	< 0,0005	0,01				
Cu	< 0,01	0,04				
Hg	< 0,0005	0,00066				
Tl	0,01	0,85				
Zn	< 0,01	0,14				

	Zugabe von S ²⁻ -Ionen 3. Fe-(III)-Stufe: Fällung überschüssiger Sulfidionen durch Zugabe von Fe ³⁺ -Ionen, Filtration des Fällschlammes	As	0,00052		0,29	
		Ni	< 0,01		0,04	
		Fe	0,03		2,8	
18.1	Prozessabwässer des gesamten Standorts: Abwässer aus der nassen Gasreinigung in der Primärkupferhütte und der Sekundär-Kupfer-/Bleihütte, Abwässer der Schwefelsäure-, Edelmetall- und Selenanlagen As-Fällung mit Eisen-(III)-salzen, Neutralisation und Metallfällung (1. Stufe), anschließende Sulfidfällung mit Eisen-(II)-chlorid	Pb	k.A.	0,03*	0,05	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwert)
(Fluss)		Cu		0,05*	0,2	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		As		0,06*	0,09	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwert)
		Ni		0,05*	0,06	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwert)
		Zn		0,17*	0,2	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		Cd		0,01*	0,02	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		Hg		0,019*	0,024	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
18.2	Oberflächenwasser aus dem Bereich der Sekundär-Kupfer-/Bleihütte, der Formategießerei und der Bleiraffination Koagulation, Hydroxidfällung durch pH-Wert-Einstellung, Flockung und Sedimentation	Pb	k.A.	0,14*	0,5	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwerte)
(Fluss)		Cu		0,18*	0,5	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		As		0,03*	0,09	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwerte)
		Ni		0,14*	0,5	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Monatsmittelwerte)
		Zn		0,25*	1	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		Cd		0,05*	0,11	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
		Hg		0,0065*	0,014	Einfache Stichprobe und Analyse (Wochenmittelwert)
* 90. Perzentil Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [385, Germany 2012]						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Alle Hütten in Europa

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.7 Prozessrückstände

5.3.7.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus der Primärerzeugung

Beschreibung

Hauptquelle von Abfällen und Rückständen in Primärbleihütten sind die Begleitkomponenten in den Bleierzen und -konzentraten. Zur Erzeugung eines Nebenprodukts aus diesen Bestandteilen oder zur Reduzierung der anfallenden Abfallmengen kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- Schwefelrückgewinnung: Schwefel wird in Schwefelprodukte wie Schwefelsäure oder Flüssig-SO₂ umgewandelt.
- Cd-Abtrennung: Das im Filterstaub des Heißgas-EGR vorliegende Cd wird durch Laugung mit Schwefelsäure abgetrennt.
- Hg-Abscheidung: Hg wird entweder nach dem Boliden-Norzink-Verfahren oder durch adsorptive Verfahren, z.B. Adsorption an Aktivkohle, abgeschieden.
- Se- und Te-Abscheidung: Se und Te werden in der Abgasreinigung (Trocken- oder Nassverfahren) abgeschieden. Der anfallende Reststoff wird entweder deponiert oder zwecks Rückgewinnung der darin enthaltenen Metalle aufgearbeitet.
- Rückgewinnung von Ag, Au, Bi, Sb und Cu: Diese Metalle fallen als Stoffkomplex bei der Raffination an und werden einer Rückgewinnung zugeführt.
- Metallrückgewinnung aus dem Klärschlamm der Abwasserbehandlung
- Weitere Bestandteile werden zu verwertbaren Oxiden oder einer kristallinen Schlacke aufgearbeitet.

Technische Beschreibung

Ein gutes Abfallmanagement ermöglicht entweder die Minimierung der anfallenden Abfallmengen oder stellt die Umwandlung von Abfällen in weniger gefährliche Substanzen sicher. Dies kann auf verschiedenen Wegen geschehen, z.B. durch Anreicherung, Entfernung, Stabilisierung oder Recycling der unerwünschten Komponenten oder durch Optimierung der Flockungs-/Sedimentationsbedingungen zur Reduzierung des Wassergehalts der behandlungsbedürftigen Rückstände.

Bleierze und -konzentrate enthalten Begleitelemente und Oxide, wie z.B. S, Fe, CaO, Zn, Cu, SiO₂, Al₂O₃, MgO und BaO, und zu einem geringeren Anteil Ag, As, Au, Bi, Cd, Hg, Sb, Se und Te. In der Sekundärgewinnung werden in der Regel saubere Vorstoffe eingesetzt (z.B. Bleipaste aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung), die jedoch Cu oder Sb enthalten können (Schrotte, Gittermetall, usw.)

Schwefelrückgewinnung

Schwefel wird zu Schwefeldioxid umgesetzt, das als Ausgangsstoff zur Erzeugung verkaufsfähiger/verwertbarer schwefelhaltiger Produkte dienen kann (d.h. Schwefelsäure, Flüssig-SO₂ oder Gips). Auf diese Weise wird der Anfall von Abfall vermieden, der andernfalls in Form eines Reststoffs bei der Abgasreinigung entstehen würde. Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.

Cd-Abtrennung

Im Schmelzprozess geht Cd in die Gasphase über und wird im Heißgas-EGR abgeschieden. Zur Verwertung bleireicher Stäube muss zunächst das Cd abgetrennt werden. Dies geschieht durch Laugung mit Schwefelsäure, wobei Cd als CdCO₃ ausgefällt wird. Der Fällschlamm wird nach Entwässerung in einer Filterpresse auf einer geeigneten Deponie entsorgt. Der Laugungsrückstand geht zurück in den Ofenprozess.

Se-, Te- und Hg-Abtrennung

Bei der Nassgasreinigung werden Se, Te und zum Teil Hg abgeschieden. Dieser komplexe Rückstand wird entweder deponiert oder zwecks Metallrückgewinnung aufgearbeitet. Rest-Hg im Prozessabgas wird in Spezialverfahren (z.B. Boliden-Norzink-Verfahren, Dowa-Verfahren

oder in einem Aktivkohlefilter) abgeschieden. Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5. Die anfallenden Reststoffe werden nach Behandlung deponiert.

Rückgewinnung von Ag, Au, Bi, Zn und Sb sowie z.T. Cu

Diese Metalle werden bei der Abgasreinigung oder der Raffination abgeschieden und können zu Oxiden (z.B. ZnO) und/oder einer Ag-Au-, Pb-Bi-, Pb-Sb-Legierung oder Kupferstein zur internen Verwendung oder zum Verkauf weiterverarbeitet werden. Die Aufarbeitung kann intern oder extern erfolgen. Ein kleiner Teil der bei der Raffination anfallenden Zwischenprodukte bzw. Abfallstoffe wird als Kreislaufmaterial in den Schmelz- oder Raffinationsprozess zurückgeführt.

Metallrückgewinnung aus dem Klärschlamm der Abwasserbehandlung

Einige Metalle gelangen über das Abwasser der nassen Verarbeitungs-/Behandlungsstufen in die AWA. Siehe Abschnitt 5.3.6.2. Die Reststoffe aus der Abwasserbehandlung werden recycelt.

Alle anderen Komponenten des Bleierz-/konzentrats werden verschlackt. Dabei entsteht eine kristalline Schlacke, die neben Blei noch weitere Metalle enthält. Um ein Material mit geringer Auslaugbarkeit zu erhalten, kann die Zusammensetzung der Schlacke durch Zugabe von Flussmitteln (z.T. Abfallprodukte) zur Charge gezielt beeinflusst werden. Niedrigwertige Bleiverbindungen können gezielt in der Schlacke angereichert werden und als Nebenprodukt (mit einem Pb-Gehalt von > 40 %) an andere Hütten verkauft werden. In einigen Fällen werden Pb-, Zn- und Cu-haltige Schlacken in nachgeschalteten Prozessen verblasen, um entweder Wertmetalle zurückzugewinnen oder eine Endschlacke mit niedrigem Metallgehalt und niedriger Auslaugbarkeit zu erzeugen, die potenziell im Bausektor verwendet werden kann.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Minimierung des mit der Abfallablagerung verbundenen Umweltrisikos

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Schwefelrückgewinnung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Additiven
- Möglicher Anfall eines festen Abfallprodukts

Cd-Abtrennung

- Einsatz von Additiven
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, der deponiert werden muss

Hg-Abscheidung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, der deponiert werden muss

Se- und Te-Abscheidung

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines Abfallprodukts, wenn Se und Te nicht zurückgewonnen werden können

Rückgewinnung von Ag, Au, Bi, Sb und Cu

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Metallrückgewinnung aus dem Klärschlamm der Abwasserbehandlung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Die Rückgewinnung von Se und Te wird durch die Menge des vorhandenen Hg limitiert. Einschränkungen für das direkte Einschmelzen von Klärschlamm können sich bei Anwesenheit von Elementen wie As, Tl und Cd ergeben, die sich störend auf den Schmelzprozess auswirken.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Reduzierung der Entsorgungskosten

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Möglichen Kosteneinsparungen bei der Abfallentsorgung stehen höhere Kosten für den Betrieb der zusätzlich benötigten Prozessstufe gegenüber.

Beispielanlagen

Alle europäischen Primärbleihütten, die Erze und/oder Konzentrate verarbeiten

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

5.3.7.2 Externe oder interne Verwertung von Batteriesäure und Kunststoffen aus der Altbatterieaufbereitung

Beschreibung

Für die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure ergeben sich folgende Anwendungen:

- als Beizmittel
- als Ausgangsstoff für die chemische Industrie
- Regenerierung durch Cracken
- als Ausgangsstoff für die Gipsherstellung
- Herstellung von Natriumsulfat im Rahmen der Vorentschwefelung der Batteriepaste (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.5).

Polypropylen wird entweder intern oder extern zu PP-Chips zerkleinert, die in den Verkauf gehen oder zu Pellets verarbeitet.

Die Kunststoffrestfraktion wird der energetischen Verwertung zugeführt oder deponiert

Technische Beschreibung

Blei-Säure-Batterien (Starterbatterien) bestehen aus den folgenden Komponenten:

- Blei(legierungs)komponenten (Gittermetall, Batteriepole, usw.): 20–30 Gew.%
- Elektrodenpaste (feine Bleioxid- und Bleisulfatpartikel: 35–45 Gew.%)
- Schwefelsäure (10–20 % H_2SO_4): 10–25 Gew.%
- Polypropylen: 5–8 Gew.%
- sonstige Kunststoffe und Polymere (PE, usw.): 2–5 Gew.%
- Sonstige (Glas, anorganische Bestandteile, Si-Verbindungen, usw.): < 1 Gew.%

Die Batteriesäure und Kunststofffraktion werden wie folgt weiterverarbeitet:

Anwendungen für die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure

Die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure ist schwach konzentriert und kann Verunreinigungen in gelöster Form enthalten, d.h. Fe, die eine weitere Verwendung erschweren. Die Verwertung der Altbatteriesäure ist zudem auch abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen. Es werden verschiedene Verwendungsmöglichkeiten für die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure berichtet, z.B.:

- Verwendung als Beizmittel, z.B. zum Beizen von Fe-, Zn- und Messingprodukten. Die Säure kann Verunreinigungen in Form von gelöstem FeSO_4 , ZnSO_4 enthalten, die als Salze zurückgewonnen werden.
- Ausgangsstoff für die chemische Industrie
- Regenerierung durch Cracken. Die Abfallsäure wird durch Wasserverdampfung konzentriert und anschließend in einen Ofen eingedüst, wo H_2SO_4 bei Temperaturen von 1000–1200 °C zu $\text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ und O_2 umgesetzt wird. Das SO_2 wird der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt.
- Nutzung zur Gipsherstellung. Der Abfallsäure wird Kalk beigemischt, der mit H_2SO_4 unter Bildung von Gips reagiert: $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 = \text{CaSO}_4 + 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}$. Der Gips wird durch Filtration abgetrennt.
- Aufbereitung zusammen mit der Bleipaste unter Zugabe von Kalk zum Verkauf an Primärhütten, die den Kalk als Schlackebildner nutzen und aus dem enthaltenen Sulfat erneut Schwefelsäure erzeugen
- Herstellung von Natriumsulfat im Rahmen der Vorentschwefelung der Batteriepaste (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.5). Die Abfallsäure wird der Batteriepaste und Alkalisalzlösung im Entschwefelungsreaktor zugegeben, wobei H_2SO_4 an der ersten Umsetzung zu PbSO_4 beteiligt ist.

Nutzung des Polypropylenanteils (PP)

Die Batteriegehäuse werden zur Entfernung von Verunreinigungen (Schwefelsäure und Blei) gewaschen und anschließend zu Chips zerkleinert. Das Abwasser wird in die AWA geleitet. Das gewonnene Material hat einen hohen Marktwert und kann in Form von PP-Chips vermarktet werden. Einige Betriebe verarbeiteten die PP-Chips intern zu qualitativ hochwertigen PP-Compounds in Form von Pellets mit speziellen Eigenschaftsprofilen nach Kundenvorgaben.

Nutzung sonstiger Kunststoffe (PE, usw.)

Die Separatoren bestehen hauptsächlich aus PE mit einem hohen Anteil an Füllstoffen. Je nach Batterietechnologie können die Separatoren auch Blei enthalten. Damit handelt es sich bei diesem Material um einen Abfall zur energetischen Verwertung oder Beseitigung. Eine weitere Möglichkeit besteht in der Verwendung als Reduktionsmittel in den Schmelzöfen.

Eine Hütte betreibt eine eigene Abfallverbrennungsanlage zur Erzeugung von Dampf für die Natriumsulfattrocknung und elektrischer Energie (siehe Abschnitt 5.3.2.5).

Heutzutage wird kein Ebonit mehr in der Herstellung von Batteriegehäusen eingesetzt. Der Ebonitgehalt des Batteriesammelschrotts ist schwankend und zeigt eine abnehmende Tendenz. Bei Ebonit handelt es sich um Hartgummi mit hohen Anteilen an Schwefel und Füllstoffen. Je nach Land, Alter der Kfz-Flotte und Herkunft der erfassten Batterien kann dieses Material in einem separaten Prozess oder zusammen mit anderen Kunststofffraktionen zurückgewonnen werden. Für die Ebonitfraktion besteht nur die Möglichkeit einer energetischen Verwertung oder der Beseitigung.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Durch die Nutzung der verschiedenen Fraktionen verringern sich die anfallenden Abfallmengen.
- Die zurückgewonnene Batteriesäure ersetzt in einigen Anwendungen den Einsatz von Frischsäure.
- Der erzeugte Gips ersetzt natürlichen Gips und trägt damit zur Ressourcenschonung bei.
- Das zurückgewonnene PP ersetzt neues PP.
- Mit der energetischen Nutzung der Restkunststofffraktion und des Ebonits wird Energie eingespart oder erzeugt.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei Harz Metall wird die Schwachsäure aus dem Batterieaufbereitungsbereich gemeinsam mit dem Abwasser aus der Batterieaufbereitungsanlage in einer speziell zu diesem Zweck ausgelegten AWA behandelt. Dort wird die Säure durch Zugabe von Kalk unter Ausfällung von (unreinem) Gips neutralisiert. Zur Unterstützung der Gipsausfällung und des Absetzverhaltens können geringe Mengen an Eisensalz zugegeben werden. Der Fällschlamm wird in einem Eindicker eingedickt und anschließend in einer Filterpresse, die auch zur Entwässerung der Batteriepaste dient, entwässert. Der so erhaltene Filterkuchen wird nach Nordenham zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Bleis in der Ausmelt-Anlage transportiert. Dabei wird der enthaltene Gips als Flussmittel zur Einstellung der Schlackenzusammensetzung genutzt. Das im Schmelzprozess freigesetzte SO₂ wird in der Abgasreinigungsanlage zurückgewonnen und anschließend wieder in H₂SO₄ umgewandelt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Anwendungen für die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure

- Beizmittel: hierzu liegen keine Informationen vor.
- Ausgangsstoff für die chemische Industrie: hierzu liegen keine Informationen vor.
- Cracken: zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Gips Herstellung: zusätzlicher Energieaufwand und Kalkverbrauch
- Herstellung von Natriumsulfat: zusätzlicher Additivverbrauch

PP-Rückgewinnung

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Verwertung der Restkunststofffraktion

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Anwendungen für die zurückgewonnene Schwefelsäure

- Beizmittel: Die Anwendbarkeit ist abhängig von den örtlichen Gegebenheiten und der Verträglichkeit der in der Säure enthaltenen Verunreinigungen mit dem Prozess
- Ausgangsstoff für die chemische Industrie: abhängig von den örtlichen Gegebenheiten
- Cracken: Diese Option ist nur in Verbindung mit einer Schwefelsäureanlage gegeben.
- Gips Herstellung: Die erzielbare Gipsqualität ist abhängig vom Verunreinigungsgrad der zurückgewonnenen Schwefelsäure
- Herstellung von Natriumsulfat: allgemein anwendbar

PP-Rückgewinnung

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Verwertung der Kunststoffrestfraktion

Je nach Materialeigenschaften ist eine stoffliche Verwertung der energetischen Verwertung vorzuziehen. Sollte beides nicht möglich sein, muss diese Fraktion entsorgt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor. Die Wirtschaftlichkeit der Natriumsulfaterzeugung ist abhängig von den Marktpreisen für Natriumhydroxid und Natriumsulfat.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Alle Anlagen in der EU, in denen Altbatterien zerlegt werden

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.7.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus der Sekundärerzeugung

Beschreibung

In Betracht kommende Maßnahmen sind in folgender Rangfolge:

- Rückführung der Rückstände in den Schmelzprozess zur Rückgewinnung von Blei und anderen Metallen
- Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfallstoffe in spezialisierten Verwertungsanlagen
- Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfallstoffe zur Nutzung in anderen Anwendungen

Technische Beschreibung

Rückführung der Rückstände in den Schmelzprozess zur Rückgewinnung von Blei und anderen Metallen

Beim Schachtofenprozess wird der Großteil der Schlacke in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt. Bei anderen Verhüttungsverfahren erfolgt bei hohem Bleigehalt der Schlacke ebenfalls eine Rückführung in den Prozess.

Weitere Rückstände, die in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt werden, sind z.B.:

- Bleistein
- Rückstände aus den Raffinationsschritten zur Entfernung von Cu, Sb, Sn, As, Edelmetallen und Bi. Diese Krätzen können auch zur Erzeugung von Kupferstein, Pb-Sb- oder Pb-Sn-Legierungen eingesetzt werden.
- Rückstände aus der Abwasserbehandlung nach Entwässerung in einer Filterpresse. In Sekundärhütten können diese bleihaltigen Rückstände in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt werden.

Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfallstoffe in spezialisierten Verwertungsanlagen

Der Bleistein kann im Bleischmelzprozess sowie auch in Primärhütten, die dieses Material verarbeiten können, eingesetzt werden. Weitere Nebenprodukte, die zwecks Bleirückgewinnung an externe Verwerter abgegeben werden, sind:

- Kupferstein zur Kupferhütte
- Rückstände aus den Raffinationsschritten zur Entfernung von Cu, Sb, Sn, Bi, In, Se, Te und Edelmetallen
- Filterstaub

Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfallstoffe zur Nutzung in anderen Anwendungen

Schlacken, die die Eluatkriterien für Schwermetalle erfüllen, können im Bausektor eingesetzt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Rückgewinnung von Metallen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Bei der Sekundärgewinnung von Blei und Zinn fallen je nach eingesetztem Verfahren und verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffen eine Vielzahl unterschiedlichster Zwischenprodukte an. Da sich diese in ihrer Form und chemischen Zusammensetzung unterscheiden und ihr Anfall zudem zeitlichen Schwankungen unterliegt, wird bei der technischen Beschreibung nur auf die Hauptanwendungen der Nebenprodukte eingegangen. Lösungen zur Reduzierung der

anfallenden Abfallmengen müssen für alle Zwischenprodukte unter Beachtung der oben aufgeführten Rangfolge festgelegt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Kosteneffizienz

Beispielanlagen

Alle Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnhütten in der EU

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.3.8 Energie

5.3.8.1 Wärmerückgewinnung aus den Prozessabgasen in der Primärbleierzeugung und Sekundär-Blei-/Zinnerzeugung

Beschreibung

Als Technik zur energetischen Nutzung der Wärme des Schmelzofenabgases kommt ein Abhitzeessel in Betracht. In gleicher Weise kann die Abwärme der Brenner in Sekundärschmelz- und Raffinationsanlagen genutzt werden.

Technische Beschreibung

Bei kontinuierlich betriebenen Verhüttungsverfahren kann der Wärmeinhalt des Schmelzofenabgases zur Heißwasserbereitung oder Dampferzeugung in einem Abhitzeessel genutzt werden.

Für die Wahl der Kesselkonstruktion sind folgende Kriterien zu beachten:

- hohe Betriebssicherheit
- gute Reinigungs- und Wartungsmöglichkeiten im Betrieb und bei der Revision
- geringe Falschlufteinträge
- sicherer Betrieb auch bei schwankenden Wärmeangeboten
- Staubbelastung des Wärmerückgewinnungssystems

Typisch für konventionelle Kessel in Primärbleihütten ist ein vorgeschalteter Strahlungszug. Zur Vermeidung von Chlorkorrosion und Schwefelsäurekondensation sollte das Abgas am Kesselaustritt eine Temperatur von 200–300 °C vor Eintritt in das Heißgas-Elektrofilter haben. Bei zu hohen Temperaturen kommt es zu einer verstärkten Verschmutzung der Heizflächen und Anbackungen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Wärme-/Energierückgewinnung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Für Schachtofenanlagen werden Energierückgewinnungsraten von bis zu 40 GWh/a berichtet.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Wird der Temperaturbereich 400 °C–200 °C bei der Abgaskühlung nicht schnell genug durchfahren, kann es zur Dioxinbildung im Wege der De-Novo-Synthese kommen.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Eine energetische Nutzung der Abgaswärme ist nur bei kontinuierlich betriebenen Schmelzverfahren und bei den Brennersystemen der Raffinationsanlage möglich. Bei der Abgasführung sind besondere Vorkehrungen notwendig, um größere Staubablagerungen und Korrosionsprobleme zu vermeiden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die höheren Kosten für den zusätzlichen apparativen Aufwand sind gegen die Vorteile niedrigerer Energiekosten abzuwägen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung der Energiekosten

Beispielanlagen

Alle Hütten in Europa

Literatur

[254, VDI 2004], [397, ILA 2012]

5.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Entschwefelung von Bleibatteriepaste mit einem Lösemittel (auf Aminbasis)

In Polen wurde ein Verfahren zur Entschwefelung von Bleibatteriepaste mittels eines aminbasierten Lösemittelsystems bis zum Pilotmaßstab entwickelt. Mit diesem Verfahren entfällt der Einsatz von Natriumcarbonat und der Anfall von weißer Schlacke. Das Verfahren umfasst drei Stufen: Extraktion von Bleisulfat in eine Wasserphase, Fällung von Bleicarbonat und Regenerierung des Lösemittels unter Erzeugung von Gips.

Nassverfahren zur Behandlung von Bleibatteriepaste

Das CLEP-Verfahren wird in Italien im Pilotmaßstab betrieben. Bei diesem nasschemischen Verfahren wird aus Altbatteriepaste Bleicarbonat oder -oxid und Natriumsulfat gewonnen. Es entstehen keine Emissionen in die Luft. Das Bleioxid wird in der Herstellung neuer Batteriepaste wiederverwendet.

Umkehrosiose zur Reinigung von Abwässern aus der Bleierzeugung

Der Einsatz des Umkehrosiose-Verfahrens zur Reinigung von Prozess- und Kühlabwässern aus der Bleigewinnung wird derzeit in einer großtechnischen Demonstrationsanlage erprobt. Ziel ist die Reduzierung der abzuleitenden Abwassermengen und damit der Schwermetalleinleitungen in Gewässer sowie die Reduzierung des Frischwasserverbrauchs. Das anfallende Abwasser und die zurückgewonnenen Metalle werden in den Schmelzofen zurückgeführt.

Verfahren zur Verwertung von Blei-Säure-Altbatterien und gleichzeitigen Herstellung neuer Batteriegitter in einem Verfahrensschritt

Zurzeit laufen Entwicklungsarbeiten für ein Verfahren zur Verwertung von Bleilegierungen und Bleiverbindungen aus Altbatterien und gleichzeitigen Herstellung neuer Batteriegitter in einem Verfahrensschritt. Diese innovative Technologie beruht auf der Kombination eines elektrochemischen Löseprozesses mit einem galvanischen Blei- und Bleilegierungs-Depositionsprozess in ein und demselben Bad bei Temperaturen nahe Umgebungstemperatur. Vorteilhaft bei diesem Verfahren ist, dass keine direkten CO₂-Emissionen entstehen. Aufgrund der Kombination der beiden Prozesse in ein und derselben elektrochemischen Zelle zeichnet sich das Verfahren durch eine hohe Energieeffizienz aus.

Reinigung von Schlacken aus der pyrometallurgischen Zink- und Bleierzeugung in einem Elektrolichtbogenofen

Die Behandlung von Schlacken aus der schmelzmetallurgischen Zink- und Bleigewinnung im Elektrolichtbogenofen zur Rückgewinnung von Zink und Blei und Erzeugung einer verwertbaren, umweltfreundlichen Schlacke wird derzeit untersucht.

Direktverfahren zur Bleierzeugung

Der Outotec-Schwebeschmelzofen wurde in einer Demonstrationsanlage zur Bleierzeugung im Direktverfahren eingesetzt. Ebenfalls wird über den Einsatz von Wälzrohröfen zur direkten Erzeugung von Blei berichtet. In der Literatur werden viele weitere Beispiele angeführt, die jedoch nicht über den Pilotmaßstab hinaus gediehen sind.

Einsatz von aufbereitetem Batterieschrott in einem Schachtofen

In einer Sekundärbleihütte in Deutschland wird derzeit ein Verfahren zur Abtrennung von Polypropylen und anderen Kunststoffkomponenten aus Batterieschrott vor Aufgabe in den Schachtofen entwickelt.

Horizontales Schleierbelüftungssystem oberhalb eines Bleiraffinationskessels

Britannia Refined Metals, UK, testet derzeit eine horizontale Schleierbelüftung oberhalb eines Bleiraffinationskessels, der über einen Hallenkran mit Bleiblocken beschickt wird. Durch den Luftstrom wird der austretende Bleirauch in Richtung einer Erfassungseinrichtung transportiert und abgesaugt. Auf diese Weise wird der bei der Kesselbeschickung freigesetzte Bleirauch wirksam erfasst.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Rückgewinnung von Bleirauch
- Verringerung von Emissionen

Umwelleistung und Betriebsdaten

Noch zu klären.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Höhere Investitionskosten (aufgrund des zusätzlichen apparativen Aufwands)
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung der Emissionen bei der Beschickung des Kessels

Beispielanlagen

Britannia Refined Metals (UK)

Literatur

[397, ILA 2012]

6 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE ZINC AND CADMIUM

6.1 Applied processes and techniques

Zinc and cadmium are often associated together in ores and concentrates and a number of techniques are used to extract and separate the metals. When a significant quantity of lead is present in the raw material as well, the chemical state (sulphidic or oxidic) and the relative proportion of the metals are among the key factors that determine the pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical techniques or combinations that are used. Some of the techniques are also used for secondary or mixed primary and secondary raw materials [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

Other metals (In, Ge, Ga) are sometimes present in the concentrates that are used for zinc and lead production (see Section 6.1.4.3).

6.1.1 Primary zinc

Zinc can be produced from primary raw materials by pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical methods. Pyrometallurgical methods are still used in other parts of the world but have gradually lost their importance and are no longer used in the EU for treating simple zinc concentrates. Determining factors are the need for an extra distillation stage to obtain high-grade zinc and the relatively low zinc extraction efficiency. The majority of the pyrometallurgical Imperial Smelting Furnaces have closed down in the EU but one remains open in Poland.

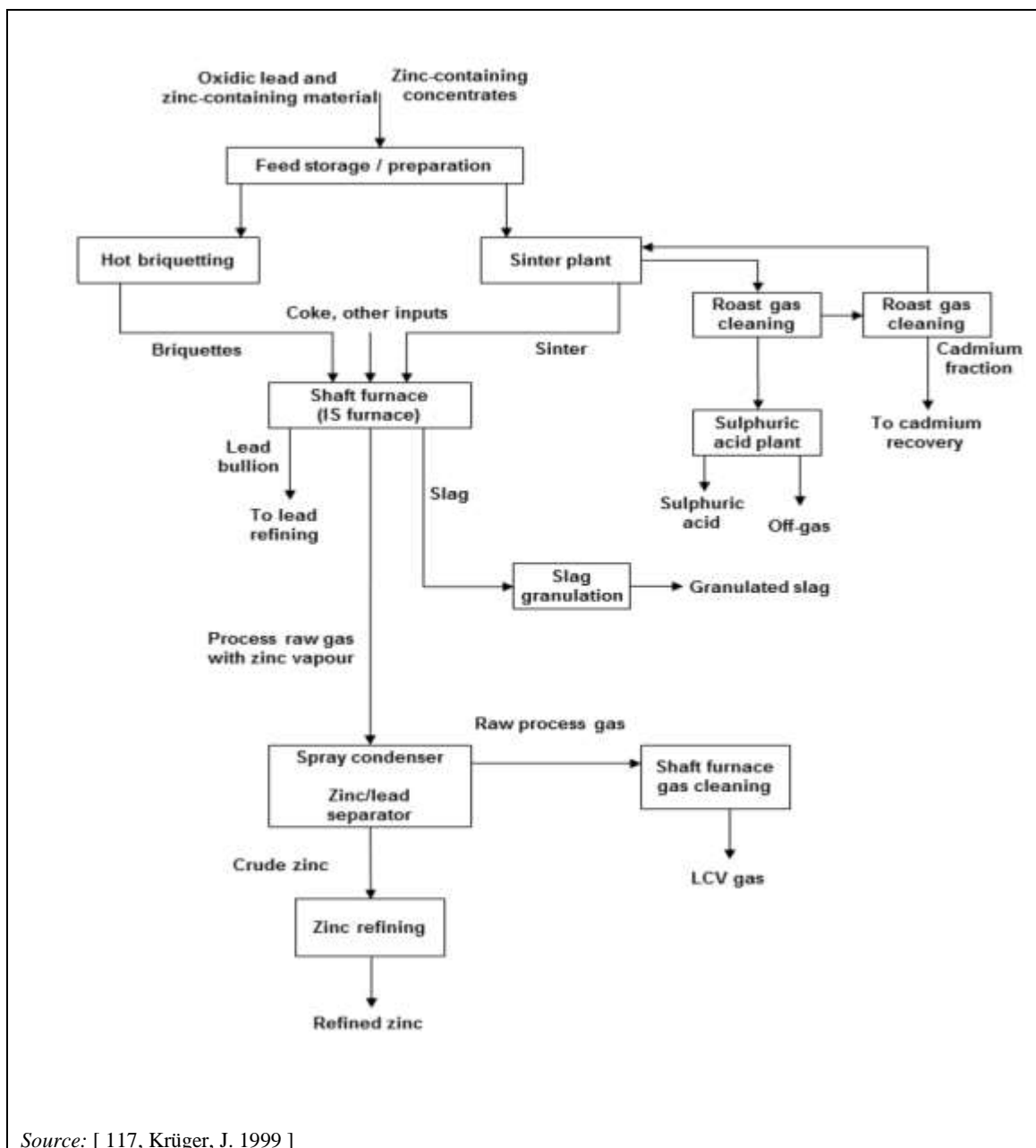
6.1.1.1 Environmental issues

Most zinc-containing ores and concentrates also contain sulphides. This means that zinc metallurgy has similar problems to those found in the sulphuric acid industry, i.e. emissions of residual sulphur dioxide, NO_x, and acid waste water, and release of metals such as arsenic, mercury and cadmium. In cases where zinc-bearing residues containing particular organics are treated, persistent organic pollutants need to be addressed. Zinc ores contain iron, which poses one of the main problems because of the generation of large volumes of residues such as slag, jarosite, goethite and haematite.

Environmental control therefore requires systems for fixing sulphur dioxide, control of particulate and gaseous emissions to the atmosphere, safe disposal of waste, maintenance of a safe in-plant working environment and limiting liquid effluent discharge to environmentally acceptable levels of harmful substances. Releases to atmosphere and water, waste management and energy considerations are among the key factors that influence the choice of techniques to employ.

6.1.1.2 The pyrometallurgical route

The pyrometallurgical route is used for mixed zinc-lead concentrates and secondary material (zinc alloys scrap, zinc dross, etc.) and uses the Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF), illustrated in Figure 6.1 and Annex 13.1. It can be used on a campaign basis, treating sulphidic concentrates and some secondary lead in one campaign and then washed Waelz oxide and other oxidic materials containing zinc and lead in another campaign. The lead-containing residues and some lead produced in the sulphidic campaign are used to optimise the zinc to lead ratio for the oxidic campaign.



Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

Figure 6.1: Diagram of a typical Imperial Smelting Process

The sinter plant in the ISF Process includes the following:

- Primary and secondary raw material storage areas. These raw materials are delivered to the next steps of the process by belt conveyors equipped with weighing devices and vibratory feeders.
- Burden preparation unit. The prepared charge is conveyed from storage bins to degree mixers by belt conveyors. The charge is composed of raw materials and recycled sinter, and fluxing agents (limestone and sand) are additionally directed into this process.
- Sintering machine.
- Sinter crushing unit.

The objectives of the sinter plant are the oxidation of metal sulphides and the decomposition of metal sulphates contained in the charge and the generation of a sintered product of appropriately high mechanical strength which, as a result of its further mechanical processing (crushing, screening), turns into a charge suitable for treatment in the ISF.

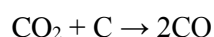
The process gases generated in the sintering process contain sulphur dioxide. These gases are captured and directed to the sulphur dioxide recovery systems. Depending on the raw materials, the gases contain varying volumes of sulphur dioxide and are treated in different ways.

- If sulphide or sulphidic/oxidic raw materials are processed, an average SO₂ content of 5 % (7 % maximum) in the flue-gases is obtained and these gases are used in the sulphuric acid plant.
- If oxide-type raw materials are processed, the SO₂ content in the flue-gases is too low (0.3–0.5 wt-%) for it to be used in the sulphuric acid plant, and therefore the gases need to be treated in a different way (e.g. wet limestone desulphurisation plant).

Charge materials prepared in the sinter plant are fed in appropriate proportions to the furnace's loading containers and charged through the gas-tight double bell lock system. The temperature of the sinter is usually close to ambient temperature, while the charged coke is heated up to approximately 600–650 °C.

Within the ISF itself, the following three zones can be distinguished.

- The melting and reduction zone is located in the lower part of the furnace. The main chemical processes in this zone include: coke burning and zinc, lead and iron oxides reduction. Other reactions between slag-forming components also take place in the same zone. The most important physical process in the melting and reduction zone is the smelting of the slag-forming phase. Hot air, sinter, coke and zinc oxide generated as a result of the reoxidation process in the equilibrium and charge-heating zones situated in the upper part of the furnace constitute the substrates in the melting and reduction zone, while the products of the processes taking place in that zone include liquid lead and slag tapped from the furnace into the sedimentation tank, as well as the stream of gases with carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, nitrogen and zinc vapour. This gas stream flows into the equilibrium zone above. The lead layer from the sedimentation tank is directed into the casthouse and then to the lead refinery, while the slag is granulated with water.
- The equilibrium zone occupies the largest part of the furnace volume. This zone is characterised by the charge and the gas stream being approximately the same temperature. The main reaction taking place in the equilibrium zone is the Boudouard reaction:



The endothermic character of this reaction and the heat exchange between the charge stream that goes down the furnace and the gas stream flowing in the opposite direction result in the temperature changing from around 1250 °C in the lower part of the zone to approximately 1000 °C in the upper part. The reactions in the equilibrium zone result in the increase of the carbon monoxide concentration in the gas stream, while CO₂ and Zn concentrations decrease.

- The charge-heating zone is located in the upper part of the furnace. The charge is heated by gases flowing out of the equilibrium zone and by the zinc vapour reoxidation process.

The stream of process gases leaving the charge-heating zone is introduced into the condenser through the intermediate chamber. The condenser chamber, with a controlled liquid lead level, is divided into three sections. In each of the condenser sections, mixers with specifically shaped rotors spread the liquid lead over the condenser space. As a result of the contact of the shaft furnace gas stream (temperature of 1000 °C) with liquid lead (approximately 600 °C), intensive heat exchange and dissolving of zinc vapour in lead takes place. In the homogeneous zinc-lead alloy, which is produced in the condenser, coexistence of liquid phases - rich in zinc and rich in lead - is achieved. The upper, zinc-rich layer is separated and goes through the flux agent tank, through the liquation tank and then to the zinc tank. The lower, lead-rich layer is sent back to the condenser through the return trough. In this way, a constant flow of lead (Pb-Zn alloy, in fact) is maintained through the condenser. In the liquation tank excess lead is separated from zinc, and the Imperial Smelting Process (ISP) zinc is collected in the zinc tank and is then

directed to the zinc rectification process. The carbon-monoxide-containing process gases generated in the shaft furnace are purified and then used in Cowper stoves, for coke heating, and are burnt in the smelter's boiler house.

Zinc produced in the ISF may contain varying amounts of cadmium, lead, copper, arsenic, antimony and iron and the process uses a refining stage.

Zinc from the ISF is refined by reflux distillation in columns that contain a large number of refractory trays (New Jersey distillation). The lower ends of the columns are heated externally by natural gas. The upper ends are not heated and run cool enough to reflux the higher boiling point metals before vapours pass to a condenser [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The New Jersey distillation column is also used for secondary zinc materials [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

Distillation proceeds in two stages:

- first stage: the separation of zinc and cadmium from lead;
- second stage: the separation of cadmium from zinc.

In the first stage, molten zinc is fed into a column where all the cadmium and a high proportion of the zinc are distilled. The mixture is condensed and fed directly to a second column to start the second stage. This column is operated at a slightly lower temperature to distil mainly cadmium, which is condensed as a zinc-cadmium alloy as shown in Figure 6.2. The alloy is transferred to a cadmium refinery. The metal run-off from the bottom of the second column is special high-grade (SHG) zinc of 99.995 % purity [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

The run-off metal from the first stage is zinc with lead, tin, arsenic, iron, antimony and copper impurities. This alloy is cooled to separate lead, which is recycled to the spray condenser downstream ISF, and dross, an intermetallic compound of iron, zinc and arsenic, which is recycled to the ISF itself.

The zinc is then treated with sodium to remove residual arsenic and antimony as sodium arsenides and antimonides, which are also recycled to the ISF. The zinc produced in this way is of a lower grade called good ordinary brand (GOB), but free of cadmium, and is used mainly for galvanising.

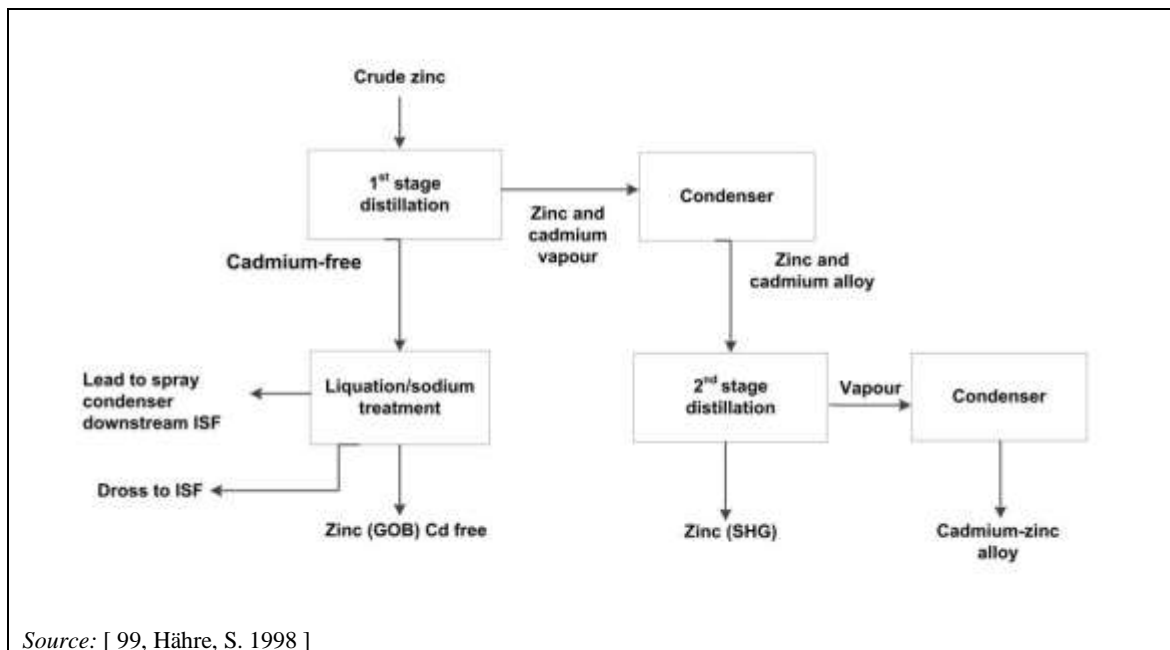


Figure 6.2: Diagram of zinc-cadmium distillation

6.1.1.3 The hydrometallurgical route

The hydrometallurgical route is used for extracting zinc from zinc sulphide (blende), oxide, carbonate or silicate concentrates and also for some secondary materials such as Waelz oxide. This route accounts for about 90 % of the total world zinc output [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998] [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The majority of the EU production facilities apply the hydrometallurgical route, which is also called RLE (roast-leach-electrowin) with a total production capacity of 2.1 million tonnes in 2007 [363, Brown et al. 2013]. RLE is a continuous process. A simplified diagram of the process can be found in Figure 6.3.

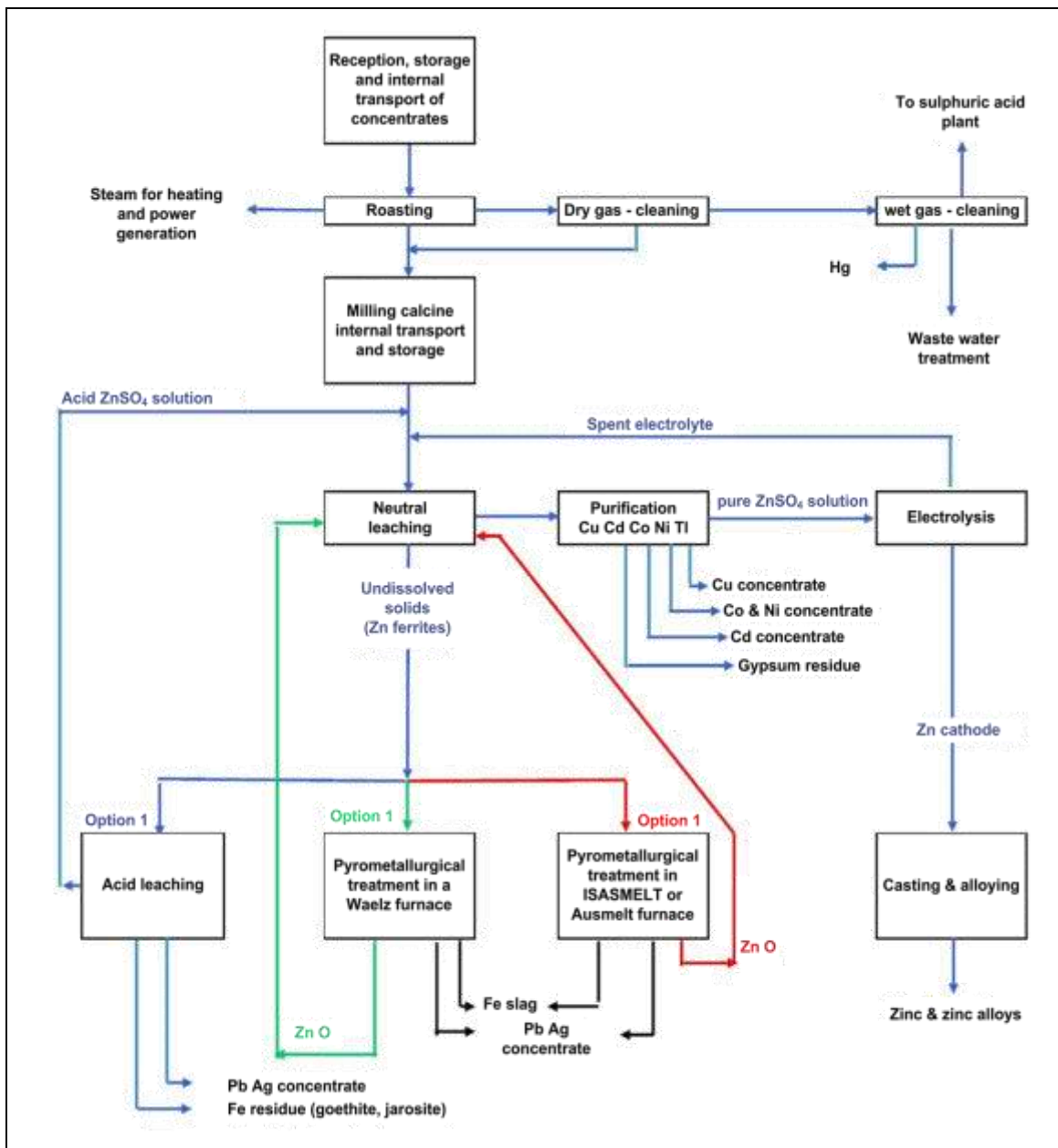


Figure 6.3: Simplified diagram of the hydrometallurgical route

Feed blends can be prepared from dosing bin systems using belt weighers or loss-in-weight systems. Final mixing and homogenisation can take place in mixers, or in the conveying and metering systems. Enclosed conveyors or pneumatic transfer systems are used for dusty materials. Concentrates are mixed in order to produce a fairly constant feed. Therefore, the general practice is sampling and analysis to categorise the concentrates and to store individual concentrates separately so that an optimum blend can be prepared before sintering or roasting. Blending rules for roasting exist to obtain a good fluidised bed.

After the preparation of the feed, the main process steps are:

- roasting;
- calcine processing;
- leaching;
- purification;
- electrolysis.

6.1.1.3.1 Roasting

Zinc sulphide (sphalerite) concentrates are continuously fed by means of rotary table feeders and slinger belts and roasted in closed fluidised bed roasters to produce zinc oxide and sulphur dioxide. Up to 25 % of secondary zinc oxide material such as dehalogenated Waelz oxide may be added as a coolant to the roaster feed material.

Roasting air or oxygen-enriched air is blown through a nozzle grate into the roasting bed. It serves both as a carrier medium for the fluidised bed and as a source of oxygen for the predominant reaction. Roasting of sulphidic material requires no additional fuel, since it is an exothermic process:



Part of the surplus reaction heat is absorbed by cooling coils installed in the fluidised bed in the form of evaporator heating surfaces connected to the forced circulation system of the waste heat boiler (see Figure 6.4). Cooling elements incorporated into the fluidised bed maintain the roasting temperature between 900 °C and 1 000 °C.

The hot off-gas from the fluidised bed furnace contains ~ 10 % SO₂. Gases are cooled in the waste heat boiler and the heat is recovered as steam. Part of the carry-over fine calcine is separated from the gas stream in the waste heat boiler. Cooled roaster gases leaving the boiler flow into cyclones followed by hot electrostatic precipitators for dust removal, as shown in Figure 6.4.

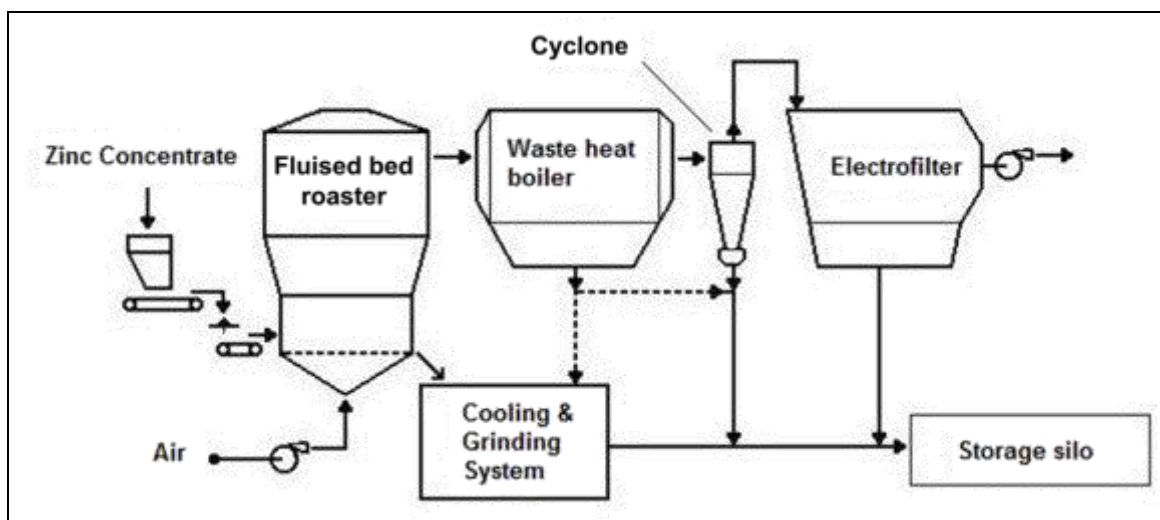


Figure 6.4: Roasting gas cleaning stage 1: dry gas cleaning (cyclone optional)

The gas from the hot ESP enters the wet gas cleaning plant, which consists of a quench tower, a high-efficiency scrubber, wet ESPs and mercury removal towers, as shown in Figure 6.5. The wet gas cleaning plant aims to guarantee sulphuric acid production with low levels of dust and impurities such as As, Sb, Se, F, Cl and Hg.

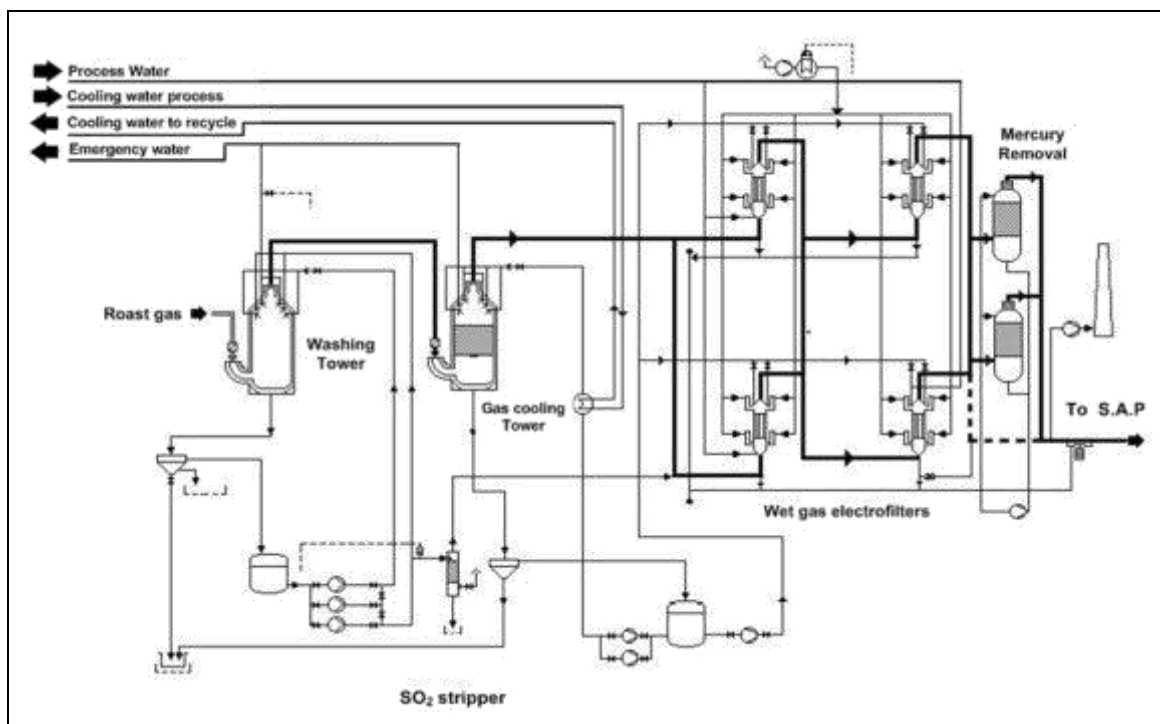


Figure 6.5: Roasting gas cleaning stage 2: wet gas cleaning

The captured sludges are filtered, washed and partly recycled (when possible), and partly sent to regulated hazardous landfills.

The sulphur dioxide is then converted to sulphuric acid in a conventional recovery system [11, Hatch Associates Ltd 1993] [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. The off-gas from the H_2SO_4 conversion is led to candle filters or scrubbers to minimise the remaining acid mist, in the form of SO_3 .

The gas-cleaning train waste water is treated at the waste water treatment plant.

It is also possible to compress SO_2 gas to liquid SO_2 . This is applied by one smaller roasting unit in Spain.

6.1.1.3.2 Calcine processing

The zinc oxide (calcine) is continuously collected from the furnace, the waste heat boiler, the cyclones (optional) and the ESPs, and cooled down in a rotary or fluidised bed cooler. In the rotary (sectional) cooler, the heat exchange is carried out by contacting the calcine with the water-cooled surface of the cooler, while in the fluidised bed cooler the heat is recovered by contacting the calcine with both fluidising gas and water-cooled surfaces. The calcine to be cooled in a rotary cooler enters the inlet cylinder of the cooler by means of a loading device (e.g. skids, endless screw). A sectional cooler essentially consists of a turning rotor which is mostly chain-driven. At the ends of the rotor are stiff cases for calcine feed and the outlet. Depending on the size of the cooler, the rotor is pivoted either at the ends of its own shaft or is supported on running treads, as is typical for rotary drums. The interior of the rotor consists of several section-shaped chambers which are arranged like cake slices around a central hollow shaft. This arrangement is completely surrounded by a water shell. The section-shaped chambers contain conveyor elements (shovels, chains or similar; fluidised bed coolers have also been reported).

The off-gas from the cooler is led to the waste heat boiler or the roaster line.

The dusty calcined material, entrained by the roaster gas, is cooled in the boiler, collected by a Redler conveyor and discharged, together with the calcine coming from the rotary or fluidised bed cooler, in a ball mill that will grind it to the desired grain size (approximately 70 % below 50 μm).

To prevent dust emissions in the calcine-handling system, all the equipment is maintained under a negative pressure, generated by an aspirating ventilator, and a bag filter is usually applied to recover dust.

Prior to being sent to the leaching plant, the calcine is temporarily stored in a silo. From the silo, the calcine is sent to the leaching section by means of pneumatic or hydraulic transportation.

6.1.1.3.3 Leaching

Leaching of the calcine is carried out in a number of successive stages using a gradually increasing strength of hot sulphuric acid. The initial stages (neutral leaching) are operated at low acidity and temperature (typically pH 4–4.5 and 50 °C) and do not yet dissolve significant amounts of iron. The leaching process is carried out in a variety of reactors using open tanks, sealed vessels and pressure vessels or a combination of them [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998], (see Figure 6.6).

When using secondary feed from Waelz treatment of EAF dust, the Waelz oxide needs to be washed beforehand to remove chlorides. In most cases, this is done by companies that treat EAF dust in the Waelz furnace.

The leach liquor is supplemented by the leach liquor from the iron precipitate removal step. If only small amounts of secondary feed are used (< 10 % Waelz oxide), the secondary raw material can be added after the roasting step.

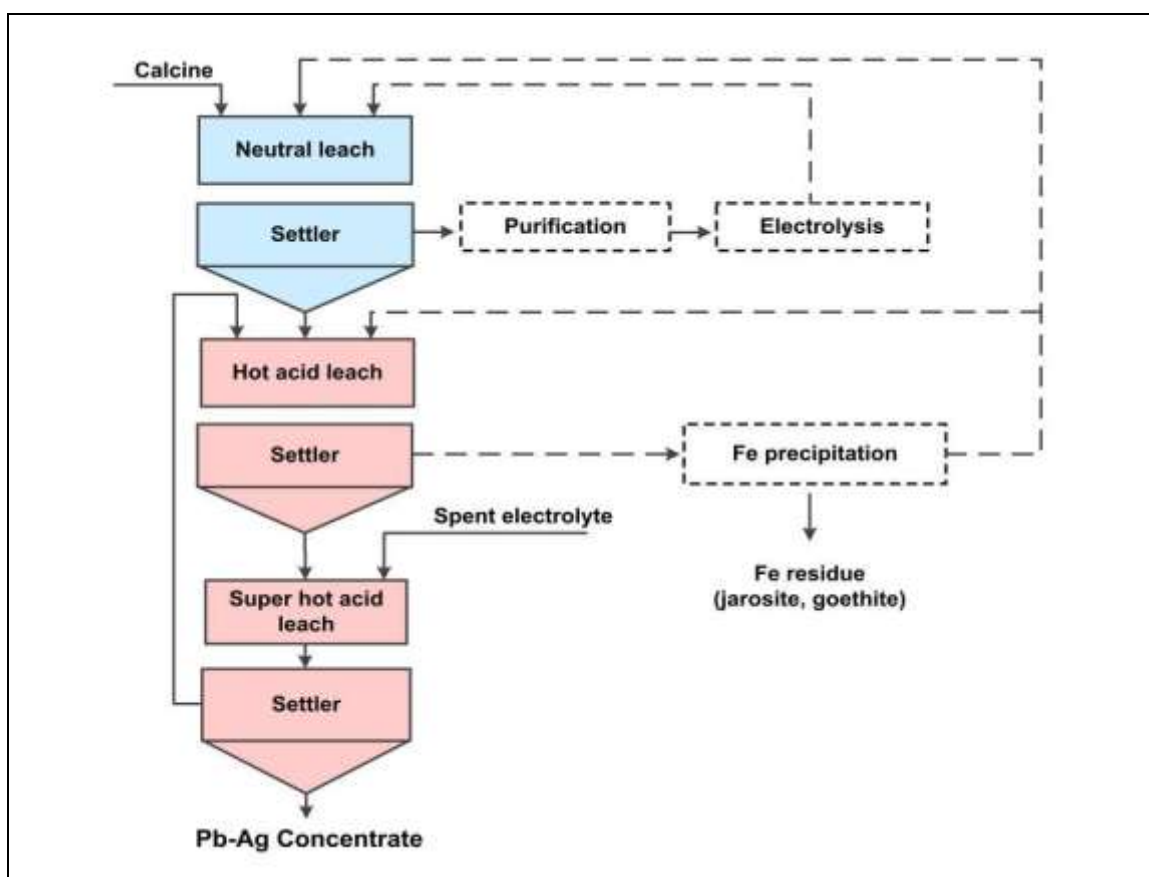


Figure 6.6: Simplified flowsheet of the leaching process

Depending on whether zinc ferrites are present in the calcine or not, and after the first leaching stages (neutral leach coupled with a weak acid leach), the extraction yield of zinc from the feed into the leaching liquor can vary between ~ 70 % and 95 %. Other metals like Cu, Cd, Co and Ni are also partly extracted. Therefore, the leaching liquor needs to pass purification steps before being fed to the cell house.

The remaining ~ 5–30 % of the zinc is trapped in the leaching residue, together with insoluble iron and lead compounds and other gangue material.

In addition to the stirred tank, leaching also involves solid-liquid separation which entails the use of thickeners/clarifiers and in some instances also filters and centrifuges. Normally, vacuum or membrane filters are used for the separation of leaching products and/or iron residues for final disposal. Several options for further treatment of this residue are available.

Direct leaching

Direct leaching is a process in which ZnS ores are leached without prior oxidation in a roasting furnace. To obtain a high recovery yield of zinc, the leaching is done at higher temperatures and with injection of oxygen. There are variants that are run under atmospheric pressure, as well as others under pressurised operation in autoclaves. The latter require more expensive equipment and more safety measures but the process is faster.

The atmospheric direct leach process has some advantages over the traditional process:

- the process can be economically designed for smaller capacities;
- low investment cost;
- it can be applied for an intermediate capacity increase without the high investment in a roaster and sulphuric acid plant;
- reduced maintenance costs;
- easy process control (acidity and iron control);
- very flexible process, which allows various methods for iron removal;
- high zinc recovery;
- low power consumption: little or no heating needed;
- no explosion risk;
- no SO₂ emission or molten sulphur.

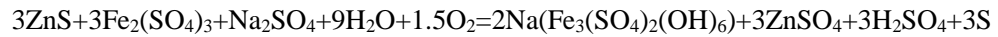
On the other hand, there are also disadvantages:

- no exploitation of the sulphur or recovery of the exothermal reaction heat from the roasting;
- generation of sulphur residue that needs to be disposed of in an appropriate pond.

Direct leach processes are always integrated in a traditional RLE process and only a fraction of the ores are directly leached.

A few plants are known to leach a part of the concentrate directly without calcination. Atmospheric direct leach processes are installed at the new Boliden plants in Kokkola (since 1998) and Odda (since 2004), and Zhuzhou in China (since 2010). A pressurised direct leach process was installed at Korea Zinc, Onsan (since 1994). At the Korea Zinc plant, the iron is left in solution during the leaching and is then precipitated in a separate step as goethite, whereas at Kokkola and Odda, the iron is precipitated as jarosite simultaneously with the leaching of the sulphides. At Zhuzhou, iron is precipitated as goethite.

The concentrate together with the process solution and acid from the electrolysis is fed to the reactors where the leaching takes place by sparging oxygen into the slurry. The rest of the dissolved iron in the solution from the conversion and the iron dissolved from the concentrate are precipitated as jarosite. The net reaction for direct leaching and simultaneous jarosite precipitation can be written as:



A sulphur concentrate is separated from the slurry by flotation and stored separately from the jarosite residue. This sulphur concentrate contains a significant amount of impurities and is disposed of to land and this makes the direct leaching process a very site-specific issue. The equipment used in the process is more complicated than that conventionally used in zinc hydrometallurgy.

A flowsheet of the leaching process with an integrated atmospheric direct leach is shown in Figure 6.7.

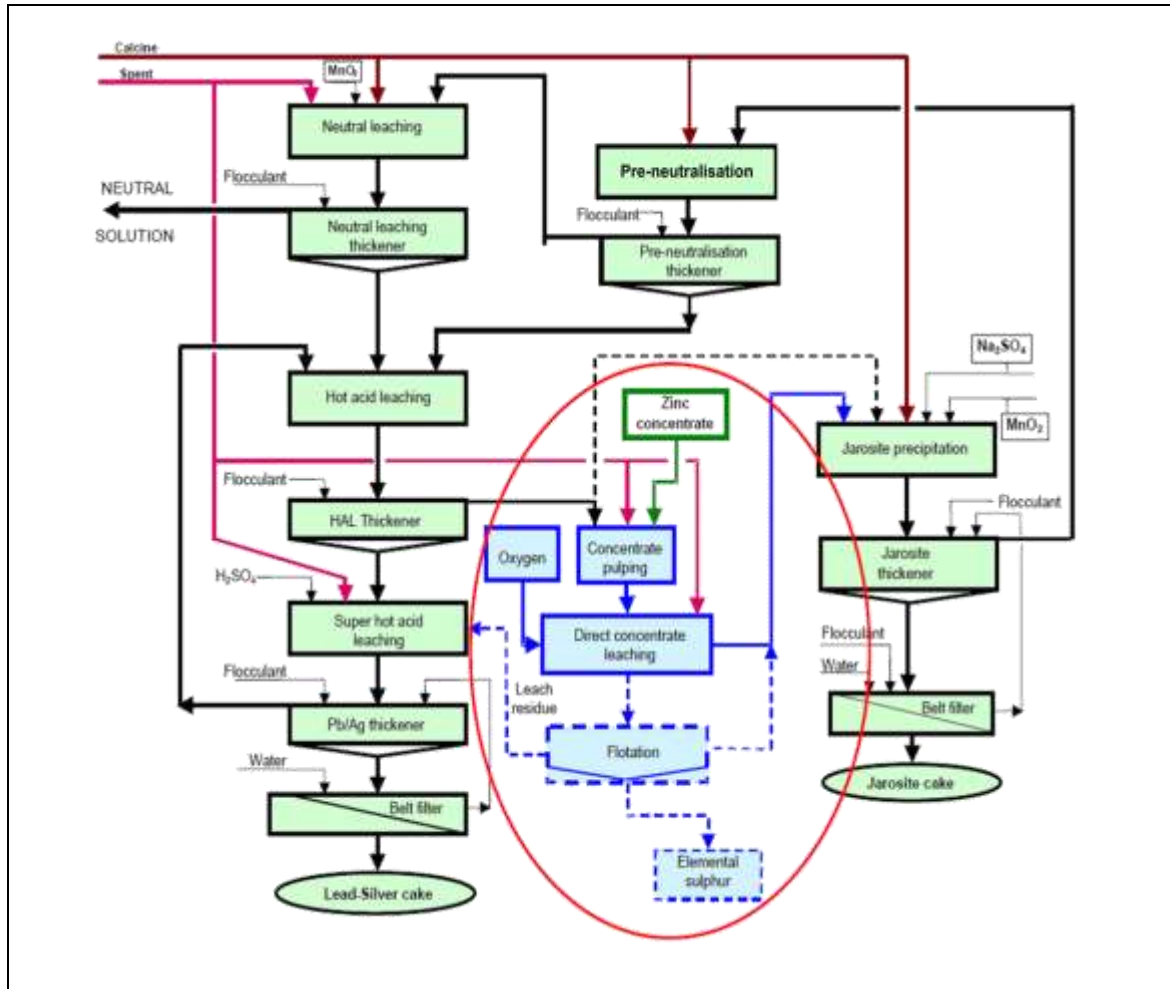


Figure 6.7: Flowsheet of the leaching process with an integrated atmospheric direct leach to increase the plant capacity

A further description of the process is given in [283, Lahtinen et al. 2004]

6.1.1.3.4 Purification

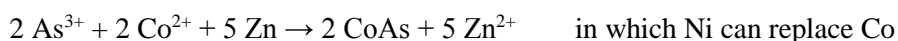
The elimination of impurities from the electrolyte, prior to electrolysis, is key for the quality of the zinc deposit. Purification of the zinc-bearing solution can be carried out in a number of ways using zinc powder (to reduce and precipitate metallic impurities) or by solvent extraction (to extract a pure ZnSO_4 solution). The processes used are dependent on the concentrations of the various metals contained in the raw materials and vary accordingly.

6.1.1.3.4.1 Purification using chemicals

The basic chemical purification processes involve the use of zinc powder to precipitate impurities such as Cu, Cd, Ni, Co and Tl. Being more noble than zinc, these impurities are reduced and form a metallic precipitate upon addition of fine zinc powder to the solution, following the generic electrochemical reaction:



Copper and cadmium can be precipitated easily with zinc powder. The precipitation kinetics of cobalt and nickel, however, are too low for an industrial process, and necessitate uneconomical amounts of zinc powder. The use of an additional precipitating agent for the removal of cobalt and nickel is therefore a necessity; two common variants of zinc purification are the so-called arsenic (As) and antimony (Sb) processes, where As^{3+} and Sb^{3+} ions are used respectively in addition to zinc powder. Using arsenic as an example, the following reaction equation occurs:



The zinc powder used in the purification process is typically produced on site using cathodic zinc from the electrolytic process. The consumption of zinc powder varies among the plants and processes and, as a range, 1.5–6 % of cathodes will be used for purification. Zinc powder consumption is affected not only by the process route, but also by the concentration/amounts of impurities in the solution treated. Although the different plants may have different process set-ups and layouts, the basic chemical reactions are the same.

The arsenic-based process uses As_2O_3 to reach the desired concentration of arsenic in the solution. The optimal concentration varies between a few mg/l of arsenic up to 150 mg/l according to a survey among zinc plants around the world in 2002 (carried out by Boliden Odda). The arsenic trioxide stock solution can be prepared using caustic soda, for example, or hot water. A simplified flowsheet from an existing plant is provided in Figure 6.8 as an example of arsenic-based purification. It should be noted that other variants of the arsenic-based process exist, for example with an additional copper removal stage beforehand.

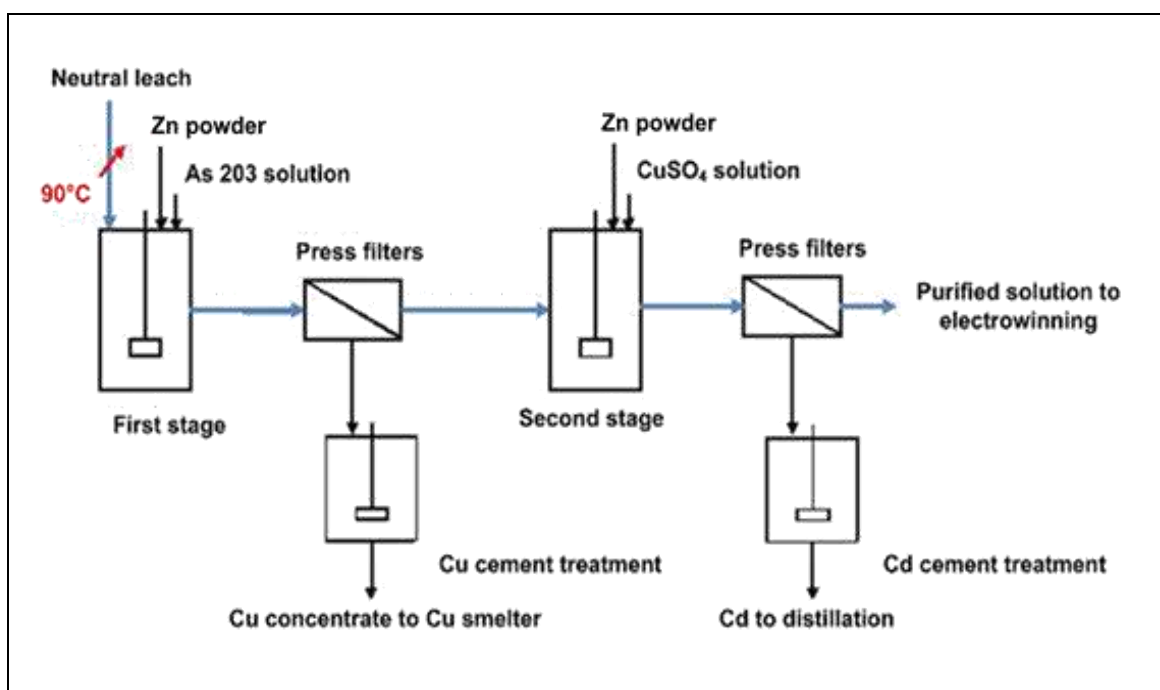


Figure 6.8: Example flowsheet for an As-based purification process for removal of Co and Ni

To maintain a good, arsenic-free workplace, special equipment and care are necessary when making the arsenic stock solution. As_2O_3 is normally shipped in metal barrels, and the emptying and subsequent handling and disposal of these barrels must be carefully considered. A fully enclosed drum handling unit, connected to a scrubber system, can for example be used to control dust emissions. Empty steel drums require thorough cleaning before being disposed of as scrap.

Due to the strong reducing environment in the reactions involved, side reactions do occur, and it is known that smaller amounts of AsH_3 (arsane gas) can be produced and leave the reactors. To avoid emitting AsH_3 through the stack/ventilation air, it is common to oxidise the AsH_3 (gas) back to As^{3+} with the aid of KMnO_4 or sulphuric acid scrubbing. The arsenic will then be captured and reintroduced into the process liquid or specially treated.

Arsenic then exits the process as a component of the copper by-product, which is sold to a copper smelter for recovery of metals. Alternatively, it can be leached out of the by-product using caustic soda, and stabilised in the leaching circuit for disposal to landfill as a component of the iron residue.

In Europe, Plant A applies the arsenic-based process.

The antimony-based processes normally use antimony tartrate for the addition of antimony to the process solution. Concentrations are normally within a few milligrams of Sb^{3+} per litre. In Plant D, antimony additions vary between 3 mg/l and 4 mg/l under prevailing conditions.

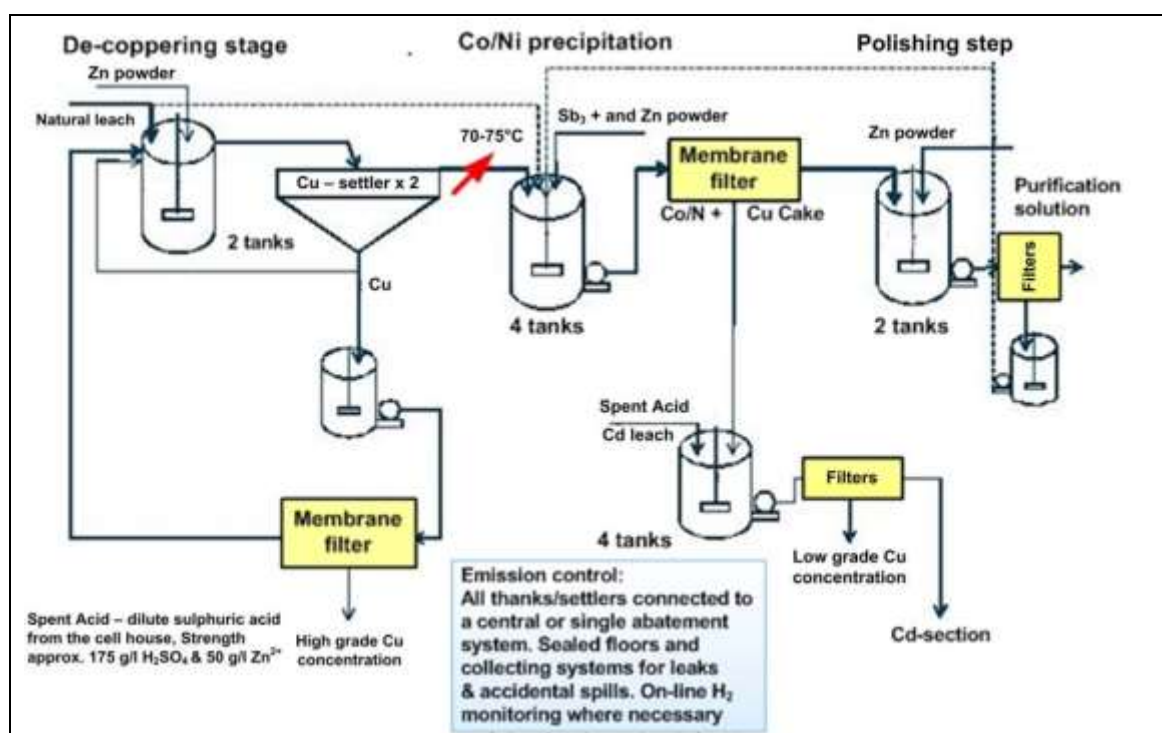


Figure 6.9: Flowsheet of the Sb-based purification process at Plant D

At Plant D, the stock/dosing solution is made to a strength of approximately 4 g/l Sb^{3+} (in water) in a semi-automatic barrel-emptying device, which uses water to empty/wash the 25-kg steel barrel's content into a storage container/mixer. The small barrel has an internal plastic bag containing the antimony tartrate. The metal in the emptied barrel goes to the municipal recycling system. The antimony emission from this process is not considered significant.

In Europe, Plants B, C, D, E and F apply the antimony-based process.

Both in the arsenic and antimony processes, small amounts of hydrogen gas (H_2) will also be formed in the reactors due to the reducing environment which in turn must be kept below the LEL (lower explosion limit) to avoid the risk of explosion/fire. This leads naturally to the need for forced ventilation of the reactors to always maintain a low level of H_2 in the off-gas. Hydrogen levels are monitored continuously by on-line samplers.

Due to the very reducing nature of the purification steps (zinc powder additions), a combination of unsolicited conditions may lead to the formation of hydrogen. Accordingly, arsane or stibane occurrence is permanently monitored. However, nowadays most plants have improved the process conditions to avoid hazardous conditions with arsane or stibane.

Due to the rising amount of secondary feed material, the increasing concentration of calcium in the leaching circuit is solved by using gypsum removal from the leach liquor. A separate and occasional treatment of a partial flow of the liquor (bleed) can be conducted to remove magnesium, chloride and fluorides. It is known that smaller amounts of AsH_3 (arsane gas) can be produced. The continuous removal of cobalt is more effective at minimising emissions of arsane than batch removal. Collection and treatment of the released gases depends on the overall engineering (open-air or enclosed building operations can be used) but scrubbing the gases from the reactors using an oxidising solution for arsane removal is reported to be most effective [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999].

6.1.1.3.4.2 Purification using solvent extraction

The electrolyte can also be concentrated and purified using a solvent extraction system such as the Modified Zincex™ Process (see Annex 13.1.7.4). In this process, zinc is extracted selectively into a solvent such as di(2-ethylhexyl) phosphoric acid in a specific kerosene to purify and upgrade the pregnant leach solution (PLS). The use of solvent extraction means that other metals are not carried into the electrolyte. Calcium, magnesium and halides, which would interfere with the electrowinning stage, are also rejected. Zinc is then stripped from the organic phase using spent electrolyte from zinc electrowinning to give a pure electrolyte [327, Gnoinski et al. 2008]. Although this process is mainly used to treat secondary zinc materials, such as Waelz oxide, it can also be used to concentrate weak solutions of zinc such as those produced by leaching oxidic ores and to purify zinc solutions derived from the recycling of zinc/manganese batteries. The main stages included in the solvent extraction (SX) unit are extraction, washing, stripping, and organic regeneration, as shown in Figure 6.10.

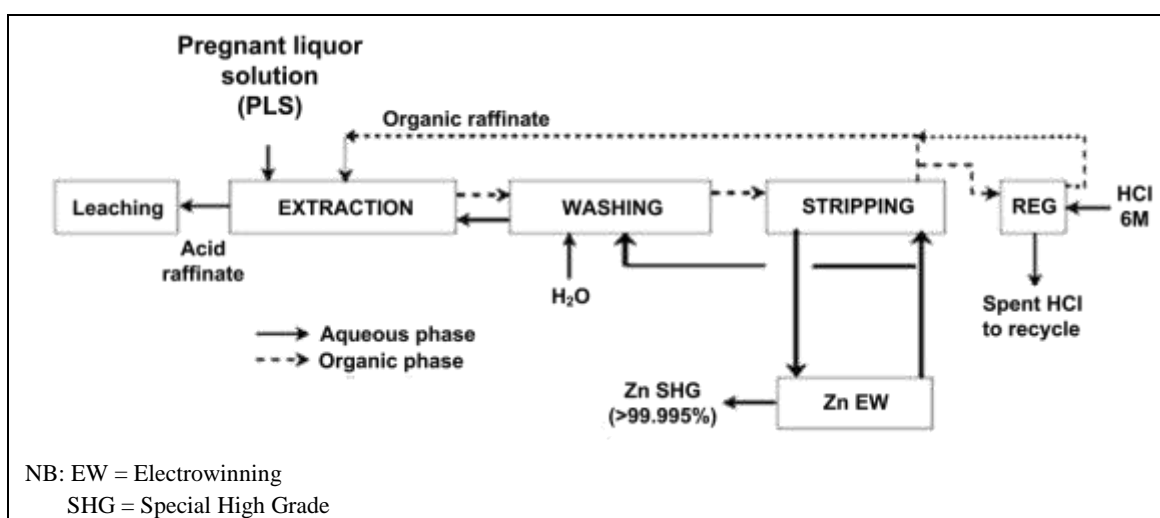


Figure 6.10: Simplified flowsheet of the Modified Zincex™ Process SX

The aqueous acid zinc raffinate leaving the extraction stage is recycled to the leaching section after the entrained organics are removed. A small proportion is sent to the bleed treatment section to balance the components of the circuit.

The typical flow rate is 50 m³/h per tonne of zinc produced. Table 6.1 shows the reagents and utilities consumption for the SX process.

Table 6.1: Main reagent and utilities consumption in the Modified Zincex™ Process

Component	Unit	Consumption per tonne of zinc produced
NaCl	kg	16
Active charcoal	kg	0.9
D ₂ EHPA	kg	0.7
Kerosene	kg	8
Demineralised water	m ³	3
Electricity (excl. electrolysis)	kWh	115
<i>Source: [399, IZA 2012]</i>		

The SX technology claims to:

- reduce the production of solid residues and liquid effluents;
- save energy in the electrolytic process because lower cell voltages can be used with the purer electrolyte produced by the SX processes;
- need a lower zinc electrowinning capacity for the same level of production as the very pure electrolyte needs no purification with zinc dust.

At the time of writing (2014), only one plant, located in Namibia, is using this process with primary materials. This plant deals with a special concentrate which is very high in manganese, making it impossible to treat in an existing zinc refinery. In this particular case, the SX process provided a solution to exploit this special low-grade zinc oxide deposit.

6.1.1.3.5 Electrolysis

The purified solution from either cementation or solvent extraction processes passes to a cell house where zinc is electrowon using lead anodes and aluminium cathodes. Zinc is deposited at the cathodes and oxygen is formed at the anodes, where sulphuric acid is also generated and is recycled to the leaching stage. Acid mist is formed during this process and various coverings or the preservation of a foam layer can be used on the cells to minimise this. Cell room ventilation air can be demisted and the acid mist recovered. Heat is produced during electrolysis and this is removed in a cooling circuit, which is designed to optimise the water balance of the process but may be a further source of mists.

The zinc produced is deposited on the aluminium cathodes and is removed by stripping the cathodes usually every day. For melting, low-frequency induction furnaces are used. [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. A small part of the zinc produced is made into zinc powder or dust for the purification stages. This can be produced by air, water or centrifugal atomisation of a stream of molten zinc or by condensing zinc vapour in an inert atmosphere.

6.1.1.3.6 Neutral leach residue treatment and disposal of iron residues

One of the main issues in the hydrometallurgical process route is the disposal or further use or treatment of the precipitated iron. Special containment sites are used for safe disposal at the moment but pressure on disposal options is increasing. This factor is discussed later and the options are assessed. Several approaches are being developed to help avoid these residues or to help find suitable uses for them. The different options are shown in Figure 6.13.

6.1.1.3.6.1 Pyrometallurgical treatment of neutral leach residue

Leaching may be stopped after the neutral leach because of a low iron concentration or when local conditions trigger the choice. The leach residue can be sent to an ISF or any other high-temperature smelting furnace and added there to the process feed. Zinc, lead, silver and other valuable metals are recovered as metals, and sulphur as H_2SO_4 (provided a sulphuric acid plant is linked to the furnace gas stream).

The leach residue can also be processed in a Waelz kiln or zinc-fuming furnace but SO_2 absorption is necessary in such a case. Zinc and lead are recovered as oxides and sulphates, and the slag in this case may be treated further by flotation to recover silver and copper. Due to the closure of nearly all European ISF plants (Germany, France and the UK) and the limited availability of European Waelz plants with a SO_2 adsorption step (Poland and Bulgaria), there is a limited capacity for pyrometallurgical treatment of the neutral leach residue. The neutral leach residue is treated hydrometallurgically in most plants.

6.1.1.3.6.2 Hydrometallurgical treatment of neutral leach residue

The main target of the hydrometallurgical treatment is the leaching of zinc ferrite, which occurs efficiently only at high acidity and temperatures above 90 °C. This treatment of the leach residue implies a countercurrent sequence of steps with increasing acidity levels and temperature.

Slurry from the final leaching stage is settled and the overflow solution is countercurrently taken back through the former process steps. The solid in the underflow is filtered and washed on a filter. The filter cake is disposed of and the filtrate is recycled to the process. Different flowsheets are used depending on factors such as the choice of iron removal process and the integrated impurity recovery processes available.

For example, more or less extensive treatment of the leach residue is carried out by further leaching or physical separation techniques before it is disposed of [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. This is reflected in the recovery rates and composition of possible lead or lead-silver by-products.

In addition to zinc, other metals are also dissolved during this leaching process. Iron is the major impurity and is precipitated in three basic forms; jarosite, goethite or haematite. The form of these precipitates is used to give the processes their names [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998] [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

The different precipitation processes for iron residues are as follows:

- **Jarosite**, using ammonia or another monovalent cation and zinc calcine for neutralisation. Up to three stages are used depending on whether lead-silver recovery is undertaken. A single-stage process known as the conversion process is also used.
- **Goethite**, using zinc sulphide for pre-reduction, oxygen for reoxidation and zinc calcine for neutralisation.

- **Haematite**, using sulphur dioxide or zinc sulphide for pre-reduction and an autoclave with oxygen for precipitation. In this case, a sulphur residue is produced as well as an iron residue.

The main differences in the iron precipitates are their volume and ease of filterability. There are also significant differences in process capital and operating costs [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. The balance of these with the disposal costs of the residue may be influenced by non-process-related costs. The haematite process was thought to be very attractive as the residue volume was lower and haematite was a potential raw material for iron. However, the process has not proved to be viable and the haematite was not acceptable to the iron and steel industry.

It has also been reported [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999] that the jarosite process is capable of high levels of zinc recovery even with concentrates that contain 10 % iron. Similar recovery levels with the goethite process rely on a low iron content in the calcine fraction (or ZnO) that is used for the precipitation in the hydrolysis stage.

The conventional goethite and jarosite iron removal processes are outlined in Figure 6.11 and Figure 6.12.

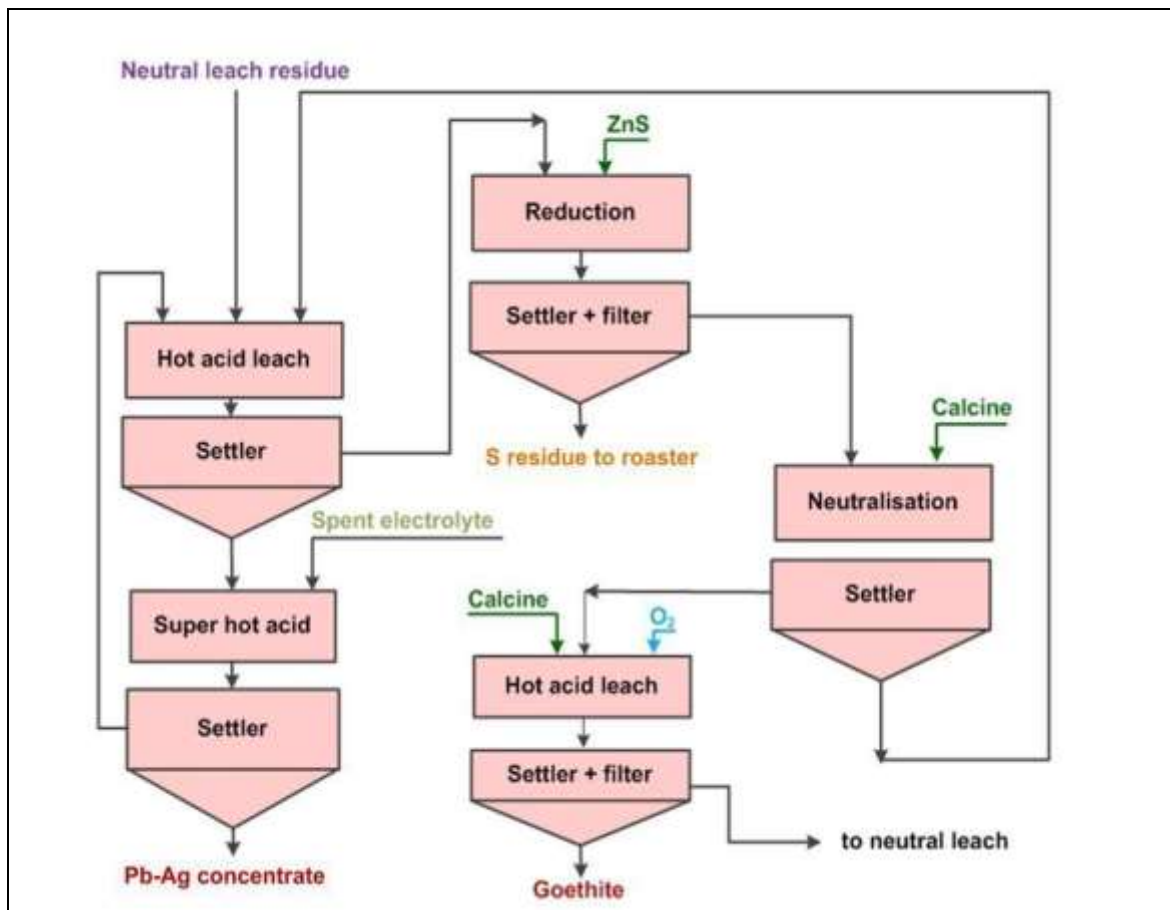


Figure 6.11: Example flowsheet for leach residue treatment in the goethite process

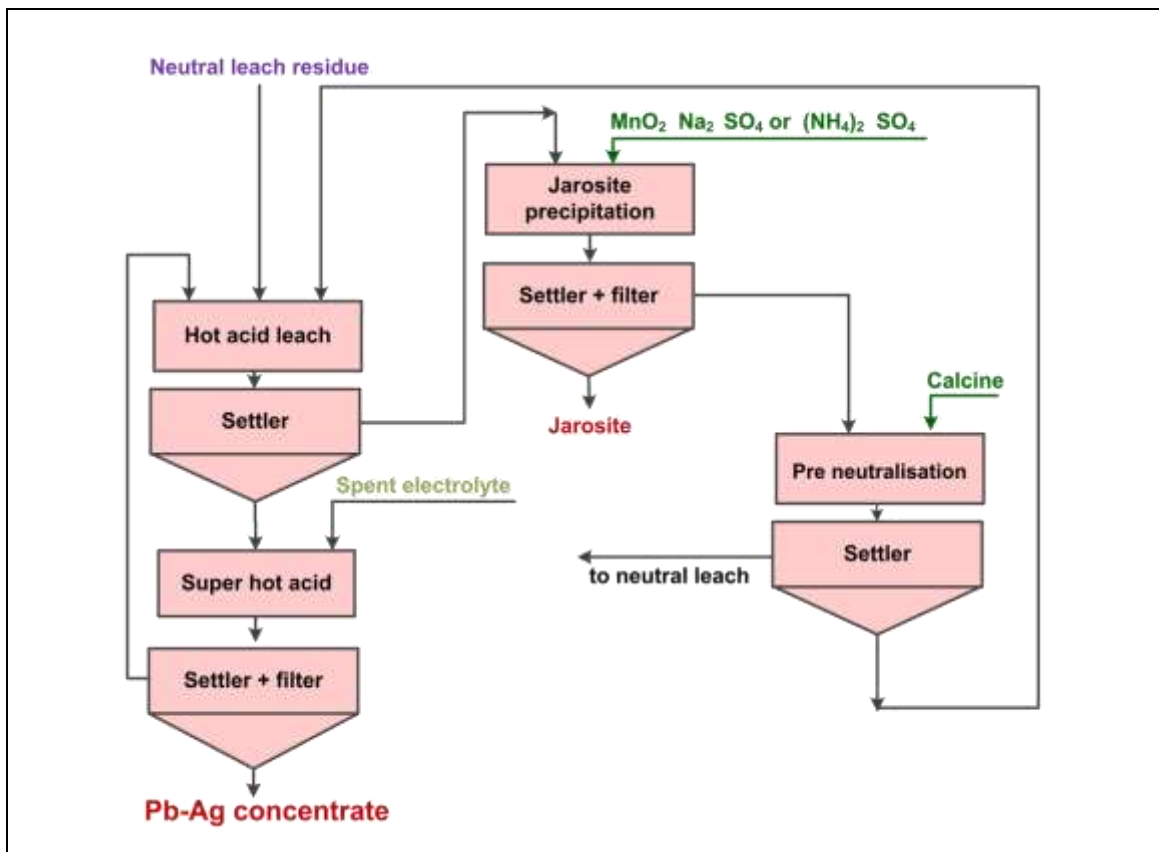
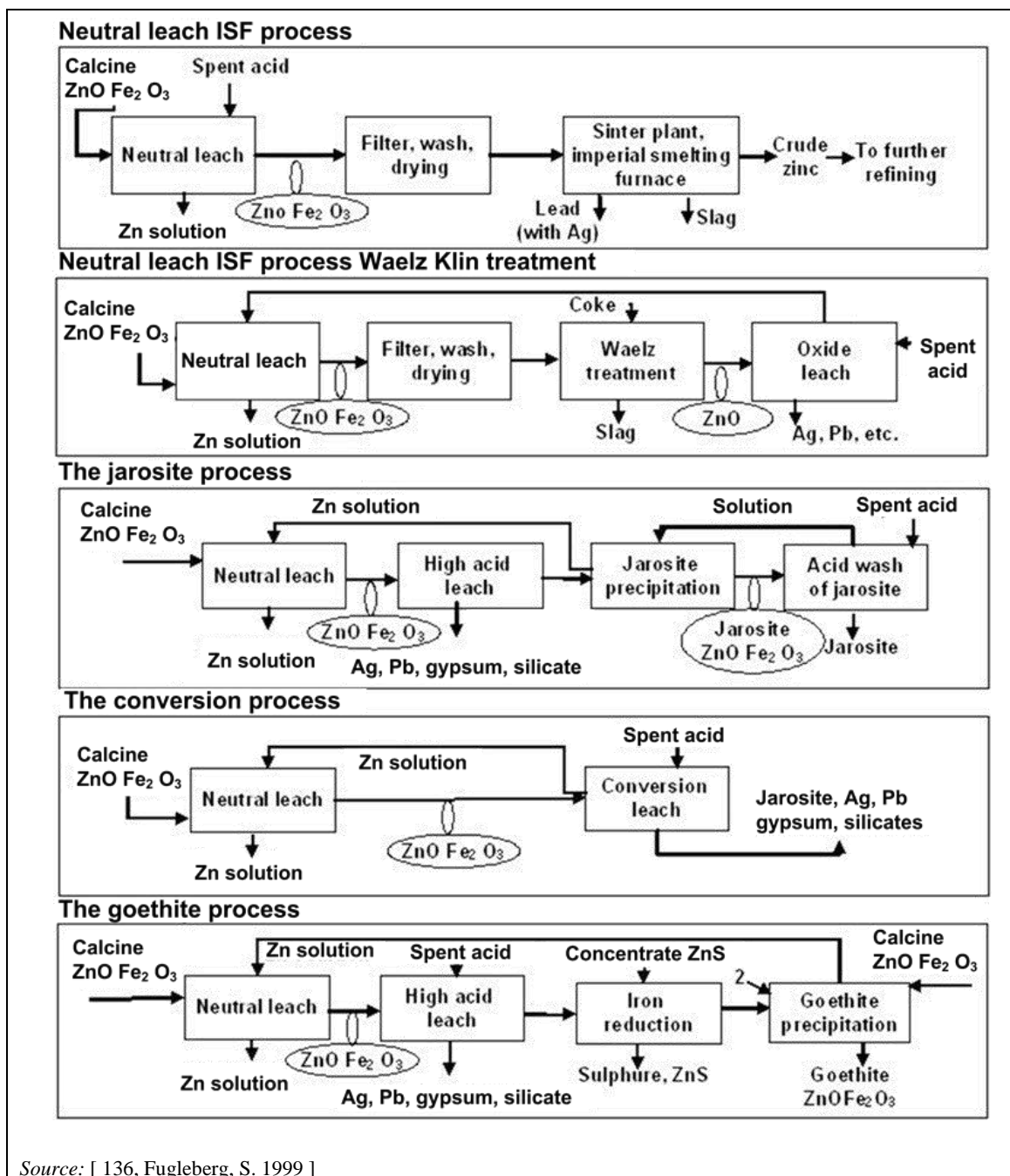


Figure 6.12: Example flowsheet for leach residue treatment in the jarosite process

Whatever residue is produced by the various process options, the zinc recovery yield is maximised by thoroughly washing the residue.

The iron-rich residues are stored in totally sealed disposal areas, usually on or near the site, to isolate them from ground or surface water. Environmentally safe storage in caverns is also applied. Water from the storage area is normally recycled back to the process. Developments have taken place to render the residue storage more efficient and acceptable by fixation in the Jarofix process or by compacting.



Source: [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999]

Figure 6.13: Simplified flowsheets of some iron removal processes

The RLE zinc refinery of Nyrstar in Budel (the Netherlands) is running on low-iron concentrates from the Century mine in Australia. Using low-iron concentrates makes it possible to have a leach residue which contains much less zinc and iron and which consequently is more concentrated in lead and silver. The leach residue from the Budel plant is therefore further processed in a pyrometallurgical process to recover lead, silver and other metals. This processing is done by a Pb-Ag-PM recycler. Consequently, the Budel plant has no iron residue that needs to be deposited in a pond.

Unfortunately, such a process using low-iron concentrates cannot be applied by all plants since there is only a very limited amount of low-iron concentrates available on the market. Part of this is used by most RLE plants to run the reduction step in order to minimise zinc losses. With the Century mine running towards depletion, it will become even more difficult to run a plant on 100 % low-iron concentrates.

6.1.2 Secondary zinc

Secondary or recycled zinc accounts for approximately 30 % of the yearly zinc consumption in Europe. Roughly 50 % of this secondary zinc is recycled within the industry. This is particularly true in the galvanising and brass sector; scrap arising from the production or processing of products can be recycled almost immediately.

Residues and scrap, which are relevant and significant to the secondary zinc industry, include:

- dust from copper and copper alloy production;
- slag from copper and lead processing;
- residues from the die-casting industry;
- ashes, bottom and top dross from the galvanising industry;
- old roofing and other sheet materials;
- non-ferrous fractions from the shredding of old cars and of other products mainly containing steel;
- dust from electric arc steelmaking and cast iron-making;
- residues from the chemical uses of zinc and from burnt tyres.

The process route used to recover zinc depends on the form and concentration of the zinc, and the degree of contamination [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. Different processes are applied for metallic, mixed metallic/oxidic and oxidic streams.

6.1.2.1 General processes

Physical separation, melting and other high-temperature treatment techniques are used. Zinc-rich residues are used to produce zinc metal, SHG zinc, zinc alloys, zinc oxide or zinc-oxide-rich products. The impure metals or alloys can be refined, e.g. in a distillation column, to produce SHG zinc or high-grade oxide or used directly in a secondary recovery process. If chlorides or other halides are present, they are removed before zinc is produced by hydrometallurgical processes due to their aggressive characteristics [117, Krüger, J. 1999], [202, Fundación Entorno, Empresa y Medio Ambiente 1999].

In plants for zinc recycling, visual inspection is applied to remove unwanted items like boots, shoes, gloves, plastics, wood, and steel wire which are often found in zinc ashes received from downstream users. All these items which are found in the zinc scrap bin need to be removed.

For classifying mixed metallic scrap, the most common physical separation technique is magnetic separation to remove items of iron. Manual and mechanical separation techniques are used to pretreat waste streams, such as the removal of batteries, mercury, etc. from electronic equipment according to the WEEE Directive.

Manual and mechanical separation is used for the removal of impurities from old zinc scrap. The separation makes it possible to recover more metals in dedicated processes.

Heavy media and relative density separation (sink/swim) is used by the scrap processing industry but may be encountered in the non-ferrous metals industry, for example in the processing of battery scrap to remove plastic material. In this case, the density and size difference of the various fractions are used to separate metal, metal oxides and plastic components using a water carrier.

Magnetic separation is used to remove pieces of iron to reduce the contamination of alloys. Generally, overband magnets are used above conveyors. Sloping hearths in a reverberatory furnace are used to melt zinc, lead and aluminium to leave large, higher melting point impurities (e.g. iron) in the hearth for further processing.

Moving electromagnetic fields (eddy current separation) are used to separate aluminium from other material. A variation on this technique uses this moving electromagnetic field to pump molten aluminium or other metals without direct contact between the metal and the mechanical components.

Other separation techniques involve the use of colour, UV, IR, X-ray, laser and other detection systems in combination with mechanical or pneumatic sorters. These are used, for example, to separate nickel-cadmium batteries from other battery types and techniques are being developed for other applications.

Process details are very often confidential but examples of these specific treatments are given below.

- Galvanisers' ashes which arise during galvanisation of workpieces, wire and tubes are essentially a mixture of zinc metal and zinc oxide. The presence of different metal compounds is related to the selected alloying elements of the galvanising bath. They are ball-milled to liberate the phases. Separation is accomplished by sweeping the mill with a stream of air to entrain the non-metallic components, which are then collected by a fabric filter. Alternatively, a screen is incorporated into the mill, which lets the fine non-metallic fraction pass, but retains the coarse metallic fraction. In either case, the metallic fraction is discharged from the mill, melted and cast into ingots for sale, reuse or further treatment.
- Bottom dross (also called hard zinc or spelter) is a zinc-iron mixture of intermetallic phases with some discrete metal particles which also contain some lead. It is formed in holding furnaces and tanks used for batch galvanising and accumulates. If it is not removed, the quality of the zinc coating is reduced and blockages may result, hence automatic removal systems are used. Top dross is a zinc-iron-aluminium alloy generated from continuous hot dip galvanising. Dross or skimmings and other residues from the die-cast industry contain a mixture of zinc metal and zinc oxide, with little or no chlorides. The treatment schemes summarised above are all applied to these materials. The same applies to old roofing and other sheet materials as well as to residues from the chemical uses of zinc or zinc products.
- Processing end-of-life vehicles in a series of mills produces shredder residue. After the removal of the non-metallic fraction, the non-ferrous fraction is separated from other steel-based products by magnetic separation. Heavy media separation and other techniques are then used to treat it, followed by selective melting to recover zinc.
- Zinc-containing dust (oxide mixture) can be fed to a clinker furnace, where the remaining halogens and lead are driven off by heating to 1000 °C. After the treatment in the furnace, ZnO is suitable to be used as raw material in a zinc smelter without further treatment.

Residues are melted in two stages in a gas-fired reverberatory furnace. In the first stage, lead is melted at 340 °C and is tapped and cast into ingots. In the second stage, the temperature is raised to 440 °C and zinc is melted, tapped and cast into ingots. An alternative process uses an indirectly fired rotary kiln with a perforated inner lining. Zinc melts and flows out through the liner into a holding furnace from where it is cast into ingots. Further refining is always necessary.

6.1.2.2 Solvent extraction processes for secondary zinc

See description in Section 6.1.1.3.4.2.

The SX stage is used to recover zinc from dirty secondary raw materials such as batteries. Other sources of secondary zinc materials include dusts and fumes from pyrometallurgical processes (e.g. copper smelters, electric arc steelmaking furnaces, etc.); combustion processes (e.g. domestic waste incineration, spent tyre incineration, etc.); and secondary zinc oxides from fuming processes like Waelz and Primus furnaces.

When applied to secondary raw materials, the process involves the upgrading and purification of the pregnant leach solution by solvent extraction (SX) to separate halides and metals from the zinc solution. The resulting purified electrolyte can be fed to a conventional electrowinning process.

This process was used in some plants in Spain to recover zinc from secondary materials (all these plants have now closed down). Nowadays (2014), this process is being used in a plant in Akita (Japan) to recover zinc from various zinc oxides' secondary materials. It was also reported that a recently commissioned zinc refinery located in Portovesme (Italy) would use it to treat Waelz oxide, and that there is another ongoing project in Forest City (US).

6.1.2.3 Waelz kilns

Waelz oxide is a zinc-rich intermediate product for use in zinc-winning processes. It is produced from residues, in particular the dust from electric arc steelmaking furnaces. Waelz kilns and slag fuming furnaces can be used.

The process is designed to separate zinc and lead from other materials by reducing, volatilising and oxidising zinc and lead again [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. The dust from electric arc steelmaking (EAF dust), other zinc-rich materials, coke breeze and materials that contain CaO are stored separately. For optimum process conditions, the feed materials can be homogenised and pelletised. They are then sent directly to the kiln-feeding system or for intermediate storage. Weighing equipment can be used to control the quantity of reduction materials (coke) according to the zinc content of the raw materials and of fluxes for the desired slag quality. There are some variations in the process depending on the slag basicity achieved [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

The normal operating temperature inside a Waelz kiln is about 1200–1400 °C. Inside the kiln, solid materials are first dried and then heated up by the countercurrent flow of hot gas and contact with the refractory-lined walls. Depending on the inclination, length and rotation speed, the material has an average residence time of between 4 and 6 hours in the kiln. In the strongly reducing atmosphere of the solid bed, zinc, lead and other metals are reduced. Zinc and lead are evaporated into the gas and chlorides and alkalis are vaporised together with other volatile metals and elements. As there is a surplus of air in the kiln, the metal vapours are oxidised. The mixed oxides are drawn from the kiln with the process gases and separated in the gas treatment system (see Figure 6.14).

The conventional basic Waelz process is applied in Plant I. In this plant, a charge consisting of EAF and containing 13–30 % zinc is mixed with coal and lime and fed into the Waelz kiln. The kiln has a length of 60 metres, an internal diameter of 3.6 metres, an inclination of 2 % and a usual rotation speed of 1 rpm. Inside the kiln, the solid material is transported from the feeding end to the discharge end by the rotation of the kiln and by its inclination.

The SDHL process (named after its inventors: Saage, Dittrich, Hasche and Langbein) is a further development of the conventional Waelz process using the basic slag system with the addition of a reoxidation step for iron at the end to reduce the energy consumption and to

improve the zinc yield and throughput [246, France 2008]. It was patented in 2000. It can be retrofitted to existing Waelz plants. In a conventional Waelz process, the coke is fed at a rate above stoichiometric requirements and results in residual coke in the slag. In the SDHL process, coke is added substoichiometrically (only about 70 % of the coke needed) and the metallic iron portion is reoxidised at the kiln end by the targeted addition of air to provide the extra process heat.

Due to the release of energy by the oxidation of iron, no additional natural gas input is needed at normal operation. Up to 40 % reduction of coke breeze input is possible and higher throughput, higher zinc recovery and a reduction of CO₂ emissions are achieved. [234, UBA (D) 2007]

The results indicate that the basic slag system (obtained by adding lime to the charge) achieves a PCDD/F reduction by a factor of about 10, a fluorine fixation in the slag with a share of 60 % and a longer lining lifetime is also possible.

The gas treatment system typically comprises a settling chamber for the removal of coarse dust that is carried over mechanically and which is fed directly back to the furnace. The hot process gases are cooled down using various direct or indirect coolers. An electrostatic precipitator or fabric filter is used to separate the Waelz oxide from the cooled gases. Techniques to minimise and remove PCDD/F are used where needed. In Waelz plants, an adsorbent comprising Waelz oxide and lignite or activated carbon is used in a two-stage process. A post-combustion chamber can be used to minimise the emission of VOCs.

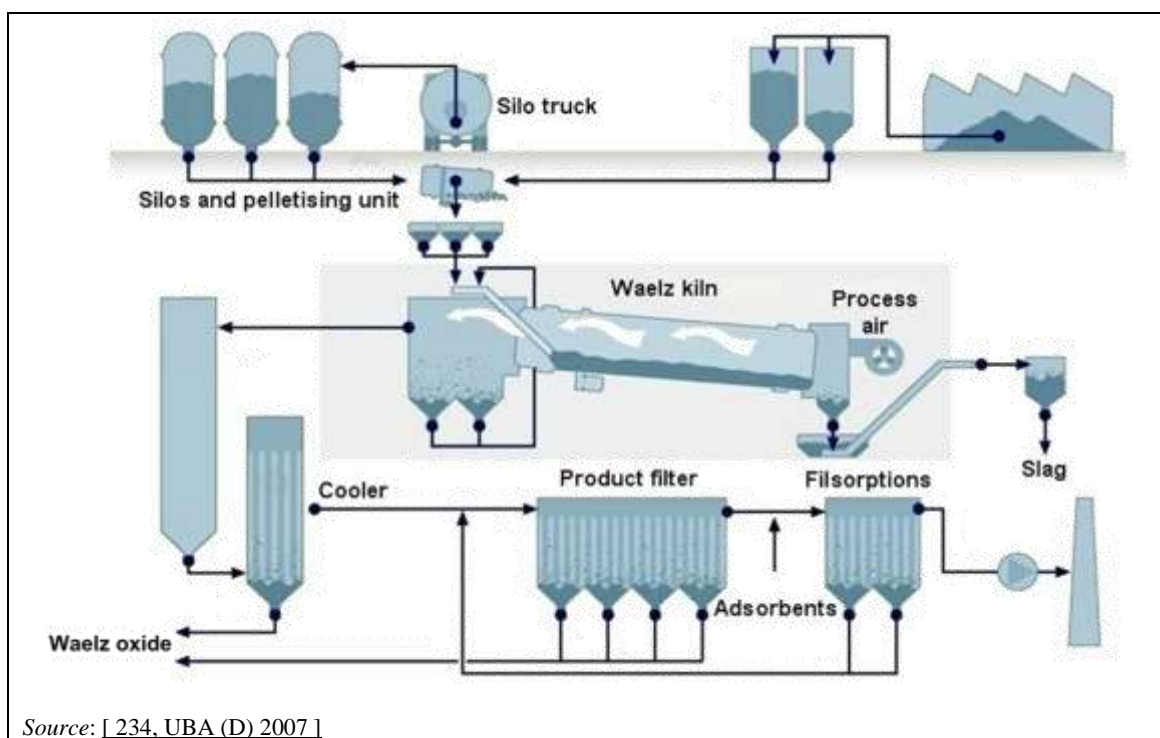


Figure 6.14: Flowsheet of the Waelz process

The slag produced is discharged continuously from the end of the furnace into a water quench system. After cooling and screening, the slag from the SDHL process is used as a construction material for landfill and can be used as a material in civil engineering, e.g. for road construction, after suitable performance in the leachability tests.

Slag from the Waelz processes used to treat residues from zinc production processes can be treated in a flotation process after the slag has been crushed. The flotation process produces a copper-rich portion which is returned to a copper or lead smelter for metal recovery. This

method is used where the tailings can be adequately treated (see the BREF on Management of Tailings and Waste-rock in Mining Activities).

The Waelz oxide that is produced can be processed in a number of ways. The most basic process is hot briquetting or sintering for sale to pyrometallurgical zinc plants, e.g. Imperial Smelting Process. If the lead oxide content is high, a calcination step can also be used to volatilise the lead.

Waelz oxide can also be washed with water and sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate or possibly sodium hydroxide in a two- or three-stage process using the countercurrent flow principle. By these additions, metal chlorides can be precipitated as metal carbonates or hydroxides. Besides the removal of chloride, this washing process allows the removal of fluoride, sodium and potassium. The alkalis of the rich liquor from the first washing step can be removed by a crystallisation step to produce a salt residue and an alkali-free condensate. The salt residue is disposed of underground. The condensate can be recycled; in this case the whole process can work without producing waste water. The washing processes are shown in Section 6.3.2.2.3.4.

In Europe, most of the Waelz oxide is washed and subsequently treated in a RLE plant.

A two-stage process and effluent treatment can be carried out as the discharge of the bleed that contains chlorine is possible. In comparison to the washing and crystallisation process, the advantages of the two-stage washing are the lower energy consumption, the lower operational costs, the lower investment costs and the avoidance of a solid residue.

6.1.2.4 Slag fuming processes

These processes are also used to recover zinc from residues. Electric arc furnace dust, most of the slags from lead smelting operations, complex zinc-copper slags from copper smelters and other residues from zinc reduction processes contain lead and zinc that will be lost if they are not treated further. These materials may be fumed with a source of carbon such as coal, to recover lead and zinc and to raise heat from the process [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

Cyclone or converter-type furnaces are used to raise the temperature above 1200 °C to volatilise the metals and then form the oxides that are subsequently recovered from the gases in a filtration stage. The cyclone furnace is operated with oxygen-enriched air but the converter is operated with substoichiometric air. Excess heat is produced and this is recovered in a waste heat boiler and electricity is generated. The slag produced is used for construction purposes or landfill, depending on leach test results and local legislation.

The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace, the multiple hearth furnace and the submerged plasma arc furnace are also reported to be used to treat steelmaking dust, leaching residues and coating sludges to recover zinc as an alternative to the Waelz process [227, IZA Report 2008]. It is reportedly used to produce steel and other metals from the residues in conjunction with a reduction furnace [257, Paul Wurth 2008].

6.1.2.4.1 The plasma arc fuming process

This fuming process can be used to treat metal oxides, such as bag filter dust from electric arc steelmaking furnaces or secondary materials such as complex slags containing zinc and ZnO. The materials are fed into the slag bath of a plasma arc furnace where the reactions take place, producing ZnO. Coke or a similar material is used as the reducing agent. A slag-former is added, if needed, to the feed. The different metal oxides are reduced according to the equilibrium determined by the slag temperature and oxygen potential. [350, Heegaard 2009]

The slag temperature is controlled by the plasma power and the slag composition. The power consumption is about 1.2 MWh/t of EAF dust fed. The oxygen potential is adjusted by the coke feed rate and liquefied natural gas flow in the tuyères.

Reduced metals with a high vapour pressure such as lead and zinc leave the furnace as metal vapour. The off-gas exits the furnace at temperatures of about 1300 °C. Off-gases are reoxidised by air to produce ZnO and PbO. If reoxidation takes place in the furnace, about a third of the heat generated can be recovered by heating up the slag, therefore reducing the power consumption of the plasma generator.

The recovery rate of zinc is about 92 % and the ZnO content is about 88 %.

A stable, insoluble slag with a lead content of about 0.1 % is produced as a by-product. The slag basicity $(\text{CaO}+\text{MgO})/\text{SiO}_2$ is around 1. The slag is used in various industries such as concrete manufacturing and/or construction.

6.1.2.4.2 The fuming furnace process for the production of secondary ZnO from the copper smelter

This process, which is integrated as part of a copper smelter, can be used to treat metal oxides such as bag filter dust from electric arc steelmaking furnaces or secondary materials such as complex slags from a copper smelter containing zinc and copper. The zinc-rich slag is processed in a fuming furnace where the zinc is vaporised with the help of oxygen and carbon. Carbon monoxide is formed and the zinc oxide is reduced to metallic zinc.

The recovery rate of zinc is about 85 % and the ZnO content is about 70–75 %.

The slag from the fuming furnace is transferred to a settling furnace. After a certain retention time, a copper matte is separated from the slag and recycled to the copper smelter. The remaining slag is granulated to form a chemically stable iron sand whose drainage properties allow it to be used in road and building construction.

6.1.2.5 Remelting and refining

Clean and unmixed secondary zinc scrap is remelted or refined to secondary zinc grades. Impurities, like aluminium- or iron-bearing materials, are mainly removed mechanically in the separation step before the melting, if possible. Mixed scrap can be pretreated in a separation melting furnace to remove zinc from metals with a higher melting point.

Melting is mainly conducted in induction furnaces. After the melting, the segregation and alloying step follows. In the first step, impurities can be partly or completely removed depending on the solubility of the element in the melt. Alloying elements can be added, if required.

6.1.3 Melting, alloying and casting processes for zinc

6.1.3.1 Melting and alloying processes for zinc

Melting and alloying are usually carried out in indirectly fired crucible furnaces or induction furnaces. The temperature is controlled to ensure that zinc is not volatilised, forming fumes. The fuel is usually either gas or oil. The gas or oil burner can be located outside the crucible, which is encased in a combustion box, or inside the crucible as an immersion tube heater [12, HMIP (UK) 1994], [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

Direct heating is applied in aluminium melting furnaces (sometimes molten aluminium is added to the zinc alloying furnace instead of solid aluminium). Direct heating is also applied in zinc holding furnaces, which are situated between the melting and casting section.

In both cases, temperature control is critical, as the casting temperature must not exceed 600 °C for most alloy compositions to avoid metal loss by fuming. Alloy additions are usually made as solids, but in certain operations molten aluminium is added from an adjacent melting furnace.

When alloys are made from impure raw materials, fluxes are needed to absorb the impurities. The standard flux contains zinc chloride and/or double salts with ammonium chloride; some fluxes are also designed to be free of halogens. While adding these substances or during the cleaning operations of the furnace, diffuse emissions of dust and fumes can occur. Fluoride-containing fluxes are no longer used as the use of this type of flux results in the emission of gaseous fluoride compounds, which need to be removed by wet scrubbing.

The zinc bath is periodically skimmed to remove solid dross: zinc oxide and zinc chloride. A flux is often added to reduce the loss of zinc in the dross. The oxidic fraction of the dross can be recycled within the ISF or back to the roaster in the electrolytic zinc process.

When melting zinc cathodes, zinc alloys and zinc scrap, the following intermediate materials may be produced.

- Zinc dross. It is generated at the melting furnace and consists of a scum formed on the surface of the molten metal that contains metallic and oxidised zinc. It is skimmed from the surface of the bath by mechanical or manual means.
- Zinc-bearing dust and fumes. They are captured from the gas stream leaving the melting furnace by means of abatement devices such as bag filters.

In most cases, all these residues are internally or externally recycled for the recovery of zinc.

6.1.3.2 Casting processes for zinc

Metal is usually cast into permanent moulds that are commonly made of cast iron or cast steel. Stationary or continuous conveyor casting machines are used.

Static moulds and conveyor casting machines are used to produce blocks and ingots. Continuous casting machines are used to produce rod for reduction to wire.

When casting zinc or zinc alloy ingots, metallic dross may be produced. It is a scum manually removed from the casting. In some automated processes, the amount produced is nil or negligible. In most cases, this residue is internally or externally recycled for the recovery of zinc.

6.1.3.3 Production of zinc powder ('zinc dust')

Zinc powder is produced as a product for other industrial processes and as a reagent for use during the leach liquor purification route. Molten zinc produced by the same techniques outlined above is sprayed under pressure through an atomising nozzle and is then rapidly cooled in an inert atmosphere to produce dust [117, Krüger, J. 1999]. Air, water or centrifugal atomisation of a stream of molten zinc can also be used to produce dust. The dust is removed in a fabric filter system and conveyed to the relevant process or packaged.

6.1.4 Cadmium

6.1.4.1 Production of cadmium from primary zinc processes

Cadmium is produced as a by-product from many of the metal recovery processes. The production of zinc and lead are the main sources [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

In the Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF), cadmium is recovered via two separate routes. Some cadmium follows zinc and is eventually recovered as condensate from the second distillation stage. This cadmium contains zinc and requires further purification. The rest is recovered from the flue-dust from the gas-cleaning section that precedes the sulphuric acid plant. It is leached with sulphuric acid and is then stripped from this liquor as cadmium cementate which needs further purification.

Cadmium cementate, recovered from the purification of zinc solutions in the RLE process can also be refined hydrometallurgically. In this process, the cementate is leached in a sulphuric acid medium, the solution purified, and cadmium metal is electrowon. The purified ZnSO₄ solution is returned to the main zinc circuit [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Cadmium cementate can also be refined by compacting and melting with soda to remove zinc. Optionally, an additional distillation step can be applied to obtain a high-purity cadmium.

Cadmium can also be recovered as cadmium chloride liquor by an ion exchange process. The liquor is directed to an immersed drum high-grade zinc strip that starts an exchange reaction and results in the production of cadmium sponge and zinc chloride liquor. The sponge, from this process, from the cementate process or from sulphate solutions, is melted with caustic soda (sodium hydroxide) flakes to remove the remaining zinc and the product is cast and sold or, if impure, sent for further cadmium refining.

Cadmium can also be recovered from waste streams as a carbonate. Leaching and electrowinning techniques can be used to recover it.

In the cadmium refinery, cadmium from the routes described above can be molten and cast in commercial shapes. When the purity is not sufficient, cadmium is further distilled at high temperatures. The condensate is cadmium that contains approximately 1 % zinc and the run-off is high-grade zinc. Eventually, the cadmium fraction can be melted with caustic soda and sodium nitrate to remove residual zinc.

Technical measures are taken by the cadmium industry to comply with the EU's indicative occupational exposure limit value (IOELV) of 4 µg of respirable Cd/m³ proposed by the Scientific Committee on Occupational Exposure Limits (SCOEL) in compliance with Article 3 of Directive 98/24/EC (2009). This value is applicable to cadmium and cadmium compounds in general, unless the limited solubility of a given cadmium compound is documented. To reach this workplace air concentration, diffuse emissions must necessarily be low.

Flowsheets of different cadmium production routes are shown below.

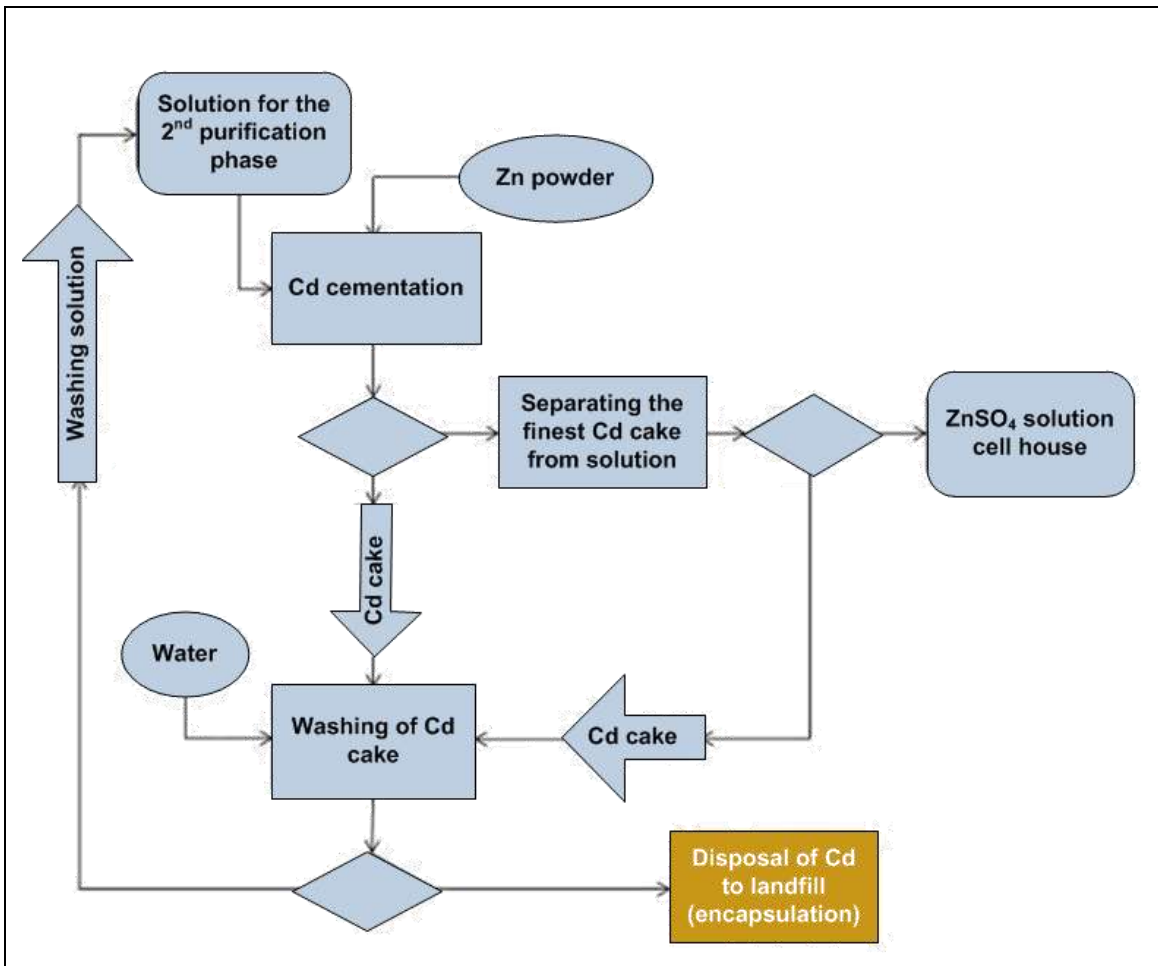


Figure 6.15: Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant A

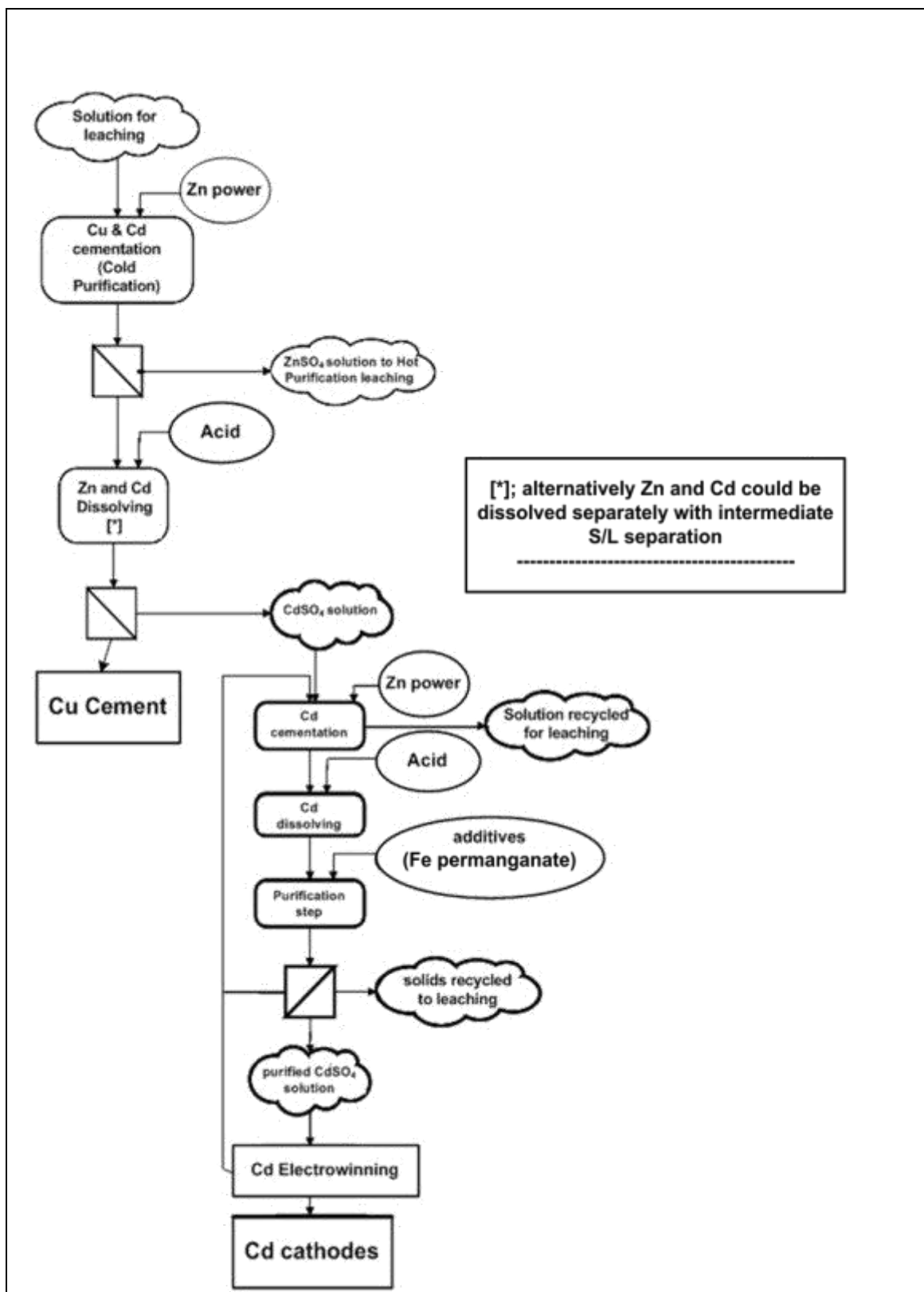


Figure 6.16: Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant B

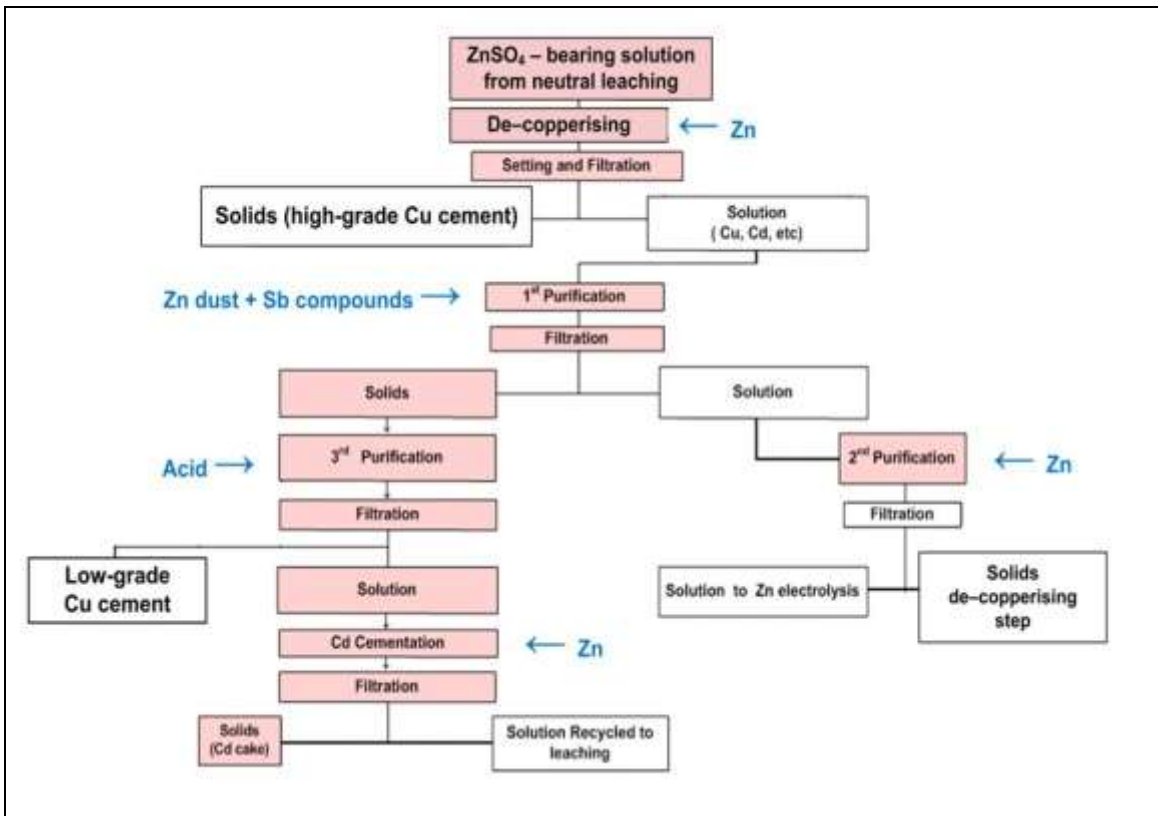


Figure 6.17: Purification flowsheet including cadmium production: Plant C

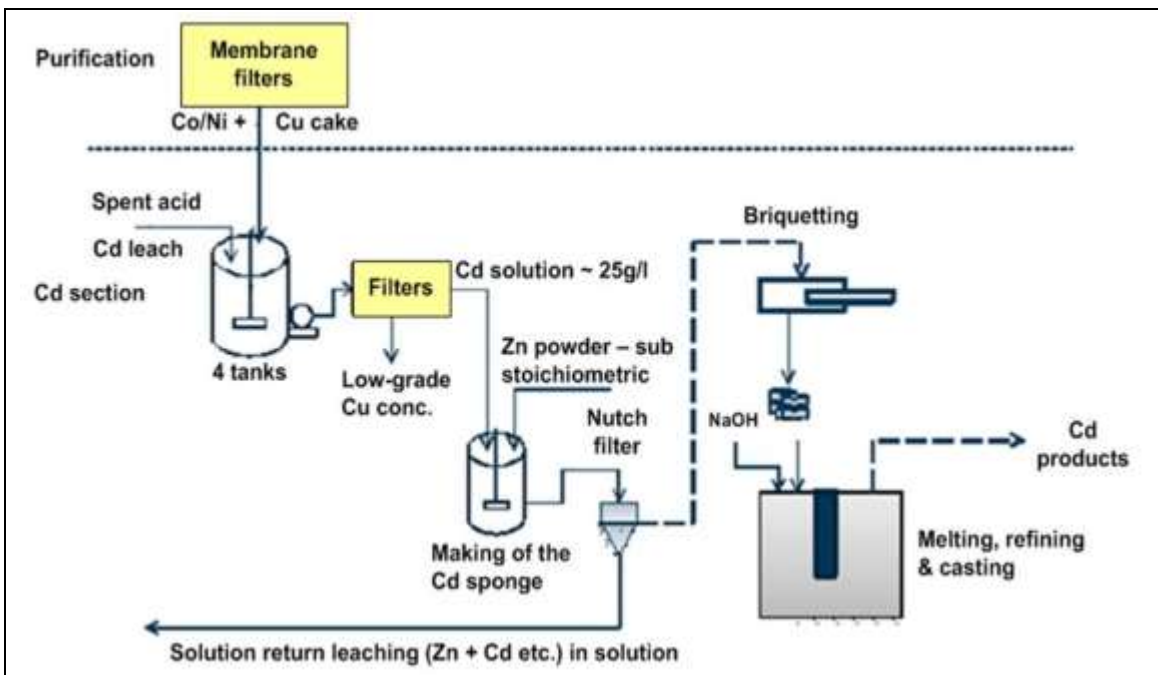


Figure 6.18: Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant D

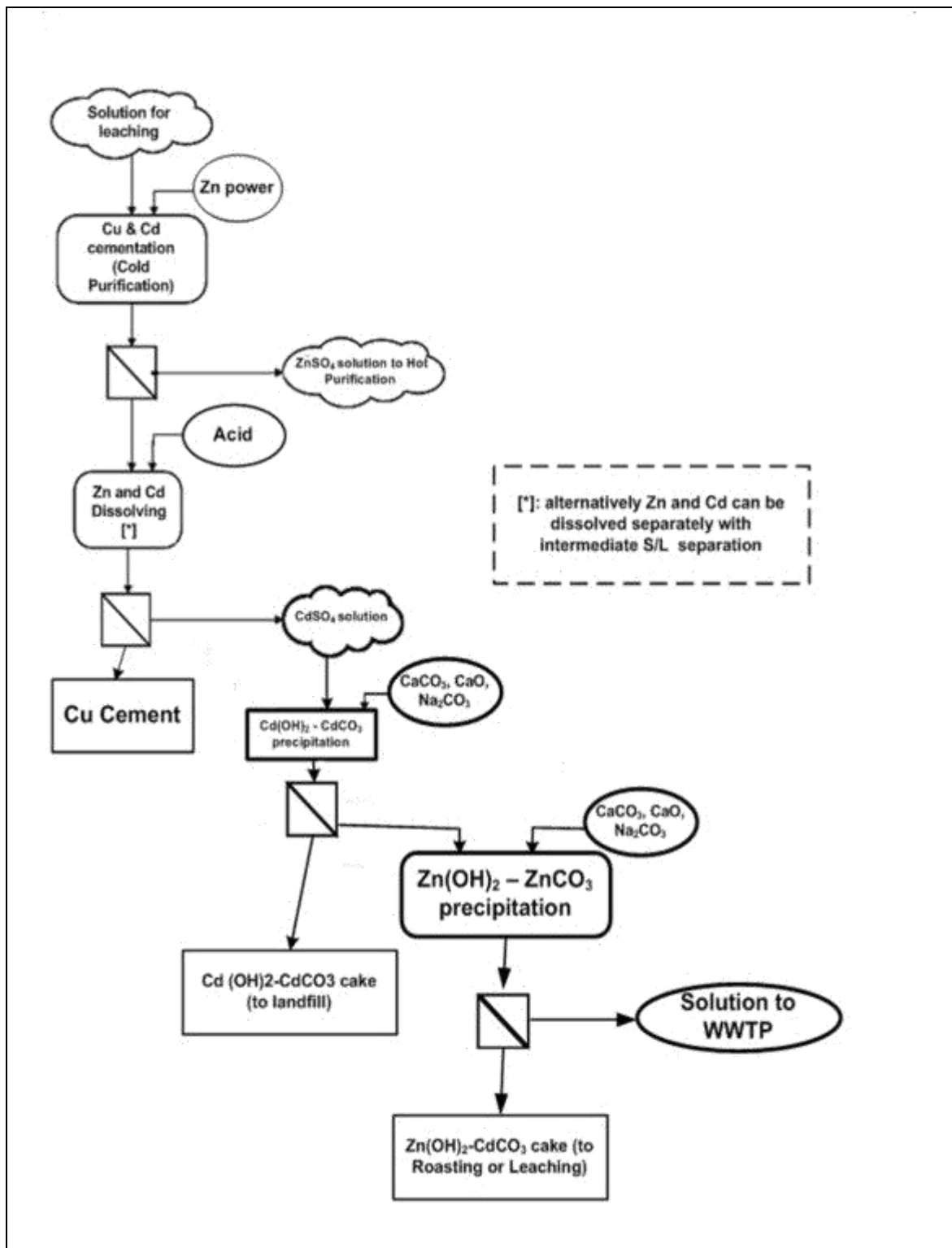


Figure 6.19: Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant E

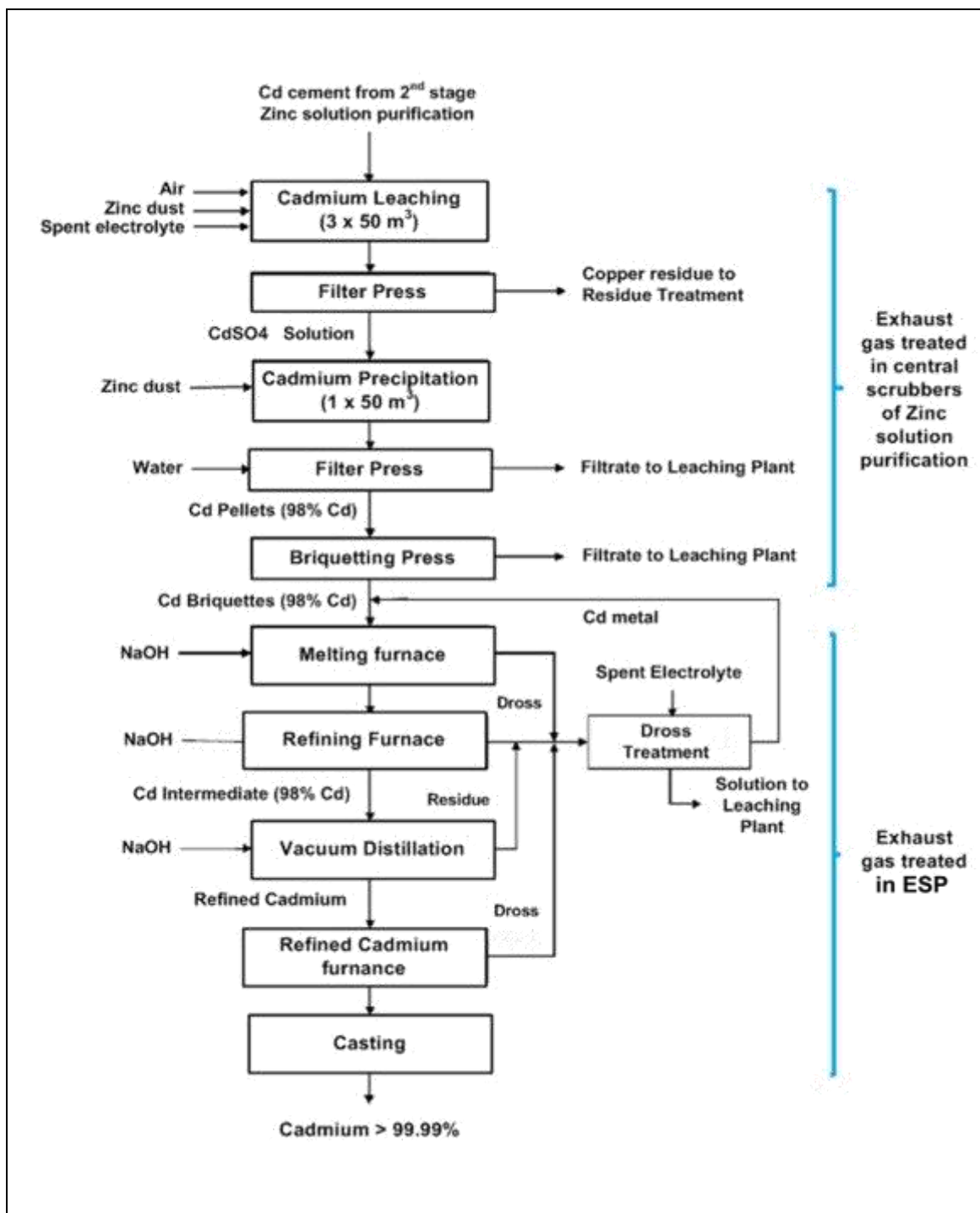


Figure 6.20: Cadmium production flowsheet: Plant F

6.1.4.2 Production of secondary cadmium, mainly from batteries

The other main source of cadmium is the recycling of Ni-Cd batteries. There are two types of batteries: consumer-implicated sealed batteries and industry-implicated vented cell batteries.

The main components of these batteries are:

- anode: cadmium;
- cathode: NiOH on a steel mesh;
- membranes and separators: polymer and paper;
- casing: steel and plastics;

- electrolyte: KOH.

The recycling process consists of three steps.

- Sorting

Industrial as well as consumer cells need to be identified and sorted, in order to minimise the number of impurities. The sorting quality determines the purity of the recovered cadmium and Ni-Fe fraction.

- Preparation for recycling of cadmium

Industrial used vented batteries

Industrial cells are drained of liquid potassium hydroxide and dismantled manually. All cadmium-containing parts are forwarded to the cadmium distillation. Other components (electrolyte, polymers, iron and nickel) are recycled. Dismantling is done in confined areas. Air ventilation passes through a cassette filter.

Consumer used sealed batteries

Consumer-type batteries, commonly returning as plastic packaged power tool batteries, are most often treated mechanically to separate the plastic casings. The separated plastics are recycled to the plastic industry or sold as fuel.

The remaining organic fraction and water is removed by pyrolysis at 400–500 °C. The aim of the process is to evaporate water, to decompose the organic fraction by thermal cracking and to separate it by evaporation from the metallic fraction. The remaining metallic fraction is forwarded to the distillation process.

Pyrolysis can be carried out with electric heating or propane gas heating. Gases are filtered before emission to the atmosphere. The cracked hydrocarbons can be recovered by condensation as an oil-like product which can be sold as combustible or burnt off in an afterburner with recovery of the heat. When an afterburner is applied, filtering techniques (e.g. wet scrubber, bag filter, activated carbon filter) are used in combination with it.

- Cadmium distillation

Finally, cadmium is extracted from the metallic fraction by distillation. A reducing agent (coke) is added to reduce the oxides. The distilled cadmium has a purity of 99.95 %. The condensed liquid cadmium can be recovered by dripping it into water to make pellets or it can be cast into ingots.

The remaining metallic fraction contains nickel and iron with very low cadmium contamination. Optionally, the Ni-Fe fraction can be homogenised by melting. This Ni-Fe residue is sold to the stainless steel industry.

6.1.4.3 Production of other metals (In, Ge, Ga)

Other metals are sometimes present in the concentrates that are used for zinc and lead production. They tend to be concentrated in the slags, dross, flue-dusts and residues produced during processing and, optionally, these residues can be the feed material for special units designed to recover these valuable metals.

Recovery processes can be complex and many are commercially confidential. The processes combine several techniques such as leaching, cementation, solvent extraction, chlorination, electrowinning and vacuum distillation. These techniques can be followed by zone refining and crystal growth techniques to produce ultra-pure metals.

6.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The main environmental issues of the zinc processing industry are air and water pollution and the generation of hazardous wastes. The facilities generally have their own waste water treatment facilities and waste water recycling or reuse is usually practised.

Surface water and landfill control water can be captured to supplement the water demand of the process and losses due to evaporation. When the volume of water to be bled from the process allows it, a final crystallisation step (e.g. in some Waelz operations in Germany) can be carried out, hence avoiding any emission to the receiving water body.

Many wastes are reused but the main item is leach residue, which has a high environmental impact [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998] [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. Some local aspects, like noise, are relevant to the industry. Due to the hazardous nature of some solid and liquid waste streams, there is also a significant risk of soil contamination [237, UBA (A) 2004].

Table 6.2 gives input and output balances for a German RLE plant.

Table 6.2: Typical data for a German RLE plant with integration of secondary raw material

Material	Description	
Feed	Concentrates (47–56 % Zn) Waelz oxide (55–70 % Zn)	1.3–1.8 t/t SHG Zn Possibly 0.03–0.58 t/t SHG Zn
Products	SHG zinc (99.99 %) Cadmium ⁽¹⁾ Sulphuric acid, e.g. 96 %	3–4 kg/t SHG Zn 1.23–1.68 t/t SHG Zn
Waste	Goethite ⁽¹⁾ or jarosite ⁽¹⁾ Dewatered acid sludge Cadmium residue ⁽¹⁾ Hg/Se sludge Precipitated sludge	0.3–0.8 t/t SHG Zn < 0.5 kg/t SHG Zn 3–4 kg/t SHG Zn 0.3 kg/t SHG Zn 7–15 kg/t SHG Zn
Intermediates/ By-products	Pb sulphate ⁽¹⁾ Cu concentrate Zn/Fe concentrate (neutral leach residue) ⁽¹⁾ Calomel ⁽¹⁾ Gypsum	115 kg/t SHG Zn 7–15 kg/t SHG Zn 0.5–1 t/t SHG Zn < 4 kg/t SHG Zn < 4 kg/t SHG Zn
Typical production	SHG zinc Sulphuric acid Cadmium ⁽¹⁾	130 000 t/yr 225 000 t/yr 480 t/yr
⁽¹⁾ Depending on the process window. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]		

Table 6.3 gives the typical composition of feed and products for a RLE plant with integration of secondary material.

Table 6.3: Typical composition of feed and products for a zinc RLE plant with integration of secondary raw material

Metal (%)	Zn concentrate	Zn/Fe concentrate	Cu-rich residue	Pb sulphate	Pb/Ag neutral leach residue	Jarosite
Zn	54	18–21	8	4	2.5	5.5
Fe	6.7	17–19	0.3	2	5	27
Pb	2.1	7–8	4	40	25	4.9
S	32	6–9	2	11	NR	NR
Cu	0.4	0.6–1	51	0.05	NR	0.2
Cd	0.2	0.1–0.2	1.2	NR	0.2	0.06
Ag	0.01	0.04–0.06	< 0.01	0.04	0.01	NR
SiO ₂	NR	4–7	0.7	2	25	0.24

NB: NR = Not reported.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Table 6.4 shows input and output balances for a Waelz plant treating EAF dust.

Table 6.4: Input and output data for a Waelz plant using the SDHL process

Inputs	t/t dry product	Outputs	t/t dry product
Step 1: Waelz kiln operation			
Zn residues (EAF dust, etc.)	2.68	Waelz oxide (unwashed)	1
Coke breeze	0.48	Slag (dry)	1.63
CaO, lime	0.21	Clean off-gas (Nm ³ /t)	2.07
Industrial water (m ³ /t dry product)	1.22		
Natural gas ⁽¹⁾ (Nm ³ /t dry product)	3.66		
Electrical energy (kWh/t dry product)	240		
Diesel oil (m ³ /t dry product)	< 0.001		

⁽¹⁾ Natural gas in Waelz kiln only for preheating, not for normal operation mode.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

Waelz oxide contains high levels of chlorine and needs to be washed before leaching in a RLE plant. Table 6.5 provides input and output data for Waelz oxide washing with and without crystallisation.

Table 6.5: Input and output data for a Waelz oxide washing process

Inputs	t/t dry product	Outputs	t/t dry product
Step 2a: Washing operation with crystallisation			
Waelz oxide (unwashed)	1.13	Waelz oxide (washed)	1.0
Sodium carbonate	0.06	Alkali residue	0.13
Industrial water (m ³ /t dry product)	1		
Natural gas (Nm ³ /t dry product)	15		
Electrical energy (kWh/t dry product)	94		
Step 2b: Washing operation without crystallisation			
Waelz oxide (unwashed)	1.13	Waelz oxide (washed)	1.0
Sodium hydrogen carbonate	0.06	Effluent (m ³ /t dry product)	4
Industrial water (m ³ /t dry product)	4		
Natural gas (Nm ³ /t dry product)	33		
Electrical energy (kWh/t dry product)	36		

Source: [267, BEFESA 2008]

Regarding slag fuming processes, information about the inputs and outputs of the plasma arc fuming process and the material balance of the plasma arc fuming process and the fuming furnace in a process for production of secondary ZnO from a copper smelter can be found in Table 6.6 and Table 6.7.

Table 6.6: Material balance of the plasma arc fuming process

Inputs (kg)		Outputs (kg)	
EAF dust	1000	Slag	426
Coke	80	Gas	7505
Sand	90	Product	494
Compressed air	5915		
Water	1286		
LNG oil	54		
Total	8425		8425
<i>Source: [399, IZA 2012]</i>			

Table 6.7: Average throughput of zinc and consumables

Inputs (kt/yr)		Outputs (kt/yr)	
Copper slag	290–300	Granulated slag	265
EAF dust	25	Speiss/matte	4.5
Coal	45–50	Zinc clinker	40
WRD oil	1.1 tonne	Pelletised clinker dust	5
		CO ₂	150
<i>Source: [399, IZA 2012]</i>			

6.2.1 Energy

The energy requirements for the different zinc processes vary to a large extent. They depend on the quality of the feed and the products, the use of latent or waste heat and the production of by-products. Table 6.8 shows the average energy requirements of the different processes, excluding the energy content in the raw material.

Table 6.8: Energy requirements of various zinc processes

Process	Product	Electrical (kW/h per t)	Coke (kg/t)	Natural gas (Nm ³ /t)	Water for leaching (m ³ /t)
RLE ⁽¹⁾	SHG zinc	3850–4905	0.48 GJ/t average for other energy	NR	NR
ISF & NJ distillation	Zinc metal	1050 750	1100 785	220 160	NR
Slag fuming	Slag	150	250	NR	NR
Waelz kiln					
SDHL without washing	WO unwashed	240	480	4 ⁽²⁾	NR
SDHL with 2-stage washing	WO washed	300	540	38	6
SDHL with 3-stage washing and crystallisation	WO washed	360	540	19	1
⁽¹⁾ Total energy: 13.86–20.00 GJ/t without energy credits. ⁽²⁾ For preheating only. NB: NR = Not relevant. Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]					

6.2.2 Emissions to air

The emissions to air are either captured as stack emissions or can escape the process as diffuse emissions depending on the age of the plant and the technology used. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically and reported. Diffuse emissions are a cause for concern and should be captured.

The main emissions to air from zinc production are:

- sulphur dioxide (SO₂), other sulphur compounds and acid mists;
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and other nitrogen compounds;
- metals and their compounds;
- dust;
- VOCs and PCDD/F.

Other pollutants are considered to be of negligible importance for the industry, partly because they are not present in the production process and partly because they are immediately neutralised (e.g. chlorine or HCl) or occur in very low concentrations (e.g. CO). Emissions are to a large extent bound to dust (except cadmium, arsenic and mercury, which can be present in the vapour phase) [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].

The sources of emissions depend on the process used and are shown in Table 6.9 and can be:

- transport and handling of material;
- roasting/sintering and sulphuric acid plant (most emissions occur during unscheduled shutdowns);
- pyrometallurgical operations: fuming, smelting and refining;

- hydrometallurgical operations: leaching, purification and electrolysis;
- mechanical treatments: grinding, milling and granulation;
- casting.

Table 6.9: Significance of potential emissions to air from zinc and cadmium production

Component	Roasting & Other pyromet. treatments	Leaching and purification	Electrolysis	Mechanical treatments	Casting, etc.	Sulphuric acid plant
Sulphur oxides and sulphates	•• ⁽¹⁾	•	•• (acid mist)	•	•	•••
Nitrogen oxides	• ⁽¹⁾	NR	NR	NR	•	•
Dust and metals	••• ⁽¹⁾	•	•	•••	•••	NR
VOCs and PCDD/F	•(••) ⁽²⁾	NR	NR	NR	• ⁽¹⁾	NR

(¹) The direct emissions from the roasting or smelting stages are treated and/or converted in the gas-cleaning steps and sulphuric acid plant; the remaining emissions of sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxides of the sulphuric acid plant are still relevant. Diffuse or uncaptured emissions are also relevant from these sources.
(²) PCDD/F and VOCs may be present if secondary materials are used that contain PCDD/F or are contaminated with organic materials. VOCs may also be present during solvent extraction processes.
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant.
NR = Not relevant.

Besides process emissions, diffuse emissions occur. The major diffuse emission sources are [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]:

- dust from the storage and handling of concentrates;
- leakage from roasters and smelters;
- aerosols and dust from the exhaust gases of leaching and purification vessels;
- exhaust gases from the cooling towers of the leaching and purification units;
- exhaust gases from the cooling towers of the electrolytic process;
- miscellaneous.

Table 6.10: Emissions to air from different RLE plants in Europe

Origin	Amount (t/yr)	Specific emission (g/t zinc)
Dust from the storage and handling of concentrates and calcine	< 0.25	0.25–0.75
Aerosols and dust from the exhaust gases of leaching and purification vessels	< 2	1–9
Exhaust gas from the cooling towers of the leaching and purification units	< 4	2–16
Exhaust gas from the cooling towers of the electrolytic process (0.8 t/yr)	< 5	3–20

Source: [399, IZA 2012]

Although diffuse emissions are difficult to measure and estimate, there are some methods that have been used successfully, see Section 2.3.5.

6.2.2.1 Sulphur dioxide and other sulphur compounds

The major sources of sulphur dioxide emissions are direct emissions from the sulphuric acid plant. Good extraction and sealing of the roasting installation train (roaster, calcine cooler, gas-cleaning section and sulphuric acid plant) prevents diffuse emissions.

After dedusting and cleaning, the sulphur dioxide in the gas from the sintering and roasting operations is converted to sulphur trioxide (SO₃) (see Section 2.7.1). After planned shutdowns for maintenance, during start-up and shutdown (usually every 15–20 months) there may be occasions when weak gases are emitted without conversion. These events need to be identified for individual installations, and many companies have made significant improvements to process controls to prevent or reduce these emissions [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

Improvements to process control systems have allowed more constant SO₂ concentrations to be fed to the acid plants together with caesium-doped catalysts. This and the incorporation of a fifth contact pass have resulted in very low emissions (standard practice implies four passes; five passes is considered excessive) [229, IZA plant data 2008].

During electrolysis, emissions of aerosols (sulphuric acid and zinc sulphate) take place in the cell house building. These emissions leave the cell room via the (natural) ventilation or through the cooling tower blowers (if weather conditions permit). The emissions are small compared with the emissions from the sulphuric acid plant but, as they are in the form of an aerosol, they can be dealt with in mist eliminators [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. Most of the plants apply coverings of the cells by adding foaming agents to the electrolyte in order to reduce/control mist formation [136, Fugleberg, S. 1999].

Sulphur dioxide production from several zinc processes is shown in Table 6.11 below.

Table 6.11: Sulphur dioxide production from several zinc processes

Process	Product	Total metal production (t/yr)	Sulphur dioxide produced (g/t of metal)
Concentrate with low iron content	Zinc + cadmium	238 800	280
Roasting and electrolysis	Zinc	65 000–482 000	200–4000
ISF and sinter plant	Zinc + lead	100 000 Zn 45 000 Pb	5000–9000
<i>Source:</i> [234, UBA (D) 2007]			

6.2.2.2 Nitrogen oxides

The roasting and smelting stages are potential sources of nitrogen oxides (NO_x). NO_x may be formed from nitrogen components that are present in the concentrates or as thermal NO_x. The sulphuric acid produced can absorb a large part of the NO_x and this can therefore affect the sulphuric acid quality. If high levels of NO_x are present after the roasting stage, treatment of the roasting gases may be necessary for product quality and environmental reasons. The range for all of the processes is 20 mg/Nm³ to 400 mg/Nm³.

6.2.2.3 Dust and metals

Dust carry-over from roasting or other pyrometallurgical processes is a potential source of direct and diffuse emissions of dust and metals. The gases are collected and treated in the gas-cleaning processes and finally in the sulphuric acid plant. Dust is removed and returned to the process.

The gases leaving splash or spray condensers in the ISF, from distillation columns and from the tapping points are also potential sources. Good extraction and abatement is needed at these points to prevent diffuse emissions. Slag treatment and quenching also gives rise to dust. The range of dust emissions from these captured sources is $< 1 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ to 15 mg/Nm^3 .

De-aeration of vessels in the leaching and purification stages can emit aerosols. They are monitored and, if necessary, captured and treated with scrubbers or demisters. Hazardous emissions (arsane, stibane, hydrogen and cadmium), where potentially emitted, are monitored, permanently extracted and passed through abatement devices like scrubbers or demisters for wet systems and bag filters for dry systems.

Emission of aerosols takes place in the cell house and they can contain metals in solution. The range of mist and dust emissions from these sources is 0.2 mg/Nm^3 to 1.25 mg/Nm^3 .

The melting, alloying, casting and zinc dust processes are potential sources of dust and metal emissions. The range of dust emissions is reported to be 200 mg/Nm^3 to 900 mg/Nm^3 in the raw gas [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. Most often bag filters are used for off-gas and dust collection. Cleaned gas values are below 10 mg dust/Nm^3 , and often around 1 mg/Nm^3 . [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

Metals are associated with the dusts emitted, and approximately 50 % is zinc. Cadmium and lead are not present when pure zinc is melted, alloyed and cast.

While controlled emissions have known sources and can be captured and treated, diffuse emissions can evolve almost anywhere on a plant site. The main sources of diffuse emissions are material storage and handling, dust sticking to vehicles or streets, and open working areas or areas where no abatement has been performed. Mass release of metals from some European processes are given in Table 6.12. In recent years, some companies reduced their diffuse emissions efficiently by adequate measures such as [234, UBA (D) 2007]:

- renewal of off-gas collection and filter units;
- reduction of furnace downtime by improved refractory lining concept (thereby reduction of start-up and shutdown times which cause higher emissions for a limited time);
- closing/housing of delivery, material storage, and refining areas and the installation of off-gas collection systems;
- improving material handling (e.g. by wetting of bulk materials before and during loading); and reduction of transport frequencies (e.g. by use of bigger wheel loaders);
- installation of obligatory vehicle washing (for plants and external vehicles);
- reinforcement of plant areas and driveways and optimised cleaning;
- closing and decontamination of old slag disposal areas.

Table 6.12: Mass release of metals from some primary and secondary zinc plants in Europe

Process	Product	Production (tonnes)	Dust (g/t product)	Zn (g/t product)	Pb (g/t product)	Cd (g/t metal)	As (g/t metal)
Roasting, purification & electrolysis (without casting)	Zinc	130 000–1 450 000	NA	6.6–7.6	NA	< 0.05	NA
Roasting, purification & electrolysis (with casting)	Zinc or Zinc alloys	130 000–1450 000	3–17	1–15	< 0.3	< 0.05	< 0.03 as oxide
Roasting, purification & electrolysis (all process stages from concentrate with low iron content)	Zn+Cd	238 850	3	2	0.007	0.0004	< 0.0001
Waelz process	Waelz oxide	29 000–60 000	14–73	4–21	0.3–2.0	0.13–0.42	< 0.1
Remelting, refining	Zinc	40 000	60	15	< 3	NA	NA

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [229, IZA plant data 2008].

6.2.2.4 PCDD/F

The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible in some processes particularly if plastic components are included in the secondary materials that are fed into a process [237, UBA (A) 2004]. PCDD/F have also been detected in some dusts from Waelz kilns treating EAF dust. Without specific techniques, PCDD/F values of 100 ng/Nm³ are measured.

Due to the conversion from acidic Waelz processes to a basic slag system, a reduction of the PCDD/F concentration in the raw gas to < 0.1 ng/Nm³ can be obtained. Organic compounds can be reduced by post-combustion systems, if required.

The SDHL process can also reach very low PCDD/F values (< 0.01 ng/Nm³).

PCDD/F emissions arising from the production of cadmium from batteries are abated by the combination of afterburners and filtration techniques. PCDD/F emissions are far below 0.1 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

6.2.3 Emissions to water

In the production of primary and secondary zinc and cadmium, metals and their compounds, and materials in suspension are the main pollutants emitted to water. The metals concerned are Zn, Cd, Pb, Cu, Ni and Co (and, to a lesser extent, Hg, Se, As and Cr) [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998], [27, M. Barry et al. 1993], [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Other significant substances that are emitted to water are chlorides, fluorides and sulphates.

The possible waste water streams that contain the aforementioned substances are:

- waste water from roasting and gas-cleaning steps: wet scrubbers, wet ESPs, the mercury removal step;
- waste water from slag granulation, if any;
- accidental spillage from various hydrometallurgical processes.

Other potential water streams are collected and reused as filter washing water (if quality allows):

- anode and cathode washing liquid effluent;
- sealing water from vacuum pumps;
- water from general operations, including cleaning of equipment, floors, etc.;
- discharge from cooling water circuits (usually following separate closed circuits);
- rainwater run-off from surfaces (in particular storage areas) and roofs;
- pumped water streams from landfills or authorised caverns.

6.2.3.1 Waste waters from abatement plants

Generally, wet gas cleaning systems operate with liquid recycling.

- Wet scrubbers after the roasting process are operated with a SO₂-saturated acidic solution. The scrubber removes fluorides, chlorides, most mercury and selenium and some particles that pass the mechanical gas treatment. To avoid the build-up of contaminants, some liquid should be bled continuously from the scrubber. Dissolved SO₂ is removed prior to further treatment.
- Wet ESPs will also produce an acidic solution. This is recycled after filtering. Some liquid should be bled from this circuit to remove build-up of contaminants. This bleed liquor is treated and analysed before discharge [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998].
- The final mercury removal step takes place, if needed, prior to the sulphuric acid plant and involves a gas-liquid contact tank or spray tower in which the liquid contains a reagent that combines with mercury and removes it. Mercury chloride (HgCl₂) is frequently used as the reagent and reacts with metallic mercury from the gas to form a solid precipitate (Hg₂Cl₂, also known as calomel). The relatively clean liquid is discharged as waste water for further treatment. The solid Hg₂Cl₂ is transformed and stabilised for final disposal.

A monitored bleed keeps suspended solids and dissolved salts within certain defined limits. The bleed is either treated separately or in an integrated water treatment plant to remove solids and dissolved species before discharge. The destination of the separated material depends on the origin of the waste water. Table 6.13 provides an indication of the composition of the gas-cleaning liquids before treatment.

Table 6.13: Typical gas-cleaning effluents before treatment

Component	Concentration (dissolved)	Composition of suspended solids
Solids		250–1500 mg/l
Sulphate	13–25 g/l	
Chloride	1.3–1.8 g/l	
Fluoride	0.3–0.5 g/l	
Mercury	0.1–9 mg/l	5–30 %
Selenium	0.1–50 mg/l	10–60 %
Arsenic	5–95 mg/l	< 0.05 %
Zinc	0.1–2.5 g/l	2–6 %
Cadmium	1–95 mg/l	
Lead	1–13 mg/l	5–50 %

Source: [99, Hähre, S. 1998]

6.2.3.2 Electrolyte bleed effluent

Electrolyte may be bled from the cells to control the build-up of impurities, e.g. magnesium, which may have a detrimental impact on the operation of the electrolytic cells. For zinc production, the flows in the electrolytic cells belong to the same (closed) water circuit as the leaching and purification stages. The sulphuric acid formed during electrolysis is fed to the leaching process and the remaining liquid is purified and fed to the electrolysis [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

The effluent bleed of the electrolytic, leaching, purification circuit is strongly acidic and contains high concentrations of zinc and suspended solids. The volume of the bleed depends greatly on the composition of the zinc concentrates that are used in the roasting. Components that tend to build up in the circuit, especially magnesium, will determine the bleed flow and the treatment required. The increasing amount of calcium in the leaching circuit, due to the use of secondary feed material, is controlled by gypsum removal from the leach liquor. A bleed from the system can be treated to remove Mg, Na, K, chlorides and fluorides [320, Huisman 2004].

6.2.3.3 Waste waters from miscellaneous sources

The electrodes used during the electrolysis need to be rinsed periodically to remove material deposited upon the surface. Manganese dioxide is formed on the surface of the anodes by the reaction of oxygen with dissolved manganese. The MnO₂ remains on the surface of the anodes, forms a sludge on the bottom of the electrolytic cells or forms a solid layer in the pipes. All these remainders are periodically removed mechanically or by high-pressure water. The manganese is separated from the rinse water for external reuse or disposal. Cathodes are cleaned after removal of the electrolytic zinc deposit. The anode and cathode washing liquid effluents are acidic and likely to contain copper, zinc, lead and suspended solids [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998].

Typical waste water analyses results of some processes are given in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Typical waste water analyses

Process	Effluent	Flow	Main components (mg/l)					
	(m ³ /yr)	(m ³ /h)	Pb	Cd	As	Zn	Ni	COD
Electrolysis	NR	40–200	0.01–0.8	0.001–0.15	0.01	0.01–1.9	NR	NR
ISP	NR	380–420	0.05–0.5	0.005–0.035	0.005–0.1	0.05–1.0	NR	NR
Waelz kiln SDHL process with washing, without crystallisation	190 000–228 000	35	< 0.2	< 0.1	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 0.5	< 200

NB: NR = Not reported.
Source: [234, UBA (D) 2007]

If the Waelz oxide is washed, the use of crystallisation can result in an effluent-free process. Alternatively, an effluent treatment can be carried out prior to discharge.

A summary of potential waste water sources and treatment techniques is given in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Potential waste water sources and treatment techniques

Process unit	Operation/source	Use/treatment options
General	Rainwater from roads, yards, roofs, wet cleaning of roads, cleaning of lorries, etc.	Reuse and/or waste water treatment plant
ISF	Gas cleaning Gas-cleaning coke heating chamber	Recirculation, bleed to waste water treatment plant
Slag granulation	Wet ESP effluent Granulation water	Recirculation and cooling, bleed to waste water treatment plant
Roasting/wet gas cleaning	Wet cleaning of roaster gases	Waste water treatment plant
Leaching	General operations including wet gas cleaning	Return to leaching
Purification	General operations	Return to leaching
Electrolysis	Cleaning of cells, anodes and cathodes	Return to leaching
Cadmium leaching	Cadmium leaching	Return to Zn leaching circuit or, if not possible, to waste water treatment plant
All process units	Maintenance	Waste water treatment plant
Waste water treatment plant	Effluent treatment	Reuse for certain applications/discharge

6.2.4 Process residues

The production of metals results in the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, which are also listed in the European List of Wastes (Commission Decision of 3 May 2000 replacing Decision 94/3/EC).

Solid residues derived from various processes and abatement stages may have one of three possible destinations:

- recycling in or upstream of the process;
- downstream treatment to recover other metals;
- final disposal after treatment to ensure safe disposal.

The following solid waste arisings are significant.

- The electrolytic production of zinc is one of the main sources of solid waste in the non-ferrous metals industry. Relatively large quantities of iron-based solids are generated by the leaching process. Jarosite and goethite are classified as hazardous waste because of the content of leachable elements such as Cd, Pb and As. Techniques are available to reduce the leachability and sometimes the permeability of the residues, such as the Jarofix process, the sulphidation process, compacting and treatment in a pyrometallurgical process.
- The leaching and purification processes and electrolysis of zinc also generate other metal-rich solids. These are usually rich in a specific metal and are recycled to the appropriate production process.
- The ISFs or direct smelting furnaces are also significant sources of solid slags. These slags have been subjected to high temperatures and generally contain low levels of leachable metals. Consequently, they may then be used as construction materials after suitable tests [289, USEPA 2008]. The Landfill Directive specifies CEN standard leaching tests for granular waste (i.e. EN 14405 and EN12457/1-4).
- Solid residues also arise as a result of the treatment of liquid effluents. The main waste streams are gypsum waste (CaSO_4) and metal hydroxides that are produced at the waste water neutralisation plant. These wastes are considered to be a cross-media effect of these treatment techniques but many are recycled to the pyrometallurgical process to recover the metals.
- Dust or sludge from the treatment of gases is used as raw material for the production of other metals, such as Ge, Ga, In and As, or can be returned to the smelter or into the leach circuit for the recovery of zinc.
- Mercury and selenium residues arise from the pretreatment of mercury or selenium streams from the gas-cleaning stage. This solid waste stream amounts to approximately 40–120 t/yr in a typical plant. Because of the restrictions in mercury use, mercury recovery from Hg-Se residues, or from calomel from the mercury removal stage, is no longer an option. Both by-products need to be stabilised for final disposal. In exceptional cases when the Se to Hg ratio is high, recovery of selenium can be an option.
- Regarding wastes generated in cadmium production from batteries, plastics from casing from dismantled industrial cells and consumer battery packs are recycled to the plastic industry. Other organic fractions are sold to the cement industry as combustible, landfilled or burnt internally with recovery of heat. Ni-Fe electrodes from dismantling industrial cells and Ni-Fe scrap from the thermal treatment are sold to the stainless steel industry.

Table 6.16 shows the use or treatment options for the residues produced by several processes.

Table 6.16: Residues from zinc processes

Production step	Product or process residue	Quantity (kg/t Zn)	Use or treatment option
RLE			
Roaster/sulphuric acid plant	Sulphuric acid	< 1200–1700	Sale
	Steam	< 1700–2000	Energy conversion
	Hg product (calomel)	< 0.1	Controlled disposal
	Hg-Se residue	0.4	Controlled disposal
	Dewatered acid sludge	< 0.5	Controlled disposal
Leaching plant	Neutral leach residue (Zn-Fe concentrate)	500	To ISF, Waelz kiln or hot acidic leach, controlled disposal
	Jarosite, Jarofix, goethite	400–600 ⁽¹⁾	Controlled disposal
		80	Controlled disposal
	Jarosite + direct leach sulphur residue	150	
	PbAg concentrate	450	Ag and Pb recovery
	Final residue if Pb-Ag concentrate removed	600	Controlled disposal or Pb/Zn smelter
Purification	Cadmium sponge	3–4	Sale or controlled disposal
	Cu cementate	7–15	Sale
	Co&Ni cementate		Sale
Cell house	Gypsum	3–4	Cement plant or controlled disposal
Waste water treatment	Precipitated sludge	7–100 ⁽²⁾	Disposal or to Pb/Zn smelter
ISF			
Sinter plant/sulphuric acid plant	Acid sludge	0.25	Controlled disposal
	Hg product	0.15	Controlled disposal
	Flue-dust	200	To Cd plant
	Sulphuric acid	1300	Sale
Cadmium plant	Cadmium carbonate	18	Sale
	Thallium sulphide	0.25	Controlled disposal
	Leach residue	180	To sinter plant
Imperial Smelting Furnace	ISF slag	600–900	Sale or controlled disposal ⁽³⁾
Waste water treatment	Precipitated sludge	30	Recycled to sinter plant
New Jersey distillation			
Liquation	Lead	15 ⁽¹⁾	To Pb refining or ISF
	Hard zinc	25–50 ⁽¹⁾	Return to ISF
As removal	Dross	< 1–5 ⁽²⁾	Return to ISF
Waste gas treatment	Flue-dust	10	Return to sinter plant
Waelz process with washing and crystallisation			
Slag granulation	Waelz slag (kg/t dry product)	1600	Construction material for road and on disposal site
Waelz oxide washing	Salt residue ⁽³⁾ (kg/t product)	130	Disposal in mines
Off-gas treatment	Adsorbent ⁽³⁾	NA	Controlled disposal
Remelting, refining			
Remelting, Refining	Hard zinc/zinc bottom dross	25	External recycling to ZnO
Off-gas treatment	Zinc ash concentrate	130	External recycling in Waelz process or ISF (if available)
Scrap sorting, melting furnace	Al-Fe scrap	50	External recycling as Al- or Fe-rich scrap
⁽¹⁾ Amount may vary with the feed. ⁽²⁾ Estimated value. ⁽³⁾ Depending on the process, quality and regulations. NB: NA = Not available.			

6.2.4.1 Leaching residues

The production of iron-based solids (goethite, jarosite or haematite) accounts for the greatest volume of waste. The amount of residues and wastes formed depends mainly on the composition of the concentrates used. Concentrates contain varying concentrations of impurities that have to be precipitated and extracted in certain process steps. Most residues are registered as transported or on-site isolated intermediates according to the REACH regulation and are used as raw materials in internal or external processes. The rest of the residues are classified as waste and disposed of after appropriate treatment (stabilisation) to landfill according to the relevant legislation. An example composition of different types of residues is shown in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Example compositions of different types of residues

Process	Fe (%)	Zn (%)	Pb (%)	Cu (%)	Cd (%)
Haematite (with integrated direct leaching)	65–67	< 0.2	< 0.01	< 0.02	< 0.01
Haematite (without direct leaching)	59	1	0.01	0.02	0.02
Goethite	40–42	5–9	< 2	< 0.3	< 0.1
Para-goethite	40	NA	NA	NA	NA
Conventional jarosite	20–30	2–6	0.2–6	< 0.2	0.05–0.2
Low contaminant jarosite	32	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.001
Doré jarosite	26	1	4	0.08	0.05
Jarosite/sulphur residue (40–50 % S)	9–11	2–5	8–10	< 0.4	< 0.1
NB: NA = Not available. Source: [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [117, Krüger, J. 1999]					

Typically, these residues account for:

- jarosite: 0.35–0.80 tonnes per tonne of zinc produced;
- goethite: 0.3–0.35 tonnes per tonne of zinc produced;
- haematite: 0.2 tonnes per tonne of zinc produced.

Haematite processes have been unable to compete in economic terms as they are significantly more complex and expensive to operate. In addition, haematite has not proved to be acceptable as a raw material in other industries.

The use of concentrates with very low iron concentrations allows the production of these residues to be avoided [227, IZA Report 2008], [240, Nyrstar Budel 2008]. However, low-iron zinc concentrates are scarce and only one plant in the EU operates with this kind of concentrates. In some cases, the process can be stopped at the neutral leach stage and the remainder of the zinc can be recovered in a Waelz kiln or a slag fuming process.

There are still some leachable metals in the slurry after filtering and washing. The residue can be treated to a less leachable form with neutralisation and sulphide treatment. The disposal of these residues can be costly as specially constructed, lined ponds or isolated areas are used to contain the material. Particular care is taken to avoid leakage and these ponds result in a major need to monitor groundwater [98, Lijftogt, J.A. et al 1998], [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. There is a significant cross-media effect compared to processes that are capable of producing an inert residue. Directive 2008/98/EC on the treatment of wastes should be taken into account when assessing the treatment or disposal requirements.

As reported in Section 6.1.2.2, leaching residues with higher amounts of zinc or lead can be treated in ISFs or Waelz kilns (Zn-Fe concentrates) and in a lead smelter (PbSO₄ concentrates). The Jarofix process is available to stabilise the residues with lime and cement [229, IZA plant data 2008] and compaction can be used to decrease the moisture content and volume of the iron residue. Pyrometallurgical treatment of these residues is also practised in Korea to produce a

non-leachable slag and recoverable metal oxides, [40, Ausmelt Ltd. 1996]. Problems with contaminant build-up have been reported. Other developments are reported in Section 6.4.

Pyrometallurgical processes can have benefits for the stability of the residue but the energy cost is much higher. This is shown in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18: Zinc refining energy consumption in function of the applied residue treatment process

		Electro-lysis	Other elect. power	Coke	Natural gas	Oil	Energy credit	Total net energy
Hydro. full ⁽¹⁾ total t Zn slabs: 5708	Average (MJ/t Zn)	12 410	2357	0	440	105	-237	15 075
Hydro. short + pyro. ⁽²⁾ total t Zn slabs: 1848	Average (MJ/t Zn)	11 700	1980	11 800	2500	1400	0	29 380
Pyro. ISF ⁽³⁾ total t Zn slabs: 700	Average (MJ/t Zn)	0	3786	38 726	12 882	0	0	55 393
⁽¹⁾ RLE including hydrometallurgical residue treatment + jarosite/goethite precipitation. ⁽²⁾ RLE until neutral leach + additional pyrometallurgical treatment of leach residue (Waelz process in most cases). ⁽³⁾ Full pyrometallurgical ISF Process. Source: [399, IZA 2012] based on Brook Hunt 2008 (ed.2009)								

6.2.4.2 Pyrometallurgical slags and residues

Slags from the ISFs, zinc fuming furnaces, and Waelz kiln processes (if EAF dust or similar feed is treated) usually contain very low concentrations of leachable metals. They are therefore generally suitable for use in construction [99, Hähre, S. 1998]. The slag output is between 10 wt-% and 70 wt-% of the metal produced, depending on the raw materials used.

A number of standard leachability tests are used by Member States and these are specific to the country in question. Processes to lower the content of entrained metals are under investigation, in order to ensure the future suitability for construction and other applications. Table 6.19 and Table 6.20 give some eluate values based on the German leaching test method DEVS4.

Table 6.19: Eluate values of granulated ISF slag

Component	Granulated ISF slag eluate (according to DEVS4) (mg/l)
Zn	0.02–0.1
Pb	0.005–0.1
As	0.001–0.02
Fe	0.05–0.2
Cu	< 0.001–0.05
pH	7–11
Source: [99, Hähre, S. 1998]	

Table 6.20: Eluate values for acidic Waelz slag

Component	Waelz slag eluate (according to DEVS4) (mg/l)
Zn	0.05
Pb	0.02
As	0.008
Cr _{tot}	0.002
Ni	0.005
Fe	0.5
Cu	0.05
F	1
Cl	5
pH	9.9
<i>Source:</i> [99, Hähre, S. 1998]	

6.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Table 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

6.3.1 Zinkerzeugung aus Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen

6.3.1.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Rohstoffen

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006].

Die in Betracht zu ziehenden Emissionsminderungstechniken werden in Abschnitt 6.3.1.2.1 beschrieben, da in Zinkhütten die erfassten diffusen Emissionen aus Rohstoffanlieferung, -lagerung und -umschlag zusammen mit dem Abgas aus der Materialvorbereitung in einer gemeinsamen Staubminderungseinrichtung gereinigt werden.

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Daten zur Abscheideleistung eines Gewebefilters in diesen Verarbeitungsstufen liegen für Anlage I vor. Die gemessenen Staubwerte liegen im Bereich von 0,39–6,68 mg/Nm³ mit einem Mittelwert von 1,9 mg/Nm³.

In einer deutschen Primärzinkhütte wird ein Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staubemissionen des Röstgutvorratssilos eingesetzt. 2005 wurden 18 Emissionsmessungen bei Abluftvolumenströmen von 2700 Nm³/h–5340 Nm³/h durchgeführt. Folgende Emissionswerte für Staub und Metalle wurden berichtet:

- Staub: < 0,4–0,7 mg/Nm³
- Blei: 0,002–0,011 mg/Nm³;
- Nickel: < 0,001–0,003 mg/Nm³
- Zink: 0,02–0,08 mg/Nm³

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlage 1

Literatur

[385, Germany 2012], [399, IZA 2012]

6.3.1.2 Hydrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung

6.3.1.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der Röstung von Primärrohstoffen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- feuchtes Einsatzgut durch Wasserbedüsung des Materials auf dem Zuteilband des Wirbelschicht-Röstofens
- vollständig geschlossene Prozesseinrichtungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Heißgas-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1), optional mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonabscheidern (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.3)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6), Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2) und Quecksilberminderungstechniken (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5)

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter

Zinkkonzentrate haben in der Regel einen relativ hohen Feuchtigkeitsgehalt (~ 10 %), was wesentlich zur Vermeidung von Staubemissionen beiträgt, insbesondere wenn Aufbereitung und Förderung in vollständig gekapselten Aggregaten erfolgen. Zur Minderung der – im Fall staubender Materialien (z.B. Material mit sehr niedrigem Feuchtigkeitsgehalt) – im Bereich der Materialvorbereitung für die Röstung (Dosiereinrichtungen, Mahlanlagen, soweit zutreffend) und im Bereich der Röstgutaufbereitung erfassten diffusen Emissionen sowie der erfassten Sekundäremissionen des Rösters kommen Gewebefilter zum Einsatz.

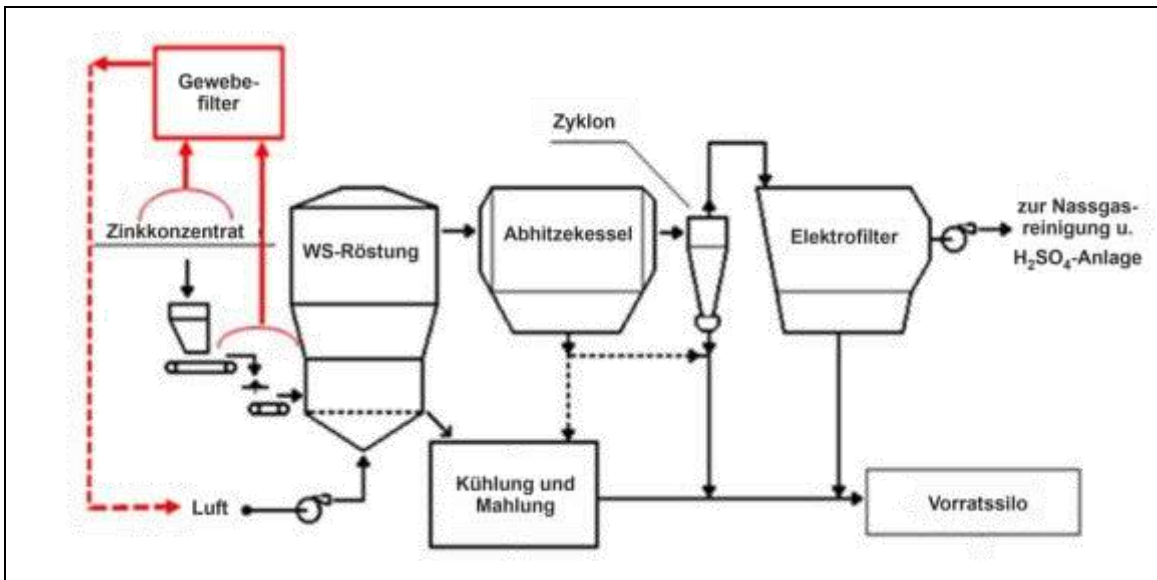


Abbildung 6.21: Erfassung und Minderung von Emissionen aus der Materialvorbereitung und dem Röstprozess

Mit Gewebefiltern oder Keramikfiltern lassen sich in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe höhere Staubabscheidegrade erreichen als mit Elektrofiltern.

Heißgas-EGR, optional mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonabscheidern

Die Trockengasreinigung dient der maximalen Rückgewinnung von Röststaub. Soweit notwendig wird der Röststaub vor Einsatz im Prozess einer Laugung zum Entfernen von Chlor oder Cadmium unterzogen.

Nasswäscher, Nass-EGR und Quecksilberminderungstechniken

Zweck der Nassgasreinigung ist die Erzeugung einer geeigneten Gasqualität zur Weiterverarbeitung in der Schwefelsäureanlage.

Die im Nass-EGR und Quecksilberabscheider anfallenden Reststoffe werden deponiert, sofern eine Verwertung in anderen Prozessen nicht möglich ist. SO₂-reiches Abgas fällt im Vergleich zu anderen Abgasströmen in relativ kleinen Volumenströmen an.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Feuchte Einsatzstoffe

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Stabilere Wirbelschicht

Vollständig geschlossene Prozesseinrichtungen

- Vermeidung diffuser Staubemissionen
- Keine Materialverluste

Gewebefilter

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Wiederverwendung des abgeschiedenen Staubs

Heißgas-EGR, optional mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonabscheidern

- Minderung der Emissionen an Staub und leichtflüchtigen Metallen (Zn, Pb, Hg, As oder Cd)
- Wiederverwendung des in der Trockengasreinigung abgeschiedenen Staubs, der eine ähnliche chemische Zusammensetzung besitzt wie der Röstgutaustrag des Ofens und in das Röstgutssystem zurückgeführt werden kann.

Nasswäscher, Nass-EGR und Quecksilberminderungstechniken

- Minderung der Emissionen an Staub und leichtflüchtigen Metallen (Zn, Pb, Hg, As oder Cd). Neben der Entstaubung muss das Röstgas von weiteren Verunreinigungen befreit werden, um Schwefelsäure in einer verkaufsfähigen Qualität zu erzeugen.
- Minderung von Quecksilberemissionen. Soweit Quecksilber im Einsatzmaterial vorliegt, erfolgt eine Abscheidung in separaten Minderungseinrichtungen, die sich von Standort zu Standort unterscheiden können. Eine Quecksilberabscheidung ist ferner auch zur Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure in einer verkaufsfähigen Qualität erforderlich.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 6.21 zeigt Staubemissionswerte für die Materialvorbereitung und den Röstprozess.

Tabelle 6.21: Staubemissionen aus der Materialvorbereitung und dem Röstprozess

Anlage		A		A		B		H	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	27 184	k.A.	10 630	k.A.	4 655	k.A.	4 000	k.A.
Staub	mg/Nm ³	1,04	3,1	0,54	3,1	0,21	0,51	1,6	2,6
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,69	k.A.	0,35	k.A.	0,12	0,29	0,8	1,2
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,0060	k.A.	0,0030	k.A.	0,0005	0,001	0,03	0,04
Pb	mg/Nm ³	k.A.		k.A.		0,0032	0,008	0,09	0,3
Angewandte Technik		Gewebefilter							
Messintervall	Anz. Messungen/Jahr	0,5		0,33		1		2	
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]									

In einer deutschen Primärzinkhütte wird die Abluft aus der Röstgutmahlung in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. 2005 wurden sechs Messungen bei einem Abgasvolumenstrom von 9670 Nm³/h durchgeführt. Es wurden folgende Emissionswerte für Staub und Metalle berichtet:

- Staub: 1,1–3,4 mg/Nm³
- Blei: 0,031–0,132 mg/Nm³
- Nickel: < 0,001 mg/Nm³
- Zink: 0,7–1,7 mg/Nm³
- Arsen: < 0,001-0,005 mg/Nm³

Heißgas-EGR, optional mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonabscheidern

Tabelle 6.22 zeigt beispielhaft Staubkonzentrationen nach der Trockengasreinigungsstufe. Das vorentstaubte Röstgas wird der Nassgasreinigung zur weiteren Behandlung zugeführt.

Tabelle 6.22: Staubkonzentrationen in der Trockengasreinigung der Röstanlage (Rostfläche ca. 120 m²) vor Eintritt in die Nassgasreinigungsstufe

Prozessschritt (Austritt)	Max. Gasvolumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Max. Temperatur (°C)	Max. Staubgehalt (mg/Nm ³)
WS-Röstofen ↓	88 307	980	300 000
Abhitzekeessel ↓	88 814	350	150 000
Zyklonabscheider (optional) ↓	89 380	350	300 00
Elektrofilter	90 000	350	200

Nasswäscher, Nass-EGR und Quecksilberminderungstechniken

Tabelle 6.23 zeigt ein typisches Beispiel für die erreichte Reststaubkonzentration nach der Nassgasreinigung.

Tabelle 6.23: Staubkonzentration nach der Nassgasreinigung vor Weiterverarbeitung des Röstgases in der Schwefelsäureanlage

Gasvolumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)		Temperatur (°C)		Staub (mg/Nm ³)	
Rohgas	Reingas	Rohgas	Reingas	Rohgas	Reingas
80 000–90 000	80 000–90 000	300–350	≤ 30	≤ 200	< 0,5

Beim Austritt der Nassgasreinigungsstufe handelt es sich nicht um eine Emissionsquelle, sondern um eine indirekte Messstelle innerhalb eines geschlossenen Gasreinigungskreislaufs. Einen indirekten Anhaltspunkt für die Emissionen an dieser Stelle liefert die Analyse der erzeugten Schwefelsäure.

Die Quecksilbergehalte (Hg_{ges.}) im Rohgas liegen zwischen 10 µg/m³ und 9900 µg/m³. Je nach Minderungsverfahren werden Hg_{ges.}-Konzentrationen im Reingas von 3µg/m³–10 µg/m³ erreicht. Daraus ergibt sich, abhängig vom eingesetzten Minderungsverfahren, eine Abscheideleistung von 70–99,7 %, womit ein Quecksilbergehalt von < 1 ppm in der erzeugten Schwefelsäure erreicht wird. Allerdings geht der derzeitige Markttrend hin zu Reinheitsanforderungen von < 0,5 ppm Quecksilber.

Emissionswerte für SO₂- und Säurenebel im Reingas nach der Schwefelsäureanlage sind in Abschnitt 2.12.5.4 aufgeführt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gewebefilter

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Heißgas-EGR, optional mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonabscheidern

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Nasswäscher, Nass-EGR und Quecksilberminderungstechniken

Das Abwasser der Nassgasreinigungsstufe weist eine hohe Halogenbelastung auf und muss der AWA zur Behandlung zugeführt werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Befeuchtung des Einsatzmaterials, geschlossene Prozesseinrichtungen und Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

In Zinkhütten werden Heißgas- und Nasselektrofilter sowie Quecksilberminderungstechniken eingesetzt, um die notwendige Gasqualität zur Weiterverarbeitung in der Schwefelsäureanlage zu gewährleisten.

Quecksilberminderungstechniken werden angewendet, um die Reinheitsanforderungen an die erzeugte Schwefelsäure einzuhalten.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Da Schwefelsäure das wichtigste Nebenprodukt der Zinkblenderöstung darstellt, sind die Entfernung zu den Endabnehmern, Transportmöglichkeiten und -kosten bestimmend für die Investitionsentscheidung für eine Röstanlage mit Rückgewinnung des Schwefels in Form von Schwefelsäure.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Staubrückgewinnung
- Erzeugung einer Schwefelsäure, die die Marktanforderungen bezüglich Restquecksilbergehalt erfüllt

Beispielanlagen

Diese Techniken werden in allen europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung eingesetzt.

Literatur

[227, IZA Report 2008], [385, Germany 2012], [399, IZA 2012].

6.3.1.2.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Röstgutmahlung/-förderung/-zwischenlagerung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- vollständig gekapselte Aggregate (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Betrieb der Ausrüstungen bei Unterdruck (Saugzuggebläse)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Nasswäscher

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Nasswäscher

Gewebefilter werden i.d.R. zur Abreinigung der erfassten diffusen Emissionen im Bereich der Röstgutmahlung und -kühlung, der Röstgutförderanlagen und Vorratssilos eingesetzt. Siehe Abbildung 6.22. Nur eine Hütte in Europa verwendet einen Nasswäscher statt eines Gewebefilters zur Emissionsminderung, in diesem Fall zur Reinigung des Abgases aus der Röstgutmahlung.

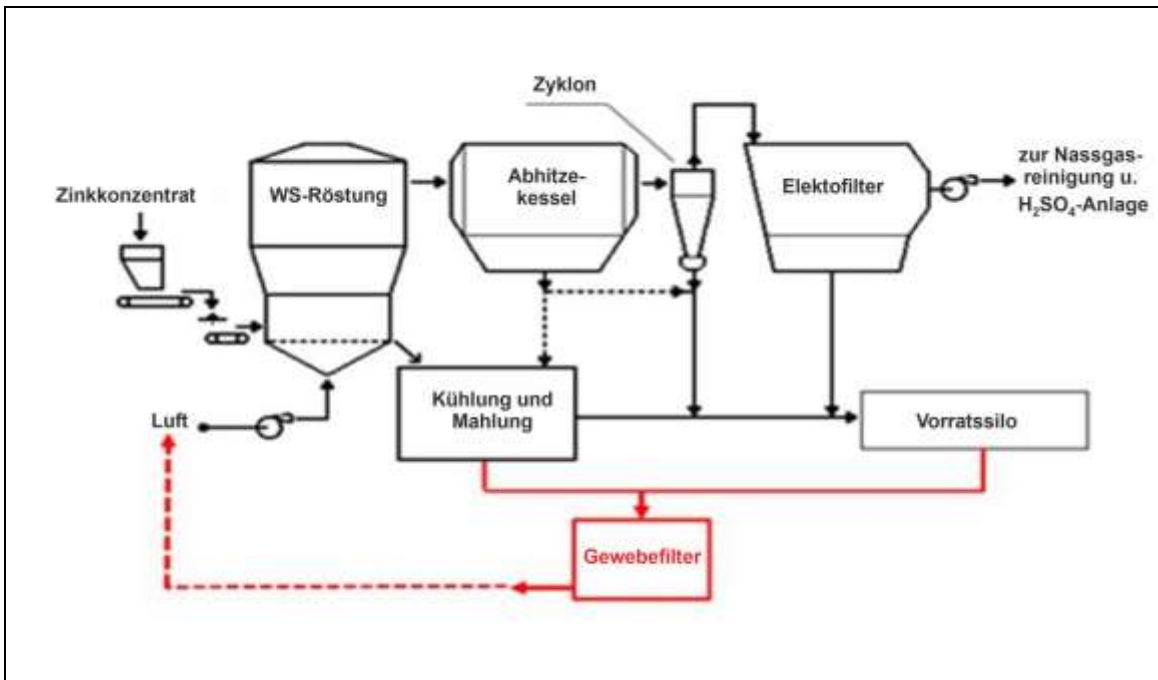


Abbildung 6.22: Erfassung und Minderung von Emissionen aus der Röstgutmahlung/-förderung/-zwischenlagerung

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vollständig gekapselte Aggregate und Betrieb bei Unterdruck

- Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft
- Keine Materialverluste

Gewebefilter oder Nasswäscher

- Minderung der Emissionen an Staub und leichtflüchtigen Metallen (Zn, Pb, Hg, As oder Cd)
- Wiederverwendung des Röststaubs

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Tabelle 6.24 sind anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte für die Röstgutmahlung/-förderung/-zwischenlagerung wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 6.24: Emissionswerte für die Röstgutmahlung, -förderung und -zwischenlagerung

Anlage		B		B		D	E		F		F		G		H
		Röstgutlagerung und -förderung		Röstgutmahlung		Röstgut-mahlung, -lagerung und -förderung	Röstgut-mahlung, -lagerung und -förderung		Pneumatische Förderanlage		Röstgut-mahlung		Röstgutmahlung und -lagerung		Röstgut-lagerung
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	2 972	k.A.	3 386		4 250	22 281		3 162		9 857		7 000		3 500
Staub	mg/Nm ³	2,16	5,40	0,54	1,35	k.A.	0,89	2,21	0,47	1,0	1	4,9	3,5	4,0	3,6
Zn	mg/Nm ³	1,36	3,39	0,34	0,84	0,4	0,62	1,55	0,25	0,55	0,53	2,8	k.A.	k.A.	2,15
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,0038	0,01	0,0010	0,002	0,002	0,0007	0,002	0,0010	0,004	0,002	0,01	0,044	0,1	0,004
Pb	mg/Nm ³	0,0645	0,16	0,0162	0,04	0,02	0,0057	0,014	0,010	0,23	0,03	0,12	0,009	0,01	0,27
As	mg/Nm ³	0,0008	0,002	0,0001	0,0004	0,001	k.A.		k.A.		k.A.		k.A.		k.A.
Cu	mg/Nm ³	0,0092	0,023	0,0012	0,006	0,02	k.A.		k.A.		k.A.		k.A.		k.A.
Angewandte Technik		Gewebefilter										Nasswäscher		Gewebefilter	
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	1		1		2	3		12		12		12		2
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]															

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Techniken werden in allen europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung eingesetzt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Staubrückgewinnung
- Arbeitsschutz
- Vermeidung von Umweltverschmutzung

Beispielanlagen

Diese Techniken werden in allen europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung eingesetzt.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Laugung und Fest-Flüssig-Trennung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Laugungs- und Absetzbehältern
- Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus der Fest-Flüssig-Trennung
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) mit Wasser als Waschflüssigkeit und nachgeschaltete Tropfenabscheider
- Zentrifugalabscheider
- Tropfenabscheider

Technische Beschreibung

Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Laugungs- und Absetzbehältern

- Zur Vermeidung diffuser Aerosolemissionen müssen die Behälter mit Deckeln verschlossen sein. Wenn der Deckel für Bedieneingriffe geöffnet werden muss, sind geeignete Vorkehrungen zur Begrenzung von Emissionen zu treffen (z.B. Absaugung/Unterdruckeinstellung, Deckel für Probenahme- oder Reinigungsöffnungen, Wellenabdichtung der Rührwerke).
- Wenn eine Tankentlüftung vorgesehen ist, sollte das Entlüftungsrohr an ein Minderungssystem angeschlossen werden (sofern relevante Emissionen auftreten).
- Einsatz eines zentralen Ablufteffassungs- und Minderungssystems
- Einsatz eines Einzeltank-Minderungssystems, natürliche oder mechanische Entlüftung
- Die Prozesslösungszulauf- und -ablaufnischen in unmittelbarer Nähe des Reaktionsbehälters sind abzudecken.
- Der Behälter selbst muss mit einer Bodenabdichtung/einem Sumpf ausgestattet sein, um zu verhindern, dass freigesetzte Flüssigkeit ins Erdreich gelangt.
- Je nach nationalen Umweltschutzvorschriften ist der Behälter in einer flüssigkeitsdichten Auffangwanne aufzustellen.

Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus der Fest-Flüssig-Trennung

Laugungsanlagen sind i.d.R. mit einer oder mehreren Filterstufen zur wirksamen Abscheidung von Feststoffen aus der Prozesslösung ausgestattet. Zum Abfiltern von Eisenrückständen wie Jarosit und Göthit kommen gewöhnlich Vakuumfilter und Trommelfilter oder horizontale Bandfilter zum Einsatz. In dieser Prozessstufe treten Emissionen an mehreren Stellen auf, von denen die wichtigsten im Folgenden aufgeführt sind.

- Vakuumpumpen/-kompressoren verwenden i.d.R. Wasser als Kompressionsflüssigkeit. Dieses sog. Sperrwasser wird durch den Metallgehalt der aus dem Vakuumfilter mitgerissenen feinen Tröpfchen verunreinigt und muss sorgfältig kontrolliert werden. Betriebsstörungen in der (den) Filterstufe(n) können zu hohen wasserseitigen Metallfrachten führen. Die Rückführung des Sperrwassers nach Rückkühlung ist gängige Praxis. Abschlammwasser muss vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter u.U. einer Behandlung unterzogen werden. Da sich das Wasser in den Vakuumfiltern im Betrieb mit Metallen anreichert, werden die Vakuumpumpen in den meisten Hütten mit zurückgeführtem Prozesswasser mit niedriger Metallbelastung statt mit Frischwasser betrieben. Auf diese Weise reduziert sich der Gesamtwasserverbrauch.
- Zur Gewährleistung des Arbeitsschutzes werden Vakuumfilter i.d.R. mit einer Absaughaube zur Erfassung der beim Filtern heißer Flüssigkeiten entstehenden feuchten Abluft ausgestattet. Die Abluft enthält feine Flüssigkeitströpfchen und sollte daher entweder einer separaten oder zentralen Minderungseinrichtung zugeführt werden.
- Das Waschen der abgetrennten Feststoffe ist wichtig, insbesondere, wenn es sich um feste Rückstände zur Beseitigung handelt. Horizontalbandfilter sind in mehrere Waschzonen unterteilt, die bei Betrieb im Gegenstrom eine wirksame Abtrennung noch vorhandener wasserlöslicher Elemente gewährleisten. Weitere leistungsfähige Filtereinrichtungen sind Membranfilterpressen und kontinuierliche Bandfilterpressen. Da mit warmem Wasser ein besseres Auswaschergebnis erzielt wird, ist die Nutzung des erwärmten Kühlwasserablauf der Prozesskühler als Waschwasser in den Filtern gängige Praxis.

Das Auswaschergebnis variiert je nach Filtertechnik, wobei jedoch davon ausgegangen werden kann, dass wasserlösliches Zink im Jarositrückstand bis auf einen Restgehalt von < 1 % (Feuchtmasse) ausgewaschen wird.

Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2), Zentrifugalabscheider und Tropfenabscheider für Entlüftungsrohre und Kamine

- Nasse Gaswäsche mit Wasser, nachgeschaltete Tropfenabscheider und Rückführung des Wäscherabwassers in den Prozess
- Zentrifugalabscheider, in denen die Abluft über Leitschaufeln am Eintritt des doppelwandigen Abscheideraums in eine Rotationsbewegung versetzt wird und die Tropfen unter Einwirkung der Fliehkräfte gegen die Wand geschleudert werden, wo sie nach unten ablaufen können
- Tropfenabscheider unterschiedlicher Bauart, bei denen die abgeschiedenen Nebel bzw. das Kondensat entlang der Wand des Entlüftungsrohrs zurück in den Reaktionsbehälter fließen
- Oft genügt ein gut ausgelegter Kamin mit Strömungsbedingungen, die den Ausfall der Tropfen begünstigen, zur Minderung von Nebemissionen.

Die Anforderungen an die Emissionsminderung werden auch durch die lokalen Gegebenheiten bestimmt. Je nachdem ob die Behälter in schlecht belüfteten geschlossenen Hallen oder im Freien aufgestellt sind, kommen unterschiedliche Minderungseinrichtungen zum Einsatz.

Mit allen o.g. Minderungseinrichtungen sind erfahrungsgemäß Abscheideleistungen von gut über 95 % erreichbar. Allen Minderungssystemen gemeinsam ist, unabhängig von der Bauart und Anwendung, die Anfälligkeit für Verstopfungen und Verkrustungen. Eine vorbeugende Wartung ist deshalb unerlässlich, um die ordnungsgemäße Funktion dieser Einrichtungen zu gewährleisten.

In diesem Zusammenhang sei noch erwähnt, dass beim Einbau neuer Minderungssysteme darauf geachtet werden muss, wo die Mess- oder Probenahmestellen angeordnet werden, damit eine korrekte Probenahme (isokinetische Probenahme) möglich ist.

Abbildung 6.23 zeigt einen Reaktionsbehälter mit natürlicher Entlüftung und einem Lamellen-Tropfenabscheider mit Wellenprofilen. Der Behälter ist mit einem Deckel verschlossen und steht in einer Auffangwanne.

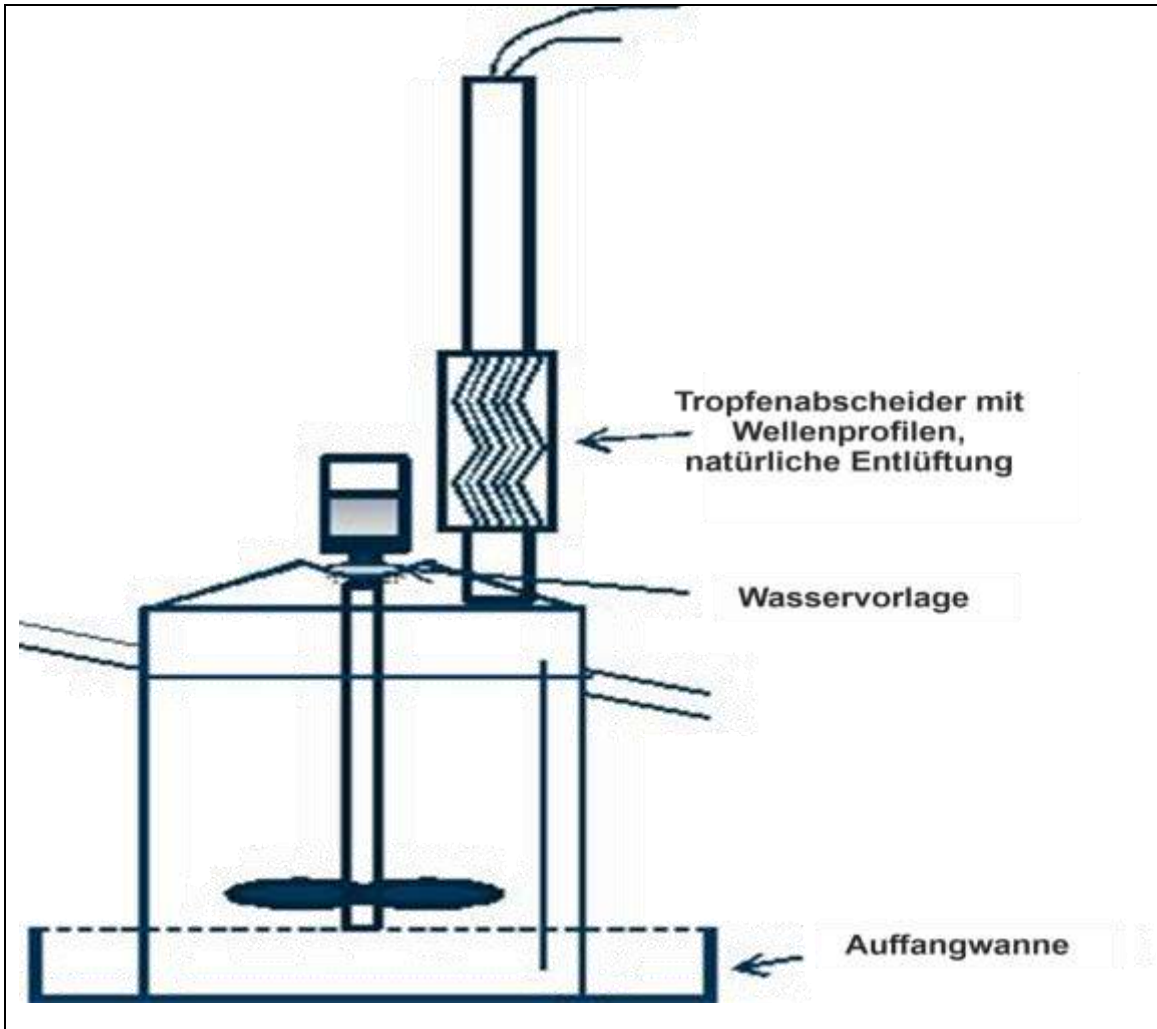


Abbildung 6.23: Einzeltank-Minderungssystem

Ökologischer Nutzen

Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Laugungs- und Absetzbehältern und der Fest-Flüssig-Trennung

Vermeidung von Aerosol- und Nebelemissionen

Nasswäscher, Zentrifugalabscheider und Tropfenabscheider für Entlüftungen und Kamine

Vermeidung von Aerosol- und Nebelemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Diese Systeme sind einfach im Aufbau und wartungsarm, müssen jedoch regelmäßig gereinigt werden, um ihre ordnungsgemäße Funktion zu gewährleisten.

Zentrale Erfassungs- und Minderungssysteme sind wegen der integrierten Gebläse und Motoren komplexer im Aufbau, aber ebenfalls wartungsarm.

Zentrifugalabscheider

Hierzu liegen keine Angaben vor. Es kann jedoch davon ausgegangen werden, dass die erreichten Emissionswerte vergleichbar mit den in Abschnitt 6.3.1.2.4 berichteten Werten für diesen Abscheidertyp sind.

Nasswäscher und Tropfenabscheider

Mit einem Minderungssystem wie in Abbildung 6.23 dargestellt wird i.d.R. eine Reduzierung der Zinkemissionen aus Laugungsbehältern von > 95% erreicht. Nachstehend sind Emissionswerte am Beispiel der Zinkhütte Boliden Odda aufgeführt, in der diese Technik eingesetzt wird. Dort wurden die Zinkemissionen eines Absetzbehälters in der Neutrallaugung vor und nach Einbau eines Tropfenabscheiders in 2003 gemessen. Die Messergebnisse sind in Tabelle 6.25 dargestellt.

Tabelle 6.25: Emissionswerte eines Absetzbehälters in der Neutrallaugung mit und ohne Tropfenabscheider

	Einheit	Vor Nachrüstung	Nach Nachrüstung
Abluftvolumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	6820	3858
Zn-Gehalt	mg/Nm ³	3311	264
Emission	g/h	22,6	1,0
Abscheidegrad	%		95,5
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>			

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte aus 2011 sind in Tabelle 6.26, Tabelle 6.27 und Tabelle 6.28 aufgeführt [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

Tabelle 6.26: Emissionswerte für die Laugungsbehälterentlüftung

Anlage		A	A	B	D	E	F	G
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	12 266	17 921	42 831	11 440	17 400	40 000	12 500
Staub	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	6,0	4,5	0,6	k.A.	4,5
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,01-0,95	0,77	3,55	0,25	0,60	0,57	
Cd	mg/Nm ³	< 0,002	0,008	0,023	0,184	0,002	0,005	0,11
Pb	mg/Nm ³	< 0,03	0,031	0,168	0,194	0,025	0,030	0,009
Hg	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	0,03	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
As	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	0,022	0,002	0,019	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Cu	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	0,024	0,21	0,006	k.A.	k.A.
Ni	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	0,0004	0,17	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Angewandte Technik		Tropfenabscheider	Mengenregelventil	keine	Nasswäscher	keine	Nasswäscher	keine
Messintervall	Anz. Messungen/Jahr	1,00	0,5	1	0,2–2	3	12	3
Anmerkung: Wenn keine Minderungstechnik angegeben ist, bedeutet dies dass keine Reinigung dieses Abluftstroms erfolgt. In den meisten Fällen werden jedoch Vorkehrungen zur Vermeidung oder Minimierung von Emissionen getroffen. Im Fall von Anlage A und B sind in den angegebenen Werten die Emissionen der Laugenreinigung enthalten. k.A. = keine Angaben								

Tabelle 6.27: Emissionswerte für die Direktlaugung

Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	9 640
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,61
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,024
Pb	mg/Nm ³	0,033
As	mg/Nm ³	0,025
Hg	mg/Nm ³	0,008
Angewandte Technik		Nasswäscher
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	0,5

Tabelle 6.28: Emissionswerte für die Jarositfällung in Anlage A

Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	8 614
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,25
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,023
As	mg/Nm ³	0,029
Angewandte Technik		keine
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	0,2

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Luftseitig ist die Installation dieser Minderungseinrichtungen relativ kostengünstig.

Wasser-/flüssigkeitsseitig müssen Rückhaltesysteme zur Vermeidung von Bodenverschmutzung durch ausgetretene Flüssigkeiten vorgesehen werden, was mit hohen Kosten verbunden ist, d.h. Errichtung einer umfangreichen Infrastruktur zur Erfassung von Oberflächenwässern.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- In Zinkhütten, in denen Laugung und Laugenreinigung in geschlossenen Gebäuden durchgeführt werden, muss aus Gründen des Arbeitsschutzes eine zusätzliche Dämpfeerfassung erfolgen. Dies ist typischerweise in Nordeuropa der Fall, wo die Winter kalt sind.
- Vermeidung von Bodenverschmutzung

Beispielanlagen

Diese Techniken werden in allen europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung angewendet.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der Laugenreinigung durch Zementation mit Zinkstaub und chemischen Additiven

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Reaktions- und Absetzbehältern
- Nasse Gaswäsche (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2), entweder mit oder ohne Zugabe von Chemikalien, wie KMnO_4 /verdünnte H_2SO_4 , und nachgeschaltete Tropfenabscheider
- Zentrifugalabscheider
- Tropfenabscheider

Technische Beschreibung

Da die Laugenreinigung in Reaktionsbehältern/Absetzbehältern/Filtern erfolgt, treten hier die gleichen Emissionen auf wie bei der Laugung. Prinzipiell können die in der Laugungsstufe eingesetzten Minderungstechniken auch in der Laugenreinigung zum Einsatz kommen, wobei jedoch spezielle Vorkehrungen notwendig sind, um Probleme im Zusammenhang mit der Bildung von H_2 -Gas (Wasserstoff), SbH_3 (Stiban) und AsH_3 (Arsenwasserstoff) zu vermeiden. Zu diesem Zweck müssen die Reaktionsbehälter gut belüftet werden, um eine ausreichende Verdünnung des Abgases und eine Absenkung des Wasserstoffgehalts auf unter 4 % der UEG zu gewährleisten.

Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Reaktions- und Absetzbehältern

Die Emissionen von Absetz- und Reaktionsbehältern werden im Folgenden gemeinsam betrachtet. Zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus Prozessbehältern, sind folgende grundsätzlichen Punkte zu beachten.

- Zur Vermeidung diffuser Aerosolemissionen sind die Behälter mit einem Deckel zu verschließen.
- Wenn eine Behälterentlüftung vorgesehen ist, kann diese an ein Minderungssystem angeschlossen werden.
- Einsatz eines zentralen Erfassungs- und Minderungssystems (in redundanter Ausführung, wenn mehrere Behälter angeschlossen sind)
- Einsatz eines Einzeltank-Minderungssystems, natürliche oder mechanische Entlüftung
- Die Prozesslösungszulauf- und -ablauftrinnen sind abzudecken.
- Der Behälter selbst muss mit einer Bodenabdichtung/einem Sumpf ausgestattet sein, um zu verhindern, dass austretende Flüssigkeit ins Erdreich gelangt.
- Der Behälter muss in einer Sicherheitsauffangwanne aufgestellt werden, die ausreichend dimensioniert ist, im Fall einer Havarie den gesamten Tankinhalt aufzunehmen. Wenn mehrere Behälter gemeinsam in einer Auffangwanne aufgestellt sind, muss diese mindestens für den Rauminhalt des größten in ihr stehenden Behälters dimensioniert sein.

Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2), Zentrifugalabscheider und Tropfenabscheider

- Nasse Gaswäsche mit oder ohne Zugabe von Chemikalien, wie z.B. KMnO_4 /verdünnte H_2SO_4 , und nachgeschaltete Tropfenabscheider (Nebelabscheider), wobei das Wäscherabwasser in den Prozess zurückgeführt oder einer Teilstrombehandlung unterzogen wird
- Zentrifugalabscheider, in denen die Abluft über Leitschaufeln am Eintritt des doppelwandigen Abscheideraums in eine Rotationsbewegung versetzt wird und die Tropfen unter Einwirkung der Fliehkräfte gegen die Wand geschleudert werden, wo sie nach unten abtropfen können
- Tropfenabscheider unterschiedlicher Bauart, bei denen die abgeschiedenen Nebel bzw. das Kondensat entlang der Wand des Entlüftungsrohrs zurück in den Behälter fließen

Mit allen o.g. Minderungseinrichtungen sind erfahrungsgemäß Abscheideleistungen von gut über 95 % erreichbar. Allen Minderungssystemen gemeinsam ist, unabhängig von der Bauart und Anwendung, die Anfälligkeit für Verstopfungen und Verkrustungen. Eine vorbeugende

Wartung ist deshalb unerlässlich, um die ordnungsgemäße Funktion dieser Einrichtungen zu gewährleisten.

Wichtig in diesem Zusammenhang ist die redundante Ausführung der Minderungssysteme, um H_2 -Emissionen zu jedem Zeitpunkt unter Kontrolle zu haben. Zusätzlich werden die Gebläse an eine Notstromversorgung angeschlossen, damit der Betrieb der Abscheider auch bei Netzausfall gewährleistet ist. Als Tropfenabscheider kommen gewöhnlich Lamellen-Abscheider mit Wellenprofilen zum Einsatz.

In diesem Zusammenhang sei noch erwähnt, dass beim Einbau neuer Minderungssysteme darauf geachtet werden muss, wo die Mess- oder Probenahmestellen angeordnet werden, damit eine korrekte Probenahme (isokinetische Probenahme) möglich ist.

Die Laugenreinigungsstufe in Anlage D ist an eine redundant ausgeführte zentrale Minderungseinrichtung angeschlossen. Siehe Abbildung 6.24.

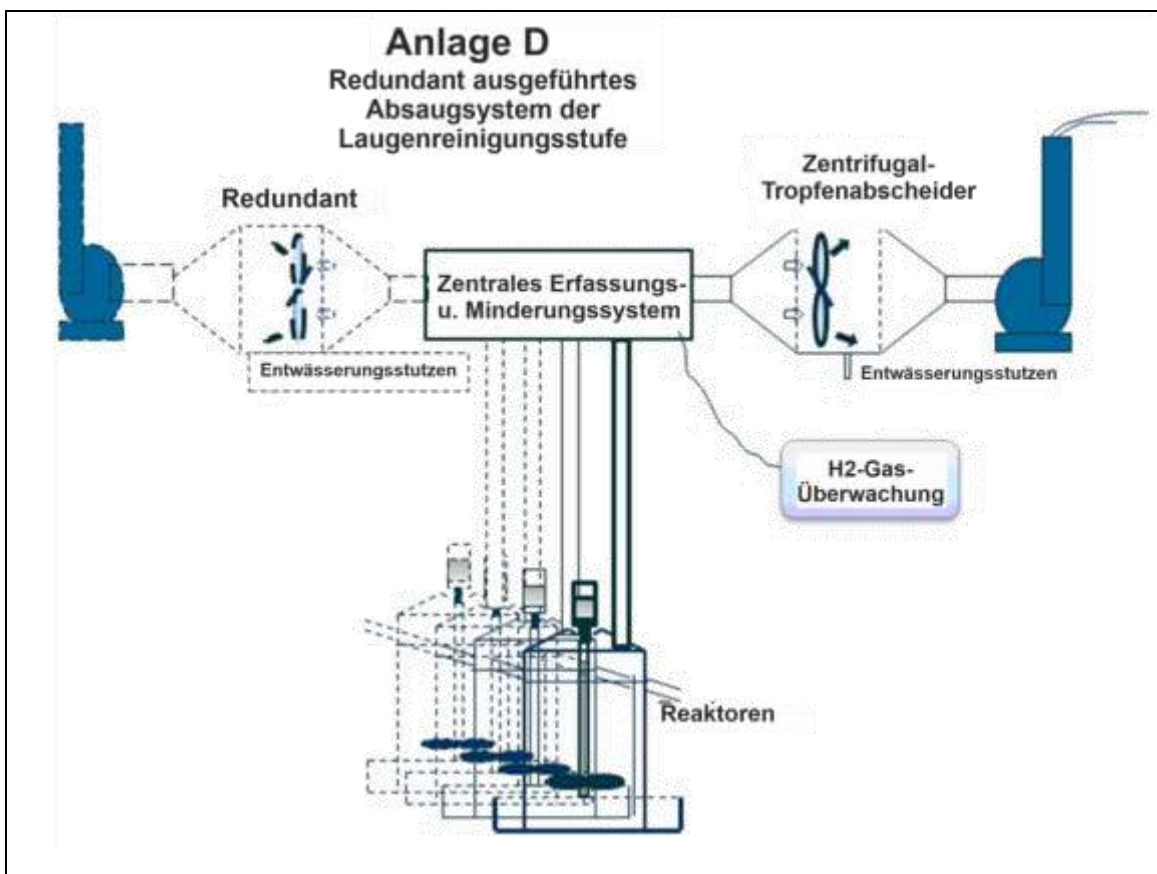


Abbildung 6.24: Zentrales Minderungssystem mit Zentrifugal-Tropfenabscheidern

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Laugenreinigung erfolgt überwiegend kontinuierlich bei einer Temperatur von 60–90 °C (Beheizung mit Abdampf aus der Röstanlage) unter kontrollierter Zugabe von Zinkstaub.

Diese Systeme sind einfach im Aufbau und wartungsarm, müssen jedoch regelmäßig gereinigt werden, um ihre ordnungsgemäße Funktion zu gewährleisten.

Zentrale Erfassungssysteme sind wegen der integrierten Gebläse und Motoren komplexer im Aufbau, aber ebenfalls wartungsarm.

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte sind in Tabelle 6.29 aufgeführt. In Anlage D wurde 2004 eine komplett neue Laugenreinigungsstufe nach dem neuesten Stand der Technik errichtet. Andere Hütten haben eine ältere Infrastruktur.

Tabelle 6.29: Emissionswerte für die Laugenreinigung

Anlage		A		A		D	F	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	5 488	k.A.	16 715	k.A.	13 850	31 000	k.A.
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,07	0,52	0,1	2,78	0,12	0,81	3,1
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,01	0,043	0,012	0,04	<0,001	0,005	0,018
Pb	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	0,177	k.A.	0,01	0,11
As	mg/Nm ³	0,015	0,043	0,01	0,3	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
As(ox)	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	0,002	0,004
AsH ₃	mg/Nm ³	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	0,23	0,48
Angewandte Technik		Tropfenabscheider		Nasswäscher		Zentrifugalabscheider	Nasswäscher	
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	0,5		0,5		0,5	12	
Prozessschritt		Cu- und Cd-Fällung		Co-Fällung		Co-Fällung	Reinigungsprozess insgesamt	
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]								

Emissionswerte für Antimon liegen nur für Anlage B vor. Die berichteten Werte (0,0012 mg/Nm³ im Mittel, Max-Wert: 0,0020 mg/Nm³) beziehen sich auf Mischgasströme. Bei den berichteten Antimonkonzentrationen handelt es sich nicht um Stiban, sondern um ein Gemisch aus feinen Lösungströpfchen und feinem mitgerissenen Antimontartratstaub, der im Zuge der Reinigung zugesetzt wird. Insgesamt werden 0,44 kg Antimon pro Jahr emittiert.

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen sind in Tabelle 6.30 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 6.30: Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen in der Laugenreinigung

Anlage		A		A		B		E	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	1000 Nm ³ /h	392		220	k.A.	415	k.A.	752	k.A.
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,07		0,05	0,11	0,38	1,89	0,61	1,53
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,01		k.A.		k.A.		k.A.	
Gesamtsalze	mg/Nm ³	k.A.		k.A.		0,93	4,66	1,5	3,75
SO ₄	mg/Nm ³	k.A.		k.A.		k.A.		0,9	2,25
Angewandte Technik		Tropfenabscheider							
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	0,33		0,2		1		1	
k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]									

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Luftseitig ist die Installation dieser Minderungseinrichtungen relativ kostengünstig.

Wasser-/flüssigkeitsseitig müssen Rückhaltesysteme zur Vermeidung von Bodenverschmutzung durch ausgetretene Flüssigkeiten vorgesehen werden, was mit hohen Kosten verbunden ist, d.h. Errichtung einer umfangreichen Infrastruktur zur Erfassung von Oberflächenwässern.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Vermeidung hoher H₂-Konzentrationen und der damit verbundenen Explosionsgefahr

Beispielanlagen

- Tropfenabscheider: Anlage A (As-basiertes Verfahren) und Anlage D (Sb-basiertes Verfahren)
- Nasswäscher: Anlage A (As-basiertes Verfahren) und Anlage F (As-basiertes Verfahren)

Literatur

[136, Fugleberg, S. 1999], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [274, COM 2008]

6.3.1.2.5 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Elektrolyse

6.3.1.2.5.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Elektrolytkühlern

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Tropfenabscheider in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Elektrolyseprozess wird Wärme freigesetzt mit der Folge, dass die Temperatur der Zinksulfatlösung ansteigt. Ein Teil dieser Wärme muss über einen Kühlkreislauf abgeführt werden, der gleichzeitig für eine optimierte Wasserbilanz des Prozesses ausgelegt werden kann. In diesem Fall werden Kühlung der gereinigten Lösung und Wasserverdampfung miteinander kombiniert, i.d.R. in Luftkühltürmen. Zur Minderung von Nebemissionen sind die Kühltürme mit Tropfenabscheidern ausgerüstet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung von Metall- (hauptsächlich Zink) und Sulfatnebeln in die Luft
- Rückführung der gesamten abgeschiedenen Flüssigkeit in den Prozess

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Der Abscheidegrad eines Tropfenabscheiders in Kühlturmanwendungen wird durch mehrere Faktoren beeinflusst: die Anströmgeschwindigkeit, die Tropfengrößenverteilung, die Art der Abscheiderpakete (Struktur und Werkstoff), deren Gesamtdicke (Dicke pro Lage und Anzahl Lagen), die Spülflüssigkeitsmenge und -verteilung sowie die Sauberkeit der Abscheiderpakete (Verschmutzungsgrad durch Gipsablagerungen).

Zusätzlich erschwert wird die Auslegung des Tropfenabscheiders und die Auswahl der o.g. Parameter durch klimatisch und jahreszeitlich bedingte Schwankungen in den

Betriebsbedingungen der Kühltürme (Lufttemperatur und -feuchtigkeit) sowie durch Temperaturschwankungen der zu kühlenden Zinksulfatlösung (30–40 °C), die aus den Betriebsbedingungen der Elektrolyse resultieren (gefahrene Stromdichte).

Tabelle 6.31 zeigt anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen in 2011.

Tabelle 6.31: Emissionswerte von Luftkühltürmen zur Elektrolytkühlung

Anlage		A		B		D	E		F		G
Volumenstrom (Mittelwert)	10 ³ Nm ³ /h	2 284		2 791		3 948	2 668		2 000		480
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	n.v.
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,050	0,52	0,034	0,678	0,086	0,210	0,53	0,030	0,05	n.v.
Angewandte Technik		Tropfenabscheider									
Messintervall	Anz. Messungen/Jahr	0,5		1		0,2	1		12		0
<p>Anmerkung: In den Anlagen B und E wird eine andere Probenahmemethode zur Messung der Kühlturmeissionen verwendet. Da die Anlagentechnik der beiden Hütten vergleichbar ist, sind die Unterschiede in den Emissionswerten womöglich auf die Probenahmemethode zurückzuführen.</p> <p>Die Messung von Kühlturmeissionen ist komplex und nicht standardisiert. Gasvolumenstrommessungen und die Probenahmemethoden für Punktquellen sind nicht ohne weiteres auf Kühltürme anwendbar, da die typischen Anforderungen an die Messstrecke, wie sie für die Ermittlung gefasster Emissionen gelten, wegen des fehlenden Kamins nicht realisierbar sind. Die diffusen Emissionen gehen von einer Fläche von mehreren dutzend Quadratmetern aus und sind durch große Unterschiede im Volumenstrom und der Nebelkonzentration in Abhängigkeit von der Einbaulage des Tropfenabscheiders im Kühlturm gekennzeichnet. Um repräsentative Messergebnisse zu erhalten, gehört es zur guten Praxis, die Strömungsgeschwindigkeits- und Tropfenkonzentrationsverteilung durch Messung der lokalen Gasströmungsgeschwindigkeit und Tropfenkonzentration an einer Vielzahl von Stellen im Messquerschnitt zu bestimmen.</p> <p>n.a. = nicht anwendbar</p> <p>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</p>											

Da sich im Kühlturm und auch in den Tropfenabscheidern Gipsbeläge bilden, müssen die Kühltürme häufig gereinigt werden, um eine wirksame Kühlung und Nebelabscheidung zu gewährleisten. Zu diesem Zweck wird in regelmäßigen Abständen einer der Kühltürme zur Reinigung außer Betrieb genommen. Gipsbeläge werden mittels Hochdruckwasserstrahl oder manuell entfernt. Die Menge des dabei anfallenden gipsreichen Abfallmaterials ist abhängig vom Kalziumgehalt der Einsatzstoffe und davon, ob im Zuge der Laugenreinigung eine Gipsausschleusung erfolgt.

Mit ordnungsgemäß gewarteten Kühltürmen und gut ausgelegten Tropfenabscheidern sind Nebelmissionswerte im Bereich von 1–3,5 mg/Nm³ erreichbar (unter der Annahme, dass die Nebelzusammensetzung ähnlich der des Elektrolyten ist, entspricht die Gesamtnebelmission etwa dem Siebenfachen der Zinkkonzentration).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Ein auftretender Verlagerungseffekt ist der höhere Energieaufwand. Generell verbessert sich der Abscheidegrad des Tropfenabscheiders mit der Dicke der Abscheiderpakete und zunehmender Undurchlässigkeit seiner Struktur, was mit einem Anstieg des Druckverlusts einhergeht (bei konstantem Gasvolumenstrom). Ein höherer Druckverlust bedeutet jedoch ein höherer Energieverbrauch der Kühlturmgebläse. Zudem kann der maximal zulässige Druck aus Gründen der Kühlturmstatik und der Festigkeit der Werkstoffe begrenzt sein.

Als weitere Verlagerungseffekte sind der höhere Wasserverbrauch und der Anfall von Abwasser und eines festen Abfallstoffs zu nennen. Voraussetzung für eine wirksame Kühlung und Nebelabscheidung ist die häufige Kühlturmreinigung. Hierbei wird Wasser verbraucht, und es fallen Abwässer und ein fester Abfallstoff (Gips) an. Ob eine vollständige oder teilweise Rückführung des anfallenden Abwassers in den Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf möglich ist oder das Abwasser der zentralen AWA zur Behandlung zugeführt werden muss, hängt von der Gesamtwasserbilanz der Anlage ab. Das gipsreiche Material wird vor Ort in der Elektrolyseanlage aus dem Waschwasser abgetrennt (z.B. durch Absetzen, Filtration) und verlässt den Kreislauf als separater Abfallstrom. Alternativ erfolgt keine Abtrennung vor Ort und der Gips geht (in Form eines Filterkuchens oder einer Suspension) in die AWA, in der die Gipspartikel über den Klärschlamm ausgetragen werden oder aber der Gips wird der Laugungsstufe zugeführt, sofern dort eine Kalziumausschleusung vorgesehen ist.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Für den Wechsel zu einem anderen Tropfenabscheidertyp oder den Einbau einer zusätzlichen Tropfenabscheiderlage können sich bedingt durch die Kühlturmstatik/Festigkeit der Werkstoffe, Zugänglichkeit und Gebläseleistung technische Einschränkungen ergeben.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Bei neuen Kühltürmen gehören Tropfenabscheider zur Standardausrüstung und sind in den Gesamtinvestitionskosten des Kühlturms mit inbegriffen.

Der Austausch eines Tropfenabscheiders durch einen anderen Abscheidertyp oder der Einbau einer zusätzlichen Abscheiderlage in bestehenden Luftkühltürmen ist verbunden mit:

- Investitionskosten
- Anpassungen der Kühlturmkonstruktion und Anschlüsse, usw., die den Einbau neuer/zusätzlicher Tropfenabscheiderpakete bedingen (stark abhängig von den lokalen Gegebenheiten)
- der Ertüchtigung/dem Austausch der Gebläse (stark abhängig von den örtlichen Gegebenheiten)
- höheren Betriebskosten (hauptsächlich durch den höheren Druckverlust und dem daraus resultierendem zusätzlichen Stromverbrauch)

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung von Metall- (hauptsächlich Zink) und Sulfatnebelemissionen in die Luft

Beispielanlagen

In Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung ist der Einsatz von Luftkühltürmen und Tropfenabscheidern weltweit gängige Praxis.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.5.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in die Hallenatmosphäre bei der Gewinnungselektrolyse

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gute Be- und Entlüftung der Elektrolysehalle
- Einsatz von Additiven, insbesondere Schäummittel, zur Minimierung der Nebelbildung

Technische Beschreibung

Gute Be- und Entlüftung der Elektrolysehalle

Zur Sicherstellung der Luftqualität am Arbeitsplatz wird die Elektrolysehalle abgesaugt. Hierzu stehen zwei allgemein anerkannte Strategien zur Verfügung:

- getrennte Systeme: Absaugung der Elektrolysehalle (mechanische oder natürliche Entlüftung) unabhängig von der Elektrolytkühlung und Ansaugen der Kühlluft für die Kühltürme aus dem Außenbereich
- kombiniertes System: Absaugung der Elektrolysehalle über die Luftkühltürme und Verwendung der abgesaugten Luft als Kühlmedium, wobei die Säurenebel im Kühlturm beim Durchströmen der Tropfenabscheider abgeschieden werden

Einsatz von Additiven, insbesondere Schäummittel

Zur Minimierung der Nebelbildung werden dem Elektrolytbad Additive, insbesondere Schäummittel (z.B. Süßholzextrakt), zugesetzt. Die sich auf der Badoberfläche ausbildende relativ stabile Schaumschicht verhindert das Verspritzen großer Mengen feiner Flüssigkeitsteilchen in die Umgebungsluft beim Zerplatzen der sich an der Anode bildenden Gasbläschen an der Badoberfläche.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Schutz des Betriebspersonals in der Elektrolysehalle durch Minimierung der Elektrolytnebelkonzentration in der Hallenatmosphäre
- Signifikante Reduzierung der Säurenebel freisetzung aus Elektrolysezellen bei Zugabe von Additiven, insbesondere Schäummitteln
- Minderung von Nebelemissionen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Emissionsdaten für die Elektrolysehallenentlüftung sind in Tabelle 6.32 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 6.32: Emissionskonzentrationen in der Elektrolysehallenabluft

Anlage		A	B	D & E	F
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	1 600 000	1 200 000	über Kühltürme	803 439
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,2	0,04		0,04
SO ₃		k.A.	0,14		k.A.
H ₂ SO ₄		k.A.	k.A.		0,29
Angewandte Technik		keine	keine		keine
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	0,5	1		12
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]					

Mit dem Einsatz von Schäummitteln, wie z.B. Süßholzextrakt, und der Absaugung der Elektrolysehalle sind Schwefelsäurenebelkonzentrationen am Arbeitsplatz von < 0,5 mg/m³ (zeitgewichteter 8h-Mittelwert) erreichbar.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gute Be- und Entlüftung der Elektrolysehalle

Zusätzlicher Stromverbrauch

Einsatz von Additiven, insbesondere Schäummittel

Leichter Anstieg des Additivverbrauchs (z.B. Süßholzextrakt)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Zugabe von Schaumstabilisatoren ist mit höheren Investitionskosten (Lagerung, Umschlag, Ansetz- und Dosierstation) und Betriebskosten (hauptsächlich für Reagenzien) verbunden.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung von Metall- (hauptsächlich Zink) und Sulfatnebelemissionen in die Luft
- Reduzierung der Arbeitsplatzkonzentration an Säurenebeln

Beispielanlagen

Die Zugabe von Schaumstabilisatoren zum Elektrolyten und Absaugung der Elektrolysehalle sind in Anlagen zur elektrolytischen Zinkgewinnung weltweit gängige Praxis.

Anlagen, in denen diese Techniken angewendet werden: Anlagen A, B (getrennte Absaugung), C, D, E (kombinierte Absaugung), F, G und H

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.5.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen in das Wasser aus dem Elektrolyseprozess

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Auffang- und Rückhaltesystem in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Elektrolysehallen sind mit einem umfassenden Rückhaltesystem zum Auffangen von ausgetretenen Flüssigkeiten, Reinigungsabwässern oder -schlämmen ausgestattet. Grundsätzlich werden alle erfassten Flüssigkeiten und Feststoffe in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Ausgetretene Flüssigkeiten und Reinigungsabwässer oder -schlämme werden im Auffangraum gesammelt und möglichst vollständig in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt. Nur im Ausnahmefall, z.B. bei umfangreicheren Wartungsarbeiten oder wenn die Gesamtwasserbilanz eine komplette Rückführung der erfassten verdünnten Lösung in den Hauptzinklösungskreislauf nicht erlaubt, wird eine Teilmenge in die zentrale Abwasserreinigungsanlage geleitet.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Diese Technik erfordert Investitionen in Rückhaltesysteme, Zwischenlagerbehälter und Rohrleitungssysteme zur Rückführung der aufgefangenen Flüssigkeiten in den Prozess. Zusätzlich entstehen Kosten für entsprechende Anpassungen in der zentralen AWA. Siehe Abschnitt 6.3.4.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung der anfallenden, behandlungsbedürftigen Abwassermenge

- Gesamtzinkausbeute der Hütte

Beispielanlagen

Hütten mit Elektrolyseanlagen in DE, FR, BE, SP, FI, BG, N, PL und NL

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.6 Techniken zur Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung**Beschreibung**

Geschlossener Kreislauf mit maximalem internem Recycling von wasserreichen Stoffströmen

Technische Beschreibung

Das hydrometallurgische Zinkgewinnungsverfahren stellt, was die Führung der Sulfatlösung angeht, im Grunde einen geschlossenen Kreislauf dar. Die bei der Elektrolyse entstehende Schwefelsäure wird in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt und dort zum Herauslösen von Zink und anderen Elementen aus der Zinkblende genutzt. Die so erhaltene Zinksulfatlösung wird anschließend gereinigt und erneut der Elektrolyse zugeführt. Da Sulfate und Wasser systematisch wiederverwendet werden, entsteht kein Sulfat- und Wasserverbrauch durch die hydrometallurgischen Reaktionen. Dieser geschlossene Kreislauf ist die wichtigste Maßnahme zur Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall.

In der betrieblichen Praxis muss jedoch die Wasserbilanz der Anlage ständig im Auge behalten werden. Einerseits entstehen Wasserverluste im Kreislauf durch Verdampfung in den Reaktionsbehältern, Absetzbehältern und Kühltürmen sowie Verluste über die Produkte und Abfallstoffe (Filterkuchen, wie z.B. Kupferzementat, Blei-Silber-Rückstand aus der Laugung, Eisenrückstände) und evtl. notwendige Teilstromausschleusungen, um eine Anreicherung von Verunreinigungen zu vermeiden. Andererseits wird dem Prozess auch Wasser zugeführt, z.B. Niederschlagswasser, Wasser für die Filterkuchenwäsche und Reinigungswasser (z.B. für die periodische Reinigung der Anoden und Kathoden) sowie Sperrwasser für die Vakuumpumpen.

Zur Rückgewinnung von Metallen und Sulfaten sowie zur Entlastung der AWA werden in Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung die bei Reinigungsarbeiten, der Filterkuchenwäsche, usw. anfallenden metall- und sulfathaltigen Abwässer in den Prozesslösungskreislauf zurückgeführt und zwar

- im maximal möglichen, mit der Abwasserbilanz der Anlage vertretbaren Umfang (mengenmäßig)
- solange die Wasserzusammensetzung zu keiner Beeinträchtigung der Reaktionsabläufe im hydrometallurgischen Prozess oder zu keinen nicht vertretbaren Prozessrisiken führt.

Organisch belastetes Abwasser (z.B. mit Öl verunreinigtes Wasser) gilt generell als ungeeignet für eine Zurückführung in den Prozess, da sich die organischen Bestandteile negativ auf die Laugenreinigung oder die Elektrolyse auswirken können. Desgleichen können Wässer mit hohen Gehalten an Halogenen (Cl, F, Br) oder (Erd)alkalimetallen (Na, K, Mg) nicht oder nur begrenzt in den Hauptprozesskreislauf zurückgeführt werden, da sich diese Verunreinigungen im Prozess anreichern bzw. chemische/technische Probleme in der Elektrolyse (z.B. Chlorkorrosion der Aluminiumkathoden, Bildung von toxischem Chlorgas an den Anoden) oder in anderen Prozessstufen verursachen können. Diese Abwasserströme werden direkt der AWA zugeführt.

Trockenes festes Material, das bei Stoffaustritt und Reinigungsarbeiten in der Röstanlage und Gießerei (z.B. Einsatzmaterial für die Röstung, Röstblende, Flugstaub, Krätze) anfällt und in den Röstprozess zurückgeführt werden soll, wird möglichst trocken gehalten. Wenn eine

Zuführung zur Laugung und Laugenreinigung vorgesehen ist, kann Wasser zugemischt werden, soweit die Wasserbilanz dies erlaubt.

Neben der Rückführung in den Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf bieten sich noch weitere Optionen zur Nutzung der bei der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung anfallenden Hauptabwasserströme. Die jeweiligen Nutzungsmöglichkeiten sind in Tabelle 6.33 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 6.33: Nutzungsmöglichkeiten für Abwässer aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung

Verfahren	Prozess/Quelle	Nutzungsmöglichkeiten
Röstanlage – Säuranlage	Nassreinigung Röstgas	zur Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) (mit Halogenen belastet)
	Abschlammwasser aus Kessel und geschlossenen Kühlkreisläufen	zur Nassgasreinigung oder Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
	Reinigungsarbeiten/ Stoffaustritt	zur Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
Laugung – Laugenreinigung	Reinigungsarbeiten/ Stoffaustritt	zur Laugung und/oder Laugenreinigung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
	Filterkuchenwäsche	zur Laugung und/oder Laugenreinigung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
	Nasswäscher	zur Laugung und/oder Laugenreinigung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf) im Fall von sauren Wäschern oder zur AWA im Fall von alkalischen Wäschern (belastet mit (Erd)alkalimetallen)
	Magnesiumausschleusung	zur Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) (belastet mit (Erd)alkalimetallen)
	Ablagerungsteiche	zur Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
Elektrolyse	Anoden- und Kathodenreinigung	zur Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
	Sonstige Reinigungsarbeiten	zur Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)
Gießerei	Reinigungsarbeiten/ Stoffaustritt	zur Laugung (Hauptzinksulfatkreislauf)

Je nach Qualität können einige Wasserströme aus bestimmten Prozessen an anderer Stelle genutzt und damit der Verbrauch von Frischwasser vermieden und/oder die der AWA zugeführte Nettoabwassermenge reduziert werden.

Hier einige konkrete Beispiele: Abwasser aus der indirekten Kühlung (z.B. Röstgutkühltrommel, Kokillen) oder erfasstes, verschmutztes Niederschlagswasser oder Wasser aus der Boden-/Grundwassersanierung kann zur Filterkuchenwäsche, als Pumpensperrwasser, Kesselzusatzwasser oder für Reinigungszwecke genutzt werden. Für Abwasserströme mit niedrigen (Erd)alkaligehalten (Härte) und niedrigen Halogengehalten bietet sich eine Nutzung als Kühlwasser an.

Eine Wiederverwendung des Ablaufs der AWA ist i.d.R. wegen der erhöhten Gehalte an Halogenen und (Erd)alkalimetallen, wenn überhaupt, nur begrenzt möglich.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Rückgewinnung von Metallen und Sulfaten
- Reduzierung des Wasserverbrauchs
- Entlastung der AWA (geringerer Abfallanfall, geringerer Energie- und Reagensverbrauch und geringere Emissionen)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In welchem Umfang eine Nutzung wasserreicher Stoffströme möglich ist sowie die technischen Voraussetzungen und Randbedingungen hierfür sind sehr standortspezifisch und müssen im Einzelfall geprüft werden. Angaben hierzu liegen nicht vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Erhöhtes Risiko von Störungen im Zinkgewinnungsprozess (mit möglichen negativen Umwelteinwirkungen und/oder Sicherheitsrisiken)
- Abhängig von der Gesamtwasserbilanz kann die Rückführung wasserreicher Stoffströme in den Hauptprozesskreislauf zu einem höheren Energieverbrauch führen, insbesondere wenn überschüssiges Wasser verdampft werden muss.
- In speziellen Fällen, z.B. bei Verwendung von (leicht) verschmutztem Wasser anstelle von Frischwasser zur Herstellung von VE-Wasser, kann sich der Reagens- und Energieverbrauch für den jeweiligen Prozess erhöhen.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Alle Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung arbeiten hinsichtlich der Sulfatlösung mit einem geschlossenen Kreislauf.

Die Möglichkeiten und Grenzen der Wiederverwendung bestimmter wasserreicher Stoffströme im Prozess sind abhängig von den standortspezifischen und regionalen Randbedingungen und werden durch die folgenden Faktoren beeinflusst:

- die Gesamtwasserbilanz, die ihrerseits wiederum von den klimatischen Bedingungen und jahreszeitlichen Schwankungen (die maßgeblich bestimmend für die Verdampfungs- und Kühlleistung sind), den Prozessbedingungen und der Marktnachfrage abhängig ist (z.B. Teilstromausschleusung ja oder nein (z.B. Magnesiumausschleusung, Verkauf der gereinigten Lösung))
- die Anordnung der Anlage (z.B. Entfernung zwischen der Prozessstufe, in welcher der Wasserstrom bereitgestellt wird/werden kann und dem potenziellen Ort der Verwendung)
- die sich im Laufe des Prozesses anreichernden Verunreinigungen, wie z.B. Halogene und (Erd)alkalimetalle, die maßgeblich von der Zusammensetzung der verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffe (insbesondere der anteiligen Menge an sekundären Einsatzstoffen) und der vorhandenen Möglichkeiten zur Ausschleusung bestimmter Stoffe (z.B. Gips, Chlor, Magnesium) abhängig sind

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Da die Möglichkeiten zur innerbetrieblichen Nutzung bestimmter wasserreicher Stoffströme sowie die Anlagenkonfiguration sehr standortspezifisch sind, muss die Wirtschaftlichkeit im Einzelfall geprüft werden. Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Höhere Metall- und Sulfatausbeuten
- Reduzierung des Gesamtverbrauchs an Frischwasser
- Entlastung der AWA (geringerer Abfallanfall, geringerer Energie- und Reagensverbrauch und geringere Emissionen)

Beispielanlagen

Alle europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Anlagen A, B, C, D, E, F, G und H)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.7 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Recycling oder Wiederverwendung der bei der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung anfallenden Rückstände und Abfälle

Technische Beschreibung

Konzentrate enthalten Verunreinigungen, die entfernt und in weiteren Verarbeitungsschritten in fester (z.B. Staub), flüssiger oder Schlammform abgetrennt werden. Bei der Vorbereitung der Konzentratmischung können Stäube anfallen, die recycelt und den Konzentraten beigemischt werden. Bei zu feiner Korngröße muss der Staub aufbereitet werden, z.B. durch Mikropelletierung. Bei diesem Verfahrensschritt entstehenden keine Rückstände, die eine spezielle Behandlung erfordern. Die Röstanlage ist nahezu vollständig geschlossen, was zur Minimierung von Prozessrückständen und Abfallströmen beiträgt.

Quecksilber wird bei der Röstgasreinigung abgeschieden, wobei ein quecksilberhaltiger Reststoff anfällt. Dieser wird mit Schwachsäure gemischt und kann nach Filtration stabilisiert und entsorgt werden. Alternativ kann dieser Reststoff mittels Destillation zu reinem metallischen Quecksilber weiterverarbeitet werden. Im Boliden-Norzink-Prozess kann in Kombination mit einer Gewinnungselektrolyse verkaufsfähiges metallisches Quecksilber erzeugt werden. Wenn keine Gewinnungselektrolyse vorgesehen ist, können die stabilisierten Quecksilberverbindungen auf einer Sondermülldeponie entsorgt werden. In der EU 28 wird in keiner der Zinkhütten, die das Boliden Norzink-Verfahren einsetzen, metallisches Quecksilber im Wege der Gewinnungselektrolyse erzeugt. Quecksilber aus der Nichteisenmetallurgie ist als Abfall eingestuft, der stabilisiert und nach geltenden Rechtsvorschriften entsorgt werden muss (auf einer Deponie oder in einem Salzbergwerk). Durch Destillation kann die Anfallmenge an quecksilberhaltigem Abfall erheblich gesenkt werden.

Der Quecksilberabscheidegrad wird dabei ausschließlich durch den Quecksilbergehalt im Einsatzmaterial bestimmt. Typische Werte liegen bei 0,2–0,6 kg/t Zn (Rückstand nach Filtration) oder 0,05–0,2 kg/t Zn (reines destilliertes Quecksilber).

Die sich im Zuge der hydrometallurgischen Weiterverarbeitung in den Laugungs- und Laugenreinigungsstufen bildenden Rückstände werden in den verschiedenen Prozessstufen ausgefällt. Die Menge an anfallenden Niederschlägen hängt in erster Linie von der Qualität der verarbeiteten Konzentrate und der Effizienz der Fällung ab. Einer der Hauptreststoffe der hydrometallurgischen Verfahrensrouten ist der Eisenfällrückstand (in Form von Jarosit oder Göthit). Dieser wird überwiegend auf Deponien nach Maßgabe der geltenden Rechtsvorschriften (Deponieverordnung, immisionsschutzrechtliche Genehmigung) entsorgt. Zwar ist die anfallende Menge an Eisenrückstand auch vom eingesetzten Fällmittel (Göthit oder Jarosit) abhängig, wird jedoch in erster Linie durch den Eisengehalt der Konzentrate bestimmt. Zur Minimierung der anfallenden Eisenrückstandsmengen existieren keine Techniken. Eine Möglichkeit zur Vermeidung eines Eisenrückstands ist der Einsatz eisenarmer Konzentrate, die jedoch nur sehr begrenzt zur Verfügung stehen. In der EU gibt es nur eine Hütte, die ausschließlich eisenarme Konzentrate verarbeitet. Zur Sicherung der Rohstoffversorgung hat das Unternehmen einen langfristigen Vertrag mit dem Betreiber einer großen Mine abgeschlossen, in der eisenarme Konzentrate abgebaut werden. Da die Vorräte der Century Mine zur Neige gehen, dürfte es in der Zukunft sehr schwierig werden, eine Zinkhütte ausschließlich mit eisenarmen Konzentraten zu betreiben.

Begleitelemente in den Ausgangsstoffen der Zinkgewinnung müssen extrahiert und abgetrennt werden, um reines Zink zu erzeugen und eine Anreicherung dieser Elemente im geschlossenen hydrometallurgischen Kreislauf zu unterbinden. Einige dieser extrahierten Elemente werden unter Gewinnung von verkaufsfähigen "standortinternen isolierten oder transportierten Zwischenprodukten" angereichert und gemäß REACH-Verordnung registriert. Dabei handelt es sich um:

- Kupfer (Cu) in einem Kupferzementat
- Kobalt-Nickel (Co-Ni) in einem Co-Ni-Zementat
- Cadmium in Form eines Cadmiumkuchens, der in manchen Fällen vor Ort weiter raffiniert und in Form von Cadmiumstäbchen (siehe Abschnitt 6.1.4.1) vermarktet wird. Alternativ kann Cd in einer gesicherten Deponie gemäß den geltenden Rechtsvorschriften abgelagert werden.
- Blei und Silber in einem PbSO₄-Ag-Zwischenprodukt oder Pb-Rückstand, usw.
- Mangan in Mn-Schlamm (nach interner Verwertung)
- Zinkkrätze (nach interner Verwertung)
- sonstige spezifische "Zwischenprodukte", die soweit eine Abtrennung erfolgt, zur Rückgewinnung von Elementen wie Germanium, Indium and Gallium genutzt werden können

Andere Prozessrückstände müssen minimiert und entweder intern oder extern inertisiert und deponiert werden:

- Schlämme aus der Nassgasreinigung, z.B. blei-, selen- oder quecksilberhaltige Schlämme
- Eisenrückstände, denen ein Direktlaugungsrückstand beigemischt sein kann
- Rückstände aus der Gipsausschleusung
- Neutralisationsschlamm aus der AWA

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Maximierung der verkaufsfähigen Zwischenprodukte zur internen/externen Aufarbeitung und Verwertung
- Minimierung der anfallenden Abfallmengen, die inertisiert und deponiert werden müssen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.34 gibt einen Überblick über die typischen Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung.

Tabelle 6.34: Typische Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung

Prozessrückstand/ Abfall	Anfallstelle	Menge (kg/t Zn)	Möglichkeiten der weiteren Behandlung
Staub aus Konzentratlagerung und -umschlag	Konzentratumschlag	k.A.	Wird dem Prozess zusammen mit dem Einsatzkonzentrat zugeführt
Staub aus dem Röstprozess	Röstgas-Trockenentstaubung	k.A.	Wird über die Kugelmühle geführt und anschließend zusammen mit dem Röstofenausstrag in die Röstgutsilos gefördert
Quecksilberhaltiger Reststoff (nach Filtration)	Quecksilberabscheidung (Gasreinigung)	0,3–0,6	Stabilisierung und Entsorgung auf einer Deponie, einer Sondermülldeponie oder in einem Salzstock entsprechend geltender Deponievorschriften. Beim Boliden-Norzink-Verfahren mit nachgeschalteter Gewinnungselektrolyse entsteht ein verkaufsfähiges Produkt.
Gereinigtes metallisches Quecksilber (nach Destillation)	Destillation nach Hg-Abscheidung	0,05–0,2	Stabilisierung und Entsorgung auf einer Deponie, einer Sondermülldeponie oder in einem Salzstock entsprechend geltender Deponievorschriften

Blei-Silber-Rückstand	Laugung	0,3–0,5	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Entsorgung auf einer Deponie oder in einem Salzstock nach geltender Gesetzgebung möglich.
Cu-Rückstand	Laugenreinigung	9–13	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Verkaufsfähiges Nebenprodukt
Co-haltiger Rückstand	Laugenreinigung	3–7	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Verkaufsfähiges Nebenprodukt.
Cd-Rückstand	Laugenreinigung	2–4	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Verkaufsfähiges Nebenprodukt. Entsorgung auf einer Deponie oder gesicherten Deponie nach geltender Gesetzgebung möglich.
Mn-Schlamm	Gewinnungselektrolyse/ Laugenreinigung	3–6	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Verkaufsfähiges Nebenprodukt. Entsorgung auf einer Deponie oder gesicherten Deponie nach geltender Gesetzgebung möglich.
Gipsschlamm	Gewinnungselektrolyse/ Laugenreinigung	2–6	Registriert als transportiertes Zwischenprodukt gemäß REACH-Verordnung. Verwertung als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage. Verkaufsfähiges Nebenprodukt. Entsorgung auf einer Deponie oder gesicherten Deponie nach geltender Gesetzgebung möglich.
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben			

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Chemikalien für die Fällung (z.B. Zn-Pulver, Ca(OH)₂, NaOH, Na₂S, NaHS, CuSO₄)
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Im Prinzip kann diese Technik überall angewendet werden, wobei die Anwendung jedoch stark von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen abhängig ist (z.B. Anlagen in Meeresnähe; bei Anlagen im Binnenland, die an einem großen Fluss oder Bach gelegen sind, ist das Einsatzmaterial bestimmend).

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Nachhaltigkeit des Produktionsbetriebs
- Wiederverwendung natürlicher Ressourcen

Beispielanlagen

Alle europäischen Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Anlagen A, B, C, D, E, F, G und H)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.2.8 Techniken zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

6.3.1.2.8.1 Pyrometallurgische Behandlung zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Pyrometallurgische Behandlung im Wälzofen. Der Einsatz dieser Technik erfordert zusätzliche Emissionsminderungsmaßnahmen, wie z.B. Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) und Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6).

Technische Beschreibung

Das Wälzverfahren zur pyrometallurgischen Gewinnung von Zink aus Laugungsrückständen weist viele Ähnlichkeiten auf mit dem Verfahren zur Zinkrückgewinnung aus Elektrostahlwerksstäuben (EAF-Staub). Der Hauptunterschied liegt im verwendeten Ausgangsstoff und der resultierenden Abgaszusammensetzung. Laugungsrückstände enthalten Sulfate, die im Wälzprozess unter Bildung von gasförmigem SO₂ thermisch gespalten werden. Für Wälzöfen, in denen Laugungsrückstände verarbeitet werden, muss daher die Gasreinigung entsprechend angepasst werden.

Bei ZGH Bolesław in Polen werden ca. 90 % des Zinks in der Neutrallaugung gewonnen. Die verbleibenden 10 % sind in nahezu unlöslichen Zinkferriten gebunden, die 20–25 Gew.% der Röstblende ausmachen. Tabelle 6.35 zeigt eine typische Zusammensetzung des Laugungsrückstands.

Tabelle 6.35: Zusammensetzung des Rückstands aus der Neutrallaugung

Element	Konzentration (%)	Element	Konzentration (%)
Zn	14,5–20,0	SiO ₂	1,8–2,5
Pb	7,5–11	S	6,5–9,0
Fe	20,0–30,0	S (als SO ₄)	3,5–6,5
Cd	0,25–0,35	H ₂ O	18,0
As	0,2–0,3		
Mn	0,4–0,6		
Cu	0,15–0,25		

Quelle: [399, IZA 2012]

Die Aufarbeitung der Zinkferrite erfolgt in zwei Wälzöfen (mit einer Länge von 40 m, und einem Innendurchmesser von 2,6 m), die mit drei Zonen betrieben werden. Die Charge besteht aus einer Mischung von Ferriten und maximal 10 % Sand und 40 % Koks oder Anthrazitkohle.

Der erzeugte zinkreiche Staub, das sog. Wälzoxid, wird mit dem Abgas aus dem Ofen ausgetragen und in der anschließenden Abgasreinigungsanlage bestehend aus Staubabsetzkammer, Mischkammer, einem Röhrenkühler mit Zwangsluftkühlung und einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden. Das Wälzoxid wird am Kühleraustritt und Gewebefilter abgezogen.

Abschließend wird das entstaubte Gas in einem Nasswäscher entschwefelt, in dem SO₂ mit Kalk zu Gips umgesetzt wird.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Wegfall der Langzeitablagerung von Jarosit oder Göthit in Ablagerungsbecken

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.36 zeigt eine typische Zusammensetzung des Wälzoxids bei einer typischen Zinkausbeute von 85–87 %.

Tabelle 6.36: Zusammensetzung von Wälzoxid aus der Aufarbeitung von Laugungsrückständen

Element	Konzentration (%)	Element	Konzentration (%)
Zn	45–52	SiO ₂	0,3–1,0
Pb	15–21	S	1,5–4,5
Fe	2,0–5,0	F	0,10–0,12
Cd	0,6–1,2	Cl	0,5–1,5
As	0,15–0,25		
Mn	0,08–0,15		
<i>Quelle: [399, IZA 2012]</i>			

Das Wälzoxid wird in die Neutrallaugung zurückgeführt oder in einem IS-Ofen weiterverarbeitet.

Eine typische Zusammensetzung der Wälzschlacke ist in Tabelle 6.37 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 6.37: Zusammensetzung von Wälzschlacke aus der Aufarbeitung von Laugungsrückständen

Element	Konzentration (%)	Element	Konzentration (%)
Zn	2,6–3,5	Cd	0,004–0,006
Fe	25–35	As	0,01–0,1
Pb	0,8–2,0	SiO ₂	10–14
<i>Quelle: [399, IZA 2012]</i>			

Diese Schlacke kann, soweit gemäß den jeweiligen Landesgesetzen zulässig, als inertes Versatzmaterial zum Verfüllen von Hohlräumen verwendet werden.

Emissionen des Wälzprozesses nach Gasreinigung in einem Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher:

- SO₂: 1 kg/t Produkt
- NO_x: 2,5 kg/t Produkt
- CO₂: 40 kg/t Produkt
- PM₁₀: 0,3 kg/t Produkt
- Schlacke: 2,5 t/t Produkt
- Synthetischer Gips aus der Abgasentschwefelung: 200 kg/t Produkt
- Abwässer (Schlackenkühlung): 0,007 m³/t Produkt, Behandlung in der AWA vor Ort

Die Emissionskonzentrationen sind in Tabelle 6.38 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 6.38: Emissionen des Wälzprozesses

Jahr	Pb	Cd	Staub	SO ₂	NO _x	PCDD/F
	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	mg/Nm ³	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³
2011	0,180	0,009	3,5	415,27	19,27	0,200
<i>Quelle:</i> [400, IZA 2013]						

Verbrauchszahlen einer Wälzanlage zur Verarbeitung von Schlämmen aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen [229, IZA plant data 2008]:

- Reduktionsmittel (Koks, Anthrazit): 1,25 t/t Produkt
- SiO₂: 0,2 t/t Produkt
- Erdgas: 85 Nm³/t Produkt
- Elektrische Energie: 270 kWh/t Produkt
- Druckluft: 600 Nm³/t Produkt

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Direkte CO₂-Emissionen
- Potenziell höhere Staubemissionen, die erfasst werden müssen
- Sulfat-/Sulfidschlamm aus dem SO₂-Wäscher
- Elemente, die bei der Behandlung im Wälzrohr unzureichend oder nicht verflüchtigt werden, wie z.B. Cu, Ni, Co und Ag, oder unzureichend/nicht zurückgewonnen werden (Verluste über die Schlacke), können sich negativ auf die Eluatwerte der Schlacke auswirken.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik kann für Neutrallaugungsrückstände aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung eingesetzt werden, die keine erhöhten Anteile an Zinkferriten (< 10 % des Gesamtzinks verbleiben nach der Neutrallaugung in den Zinkferriten) oder keine hohen Edelmetallanteile aufweisen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Aussagen zur Wirtschaftlichkeit lassen sich nur schwer treffen. Wenn allerdings mehr als 10 % des Gesamtzinks vor Rückführung in den hydrometallurgischen Prozess pyrometallurgisch zurückgewonnen (verblasen) werden müssen, ist dieses Verfahren sehr energieintensiv und unwirtschaftlich.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Wegfall eines gefährlichen Abfallstoffs (Jarosit) zur Beseitigung
- Höheres Zinkausbringen

Beispielanlagen

Anlage O, Anlage G und Korea Zinc

Literatur

[229, IZA plant data 2008], [305, Ausmelt 2009]

6.3.1.2.8.2 Inertisierungs- und Verdichtungstechniken zur Verbesserung der Deponierfähigkeit von Laugungsrückständen aus der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

6.3.1.2.8.2.1 Jarofix-Verfahren

Beschreibung

Beim Jarofix-Verfahren wird der bei der Zinkferritlaugung anfallende Jarosit-Fällrückstand in einem vorgegebenen Verhältnis mit Portlandzement, Kalk und Wasser vermischt.

Technische Beschreibung

Durch Reaktion mit Portland-Zement, Kalk und Wasser wird der Jarosit-Fällrückstand $[\text{NH}_4\text{Fe}_3(\text{SO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_6]$ in ein chemisch und mechanisch stabiles Material umgewandelt. Neben der Reduzierung des mit der Ablagerung dieses Eisenrückstands verbundenen Langzeitrisikos wird dabei gleichzeitig auch eine einfachere Handhabung erreicht. Mineralogische Untersuchungen gealterter Jarofixprodukte haben gezeigt, dass Jarofix mit den alkalischen Bestandteilen des Zements unter Bildung diverser stabiler Phasen reagiert, aus der Zink und andere lösliche Metalle deutlich schwieriger herauszulösen sind. Aufgrund ihrer Persistenz tragen diese alkalischen Phasen wesentlich zur Langzeitstabilität des Jarofix-Produkts in der Umwelt bei [229, IZA plant data 2008], [289, USEPA 2008].

Der Nachweis einer vergleichbaren Wirksamkeit bei Göthitrückständen steht noch aus.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Der stabilisierte Jarosit-Rückstand kann auf Deponien für nicht gefährliche Abfälle abgelagert werden, womit die Entsorgung in Absetzteichen entfällt.
- Im Vergleich zu Absetzteichen ergibt sich ein geringerer Deponieflächenbedarf, da keine Dämme zur Rückhaltung des abgelagerten Materials notwendig sind.
- Mögliche Nutzung als Verfüllmaterial bei der Rekultivierung von Abgrabungsflächen

Ein Beispiel für die Anwendung des Jarofix-Verfahrens ist die Rekultivierung eines Kiestagebaus, der sich in den Berg "hineingefressen" hat. Abbildung 6.25 zeigt das Gelände im August 1999 vor der Verfüllung (erstes Foto) und im Dezember 2014 nach fortgeschrittener Rekultivierung (zweites Foto). Ziel ist die weitgehende Wiederherstellung des ursprünglichen Profils des Hügels.



August 1999: vor Verfüllung



Dezember 2014: Laufende Rekultivierung mit Jarofix

Quelle: [424, TWG DE 2014]

Abbildung 6.25: Rekultivierung einer Tagebaufläche mit Jarofix

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zur Qualitätskontrolle wird das Jarofix-Produkt mit einer sauren oder Pufferlösung gelaugt. Das Extrakt wird analysiert und auf Einhaltung der einschlägigen Eluatgrenzwerte kontrolliert. Wird der gesetzlich vorgeschriebene Grenzwert für den jeweiligen Stoff im Eluat erreicht oder überschritten, wird das Material als toxisch eingestuft und eignet sich möglicherweise nicht für eine Verwertung. Bisherige Ergebnisse zeigen jedoch, dass Jarofix sehr niedrige Gehalte an eluierbaren Metallen aufweist.

Die Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Abfalldeponien sind in der Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EG geregelt und beruhen auf dem Auslaugungsverhalten des jeweiligen Abfalls in Wasser zum Zeitpunkt der Annahme auf der Deponie. Tabelle 6.39 zeigt typische Eluatwerte für nach diesen Kriterien getesteten Jarofix-Abfall von europäischen Zinkhütten, in denen diese Technik angewendet wird (Anlagen A und D).

Tabelle 6.39: Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Deponien für nichtgefährliche Abfälle und typische Eluatwerte für Jarofix-Abfall (Analysemethode gemäß Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EC)

Parameter	Eluatgrenzwert Flüssigkeit/Feststoff-Verhältnis = 10 l/kg	
	Kriterien für die Annahme auf Deponien für nichtgefährliche Abfälle (mg/kg TS)	Jarofix-Probe (mg/kg TS)
Antimon	0,7	<0,05
Arsen	2	0,059
Barium	100	1,72
Cadmium	1	<0,01
Gesamt-Chrom	10	0,414
Kupfer	50	<0,05
Quecksilber	0,2	<0,0010
Blei	10	6,40
Molybdän	10	2,41
Nickel	10	<0,05
Selen	0,5	<0,05
Zink	50	0,613
Chlorid	15 000	89,0
Fluorid	150	11,0
Sulfat	20 000	13370
DOC	800	12
TDS	60 000	27 760
TVOC	*	2200
ANC (mg CaCO ₃ /l)	*	282
pH-Wert	*	> 10

* Kriterien für die Annahme gefährlicher Abfälle auf Deponien für nichtgefährliche Abfälle: maximal zulässiger TVOC-Wert = 50 000, ANC-Wert (Säureneutralisationskapazität) ist zu überprüfen, pH-Wert sollte ≥ 6 sein.

Anmerkung: DOC = gelöster organischer Kohlenstoff

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Einsatz von Portlandzement als Reaktionsmittel mit einer entsprechenden Erhöhung der anfallenden Rückstandsmasse (ca. 1,15 t Jarofix pro Tonne Jarosit)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik kann für Jarosit-Rückstände aus der Zink-Hydrometallurgie angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Informationen zur Wirtschaftlichkeit liegen nicht vor. Laut einer vertraulichen Studie zu verfügbaren Verfahren zur Stabilisierung von Jarosit-Rückstand ist das Jarofix-Verfahren jedoch die wirtschaftlichste Methode, um die Einhaltung der lokalen Umweltschutzvorschriften zu gewährleisten.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verknappung des Deponieraums für auslaugbare Eisenrückstände
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage C und Anlage F

Literatur

[229, IZA plant data 2008], [264, Seyer, Chen 1999]

6.3.1.2.8.2.2 Sulfidierungsverfahren

Beschreibung

Beim Sulfidierungsverfahren erfolgt die Stabilisierung des Jarosit-Fällrückstands durch Zugabe von NaOH und Na₂S.

Technische Beschreibung

Der bei der Zinkferritlaugung anfallende Jarosit-Rückstand wird durch Sulfidierung in einen stabilisierten Rückstand umgewandelt, der die Eluatkriterien für die Ablagerung auf einer Deponie für gefährliche Abfälle erfüllt. Neben Jarosit-Rückstand eignet sich das Sulfidierungsverfahren auch zur Stabilisierung des Schwefelrückstands aus der Direktlaugung, wobei die Behandlung der beiden Abfallstoffe getrennt oder gemeinsam erfolgen kann.

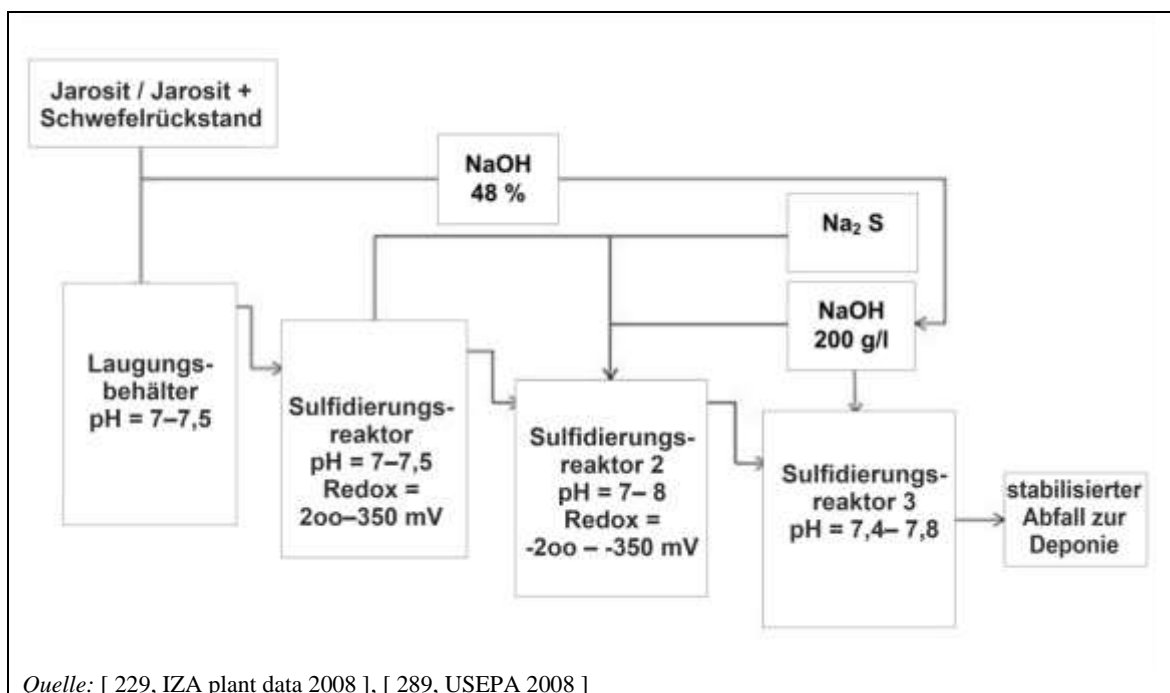


Abbildung 6.26: Prinzipieller Ablauf des Sulfidierungsverfahrens

Produktionsschlämme, die vor Ort deponiert werden, müssen zur Erfüllung der Kriterien der Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EC vorbehandelt werden, d.h. frei von Zink und sonstigen Metallen sein und soweit wie möglich entwässert werden. Die Deponien müssen vollständig abgedichtet und flüssigkeitsdicht sein. Sie unterliegen der behördlichen Aufsicht und der geltenden Gesetzgebung. Wasser aus der Schlammdeponie kann in den Zinkgewinnungsprozess zurückgeführt werden.

Bei der Reaktion entsteht ein chemisch stabiles Material, wodurch das mit der Ablagerung von Eisenrückständen verbundene Risiko einer langfristigen Schadstoffremobilisierung reduziert wird.

Der stabilisierte Rückstand wird in Form einer Suspension auf die Deponie gepumpt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Stabilisierung von Jarosit als gefährlicher Abfall zur anschließenden Entsorgung auf einer Deponie für gefährliche Abfälle
- Geringerer Deponieflächenbedarf im Vergleich zum Jarofix-Verfahren. Zwar wird der stabilisierte Abfall in Form einer Suspension auf die Deponie gepumpt, doch kann das Transportwasser in den Zinkgewinnungsprozess zurückgeführt werden, so dass sich keine Erhöhung der Ablagerungsmenge ergibt.
- Einsparung natürlicher Ressourcen, da das sulfidierte Jarosit geologische Eigenschaften besitzt, die eine Verwendung im Böschungsbau und sonstigen Anwendungen im Deponiebau ermöglichen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Abfalldéponien sind in der Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EC geregelt und beruhen auf dem Auslaugungsverhalten in Wasser des jeweiligen Abfalls zum Zeitpunkt der Annahme auf der Deponie.

Tabelle 6.40 zeigt typische Eluatwerte für einen sulfidierten Mischabfall (Jarosit und Schwefelrückstand) von europäischen Zinkhütten, in denen diese Technik eingesetzt wird (Anlagen A und D). Der Laugungstest und die Analyse erfolgen gemäß EN 12457-3 und anderen in den abfallrechtlichen Vorschriften genannten einschlägigen Normen.

Tabelle 6.40: Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Deponien für gefährliche Abfälle und typische Eluatwerte für sulfidierte Abfälle (Jarosit- + Schwefelrückstand)

Parameter	Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Deponien für gefährliche Abfälle	Sulfidiertes Jarosit + Schwefelrückstand
	L/S 10 (mg/kg TS)	L/S 10 (mg/kg TS)
Antimon	5	0,83
Arsen	25	0,02
Barium	300	0,3
Cadmium	5	0,29
Gesamt-Chrom	70	<0,03
Kupfer	100	0,08
Quecksilber	2	0,001
Blei	50	6,5
Molybdän	30	0,08
Nickel	40	0,97
Selen	7	<0,12
Zink	200	21
Chlorid	25 000	43
Fluorid	500	<16
Sulfat	50 000	21 000

DOC	1000	19
TDS	100 000	
TVOC	6 %	< 0.2 %
ANC (mg CaCO ₃ /l)	Zu bestimmen	
Anmerkung: DOC = gelöster organischer Kohlenstoff L/S = Flüssigkeit/Feststoff-Verhältnis		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Notwendigkeit eines Wasserrecyclingsystems

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik kann für Jarositrückstände aus der Zink-Hydrometallurgie angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verknappung des Deponieraums für eluierbare Eisenrückstände
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A und Anlage D

Literatur

[229, IZA plant data 2008], [264, Seyer, Chen 1999], [289, USEPA 2008]

6.3.1.2.8.2.3 Verdichtung von Eisenrückständen

Beschreibung

Das Verdichten von Eisenrückständen erfolgt durch Entwässerung unter Zugabe von Kalk oder anderen Additiven in Hochdruckfilterpressen. Der so erzeugte Filterkuchen wird in Ablagerungsbecken deponiert und lagenweise mit schweren Spezialgeräten weiter verdichtet.

Technische Beschreibung

Mit der Verdichtung wird eine Verlängerung der Lebensdauer der Eisenrückstandsdeponie erreicht. Konventionell werden Göthit und Jarosit in Form einer Suspension in einen Absetzteich gepumpt (der gegen den Untergrund und an den Seiten mit Kunststoffdichtungsbahnen abgedichtet ist). Nach Absetzen der Feststoffe wird der wässrige Überstand in die Zinkhütte zurückgepumpt, während die abgesetzten Feststoffe im Teich verbleiben. Der Absetzteich wird Zug um Zug mit Filterkuchen gefüllt, bis seine Kapazität erschöpft ist. Am Ende seiner Betriebsdauer wird eine Oberflächenabdichtung aufgebracht. Diese konventionelle Ablagerungsmethode wird als hydraulische Ablagerung bezeichnet.

Das Verdichtungsverfahren beruht auf der Abfiltrierung des Göthits in einem Hochdruckfilter (15–30 bar) unter Zugabe von Kalk oder anderen Reagenzien zur Reduzierung der Auslaugbarkeit von Metallen. Der Filterkuchen wird in ein Ablagerungsbecken ähnlich den konventionellen Becken (oder einen vorhandenen geleerten Teich) verbracht und lagenweise mittels schwerem Spezialgerät verdichtet. Im Vergleich zu konventionellen Absetzteichen wird mit dieser Methode ein erheblich niedriger Endfeuchtigkeitsgehalt des eingelagerten eisenreichen Rückstands erzielt (Reduzierung des Wassergehalts von 60–65 % auf 35 %, z.B. Anlage Nyrstar in Belgien). Aufgrund seiner festen Beschaffenheit kann der Filterkuchen zu einem Hügel aufgestapelt werden, womit sich die Deponiekapazität abhängig von der endgültigen Stapelhöhe um das Zwei- bis Vierfache erhöht. Die Deponie wird Zug um Zug mit

einer Oberflächenabdichtung versehen, um die in der AWA oder im Zinkgewinnungsprozess zu behandelnden Niederschlagswassermengen zu reduzieren.

Für Jarosit-Rückstände wurde diese Technik bislang noch nicht eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des erforderlichen Deponievolumens aufgrund der höheren Dichte des Eisenfällrückstands
- Reduziertes Risikos unbeabsichtigter Stofffreisetzungen, da das eingelagerte Material eine extrem niedrige Wasserdurchlässigkeit vergleichbar mit der von Ton besitzt. Die Auslaugbarkeit von Metallen kann durch Zugabe von Kalk oder anderen Additiven herabgesetzt werden.
- Kein wässriger Überstand über dem festen Material
- Weniger Zinkverluste über den entsorgten Eisenfällrückstand infolge des niedrigeren Restfeuchtigkeitsgehalts

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

- Mit dieser Technik kann die spezifische Wasserdurchlässigkeit (K-Wert) auf ca. $< 10^{-9}$ m/s abgesenkt werden.
- Die berichteten Eluatwerte für Göthit plus 5 % CaO und Klärschlamm mit hohem Gipsgehalt sind in Tabelle 6.41 zusammengestellt.

Die Kriterien für die Annahme von Abfällen auf Abfalldeponien sind in der Ratsentscheidung 2003/33/EC geregelt und beruhen auf dem Auslaugungsverhalten in Wasser des jeweiligen Abfalls zum Zeitpunkt der Annahme auf der Deponie. Tabelle 6.41 zeigt typische Eluatwerte für verdichtete Göthit-Rückstände und Klärschlämme von europäischen Zinkhütten, in denen diese Verdichtungstechnik eingesetzt wird (Anlagen E und P).

Tabelle 6.41: Kriterien für das Auslaugungsverhalten und Eluatwerte für verdichtete Eisenrückstände

Parameter	Kriterien für das Auslaugungsverhalten: NEN 12457-2- S4, L/S = 10 l/kg, pH 7, 24 h	
	Typische Werte: Analysiertes Göthit + 5 % CaO (mg/kg TS)	Typische Werte: Analysierter Klärschlamm (mg/kg TS)
Antimon	0,21	0,24
Arsen	<0,04	<0,04
Barium	0,38	0,34
Cadmium	2,40	0,48
Chrom (gesamt)	0,02	0,02
Chrom(VI)	<0,20	<0,20
Kupfer	0,055	0,11
Quecksilber	0,0026	0,079
Blei	0,19	0,9
Molybdän	0,25	0,31
Nickel	<0,04	<0,04
Selen	0,12	0,38
Zink	11	2,2
Chlorid	257	384
Fluorid	91,5	80,2

Sulfat	17 600	16 000
DOC	14	34
TDS	24 000	24 000
TVOC	< 1,2 %	< 1,2 %
pH (KCl)	7,67	8,13
Anmerkung: DOC = gelöster organischer Kohlenstoff		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Eine Stabilisierung des Abfalls kann entfallen.
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für die Verdichtung des Eisenfällrückstands
- Kalkverbrauch (0–5 %)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik eignet sich für Göthit-Rückstände aus der Zink-Hydrometallurgie und Klärschlämme mit hohem Gipsgehalten.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Laut vorliegenden Angaben sind die Kosten vergleichbar mit denen der hydraulischen Ablagerung (ohne Verdichtung im Absetzteich). Einsparungen bei den Investitionskosten (kleinere Fläche des Absetzteichs) stehen höhere Betriebskosten gegenüber (Filterpresse plus Transport plus in-situ-Verdichtung).

Die Betriebskosten (Personal, Wartung, Energie, Additive usw.) liegen bei ca. EUR 20–25/t.

Der Investitionsaufwand (Gebäude, Filter, Pumpen, Behälter, lokale Infrastruktur) für eine Anlage mit einer Kapazität von 100 kt/a beläuft sich auf rund EUR 11 Millionen. Nicht inbegriffen in dieser Summe sind die Kosten für den Erwerb der Fläche und den Bau des Ablagerungsbeckens [399, IZA 2012].

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Optimale Nutzung verfügbarer Flächen
- Längere Lebensdauer von bestehenden Ablagerungsbecken

Beispielanlagen

Anlage E und Anlage P

Literatur

[274, COM 2008], [399, IZA 2012] based on 'How to substantially improve the life of a 30 Ha tailings pond at Umicore Zinc Plant', S. Foged and J. Vandekeybus, Environmental Services MWH, Mechelen

6.3.1.2.9 Techniken zur Wärmerückgewinnung in der hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abhitzeessel
- Turbine

Technische Beschreibung

Das Röstofenabgas strömt über den Abgasaustritt nahe der Ofendecke in den unmittelbar dahinter angeordneten Abhitzeessel, der als Horizontalzugessel ausgeführt ist. Beim

Durchströmen des Kessels wird das Abgas von 1000 °C auf 350 °C oder niedriger abgekühlt. Gleichzeitig fällt ein Großteil des mitgerissenen Staubs im Kessel aus. Die Betriebstemperatur des Kessels ist durch den Taupunkt des SO₂-haltigen Abgases nach unten begrenzt, um eine Kondensation korrosiver Dämpfe zu vermeiden.

Der Kessel ist als Zwangsumlaufkessel (z.B. La Mont) ausgeführt und besteht aus mehreren im Gasweg angeordneten Verdampfern und einem Überhitzerrohrbündel sowie einer externen Dampftrommel.

Warmwasser wird kontinuierlich zwischen der Dampftrommel, den Verdampferrohrbündeln und den Kühlschlangen im Wirbelbett umgepumpt, während der in der Dampftrommel abgetrennte Dampf vor Weiterleitung an die Verbraucher über ein Überhitzerrohrbündel geführt wird. Das Röstblende-Kühlsystem kann zusätzlich zur Wärmerückgewinnung genutzt und im Verbund mit dem Abhitzekeessel betrieben werden.

Der überhitzte Dampf mit einer Temperatur von 290–400 °C und einem Druck von 4 MPa wird in Dampfturbinen entweder zur Stromerzeugung oder direkt als mechanische Energie (z.B. zum Antrieb des Gebläses des WS-Röstofens oder der Saugzüge in der Abgasreinigungs- und Schwefelsäureanlage) genutzt. Der Niederdruck-Turbinendampf wird zur Deckung des Wärmebedarfs des Zinkgewinnungsprozesses und zur Gebäudeheizung genutzt. In einigen Zinkhütten wird der Niederdruckdampf einem Turbogenerator zur Stromerzeugung zugeführt. Wie die Dampfnutzung erfolgt, ist abhängig vom lokalen Energiemarkt.

Die Nebeneinrichtungen für den Kessel umfassen elektrisch angetriebene Hochleistungsspeisewasser- und Umwälzpumpen, die über Hilfsturbinen angetrieben werden. Eine ausgeklügelte Prozesssteuerung ermöglicht den weitgehend automatischen Betrieb des Dampfkessels. Ferner werden eine Entsalzungsanlage und Chemikaliendosierstationen zur Bereitstellung von hochreinem Kesselspeisewasser benötigt.

Die Kühlung des Röstguts – Betaustrag und Kesselaustrag – erfolgt indirekt in einem Drehrohr- oder Wirbelschichtkühler unter Verwendung von Wasser als Kühlmedium. Der Kühlwasserablauf kann in anderen Prozessstufen der hydrometallurgischen Verarbeitung genutzt werden (z.B. Ausgleich von Prozesswasserverlusten durch Verdampfung, Reinigungsarbeiten). Im Normalfall wird der Kühlwasserablauf vor Nutzung heruntergekühlt werden. Dies geschieht entweder durch Luft-/Flüssigkeitskontakt (Kühltürme) oder zusätzliche Kühlung durch Wärmeaustausch, z.B. mit Meerwasser. Bei diesen, am häufigsten angewendeten Methoden findet keine Wärmenutzung statt.

Das Kühlwasser der Mahlstufe ist von niedrigerer Qualität als das der Hochdruckturbine und wird meistens in den Prozess zurückgeführt (z.B. als Waschwasser für die Filterkuchenwäsche)

Weitere Möglichkeiten zur Abwärmenutzung bieten sich in der Schwefelsäureanlage, z.B. in Form eines Economisers zur Speisewasservorwärmung für den Abhitzekeessel.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Rückgewinnung der freigesetzten Reaktionswärme und Umwandlung in Elektrizität und Niederdruckdampf zur Deckung des Dampfbedarfs des Prozesses und Heizung der Bürogebäude

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Typische Energierückgewinnungsrate bei Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung: 3,5 MJ/t Zn

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar auf Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Da das Abgas ohnehin gekühlt werden muss, betreffen die zusätzlichen Investitionskosten im Wesentlichen die Dampfturbine zur Stromerzeugung.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Energierückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

Alle Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung in Europa

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.3 Pyrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung

6.3.1.3.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Venturiwäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Venturiwäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)

In Europas einziger Zinkhütte nach dem pyrometallurgischen Verfahren werden Venturiwäscher in den folgenden Prozessstufen eingesetzt:

- Kokslagerung und -umschlag
- Sintermischungsvorbereitung
- Sinterbrecher
- Möllervorbereitung für den Imperial Smelting (IS)-Ofen
- Sprühkondensator
- Schlackengranulator

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

In Europas einziger Zinkhütte nach dem pyrometallurgischen Verfahren werden Gewebefilter in den folgenden Prozessstufen eingesetzt:

- Sinteranlage
- Sinterbrecherbereich
- IS-Ofen
- New Jersey-Prozess

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung der Emissionen an Staub und leichtflüchtigen Metallen (Zn, Pb oder Cd)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Venturiwäscher

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte der Anlage O sind in Tabelle 6.42 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 6.42: Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Abgasreinigung in Venturiwäschern

Luftschadstoff	Angewandte Technik	Einheit	Emissionswerte bei bestimmungsgemäßigem Betrieb			Informationen zur Messwerterfassung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	Methode
Emissionsquelle: Kokslagerung und -umschlag						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	8,2	10,7	13,2	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Emissionsquelle: Sintermischungsvorbereitung						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	5,7	8,3	10,9	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Zn		mg/Nm ³	1,13	1,68	2,23	A-METAXDG1
Pb		mg/Nm ³	0,52	0,65	0,77	
Cd		mg/Nm ³	0,006	0,032	0,058	
Emissionsquelle: Sintermischungsvorbereitung						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	4,2	7,1	10	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Zn		mg/Nm ³	0,85	1,04	1,23	A-METAXDG1
Pb		mg/Nm ³	0,39	0,59	0,79	
Cd		mg/Nm ³	0,004	0,035	0,066	
Emissionsquelle: Sinterbrecherbereich (Messung nach dem Nasswäscher vor Eintritt in den Kamin)						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	3,1	6,7	10,3	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Zn		mg/Nm ³	1,5	2,5	3,5	A-METAXDG1
Pb		mg/Nm ³	0,75	0,89	1,02	
Cd		mg/Nm ³	0,015	0,018	0,021	
Emissionsquelle: Möllervorbereitung für den IS-Ofen						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	6,6	9,6	12,5	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Zn		mg/Nm ³	2	2,9	3,8	A-METAXDG1
Pb		mg/Nm ³	0,32	0,76	1,2	
Cd		mg/Nm ³	0,009	0,013	0,016	
Emissionsquelle: Schlackengranulierung						
Staub	Nasswäscher	mg/Nm ³	9,8	12,5	15,2	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
Zn		mg/Nm ³	0,2	0,8	1,3	A-METAXDG1
Pb		mg/Nm ³	0,09	0,13	0,17	
Cd		mg/Nm ³	0,006	0,008	0,01	
Anmerkung: Messmethode: diskontinuierliche Messung, Stichproben Mittelwertbildung: Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer Anzahl Messkampagnen u. Proben: 2 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]						

Gewebefilter

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte der Anlage O sind in Tabelle 6.43 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 6.43: Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Abgasreinigung in Gewebefiltern

Luftschadstoff	Angewandte Technik	Einheit	Emissionswerte bei bestimmungsgemäßem Betrieb			Informationen zur Messwertaufzeichnung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	Methode
Emissionsquelle: Sinteranlage						
Staub Zn Pb Cd SO ₂ CO	Gewebefilter	mg/Nm ³	0,33	1,12	1,9	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
		mg/Nm ³	0,17	0,18	0,19	A-METAXDG1
		mg/Nm ³	0,01	0,05	0,08	
		mg/Nm ³	0,002	0,005	0,007	
		mg/Nm ³	690	710	730	PN-ISO 10396:2001
		mg/Nm ³	15	16	17	
Emissionsquelle: Sinteranlage						
Staub Zn Pb Cd SO ₂ CO NO ₂	Gewebefilter	mg/Nm ³	0,63	0,78	0,92	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
		mg/Nm ³	0,34	0,39	0,43	A-METAXDG1
		mg/Nm ³	0,05	0,1	0,14	
		mg/Nm ³	0,002	0,0026	0,0031	
		mg/Nm ³	1030	1055	1080	PN-ISO 10396:2001
		mg/Nm ³	51	52	53	
		mg/Nm ³	220	230	240	
Emissionsquelle: Sinterbrecherbereich						
Staub Zn Pb Cd	Gewebefilter	mg/Nm ³	0,52	1,11	1,7	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
		mg/Nm ³	0,12	0,36	0,59	A-METAXDG1
		mg/Nm ³	0,22	0,27	0,31	
		mg/Nm ³	0,0017	0,0024	0,003	
Emissionsquelle: IS-Ofen						
Staub Zn Pb Cd SO ₂	Gewebefilter	mg/Nm ³	0,7	1,3	1,8	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
		mg/Nm ³	0,2	0,45	0,69	A-METAXDG1
		mg/Nm ³	0,25	0,29	0,33	
		mg/Nm ³	0,019	0,03	0,041	
		mg/Nm ³	6	10	14	
Emissionsquelle: New-Jersey-Prozess						
Staub Zn Pb Cd SO ₂ CO NO ₂	Gewebefilter	mg/Nm ³	4,4	4,9	5,4	PN-Z-04030-7:1994
		mg/Nm ³	2,37	2,94	3,5	A-METAXDG1
		mg/Nm ³	0,006	0,046	0,085	
		mg/Nm ³	0,006	0,009	0,012	
		mg/Nm ³	< NWG	< NWG	< NWG	PN-ISO 10396:2001
		mg/Nm ³	< NWG	< NWG	< NWG	
		mg/Nm ³	12	13	14	
Anmerkung: Messmethode: diskontinuierliche Messung, Stichproben Mittelwertbildung: Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer Anzahl Messkampagnen u. Proben: 2 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlage O

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.1.3.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von SO₂- und Dioxinmissionen aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Zur Abgassentschwefelung (SO₂-armes Abgas) kommen Halbtrockenabscheider in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.44 zeigt die erreichten SO₂-Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Abgassentschwefelung in einem Halbtrockenabscheider.

Tabelle 6.44: SO₂-Emissionswerte einer Anlage zur pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung nach Entschwefelung des SO₂-armen Abgases in einem Halbtrockenabscheider

Luftschadstoff	Angewandte Technik	Einheit	Emissionswerte bei bestimmungsgemäßem Betrieb				Informationen zur Messwert- erfassung	
			Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert- bildung	Messwert- erfassung:	Methode	Bezugssauer- stoffgehalt (%)
Emissionsquelle: Sinteranlage (Messung nach dem Gewebefilter vor Eintritt in den Kamin)								
SO ₂	Halbtrockenabscheider (mit Kalkdosierung)	mg/Nm ³	560	680	Tagesmittelwert	kontinuierlich	IR	6
Quelle: [400, IZA 2013]								

In Anlage O wird keine spezielle Minderungseinrichtung für Dioxine eingesetzt. Für die Sinteranlage wird ein Dioxin-Emissionswert von 0,02 ng I-TEQ/Nm³ berichtet. Eine

Quecksilberminderungseinrichtung ist nicht vorgesehen, allerdings wird das Einsatzmaterial auf Quecksilber analysiert.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.2 Primär- und Sekundärzinkerzeugung über Recycling-Routen

6.3.2.1 Recycling metallischer Stoffströme

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [[290, COM 2006](#)].

6.3.2.1.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Aktivkohlefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.3) oder Nachverbrennungskammer (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter

Vor der weiteren Abgasreinigung wird das Ofenabgas zunächst in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Aktivkohlefilter oder Nachverbrennungskammer

Bei der Verarbeitung von Zinkschrotten mit organischen Anhaftungen (Lack, Teer, usw.) kann zusätzlich zur Abgasentstaubung in einem Gewebefilter ein Aktivkohlefilter oder eine Nachverbrennungskammer zur Abscheidung/thermischen Nachverbrennung von TVOC erforderlich werden. Bei niedrigen TVOC-Konzentrationen im Abgas kommt gewöhnlich ein Aktivkohlefilter zur Anwendung. Die thermische Nachverbrennung kommt bei Abgas mit hohen TVOC-Konzentrationen zum Einsatz.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub-, Dioxin- und VOC-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Mit Gewebefiltern werden i.d.R. Reingasstaubwerte $< 5 \text{ mg/m}^3$, oft sogar $< 1 \text{ mg/m}^3$ erreicht.

Aktivkohlefilter oder Nachverbrennungskammer

Tabelle 6.45 zeigt die berichteten Emissionswerte für Anlage N nach Abgasbehandlung in einem Aktivkohlefilter.

Tabelle 6.45: Emissionswerte nach dem Aktivkohlefilter in Anlage N

Komponente	mg/Nm ³
Benzol	< 5
TVOC	< 50
Dioxine	$< 0,4 \text{ ng I-TEQ/m}^3$
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>	

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Verbrauch von Aktivkohle

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Staubemissionen, Arbeitsschutz
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Hütten in Belgien und Deutschland

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.2.2 Recycling von oxidischen Rohstoffen

6.3.2.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Verblaseöfen

6.3.2.2.1.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Plasmalichtbogen-Verblaseprozess

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Quecksilberabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Abbildung 6.27 zeigt den prinzipiellen Ablauf des Plasmalichtbogen-Verblaseprozesses.

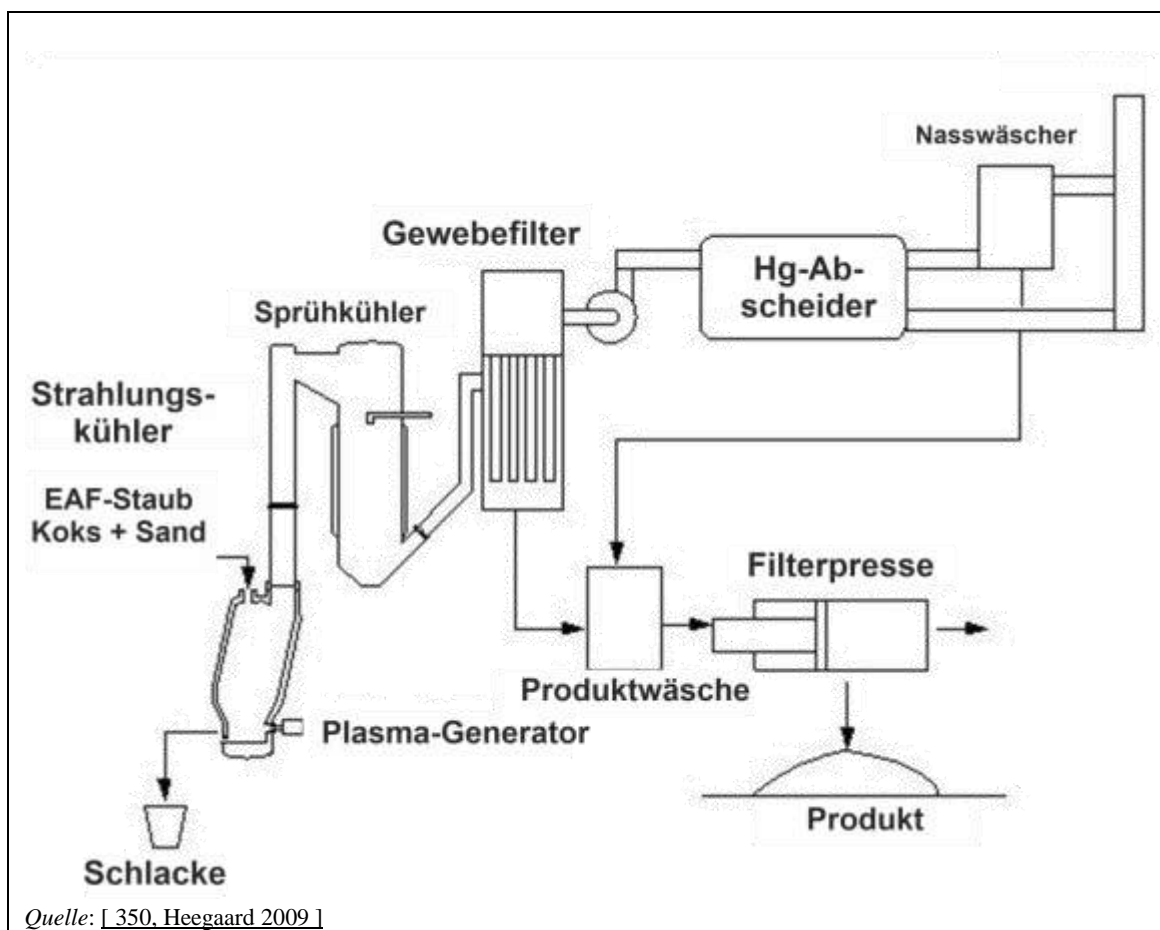


Abbildung 6.27: Verfahrensablauf des Plasmalichtbogen-Verblaseprozesses

Das entstehende Prozessabgas muss gekühlt und gereinigt werden. Elemente wie Fluor und Chlor werden durch Einblasen von NaOH in den Sprühkühler und Nasswäscher ausgestrippt. Quecksilber wird in einem Aktivkohlefilter abgeschieden. Rückoxidiertes Zink und Blei werden im Gewebefilter aus dem Abgas abgeschieden und zur Produktwäsche geleitet. Zur Senkung des Chlor- und Fluorgehalts im Endprodukt wird das Produkt mit Wasser unter Zugabe von Na_2CO_3 gelaugt. Da das Waschwasser Metalle wie Cadmium, Blei und Zink enthält, wird in den Waschbehältern ein pH-Wert von 9,5 bis 11 eingestellt, um diese Metalle auszufällen. Die Qualität des Waschwassers wird messtechnisch überwacht. Vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter wird das Waschwasser mit Na_2S behandelt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub-, Dioxin- und Sauergasemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Das gereinigte Abgas besteht hauptsächlich aus CO_2 , H_2O und N_2 . Tabelle 6.46 zeigt die Hauptabgaskomponenten. Für Staub-, HCl-, HF- oder Hg-Emissionen liegen keine Daten vor.

Tabelle 6.46: Zusammensetzung des Abgases aus dem Plasmalichtbogen-Zinkverblaseprozesses

Komponente	(%)	(kg)
CO ₂	4,0	300
H ₂ O	29,4	2207
N ₂	56,4	4233
O ₂	10,1	758
Sonstige	0,1	8

Quelle: [350, Heegaard 2009]

Der Fluor- und Chlorgehalt liegt unter 0,2 %.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höherer Reduktionsmittelverbrauch

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Beispielanlagen

Høyanger (NO), Hofors (SE) und Calais (FR)

Literatur

[350, Heegaard 2009]

6.3.2.2.1.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Verblaseofen in einem Prozess zur Gewinnung von sekundärem ZnO aus einem Zwischenprodukt der Kupferverhüttung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Aktivkohledosierung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.3)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Abbildung 6.28 zeigt ein Fließschema eines Verblaseverfahrens mit integriertem Klinkerofen in einer Kupferhütte.

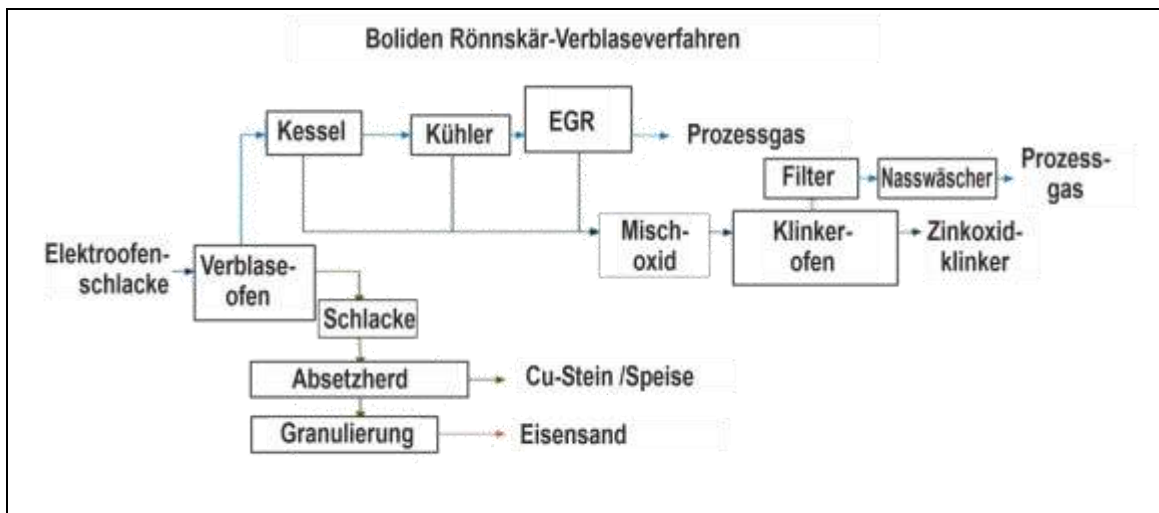


Abbildung 6.28: Verblaseverfahren mit integriertem Klinkerofen in einer Kupferhütte

Das Abgas des Verblaseofens durchläuft vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre einen Abhitzeessel, in dem die Abwärme zur Erzeugung von Strom und Fernwärme zurückgewonnen wird, einen Kühlturm und abschließend ein Elektrofilter.

Das Abgas des Klinkerofens wird nach Zugabe von Aktivkohle zur Minderung von Dioxinmissionen in einem Gewebefilter mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher gereinigt (zur Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen kann statt Wasser eine alkalische Waschlösung eingesetzt werden).

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub-, Dioxin- und Sauer gasemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Das gereinigte Abgas besteht hauptsächlich aus CO₂, H₂O und N₂. Tabelle 6.47 zeigt die Hauptabgaskomponenten. Für Staub-, HCl-, HF- oder Hg-Emissionen liegen keine Daten vor.

Tabelle 6.47: Relevante gasförmige Emissionen des Zinkverblaseprozesses

Komponente	(%)
CO ₂	5,5–7
H ₂ O	20–25
N ₂	45–70
O ₂	5–10
SO ₂	300 ppm

Der Fluor- und Chlorgehalt liegt unter 0,005 %.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Der Einsatz von Kohle als Reduktionsmittel führt zu CO₂-Emissionen.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar. Bei dem Verblaseverfahren handelt es sich um eine bewährte Technologie, die breite Anwendung zur Rückgewinnung flüchtiger Metalle aus pyrometallurgischen Schmelzen findet.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Beispielanlagen

Boliden Rönnskär (SE)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.2.2.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Etagenöfen

Etagenöfen werden in Europa nicht mehr betrieben.

Prinzipiell bestehen viele Ähnlichkeiten mit dem in Abschnitt 6.3.2.2.1.1 beschriebenen Verfahren, so dass die dort beschriebenen Minderungstechniken eingesetzt werden können.

6.3.2.2.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Wälzverfahren

6.3.2.2.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Pelletierung von Sekundärrohstoffen

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Die Lagerung der Einsatzstoffe für den Wälzofen erfolgt in Lagerhallen oder Silos. Von dort werden sie über Förderanlagen zur Misch- und Pelletierstation transportiert, pelletiert und anschließend über Bandanlagen dem Wälzofen zugeführt. Zur Minimierung von Staubemissionen können die Förderbänder, Förderschnecken und Mischeinrichtungen vollständig gekapselt werden, so dass kein Staub nach außen entweichen kann. Staubemissionen aus nicht gekapselten Misch- und Fördereinrichtungen werden erfasst und im Gewebefilter der bestehenden Abgasreinigungsanlage zurückgehalten. Soweit eine vollständige Kapselung der Förderanlagen nicht möglich ist, wird das Material befeuchtet, um Staubemissionen zu vermeiden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verbesserung der Luftqualität am Arbeitsplatz
- Sehr niedrige diffuse Emissionen
- Höhere Prozesseffizienz bei Einsatz von Pellets

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit Gewebefiltern werden typische Reingaswerte von $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ erzielt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Anwendbar auf alle staubförmigen Einsatzstoffe für den Wälzprozess

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Verbesserung der Luftqualität am Arbeitsplatz
- Verbesserung der Prozesseffizienz

Beispielanlagen

Hütten in ES, IT, FR und DE

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.2.2.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen in Wälzöfen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Staubabsetzkammer
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Zugabe eines Adsorbens (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.3)
- RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Der Wälzofen arbeitet nach dem Gegenstromprinzip, d.h. das Prozessgas wird entgegen der Bewegungsrichtung der Beschickung durch den Ofen geführt und als Abgas am Einlaufende des Ofens abgezogen. Anschließend gelangt das Abgas in eine Staubabsetzkammer, wo infolge der Verminderung der Strömungsgeschwindigkeit bereits eine Vorabscheidung grober Staubpartikel stattfindet. Hier kann bereits eine erste Gaskühlung durch Eindüsen von Luft oder Wasser in den Abgasstrom erfolgen. Nach weiterer Abkühlung auf Filtereintrittstemperatur – entweder in einem Wärmetauscher oder durch Einblasen von Luft und/oder Wasser – wird das Abgas in einem EGR (optional) und Gewebefilter entstaubt. Je nach Quecksilbergehalt des Ausgangsmaterials kann nach der Entstaubung ein Sorptionsmittel (Gemisch aus Braunkohlekoks und Kalkstein/Kalkhydrat) in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen werden, um Quecksilber und organische Bestandteile abzuscheiden. Die Reaktionsprodukte werden in einem weiteren Gewebefilter abgeschieden (Filterschichtverfahren). Je nach Anlagenkonfiguration und örtlichen Gegebenheiten kann eine Nachverbrennungskammer zur thermischen Oxidation von organischen Bestandteilen im Abgas vorgesehen werden.

Die SO₂-Emissionen werden maßgeblich durch die Art der mit dem Ausgangsmaterial eingeschleppten Schwefelverbindungen bestimmt. Die Schwefelverbindungen in Neutrallaugungsrückständen (ZnSO₄) sind leichtflüchtig und werden mit dem Abgas aus dem Wälzofen ausgetragen, während aus dem Koks stammender Schwefel in die Schlacke eingebunden wird. Eine zusätzliche Abgasentschwefelungsstufe ist daher nur erforderlich, wenn flüchtige Schwefelverbindung im Ausgangsmaterial vorliegen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub-, Metall-, Dioxin- und VOC-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.48 zeigt anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte einer Wälzanlage zur Behandlung von EAF-Staub (Status 2011). Das SDHL-Wälzverfahren wird in den Anlagen J, K, L und M

eingesetzt. In Anlage L ist der zu behandelnde Abgasvolumenstrom um ein Vielfaches höher als in den anderen Hütten, da hier die Gaskühlung durch Einblasen von Luft erfolgt.

Tabelle 6.48: Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte von Wälzöfen

Anlage		I		J		K		L		M	
Durchschn. Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	64 000		66 500		88 100		166 146		73 110	
		MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.
Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,35	1,54	0,5	1,1	< 0,3	< 0,3	0,832	2,2	2,54	5,6
Zn	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,138	0,692	n.v.	
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,002	0,005	0,003	0,005	0,008	n.v.	0,001	0,004	0,002	0,004
Pb	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		0,009	0,01	0,008	n.v.	0,017	0,087	0,091	0,383
Hg	mg/Nm ³	0,009	0,01	0,05	0,1	0,002	0,003	0,004	0,019	0,091	0,164
As	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,002	0,008	<0,0002	<0,0002
Cu	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,024	0,096
Cr	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,008	0,027
Ni	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,012	0,042
Pb+Mn+Cu+Cr+V+Sn	mg/Nm ³	0,039	0,047	n.v.		n.v.		0,08		0,224	n.v.
SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	7,6	n.v.	5,70	9,8	28,69	76,2	39,05	96	0,01	0,04
HCl	mg/Nm ³	3,23	n.v.	0,30	0,6	0,38	0,64	0,11	0,2	0,85	1,07
HF	mg/Nm ³	< 0,23	n.v.	0,20	0,20	0,11	0,2	0,06	0,1	n.v.	
NO _x	mg/Nm ³	133,73	143,2	85	107	42,55	43,8	3,63	5,2	44,90	52,4
TVOC	mg/Nm ³	2,69	13,55	0,7	2	12,6	19,9	n.v.		NR	NR
VOC	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		50	73	243	260
CO	mg/Nm ³	26,04	31,6	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		12331	14178
PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	0,090	n.v.	0,004	0,004	0,001	0,0016	n.v.		n.v.	
Dioxine	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		0,003	0,014	0,03	0,03
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	kontinuierlich für Staub und TVOC (5 für CO und NO _x , und 1 für PCDD, PAK, HF, HCl, SO _x und NH ₃)		10 (2 für PCDD/F, C _{org} , Hg und NO _x)		10 (2 für PCDD/F, C _{org} , Hg und NO _x)		5 (4 für Dioxine, SO ₂ und NO _x)		9 (3 für NO _x , HCl und VOC, 1 für Dioxine)	

Anmerkung: Angewandte Minderungstechniken:
 I: Gewebefilter + RNV
 J: Gewebefilter + Adsorbens (Aktivkohle) + RNV
 K: Gewebefilter + Adsorbens (Braunkohlekoks)
 L: Gewebefilter + Adsorbens
 M: EGR + Gewebefilter + Adsorbens
 n.v. = nicht verfügbar; NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]
 MW = Mittelwert

Für die Anlage in Frankreich liegen Emissionsdaten vor und nach Umrüstung auf SDHL-Technologie vor. Tabelle 6.49 zeigt eine Gegenüberstellung der Emissionen des SDHL-

Verfahrens (ab Inbetriebnahme Mitte 2004) mit denen des früheren konventionellen Wälzprozesses.

Tabelle 6.49: Luftgetragene Emissionen des Wälzprozesses vor und nach Umrüstung auf SDHL-Technologie

Komponente	Einheit	Vorher*		Nachher*		
		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
SO ₂	kg/h	22148	7,390	0,584	0,424	0,199
NO _x	kg/h	2,140	1,143	0,946	2,467	1,407
VOC - außer Methan	kg/h	2,000	4,237	3,057	2,104	7,711
Staub	kg/h	0,070	0,129	0,204	0,181	0,193
HCl	kg/h	0,069	0,123	0,261	0,070	0,051
HF	kg/h	n.v.	0,124	0,027	0,346	0,065
Summe Metalle	kg/h	0,0491	0,0317	0,0177	0,0257	0,0327
Pb	kg/h	0,0054	0,0133	0,0076	0,0102	0,0204
Zn	kg/h	0,0372	0,1191	0,0730	0,1065	0,2446
Hg	kg/h	n.v.	0,00445	0,00079	0,00148	0,00608
As	kg/h	n.v.	0,00053	0,00076	0,00089	0,00129
Cd	kg/h	0,0013	0,0011	0,0012	0,0007	0,0007
PCDD/F**	µg I-TEQ/h	9,653	7,235	1,141	2,567	1,292
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	113706	133977	131056	140781	148329
n.v. = nicht verfügbar						
* Jahresmittelwert						
** Vor Realisierung einer zusätzlichen PCDD/F-Abscheidestufe						
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar auf Wälzöfen. Einschränkungen für die Anwendung einer RNV können sich aus Sicherheitsgründen ergeben.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Rückgewinnung zusätzlicher Wertstoffe aus dem EAF-Staub
- Geringerer Koks- und Gasverbrauch
- Höhere Durchsatzleistung und höhere Zinkausbeute
- Verringerung von CO₂-Emissionen (d.h. Ressourceneffizienz)

Beispielanlagen

Befesa-Hütten in Freiberg und Duisburg (DE), Asua-Erandio (ES), Fouquières les Lens (FR) und IT

Literatur

[234, UBA (D) 2007], [246, France 2008], [351, COM 2009], [399, IZA 2012]

6.3.2.2.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Schlackenaufbereitung

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Nach Durchlaufen des Wälzofens verlässt die verbleibende feinkörnige Schlacke den Ofen auf der Austragsseite und fällt über einen Rost in ein Wasserbad oder ein Kühlbecken mit Wassersprühvorrichtungen. Die erkaltete Schlacke wird mittels Kettenförderer oder Bagger zum Schlackenlager transportiert. Beim Austrag aus dem Ofen und der Kühlung auftretende Emissionen werden über das Absaugsystem am Ofenaustrag oder eine zusätzliche Absaugung erfasst. Dieser Abgasstrom wird entweder mit dem Ofenabgas zusammengeführt und in einer gemeinsamen Abgasreinigungsanlage oder getrennt in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit Gewebefiltern werden typische Reingaswerte von $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ erzielt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Arbeitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Das Verfahren wird generell in Europa angewendet.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.2.2.3.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Abwasseranfall beim Wälzprozess

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommt eine (zwei- oder mehrstufige) Gegenstromwäsche in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Hauptabwasserquelle in Wälzanlagen ist das Waschwasser aus der Wälzoxidlaugung zum Entfernen von Halogenen. Zur Reduzierung der anfallenden Abwassermenge in der Wälzoxidwaschstufe wird ein mehrstufiges Gegenstromwaschverfahren eingesetzt.

Der Verfahrensablauf der zwei- und dreistufigen Wälzoxid-Gegenstromwäsche ist jeweils in Abbildung 6.29 und Abbildung 6.30 dargestellt [[234, UBA \(D\) 2007](#)].

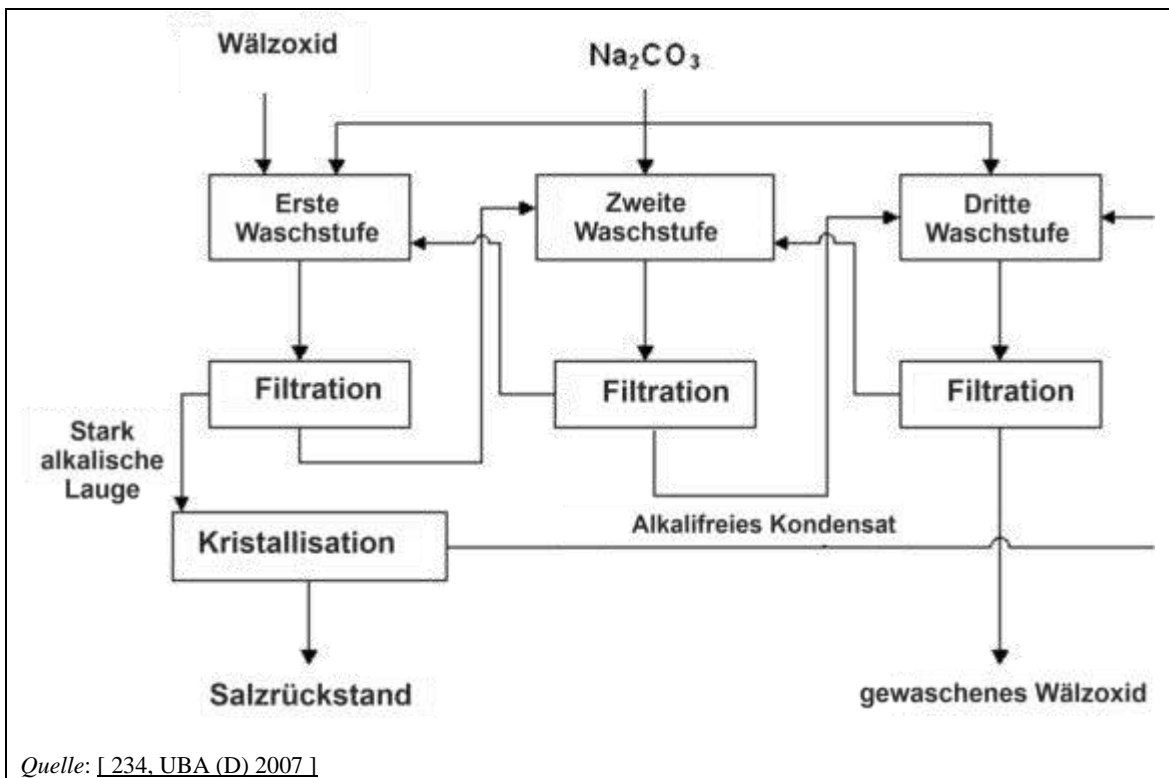


Abbildung 6.29: Schema eines dreistufigen Wälzoxid-Gegenstromwaschkreislaufs

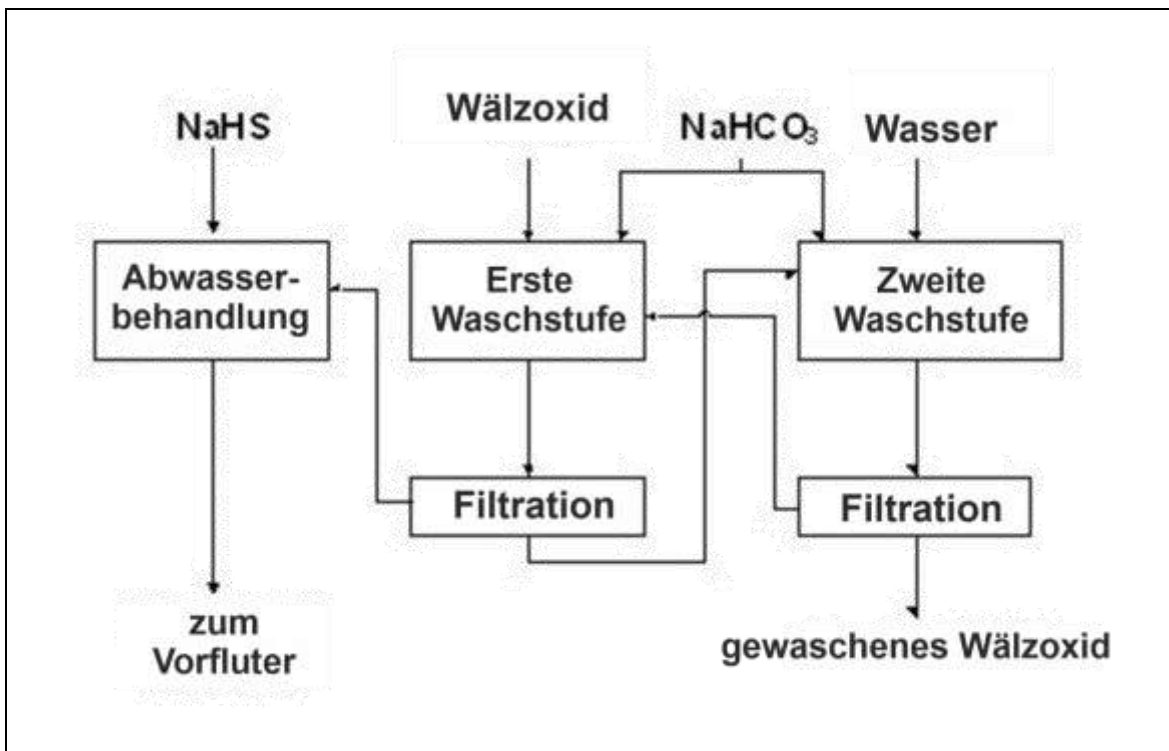


Abbildung 6.30: Schema eines zweistufigen Wälzoxid-Gegenstromwaschkreislaufs

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Durch die Gegenstromwäsche reduziert sich der Wasserverbrauch um bis zum Dreifachen.
- In Verbindung mit einer nachgeschalteten Kristallisationsstufe ist ein abwasserfreier Betrieb möglich.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Siehe technische Beschreibung.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Verdampfung) im Fall einer nachgeschalteten Kristallisationsstufe

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar auf Wälzöfen

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Reduzierung des Abwasseranfalls
- Dehalogenierung des Wälzoxids

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen I, J, K, L und M

Literatur

[93, García-Agocheaga, B. 1998], [234, UBA (D) 2007], [399, IZA 2012]

6.3.2.2.3.5 Behandlung von Abwasser aus dem Wälzprozess

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Kristallisation
- Fällung
- kombiniertes Verfahren (Kristallisation und Fällung)

Technische Beschreibung

Da der überwiegende Anteil des Abwassers bei der Wälzoxidlaugung anfällt, ist die Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) speziell für diese Abwässer ausgelegt. Sonstige kleinere Abwasserströme werden ebenfalls dieser AWA zugeführt.

Kristallisation

Eine Möglichkeit zum Abtrennen von Alkalien und Halogeniden aus der konzentrierten Lauge der ersten Waschstufe ist die Kristallisation, wobei ein Salzlückstand und ein alkalifreies Kondensat entstehen. In der Kristallisationsstufe werden 30–35 % des Gesamthalogengehalts entfernt. Der Salzlückstand wird deponiert oder unter Tage als Versatzmaterial eingesetzt, das behandelte Abwasser kann in die Wälzoxidwäsche zurückgeführt werden. Das in der Kristallisationsstufe anfallende Kondensat kann erneut in der Wälzoxidwäsche genutzt und somit der gesamte Prozess abwasserfrei gestaltet werden [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Fällung

Bei niedriger Halogenfracht des Abwassers, die eine Ableitung in den Vorfluter erlaubt, kann ein anderes Behandlungsverfahren angewendet werden. Zur Fällung gelöster Metalle werden dem Abwasser schwefelhaltige Additive, Flockungs- und Flockungshilfsmittel zugegeben. Nach anschließender Filtration und Neutralisation kann das gereinigte Wasser dann in die Kanalisation, einen Fluss oder das Meer abgeleitet werden. Tabelle 6.52 zeigt anlagenspezifische Daten der Anlage E.

Kombiniertes Verfahren

Wenn die Einleitung einer begrenzten Menge an Halogeniden gestattet ist, kann eine Teilstromkristallisation zur Eliminierung eines Teils der Halogene erfolgen. Das restliche Abwasser wird dann einer Metallfällung unterzogen. In Anlage I erfolgt die Abwasserbehandlung in zwei Stufen. Bei der ersten Stufe handelt es sich um eine klassische Hydroxidfällung. In der zweiten Stufe wird zur Ausfällung von Metallionen ein spezielles flüssiges Reagens dosiert, das effektiver, jedoch auch teurer als NaHS ist. Tabelle 6.52 zeigt anlagenspezifische Daten der Anlage I.

Ökologischer Nutzen*Kristallisation*

- Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall
- Teilabscheidung von Halogeniden

Fällung

Abscheidung von Metallen (Sulfidfällung)

Kombiniertes Verfahren

- Vermeidung eines Teils des Abwasseranfalls
- Teilabscheidung von Halogeniden
- Abscheidung von Metallen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Daten zum Aufreinigungseffekt der Wälzoxidwäsche und typische Zusammensetzungen des gereinigten Abwassers aus der Wälzoxidwäsche sind in Tabelle 6.50, Tabelle 6.51 und Tabelle 6.52 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 6.50: Aufreinigungseffekt der Wälzoxidwäsche

Komponente (%)	Ungewaschenes Wälzoxid	Gewaschenes Wälzoxid (drei- oder zweistufige Wäsche)
Zink	58–63	63–68
Blei	7–10	9–11
Schwefel	0,5–1	< 0,15
Fluor	0,4–0,7	0,08–0,15
Chlor	4–8	0,05–0,15
K ₂ O	1,5–2	0,1–0,2
<i>Quelle: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</i>		

Tabelle 6.51: Abwasser der Wälzoxidwäsche

Komponente (mg/l)	Abwasser nach Behandlung mit NaHS
Zink	0,01–1,0
Blei	0,01–0,20
Cadmium	0,01–0,10
<i>Quelle: [234, UBA (D) 2007]</i>	

Tabelle 6.52: Abwasser der Wälzoxidwäsche

Anlage		Q		I		M	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	m ³ /h	195	n.v.	330	n.v.	28,2	n.v.
Zn	mg/l	0,04	0,46	0,03	0,06	1,43	5,28
Cd	mg/l	0,0020	0,024	0,0007	0,006	0,05	0,25
Pb	mg/l	0,0031	0,105	0,0067	0,019	0,68	2,76
As	mg/l	0,0123	0,2	<0,001	<0,001	0,17	0,64
Cu	mg/l	0,0003	0,0015	< 0,01	< 0,01	0,03	0,19
Fe	mg/l	0,06	0,18	<0,05	<0,05	0,3	0,46
Cr	mg/l	0,0015	0,0034	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,01	0,1
Cl-	mg/l	2780	5300	635	993	n.v.	n.v.
F-	mg/l	3,89	7	0,68	0,93	n.v.	n.v.
SO ₄ ²⁻	mg/l	996	1600	155	269	1994	2945

Anmerkung:
n.v. = nicht verfügbar
Anlage Q: Fällverfahren
Anlage I: Teilstromkristallisation zur Halogenentfernung + Fällung
Anlage M: Fällung + Koagulation + Flockung + Filtration (die Ablaufwerte erfüllen nicht die Anforderung für eine Direkteinleitung)
Quelle: [378. Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Kristallisation

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Eindampfung) und Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs oder einer Salzsole

Fällung

Einsatz von Chemikalien zur Fällung von Metallionen

Kombiniertes Verfahren

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Eindampfung) und Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs oder einer Salzsole
- Einsatz von Chemikalien zur Fällung von Metallionen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Abwassermenge, die einer Teilstromkristallisation unterzogen wird, ist abhängig von den lokalen Gegebenheiten. Wenn eine Chlorideinleitung nicht zulässig ist, wird der gesamte anfallende Abwasserstrom kristallisiert. Ein Beispiel hierfür ist die Befesa-Anlage in Freiberg.

Wenn eine begrenzte Menge an Chloriden eingeleitet werden darf, wie z.B. im Fall der Hütte Pontenossal in Italien, wird etwa ein Drittel der im Wälzoxid enthaltenen Halogenide in einer Kristallisationsstufe abgetrennt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Kostendaten liegen nicht vor. Das Verfahren wird jedoch angewendet und ist wirtschaftlich.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Abtrennen von Metallen (Umweltschutzgesetzgebung)
- Produktoptimierung
- Reduzierung von Fluor-, Chlor- und Alkalieneinleitungen in Aufnahmegewässer (lokale Umweltschutzvorschriften)

Beispielanlagen

- Kristallisation: Anlage K
- Fällung: Anlagen Q und M
- Kombiniertes Verfahren: Anlage I

Literatur

[93, García-Agocheaga, B. 1998] [234, UBA (D) 2007], [399, IZA 2012]

6.3.2.2.3.6 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus dem Wälzprozess

Außer einem guten Prozessmanagement kommen keine weiteren Verfahren oder Ausrüstungen zur Anwendung.

6.3.3 Schmelzen, Legieren und Vergießen zu Zinkbarren (primäre, sekundäre, hydrometallurgische und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung)

6.3.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelz- Umschmelz-, Legierungs-, Warmhalte- und Gießöfen sowie aus der Zinkstauberzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Betrieb der Aggregate bei Unterdruck
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Betrieb der Aggregate bei Unterdruck

Während der Flussmittelzugabe oder beim Reinigen des Ofens können diffuse staub- und gasförmige Emissionen auftreten. In Anbetracht der relativ geringen Emissionsmassenströme kann die Minderung durch Aufrechterhaltung eines Unterdrucks im Ofen erfolgen, womit gleichzeitig auch die direkten Emissionen erfasst und einer Minderungseinrichtung zugeführt werden.

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Gewebefilter gelten als die am besten geeignete Technik zur Entstaubung des Abgases aus diesen Prozessen.

In Tabelle 6.53 sind die bei diesen Prozessen auftretenden diffusen und gefassten Emissionen wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 6.53: Diffuse und gefasste Emissionen der pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung

Emission	Aggregatzustand	Hauptluftschadstoffe
Staub	Feststoff	Zinkoxid Metallisches Zink Zinkchlorid
Dämpfe/Rauche	Aerosol	Zinkoxid Zinkchlorid Ammoniumchlorid

Bei Elektroöfen zum Einschmelzen von Zinkkathoden wird das entstehende Abgas über ein Absaugsystem erfasst. Bei einem Ofen mit einer Schmelzleistung von 25 t/h Zinkbarren weist der Gasstrom folgende typischen Kennwerte auf:

- Volumenstrom: 29 100 Nm³/h
- Temperatur: 50 °C
- Staub: 1 g/Nm³
- Spezifisches Gewicht des Staubs: 1,19 kg/l

Der abgeschiedene Staub (einschließlich der anfallenden Krätze) weist die folgende Zusammensetzung auf:

- ZnO: 62–67 Gew.%
- ZnCl₂: 15–17 Gew.%
- Zn (metallisch): 19–22 Gew.%

In vielen Zinkhütten wird auch eine kleine Anlage zur Herstellung von Zinkstaub betrieben, der zum Ausfällen von elektropositiveren Metallen wie Cu, Cd, Ni und Co in der Laugenreinigung (siehe Abschnitt 6.3.1.2.4) eingesetzt wird.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.54 zeigt anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte von Schmelz- und Gießanlagen in Zinkgießereien.

Tabelle 6.54: Emissionen aus dem Zinkeinschmelzen und -vergießen in Zinkgießereien (Teil 1)

Anlage		A		A		A		B		C (F1)		C (F2)		C (F3)	
		Schmelzofen		Gießanlage		Absaugung Arbeitsbereich									
Durchschn. Volumen- strom	10 ³ Nm ³ /h	98		66		296		64		14		29		26	
		MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.
Staub	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		1,3	3,2	1,3	2,6	0,3	0,5	0,3	0,3
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,57	2,2	0,07	0,12	0,22	0,25	0,9	2,1	1,1	n.v.	0,2	n.v.	0,2	n.v.
NH ₄	mg/Nm ³	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		3	7,4	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.	
Angewandte Technik		Gewebefilter				keine		Gewebefilter							
Mess- intervall	Anz. Mess./Jahr	1		0,2		0,2		1		365		365		365	
Anmerkung: In einigen Zinkgießereien werden Zn-Ni-Legierungen (mit typischen Ni-Gehalten von 0,5–1,0 %) hergestellt und die Ni-Emissionen überwacht. In Anlage C werden die Emissionen kontinuierlich gemessen; bei den aufgeführten Werten handelt es sich um Tagesmittelwerte. n.v. = nicht verfügbar Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] MW = Mittelwert															

Tabelle 6.55: Emissionen aus dem Zinkeinschmelzen und -vergießen in Zinkgießereien (Teil 2)

Anlage		D	E	F		G		H		N	Z	
Durchschn. Volumenstrom	10 ³ Nm ³ /h	112	104	35		30		45		n.v.	50	54
		MW	MW	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	MW	Max.
Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,18	0,419	0,25	1,1	3,9	4,5	2,66	k.A.	2,6	1,3	3,5
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,37	0,293	0,17	0,74	n.v.		2	12	0,83	n.v.	
Ni	mg/Nm ³	0,0017	< NWG	n.v.		n.v.		N		n.v.	0,009	0,02
HCl	mg/Nm ³	0,92	n.v.	n.v.		n.v.		n.v.		n.v.	n.v.	
Angewandte Technik		Gewebefilter										
Mess- intervall	Anz. Mess./Jahr	2	3	12		12		2		1	2	
Anmerkung: In einigen Zinkgießereien werden Zn-Ni-Legierungen (mit typischen Ni-Gehalten von 0,5–1,0 %) hergestellt und die Ni-Emissionen überwacht. n.v. = nicht verfügbar; NR = nicht repräsentativ Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] MW = Mittelwert												

Wie aus den vorstehenden Tabellen hervorgeht, werden mit Gewebefiltern Emissionswerte von $< 5 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ erreicht, wobei 50 % der befragten Betriebe Mittelwerte im Bereich von 0,2–0,5 mg/Nm^3 berichten. Ein typischer Emissionsfaktor ist $< 7,5 \text{ g Zn/t}$ erzeugtes Zink.

Tabelle 6.56 zeigt anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte im Zusammenhang mit der Zinkstauberzeugung.

Tabelle 6.56: Emissionen aus der Zinkstauberzeugung

	Anlage	B		C (F1)	C (F2)	C (F3)	C (F4)	F	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	Nm^3/h	10 644		19 006	19 463	18 368	16 740	7 277	
Staub	mg/Nm^3	1,8	4,45	9,5	20,0	13,7	14,0	2,4	4,0
Zn	mg/Nm^3	1,43	3,57	9,5	19,9	13,6	13,9	2,3	4,0
Angewandte Technik		Gewebefilter							
Messintervall	Anz. Mess./Jahr	1		365	365	365	365	12	
Anmerkung: In Anlage C werden die Emissionen kontinuierlich gemessen. Bei den aufgeführten Werten handelt es sich um Tagesmittelwerte. Quelle: [278, Hunsiger et al 2007]									

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Stromverbrauch)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Arbeitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Anlage B, Anlage D und Anlage F

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus Schmelzprozessen

Beschreibung

Interne und externe Verwertung der beim Einschmelzen anfallenden Rückstände und Abfallstoffe und Anwendung eines Gewebefilters zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Zinkkrätzebehandlung.

Technische Beschreibung

Interne und externe Verwertung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus dem Schmelzprozess
Nachstehend wird exemplarisch ein Verfahren zur Behandlung von Abfällen aus Schmelzprozessen (Zinkkrätze, zinkhaltige Rauche und metallische Krätzen aus dem Kathodengießen) beschrieben.

Die Zinkkrätze wird in Containern zur Verwertungsanlage transportiert und dort von oben in den Aufgabebunker entleert. Zur Abtrennung größerer Metallpartikel ist der Aufgabebunker mit einem Siebrost ausgestattet. Der Rest der Krätze wird über eine geschlossene Schwingförderrinne der Kugelmühle zugeführt. In der Mahl-Siebanlage wird die metallreiche Fraktion der Krätze von der Oxidfraktion getrennt. Bei geeigneter chemischer Zusammensetzung der Metallpartikel wird die metallreiche Fraktion erneut im Schmelzofen eingeschmolzen. Alternativ kann das metallische Material in einer Zinkraffinationsanlage (z.B. in einer New Jersey-Retorte) zu Zinkstaub oder Zinkoxid weiterverarbeitet werden.

Die in der Mahl-Siebanlage abgetrennte Oxidfraktion wird mittels Förderband in einen Container ausgetragen und per LkW in die Rösthütte transportiert. Dort wird das Material mit Zinkkonzentraten vermischt und im Röstofen in eine Röstblende überführt, die in der Laugungsanlage der Hütte weiterverarbeitet werden kann.

Zinkhaltige Stäube und Rauche sowie der im Gewebefilter abgeschiedene Filterstaub haben ähnliche Eigenschaften und eine ähnliche Zusammensetzung wie die in der Mahl-Siebanlage abgetrennte Oxidfraktion und werden ebenfalls dem Röstofen zugeführt oder können als Ausgangsstoff zur Herstellung von Zinkchemikalien (Zinkoxid, Zinkchlorid, usw.) dienen.

Die beim Kathodengießen anfallenden metallischen Krätzen ähneln in ihren Eigenschaften und ihrer Zusammensetzung der in der Mahlanlage gewonnenen metallreichen Fraktion und können folglich zusammen mit dieser wie oben beschrieben weiterverarbeitet werden.

Abbildung 6.31 gibt einen Überblick über die Verwertungswege der bei Zinkschmelzprozessen anfallenden Abfallstoffe/Rückstände.

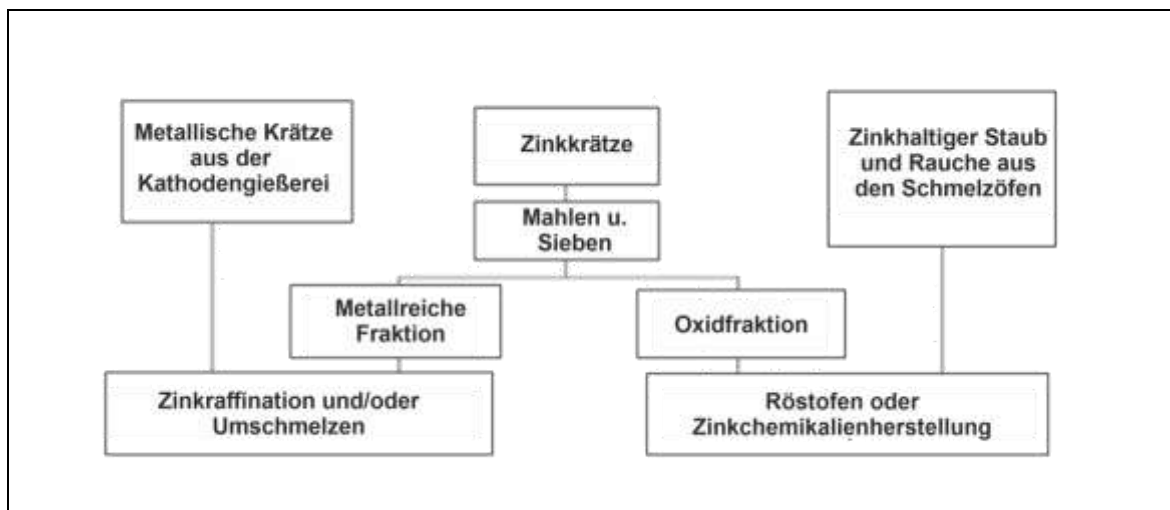


Abbildung 6.31: Typische Verwertung von Abfallstoffen/Rückständen aus Zinkschmelzprozessen

Gewebefilter

Zur Erfassung der bei der Behandlung freigesetzten Stäube/Rauche werden die Kugelmühle, der Aufgabebunker und alle Förderaggregate über ein Gewebefilter abgesaugt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Interne und externe Verwertung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen aus dem Schmelzprozess
Wiederverwendung des anfallenden Abfalls

Gewebefilter

Minderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der Zinkkrätzeaufbereitung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte der mechanischen Zinkkrätzeaufbereitung sind in Tabelle 6.57 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 6.57: Emissionen aus der Zinkkrätzemahlung in Zinkgießereien

	Anlage	B		C		Q		F		H	
		MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.	MW	Max.
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	16 310		30 369		9 507		9 371		35 000	
Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,45	1,11	1,25		0,42	1,05	0,53	2,6	4,5	4,65
Zn	mg/Nm ³	0,36	0,89	1,00	1,6	0,293	0,73	0,32	1,8	0,78	2,38
Angewandte Technik	Gewebefilter										
Messintervall	Anz. Messungen/Jahr	1		1		3		12		2	
<i>Quelle:</i> [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] MW = Mittelwert											

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlage B, Anlage C, Anlage F, Anlage H und Anlage Q

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.3.3 Techniken zur Abwassermeidung

Beschreibung

Wiederverwendung von Prozesswasser in Kühltürmen oder anderen Wärmetauschsystemen

Technische Beschreibung

In Zinkschmelz- und -gießanlagen wird Wasser für die folgenden Zwecke eingesetzt:

- Kühlung der Kokillen und Barren
- Reinigungsarbeiten

Die Kühlung der Kokillen und Barren erfolgt über Kühlmäntel, in denen das Kühlwasser, ohne mit der Metallschmelze in Berührung zu kommen, zirkuliert. Die Kühlmäntel umgeben den Boden und die Seitenwände der Kokillen. Zur Minimierung von Wasserverlusten wird das Kühlwasser in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt, der an späterer Stelle näher beschrieben ist. Zusätzlich erfolgt bei großen Barren häufig eine Oberflächenkühlung durch Aufsprühen von Wasser. Das Sprühwasser verdampft und kann folglich nicht zurückgewonnen werden.

Zur Minimierung des Wasserverbrauchs und damit des Abwasseranfalls wird das Kühlwasser der Gießanlage über ein Wärmetauschsystem geführt. In den meisten Fällen kommen hierzu Kühltürme mit drückend angeordnetem Ventilator zum Einsatz. Im Kühlturm wird das herabrieselnde Kühlwasser im Gegenstrom mit Luft auf eine Temperatur heruntergekühlt, die den erneuten Einsatz zur Kühlung und/oder eine Nutzung für andere Zwecke ermöglicht. Wasserverluste beschränken sich somit auf die Verdampfungsverluste im Kühlturm. Die Höhe der Verdampfungsverluste ist abhängig von den lokalen atmosphärischen Bedingungen und kann nicht generell angegeben werden. Je nach standortspezifischen Randbedingungen können weitere Wärmetauschsysteme, wie z.B. Wärmetauscher, die Wasser aus dem Regenwassersammelbecken als Kühlmedium nutzen, eingesetzt werden. Zum Recyceln der Kühlwasser von Gießanlagen sind jedoch Kühltürme die wirtschaftlichste Lösung. Da das Kühlwasser der Gießanlage sauber und warm ist, wird es außerdem auch im metallurgischen Prozess wiederverwendet.

Reinigungsabwässer können verschmutzt sein. Da eine Nutzung der gesamten anfallenden Mengen nicht möglich ist, muss ein Teil nach Behandlung in der zentralen Abwasserbehandlungsanlage des Werks abgeleitet werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Kein Abwasser aus der Kokillenkühlung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.4 Abwasserbehandlung in Zinkhütten (primäre, sekundäre, hydro- und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung)

Wie bereits erwähnt, werden in zahlreichen Hütten Kühlwasser, behandeltes Abwasser einschließlich Niederschlagswasser, Wasser aus der Deponiebewirtschaftung und Bodensanierung, usw. genutzt oder in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Einige Abwasserströme verbleiben und müssen vor Ableitung zwecks Entfernung von gelösten Metallen und Feststoffen

behandelt werden. Traditionell erfolgt die Behandlung durch Hydroxid-/Carbonatfällung. In einigen Fällen wird ein kombiniertes oder zweistufiges Fällverfahren bestehend aus einer Hydroxidfällung mit nachgeschalteter Sulfidfällung eingesetzt. Mit einer zusätzlichen Sulfidfällung werden höhere Metalleliminationsgrade als mit der Hydroxidfällung alleine erreicht [168, Steil, H.U. et al. 1999]. Hierzu kommen die in Abschnitt 2.12.6.2 beschriebenen Techniken in Betracht.

6.3.4.1 Behandlung von Abwässern aus der hydro- und pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Teilstrombehandlung bestimmter Abwasserströme (z.B. der saure Wäscherabstoß aus der Röstgas-Nassreinigung) vor Zuleitung zur AWA
- physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung (Hydroxidfällstufe ggf. mit nachgeschalteter Sulfidfällstufe (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.6.2))
- biologische Abwasserreinigung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.6.2)

Technische Beschreibung

In Zinkhütten werden die meisten mit Metallen, Sulfaten und/oder anderen Elementen belasteten Abwasserströme, die sich für eine Wiederverwendung im Prozess nicht eignen (siehe Abschnitt 6.3.1.2.6), in der Regel gesammelt und in einer zentralen Abwasserreinigungsanlage (AWA) behandelt.

Teilstrombehandlung

Ein typisches Beispiel für eine Teilstrombehandlung ist die Behandlung des sauren Wäscherabstoßes aus der Röstgas-Nassreinigung. Durch Belüftung dieses Abwasserstroms wird ein Teil des gelösten SO_2 ausgestriipt. Das dabei entstehende SO_2 -haltige Abgas wird erfasst und mit dem Hauptabgasstrom des Röstofens zusammengeführt, womit auch das ausgestriipte SO_2 zurückgewonnen und die der AWA zugeführte Sulfid-/Sulfatfracht reduziert wird. Das saure Wäscherabwasser kann auch spontan gebildetes Quecksilber und/oder selenhaltige Feststoffe enthalten. Zur Entlastung der AWA können diese in einem vorgeschalteten Absetzbecken oder Filter abgetrennt werden.

Ob eine Teilstrombehandlung bestimmter Abwasserströme sinnvoll ist, kann nur im Einzelfall beurteilt werden, da die entscheidenden Kriterien je nach Standort und Region unterschiedlich sind (Anforderungen an die Abwassereinleitung und Vorgaben bezüglich der Abfallzusammensetzung für die Deponierung oder Verwertung).

Wenn eine zwei- oder mehrstufige Fällung vorgesehen ist (siehe unten), kann es sich u.U. als vorteilhaft erweisen, nicht alle Abwässer in einem gemeinsamen Kanalsystem zu sammeln, sondern eine Trennung in zwei (oder mehrere) Abwassertypen vorzunehmen, z.B. stark belastetes Abwasser (Wäscherabstoß aus der Röstgas-Nassreinigung) und schwach belastetes Abwasser (z.B. Oberflächenwasser). Auf diese Weise kann letzteres nach der ersten Fällstufe in die AWA geleitet werden mit entsprechenden Vorteilen hinsichtlich der Gesamtreinigungsleistung und Betriebskosten. Auch dies muss im Einzelfall geprüft werden (so hat z.B. die Anordnung der Produktionsanlage einen wesentlichen Einfluss auf die Kosten eines Trennsystems).

Abwasserreinigungsanlage

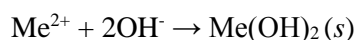
In einer Zinkhütte mit einer Jahresproduktion von 250 kt liegt die Gesamtzulaufmenge der zentralen AWA in der Größenordnung von 100–300 m³/h. Zum Einsatz kommen ausschließlich Techniken, die wirtschaftlich und technisch geeignet sind, große Wasservolumenströme zu bewältigen.

Vorrangiges Ziel sowohl der physikalisch-chemischen als auch der biologischen Abwasserreinigung ist die Fällung von Metallen und sonstigen Stoffen in Form unlöslicher oder schwerlöslicher Verbindungen. Dies kann in einem oder mehreren Behandlungsschritten geschehen. Die Feststoffabtrennung erfolgt durch ein- oder mehrstufige Sedimentation und/oder Filtration.

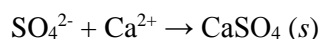
Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung

Das typisch angewandte Verfahren ist die Hydroxidfällung. Dabei wird durch Zugabe alkalischer Reagenzien, wie z.B. Kalk oder Natriumhydroxid, zu den meist sauren Abwässern ein pH-Wert von 9–10,5 eingestellt, und vorhandene Metalle werden als Hydroxide ausgefällt. Üblicherweise erfolgen die Neutralisation und Fällung in der gleichen Behandlungsstufe beim selben pH-Wert. In einigen Fällen werden zwei oder mehrere Stufen eingesetzt, die mit unterschiedlichen pH-Werten betrieben werden können.

Für die Hydroxidfällung gilt die folgende allgemeine Reaktionsgleichung:

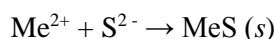


Nahezu alle Abwasserströme aus der Zinkgewinnung weisen signifikante Sulfatgehalte auf und haben einen niedrigen pH-Wert (infolge des Schwefelsäuregehalts). Bei Zugabe von Kalk (gelöschter Kalk, Kalkhydrat) zur Neutralisation und Hydroxidfällung werden gleichzeitig auch Sulfate in Form von Gips aus dem Wasser ausgefällt (bis zum Lösungsgleichgewicht von ca. 1,6 g/l Sulfat) gemäß:



In einigen Fällen wird die Hydroxidfällung mit einer Sulfidfällung, z.B. durch Zugabe von NaHS oder Na₂S, kombiniert oder es wird eine Sulfidfällstufe nachgeschaltet (Simultanfällung im selben Reaktor, wie bei einer mehrstufigen Fällung). Da Metallsulfide eine niedrigere Löslichkeit als die entsprechenden Metallhydroxide besitzen, wird mit der zusätzlichen Sulfidfällung eine weitergehende Metallelimination als mit der Hydroxidfällung alleine erreicht.

Für die Sulfidfällung gilt die folgende allgemeine Reaktionsgleichung:



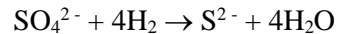
Die Hydroxid- und/oder Sulfidfällung bilden das Kernstück der Abwasserreinigung. In speziellen Fällen werden jedoch zusätzliche Behandlungsschritte zur Entfernung unzureichend abgeschiedener Elemente nachgeschaltet. Die Notwendigkeit solcher zusätzlichen Behandlungsschritte ist abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen (z.B. Vorliegen typischer Elemente, strenge Einleitungsgrenzwerte). Hier einige berichtete Beispiele: Zugabe von Kalk oder eines anderen Kalziumträgers bis zu einem pH-Wert von 9,5 zur teilweisen Ausfällung von Chlor als CaF₂ und teilweise Mitfällung von Arsen durch Zugabe von Eisen-(III)-Salzen.

Die Feststoffabtrennung erfolgt üblicherweise durch Sedimentation in einem Rundklärbecken, einem Lamellenklärer oder einer anderen Kläreinrichtung (z.B. Eindicker, Dekantierbecken, Klärer, Sedimentationsbecken). In einigen Fällen ist der Klärstufe ein Filter nachgeschaltet (z.B. Sandfilter). Zur Verbesserung des Absetz- bzw. Filtrationsverhaltens können dem Abwasser Flockungs-/Flockungshilfsmittel zugegeben werden.

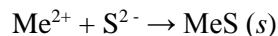
Die physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung ist das am häufigsten eingesetzte Verfahren in hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnungsanlagen in der EU. In der einzigen pyrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnungsanlage in der EU wird ebenfalls die physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung eingesetzt.

Biologische Abwasserreinigung

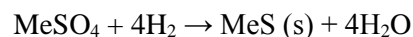
In einer europäischen Zinkhütte wird ein biologisches Verfahren zur in-situ-Erzeugung von Sulfidionen eingesetzt. Das bei der nassen Gasreinigung anfallende saure Abwasser weist einen hohen Sulfatgehalt auf (10–25 mg/l) und wird der ersten biologischen Reinigungsstufe zugeführt. Dort werden Sulfationen unter Zugabe von gasförmigem Wasserstoff mit Hilfe von sulfatreduzierenden Bakterien zu Sulfidionen (S^{2-} , HS^-) reduziert:



Der Wasserstoff wird aus Erdgas in einem Dampfreformer hergestellt. Die Sulfidionen reagieren mit Zink und weiteren Metalle und werden als Metallsulfide ausgefällt.



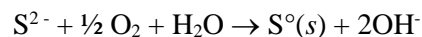
Entsprechend lautet die Bruttoreaktionsgleichung:



Da das Abwasser nach diesem Behandlungsschritt noch zu hohe Sulfat- und Metallgehalte für eine Direkteinleitung aufweist, erfolgt eine weitere Behandlung in einer nachgeschalteten Stufe zusammen mit anderen Prozessabwasserströmen (und Grundwasser aus Sanierungsaktivitäten). Die weitere Fällung von Metallen als Sulfide in dieser Stufe erfolgt ebenfalls mit Hilfe sulfatreduzierender Bakterien, wobei jedoch anstelle von Wasserstoff Äthanol als Elektronendonator verwendet wird entsprechend der Bruttoreaktionsgleichung:



Da erhöhte Konzentrationen an freien Metallen im Abwasser toxisch auf die sulfatreduzierenden Bakterien wirken, muss der Bioreaktor mit Sulfidüberschuss betrieben werden. Um den Einleitungsgrenzwert für freies Sulfid einzuhalten, werden die verbleibenden Sulfidionen in einer aerobischen Behandlungsstufe in elementarem Schwefel überführt gemäß:



Alle Metallsulfide und der Überschussschlamm aus der biologischen Behandlung werden in die Rösthütte zurückgeführt. Auf diese Weise werden die Metalle im Zinkgewinnungsprozess und der Schwefel als Schwefelsäure zurückgewonnen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung von Metalleinleitungen in Gewässer. Mit dem biologischen Verfahren werden Restmetallgehalte im Ablauf vergleichbar mit denen der leistungsfähigsten physikalisch-chemischen Verfahren (Sulfidfällung durch Zugabe von NaHS, Na_2S) erreicht, da die zugrundeliegenden chemischen Reaktionen im Grunde dieselben sind (Nutzung der geringen Löslichkeit von Metallsulfiden).
- Verringerung von Sulfateinleitungen in Gewässer. Als zusätzlicher positiver Effekt wird beim biologischen Verfahren auch der Sulfatgehalt im gereinigten Abwasser reduziert. So werden mit dem biologischen Verfahren Restsulfatgehalte von ca. 600 mg/l erreicht im Vergleich zu ca. 1600 mg/l beim konventionellen physikalisch-chemischen Verfahren.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.58 zeigt anlagenspezifische wasserseitige Emissionen von Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Mittelwerte der über den Zeitraum von einem Jahr genommenen Proben und maximale Tagesmittelwerte in einem Jahr).

Tabelle 6.58: Wasserseitige Emissionen von Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Teil 1)

Anlage		A		B		C		D Laugung + Abwasser aus der Mg & Mn-Fällung		D Laugung + Niederschlagswasser		D H ₂ SO ₄ -Anlage	
Volumen- strom	m ³ /h	110–145		248		257,4		84,6		81,4		5,8	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.
Zn	mg/l	0,02–0,25	0,25	0,17	0,34	2,3	3,5	0,8	1,66	0,39	0,92	0,18	0,37
Cd	mg/l	< 0,004	0,004	0,0018	0,005	0,013	0,13	0,01	0,027	0,02	0,0352	0,01	0,0065
Pb	mg/l	k.A.	k.A.	0,002	0,015	0,035	0,107	0,022	0,031	0,029	0,05	0,033	0,064
Hg	mg/l	< 0,00025	k.A.	0,0001	k.A.	0,001	0,0026	0,0001	0,0002	0,0001	0,0001	0,001	0,0017
As	mg/l	0,005-0,01	0,01	0,0011	0,003	0,008	0,012	0,002	0,002	0,002	0,002	3,6	11,51
Cu	mg/l	< 0,05	< 0,05	0,0004	k.A.	0,006	0,01	0,005	0,012	0,006	0,013	0,009	0,024
Ni	mg/l	0,1–0,4	0,4	0,002	0,017	0,005	0,005	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Fe	mg/l	1,2–2,9	2,9	0,85	1,9	0,2	0,2	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Co	mg/l	0,1–0,3	0,3	0,0001	0,002	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
Cr	mg/l	k.A.	k.A.	0,003	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.
SO ₄ --	mg/l	k.A.	k.A.	574	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.

Anmerkung: Angewandte Minderungstechniken:
 Anlage A: pH-Wert-Einstellung und Fällung mit Ca(OH)₂, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Filtration (gemeinsame AWA mit der benachbarten Co-Ni-Cu-Hütte)
 Anlage B: pH-Wert-Einstellung und Fällung mit Ca(OH)₂, biologische Sulfatreduktion zu Sulfid, Sedimentation
 Anlage C: pH-Wert-Einstellung und Fällung mit Ca(OH)₂, Flockung, Sandfilter
 Anlage D: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit Ca(OH)₂, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sandfilter
 Anlage D: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit Ca(OH)₂, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sandfilter
 Anlage D: Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S + CuSO₄, pH-Wert-Einstellung mit NaOH + Na₂S, Filtration
 k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 6.59: Wasserseitige Emissionen von Anlagen zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung (Teil 2)

Anlage		E	F		G		H	I	
Volumenstrom	m ³ /h	195	42		350		k.A.	330	
		Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Mittelwert	Max.
Zn	mg/l	0,04	0,04	0,1	0,56	2,5	0,39	0,03	0,06
Cd	mg/l	0,002	0,0012	0,0024	0,066	0,1	0,02	0,0007	0,006
Pb	mg/l	0,0031	0,013	0,029	0,091	0,3	0,02	0,0067	0,019
Hg	mg/l	k.A.	0,0006	0,0017	< 0,001	k.A.	k.A.	0,0002	0,00032
As	mg/l	0,0123	0,019	0,093	< 0,001	0,001	k.A.	< 0,001	< 0,001
Cu	mg/l	0,0003	0,005	0,005	0,02	0,05	0,05	< 0,01	< 0,01
Ni	mg/l	k.A.	0,005	0,005	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	< 0,001	0,002
Fe	mg/l	0,06	0,04	0,077	0,04	0,2	0,09	< 0,05	< 0,05
Cr	mg/l	0,0015	0,005	0,005	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	< 0,001	< 0,001
SO ₄ --	mg/l	996	k.A.	k.A.	650	1200	650	155	269
Sb	mg/l	0,002	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.	k.A.

Anmerkung: Angewandte Minderungstechniken:
 Anlage E: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit Ca(OH)₂, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sedimentation, Filtration
 Anlage F: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit NaOH, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sedimentation, Filtration
 Anlage G: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit NaOH, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sedimentation, Filtration
 Anlage H: Das Abwasser wird in der AWA eines Konsortiums gereinigt.
 Anlage I: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit Ca(OH)₂ oder H₂SO₄, spezielles (geschütztes) chemisches Fällungsverfahren, Flockung, Sedimentation
 Im Fall der Anlagen E und I weist das Abwasser einen höheren Cl-Gehalt auf, der mit dem Abwasser aus der Wälzoxidwäsche eingetragen wird.
 Die Niederschlagswassermengen können von Anlage zu Anlage stark variieren. Die Jahresniederschlagsmenge am Standort der Anlage D beträgt 2000 mm im Vergleich zu 600 mm im Fall von Anlage F.
 Bei zu geringer Kapazität der Nachklärstufe kann der Ablauf der AWA noch feine ausgefällte Feststoffpartikel enthalten. Während Regenperioden ist der Abwasserzufluss höher und die Absetzzeit entsprechend kürzer.
 k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 6.60 zeigt anlagenspezifische wasserseitige Emissionen der einzigen Zinkhütte nach dem Imperial-Smelting-Verfahren in der EU.

Tabelle 6.60: Wasserseitige Emissionen einer IS-Anlage

	Einheit	Hütte O
Zn	mg/l	0,70
Cd	mg/l	0,12
Pb	mg/l	0,12
Tl	mg/l	0,68
Cl-	mg/l	970
SO ₄ ²⁻	mg/l	770

Anmerkung: Angewandte Minderungstechniken: pH-Wert-Einstellung mit Ca(OH)₂ und Fällung, Sulfidfällung mit Na₂S, Sedimentation
 Das behandelte Mischabwasser setzt sich aus Prozessabwasser, Niederschlagswasser und Wasser aus dem Deponiebereich zusammen.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Emissionswerte liegen auch für eine Anlage in Japan vor, in der Sekundärzink nach dem Solventextraktionsverfahren erzeugt wird (siehe Tabelle 6.61).

Tabelle 6.61: Wasserseitige Emissionen einer Sekundärzinkhütte, in der das Solventextraktionsverfahren eingesetzt wird

Abwasser aus der Solventextraktionsanlage		
	Einheit	Hütte in Japan
Zn	mg/l	<0,2
Pb	mg/l	<0,02
Cu	mg/l	<0,5
Cd	mg/l	<0,05
F	mg/l	3,3
CSB	mg/l	4,7
TSS	mg/l	3,7
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung

- Verbrauch von Neutralisationsmitteln (Kalk, Natriumhydroxid), Sulfidträgern (NaHS, Na₂S) und Flockungsmitteln
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs

Biologische Abwasserreinigung

- Verbrauch von Neutralisations- (Kalk, Natriumhydroxid) und Flockungsmitteln
Geringerer Neutralisationsmittelverbrauch im Vergleich zur physikalisch-chemischen Behandlung
- Verbrauch von Erdgas, Ethanol oder anderen Kohlenstoffträgern
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (bei biologischen Verfahren muss eine Mindesttemperatur von ca. 30 °C aufrechterhalten werden)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung

Gängige Technik; das Knowhow ist relativ leicht zugänglich.

Biologische Abwasserreinigung

Biologische Verfahren sind komplexer und störungsanfälliger als physikalisch-chemische Verfahren. Durch diesen Umstand und die Notwendigkeit der Aufrechterhaltung einer Mindesttemperatur von ca. 30°C ergeben sich Einschränkungen für die generelle Anwendbarkeit dieser Technik. Die Eignung muss im Einzelfall geprüft werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor. Diese Technik wird jedoch branchenweit eingesetzt.

Biologische Abwasserreinigung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor. Im Vergleich zur physikalisch-chemischen Abwasserreinigung sind die Investitions- und direkten Betriebskosten für eine biologische Reinigungsanlage höher, wobei die einzige Anlage in der EU wirtschaftlich arbeitet.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung der Einleitung von Metallen und sonstigen Schadstoffen in Gewässer

Beispielanlagen

- Biologische Verfahren: Nyrstar Budel (NL)
- Physikalisch-chemische Abwasserreinigung: alle anderen europäischen Zinkhütten
- Fällung mit einer Spezialchemikalie (geschütztes Verfahren): Anlage I

Literatur

[319, Boonstra 2003], [320, Huisman 2004], [401, Houten et al. 2009], [402, Buisman et al. 1999]

6.3.5 Cadmiumerzeugung und Recycling-Routen

6.3.5.1 Hydrometallurgische Cadmiumerzeugung

6.3.5.1.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Laugung und Fest-Flüssig-Trennung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- zentrales Abgaserfassungssystem
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Wenn die Cadmiumanlage in die Zinkhütte integriert ist, sind alle Anlagenteile an die zentrale Abgaserfassung angeschlossen und die Abgasreinigung erfolgt in einem Nasswäscher. Der Wäscherabstoß aus der nassen Gasreinigungsstufe wird in die Zinklaugung zurückgeführt [234, UBA (D) 2007].

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung und Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Emissionswerte von Anlage F sind in Tabelle 6.29 enthalten, da in diesem Fall die Reaktoren der hydrometallurgischen Gewinnungsanlage an den zentralen Nasswäscher angeschlossen sind, dem das Abgas aus den folgenden Bereichen zugeführt wird: Zinksulfatlaugenreinigung, Reaktoren der Cadmiumanlage, Cadmiumzementation und -pelletierung sowie der Reaktor zur Behandlung des Kupferrückstands.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Anwendbar auf die Cadmiumlaugungsstufen

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Arbeitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in BE, BG, DE, NL und PL

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.1.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung von Emissionen aus der Elektrolyse

Beschreibung

Abdecken der Elektrolysezellen mit Kunststoffplanen oder -bahnen

Technische Beschreibung

Ähnlich wie bei der Zinkelektrolyse, jedoch in geringerem Umfang, scheidet sich Cadmium aus der gereinigten Cadmiumsulfatlösung an den Aluminiumstartkathoden ab, und an den Anoden wird Sauerstoff gebildet. Aufsteigende Sauerstoffbläschen, die an der Oberfläche zerplatzen, können zur Bildung von Säurenebeln (Aerosolen) führen. Zur Minderung von Säurenebelemissionen können die Zellen mit einer Kunststoffplane abgedeckt, oder es können Kunststoffbahnen über/zwischen den Elektroden angebracht werden.

Diffuse Staubemissionen können durch gute betriebliche Abläufe gemindert werden, z.B. Sicherstellung, dass ausgetretene, cadmiumhaltige Flüssigkeit unverzüglich aufgenommen wird, Feuchthalten des Fußbodens in Teilbereichen der Cadmiumproduktion.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung von Säurenebel- und diffusen Staubemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Informationen zum Umweltentlastungsbeitrag der beschriebenen Techniken liegen nicht vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar in allen Cadmiumanlagen

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für Kunststoffplanen sind relativ niedrig.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Arbeitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Nyrstar Budel (NL)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.1.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der hydrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung

Beschreibung

Aufarbeitung des bei der hydrometallurgischen Zinkgewinnung anfallenden cadmiumreichen Zementats zur Cadmiumrückgewinnung oder Cadmiumfällung

Technische Beschreibung

Rückgewinnung

Cadmium wird in der Laugenreinigung des Zinkgewinnungsprozesses als cadmiumreiches Zementat ausgefällt, weiter (elektrolytisch oder thermisch) angereichert, raffiniert und abschließend in verkaufsfähiges Cadmiummetall oder Cadmiumverbindungen umgewandelt.

Fällung

Cadmium wird in der Laugenreinigung des Zinkgewinnungsprozesses als cadmiumreiches Zementat ausgefällt und nach weiteren hydrometallurgischen Behandlungsschritten zur Überführung des Cadmiums in einen konzentrierten Cadmiumabfall (z.B. Zementat (Cd-Metall), $\text{Cd}(\text{OH})_2$) unter streng kontrollierten Bedingungen deponiert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Rückgewinnung

Abwasserfreies Verfahren

Fällung

Abgesehen von dem gezielt erzeugten Cadmiumabfall zur Beseitigung entstehen bei dem Verfahren keine weiteren Abfälle. Alle anfallenden Rückstände werden entweder in die Cadmium- oder die Zinkproduktion zurückgeführt. Die zu deponierende Rückstandsmenge ist relativ gering, da die Prozessführung im Hinblick auf eine hohe Cadmiumanreicherung erfolgt (mindestens 20 %). Die Deponierbedingungen ergeben sich aus der einschlägigen Gesetzgebung. Dies bedeutet oft, dass der Rückstand zur Verbesserung seiner physikalischen Eigenschaften (z.B. Auslaugbarkeit) vor Ort oder auf der Deponie stabilisiert werden muss (z.B. durch Kalkzugabe).

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die anteilige Menge an cadmiumangereicherter Rückstand, der der Deponierung zugeführt wird, ist abhängig von der Marktnachfrage.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Rückgewinnung

- Verbrauch von Reagenzien. Zur Zementation von Cadmium in der Laugenreinigung oder Cadmiumanlage wird Zinkstaub benötigt (im stöchiometrischen Verhältnis 1,1–1,6:1 gemäß Reaktionsgleichung $\text{Cd}^{++} + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{Cd} + \text{Zn}^{++}$).
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Strombedarf für die Elektrolyse und das Schmelzen/Vergießen, um das Cadmium in seine metallische Form zu überführen)

Fällung

- Verbrauch von Reagenzien. Zur Zementation von Cadmium in der Laugenreinigung oder der Cadmiumanlage wird Zinkstaub benötigt (im stöchiometrischen Verhältnis 1,1–1,6:1 gemäß Reaktionsgleichung $\text{Cd}^{++} + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{Cd} + \text{Zn}^{++}$). Außerdem erfordert die Fällung von Cadmium in nichtmetallischer Form (z.B. als Hydroxid) die Zugabe von Kalk oder NaOH.
- Es entsteht ein konzentrierter Cadmiumabfall.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Aus prozesstechnischer Sicht ist der Rückgewinnungsprozess komplexer und weniger robust als die Fällung. So muss die Cadmiumsulfatlösung vor Weiterverarbeitung in der Elektrolyse gereinigt werden, wogegen die Qualitätsanforderungen an die Cadmiumsulfatlösung zur Ausfällung eines Cadmiumabfallstoffs weniger anspruchsvoll sind.

Der Rückgewinnungsprozess erfordert einen deutlich höheren apparativen Aufwand (Reaktionsbehälter, Absetzbehälter, Elektrolysezellen, Schmelzofen, Gießmaschine) als der Fällprozess (Reaktionsbehälter, Absetzbehälter, Filter).

Welche Option ein Betrieb wählt, wird weitgehend von der Marktnachfrage (d.h. der Cadmiummarkt ist zu klein zur Aufnahme der gesamten theoretisch gewinnbaren Cadmiummenge), den Deponiermöglichkeiten/-bedingungen, der Verfügbarkeit der notwendigen Ausrüstungen und Expertise, usw. bestimmt. Diese Bedingungen sind von Standort zu Standort und regional sehr unterschiedlich und können sich mit der Zeit ändern.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Quantitative Daten liegen nicht vor. Kosten und Nutzen beider Optionen sind jedoch stark marktabhängig (Cadmiumpreis, Kurzzeit- versus Langzeitmarkt), Deponiermöglichkeiten/-bedingungen (Preis, Entfernung zur Deponie), Investitions- und Betriebskosten (Personal, Energie, Reagenzien). Diese Bedingungen können je nach Standort und Region sehr unterschiedlich sein und sind zeitlichen Änderungen unterworfen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Für die Umsetzung einer dieser Techniken sprechen folgende Gründe:

- kurz- und langfristige Profitabilität/Kosten
- Umwelteinwirkungen (Erzeugung/Vermeidung eines Abfallstoffs, Verbrauch von Strom und Reagenzien)
- Einhaltung der gesetzlichen Umwelt- und Gesundheitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

- Rückgewinnung: Anlage B, Anlage D und Anlage F
- Fällung: Anlage A (Lagerung in einem Betonbunker), Anlage E (Deponierung von Cadmiumhydroxid) und Anlage P (Deponierung von cadmiumangereichertem Zementat)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.2 Pyrometallurgische Cadmiumerzeugung

6.3.5.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Cadmiumanlage in der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (IS-Verfahren)

Emissionswerte der Anlagen B, D und F sind in Abschnitt 6.3.5.3 enthalten.

6.3.5.2.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Brikettierung und Pelletierung von Cadmiummetallzementaten

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- zentrales Abgaserfassungssystem
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)

Technische Beschreibung

Die Cadmiumsulfatlösung wird in den Fällbehälter gepumpt und das Cadmium unter Zugabe von Zinkstaub in Form kleiner Pellets gefällt. Die Pellets werden in einem Nutsche-Filter abfiltriert, gewaschen und anschließend in einer hydraulischen Presse brikettiert. Die Briketts werden in geschlossenen Behältern zur Cadmiumraffinerie transportiert. Das so gewonnene Cadmium hat eine Reinheit von > 98 %. Die verarmte Lösung wird in die Zinklaugung zurückgeführt.

Alle Ausrüstungen sind an ein zentrales Abgaserfassungssystem angeschlossen. Die Abgasreinigung erfolgt in einem Nasswäscher. Der Wäscherabstoß wird in die Zinklaugungsstufe zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Emissionswerte von Anlage F sind in Tabelle 6.29 enthalten, da in diesem Fall die Reaktoren der hydrometallurgischen Gewinnungsanlage an den zentralen Nasswäscher angeschlossen sind, dem das Abgas aus den folgenden Bereichen zugeführt wird: Zinksulfatlaugenreinigung, Reaktoren der Cadmiumanlage, Cadmiumzementation und -pelletierung sowie der Reaktor zur Behandlung des Kupferrückstands.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltverträgliches Verfahren zu vertretbaren Kosten

Beispielanlagen

Anlage F

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.2.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Cadmiumrückgewinnung durch Verdampfung/Kondensation

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Niedertemperatur-Verfahren werden Cadmiumbriketts (aus dem in Abschnitt 6.3.5.2.2 beschriebenen Prozess) in einem Ofen unter einer Natriumhydroxidschlacke eingeschmolzen. Die Krätze wird abgezogen und zu kleinen Barren vergossen.

Die Cadmiumschmelze geht zum Raffinationsofen und wird dort unter Zugabe von Natriumhydroxid entzinkt. Das Gemisch wird über mehrere Stunden gerührt. Dann wird das Rührwerk abgeschaltet, die Krätze abgezogen und zu kleinen Barren vergossen. Das Cadmiummetall hat nun eine Reinheit von > 99,5 % und wird zur Abtrennung von Komponenten mit einem niedrigeren Dampfdruck in die Vakuumdestillationsstufe überführt.

Bei der Destillation unter Vakuum wird das Cadmiummetall bei Temperaturen nahe dem Schmelzpunkt verdampft. Weniger flüchtige Komponenten kondensieren aus und fließen zurück in den Ofen. Nach Kondensation erhält man qualitativ hochwertiges Cadmium, das zu Barren vergossen wird.

Alle Aggregate der Cadmiumraffinationsanlage sind an das zentrale Abgaserfassungssystem angeschlossen. In Anlage F wird das Abgas vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem EGR gereinigt. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird durch periodische Spülung mit Wasser aus dem EGR

ausgetragen. Die Feststoffsuspension wird in die Zinklaugungsstufe zurückgeführt. In Anlage B wird ein Nasswäscher, in Anlage D ein Gewebefilter zur Abgasreinigung eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Emissionswerte der Anlagen B, D und F sind in Abschnitt 6.3.5.3 enthalten, da das Abgas aus der Zink- und Cadmiumgewinnung in einer gemeinsamen Minderungseinrichtung gereinigt wird.

Tabelle 6.62 zeigt die Cadmiumverteilung über die Outputströme der Anlagen B, E (die Endraffination des in Anlage E gewonnenen Cadmiums erfolgt in Anlage B) und F (Cadmiumgewinnung über die hydrometallurgische/Vakuumdestillationsroute).

Tabelle 6.62: Cadmiumverteilung über die Outputströme europäischer Zinkhütten

Output (%)	Anlage B	Anlage E	Anlage F
Zurückgewonnenes Cadmiummetall	90,4	14	ca. 70
Cadmium als Verunreinigung in Nebenprodukten (Cu- und Pb-Ag-Konzentrate)	9,4	41	20–25
Cadmiumdeponierung	k.A.	35 (Cd-Abfall) + 5 (Göthit)	5–10 (Jarofix)
Cadmiumdeponierung über den Klärschlamm	0,1	5	ca. 0,1
Cadmiumemissionen in die Luft	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01
Cadmiumemissionen in das Wasser	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

- Diese Technik ist nur anwendbar, wenn eine Nachfrage für pyrometallurgisch raffiniertes Cadmium besteht.
- Im Interesse eines abfallfreien Betriebs sollte das Verfahren in die hydrometallurgische Zinkraffination integriert werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen B, E und F

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.2.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der pyrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung

Alle Rückstände werden intern oder extern recycelt/verwertet.

6.3.5.3 Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Cadmiumbarren (Primär- und Sekundärkreisläufe)

6.3.5.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelz-, Umschmelz-, Legierungs-, Warmhalte- und Gießöfen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)

Technische Beschreibung

Raffiniertes Cadmium wird in einem Ofen umgeschmolzen und als hochreines Cadmium von Hand zu Kügelchen, Stäbchen oder anderen Formaten vergossen. Die Formate werden zugeschnitten und in kunststoffausgekleidete Kartons oder Big-Bags verpackt. Gießabfälle und Verschnitt werden in einem Spezialofen wieder eingeschmolzen und erneut vergossen.

Die Öfen sind an ein zentrales Abgaserfassungssystem angeschlossen. Vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre passiert das erfasste Abgas einen Nasswäscher oder EGR. Der Staubaustrag aus dem EGR erfolgt durch periodische Spülung mit Wasser. Die Feststoffsuspension wird in die Zinklaugungsstufe zurückgeführt. In gleicher Weise kann der Wäscherabstoß der Zinkproduktion zugeführt werden.

Die in den Schmelzöfen anfallende Krätze wird in die Zinkgewinnung zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Kein Anfall von Abfällen
- Sehr niedrige Emissionen in die Luft im Fall eines EGR

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 6.63 zeigt anlagenspezifische Emissionswerte für verschiedene Cadmiumschmelztechnologien.

Tabelle 6.63: Emissionswerte von Cadmiumschmelz-, Umschmelz-, Legierungs- Warmhalte- und Gießöfen

Anlage		B		D		F	
		Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.	Mittelwert	Max.
Volumenstrom	Nm ³ /h	4 950	k.A.	10 087	k.A.	7 500	k.A.
Staub	mg/Nm ³	0,106	0,264	1,5	2,5	0,06	0,19
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0,093	0,232	0,090	0,16	0,001	0,006
Angewandte Technik		Nasswäscher		Gewebefilter		EGR	
Messintervall	Anzahl Messungen/Jahr	1		1		12	
Cd-Prozess		Kathodenschmelzen		Einschmelzen unter Sodadecke		Einschmelzen unter Sodadecke & Vakuumdestillation	
Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzgesetzgebung
- Arbeitsschutz

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen B, D und F

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus dem Schmelzprozess

Beim Schmelzen fallen keine Abfallstoffe an. Alle Zwischenprodukte werden in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

6.3.5.3.3 Techniken zur Abwassermeidung

Beschreibung

Abwassermeidung beim Cadmium-Gießprozess

Technische Beschreibung

Bei diesem Produktionsschritt fällt kein Abwasser an.

Alle Lösungen werden in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf geführt. Der Abstoß des Nasswäschers wird in die Zinklaugung zurückgeführt.

Kühlwasser wird nicht benötigt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Abwasserfreier Prozess

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Abwasserfreier Prozess

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minimierung von Cadmiumemissionen in die Umwelt

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen B, D und F

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.3.5.4 Behandlung von Abwässern aus der Cadmiumerzeugung (primäre, sekundäre, hydro- und pyrometallurgische Gewinnung)

Beschreibung

Behandlung von Abwässern aus der Cadmiumerzeugung

Technische Beschreibung

Wenn die Cadmiumanlage in die Zinkhütte integriert ist, werden alle Abwasserströme der Cadmiumanlage letztendlich in der gemeinsamen Abwasserreinigungsanlage behandelt (siehe Abschnitt 6.3.4 und 2.12.6.2).

Wird die Cadmiumanlage als eigenständige Anlage betrieben und das Abwasser in einen Vorfluter geleitet, können die gleichen Techniken wie oben beschrieben angewendet werden, evtl. mit zusätzlichen Absorptionskolonnen (bei entsprechender Gesamtabwassermenge).

Ökologischer Nutzen

Niedrige Cadmumeinleitungen in das Aufnahmegewässer

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Verbrauch von Reagenzien
- Endrückstände müssen inertisiert und deponiert werden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Anwendbarkeit ist abhängig von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Einhaltung der Bestimmungen der Wasserrahmenrichtlinie und der nationalen Vorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in BE, NL, FR, DE, BG, PL, SE und NO

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

6.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Verfahren zur Steigerung der Metallausbeute aus Wälzschlacke (i-Meltor™)

Das Verfahren verwendet einen modifizierten Wechselstrom-Lichtbogenofen zur Rückgewinnung von Metallen und Roheisen aus Wälzschlacke und ähnelt dem in der Stahlindustrie eingesetzten Verfahren zur Rückgewinnung von Zink aus Elektrostahlwerksstäuben.

Zwar wurde das Verfahren in mehreren Wälzanlagen in Europa getestet, ist aber wegen des hohen Energieaufwands bislang noch nicht konkurrenzfähig.

Der Einsatz dieser Technologie erfordert ergänzende Emissionsminderungsmaßnahmen, wie z.B. eine thermische Nachverbrennung, ein Trockensorptionsverfahren und ein Entstaubungssystem.

SX-EW-Anlage zur Rückgewinnung von Zink aus Elektrostahlwerksstäuben

Über eine Anlage zur Rückgewinnung von Zink aus Elektrostahlwerksstäuben über Solventextraktion und Gewinnungselektrolyse wird in der Fachliteratur berichtet.

Chloridische Laugungsverfahren zur Zink- und Bleirückgewinnung

Laut Berichten in der Fachliteratur befinden sich chloridische Laugungsverfahren zur Zink- und Bleigewinnung derzeit in der Demonstrationsphase [202, Fundación Entorno, Empresa y Medio Ambiente 1999].

Plasmabrenner für sekundäre Zinkmaterialien

Über den Einsatz von Plasmabrennern zum Schmelzen von Sekundärzinkmaterialien wurde berichtet.

Thermische Behandlung von Jarosit und Göthit

Die thermische Behandlung von Jarosit und Göthit nach dem Outotec-Verfahren wurde in einer Demonstrationsanlage erprobt [98, Ljiftogt, J.A. et al 1998]. Dabei werden Zink und weitere leichtflüchtige Metalle verdampft und zurückgewonnen. Die anfallende Schlacke kann möglicherweise in der Bauindustrie eingesetzt werden. Der Nachweis der Wirtschaftlichkeit dieser Verfahren im großtechnischen Betrieb steht noch aus.

Das Einblasen von feinteiligem Material über die Winddüsen des Schachtofens wurde erfolgreich erprobt. Mit dieser Technik werden die in die Sinteranlage zurückzuführenden Staubmengen und die damit verbundenen Energiekosten reduziert.

Das EZINEX®-Verfahren beruht auf der Ammoniak-/Ammoniumchloridlaugung mit anschließender Zementation und Elektrolyse. Ursprünglich zur direkten Behandlung von Elektrostahlwerksstäuben entwickelt, kann dieses Verfahren auch zur Zinkrückgewinnung aus zinkreicheren Sekundärrohstoffen eingesetzt werden. Eine Anlage zur Behandlung von Elektrostahlwerksstäuben ist großtechnisch in Betrieb [117, Krüger, J. 1999].

Auf dem Gebiet des Altbatterienrecyclings laufen Verfahrensentwicklungen, in denen nur bestimmte Teile der Batterien in einem geschlossenen Recycling-Kreislauf behandelt werden. Die bekannten Verfahren befinden sich noch im Entwicklungsstadium.

Die Aufarbeitung von Schlacken aus der schmelzmetallurgischen Zink- und Bleigewinnung in einem Elektrolichtbogenofen zur Rückgewinnung von Zink und Blei und Erzeugung einer verwertbaren umweltfreundlichen Schlacke wird derzeit untersucht.

Durch Rezirkulation von Elektrostahlwerksstäuben im Gewebefilter wird eine Agglomeration des Staubs und damit ein höherer Zinkgehalt des abgeschiedenen Staubs erreicht.

7 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE PRECIOUS METALS

7.1 Applied processes and techniques

Precious metals can be conveniently divided into three groups; silver, gold and platinum group metals (the latter, PGMs, comprises platinum, palladium, rhodium, ruthenium, iridium and osmium). The most significant sources are precious metal ores, by-products obtained from the processing of other non-ferrous metals (in particular anode slimes from copper production, and leach residues and crude metal from zinc and lead production) and recycled material. Many raw materials are subject to the Hazardous Waste Directive and this has an impact on the transport, handling and notification systems.

Production processes are common for primary and secondary raw materials and they are therefore described together. For a given refinery, the scale of operation reflects the relative quantities of each metal present. Typically there is much more silver and gold than PGMs.

A variety of processes have been developed which exploit the chemical properties of these metals. Although they are relatively inert, their reactivity varies and the various oxidation states of the metal in their compounds allows a variety of separation techniques to be used [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993], [18, HMIP (UK) 1994]. For example, the tetroxides of ruthenium and osmium are volatile and can be separated easily by distillation. Many of the processes use very reactive reagents or produce toxic products, and these factors are taken into account by using containment, fail-safe systems and sealed drainage areas to minimise losses. This is further driven by the high value of the metals.

Many of the processes are commercially confidential and only outline descriptions are available. Production processes are usually carried out in various combinations to recover the precious metals that are present in a particular feedstock. The other feature of the industry is that, generally, the precious metals are recovered on a toll basis, which can be independent of the metal value. Much of the processing is therefore designed to accurately sample and assay the material as well as recover it. Sampling is carried out after the material has been processed physically or from side-streams during normal processing. There are over 200 types of raw materials available to the industry and they are normally characterised into five homogenisation categories as shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Homogenisation categories of raw materials

Homogenisation category	Type of raw material	Comment
Original	Catalysts, prepared sweeps, solutions	Direct to process
Sweeps	Mineral + metal, non-fusible carbon catalysts	Incineration, roasting and pre-enrichment
Scrap	Fusible material	
Material to be shredded	Photographic material, electronic scrap	
Material for dissolution	Material that is dissolved in acid, CN, NaOH, etc.	
<i>Source: [18, HMIP (UK) 1994].</i>		

The raw material characterisation is based on the most suitable processing flowsheet entrance point (see Figure 7.1), and is largely independent of the precious metals that the material contains. The raw materials are usually sampled according to this characterisation and it is reported that most companies use this scheme. The samples are subject to treatment to dissolve the precious metal content or produce a form capable of analysis. Sometimes this may also involve all or part of the actual recovery process and so abatement systems are used during the sampling process.

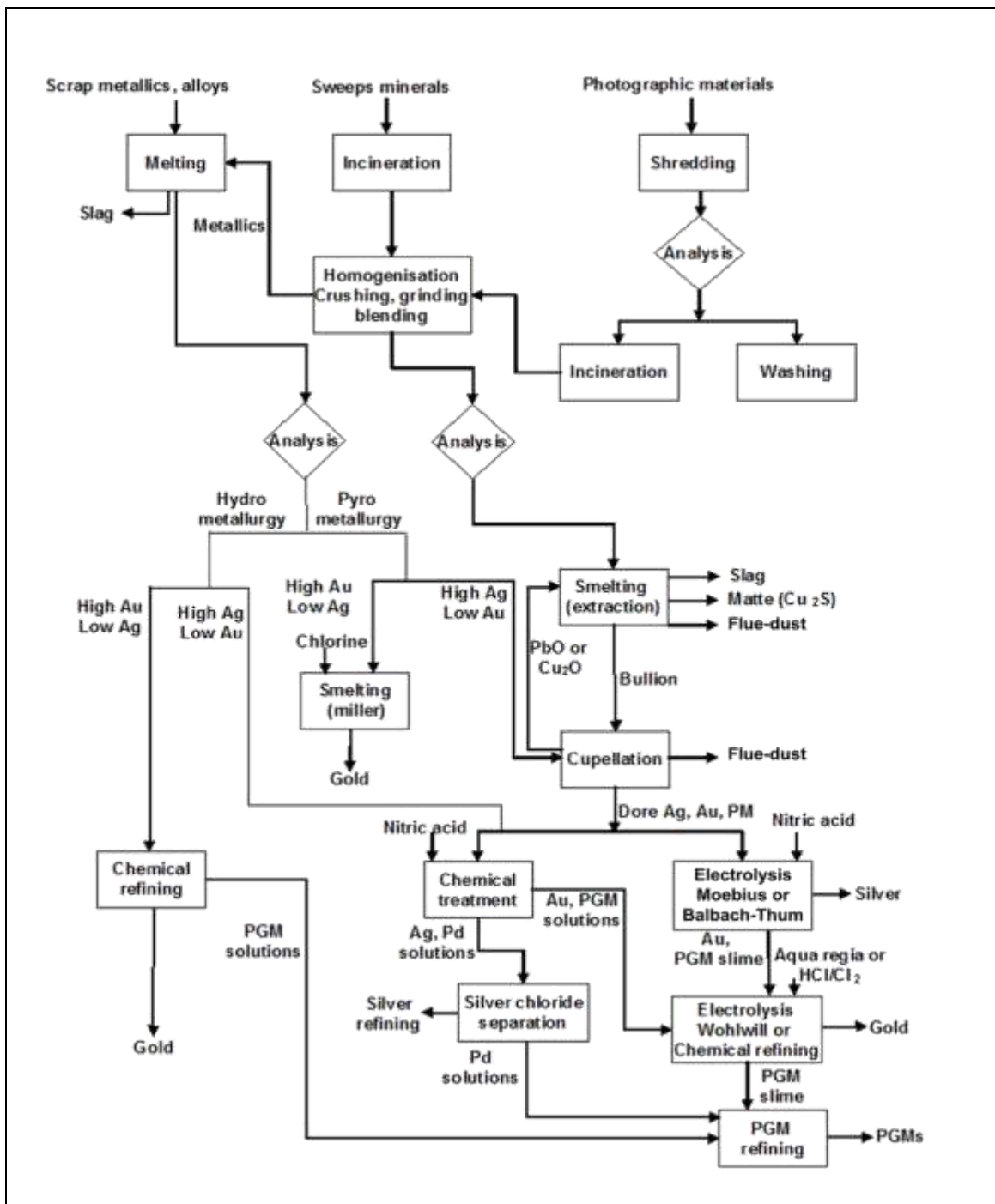


Figure 7.1: Example of a general flowsheet for precious metal recovery

There is also a need to process these materials rapidly and this is reflected in the intentional overcapacity of production in this sector. Extensive sampling and analysis also allow the optimum choice of process combinations to be made.

Anode slimes from electrolytic copper refining are a significant source of precious metals and they are treated to remove and recover the precious metals together with other metals such as selenium and tellurium. The process details depend on the proportion of metals present. Pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical routes are used, and solvent extraction stages are also included in some cases. Figure 7.2 gives a general example of a flowsheet for anode slime treatment.

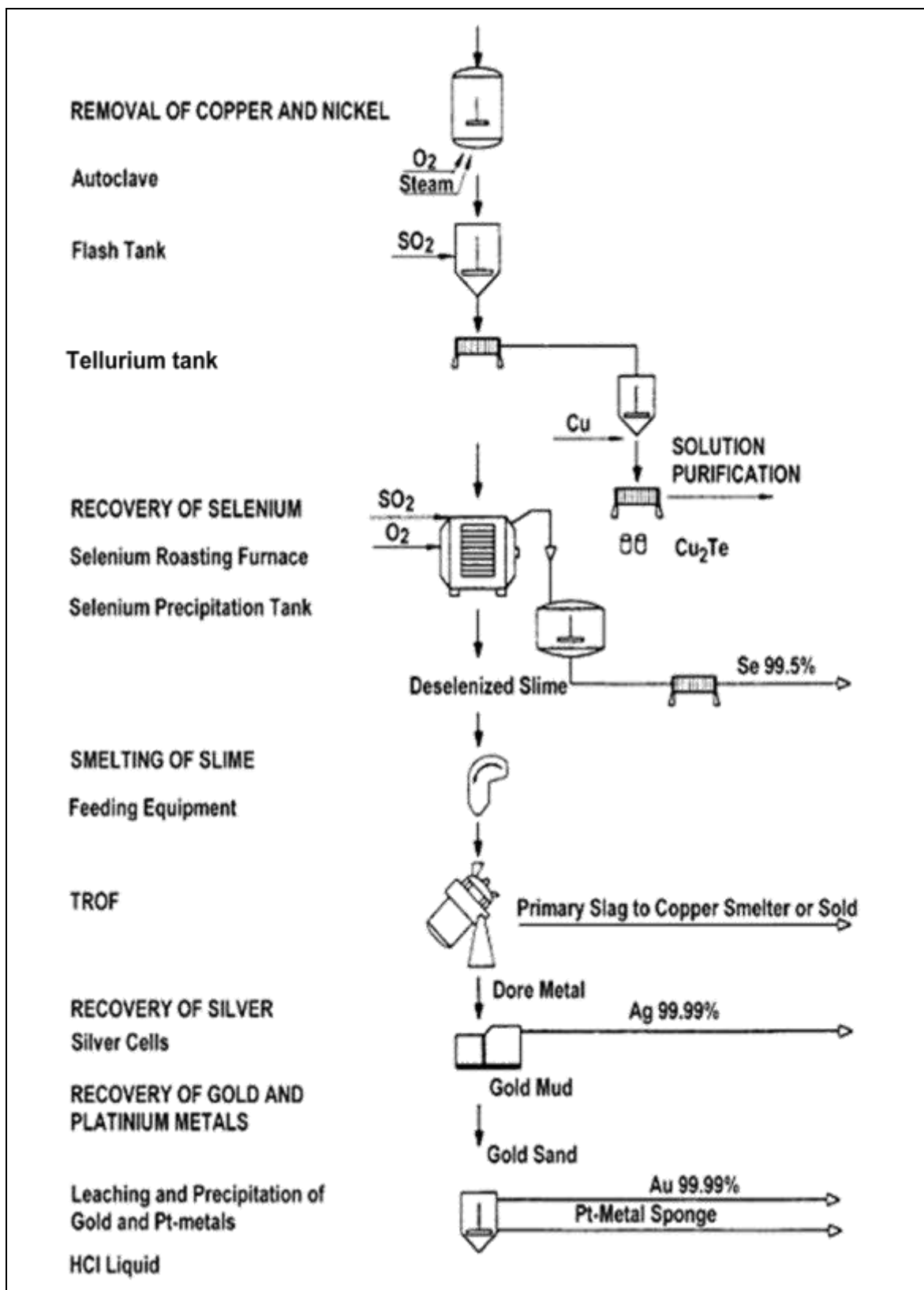


Figure 7.2: Example flowsheet for anode slime treatment

7.1.1 Silver

In 2012, global scrap supply increased by 12 % to a new all-time high of 7985 tonnes. The structural decline in the supply of photographic scrap, which had accounted for a dominant share of total scrap until the late 2000s, was offset by a material rise in industrial recycling and price-related scrapping of jewellery and silverware. Electronic scrap flows benefited not only from tighter environmental legislation, but also from the acute rise in silver prices. However, it was the recovery of silver from old silverware and jewellery that accounted for the bulk of the 12 % rise in world scrap supply. There was also a rise in coin scrap. Fundamental to the overall total was a jump in industrialised market collection (mainly in the United States and Europe), which comfortably exceeded the rise in recycling in the price-sensitive developing world markets (such as India) [426, GFMS 2012].

Mine production remains by far the largest component of silver supply, normally accounting for around two thirds of the total (in 2011 it was higher at 73 %). Much of the mine supply will contain silver as an impurity in other metals (typically lead), from which it is removed. However, mine production is not the sole source, the others being scrap, disinvestment, government sales and producer hedging. Scrap, or more accurately 'old scrap', is the silver that returns to the market when recovered from manufactured goods. This could include old jewellery, photographic chemicals, even discarded computers. Old scrap normally makes up around a fifth of the total supply [426, GFMS 2012]

7.1.1.1 Photographic materials

Photographic film, papers and sludges are incinerated on a batch basis in single hearth furnaces, or on a continuous basis in rotary kilns, to produce a silver-rich ash. Smaller recyclers use box furnaces. The calorific value of the feed is such that fuel is only required during start-up. An afterburner, located in a separate chamber, is used to combust the partially burnt products in the waste gas, as well as filter and caustic scrubber systems. The ash is recovered and treated with other silver-bearing material, the gases are filtered and the dust that is collected is treated to recover silver.

A chemical stripping process in which the silver salts are leached from the emulsion layer is also used. This process treats waste photographic film with a thiosulphate solution that may also contain enzymes. The silver is recovered from the leach liquor by electrowinning and the depleted electrolyte is recycled to the leaching stage. The plastic backing of the photographic film can in theory be recovered but the feed material usually includes some paper such as envelopes and this can inhibit recovery and result in a waste stream [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993] Silver is also recovered from waste solutions from the photographic industry and others by chemical precipitation as sulphide to form a powder, which is dried, melted and refined.

7.1.1.2 Ashes, sweeps, etc.

Ashes, sweeps, printed circuit boards, agglomerated fines, sludges and other materials that contain copper and precious metals are blended and smelted in Ausmelt/ISASMELT, electric, blast, rotary and reverberatory furnaces or top-blown rotary converters (TBRCs). Lead or copper is used as a collector for the silver and other precious metals; electric power or a fuel such as coke, gas or oil is used to generate a reducing atmosphere. In some cases, select plastic waste can be used as a fuel or as a reducing agent and in these cases appropriate afterburning is used to prevent the emission of organic compounds such as VOCs and PCDD/F. Fluxes are added to collect the non-metallic components of the feed materials, which are removed as a slag. Periodically the furnace is run with a slag charge to recover any precious metals in the slag before it is granulated or cast prior to disposal, treatment for depletion or use.

The silver and other precious metals produced in the smelting furnace are collected into molten lead or copper. The lead alloy is transferred to a cupellation furnace where the lead is oxidised to litharge (lead oxide) using air or oxygen. The copper alloy is treated in a similar manner to that used to produce copper oxide. Some refiners do not oxidise, but process the lead alloy directly to recover precious metals.

These precious metal-bearing materials may also be treated in base metal smelters. The metals are then recovered from the lead, copper or nickel processes.

7.1.1.3 Recovery from base metal production

The electrolytic refining of copper anodes produces slimes, the composition of which depends on the feed materials and processes used in the copper smelter. Anode slimes generally contain significant quantities of silver, gold and PGMs and they are sold for their precious metals value [46, Guindy, M 1996], [47, Järvinen, O 1995], [48, Järvinen, O 1994], [49, Hyvärinen, O. et al. 1989] or recovered at the site of the smelter [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]

Treatment processes vary according to the composition of the slimes. An example is shown above in Figure 7.2 which includes the recovery of selenium. The stages can include the removal of copper and nickel (and a major proportion of the tellurium) by acid leaching (atmospheric or under pressure using O₂), or by roasting to also remove selenium, unless it has already been removed by volatilisation during smelting. In some cases, lead residues are produced which are recovered in dedicated lead processes.

Doré (silver or gold) is metal that has been concentrated to a form that contains 25–99.55 % silver and 0–99 % gold with specified impurities. Doré metal is produced by melting and refining anode slimes from copper electrorefining as well as from precious-metal-enriched alloys from lead refining, leach residues and crude metal from zinc and lead production, returns and sweeps from silver production (such as dust from bag filters, slimes from wet dedusting systems, silver cement obtained from spent silver electrolyte, slags, crushed refractory) and other silver-rich materials and/or silver scrap. Refining is carried out with coke, silica, lime and sodium carbonate fluxes to maximise separation from other metals whilst controlling the formation of volatile metal compounds. Different combinations of batch-wise processes can be used depending on the composition of the raw materials and the local conditions. In general, the following process steps are involved:

- drying of decoppered slime in indirectly heated steam dryers;
- melting and converting in a furnace (e.g. Kaldo, top-blown rotary or tilting rotary oxy-fuel (TROF) furnace) to remove impurities and retain crude PM alloy;
- volatilisation and recovery of selenium from the furnace off-gas during melting or prior to it, via separate roasting in an electrically heated furnace;
- final refining of the PM alloy/raw silver or gold in the same furnace or cupellation of precious-metal-enriched alloys from lead and copper lines in a separate furnace (e.g. TBRC, TROF, BBOC);
- casting of Doré anodes, ingots or bars.

Hydrometallurgical and solvent extraction stages are also used for the recovery of precious metals from anode slimes, for example the Kennecott and Phelps Dodge processes. In the hydrometallurgical production of zinc, the precious metals, if present in the concentrate, are enriched in the lead-silver leach residue, which can be processed further in a lead smelter. During lead smelting and refining, the precious metals are concentrated in a Pb-Zn-Ag alloy (see Figure 7.3).

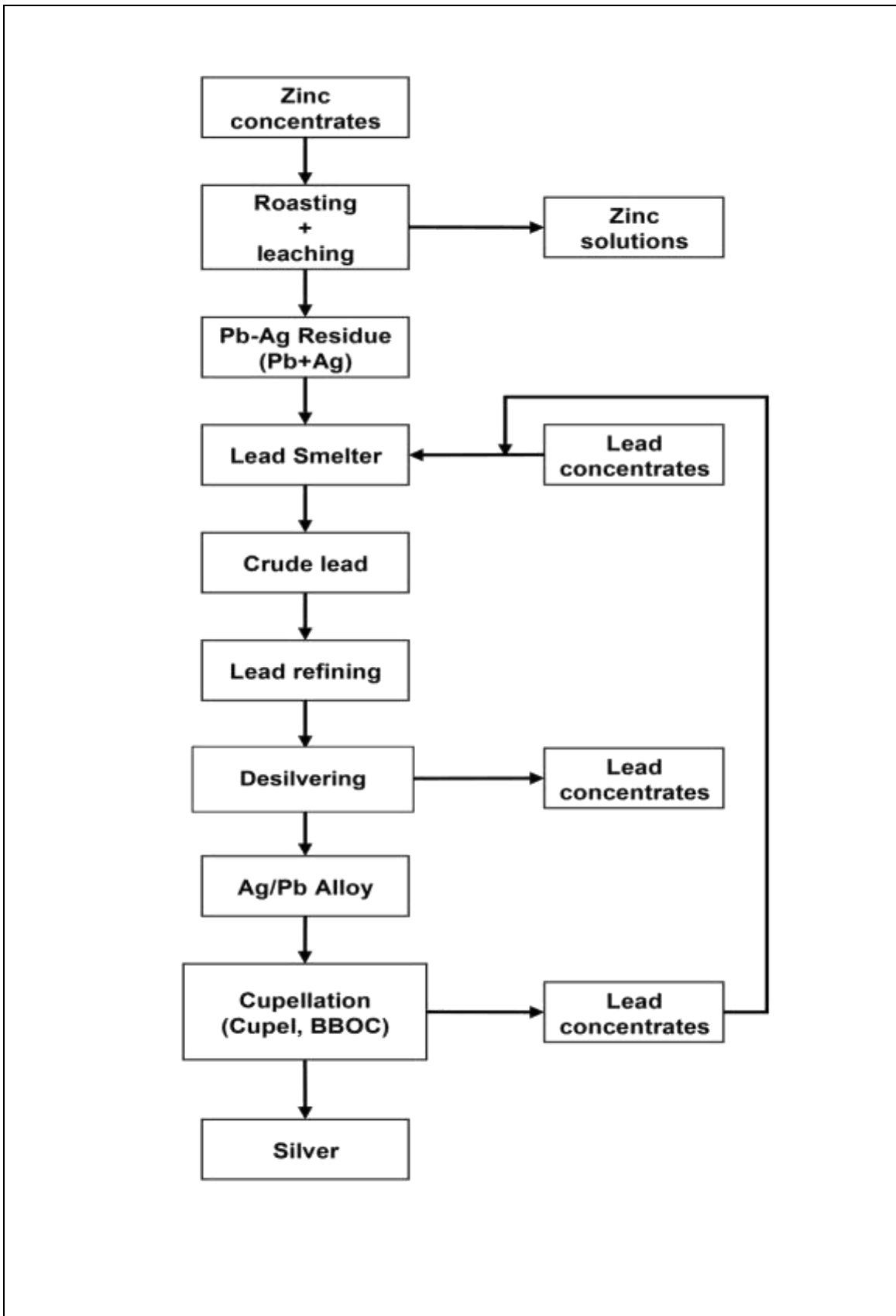


Figure 7.3: Recovery of silver from zinc and lead production

Further treatment can include the removal of the bulk of the lead and zinc by liquation and vacuum distillation and finally cupellation in a reverberatory furnace, TBRC, TROF, cupel or a bottom-blown oxygen cupel (BBOC). Lead is oxidised to litharge using air and oxygen. Some

installations that operate copper and lead refineries combine the precious-metal-enriched phases from the lead and copper lines during the cupellation stage.

In the refining of nickel, the precious metals are recovered from the copper by-product. In the refining of zinc in a zinc-lead shaft furnace, the precious metals may be recovered from the lead product. Precious metal recovery processes vary according to the amount of desired metals and other associated metals, such as selenium, present.

7.1.1.4 Refining

The anodes are refined in Moebius or Balbach-Thum electrolytic cells using titanium or stainless steel cathodes in an acidified silver nitrate electrolyte. A direct current applied between the electrodes causes silver ions dissolved from the anode to migrate and deposit as silver crystals on the cathodes. The crystals are continuously scraped off the cathodes, removed from the cells, filtered and washed. The slimes from the electrolytic cells are treated for their gold and PGM content.

The silver crystals may be melted in a crucible furnace and batch cast into market ingots or grains for rolling down. They can be continuously cast into market bars for rolling down to sheet and strip. Silver is also cast into billets for extrusion into rods for subsequent drawing into wire.

Silver produced by smelting and high-grade silver residues from manufacturing processes can be further refined by dissolution in nitric acid. The resulting solution is purified either by recrystallisation as silver nitrate suitable for use in the photographic industry or by electrolysis to fine silver for melting and casting into bullion bars.

7.1.2 Gold

The principal sources of gold are mining operations, industrial processes, jewellery, sweeps, and dental scrap. Gold is recovered along with silver from the anode slimes from copper electrorefining and from other materials using the processes described above. Gold is present in the anode slimes from the silver electrolysis stage and is recovered by leaching the slimes with hot hydrochloric acid and chlorine gas before it is precipitated from the resultant solution [282, KGHM 2008]. Scrap materials may contain significant proportions of zinc, copper and tin.

7.1.2.1 The Miller process

The Miller process can be used to pretreat the material. In this process, the feed materials are melted in an indirectly heated crucible or electric induction furnace while chlorine gas is injected into the melt. At the operating temperature of about 1000 °C, gold is the only metal present that does not react to form a stable molten or volatile chloride. Molten silver chloride rises to the surface of the melt. A borax flux is used to assist the collection and skimming of the metal chlorides. Zinc in the feed is converted to zinc chloride which, together with volatile metal chlorides, is exhausted to a gas scrubbing system [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993] [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998] [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993], [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998].

The Miller process is operated to produce either 98 % gold, which is cast into anodes for electrorefining, or 99.5 % gold, which is cast into bullion bars.

7.1.2.2 Electrorefining

Gold anodes are refined in Wohlwill cells that contain gold foil or titanium cathodes. The electrolyte used is an acidic gold chloride solution maintained at about 70 °C. A DC electric current applied between the electrodes causes gold ions dissolved from the anodes to migrate and deposit on the cathodes, yielding a product that contains 99.99 % gold. Chlorine is evolved at the anode and is collected in an integrated enclosure.

7.1.2.3 Other processes for gold recovery

Gold can also be recovered and refined by dissolving the feed materials in aqua regia or in hydrochloric acid/chlorine. This is followed by the precipitation of high-purity gold suitable for melting and casting. When the feed material contains significant quantities of metallic impurities, a solvent extraction step may be introduced before the gold precipitation stage. Solvent extraction processes and precipitation are also used to recover gold from liquors arising during the production of platinum.

Gold is also removed from solid and liquid cyanide solutions such as plating baths. Solutions of sodium or potassium cyanide can be used to remove gold from surface-coated material such as electronic contacts or plated materials. Gold is recovered from the cyanide solutions by electrolysis. Cyanides react with acids to form hydrogen cyanide (HCN) and therefore careful segregation of these materials is practised. Oxidising agents such as hydrogen peroxide or sodium hypochlorite, as well as high-temperature hydrolysis, are used to destroy cyanides.

7.1.3 Platinum group metals (PGMs)

PGMs comprise platinum, palladium, rhodium, ruthenium, iridium and osmium. The principal raw materials are concentrates produced from ores, mattes and slimes from nickel and copper operations. Secondary materials such as spent chemicals and automotive exhaust catalysts and electronic and electrical component scrap are also significant sources. PGMs can be present in the anode slimes described above and are separated from the gold and silver by a variety of hydrometallurgical processes. Low-grade feedstock may be crushed and blended while metallic feed materials are generally melted to provide a homogeneous product for sampling.

The main stages in the recovery of PGMs are [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998], [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993], [18, HMIP (UK) 1994]:

- pretreatment of the feedstock, sampling and assay;
- concentration and separation of PGMs by pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical techniques, such as chemical precipitation, chemical dissolution, liquid-liquid extraction, distillation of tetroxides, ion exchange and electrolytic processes;
- pyrolysis or reduction of metallic chloride compounds to pure metal sponges.

Specific processes have been developed for carbon-based catalysts, using incineration prior to the dissolution stage. Powder-based catalysts and sludges are treated in batches, often in box furnaces. Direct flame heating is applied to dry and then ignite the catalyst, which is allowed to burn naturally. The air ingress to the furnace is controlled to modify the combustion conditions and an afterburner is used.

Reforming or hydrogenation catalysts can be treated by dissolution of the ceramic base in sodium hydroxide or sulphuric acid. Prior to leaching, the excess carbon and hydrocarbons are burnt off. PGMs from automotive exhaust catalysts can be collected separately in copper or nickel in plasma, electric or converter furnaces [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998]. Small operators use open trays to burn off catalysts by self-ignition or roasting. These processes can be dangerous and fume collection and afterburning can be used to treat the fume and gases.

Organic-based homogenous spent catalysts, e.g. from the chemical or pharmaceutical industries, can be treated by distillation and precipitation. The gaseous emissions are treated in an afterburner.

PGM refining is complex and individual process stages may have to be repeated to achieve the required purity. The number and order of the stages also depend on the contaminants to be removed and the specific mix of PGMs to be separated from any one batch of feedstock. The processing of secondary materials such as spent chemicals and automotive exhaust catalysts, electrical and electronic scrap in base metal smelters or specific equipment finally produces PGM-rich residues or precipitates.

7.2 Current emission and consumption levels

Precious metal (PM) refineries are complex networks of main and subsidiary processes. The raw materials used vary greatly in quality and quantity and therefore the equipment used has a variety of capacities and uses. Multi-purpose reactors and furnaces are used extensively and processing steps are often repeated. It is therefore not possible to identify single process steps and their contribution to emissions and consumption.

Some general principles apply to the emissions and consumption of this sector.

- To isolate precious metals, it is necessary to treat on average ten times more material than they amount to. The concentrations vary from < 1 % to nearly pure metal.
- High-energy techniques are used, e.g. electric furnaces. Energy is recovered if appropriate.
- Residues that contain base metals are sold for recovery.
- Many chemical treatments involve the use of cyanide, chlorine, hydrochloric acid and nitric acid. These reagents are reused within the processes but eventually require oxidation or neutralisation with caustic soda and lime. Sludges from waste water treatment are closely monitored for metals, which are recovered if possible.
- A variety of organic solvents are used for liquid-liquid extraction.
- A variety of oxidising and reducing agents are used.
- Acid gases such as chlorine or nitrogen oxides are recovered for reuse.
- Gas volumes vary greatly between cycles. The small scale of the processes usually allows for good containment. Local exhaust ventilation is used.

7.2.1 Material loops in the precious metal recycling industry

One of the characteristics of the PM industry is the need to keep solution volumes small to diminish the losses of precious metals or their compounds. Consequently, there are several closed cycles in operation to reclaim materials and these are shown below.

7.2.1.1 The non-metallic cycles

Hydrochloric acid and nitric acid are mainly used for the dissolution of metals. Sulphuric acid is used to a lesser extent as part of scrubber solutions for ammonia absorption and as an electrolyte in silver powder baths. Other materials are used as reagents or are present in the feed materials. [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998].

- **The hydrochloric acid loop:** For processes involving dissolution, hydrochloric acid (HCl) is used in combination with excess chlorine. By using evaporation and collection in water, an azeotropic acid (in concentrations of about 20 wt-%) is obtained. This is used in different parts of the refinery.
- **The nitric acid loop:** Silver and palladium are often dissolved in nitric acid (HNO₃). A significant quantity of nitrogen oxide off-gases (NO and NO₂) can be captured with oxygen or hydrogen peroxide in special scrubber cascades. The long residence time needed to oxidise small quantities of NO and the reduction of gas absorption by exothermic reactions can produce problems. Therefore cooling and combined scrubbers are necessary to reach the limit values and avoid brown fumes from the stack. The resulting nitric acid from the first scrubber usually has concentrations of about 45 wt-% and can be reused in several processes.
- **The chlorine loop:** Chlorine is used in wet processes to dissolve metals and in dry chlorination steps at elevated temperatures to refine them. In both cases, closed systems

are used, e.g. using U-tubes with water to produce hypochlorite solutions. Hypochlorite is also used as an oxidising agent in scrubber solutions for various refining processes.

- **The ammonium, sodium or potassium chloride loop:** Ammonia and ammonium, sodium or potassium chloride are used in the recovery of PGMs. The relatively low solubility of ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl) in evaporated solutions at room temperature makes it possible to reuse crystalline precipitates of this salt.
- **The alumina loop:** Heterogeneous catalysts based on alumina (Al_2O_3) are treated in PM refineries in large quantities, for example, the reforming catalysts from the oil refining industry. The catalysts are dissolved in caustic soda above $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ under pressure and the resulting aluminate solution is sold after separation of the PM as a precipitation aid in water treatment. Alternatively it can be returned to the alumina industry via the Bayer process (dissolution of bauxite). Similar external cycles are possible with aluminium sulphate solutions, which result when the catalysts are dissolved in sulphuric acid.

7.2.1.2 The non-PM loops

PM refineries process a lot of materials that contain copper, lead, tin, tungsten, rhenium, cadmium, mercury and other special metals. For the separation of all these metals, special processes are established which produce concentrates for external non-PM metallurgical plants [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998].

- **Copper:** The use of copper as the carrier material for precious metals is becoming more important and, as a consequence, copper oxides often remain after the smelting processes. In hydrometallurgical stages, copper can be precipitated by caustic soda (NaOH) and/or lime (CaO). Copper residues can be recovered in a copper refinery or converted to sulphate and electrowon if the volume justifies it.
- For removing traces of copper, especially in the presence of chelates like ammonia, precipitation with sulphides or mercaptan compounds (e.g. TMT 15, a 15 wt-% solution of trimercaptotriazine) is necessary.
- **Lead:** Lead cycles are known to have been used since the Middle Ages in the refining of silver. The process is still used in the sweep extraction. Liquid lead is a good solvent for PMs, especially in an excess of silver. The PM-enriched lead is oxidised in furnaces or converters by oxygen, producing an almost quantitative separation of lead and other non-PMs. The resulting oxides are reduced by carbon, e.g. in a blast furnace, and lead is produced and is reused in the process. Excess lead is sold to lead refineries. Some refiners do not oxidise the lead alloy but process it directly and recycle the lead from the leach solutions.
- **Tin:** Tin is separated as the metal in solution or as a hydroxide precipitate.
- **Tungsten and other metals:** For some metals from galvanic processes, the base metals such as nickel alloys, tungsten and molybdenum can be recycled by cyanide stripping.
- **Rhenium:** For rhenium, ionic exchangers are used. After purification and precipitation, an ammonium salt (NH_4ReO_4) is produced.
- **Cadmium:** The cadmium concentration of special alloys, e.g. solders and brazes, has decreased in recent years. Cadmium is enriched in the flue-dusts of special campaigns and sent to external metallurgical plants.
- **Mercury:** Mercury may form part of some special materials in small concentrations, e.g. dental amalgam, powders or slimes, residues from battery plants and special Polaroid films. For this kind of material, high-temperature distillation, perhaps combined with a low vacuum, is the first step of recovery. Average concentrations of the distilled scraps and sweeps are less than 0.1 wt-% of mercury concentration limits.

These loops and the separation of non-PM compounds contribute to the avoidance of contamination and the optimisation of profitability.

7.2.2 Environmental issues for precious metal production processes

Precious metal production processes are primarily a source of particulate and gaseous emissions to air and emissions to water. Generally, the information given in Sections 7.2.2.1 to 7.2.2.3 below describes the most relevant environmental issues for precious metals production.

7.2.2.1 Emissions to air

The sources of emissions are as follows:

- Incineration.
- Other pretreatment.
- Smelting and melting furnaces. Typical smelting and melting operations responsible for generating dust and fume are:
 - o smelting in a top-blown rotary converter (TBRC), plasma arc furnace or other furnace;
 - o smelting/granulating ingots and metallic scraps containing precious metals and ingots of other valuable metals in a crucible furnace including induction melting;
 - o smelting silver chloride and other potentially silver-dust-bearing metals in a furnace;
 - o melting and casting silver metal from a furnace.
- Leaching and purification.
- Solvent extraction.
- Electrolysis.
- Final recovery or transformation stage.

The main emissions to air from precious metal production are:

- sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and other acid gases (HCl);
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and other nitrogen compounds;
- metals and their compounds;
- dust;
- chlorine;
- ammonia and ammonium chloride;
- VOCs and PCDD/F.

Odour may be present as a result of some of the compounds listed above. The relevance of potential emissions to air from the major sources in precious metals production is given in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: Relevance of potential emissions to air from the major sources in precious metals production

Component	Incineration or smelting	Leaching and purification	Electrolysis	Solvent extraction	Distillation
SO ₂ and HCl	••	•	•	NR	NR
VOCs	•	•••	NR	•••	•••
PCDD/F	••	NR	NR	NR	NR
Chlorine	•	•••	••	NR	NR
Nitrogen oxides	••	••	NR	NR	NR
Dust and metals	••• ⁽¹⁾	•	•	•	•

(¹) Diffuse or uncaptured emissions are also relevant for these sources.
 NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant.
 NR = Not relevant.
 Source: [374, COM 2001]

7.2.2.1.1 Dust and metals

Dust and metals can generally be emitted from any pyrometallurgical process such as incinerators, smelting, melting and cupellation furnaces, as diffuse or collected and abated emissions. Furnace sealing and secondary collection from launders is an important factor in preventing diffuse emissions. Some electric furnaces use hollow electrodes for material additions, to allow improved furnace sealing. Ash from incinerators is usually quenched and the maintenance of the water seal is an important factor in reducing diffuse emissions. Batch incinerators using open trays or boxes present dust and ash containment problems. Collected emissions are usually treated in ceramic or fabric filters, ESPs or wet scrubbers [161, Bobeth, A. 1999]

Dust can arise from handling operations such as:

- mixing of smelt materials and fluxes, etc. in powder mixers prior to smelting;
- fettling of PM and other metal-containing ingots to remove traces of slag prior to sampling or melting;
- crushing of slag, spent crucibles and refractory materials in a crusher;
- mixing/sampling/crushing/sieving of feed materials containing PM and other valuable metals in powder form;
- pulverising (crushing) and disposal of process intermediates from drying and calcining operations.

7.2.2.1.2 Sulphur dioxide

Sulphur dioxide is formed from the combustion of sulphur contained in the raw material or the fuel, or produced from acid digestion stages. Control of the feedstock can be used to minimise emissions; wet or semi-dry scrubbers are used when the concentrations justify it. Electrode mists and gases can be produced during electrowinning. Gases can be collected and reused and mists can be removed by demisters and returned to the process. Some installations operate on the site of a primary smelter and the off-gases are treated in the sulphuric acid plant [238, ECI 2012], [282, KGHM 2008]

7.2.2.1.3 Chlorine and HCl

These gases can be formed during a number of digestion, electrolytic and purification processes. Chlorine is used extensively in the Miller process and in the dissolution stages using hydrochloric acid and chlorine mixtures. Chlorine is recovered for reuse wherever possible, e.g.

using sealed electrolytic cells for gold and PGMs. Scrubbers are used to remove residual amounts of chlorine and HCl.

The presence of chlorine in waste water can lead to the formation of organic chlorine compounds if solvents, etc. are also present in the mixed waste water.

7.2.2.1.4 Nitrogen oxides

Nitrogen oxides are produced to a certain extent during combustion processes and in significant amounts during acid digestion using nitric acid. High concentrations of nitrogen oxides are treated in scrubbers so that nitric acid can be recovered; various oxidising agents are used to promote conversion and recovery as nitric acid.

Residual nitrogen oxides from furnace off-gases can be removed by catalytic means such as selective or non-selective catalytic reduction if very high NO_x concentrations occur continuously [161, Bobeth, A. 1999].

The choice of the abatement system essentially depends on the variation of the NO_x concentration.

7.2.2.1.5 VOCs and PCDD/F

VOCs can be emitted from solvent extraction processes. The small scale of the processes usually allows the sealing or enclosure of reactors and good collection and recovery using condensers. Collected solvents are reused [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998].

If the hot gases produced during the smelting stages are not cooled rapidly, the organic carbon compounds that can be emitted might include PCDD/F, resulting from the poor combustion of oil and plastic in the feed material and from de novo synthesis. Scrap treatment to remove organic contamination can be practised, but usually afterburners are used to treat the gases produced followed by rapid cooling. When it is not possible to treat the gases from the furnaces in an afterburner, they can be oxidised by adding oxygen above the melting zone. It is also possible to identify organic contamination of secondary raw materials so that the most appropriate furnace and abatement combination can be used to prevent the emissions of smoke and fumes and the associated PCDD/F. Organic compounds, including PCDD/F, can be decomposed by catalytic oxidation, often in joint reactors.

7.2.2.1.6 Summary of emissions to air

Table 7.3 gives the specific emissions for three major pollutants and Table 7.4 shows the emission concentrations for three different processes in precious metal production.

Table 7.3: Specific emissions to air from a range of precious metal production processes

Parameter	Unit	Plant 1	Plant 2	Plant 3	Plant 4	Plant 5
Production	t/yr	2155	1200	2500	1110	102
Dust	kg/t	58	4.5	2	18	127
NO _x		154	68	7	NR	21
SO ₂		232	3.1	9	NR	NR
NB: NR = not reported Source: [374, COM 2001]						

Table 7.4: Concentrations of emissions to air from three different processes in precious metal production

Parameter	Unit	Incineration processes	Pyrometallurgical processes	Hydrometallurgical processes
Production range	t/yr	73–365	150–1200	20–600
Dust	mg/Nm ³	2–10	4–10	
Nitrogen oxides		50–150	~ 200	1–370
Sulphur dioxide		1–25	10–100	0.1–35
CO		10–50	80–100	
Chloride		2–5	< 30	0.4–5
Cl ₂			< 5	2–5
Fluoride		0.03–1.5	2–4	
TVOC		2–5	2–20	
PCDD/F		ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	< 0.1	< 0.1
HCN	mg/Nm ³			0.01–2
NH ₃				0.2–4

Source: [161, Bobeth, A. 1999]

Two plants have reported data for captured emissions to air for different process steps as summarised in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5: Captured emissions to air from two PM plants for different process steps

Pollutant	Unit	Plant 1						Plant 2		
		Without sulphuric acid plant	With sulphuric acid plant	Furnace hall (furnace in operation)	Furnace hall (awaiting charcoal)	Refinery	Slag crushing	Ag, Au process step	Pt scrubber	PtRh, Pd scrubber
Dust	mg/Nm ³	2.9	NR	0.5	0.3	1.1	1.1	0.097	NA	NA
NO _x	mg/Nm ³	520	230	NA	3	3	NA	17.1	NA	92
SO ₂	mg/Nm ³	9400	280	NA	6	2	NA	NA	NA	NA
H ₂ SO ₄	mg/Nm ³	NA	70	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
CO	mg/Nm ³	830	NA	NA	21	1	NA	NA	NA	NA
Cl ₂	mg/Nm ³	NA	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	N	NA	0.134
HCl	mg/Nm ³	NA	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	3.12	0.926
PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	NA	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.02
Cu	mg/Nm ³	0.24	NR	0.0005	NA	NA	0.022	NA	NA	NA
Pb	mg/Nm ³	0.2	NR	0.029	NA	NA	0.43	NA	NA	NA
As	mg/Nm ³	0.011	NR	0.0005	NA	NA	0.003	NA	NA	NA
Cd	mg/Nm ³	0.001	NR	0.00001	NA	NA	0.0002	NA	NA	NA

NB: Daily averages.
NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant.
Source: [282, KGHM 2008] [403, EPMF 2008]

7.2.2.2 Emissions to water

On sites handling a range of metals, common facilities are frequently employed to manage emissions to water. The techniques referred to below may therefore not relate solely to precious metals.

Pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical processes use significant quantities of cooling water. Liquors from leaching cycles are normally recirculated in sealed systems. The sources of potential emissions to water from precious metals production are shown in Table 7.6 below. Suspended solids, metal compounds and oils can be emitted to water from these sources.

All waste water is treated to remove dissolved metals and solids. Techniques used include precipitation of metal ions as hydroxides or sulphides, or a two-stage precipitation. Ion exchange is suitable for low concentrations and amounts of metal ions. In a number of installations, cooling water and treated waste water, including rainwater, are reused or recycled within the processes.

Special techniques have been developed for precious metal processes to detoxify nitrite by a reduction process, and cyanide by hydrolysis in the waste water [161, Bobeth, A. 1999].

Table 7.6: Sources of potential emissions to water from precious metals production

Emission source	Suspended solids	Metal compounds	Oil
Surface drainage	•••	••	•••
Cooling water for direct cooling	•••	•••	•
Cooling water for indirect cooling	•	•	NR
Quenching water	•••	••	NR
Leaching (if not closed circuit)	•••	•••	•
Electrowinning (if not closed circuit)	NR	•••	NR
Scrubbing systems	•••	•••	NR
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant. NR = Not relevant. Source: [374, COM 2001]			

Emissions to water from seven plants are given in Table 7.7 and Table 7.8.

Table 7.7: Emissions to water from five large plants

Plant	Production (t/yr)	Effluent (m ³ /h)	Main components (mg/l)					
			Ag	Pb	Hg	Cu	Ni	COD
1	2155	10	0.1	0.5	0.05	0.3	0.5	400
2	1200	2	NR	< 1	< 0.05	< 2	< 5	NR
3	2500	100	0.02	< 0.05	< 0.05	< 0.3	< 0.02	250
4	1110	NR	NR	3.9 kg/yr	0.05 kg/yr	194 kg/yr	24 kg/yr	NR
5	102	NR	NR	1260 kg/yr	NR	2750 kg/yr	1640 kg/yr	NR
NB: NR = not reported Source: [374, COM 2001]								

Table 7.8: Emissions to water from two PM plants

	Unit	Plant 1	Plant 2	
Water consumption	m ³ /yr	111 829	111 829	
Water discharge (including rainwater, cooling water, process water)	m ³ /yr	61 093	61 093	
Component emitted to water				
As	kg/yr	1.73	9.5	
Pb		0.25	3.6	
Hg		0.04	0.01	
Zn		0.80	10.7	
Cd		0.002	0.1	
Cu		3.88	7.9	
Ni		7.03	6.1	
Cr		0.044	0.7	
Fe			21.3	
Se			31.7	
Ag			9.5	
Se			31.7	
Cyanide			126.22	
COD			37 850	11 500
Chlorides (total as Cl)			408 066	
Nitrogen (total as N)			3240	
Suspended solids			4.313	
<i>Source: [403, EPME 2008]</i>				

Other potential emissions to water may include ammonium, chloride and cyanide ions depending on the individual process stages. No data have been submitted to quantify these components.

7.2.2.3 Process residues

The production of metals is related to the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, which are also listed in the European Waste Catalogue. Most process residues are recycled within the process or sent to other specialists to recover any precious metals. Residues that contain other metals, e.g. copper, are sold to other producers for recovery. The final residues from aqueous waste liquors generally comprise hydroxide filter cakes. Some typical examples are given in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Example of filter cake waste quantities

Annual waste for disposal (tonnes)	Waste characterisation
1000	Iron hydroxide, 60 % water, (Cat. 1 Industrial Waste)
1000	Effluent filter cake
350	Effluent filter cake
<i>Source: [102, Hasenpusch, W. 1998]</i>	

7.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Tabelle 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [[290, COM 2006](#)].

7.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staubemissionen aus der Aufbereitung (z.B. Brechen, Sieben und Mischen) und dem Umschlag von Vorstoffen zur Edelmetallgewinnung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Anschluss der Aufbereitungs- und Förderaggregate für staubende Materialien an einen Entstauber oder ein Stauberfassungssystem über Absaughauben und ein Abgaskanalssystem (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Abscheidung des erfassten oder abgesaugten Staubs in einer separaten oder zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage mit Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Patronenfilter
- elektrische Verriegelung der Aufbereitungs- und Förderaggregate (z.B. Mischer, Brecher) mit einem Staubabscheider oder Stauberfassungssystem

An einigen Standorten werden, je nach Größe der Anlage und Gesamtkonfiguration des Hüttenbetriebs (z.B. Einzelanlage oder angegliedert an eine andere Metallraffinationsanlage), Staubemissionen aus der Materialaufbereitung und -förderung zusammen mit den Stäuben (und Rauchen/Dämpfen) aus dem Schmelzprozess und anderen staubträchtigen Prozessschritten über ein zentrales System erfasst und abgereinigt. Daher sind die in Abschnitt 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.3 und 7.3.8 beschriebenen Techniken einander ähnlich.

Technische Beschreibung

In geschlossenen Hallen können geeignete Absaugsysteme (z.B. Hallenabsaugung) oder Absaugungen an den Materialübergabe- und -abwurfstellen oder gleichwertige Maßnahmen (d.h. Materialbefeuchtung) vorgesehen werden. Zur Staubbeseitigung können Wassersprüh- oder Nebelungssysteme eingesetzt werden. Das Mischen staubender Materialien kann in einer geschlossenen Halle oder in geschlossenen Bunkern/Mischern erfolgen.

Schüttgutmischer, Putzmaschinen und Brecher werden über Absaughauben und ein Abgaskanalssystem an ein Gewebefilter oder Absolutfilter angeschlossen. Bei eigenständigen Anlagen werden die Staub- /Rauchemissionen der Aggregate über ein Gebläse abgesaugt und das Abgas vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre über einen Staubabscheider geführt. In kleinen oder mittelgroßen Raffinationsbetrieben (z.B. in Platinmetallraffinerien, in denen sehr viel kleinere Materialmengen durchgesetzt werden als z.B. in Silberraffinerien) mit engen Platzverhältnissen kommen i.d.R. Patronenfilter zum Einsatz. Alternativ werden an einigen Standorten mit größerem Platzangebot Gewebefilter als Entstaubungsaggregat eingesetzt. Bei Patronen- oder Gewebefiltern erfolgt die Filterabreinigung durch Druckluftimpulse. Der abgelöste Staub fällt in einen Staubsammeltrichter mit Austragssystem. Alle Mischeinrichtungen, Putzkabinen und Brecher sind i.d.R. elektrisch mit dem Staubabscheider verriegelt, so dass ein Betrieb nur möglich ist, wenn das Stauberfassungs- und Filtersystem in Betrieb sind. Im Fall von Gewebefiltern wird der abgeschiedene Staub wiederverwendet und je nach Zusammensetzung als Einsatzstoff für den am besten geeigneten Metallraffinationsprozess genutzt.

Bei separaten Staubabscheidern oder zentralen Abgaserfassungs- und -reinigungsanlagen können Staubemissionsmessgeräte (Impaktor- oder ähnliche Geräte) mit entsprechenden MSR-Einrichtungen an den Kaminen vorgesehen werden, die an Messwertrechner mit automatischer Übertragung der Emissionswerte an einen Vorort-Leitstand und/oder in die zentrale Leitwarte angeschlossen sind. Neben der Echtzeit-Übertragung der Emissionswerte ermöglichen diese Systeme auch eine Zustandsdiagnose der einzelnen Filterelementreihen des Staubabscheiders oder des Abgaserfassungssystems. Die Sensoren werden so eingestellt, dass bei einem voreingestellten Wert (normalerweise 5–10 mg/m³) ein Alarm ausgelöst wird, um das Betriebs- oder Leitstandspersonal auf einen möglichen Filterschlauchbruch aufmerksam zu machen und sicherzustellen, dass die Staub/Rauchemittente abgeschaltet werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Reduzierung der anfallenden Abfallmengen zur Beseitigung. Der abgeschiedene Flugstaub und die erschöpften Filterelemente des Staubabscheiders werden betriebsintern oder in einer externen Raffinerie zwecks Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Edel- und anderen Wertmetalle aufgearbeitet, entweder durch direktes Einschmelzen oder Pelletierung oder hydrometallurgische Anreicherung nach entsprechender Vorbehandlung (Beim Materialumschlag und der Aufbereitung fallen keine festen Abfallstoffe an).

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 221 werden hauptsächlich Platingruppenmetalle (kurz PGM) raffiniert. Zu diesem Zweck werden niedrighaltige Einsatzstoffe durch Schmelzen angereichert, das so gewonnene Konzentrat gelöst und anschließend die Platinmetalle nacheinander selektiv durch Solventextraktion und Ionenaustausch extrahiert.

Die Abgasentstaubung erfolgt mittels Patronenfiltern, mit denen eine Entstaubungsleistung von > 99,99 % für Partikelgrößen bis hinunter zu 0,5 Mikron erreicht wird. Die erschöpften Filterpatronen werden extern verbrannt. Die dabei anfallende edelmetallhaltige Schlacke geht zurück in die Raffinerie und wird recycelt. Typische Emissionswerte einer kleinen bis mittelgroßen Edelmetallraffinerie mit acht Filtern sind in Tabelle 7.10 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.10: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221

Anlage	Minderungs- technik	Wert	Staub (mg/m ³)	Messwerterfassung	Mittelwertbildung
221	Patronenfilter	Mittelwert	1,12	kontinuierlich	Monatsmittelwert
		95. Perzentil	3,5		
		Max.	4,38		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 117 fallen bei der Gewinnung von Doré-Metall im Kaldo-Ofen zwei Schlacken an. Die Schlacke aus der ersten Stufe wird gebrochen und der Bleihütte vor Ort zugeführt. Die Schlacke aus der zweiten Stufe, sog. Konverterschlacke, wird gebrochen und geht zurück in den Kaldo-Ofen. Beide Schlacken werden in zwei Stufen zerkleinert. Die Vorzerkleinerung findet im Hauptproduktionsgebäude statt. Der Brecherbereich ist mit einer Quellenabsaugung ausgestattet, die an das zentrale Abgasersfassungssystem der Anlage angebunden ist. Die Abluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend über einen Kamin in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet (Die Emissionswerte sind in Abschnitt 7.3.3 aufgeführt).

Die vorgebrochene Schlacke gelangt anschließend in die Schlackennachzerkleinerungsstation, die in einer separaten Halle untergebracht und mit einem eigenen Absaugsystem ausgestattet ist. Die erfasste Abluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und anschließend über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben (siehe Tabelle 7.11).

Tabelle 7.11: Staubemissionswerte der Schlackennachzerkleinerungsstation in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117

Anlage 117 (Schlacken- nachzerkeinerung)	Minderungs- technik	Wert	Staub (mg/m ³)	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwertbildung
	Gewebe- filter	Min.	0,4	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	über Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	1,3		
		Max.	2,6		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die gebrochene Schlacke wird in Container abgefüllt und mittels Gabelstapler in die Bleierzeugung oder den Kaldo-Ofen überführt.

In Anlage 121 werden alle Einsatzstoffe für die Edelmetallraffination in einer geschlossenen Halle gelagert. Staubende Materialien werden in geschlossenen Behältern/Big Bags bevorratet und über abgesaugte geschlossene Bunker und geschlossene Fördersysteme der Verarbeitung zugeführt. Der Transport nichtstaubender oder großformatiger Materialien erfolgt mittels Radladern oder Hallenkran in geschlossenen Hallen mit flüssigkeitsdichtem Boden. Das Abgas wird in Gewebefiltern entstaubt (Die Emissionswerte sind in Abschnitt 7.3.3 aufgeführt, da das Abgas aus der Materialaufbereitung gemeinsam mit dem Abgas aus der Doré-Metall-Gewinnung entstaubt wird).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Stauberfassungs- und Entstaubungseinrichtungen. Dachabsaugungen sind besonders energieintensiv.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Wahl der Aufbereitungs- und nachgeschalteten Emissionsminderungstechniken ist abhängig vom eingesetzten Ofentyp und Schmelzprozess sowie der Art und Körnung der verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffe.

Hallenentlüftungssysteme können vorgesehen werden, wobei jedoch verschiedene Aspekte, wie z.B. die Partikelgröße, die Größe und Nutzung der Lagerhalle und die jeweilige Emissionssituation zu berücksichtigen sind.

Eine zentrale Entstaubungsanlage mit Patronenfiltern kann bei Neuanlagen angewendet werden, in denen pulverförmige oder staubende Materialien verarbeitet werden. Für die Anwendung in bestehenden Anlagen sind umfangreiche Ertüchtigungsmaßnahmen notwendig.

Gegenüber Patronenfiltern mit gefalteten Filterelementen bieten Gewebefilter den Vorteil einer einfacheren Wartung, einer geringeren Verstopfungsanfälligkeit und einer längeren Standzeit der Filtermedien. Mit Patronenfiltern lässt sich i.d.R. leichter ein vollautomatischer Betrieb

realisieren. Wegen ihres erheblich geringeren Platzbedarfs werden sie bevorzugt an Standorten mit begrenztem Platzangebot eingesetzt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten einschließlich Montage für ein kleines bis mittelgroßes Patronenfilter mit z.B. 18 Filterpatronen und einer Durchsatzleistung von 7500 m³/h liegen bei derzeitigen Preisen in der Größenordnung von EUR 0,25 Millionen [404, EPMF 2012].

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edelmetalle und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffe

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlage 112, 113, 117, 121, 205, 221, 318 und 2113

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Edelmetallschmelz- und -umschmelzprozessen (ausgenommen Prozesse zur Erzeugung von Doré-Metall)

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Förderaggregate für staubende Materialien (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- geschlossene Hallen und/oder geschlossene Schmelzofenbereiche (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Betrieb bei Unterdruck
- Anschluss der Schmelzöfen an Entstaubungseinrichtungen oder Abgaserfassungssysteme über Absaughauben und ein Abgaskanalssystem (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Abscheidung des erfassten Staubs in einer separaten oder zentralen Abgasreinigungsanlage mit Gewebefiltern (gelegentlich in Verbindung mit vorgeschalteten Zyklonen) oder Patronenfiltern
- elektrische Verriegelung der Ofenausrüstungen mit einem Staubabscheider oder Absaugsystem

An einigen Standorten werden, je nach Größe der Anlage und Gesamtkonfiguration des Hüttenbetriebs (Einzelanlage oder angegliedert an eine andere Metallraffinationsanlage), die bei der pyrometallurgischen Verarbeitung, z.B. beim Schmelzbetrieb, auftretenden Staubemissionen zusammen mit den Stäuben (und Rauchen) aus der Materialaufbereitung und -förderung sowie anderen staubträchtigen Prozessen, z.B. Umschmelzen, über ein zentrales System erfasst und abgereinigt. Daher sind die in Abschnitt 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.3 und 7.3.8 beschriebenen Techniken einander ähnlich.

Technische Beschreibung

Gekapselte Förderaggregate für staubende Materialien

Staubende Einsatzmaterialien werden über geschlossene Systeme (Förderanlagen, Container, geschlossene Verpackung) in den Schmelzofen aufgegeben. Nicht staubende Materialien können über offene Chargiermulden/Gefäße, ebenfalls im geschlossenen System, direkt in den Ofen chargiert werden.

Geschlossene Hallen und/oder geschlossene Schmelzofenbereiche

In geschlossenen Hallen können geeignete Absaugsysteme (z.B. Hallenabsaugung) oder Absaugungen an den Materialübergabe- und -abwurfstellen oder gleichwertige Maßnahmen (d.h. Materialbefeuchtung) vorgesehen werden.

Anschluss der Schmelzöfen an Entstaubungseinrichtungen oder Abgaserfassungssysteme über Absaughauben und ein Abgaskanalssystem

Die Öfen sind gekapselt und an eine Absaughaube angeschlossen. Bei Metall-/Schlackeabstich- bzw. Gießvorgängen kann die Aufnahmepfanne mit einer Einhausung umgeben werden. Die Pfannen verbleiben bis zum Erstarren der Schmelze in der Einhausung.

Die Öfen können mit einem wassergekühlten Deckel verschlossen werden, der gleichzeitig als Haube zur Absaugung des Prozessabgases dient. Zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen kann der Ofen zusätzlich innerhalb einer Einhausung aufgestellt werden.

Zur Erfassung von Staub und Rauchen/Dämpfen werden die Hauben/Einhausungen an ein Absaugsystem angeschlossen. Das erfasste Abgas kann zusammen mit den Abgasen aus den Chargier-/Abstich- und Gießbereichen in einer gemeinsamen Abgasreinigungsanlage gereinigt werden.

Abscheidung des erfassten Staubs

Es kommen Gewebefilter und Patronenfilter zum Einsatz. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Der abgeschiedene Flugstaub und die erschöpften Filterelemente des Staubabscheiders werden betriebsintern oder in einer externen Raffinationsanlage zwecks Rückgewinnung von Edel- oder anderen Wertmetallen recycelt, entweder durch direktes Einschmelzen oder Pelletieren nach oder Anreicherung auf nasschemischem Wege nach entsprechender Vorbehandlung (Beim Materialumschlag und der Aufbereitung fallen keine festen Abfallstoffe an.)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Laut vorliegender Daten zu Anlage 221 (siehe Beschreibung in Abschnitt 7.3.1) werden mit einem mittelgroßen Patronenfilter mit achtzig Filterpatronen und einer Durchsatzleistung von 30 000 m³/h folgende typische Reingaswerte erreicht.

Tabelle 7.12: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221

Minderungstechnik	Wert	Staub	Messwernerfassung	Mittelwertbildung
		mg/Nm ³		
Patronenfilter	Mittelwert	1,12	kontinuierlich	Monatsmittelwert
	95. Perzentil	3,5		
	Max.	4,38		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 2426 werden alle bleihaltigen Abfälle, die Silber enthalten können, in einem Drehtrommelofen eingeschmolzen. Das Schmelzofenabgas weist hohe Bleianteile auf, die hauptsächlich aus Bleiverbindungen und Bleidämpfen herrühren. Die Silberkonzentration im Abgas ist dagegen vernachlässigbar, da Silber nur als geringfügige Verunreinigung in den Einsatzstoffen vorliegt. Dessen ungeachtet werden alle festen Einsatzstoffe (verarbeitete Rückstände und Zwischenprodukte aus der internen Produktion) unabhängig davon ob diese Blei oder Silber enthalten, als potenziell gefährliche Stoffe behandelt, da sie andere toxische Stoffe enthalten können.

Staub- und Rauchemissionen treten in Anlage 2426 bei folgenden typischen Schmelz- und Umschmelzprozessen auf:

- Einschmelzen von mit Silber verunreinigten bleihaltigen Abfällen in einem Drehtrommelofen
- Vergießen der Schlacke in Blöcke
- Vergießen des zurückgewonnen mit Silber verunreinigten Bleis

Der Drehtrommelofen ist eintritts- und austrittsseitig mit Absaughauben ausgestattet, die über ein Abgaskanalssystem an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen sind. Das Absaugsystem ist für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von 160 000 m³/h ausgelegt. Zusätzlich ist die große Absaughaube auf der Eintrittsseite, über welche die Chargiertür- und Gießbereiche abgesaugt werden, an zwei zusätzliche Gewebefilter angeschlossen, die jeweils für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von 34 000 m³/h ausgelegt sind. Staub und Rauche/Dämpfe werden abgesaugt und in Entstaubungseinrichtungen abgereinigt. Das gereinigte Abgas wird über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben. Mit Gewebefiltern wird eine Entstaubungsleistung von > 99,99 % für Partikelgrößen bis hinunter zu 0,5 Mikron erreicht.

Tabelle 7.13: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2426

Minderungstechnik	Wert	Staub	Messwerterfassung	Mittelwertbildung
		mg/Nm ³		
Gewebefilter	Min.	0,15	kontinuierlich	Monatsmittelwert
	Mittelwert	0,3		
	Max.	1,1		
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>				

Der abgeschiedene Flugstaub wird zwecks Rückgewinnung von Blei und Silber über den Drehtrommelofen in den Raffinationsprozess zurückgeführt. Die Kamine sind mit Impaktor-Staubmessgeräten ausgestattet, die bei einer sich anbahnenden Betriebsstörung eine Alarmmeldung auslösen. Alarmmeldungen werden an den rund um die Uhr besetzten Werkssicherheitsdienst übertragen, der sicherstellt, dass geeignete Maßnahmen eingeleitet werden. Die Sensoren sind so eingestellt, dass bei einem voreingestellten Staubemissionswert von 5 mg/m³ im Stundenmittel eine Alarmmeldung erfolgt.

Das Abgas aller Silbergewinnungsprozesse wird über ein gemeinsames Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Die typische Silberkonzentration liegen bei ca. 1 % des Gesamtgewichts des Filterstaubs und ca. 1,6 % des typischen Bleigehalts.

Vom Betreiber der Anlage 112 wurden ebenfalls Emissionswerte für den Drehtrommelofen berichtet, die in

Tabelle 7.14 zusammengestellt sind.

Tabelle 7.14: Emissionswerte des Drehtrommelofens in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 112

Minderungs- technik	Volumen- strom	Luft- schad- stoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
	Nm ³ /h			mg/Nm ³		
Zyklon, Gaskühler, Gewebefilter	36 090	Staub	Mittelwert	0,30	diskontinuier- lich (6 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahme- dauer
			Max.	0,30		
		Gesamt- kohlen- stoff	Min.	0,6	kontinuierlich	Halbstunden- mittelwert
			Mittelwert	6,7		
			Max.	37,7		
		HCl	Mittelwert	0,13	diskontinuier- lich (6 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahme- dauer
			Cl ₂	Mittelwert		
				Max.		
			PCDD/F	Mittelwert		
		Hg		Min.		
			Mittelwert	0,0032		
			Max.	0,0095		
		Tl	Min.	0,00002		
			Mittelwert	0,00003		
			Max.	0,00003		
		Pb	Min.	0,001		
			Mittelwert	0,0016		
			Max.	0,0028		
		Co	Min.	0,00002		
			Mittelwert	0,0001		
			Max.	0,0004		
		Ni	Min.	0,0008		
			Mittelwert	0,002		
			Max.	0,0046		
		Se	Min.	0,0407		
			Mittelwert	0,0469		
			Max.	0,0572		
		Te	Min.	0,00001		
			Mittelwert	0,0001		
			Max.	0,0001		
		Sb	Min.	0,0001		
			Mittelwert	0,0001		
			Max.	0,0001		
Cr	Min.	0,0006				
	Mittelwert	0,0025				
	Max.	0,0092				
Cu	Min.	0,0098				
	Mittelwert	0,0162				
	Max.	0,026				
Mn	Min.	0,0004				
	Mittelwert	0,0031				
	Max.	0,0106				
V	Min.	0,00002				
	Mittelwert	0,00003				
	Max.	0,00003				
Sn	Min.	0,0004	diskontinuier- lich	über die Probenahme- dauer		
	Mittelwert	0,0007				
	Max.	0,0018				
As	Min.	0,00003				

			Mittelwert	0,00005		
			Max.	0,00011		
		Cd	Min.	0,0001		
			Mittelwert	0,0007		
			Max.	0,0026		
			Cr(VI)	Min.		
		Mittelwert		0,0002		
			Max.	0,0003		
			Be	Min.		
		Mittelwert		0,000015		
			Max.	0,00003		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Stauberfassungs- und Entstaubungssysteme
- Einsatz von Hilfsstoffen/Flussmitteln zur Stabilisierung und Steigerung der Effizienz der Schmelzreaktionen und Vermeidung der Bildung flüchtiger Metallverbindungen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Patronenfilter können in Neuanlagen und bei umfangreicheren Ertüchtigungen bestehender Anlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten einschließlich Montage für ein Patronenfilter mittlerer Größe (80 Filterpatronen) liegen bei derzeitigen Preisen in der Größenordnung von EUR 1–1,5 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlage 112, 121, 205, 221, 318, 2113 und 2426

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der pyrometallurgischen Erzeugung von Doré-Metall

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Schmelzaggregate, geeignete Gehäuse/Hauben, Einhausungen und abgedeckte Waschbehälter mit wirksamer Absaugung und Reinigung des erfassten Abgases in Abgasreinigungsanlagen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Nassentstaubungssysteme (Quenche, Venturiwäscher, Nass-EGR)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- SO₂-Rückgewinnung in einer Schwefelsäureanlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2) oder einem SO₂-Wäscher (Peroxidwäsche)
- Rückgewinnung des mit dem Abgas ausgetragenen Selens und Ausfällung aus der wässrigen Lösung

An einigen Standorten wird, je nach Größe der Anlage und Gesamtkonfiguration des Hüttenbetriebs (z.B. Einzelanlage oder angegliedert an eine andere Metallraffinationsanlage), der bei der pyrometallurgischen Erzeugung von Doré-Metall freigesetzte Staub zusammen mit den Stäuben (und Rauchen) aus der Materialaufbereitung und -förderung sowie anderen staubträchtigen Prozessen, z.B. Umschmelzen, über ein zentrales System erfasst und abgereinigt. Daher sind die in Abschnitt 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.3 und 7.3.8 beschriebenen Techniken einander ähnlich.

Technische Beschreibung

Gekapselte Schmelzaggregate, geeignete Gehäuse/Hauben, Einhausungen und abgedeckte Waschbehälter mit wirksamer Absaugung und Reinigung des erfassten Abgases in Abgasreinigungsanlagen

Einsatzstoffe, wie z.B. Anodenschlämme, werden über geschlossene und abgesaugte Aufgabebunker und Zuteilbänder in den Trockner aufgegeben. Staubende Materialien werden in geschlossenen Big Bags bevorratet und über geschlossene und abgesaugte Aufgabebunker in einem vollständig geschlossenen System in den Kaldo-/TBRC-Ofen chargiert. Nicht staubende und großstückige Materialien werden über offene Chargiermulden/Gefäße, ebenfalls innerhalb einer Einhausung, direkt in den Ofen chargiert. Alle Beschickungsvorgänge finden unter einer Absaughaube statt.

Der Ofen wird bei Unterdruck betrieben. Der Kaldo-/TBRC-Ofen ist gekapselt und wird über eine Absaughaube abgesaugt. Die Aufnahmepfanne ist gekapselt oder steht während Metall-/Schlackenabstich- bzw. Gießvorgängen in einer Einhausung, in der sie bis zum Erstarren der Schmelze verbleibt. Der Treibkonverter (TBRC/TROF/BBOC) zur Raffination von mit Edelmetallen angereicherten Legierungen aus der Kupfer-/Bleiproduktion wird mit großstückigem, schwefel- und selenfreiem Material beschickt. Der Ofen ist mit einem wassergekühlten Deckel verschlossen, der gleichzeitig auch als Haube zur Absaugung des Prozessabgases dient. Zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen ist der Ofen zusätzlich eingehaust. Natriumcarbonat und sonstige Flussmittel für die Raffination werden in geschlossenen Bunkern bevorratet und über ein geschlossenes System aufgegeben.

Doré-Metall kann auch durch Zinkverdampfung unter Vakuum in der Vakuumretorte (VR) gewonnen werden. Flussmittel werden hierzu nicht benötigt. Es handelt sich um einen geschlossenen Prozesskreislauf. Das Vergießen in Barren erfolgt unter einer Absaughaube, die an ein Gewebefilter angeschlossen ist.

Zur Erfassung von Dämpfen/Rauchen werden die Hauben/Einhausungen an ein Absaugsystem angeschlossen. Die Abgasreinigung erfolgt über die vorhandene Abgasreinigungsanlage für die Chargier-/Abstichbereiche und die Doré-/Silberanoden-Gießstände.

Nassentstaubungssysteme, Gewebefilter und SO₂-Rückgewinnung in einer Schwefelsäureanlage oder einem SO₂-Wäscher (Peroxidverfahren)

Selenhaltige Prozessabgase (der Öfen in der Schmelz-/Konverterstufe) werden gekühlt/gequench und anschließend in einem Venturiwäscher, Nassgaszyklon und/oder einem Nass-EGR gereinigt. Die Abgasentschwefelung erfolgt, soweit notwendig, in einer Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage oder einem SO₂-Waschturm oder einem Trockensorptionsverfahren. Das Abgas aus der separaten Selen-Röstung wird erfasst und in hochleistungsfähigen Entstaubungssystemen von Staub befreit.

Trockene, selenfreie Ofenabgase (Treibofen zum Einschmelzen von Doré-Metall/Endraffinationsstufe oder Schmelzöfen mit vorgeschalteter Vorröstung) können in Gewebefiltern entstaubt werden.

Die an den verschiedenen Emissionsquellen abgesaugten Sekundärabgase werden gewöhnlich zusammengeführt und in Gewebefiltern gereinigt.

Rückgewinnung von Selen und Wertmetallen

Selen wird verflüchtigt und in einem Venturiwäscher und/oder Nass-EGR aus dem Schmelzofenabgas zurückgewonnen. Die im Nassentstaubungssystem anfallende Feststoffsuspension wird mit Natriumhydroxid behandelt und/oder in einer (indirekt dampfbeheizten Filterpresse) entwässert. Der Filtrerrückstand geht in den Prozess zurück. Aus der Lösung wird unter weiterer Erhitzung elementares Selen durch Reduktion mit Schwefeldioxidgas ausgefällt. Das verbleibende Abwasser wird entweder in einer AWA behandelt (physikalisch-chemische Behandlung) oder in einer Schwefelsäureanlage verwertet.

Selenhaltige Schlämme können vor dem Einschmelzen abgeröstet werden. Zu diesem Zweck wird das Selen unter Zugabe von Sauerstoff und Schwefeldioxid in einem elektrisch beheizten Ofen zu Selendioxid umgesetzt und verflüchtigt. Aus dem Abgas wird das Selendioxid durch Absorption in einer wässrigen Lösung und Reduktion zu elementarem Selen abgeschieden.

Prozessrückstände, wie z.B. die Schlacken aus den verschiedenen Raffinationsstufen, der in den Gewebefiltern abgeschiedene Staub, Reststoffe aus der Nassentstaubung, usw., werden intern oder extern zwecks Metallrückgewinnung aufgearbeitet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub-, Metall- und SO₂-Emissionen
- An Standorten, die an Schwefelsäureanlagen angebunden sind, wird das SO₂-haltige Abgas in der Säureanlage zu Schwefelsäure weiterverarbeitet, die betriebsintern genutzt oder an Dritte weiterverkauft wird.
- Das Selen wird aus dem Ofenabgas zurückgewonnen.
- Alle potenziell wertmetallhaltigen Reststoffe aus der Nassentstaubung (Filterschlamm) werden in den Raffinationsprozess zurückgeführt. Der in den Gewebefiltern abgeschiedene Staub wird intern oder extern zwecks Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstigen Wertmetallen recycelt. Neben Rohstoffeinsparungen wird so auch eine Reduzierung des Aufkommens an festen Abfallstoffen erreicht.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 117 ist die Edelmetallraffinationsanlage an eine Kupferraffinationsanlage angeschlossen. Hauptausgangsstoffe für die Doré-Metall-Erzeugung sind daher getrocknete Anodenschlämme aus der Kupferraffinationselektrolyse und sonstige Kreislaufmaterialien aus dem Edelmetallgewinnungsprozess. Die Schlämme werden zunächst in einem indirekt beheizten Dampftrockner getrocknet. Das Trockengut wird über hermetisch geschlossene Fördersysteme in den Aufgabebunker des Kaldo-Ofens überführt und von dort über ein (ebenfalls hermetisch geschlossenes) System in den Ofen chargiert. Einige weitere Einsatzmaterialien, wie z.B. gebrochene Retourschlacke oder Silberzementat, werden direkt (ohne Vortrocknung) in den Aufgabebunker gefördert und von dort über ein hermetisch geschlossenes Beschickungssystem in den Kaldo-Ofen aufgegeben. Zuschläge werden direkt über den Ofenmund in den Kaldo-Ofen eingebracht. Alle Beschickungsbereiche sind mit Absaugsystemen ausgestattet. Der Kaldo-Ofen ist vollständig von einer Haube umschlossen.

Das Abgas des Kaldo-Ofens wird in einem Venturiwäscher entstaubt und anschließend (als zusätzlicher Gasstrom) der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage in der Kupferhütte zugeführt. Der Abgasstrom aus dem Kaldo-Ofen mit einem SO₂-Gehalt von 1,5–12 g/m³ macht etwa 4 % des der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführten Gesamtgasvolumenstroms aus.

Tabelle 7.15: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117

Minderungs- technik	Luft- schadstoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
			mg/Nm ³		
Venturiwäscher und Doppelkontakt- Schwefelsäureanlage mit nachgeschaltetem Nebelabscheider	SO ₂	Min.	140	kontinuierlich	Stunden- mittelwert
		Mittelwert	186		
		Max.	800		
	NO _x	Min.	280		
		Mittelwert	299		
		Max.	640		
	H ₂ SO ₄	Min.	37	diskontinuierlich (12 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	77		
		Max.	200		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage verfügt über ein zentrales Abgaserfassungssystem mit zwei Gewebefiltern und zwei Kaminen. An dieses System sind die folgenden Emissionsquellen angeschlossen:

- Materialtrocknung
- Materialvorbereitungshalle
- Absaughaube des Kaldo-Ofens und der Anodenofenbereich
- Trocknerbeschickungsbereich und -aufgabebunker
- Schlackenvorzerkleinerung
- sonstige Einrichtungen der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage

Tabelle 7.16: Emissionswerte der zentralen Abgaserfassung- und –reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117

Minderungstechnik	Luft- schadstoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwerterfassung	Mittelwertbildung
			mg/Nm ³		
Gewebefilter	Staub	Min.	0,1	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahmedauer
		Mittelwert	0,23		
		Max.	0,3		
SO ₂	Min.	14,6			
	Mittelwert	40,15			
	Max.	64,24			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die bei der Nassentstaubung anfallende Feststoffsuspension wird mit Natriumhydroxid neutralisiert, wobei Blei und andere Restmetalle ausgefällt werden. Der Fällschlamm wird in einer Filterpresse entwässert und in den Trockner zurückgeführt. Aus dem Filtrat wird Selen durch Erhitzen und Einleitung von gasförmigem Schwefeldioxid ausgefällt. Anschließend wird das Selen in einer Filterpresse abgefiltert, gewaschen und durch Einblasen von Luft getrocknet. Das Abwasser wird in die Teilstrombehandlungsanlage vor Ort abgeleitet und dort mit Kalkmilch neutralisiert und gefiltert. Der Filterschlamm wird dem Kupferkonzentrat vor der Brikettieranlage beigemischt und in die Kupferschächtofen aufgegeben. Die gefilterte Lösung wird in den Sauerwasserkanal der Kupferhütte geleitet und abschließend neutralisiert und geflockt.

Das im Kaldo-Ofen erzeugte Doré-Metall wird in eine Pfanne abgestochen und mittels Hallenkran in den Anodenofen überführt. Rohsilber wird erhitzt und zu Silberanoden vergossen. Die Anodengießhalle ist mit einem lokalen Absaugsystem (Quellenabsaugung) ausgestattet. Das im Bereich des Anodenofens erfasste Sekundärabgas und das Prozessabgas des Anodenofens werden gemeinsam in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Der im Gewebefilter abgeschiedene Staub wird über ein geschlossenes Rohrleitungssystem in den Kaldo-Ofen zurückgeführt.

In Anlage 121 werden mit Edelmetallen angereicherte Anodenschlämme aus der Kupferproduktion und die edelmetallhaltige Legierung aus der Bleiraffination verarbeitet. Der entkupferte Schlamm wird zunächst getrocknet und dann im Kaldo-/TBRC-Ofen eingeschmolzen, um die Basismetalle in die Schlacke zu überführen und eine Edelmetallrohlegierung zu erhalten. Selen wird im Schmelzprozess verflüchtigt, in der Gaswäsche abgeschieden und als Rohselen ausgefällt, das in den Verkauf geht. Die edelmetallhaltigen Legierungen aus den verschiedenen Produktionslinien (Blei, Kupfer, Zukauf) werden miteinander vermischt und in einem zweiten Ofen (TROF, TBRC) raffiniert, wobei eine Edelmetalllegierung/silberreiches Doré-Metall/Rohsilber entsteht, das zu Silberanoden vergossen wird.

Der Anodenschlamm wird über geschlossene Aufgabebunker und geschlossene Beschickungssysteme in den Trockner aufgegeben. Förderbänder und Bunker werden entleert. Staubende Materialien werden in Big Bags bevorratet und direkt aus den Big Bags in gekapselte und abgesaugte Bunker entleert. Nicht staubende/großstückige Materialien werden über Chargierkübel/Chargiergefäße aufgegeben. Die Beschickung des TBRC erfolgt über ein allseitig geschlossenes System.

Die Trocknung erfolgt in einem indirekt beheizten Dampftrockner, der über ein geschlossenes und abgesaugtes System beschickt wird. Das Trocknerabgas wird zusammen mit dem Sekundärabgas des Kaldo-Ofens (TBRC 1) und der Bleiraffinationsanlage in einem gemeinsamen Gewebefilter entstaubt. Das Trockengut wird in geschlossenen Bunkern bevorratet und über geschlossene Aufgabebunker in den Ofen chargiert.

Der Kaldo-Ofen (TBRC 1) ist gekapselt und wird über eine Haube abgesaugt. Das Primärabgas wird in einer Quenche schnell heruntergekühlt (von 600 °C auf 80 °C) und durchläuft anschließend einen Venturiwäscher, ein Nassgaszyklon und Nass-EGR. Danach wird es der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage zur SO₂-Rückgewinnung zugeführt oder in einem SO₂-Wäscher entschwefelt. Die Feststoffsuspension aus dem Quenchturm und Venturiwäscher wird in einer (indirekt mit Dampf beheizten) Filterpresse entwässert und der Filterschlamm in den TBRC zurückgeführt. Die wässrige Lösung wird in der Nassgasreinigung zur Selenanreicherung und anschließenden Ausfällung als Rohselen genutzt. Nach Behandlung in der Schwefelsäureanlage hat das Abgas einen SO₂-Gehalt von 270–1080 mg/m³ (Tagesmittelwert).

Die Sekundärabgase unterschiedlicher Herkunft (z.B. Kaldo-Ofen (TBRC 1) und Bleiraffinerie) werden zusammengeführt und in zwei Gewebefiltern gereinigt.

Tabelle 7.17: Staubemissionen über das Sekundärabgas nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 121

Minderungstechnik	Max. Volumenstrom	Wert	Staub	Messwertfassung	Mittelwertbildung
	Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³		
Gewebefilter	40 000	Min.	< 0,5	kontinuierlich	Tagesmittelwert
		Max.	2,0		Halbstundenmittelwert
		Min.	< 0,5		
		Max.	8,0		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Der Treibofen (TBRC 2) ist in einer großen Einhausung aufgestellt. Als Ausgangsstoffe dienen schwefel- und selenfreie, großstückige Materialien. Natriumcarbonat und sonstige Flussmittel für die Raffination werden in geschlossenen Bunkern bevorratet und über ein geschlossenes System aufgegeben. Der Ofen ist mit einem wassergekühlten Deckel verschlossen, der gleichzeitig als Haube zur Absaugung des Prozessabgases dient. Zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen ist eine zusätzliche Ofeneinhausung vorgesehen. Beide Hauben sind an ein

Absaugsystem angebunden. Das Prozessabgas des Treibofens (TBRC 2) wird zusammen mit dem Sekundärabgas in einem eigenen Gewebefilter gereinigt.

Tabelle 7.18: Staubemissionen aus diversen Quellen (Treibofen und Sekundärabgas) nach Abgasreinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 121

Minderungs- technik	Max. Volumenstrom	Wert	Staub	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwertbildung
	Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³		
Gewebefilter	50 000	Min.	< 0,5	kontinuierlich	Tagesmittelwert
		Max.	2,0		Halbstundenmittelwert
		Min.	< 0,5		
		Max.	4,0		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 27 erfolgt die Selenabtrennung und -rückgewinnung durch Abrösten des entkupferten Anodenschlammes und Verflüchtigung als Selendioxyd unter Zugabe von Sauerstoff und Schwefeldioxyd als Reagenzien. Aus dem Abgas wird das Selendioxyd durch Absorption in einer wässrigen Lösung und Reduktion zu elementarem Selen abgeschieden. Staub wird an den Waschflüssigkeitströpfchen abgeschieden und findet sich in den Fällungsbehältern wieder. Der durchschnittliche Reingasstaubgehalt nach der Selenabscheidung liegt bei < 25 mg/Nm³. Der nun selenfreie Anodenschlamm wird in einem TROF-Konverter eingeschmolzen, reduziert und raffiniert. Das so erzeugte Doré-Metall wird anschließend zu Anoden vergossen. Das Prozessabgas und Sekundärabgas werden getrennt in zwei Gewebefiltern entstaubt. Die Staubkonzentration der zusammengeführten Abgasströme (18 000 Nm³/h) nach dem Gewebefilter ist in Tabelle 7.19 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.19: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 27

Minderungs- technik	Wert	Staub	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwertbildung
		mg/Nm ³		
Gewebefilter	Mittelwert	10	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahmedauer

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 219 wird der Anodenschlamm nach Laugung getrocknet, mit Schlackenbildnern (z.B. Natriumcarbonat und Koks) gemischt und anschließend zur Entfernung von Verunreinigungen und Erzeugung von Doré-Metall zum anschließenden Vergießen niedergeschmolzen und konvertiert. Selen wird im Schmelzprozess verflüchtigt, in einem Venturiwäscher und Nass-EGR aus der Gasphase zurückgewonnen und als Rohselen aus der Waschflüssigkeit ausgefällt. Des Weiteren sind ein EGR sowie ein Waschturm zur Abgasentschwefelung vorgesehen. Das Sekundärhaubenabgas und Trocknerabgas werden in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die Staubemissionen sind in Tabelle 7.20 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 7.20: Staubemissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 219

Minderungs- technik	Volumenstrom	Wert	Staub	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
	Nm ³ /h		mg/Nm ³		
EGR + Nasswäscher	7 000	Min.	< 0,5	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	über die Proben- nahme- dauer

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 2113 wird Doré-Metall aus diversen Zwischenprodukten mit hohem Edelmetallgehalt gewonnen. Zur Reduzierung von SO₂-Emissionen wird Kalk in den Ofenabgasstrom eingeblasen und das Reaktionsprodukt zusammen mit dem Staub in einem Gewebefilter abgeschieden. Die Abluft aus der Hallenabsaugung wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Die Staubemissionswerte nach der Prozessabgas- und Hallenabluftreinigung sind jeweils in Tabelle 7.21 und Tabelle 7.22 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.21: Emissionen über das Prozessabgas nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113

Minderungs-technik	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Luftschadstoff	Wert	Einheit (mg/Nm ³)	Messwert-erfassung	Mittelwert-bildung
Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter (Prozessgas)	18 500	Staub	Min.	0,02	diskontinuierlich (5 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahmedauer
			Mittelwert	0,10		
			Max.	0,14		
		SO ₂	Min.	62	diskontinuierlich (15 x pro Jahr)	
			Mittelwert	248		
			Max.	620 ⁽¹⁾		

⁽¹⁾ Die Werte basieren auf einer Probenahmedauer von 1–2 Stunden. Über den gesamten Messzyklus (ca. 12 h) lagen die berichteten Werte zwischen 250 mg/Nm³ und 480 mg/Nm³.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 7.22: Emissionen über die Hallenabluft nach Reinigung in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113

Minderungs-technik	Volumenstrom (Nm ³ /h)	Luftschadstoff	Wert	Einheit (mg/Nm ³)	Messwert-erfassung	Mittelwert-bildung
Gewebefilter (Hallenabsaugung)	115 000	Staub	Mittelwert	0,05	diskontinuierlich	über die Probenahmedauer
			(90. Perzentil)	0,06		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 2426 wird aus Silberverunreinigungen, die im Zuge der Bleiraffination entfernt werden, Doré-Metall erzeugt. Die Anlage ist mit Einrichtungen zur Vermeidung von Emissionen in die Luft, wie z.B. gekapselte Öfen, geeignete Einhausungen/Absaughauben, ausgestattet. Beim Gießen der Metallblöcke wird das Prozessabgas über eine Haube abgesaugt und einem Gewebefilter mit einer Durchsatzleistung von 160 000 m³/h zugeführt, in dem alle Abgasströme des Silberkreislaufs entstaubt werden. Der Filterstaub wird dem Drehtrommelofen im Silberkreislauf zwecks Metallrückgewinnung zugeführt. In Anlage 2426 besteht das Doré-Metall aus verunreinigtem Silber, das bei der Entzinkung im Zuge der Silberrefinierung anfällt. Zink wird durch Verflüchtigung unter Vakuum in einer Vakuumretorte abgetrennt. Das Doré-Metall wird direkt aus dem Ofen in Kokillen vergossen. Die resultierenden Silberbarren sind mit Blei und Kupfer verunreinigt und haben einen Silbergehalt von unter 80%: Das Vergießen erfolgt unter einer Absaughaube, die an das oben beschriebene zentrale Gewebefilter des Silberkreislaufs angeschlossen ist.

In Anlage 2426 wird das Abgas aller Silbergewinnungsprozesse über ein gemeinsames Gewebefilter abgesaugt und gereinigt. Die typischen Silberkonzentrationen liegen bei ca. 1 % des Gesamtgewichts des Filterstaubs und ca. 1,6 % des typischen Bleigehalts.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Abgaserfassungs-, Filter-, Entstaubungseinrichtungen und Wäschersysteme
- Einsatz von Flussmitteln zur Steigerung der Effizienz der Schmelzreaktionen und Vermeidung der Bildung flüchtiger Metallverbindungen
- Die Abgasentschwefelung ist mit dem Einsatz von Reagenzien verbunden (z.B. H₂O₂ für Nasswäscher oder Kalk für die Trockenkonditionierung mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter).

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden.

Nassentstaubung und Selenrückgewinnung können bei allen Abgasen, die verflüchtigtes Selen enthalten, eingesetzt werden.

Gewebefilter eignen sich generell zur Entstaubung von trockenen (selenfreien) Abgasen und Abgasen aus der Sekundärabsaugung.

Die SO₂-Rückgewinnung in Doppelkontaktanlagen wird vorwiegend in Edelmetallraffinerien angewandt, die in Primärkupferhütten integriert sind, da letztere über eine Schwefelsäureanlage verfügen. Alternativ kommt ein SO₂-Wäscher zum Einsatz.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlagen 27, 117, 121, 318, 2113 und 2426

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der (elektrolytischen) Silber- und Goldraffination

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen
- geschlossene Tanks/Behälter und geschlossene Rohrleitungen zur Förderung von Lösungen (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Hauben und Abgaserfassungssysteme für die Elektrolysezellen, soweit erforderlich (z.B. Goldelektrolyse) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Wasserschleiersysteme
- Rückführung der Lösungen in den Prozess
- Verwertung von Nebenprodukten zur Gewinnung von Edelmetallen
- Rückgewinnung von Salpetersäure aus Abgasen mit hohem NO_x-Gehalt
- Reinigung des Abgases aus der Goldelektrolyse mittels alkalischer Wäsche mit einer NaOH-Lösung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)

Technische Beschreibung

Die elektrolitische Silberaffination erfolgt in Elektrolysezellen unter Verwendung von Titan- oder Edelstahlkathoden und Silberanoden aus Doré-Metall. Als Elektrolyt dient eine schwachsaure Silbernitratlösung. Durch Anlegen eines Gleichstroms zwischen den Elektroden wandern die anodisch gelösten Silberionen zu den Kathoden und scheiden sich dort als Silberkristalle ab. Die Kristalle werden von den Kathoden abgestreift, am Boden der Elektrolysezellen gesammelt und ausgetragen und anschließend gewaschen, gefiltert und getrocknet. Zur Elektrolytreinigung und Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Silbers durch Zementation wird periodisch ein Elektrolyteilstrom ausgeschleust.

Die in den Anodensäcken gesammelten Schlämme werden gewaschen, gefiltert und anschließend zur Rückgewinnung des enthaltenen Golds und der Platinmetalle aufgearbeitet. Die Goldgewinnung erfolgt mittels Gold-Elektrolyse oder hydrometallurgischer Verfahren nach Laugung des Anodenschlammes mit Salpetersäure. Nach der Laugung wird der Goldsand zu Anoden vergossen. Als Elektrolyt dient eine Lösung aus Salzsäure und Tetrachlorgoldsäure. Durch Anlegen eines Gleichstroms zwischen den Elektroden wandern die anodisch gelösten Goldionen zu den Kathoden und scheiden sich dort ab.

Eine weitere Möglichkeit zur Goldrückgewinnung ist die salzsaure Laugung der Schlämme/des Goldsands in Gegenwart von Oxidantien (HNO_3 , Cl_2 , H_2O_2 , usw.) und anschließende selektive Reduktion und Fällung.

Prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen

Bei Elektroraffinationsverfahren werden Zellenkonstruktion, Anoden-Kathodenabstand, Anodengeometrie, Stromdichte, Elektrolytzusammensetzung, Badtemperatur und -umlauf optimiert, um einen niedrigeren Energieverbrauch und eine hohe Produktivität zu erzielen.

Geschlossene Tanks/Behälter und geschlossene Rohrleitungen zur Förderung der Lösungen

Es werden geschlossene Tanks /Vorratsbehälter für Elektrolyte und geschlossene Behälter für die Dosierung von Reagenzien (Kupferstaub, Soda) zur Elektrolytreinigung und Silberzementation eingesetzt. Die Vorratsbehälter/Tanks sind doppelwandig ausgeführt oder werden in beständigen Auffangwannen aufgestellt. Der Boden der Auffangwanne ist flüssigkeitsdicht und säurebeständig ausgeführt. Prozesslösungen/Elektrolyte werden in geschlossenen Rohrleitungen gefördert.

Die Silberkristalle werden über geschlossene Fördersysteme in Sammelbehälter ausgetragen oder durch Herausheben der Bodeneinlage aus der Elektrolysezelle entnommen.

Die salpetersaure Laugung des Anodenschlammes (vor der Goldelektrolyse) erfolgt in geschlossenen Behältern.

Geschlossene und abgesaugte Reaktionsbehälter werden ebenfalls bei der Anodenschlammreinigung mit Salzsäure oder sonstigen Lösemitteln oder Lösemittelgemischen sowie in den nachgeschalteten Reduktions- und Goldfällstufen eingesetzt.

Durch regelmäßige Inspektion und vorbeugende Wartung der Zellen, Vorratsbehälter, Rohrleitungen, Pumpen und Reinigungssysteme werden die Dichtigkeit des Systems sichergestellt und Leckagen vermieden.

Hauben und Abgasfassungssysteme für die Elektrolysezellen, soweit erforderlich (z.B. Goldelektrolyse)

Die Anodenschlammwäsche erfolgt innerhalb eines geschlossenen Systems oder einer Einhausung.

Zur Erfassung des sich an der Anode bildenden Chlorgases sind die Gold-Elektrolysezellen mit Hauben/integrierten Kapselungen und Abgasfassungssystemen ausgestattet.

Wasserschleiersysteme

Diese Technik kann zur Vermeidung von Chlorgasemissionen bei der Anodenschlammlaugung mit Salzsäure oder sonstigen Lösemitteln eingesetzt werden.

Rückführung der Lösungen in den Prozess

Die Entleerungssysteme sind geschlossen ausgeführt, und alle gesammelten Lösungen werden in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Verwertung von Nebenprodukten zur Rückgewinnung von Edelmetallen

- Der verbrauchte Elektrolyt aus der Silberelektrolyse und die beim Waschen des Anodenschlammes anfallenden verbrauchten Waschlösungen werden unter Rückgewinnung von Silber aufgereinigt. Verbrauchte Anoden werden zwecks Metallrückgewinnung erneut eingeschmolzen. Metallhaltige Rückstände aus der Elektrolytreinigung (Silberzementat, Kupfercarbonatrückstand) werden intern verwertet,
- Der verbrauchte Elektrolyt aus der Goldelektrolyse wird gereinigt, um das enthaltene Gold zurückzugewinnen. Verbrauchte Anoden werden zwecks Metallrückgewinnung wieder eingeschmolzen. Gold- und platinmetallhaltige Schlämme werden aufgearbeitet und die zurückgewonnenen Edelmetalle weiter raffiniert.
- Lösungen aus der Goldlaugung werden unter Rückgewinnung von Gold und Platinmetallen aufgereinigt.
- Die mit Platinmetallen angereicherten Lösungen werden intern oder extern zwecks Gewinnung von Platingruppenmetallen aufgearbeitet.

Rückgewinnung von Salpetersäure aus Abgasen mit hohem NO_x-Gehalt

NO_x-haltige Gase aus der salpetersauren Anodenschlammlaugung werden über ein separates Abgaskanalssystem erfasst und in Nasswäschern unter Rückgewinnung von Salpetersäure behandelt/gereinigt.

Reinigung des Abgases aus der Goldelektrolyse mittels alkalischer Wäsche mit einer NaOH-Lösung

Das Abgas aus den Goldelektrolysezellen wird erfasst und in einem alkalischen Wäscher unter Verwendung einer wässrigen NaOH-Lösung gereinigt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen
- Effizienter Energieeinsatz
- Metallrückgewinnung und Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Abfallfreie Prozesse

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 117 ist der Raum, in dem die elektrolytische Silberraffination und Silberzementation stattfinden, mit einer Be- und Entlüftungsanlage ausgestattet. Die Abluft wird über einen Kamin über Dach abgeleitet, wobei die freigesetzten Emissionen vernachlässigbar sind.

Die sich am Zellenboden ansammelnden Silberkristalle werden entnommen, mit (chlorfreiem) heißem Wasser gewaschen, abgefiltert und mit Heißluft getrocknet. Die verbrauchten Anoden gehen zurück in den Anodenofen. Erschöpfter Elektrolyt wird abgezogen und mit Kupferstaub zementiert. Nach Filtration wird das Silberzementat in den Kaldo-Ofen zurückgeführt. Die wässrige Phase wird in die Teilstrombehandlungsanlage vor Ort abgeleitet und dort mit Kalkmilch neutralisiert und gefiltert. Der Schlamm aus der Abwasservorbehandlung wird dem Kupferkonzentrat vor der Brikettieranlage beigemischt und in die Kupferschachtöfen aufgegeben. Die gefilterte Lösung wird in den Sauerwasserkanal der Kupferhütte geleitet und abschließend neutralisiert und geflockt.

Der Anodenschlamm aus der elektrolytischen Silberraffination wird mit chlorfreiem Wasser gespült, gefiltert und zur Rückgewinnung von Gold und anderen Edelmetallen gesammelt. Zur Goldrückgewinnung werden die Schlämme mit heißer Salzsäure unter Einleitung von Chlorgas

gelaugt und das Gold anschließend ausgefällt. Die Goldlaugung erfolgt in geschlossenen Reaktionsbehältern. Ein Wasserschleiersystem verhindert die Freisetzung von Chlorgas. Nach Abschluss der Laugung werden alle Restgase der Schwefelsäureanlage zur Behandlung zugeführt. Goldstaub wird durch Zugabe von NaHSO_3 und NaOH niedergeschlagen und nach Filtration eingeschmolzen und zu Barren vergossen. Die verbleibenden Lösungen aus der Vorlaugung und Fällung gehen an externe Verwerter zur Platinrückgewinnung. Der Laugungsrückstand wird mit Eisenstaub zementiert und nach Filtration in den Kaldo-Ofen zurückgeführt. Das Filtrat wird in die Teilstrombehandlungsanlage vor Ort abgeleitet.

Bei diesen Verfahren fällt kein fester Abfall zur Beseitigung an.

In Anlage 121 wird eine Silberelektrolyse zur Erzeugung hochreiner Silberkristalle und Abtrennung von Gold und Platinmetallen aus dem Anodenschlamm betrieben. Der Anodenschlamm wird in einem eingehausten System mit Wasser gewaschen und die Waschlösung in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Der verbrauchte Elektrolyt wird mit der verbrauchten Waschlösung zusammengeführt und zur Ausfällung des enthaltenen Silbers mit Kupferstaub behandelt. In einem weiteren Reinigungsschritt werden Verunreinigungen durch Behandlung mit Soda entfernt. Das Silberzementat wird in den TBRC zurückgeführt. Kupfercarbonathaltiger Rückstand geht zurück in die Primärkupferhütte. Die Kupferstaub- und Soda-Dosierbehälter sind geschlossen ausgeführt. Der Elektrolyt wird in einem geschlossenen Behälter/Tank gelagert. Die sich am Boden der Elektrolysezelle ansammelnden Silberkristalle werden über ein geschlossenes Fördersystem in einen Sammelbehälter gepumpt und anschließend einer Wasserwäsche zur Entfernung von verbliebenem Resteinktrolyt unterzogen.

Der Anodenschlamm der Silberelektrolyse wird mit Salpetersäure gelaugt und der anfallende Goldrückstand eingeschmolzen und zu Anoden für die Goldelektrolyse vergossen. Die Laugung erfolgt in einem geschlossenen, beheizten Behälter. NO_x -haltige Gase werden unter Rückgewinnung einer Salpetersäurelösung in einem nassen Verfahren gereinigt. Der maximale Abgasvolumenstrom nach dem Wäscher beträgt $20\,000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$. NO_x -Emissionsmessungen werden einmal pro Jahr durchgeführt (drei Messungen über 30 Minuten). Die Emissionswerte liegen bei $80\text{--}110\text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$. Die verbleibende PGM-haltige Lösung wird extern zur Rückgewinnung von Platinmetallen aufgearbeitet.

Gold kann elektrolytisch in Form hochwertiger Goldkathoden oder durch Laugung in Form eines hochreinen Goldniederschlags gewonnen werden. Die Goldelektrolysezellen und Reaktoren sind mit Absaughauben ausgerüstet. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Natronlaugewäscher gereinigt. Bei dem Prozess fällt ein Abgasvolumenstrom von $5000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$ an. Cl -Emissionen (HCl) werden einmal pro Jahre gemessen (3 Messungen über eine Probenahmedauer von 30 Minuten) und liegen im Bereich von $2\text{--}12\text{ mg}/\text{Nm}^3$. Der verbrauchte Elektrolyt wird zwecks Goldrückgewinnung aufgereinigt. Die verbleibende Lösung geht an einen externen Verwerter zur Rückgewinnung von Platinmetallen. Der Anodenschlamm wird zur Rückgewinnung von Gold/Platinmetallen aufgearbeitet.

In Anlage 27 ist der Raum, in dem die Silberelektrolyseanlage untergebracht ist, mit einer Zu- und Abluftanlage ausgestattet. Die Abluft wird über einen Kamin über Dach abgeleitet. Die verbrauchten Anoden werden in den TROF zurückgeführt. Der verbrauchte Elektrolyt und das Abwasser aus der Silberkathoden- und Restanodenwäsche werden mit Kupferstaub zementiert. Der bei der Goldlaugung des Anodenschlammes aus der Silber-Elektrorefinerie anfallende AgCl -Schlamm wird ebenfalls zur Silberrückgewinnung genutzt. Nach Zementation mit Eisenstaub wird das gefilterte Silberzementat in den TROF zurückgeführt, die Lösung geht zurück in den Edelmetallgewinnungsprozess. Bei diesem Prozess fällt kein fester Abfall zur Entsorgung an.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen, geschlossene Behälter/Tanks, geschlossene Rohrleitungen zur Förderung der Lösungen sowie die Rückführung der Lösungen in den Prozess sind allgemein anwendbar.

Das Recyceln von Nebenprodukten/Lösungen zur Edelmetallrückgewinnung ist, abhängig vom jeweiligen Stoffstrom und seinem Edelmetallgehalt (Gold, Silber oder Platinmetalle), allgemein anwendbar. Edelmetallfreie Nebenprodukte/Lösungen werden nicht recycelt.

Hauben und Absaugsysteme können bei Gold-Elektrolysezellen angewendet werden.

Wasserschleiersysteme eignen sich zur Vermeidung von Chlorgasemissionen bei Laugungsprozessen (z.B. bei der Goldgewinnung).

Die Salpetersäurerückgewinnung eignet sich für Gase mit hohen NO_x -Konzentrationen, wie sie z.B. bei der salpetersauren Laugung von Anodenschlämmen anfallen.

Die alkalische Wäsche mit einer NaOH-Waschlösung eignet sich für das Abgas der Goldelektrolyse.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlage 27, 112, 117, 121, 205 und 318

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.5 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus der hydrometallurgischen Edelmetallgewinnung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Rückhaltemaßnahmen, wie z.B. abgedichtete oder eingehauste Reaktionsbehälter, Vorratsbehälter, Solventextraktionsapparate und -filter, Ausstattung von Tanks und Behältern mit einer Füllstandsüberwachung, geschlossene Rohrleitungen, abgedichtete Entwässerungssysteme und planmäßige Wartung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Reaktionsbehälter und Tanks, die an ein gemeinsames Abgaskanalssystem mit Abgasabsaugung angeschlossen sind (automatische Umschaltung auf eine Reserveeinheit bei Ausfall) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4).
- saure Gaswäsche mit einer Schwefelsäurelösung zur Ammoniakabscheidung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)
- alkalische Gaswäsche mit einer Natronlaugelösung zur Abscheidung von Sauer gasen wie Salzsäure, Chlor und NO_x (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)
- NO_x -Wäscher, die mit einer Waschlösung aus Wasserstoffperoxid und Salpetersäure betrieben werden (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2). Diese Wäscher werden auf Prozessbehältern angeordnet, bei denen lokal Abgase mit hohen NO_x -Gehalten entstehen können. Zweck dieser Mini-Wäscher ist die Entlastung der Hauptabgasreinigungsanlage.
- Sicherheitssysteme und Prozesssteuerung, z.B. Anschluss der Nasswäscher an eine unterbrechungsfreie Stromversorgung mit Notstromaggregat für den Fall eines Netzausfalls und für den Anfahr- und Abfahrbetrieb. Ausschleusen verbrauchter

Waschsäure und Dosierung von Zusatzsäure über eine automatische Steuerung, Gewährleistung der Verfügbarkeit einer Reserveumwälzpumpe für jeden Waschflüssigkeitstank

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Scheidung und Aufreinigung edelmetall- und silberhaltiger Materialien kommen verschiedene hydrometallurgische Verfahren zum Einsatz, darunter Lösen/Laugen mit Salzsäure, Salzsäure und Chlor, Salpetersäure, Königswasser (Gemisch aus Salpetersäure und Salzsäure), Destillation, Filtration und selektive Extraktionsverfahren (einschl. Solventextraktion und Ionenaustausch).

Bei den in den komplexen hydrometallurgischen Prozessen ablaufenden chemischen Reaktionen werden toxische und potenziell umweltschädliche gasförmige Verbindungen freigesetzt, die durch Abgasreinigung vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre auf vertretbar niedrige Werte reduziert werden müssen.

Bei den meisten Reaktionen entstehen saure gasförmige Emissionen, wobei Salzsäure, Chlor und NO_x von besonderer Relevanz sind. Darüber hinaus treten bei einigen Reaktionen SO_2 -, Brom- und Schwefelsäurenebelemissionen in geringen Mengen auf.

Ferner wird in einer Reihe von Prozessen der Edelmetallraffination gasförmiges Ammoniak als Hauptabgaskomponente der Reaktionsbehälter emittiert. Ammoniakgas kann zwar in jeder Prozessstufe der Edelmetallraffination freigesetzt werden, tritt aber in erster Linie bei der Palladiumraffination durch Solventextraktion und die zugehörigen Verfahrensschritte auf, in denen Ammoniak als Reagens eingesetzt wird, sowie bei der Sodabehandlung von ammoniumchloridhaltigen Edelmetalllösungen.

Rückhaltemaßnahmen

In allen Raffinerien, die hydrometallurgische Verfahren zur Edelmetallraffination einsetzen, müssen komplexe wässrige Lösungen und häufig auch organische Lösemittel gehandhabt werden. Da viele dieser wässrigen Lösungen entweder stark sauer oder stark basisch sind, können bei einer unbeabsichtigten Freisetzung große Umweltschäden entstehen. Hinzu kommt, dass viele dieser Lösungen bei hohen Temperaturen verarbeitet werden, so dass potenziell toxische Gase freigesetzt werden können. Zur Minimierung des Risikos diffuser Emissionen und unbeabsichtigter Stofffreisetzungen müssen daher eine Reihe von Rückhaltemaßnahmen vorgesehen werden.

Alle Reaktionsbehälter werden während des Betriebs verschlossen, gewöhnlich durch Schließen des Deckels der Chargieröffnung. Die Behälter werden i.d.R. nur zu Beginn des Prozesses, beim Chargieren oder sporadisch zur Entnahme von Proben geöffnet. Im Vergleich zu abgesaugten Reaktoren wird mit dem Einsatz geschlossener Reaktionsbehälter auch eine signifikante Entlastung der Abgasreinigungsanlage erreicht und damit Einsparungen beim Chemikalieneinsatz sowie beim Strom- und Wasserverbrauch. In den Behältern wird zu jedem Zeitpunkt ein Unterdruck aufrechterhalten, und alle beim Betrieb entstehenden Dämpfe/Rauche werden abgesaugt und einem separaten Abgaswäscher zugeführt.

Vorratsbehälter, ob interne oder externe Behälter, sind geschlossen ausgeführt und i.d.R. mit einer verschließbaren Inspektionsluke oder -öffnung ausgestattet. Die Behälter werden nur nach Entleerung zu Wartungszwecken, usw. geöffnet. Des Weiteren sind die Vorratsbehälter an ein lokales Absaugsystem (Quellenabsaugung) angeschlossen, und die erfassten Rauche/Dämpfe werden einer geeigneten Abgasreinigungsanlage zugeführt.

Solventextraktionsapparate und Filter sind normalerweise in einer spezialgefertigten Einhausung mit Quellenabsaugung oder unter Absaughauben aufgestellt. Die Einhausung ist i.d.R. aus transparentem Plexiglas oder einem anderen Kunststoff gefertigt und ermöglicht so die Beobachtung des Betriebs ohne Exposition des Personals bzw. ohne potenzielle Freisetzung

von Rauchen/Dämpfen usw. in den Arbeitsbereich oder die Atmosphäre. Die Kunststoffpaneele können zu Wartungszwecken abgenommen werden.

Die Reaktions- und Vorratsbehälter sind zum Großteil mit einer automatischen Füllstandsüberwachung ausgestattet, über die die Pumpe automatisch ausgeschaltet wird, wenn beim Befüllen des Tanks oder Behälters ein bestimmter Füllstand überschritten wird. Zusätzlich wird bei Überschreiten dieses Füllstands eine Alarmmeldung abgesetzt. Mit diesen Sicherheitseinrichtungen wird das Risiko einer Überfüllung und eines Überlaufens der Tanks oder Behälter minimiert.

Alle wässrigen Lösungen und Lösemittel werden über geschlossene Rohrleitungen von einem Tank, Behälter, usw. zum nächsten überführt, um auszuschließen, dass das Betriebspersonal in Kontakt mit den geförderten Flüssigkeiten kommt. Die eingesetzten Werkstoffe müssen ausreichend beständig gegenüber der geförderten Lösung sein. Häufig sind die außen liegenden Rohre in einem Plexiglas-Mantelrohr installiert, damit Leckagen frühzeitig erkannt und so ein Stoffaustritt vermieden wird.

Die Werkstoffe der Reagens- und Zwischenlagertanks müssen eine ausreichend Beständigkeit gegenüber den bevorrateten Lösungen aufweisen. In vielen Edelmetallraffinerien werden hierzu hochwertige, korrosionsbeständige glasfaserverstärkte Kunststoffe eingesetzt. Externe Vorratsbehälter werden ohne Ausnahme in Auffangräumen aufgestellt, so dass unbeabsichtigt freigesetzte Flüssigkeiten zurückgehalten und zurückgewonnen werden können. Zur Vermeidung von Versickerungen ins Erdreich sind die Auffangwannen in säurebeständigem Material ausgeführt. Die Böden der Auffangwannen sind in der Regel gefliest, um ein Versickern ausgetretener Flüssigkeit in das Erdreich zu verhindern, und mit Sümpfen zum Auffangen von unbeabsichtigt freigesetzten Flüssigkeiten ausgestattet. Zur Zurückhaltung von Flüssigkeiten bei Versagen eines Behälters oder Tanks gehört es ferner zur guten Praxis, einzelne Gebäude durch Bodenschwellen an den Toren zu umwallen.

Gemäß gängiger Praxis werden alle Entwässerungssysteme abgesperrt, so dass im unwahrscheinlichen Fall eines Flüssigkeitsaustritts keine Lösungen in das Entwässerungssystem und von dort in den öffentlichen Abwasserkanal oder die Umwelt gelangen können. Ferner sind die Entwässerungssysteme i.d.R. mit Rückhaltebecken ausgestattet, um sicherzustellen, dass evtl. in das System gelangende Prozesslösungen zurückgehalten werden. Des Weiteren kann an Rückhaltebecken und Kanaleinleitstellen eine pH-Wert-Überwachung vorgesehen werden, die im Fall von Flüssigkeitsaustritt eine Alarmmeldung auslöst und die Zuleitungen zum Kanal usw. automatisch absperrt.

Alle Edelmetallraffinerien verfügen über rigorose Instandhaltungsprogramme zur planmäßigen Wartung, Inspektion und Instandsetzung der Ausrüstungen und damit zur Vermeidung von Emissionen, Leckagen und Stoffaustritt.

Reaktionsbehälter und Tanks, die an ein gemeinsames Abgaskanalssystem mit Abgasabsaugung angeschlossen sind (automatische Umschaltung auf eine Reserveeinheit bei Ausfall)

Alle Reaktionsbehälter, Tanks, usw., aus denen potenziell Ammoniakgas und Sauergerase freigesetzt werden können, werden an ein gemeinsames Abgaskanalssystem angeschlossen (i.d.R. über einen wassergekühlten Glaskondensator) und über eine Gebläse abgesaugt. Das erfasste Abgas wird in einer Wäscheranlage gereinigt.

Saure Wäsche mit einer Schwefelsäurelösung

Die Wäscheranlage besteht i.d.R. aus einem oder mehreren Waschtürmen mit einer Waschflüssigkeitsvorlage (15 %ige Schwefelsäurelösung) für den Waschkreislauf. Bei mehrstufigen Abgaswäschern wird der überwiegende Anteil des Ammoniakgases in der ersten Waschstufe absorbiert. Die zweite Waschstufe dient dann zur weitergehenden Reinigung und/oder als Reserve bei Ausfall der ersten Stufe.

Was den Betrieb der Wäscher angeht, so ist der pH-Wert in der/den Waschflüssigkeitsvorlage(n) die wichtigste Überwachungs- und Regelgröße und wird daher kontinuierlich überwacht und auf einen definierten Weg geregelt.

Das Reingas nach der Wäscheranlage wird über einen separaten Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben.

Alkalische Gaswäsche mit einer Natronlaugelösung

Die Wäscheranlage besteht i.d.R. aus einem oder mehreren Waschtürmen mit einer Waschflüssigkeitsvorlage (NaOH-Lösung) für den Washkreislauf. Bei mehrstufigen Abgaswäschern wird der überwiegende Anteil der Sauerstoffe in der ersten Waschstufe absorbiert. Die zweite Waschstufe dient dann zur weitergehenden Reinigung und/oder als Reserve bei Ausfall der ersten Stufe.

Was den Betrieb der Wäscher angeht, so ist der pH-Wert in der/den Waschflüssigkeitsvorlage(n) die wichtigste Überwachungs- und Regelgröße. Eine weitere wichtige Regelgröße ist die Temperatur der Waschlösung. Diese darf einen definierten Sollwert nicht überschreiten und wird entsprechend geregelt, um eine wirksame Abscheidung von NO_x - und sonstigen Sauerstoffen zu gewährleisten.

Das Reingas nach der Wäscheranlage wird über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben, i.d.R. den Kamin einer der Hauptemissionsquellen der Edelmetallraffinerie. Angesichts der Bedeutung von NO_x als Luftschadstoff kann in den Kaminen eine Probenahmeeinrichtung mit Gasprobenleitung zu einer separaten kontinuierlichen NO_x -Messeinrichtung vorgesehen werden. Zusätzlich werden die Echtzeit- NO_x -Emissionswerte über die automatische Steuerung kontinuierlich an ein Vorortsteuerepult oder in die zentrale Leitwarte übertragen. Über die Messwertüberwachung wird bei "NO_x-Wert Hoch" und "NO_x-Wert Hoch Hoch" eine Warn- bzw. Alarmmeldung ausgelöst, so dass das für die NO_x -emittierenden Prozesse verantwortliche Betriebspersonal direkt an der Emissionsquelle Maßnahmen zur Begrenzung/Reduzierung der NO_x -Bildung einleiten kann.

NO_x-Wäscher, die mit einer Waschlösung aus Wasserstoffperoxid und Salpetersäure betrieben werden

Angesichts der Bedeutung von NO_x als Luftschadstoff ist der Überwachung und Minderung von NO_x -Emissionen in Edelmetallraffinerien besondere Aufmerksamkeit zu schenken. Die Überwachung kann durch kontinuierliche Messung oder regelmäßige Einzelmessungen und Analyse des Reingas- NO_x -Gehalts erfolgen.

Zweck der NO_x -Wäsche ist die Einhaltung der NO_x -Grenzwerte und Vermeidung einer braunen Abgasfahne. NO_x -Wäscher werden für spezielle Reaktoren (zusätzlich zum Hauptwäschersystem) eingesetzt, bei denen lokal hohe NO_x -Konzentrationen auftreten können. Diese Mini-Wäscher dienen der Entlastung der Hauptabgasreinigungsanlage. Stickoxide (NO und NO_2) können durch Oxidation mit Sauerstoff oder Wasserstoffperoxid oder Reduktion mit Salpetersäure oder Harnsäure abgeschieden werden. Zur optimalen Absorption der Stickoxide und Einhaltung des NO_x -Grenzwerte muss eine ausreichende Verweilzeit und Kühlung der umlaufenden Waschlösung gewährleistet sein. Vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre wird das Abgas des NO_x -Wäschers über einen NaOH-Wäscher geführt (siehe oben).

Die Mini-Wäscher können entweder mit einer sauren (Gemisch aus verdünnter Salpetersäure und Wasserstoffperoxid) oder einer alkalischen (Natronlauge mit Wasserstoffperoxidzusatz) Waschlösung betrieben werden. Bei Abgasen mit hohen NO_x -Anteilen aus geschlossenen Raffinationsprozessen wird eine saure Wäsche bevorzugt, da diese die Rückgewinnung des absorbierten NO_x in Form von 50%iger Salpetersäure ermöglicht, die in den Raffinationsbetrieb zurückgeführt werden kann.

Sicherheitssysteme und Prozesssteuerung

Es ist gute Praxis, die Wäscheranlage an eine unterbrechungsfreie Stromversorgung mit Notstromaggregat für den Fall eines Netzausfalls anzuschließen.

Ferner sollte für jede Waschflüssigkeitsumwälzpumpe der einzelnen Waschflüssigkeitsbehälter eine Reservepumpe vorhanden sein, die bei Ausfall der Betriebspumpe automatisch zugeschaltet wird. Das gleiche gilt für das Saugzuggebläse, das das Abgas durch die Anlage fördert.

Zur Minimierung der Waschlösungsverdünnung und Maximierung der Verweilzeit im Wäscher werden die Dosier- und Betriebseinrichtungen an eine automatische Prozesssteuerung, wie z.B. eine SPS oder ein PLS, angeschlossen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft und das Wasser
- Rückführung (Nutzung) verbrauchter/zurückgewonnener Waschlösungen und sonstiger im hydrometallurgischen Prozess eingesetzter Reagenzien in Laugungs- und andere Edelmetallraffinationsprozesse. Die bei der Minderung gasförmiger Ammoniakemissionen anfallende verbrauchte Waschlösung (wässriges Ammoniumsulfat) kann der AWA zugeführt, intern als Reagens genutzt oder an einen extern Verwerter übergeben werden (z.B. als Nebenprodukt zur Erzeugung von Ammoniumsulfatdünger durch Kristallisation). Die verbrauchte Waschlösung der NO_x-Wäscher (Salpetersäure) kann betriebsintern recycelt werden. Die verbrauchte Waschlösung aus der Sauer gasabscheidung enthält neben Natriumchlorid aus der HCl-Neutralisation mit NaOH als Hauptkomponente auch Restalkalien sowie geringe Mengen an Hypochlorit und sonstigen Reaktionsprodukten. Das Abwasser des alkalischen Wäschers wird in die AWA geleitet und macht dort einen beträchtlichen Anteil der zu behandelnden Abwassermenge aus, oder es wird von einem Verwertungsbetrieb abgeholt und kann dort als alkalisches Neutralisationsmittel/Oxidationsmittel zur Fällung von Basismetallen verwendet werden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 221 wird das Reingas des Ammoniak- und sauren Wäschers vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre über die jeweiligen Kamine messtechnisch überwacht.

Tabelle 7.23: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallanlage 221

Minderungs- technik	Luftschadstoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
			mg/Nm ³		
Ammoniakwäscher (Schwefelsäure als Waschlösung)	NH ₃	Max.	< 1	diskontinuierlich (12 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahme- dauer
Alkalischer Wäscher	NO _x (angeg. als NO ₂)	Mittelwert	3,07	kontinuierlich	Stunden- mittelwert
		95. Perzentil	22,54		
		Max.	70,71		
	Chlor	Max.	< 3	diskontinuierlich (52 x pro Jahr)	
Gasförmige Chloride (angeg. als HCl)	Max.	< 1,5			
Alkalischer Wäscher	NO _x (angeg. als NO ₂)	Mittelwert	0,76	kontinuierlich	
		95. Perzentil	3,69		
		Max.	25,82		
	Chlor	Max.	< 3	diskontinuierlich (52 x pro Jahr)	
Gasförmige Chloride (angeg. als HCl)	Max.	< 1,5			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Anlage 1019 werden mit einer sauren Waschlösung betriebene Gegenstromwäscher für die Ammoniakabscheidung eingesetzt. Die berichteten NH_3 -Emissionswerte liegen im Mittel bei $2,72 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (der berichtete Max-Wert liegt über dem Emissionsgrenzwert). Für HCl liegt der berichtete Mittelwert bei $16,4 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Max-Wert 50 mg/Nm^3), für Cl_2 bei $1,8 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$ (Max-Wert $5,9 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$) [378, Industrial NGOs 2012].

Anlage 1315 ist auf die Gewinnung von Kupfer und sonstigen Wertmetallen aus Kupferschrott und weiteren kupferhaltigen sekundären Rohstoffen spezialisiert. Zur Gewinnung von qualitativ hochwertigen Gold, Silber und Platin/Palladium aus Anodenschlämmen der Kupferproduktion wird in dieser Anlage ein selbst entwickeltes rein hydrometallurgisches Verfahren eingesetzt. Es entstehen keine Emissionen in die Luft.

Anfallende Anodenschlämme werden durch schwefelsaure Laugung weitgehend entkupfert und entnickelt und in Lösereaktoren in separaten Silber- und Goldgewinnungslinien aufgearbeitet. Durch selektive Zementation werden reines Silber, reines Gold und in zwei weiteren Schritten ein Palladium-Platin-Zementat und ein Rohselenzementat gewonnen. Anfallender Silber- und Goldstaub wird in Tiegelöfen geschmolzen, zu Silber- und Goldgranalien vergossen und verkauft. Das Palladium/Platin-Zementat und Rohselen werden als Vorstoffe weiterverkauft.

Zur sicheren Einhaltung der behördlich vorgeschriebenen Einleitungsgrenzwerte werden die in den Produktionslinien der Nickelsulfat-, Edelmetallgewinnungs- und Oxychloridanlagen anfallenden Prozessabwässer sowie Laborabwässer einer Abwasserbehandlung unterzogen.

Zu diesem Zweck wird das Abwasser in einer zweistufigen Fällungsanlage behandelt, wobei die Metalle als Sulfide ausgefällt und abgeschieden werden. Die Sulfidfällung wurde gewählt, weil die sich bildenden Metallsulfide z.B. gegenüber den entsprechenden Hydroxiden eine sehr viel geringere Löslichkeit aufweisen. Vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter wird das Abwasser neutralisiert. Die AWA ist für einen Durchsatz von $150 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$ ausgelegt und ist kontinuierlich rund um die Uhr in Betrieb.

In Anlage 2113 werden die meisten Verarbeitungsschritte in geschlossenen Behältern durchgeführt. Daher fallen nur geringe Abgasvolumenströme an, die in separaten Nasswäschern gereinigt werden. Das Abgas der Raffinationsreaktoren und der pyrometallurgischen Prozessstufen wird einer alkalischen Wäsche unterzogen. Ein Abgasteilstrom wird zwecks Dioxinabscheidung in Aktivkohleabsorbern behandelt.

Tabelle 7.24: Emissionswerte der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 2113

Minderungs- technik	Luftschad- stoff	Wert	Einheit	Messmethode:	Mittelwert- bildung
			mg/Nm ³		
Alkalischer Wäscher (für das gesamte Abgas der Platinmetall- raffinerie)	NO _x angeg. als NO ₂	Min.	109	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	über die Probe- nahme- dauer
		Mittelwert	193		
		Max.	254		
	HCl	Min.	< 0,04	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	
		Mittelwert	0,52		
		Max.	1,12		
	Cl ₂	Min.	< 0,04	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	
		Mittelwert	0,25		
		Max.	0,45		
Aktivkohlefilter (Teilstrom- reinigung)	PCDD/F	Min.	< 0,0046 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³ :	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	
		Mittelwert	0,0056 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³		
		Max.	0,0074 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³		
Gewebe- filter und Nasswäscher (für das zusammen- geführte Abgas der Silberaffinerie)	Staub	Min.	0,14	diskontinuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)	
		Mittelwert	0,30		
		Max.	0,45		
	NO _x angeg. als NO ₂	Min.	8	diskontinuierlich (4 x pro Jahr)	
		Mittelwert	35		
		Max.	60		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Alle Produktionsprozesse und die Abgasreinigung sind in dieser Anlage voll automatisiert. Der Gesamtabgasvolumenstrom der Platinmetallraffinerie beträgt 12 100 Nm³/h. Die 90. Perzentile der der HCl-, NO_x-, Chlor (Cl₂)-, und Dioxinmissionen liegen bei jeweils 0,98 mg/Nm³, 251 mg/Nm³, 0,43 mg/Nm³ und 0,0069 ng I-TEQ/Nm³.

Der Gesamtabgasvolumenstrom der Silberaffinerie liegt bei 22 600 Nm³/h, die 90. Perzentile der Staub- und NO_x-Emissionen bei jeweils 0,42 mg/Nm³ und 59 mg/Nm³.

In Anlage 113 werden hauptsächlich Silbersalze durch nasschemischen Aufschluss von hochreinem Rohsilber und silberreichen Prozessrückständen aus speziellen Industriebereichen hergestellt. Die Ergebnisse der kontinuierlichen Emissionsüberwachung sind in Tabelle 7.25 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.25: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 113

Minderungstechnik	Wert	NO _x	Messwerterfassung	Mittelwertbildung
		ppm		
Nasswäscher und Sauerstoffeindüsung	Min.	0,4	kontinuierlich	Stunden- mittelwert
	Mittelwert	17		
	Max.	78		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

In Tabelle 7.26 sind die für Anlage 112 berichteten Emissionswerte der kombinierten Gold- und Platinmetallraffination und kombinierten Silber- und Platinmetallraffination zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 7.26: Emissionswerte der Abgaswäscheranlagen in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 112

Minderungs- technik	Luftschad- stoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
			mg/Nm ³		
Alkalischer Wäscher (6 Waschkolonnen betrieben mit einer alkalischen Waschlösung und Wasserstoffperoxid) für die zusammen- geführten Abgas- ströme der Gold- und Platinmetallraffinerie	NO _x als NO ₂	Mittelwert	138	diskontinuier- lich (11 x pro Jahr)	über die Probenahme- dauer
		HCl	Mittelwert		
	Max.		2,0		
	Cl ₂	Mittelwert	0,1		
		Max.	2,0		
	SO _x	Mittelwert	0,1		
		Max.	2,0		
	Alkalischer Wäscher (vier Washstufen, davon drei mit Salpetersäure und eine mit einer alkalischen Lösung betrieben) für die zusammenge- führten Abgasströme der Silber- und Platinmetallraffinerie)	NO _x als NO ₂	Mittelwert		
HCl			Mittelwert	6,0	
		Max.	11,8		
Cl ₂		Mittelwert	0,9		
		Max.	2,4		
SO _x		Mittelwert	0,6		
		Max.	0,9		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Reagenzien und sonstigen Hilfsstoffen (z.B. Natriumhydroxid) als Absorptionsmittel, wobei diese Hilfsstoffe allerdings zum Teil aus internen Prozessen, in denen saure und alkalische Lösungen anfallen, zurückgewonnen werden können und somit der Verbrauch an frischen Reagenzien reduziert oder minimiert werden kann.
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Nasswäscher, Abgaserfassungs-/Absaugsysteme und der Prozesssteuerungen
- Zusätzlicher Wasserverbrauch für die Reinigung von Behältern, Tanks und sonstigen Reaktionsbehältern nach deren Gebrauch
- Anfall von Abwässern, wie Prozessabwässer, ausgelaufene Flüssigkeiten und verbrauchte Waschlösungen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken eignen sich für Neuanlagen. Zur Anwendung in bestehenden Anlagen ist eine umfangreiche Anlagenertüchtigung erforderlich.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Hauptgründe für die Umsetzung dieser Techniken sind die Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen zur Einhaltung der gesetzlichen Vorschriften sowie die Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rohstoffeinsparungen bzw. Rückgewinnung von Edelmetallen enthaltenden Rohstoffen.

Beispielanlagen

- Rückhaltemaßnahmen: u.a. Anlage 113, 205, 221 und 2113
- Saurer Wäscher: u.a. Anlage 221, 318, 13515 und 2113

- Alkalischer Wäscher: u.a. Anlage 112, 113, 205, 221, 318 und 2113
- NO_x-Wäscher: u.a. Anlage 113, 205, 221, 318, 2113 und 2113

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.6 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus Verbrennungs-, Kalzinier- und Trocknungsprozessen zur Edelmetallgewinnung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Anschluss aller Kalzinieröfen, Verbrennungs- und Trocknungsöfen an ein Abgaskanalssystem und Absaugung der Prozessabgase
- Wasserwäsche mit nachgeschalteter alkalischer Wäsche (mit Natronlauge) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2). Gasförmige Luftschadstoffe wie Salzsäurenebel, Ammoniumchlorid und Chlor können in einem Neutralwäscher mit Wasser als Waschflüssigkeit abgeschieden werden. Zur Abscheidung von Schadstoffen, die im Neutralwäscher nicht absorbiert werden, kann eine alkalische Wäsche mit Natronlauge nachgeschaltet werden.
- Sicherheitssysteme und Prozesssteuerung, z.B. Anschluss der kompletten Wäscheranlage an eine unterbrechungsfreie Stromversorgung mit Notstromaggregat für den Fall eines Netzausfalls und für den Anfahr- und Abfahrbetrieb; Ausschleusen verbrauchter Waschsäure und Dosierung von Zusatzsäure über eine automatische Steuerung
- Nachverbrennungskammer (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1), Zyklonabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.3), Gaskühler, Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) und Aktivkohleadsorber (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5)

Technische Beschreibung

Die Kalzinierung von reinen und verunreinigten Salzen zu Metallen – insbesondere von Salzen (Platin, Rhutenium und Iridium), bei denen Salzsäuredämpfe, Ammoniumchlorid und Chlor als Zersetzungsprodukte entstehen – zählt zu den Prozessen mit der höchsten Umweltrelevanz bezüglich gasförmiger Emissionen in der Edelmetallgewinnung. Hinzu kommt, dass diese Gase mit hohen Temperaturen anfallen (ca. 350–900 °C), was zusätzliche Anforderungen an die Förderung und Gasreinigung stellt. Daher sind Kalzinieröfen für reine Salze i.d.R. an einen separaten Nasswäscher angeschlossen, dem ein NaOH-Wäscher (alkalische Wäsche) nachgeschaltet wird. Bei der Kalzinierung von Reinsalzen erfolgt die Abgasreinigung in zweistufigen, mit Wasser betriebenen Wäscheranlagen. Die erste Waschstufe dient zur Abgaskühlung (Quenchen) und Absorption von Ammoniumchlorid und Salzsäure. Chlor und Restsäure, die in der Neutralwäsche nicht zurückgehalten werden, werden wirksam im nachgeschalteten alkalischen Waschstufe abgeschieden.

Eine ähnliche Wäscheranlage wird auch zur Reinigung der mit ähnlich hohen Temperaturen anfallenden Abgase aus Kalzinier-, Verbrennungs- und Trocknungsöfen eingesetzt, in denen verunreinigte Salze aufgearbeitet werden. Bei diesen Prozessen werden zwar i.d.R. sehr viel weniger gasförmige Reaktionsprodukte freigesetzt als bei der Veraschung von Platinsalzen, doch enthält das Abgas geringe Anteile an Salzsäure und möglicherweise auch Spuren an anderen Sauergasen, wie z.B. Schwefel, Selendioxid und NO_x. Wie bei der Verarbeitung von "reinen Salzen" wird auch bei der Aufbereitung von verunreinigten Salzen, das im Neutralwäscher behandelte Abgas vor Ableitung in die Atmosphäre einer alkalischen Wäsche unterzogen.

In den Wäschern der Verarbeitungslinien für "reine Salze" und "verunreinigte Salze" werden vor der weitergehenden Reinigung im alkalischen Wäscher Abscheidegrade von > 99 %

erreicht. Die Wäscheranlage wird üblicherweise an eine ausfallsichere Stromversorgung angeschlossen, die bei Netzausfall über ein Notstromaggregat versorgt wird.

Im Normalbetrieb sowie beim An- und Abfahrbetrieb werden die Teilstromausschleusung aus dem Waschkreislauf und Zugabe von Frischsäure automatisch gesteuert (über eine SPS oder PLS). Alle Prozessparameter werden an ein lokales Steuerpult und ggf. den zentralen Leitstand übertragen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft
- Recyceln der zurückgewonnenen Säure. Die verbrauchte Waschlösung (verdünnte Salzsäure) der Wäscher in den Verarbeitungslinien für reine und verunreinigte Salze wird recycelt und in anderen Raffinationsstufen einschließlich der Reinigung der Prozessendlösungen und der Abwasserreinigung eingesetzt.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 221 wird das Abgas der Verarbeitungslinien für reine und verunreinigte Salze nach der Neutralwäsche vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem NaOH-Wäscher nachgereinigt. Typische Emissionswerte sind in Abschnitt 7.3.5 aufgeführt.

Der Betreiber der Anlage 112 berichtet Emissionswerte einer Kehrrichtverbrennungsanlage. Zur Minderung von PAK- und insbesondere PCDD/F-Emissionen wird eine Nachverbrennungskammer eingesetzt. Vor Eintritt in das Gewebefilter muss das Abgas gekühlt werden, um die maximal zulässige Einsatztemperatur des Filtergewebes nicht zu überschreiten. Als letzte Gasreinigungsstufe ist ein Aktivkohleabsorber zur Abscheidung von Hg und Spuren an Rest-PCDD/F vorgesehen.

Tabelle 7.27: Emissionswerte der Kehrichtverbrennungsanlage in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 112

	Minderungs- technik	Volumen- strom Nm ³ /h	Luft- schadstoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittel- wert- bildung										
					mg/Nm ³												
Anlage 112	Nachverbren- nungskammer, Zyklon, Gaskühler, Gewebe- filter, Aktivkohle- adsorber	3983	Staub	Min.	0,10	diskonti- nuierlich (18 x pro Jahr)	über die Probe- nahme- dauer										
				Mittelwert	0,60												
				Max.	1,95												
			SO ₂	Min.	0,462			diskonti- nuierlich (3 x pro Jahr)									
				Mittelwert	2,3												
				Max.	7,1												
			HCl	Min.	0,46				kontinuier- lich								
				Mittelwert	1,29												
				Max.	3,60												
			HF	Min.	< 0,5					Halb- stunden- mittel- wert							
				Mittelwert	0,53												
				Max.	< 0,6												
			PAK	Min.	< 0,00002						diskonti- nuierlich (18 x pro Jahr)						
				Mittelwert	< 0,00002												
				Max.	< 0,00002												
			PCDD/F	Min.	0,028 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³							kontinuier- lich					
				Mittelwert	0,059 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³												
				Max.	0,083 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³												
			NO _x	Min.	104								diskonti- nuierlich (18 x pro Jahr)				
				Mittelwert	202												
				Max.	435												
			CO	Min.	6									über die Probe- nahme- dauer			
				Mittelwert	15												
				Max.	15												
			C ges.	Min.	< 2										kontinuier- lich		
				Mittelwert	< 5												
				Max.	< 5												
			Cd	Min.	0,0001											Halb- stunden- mittel- wert	
				Mittelwert	0,0004												
				Max.	0,0017												
			Tl	Min.	0,0005												diskonti- nuierlich (18 x pro Jahr)
				Mittelwert	0,0009												
				Max.	0,0012												
Hg	Min.	0,0016	über die Probe- nahme- dauer														
	Mittelwert	0,0028															
	Max.	0,0037															
Sb	Min.	0,0016		kontinuier- lich													
	Mittelwert	0,0028															
	Max.	0,0037															
As	Min.	0,0005			diskonti- nuierlich (18 x pro Jahr)												
	Mittelwert	0,0009															
	Max.	0,0012															

			Pb	Min.	0,0011		
				Mittelwert	0,0023		
				Max.	0,0048		
			Cr	Min.	0,0022		
				Mittelwert	0,0041		
				Max.	0,0069		
			Co	Min.	0,0002		
				Mittelwert	0,0004		
				Max.	0,0005		
			Cu	Min.	0,0033		
				Mittelwert	0,0116		
				Max.	0,0273		
			Mn	Min.	0,0022		
				Mittelwert	0,0067		
				Max.	0,0202		
			Ni	Min.	0,0022		
				Mittelwert	0,0038		
				Max.	0,0049		
			V	Min.	0,0005		
				Mittelwert	0,0009		
				Max.	0,0012		
			Sn	Min.	0,0044		
				Mittelwert	0,0074		
				Max.	0,0098		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Die für Anlage 102 berichteten Emissionsdaten der Altkatalysatorverbrennungsanlage sind in Tabelle 7.28 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.28: Emissionswerte der Altkatalysatorverbrennungsanlage in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 102

	Minderungs- technik	Volumen- strom	Schad- stoff	Wert	Einheit	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
		Nm ³ /h			mg/Nm ³		
Anlage 102	Gewebe- filter		Staub	Mittelwert	9,2	kontinuierlich	Tages- mittelwert-
	Alkalischer Wäscher		NO _x	Max.	88,1	kontinuierlich	
			Ag	Mittelwert	0,14	diskontinuierlich	über die Probenahme dauer
	Nachver- brennungs- kammer		TVOC	Max.	11,4	kontinuierlich	Tages- mittel- wert
			CO	Max.	67,5		
			PCDD/ F	Mittelwert	0,0008 ng I- TEQ/Nm ³	diskontinuierlich (2x pro Monat)	über die Probe- nahmedauer
			<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Reagenzien und sonstigen Hilfsstoffen (z.B. Natriumhydroxid) als Absorptionsmittel, wobei diese allerdings teilweise aus internen Prozessen, in denen saure und alkalische Lösungen anfallen, zurückgewonnen werden können und somit der Verbrauch an frischen Reagenzien reduziert oder minimiert werden kann
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Abgas erfassungs- und Wäscheranlagen sowie der Anlagensteuerung

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Dieser Nasswäschertyp kann in Neuanlagen oder bei einer umfangreichen Ertüchtigung bestehender Anlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen
- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlagen 102, 112, 121, 205, 221 und 318

Literatur

[378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

7.3.7 Techniken zur Vermeidung, Behandlung, Ableitung oder Rückgewinnung von verbrauchten Prozesslösungen aus der Edelmetallraffination

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken sind zur Vermeidung und Behandlung von verbrauchten Prozesslösungen vor Einleitung in den Vorfluter oder Rückgewinnung in Betracht zu ziehen:

- separate, in Auffangräumen aufgestellte Lagerbehälter für die Prozessendlösungen
- Behandlung der Prozessendlösungen durch chemische Reduktion/Zementation, Fällung oder Hydrolyse
- Abgaswäsche mit Schwefel- oder Salzsäure als Waschlösung (zur Verbesserung der Nachhaltigkeit kann das Ammoniumchlorid in den Raffinationsprozess zurückgeführt werden) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2)
- Ionenaustauscherkolonnen mit einem Chelatbildnerharz zur Rückgewinnung von in Spuren vorliegender gelöster (Edel)metalle aus der Prozessendlösung
- bei Reaktionen, in denen Wasserstoff freigesetzt wird: Verdünnung mit großen Luftmengen, um die Bildung explosionsfähiger Gemische zu verhindern
- Einsatz von Ultrafiltern (Kerzenfiltern) zur (Nach)filtration von Reaktionsfiltraten vor Überführung in die Lagerbehälter

Technische Beschreibung

Edelmetallraffinerien sind darauf bedacht, Metalleinträge in das Kanalsystem oder Oberflächengewässer zu minimieren. Prozessabwässer, ausgelaufene Flüssigkeiten, Reinigungsabwässer, usw. werden daher über das Abwassermanagementsystem gesammelt. Die Prozessendlösungen werden vor Behandlung in separaten Lagertanks gelagert. Diese sind in Auffangräumen aufgestellt, damit Leckagen oder verschüttete Flüssigkeiten ohne Risiko einer Freisetzung in die Umwelt zurückgewonnen werden können. Die Prozessendlösungen werden i.d.R. in mehreren Behandlungsschritten unter Anwendung einer Kombination von Verfahren, wie chemische Reduktion/Zementation, chemische Fällung und/oder Hydrolyse oder Ionenaustausch gereinigt. Einige Lösungen, z.B. ammoniakhaltige Flüssigkeitsströme, werden getrennt gesammelt und vor der reduzierenden Zementation und chemischen Fällung in einem Ammoniakstripper zwecks Entfernung gelöster, ammoniakalisierter Komplexverbindungen behandelt. In einigen Fällen können diese Lösungen direkt in den Abwasserkanal eingeleitet werden, wenn die gesetzlich vorgeschriebenen Grenzwerte nicht überschritten werden. Vereinzelt wird die Lösung vor Einleitung in den Abwasserkanal in einer Ionenaustauscherkolonne mit Chelatbildnerharzen behandelt, um letzte Spuren von löslichem Silber und anderen Edelmetallen zu extrahieren. Erschöpfte Ionenaustauscherharze werden zwecks Rückgewinnung von Silber und anderer Edelmetalle recycelt.

Edelmetallraffinerien sollten über eingeführte Verfahrensweisen verfügen, die sicherstellen, dass die Analysewerte der einzelnen Endlösungen vor Ableitung in den Kanal oder einen anderen Vorfluter (z.B. Flussmündung) vom Führungspersonal überprüft und abgezeichnet werden. Ergibt die Analyse der Endlösung Grenzwertüberschreitungen, muss sie in den Reinigungsprozess zurückgeführt werden. Die abschließende Kontrolle des Abwassers – i.d.R. ein Gemisch aus Prozessabwässern, Kesselwasser, Kühlabwässern und Niederschlagswasser – erfolgt unmittelbar vor Einleitung in den öffentlichen Abwasserkanal oder einen anderen Vorfluter. Neben der kontinuierlichen Überwachung des pH-Werts werden mittels spezieller Probenahmeeinrichtungen kontinuierlich Abwasserproben gezogen und Mischproben hergestellt. Die Mischprobe wird i.d.R. täglich auf Metallgehalte analysiert, um sicherzustellen, dass die Einleitungsgrenzwerte nicht überschritten werden.

Bei Lösungen, die durch chemische Reduktion/Zementation, elektrochemische Reduktion, chemische Fällung oder Hydrolyse und Ionenaustausch (oder eine Kombination dieser Verfahren) behandelt werden, wird ein geeignetes Ausgangsgemisch in einen Mischbehälter überführt. Hier werden Proben zur Analyse entnommen und die Acidität je nach Erfordernis

(durch Zugabe von Salzsäure oder Natronlauge) eingestellt. In bestimmten Fällen wird die alkalische Ausgangslösung einer Dampfdestillation zur Vorabscheidung von Ammoniak vor der weiteren Behandlung unterzogen und das entstehende Ammoniakgas in einem separaten Ammoniakwäscher gereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 7.3.5). Die Mischlösung wird dann in einen Rührwerksbehälter überführt und mittels einer geeigneten Methode behandelt. Erfolgt die Behandlung durch Zugabe von Eisen (soweit verfügbar wird hierzu häufig recycelter Eisenschrott verwendet), Zink oder einem chemischen Reduktionsmittel, erhält man die Edelmetalle als sogenannten "Reduktionsrückstand". Da bei der Reduktion mit Eisen und Zink Wasserstoff gebildet wird, müssen große Luftmengen über die Reaktionsfläche geleitet werden, um die Bildung explosionsfähiger Wasserstoff-Luft-Gemische zu vermeiden. Diese Verdünnungsluft kann ohne weitere Reinigung über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben werden. Eine sorgfältige Kontrolle der Azidität und Temperatur wirkt nicht nur der Wasserstoffbildung entgegen, sondern minimiert auch die Freisetzung von Salzsäure in die Luft

Nach Abschluss der Behandlung (edelmetallfreie Lösung) wird das entstehende Gemisch gefiltert. Der Filtrerrückstand wird in die Raffinerie zurückgeführt und dort entweder direkt hydrometallurgisch weiterverarbeitet oder im Fall niedrighaltiger Edelmetallrückstände kalziniert und eingeschmolzen. Das edelmetallfreie Filtrat, i.d.R. der größte Abwasserstrom der Raffinerie, wird in einer Reihe von Ultrafiltern (Kerzenfiltern) nachfiltriert und in einen Lagerbehälter überführt. Anschließend wird das Filtrat homogenisiert, beprobt und auf Edelmetalle, Basismetalle und Ammoniak/Ammonium analysiert. Bei Überschreiten der Einleitungsgrenzwerte wird es i.d.R. von einem Entsorgungsfachbetrieb in Tankfahrzeugen abgeholt. Im Entsorgungsfachbetrieb werden die Raffinerielösungen mit Abwässern aus anderen Industriequellen gemischt und einer Fällungsbehandlung unterzogen. Der dabei anfallende inerte Filterkuchen wird deponiert. In einigen EU-Mitgliedsstaaten ist die Deponierung dieses Filterkuchens nicht zulässig, und die Rückstände müssen zur Rückgewinnung von Basismetallen aufgearbeitet werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung von Schadstoffeinträgen in Gewässer
- Maximierung der Rückführung edel- und basismetallhaltiger Rückstände in den Raffinationsprozess bei gleichzeitiger Sicherstellung, dass keine Prozesslösungen unkontrolliert in den Abwasserkanal, das Erdreich oder Oberflächengewässer gelangen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 7.29 zeigt die Einleitwerte von Anlage 221 (siehe Beschreibung in Abschnitt 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.5 und 7.3.6). Der maximale pH-Wert des Abwassers muss zwischen 6 und 11 liegen und beträgt normalerweise ca. 9. Typische Einleitmengen liegen bei 40 m³/d. Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage, in der dieser Teilstrom behandelt wird, ist für eine maximale Ablaufmenge von 1 344 000 m³/d ausgelegt.

Tabelle 7.29: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221 – Emissionen in das Wasser

Minderungstechnik	Metall	Konzentration	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
		(µg/l)		
Hydrolyse gefolgt von Fällung, Filtration und Ionenaustausch, anschließendes Mischen mit Kessel-, Kühl- und Niederschlagswasser vor Einleitung in den Kanal	Arsen	4,0	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	Tages- mittelwert
	Cadmium	< 10		
	Chrom	< 100		
	Kupfer	175		
	Blei	< 1000		
	Quecksilber	0,050		
	Nickel	< 1000		
	Silber	500		
Zink	325			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Das Endfiltrat wird einem Entsorgungsbetrieb (zur Deponierung) übergeben. Die typischen Metallkonzentrationen dieses Abwasserstroms sind in Tabelle 7.30 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 7.30: Metallkonzentrationen des anfallenden Endfiltrats in Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 221

Metall	Konzentration
	(µg/l)
Arsen	25
Kupfer	475
Blei	200
Nickel	140
Eisen	2000
Zink	600
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>	

Die Anfallmengen liegen im Bereich von 15–40 m³/d.

In Anlage 113 werden hauptsächlich Silbersalze hergestellt. Zu diesem Zweck werden hochreines Rohsilber und silberreiche Prozessrückstände aus speziellen Industriebereichen gelöst. Die Einleitwerte sind in Tabelle 7.31 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 7.31: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 113 – Emissionen in das Wasser

Minderungstechnik	Metall	Konzentration		Messwert- erfassung	Mittel- wert- bildung
		mg/l			
		Mittel- wert	Max.		
Absetzgruben, Fäll- und Reduktionsreaktionen, pH-Wert-Einstellung	Silber	0,363	2	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	Tages- mittelwert
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>					

In Anlage 117 wird der verbrauchte Elektrolyt aus der Silberelektrolyse zunächst mit Kupferstaub zementiert. Restsilber aus der Goldgewinnung wird als Silberchlorid ausgefällt und anschließend mit Eisenstaub zementiert. Nach Filtration werden beide Lösungen in Sammelbecken gesammelt, denen auch das Filtrat aus der Selenfiltration zugeführt wird. Das Mischabwasser wird anschließend in der Teilstrombehandlungsanlage vor Ort mit Kalkmilch neutralisiert. Der bei der Filtration anfallende Schlamm wird in die Kupferhütte zurückgeführt, die gefilterte Lösung in den Sauerwasserkanal der Kupferhütte geleitet und vor Ableitung in den Fluss abschließend neutralisiert und geflockt.

Tabelle 7.32: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 117 – Emissionen in das Wasser

Minderungs- technik	Metall	Konzentration nach Teilstrombehandlung			Konzentration nach abschließender Behandlung vor Einleitung		
		mg/l			mg/l		
Vorbehand- lung mit Kalkmilch		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	Min.	Mittelwert	Max.
	Cu	< 1	< 1	6	0,024	0,031	0,357
	Ag	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 0,02	< 0,02	< 0,02
	As	1	21,35	88	0,003	0,022	0,098
	Pb	< 1	< 1	6	0,071	0,148	0,22
	Se	1	22,25	202	n.v.	n.v.	n.v.

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 7.33: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 1019 – Emissionen in das Wasser

Minderungs- technik	Metall	Konzentration			Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
		mg/l				
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Zementation mit Eisen oder Reduktion mit Hydrazin & Filtration der Lösungen aus der Platinmetall- raffination, Kalkzugabe zur pH-Wert- Einstellung & Filtration (Filterpresse)	Arsen	0	0	0,11	Kontinuier- liche Mischprobe	Tages- mittelwert
	Cadmium	0	0	0		
	Chrom	0	0	0,06		
	Kupfer	0	0,04	0,31		
	Blei	0	0	0,05		
	Quecksilber	0,0002	0,0003	0,0008		Tages- mittelwert
	Nickel	0	0,08	0,46		
	Silber	0	0,01	0,09		
	Zink	0	0,01	0,28		
	Thallium	0,0001	0,0001	0,00015		
	Kobalt	0	0	0,01		
	Zinn	0	0	0,17		
	Vanadium	0	0	0,12		
	Wismuth	0	0,01	0,18		
	Platin	0	0	0,19		
	Ruthenium	0	0	0,07		
	Iridium	0	0,01	0,18		
	Gold	0	0	0,09		
	Selen	0	0	0,17		
	Eisen	0	0,27	3,54		
Cl ⁻	0	5850	NR			
NH ₃	0	4	48			
CSB	190	595	1300	Tages- mittelwert		
SO ₄	30	140	700			
Suspendierte Feststoffe	20	82	270			
Sulfide	< 1	< 1	< 1		Wochen- mittelwert	

Anmerkung: NR = nicht repräsentativ
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Das vorbehandelte Abwasser der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage wird in den Sauerwasserkanal der Kupferhütte geleitet. Das Mischabwasser aus der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage und Kupferhütte wird über ein Abwasserkanalsystem der zentralen AWA der Kupferhütte zugeführt und nach Neutralisation und Flockung in den Fluss abgeleitet. Der vorbehandelte Abwasserteilstrom aus der Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage macht ca. 2 % des der AWA zugeführten Sauerwasserstroms aus.

Tabelle 7.34: Edelmetallgewinnungsanlage 205 – Emissionen in das Wasser

Minderungstechnik	Metall	Konzentration			Messwertfassung	Mittelwertbildung
		mg/l				
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Zugabe von Zinkstaub und Filtration über Ionenaustauscher (für Abwasser aus der Goldraffination). Zugabe von Kalkmilch, Filtration in einer Filterpresse und Neutralisation mit HCl (für das gesamte behandelte Abwasser)	Arsen	< 0,005	< 0,005	< 0,005	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	Tagesmittelwert
	Cadmium	0,05	0,05	0,05		
	Chrom	< 0,3	< 0,3	< 0,3		
	Kupfer	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1		
	Blei	< 0,25	< 0,25	0,25		
	Nickel	< 0,2	< 0,2	< 0,2		
	Zink	< 0,3	< 0,3	< 0,3		
	Zinn	< 1	< 1	< 1		
	Eisen	< 0,2	< 0,2	< 0,2		
	AOX	0,1	0,12	0,15		

Quelle: [404, EPMF 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Reagenzien und sonstigen Hilfsstoffen (z.B. Natriumhydroxid, Harze) zur Metallrückgewinnung, wobei diese allerdings aus internen Prozessen, bei denen saure und alkalische Lösungen anfallen, zurückgewonnen werden können und somit der Verbrauch an frischen Reagenzien reduziert oder minimiert werden kann.
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand für den Betrieb der Nasswäscher, Überwachungs- und Regeleinrichtungen
- Anfall von Abfallströmen, die entweder in den Abwasserkanal gelangen oder deponiert werden

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die dargestellten Techniken sind auf Neuanlagen anwendbar. Ihre Anwendung in bestehenden Anlagen erfordert umfangreiche Ertüchtigungen, vorausgesetzt die Platzverhältnisse in den Lösungsreinigungsbereichen lassen dies zu.

An einigen Standorten können sich aufgrund der Zusammensetzung der Abfalllösungen Betriebsprobleme bei den Ionenaustausch- und Ultrafiltern (z.B. Filtermembranen) ergeben. Versuche haben gezeigt, dass bestimmte, als Nebenprodukt des Prozesses anfallende gelöste Stoffe zu einer Vergiftung der Ionenaustauscherharze führen können und in den Reinigungsstufen nach der Fällung mit Kalk/Natronlauge Verkrustungsprobleme auftreten, so dass diese Techniken als Endstufen des Prozesses nicht geeignet sind.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Staubemissionen
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edelmetalle und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlagen 112, 113, 117, 205, 221, 1019 und 318

Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.3.8 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Einschmelzen von Metallendprodukten der Edelmetallraffination

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- gekapselte Öfen und Ofenbetrieb bei Unterdruck (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- geeignete Einhausung, Kapselungen, Abgashauben mit wirksamer Absaugung/Entlüftung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

An einigen Standorten werden, je nach Größe der Anlage und der Gesamtkonfiguration des Hüttenbetriebs (z.B. Einzelanlage oder angegliedert an eine andere Metallraffinationsanlage), die Staubemissionen aus der Materialaufbereitung und -förderung zusammen mit den Stäuben (und Rauchen/Dämpfen) aus dem Schmelzprozess und anderen staubträchtigen Prozessschritten über ein zentrales System erfasst und abgereinigt. Daher sind die in Abschnitt 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.3 und 7.3.8 beschriebenen Techniken einander ähnlich.

Technische Beschreibung

Die Endprodukte, wie z.B. Silberkristalle, Goldkathoden und Goldniederschläge, werden in kleinen chargenweise betriebenen Schmelzöfen eingeschmolzen. Hierzu können Induktionstiegelöfen oder gas-/ölbefeuerte Öfen zum Einsatz kommen. Das flüssige Metall wird zu unterschiedlichen Formaten (Barren, Blöcken) vergossen oder granuliert. Durch den Einsatz von Induktionsöfen kann der Anfall an Verbrennungsgasen minimiert und damit die Abgasreinigungsanlage kleiner ausgeführt werden.

Das Prozessabgas des Schmelzofens und das Sekundärabgas werden gekühlt und in Gewebe-/Mikrokassettenfiltern entstaubt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung und Minderung von Staubemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage 121 wird ein erdgasbefuener Ofen zum Einschmelzen von Silberkristallen eingesetzt. Das Silber wird granuliert oder zu Silberbarren vergossen. Goldkathoden oder Goldniederschlag werden in einem Induktionsofen eingeschmolzen und zu Barren unterschiedlichen Gewichts vergossen. Ferner werden in dieser Anlage auch Anoden für die anschließende Goldelektrolyse gegossen. Die Schmelzöfen sind eingehaust. Der Gießstand befindet sich unter einer Absaughaube. Das Prozessabgas und die Sekundärabgase werden in Gewebe-/Mikrokassettenfiltern gereinigt. Es fällt ein Abgasvolumenstrom von bis zu 4000 Nm³/h an. Staubemissionen werden einmal pro Jahr gemessen (drei Proben über eine Probenahmedauer von 30 min) und liegen unter 1 mg/Nm³.

In Anlage 2426 wird der zur Endraffination eingesetzte "Small Pan"-Prozess auch zum Umschmelzen von nicht spezifikationsgerechten Produkten (z.B. verworfene Produkte wegen Mängeln im äußeren Erscheinungsbild) verwendet. Eingeschmolzen werden i.d.R. Silberbarren. Das Abgaserfassungssystem, an das alle Emissionsquellen des Silberkreislaufs angeschlossen sind, ist für einen Volumenstrom von 160 000 m³/h ausgelegt. Im Gewebefilter wird ein Staubabscheidegrad von > 99,99 % erreicht.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand durch den Betrieb der Absaug-, Entlüftungs- und Entstaubungseinrichtungen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung und Minderung von Staubemissionen
- Minimierung von Wertmetall-/Edelmetallverlusten und Rückgewinnung von Edel- und sonstige Wertmetalle enthaltenden Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

u.a. Anlagen 112, 117, 121, 221, 318, 2113 und 2426

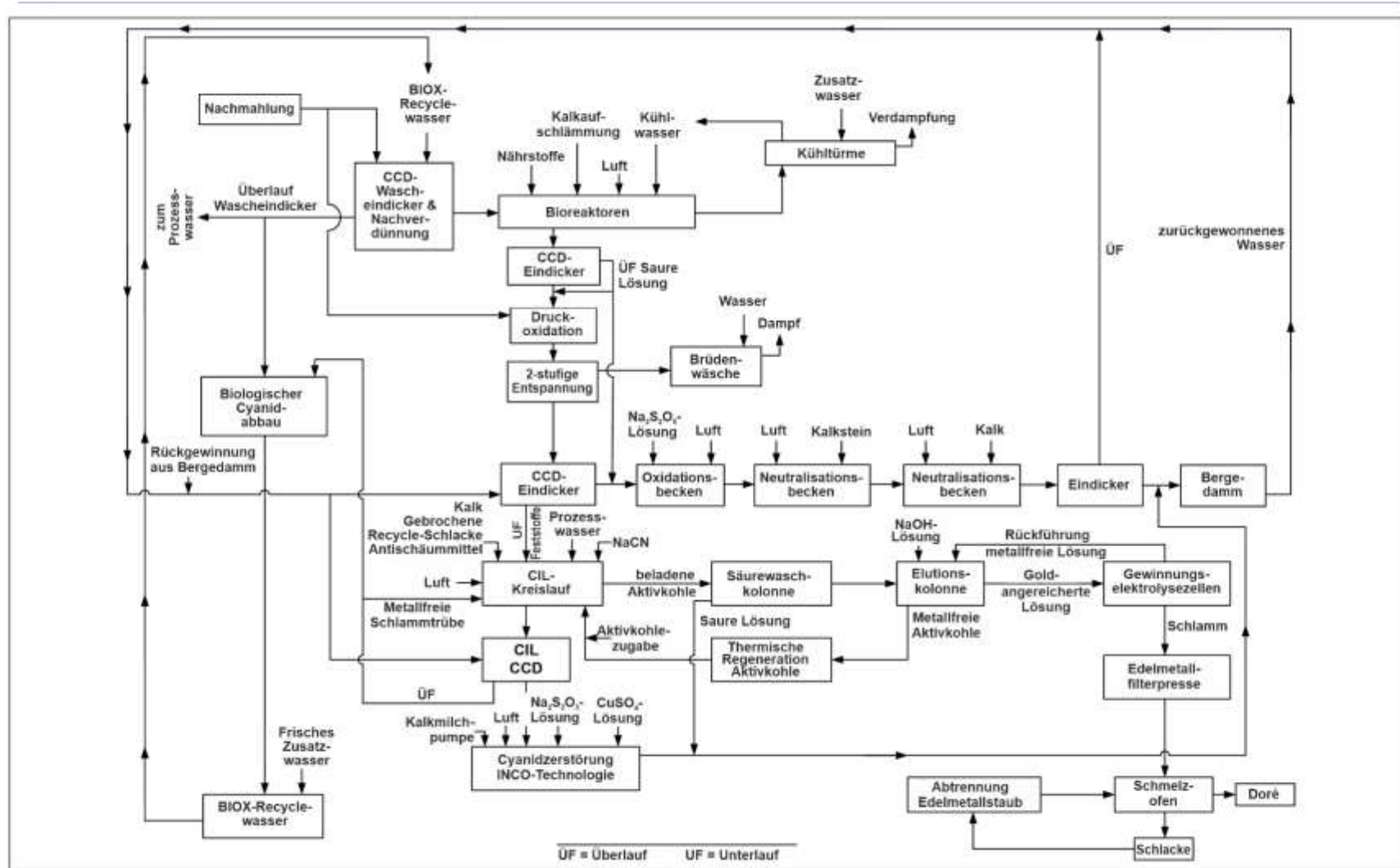
Literatur

[404, EPMF 2012]

7.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Das 'J'-Verfahren wird in Europa nicht eingesetzt, kann aber im Vergleich zu anderen Goldraffinationsverfahren mit einem niedrigeren Goldbestand betrieben werden. Verunreinigtes Gold (< 99,5 %) wird in einer regenerierbaren Jodlösung aufgelöst. Nach Reduktion mit Kaliumhydroxid wird das Gold abgetrennt und fällt nach Trocknung als Pulver mit einem Goldgehalt von 99,995 % an. Die Lösung aus der Reduktionsstufe wird elektrolysiert, wobei lösliche Verunreinigungen und nicht reduziertes Goldjodit an der Kathode abgeschieden und im Edelmetallkreislauf zurückgewonnen werden. Anschließend wird die Lösung in einer Diaphragma-Elektrolysezelle mit inerten Elektroden elektrolysiert. Die sich im Anoden- und Kathodenraum jeweils bildenden Jod- und KOH-Lösungen werden recycelt [5, B R Lerwill et al. 1993].

Ein weiteres Verfahren wurde zur Verarbeitung von Pyritkonzentrat mit mikroskopischen Goldpartikeln (< 1 µm) auf Gold Doré, ein Blei-Silberkonzentrat und ein Zinkkonzentrat entwickelt [210, Greek State 1999]. Das metallurgische Fließbild ist nachstehend in Abbildung 7.4 dargestellt.



Legende: CCD = engl. Counter-Current Decanter (Gegenstrom-Dekanter); CIL = engl. Carbon in Leach (Löse-/Adsorptionskreislauf)

Abbildung 7.4: Metallurgisches Verfahrensfliessbild

8 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE FERRO-ALLOYS

Ferro-alloys are mainly used as master alloys in the iron, foundry and steel industry, because it is the most economical way to introduce an alloying element into the steel melt. Besides this, special ferro-alloys are also needed for the production of aluminium alloys and as starting material in specific chemical reactions.

As an additive in steel production, ferro-alloys improve the properties, especially the tensile strength, wear and corrosion resistance. The effect of the improved properties of steel by using ferro-alloys as an alloying element depends more or less on the following influences [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]:

- a change in the chemical composition of the steel;
- the removal or the tying up of harmful impurities such as oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur or hydrogen;
- a change in the nature of the solidification, for example, upon inoculation.

Depending on the raw material that is used (primary or secondary raw material), the production of ferro-alloys can be carried out as a primary or secondary process. The principal chemistry of both processes can be shown as follows:

Primary processes:

Oxidic metal ore + iron ore/scrap + reducing agent → ferro-alloy + reducing agent oxide + slag

Secondary processes:

Metal scrap + iron scrap → ferro-alloy

Primary ferro-alloys are principally produced either by the carbothermic or metallothermic reduction of oxidic ores or concentrates. The most important process is carbothermic reduction, in which carbon in the form of coke (metallurgical coke), coal or charcoal is normally used as a reducing agent. When a blast furnace is used, coke is also needed as an energy source. [255, VDI 2010].

Metallothermic reduction is mainly carried out with either silicon or aluminium as the reducing agent. The following chemical equations show the basic principles of the carbothermic and metallothermic production routes.

Carbothermic reduction: metal oxide + carbon → metal + carbon monoxide

Silicothermic reduction: metal oxide + silicon → metal + silicon oxide

Aluminothermic reduction: metal oxide + aluminium → metal + aluminium oxide

8.1 Applied processes and techniques

Depending on the production rate, ferro-alloys can be divided into two main categories: bulk alloys and special alloys. Bulk ferro-alloys (ferro-chrome, ferro-silicon, ferro-manganese, silico-manganese and ferro-nickel) account for about 90 % of the total production of ferro-alloys in the European Union.

Compared to bulk ferro-alloys, the production rate of special ferro-alloys is small. Special ferro-alloys (ferro-vanadium, ferro-molybdenum, ferro-tungsten, ferro-titanium, ferro-boron and ferro-niobium) are mostly used in the iron, steel and cast iron industries. Besides this, some special ferro-alloys are increasingly also used in other industry sectors, e.g. aluminium and chemical industries.

8.1.1 Ferro-chrome

Ferro-chrome, along with nickel (ferro-nickel), is the major alloying element in the production of stainless steel. Stainless steel is used in a variety of areas from cutlery to aircraft engine turbine blades.

The chromium content of ferro-chrome normally varies from 45 % to 75 % and it also contains various amounts of iron, carbon and other alloying elements. The use of ferro-chrome depends mainly on the carbon content. Ferro-chrome can therefore be classified as follows:

- high-carbon ferro-chrome (HC FeCr) with 2–12 % C (ferro-chrome carburé);
- medium-carbon ferro-chrome (MC FeCr) with 0.5–4 % C (ferro-chrome affiné);
- low-carbon ferro-chrome (LC FeCr) with 0.01–0.5 % C (ferro-chrome suraffiné).

8.1.1.1 Raw materials

The main raw material to produce ferro-chrome is chromite ore, which is a mineral that contains iron and chromium oxides. The ratio between Cr and Fe in the chromite ore determines the chromium content of the alloy produced, e.g. a high Cr to Fe ratio is advantageous for the production of a ferro-alloy with a high chromium content. Chromite ore is used in the form of hard or upgraded lump varieties, friable lumps or fine concentrate.

The reducibility of diverse ores is quite different. Generally speaking, for the production of FeCr, podiform ores are of a higher quality, resulting in a high-Cr alloy, while stratiform ores have a lower chromite content and a low Cr to Fe ratio, resulting in a charge chrome alloy. For this reason, podiform ores will most often give a chromium recovery in excess of 90 %, while for fine stratiform ores the recovery is below 70 % in conventional production routes. This is the case with South African ores. With the DC plasma process, recovery is reportedly above 90 %. This compensates for the higher consumption of electrical energy needed to increase the process temperature to achieve faster reduction. In the widely used technology of sintered pellets (grinding, pelletising and sintering) the increased reduction rate of the fine stratiform ores is based on increased reaction surface, the recovery with pellets being close to 87 %. For podiform ores, the recovery benefits of these alternative process routes will not be of the same magnitude.

Depending on the different production routes and the desired carbon content of the ferro-chrome, carbon or silicon is used as a reducing agent [255, VDI 2010]. For the production of HC FeCr, carbon is added to the process as a reducing agent in the form of metallurgical coke, coal or charcoal. Metallurgical coke is the most common reducing agent. It is important that a coke with a low phosphorus and sulphur content is used because 60–90 % of the phosphorus and 15–35 % of the sulphur is transferred into the metal. For the production of LC FeCr, ferro-silico-chromium and ferro-silicon are used in a silicothermic reduction as reducing agents and raw material. To achieve sufficient purity of the reducing agent (mainly coal), a coal washing

step may be carried out. This may be done by heavy media separation and takes place at coal mines or coal disposal points but not at the ferro-alloy plant.

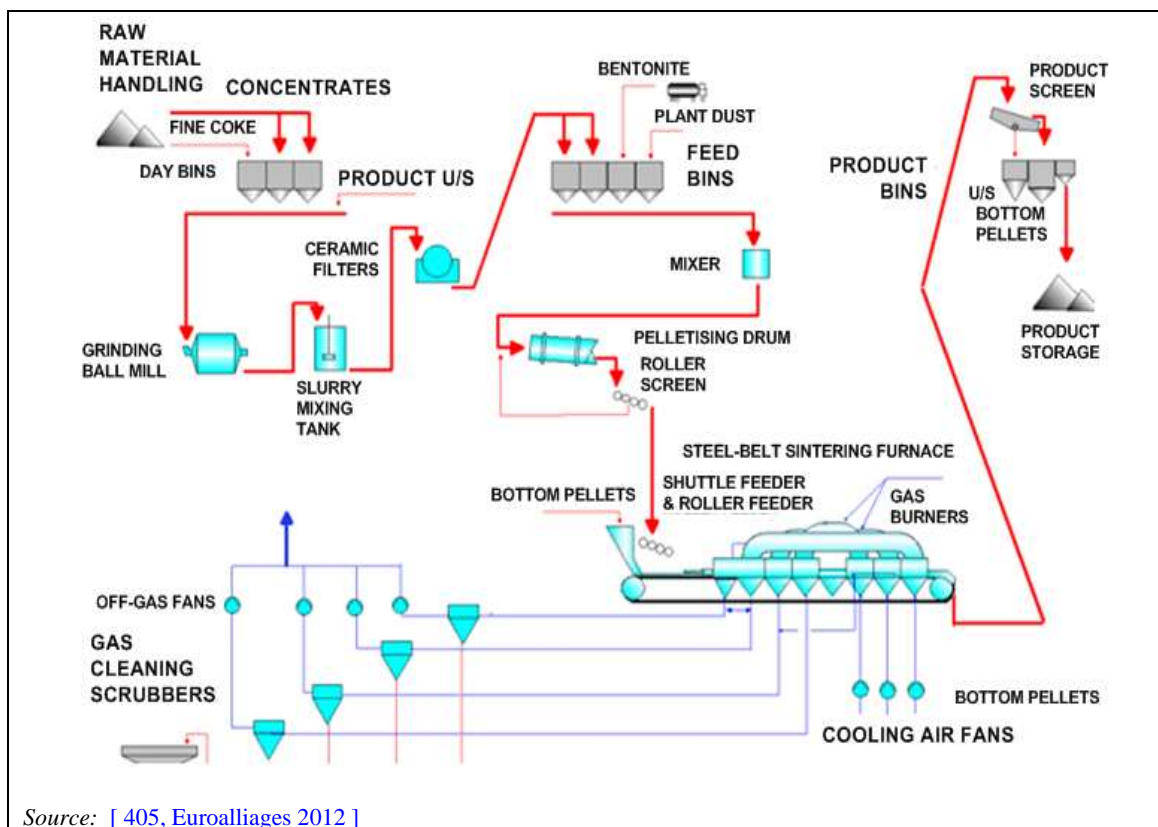
For some processes, primary raw materials, like coke, or secondary raw materials need to be dried before they are used in the process. In some cases, coke drying is important for removing moisture, depending on the climate, snow and ice.

In order to achieve the right metal analysis, a good metal recovery and a satisfactory furnace operation, auxiliary materials such as quartzite, bauxite, corundum, lime and olivine can be added to the burden as fluxing agents.

8.1.1.2 Pretreatment techniques

Chromite is used as a raw material for the production of ferro-chrome in the form of lumpy ore, fines and concentrates, although mainly as fine concentrate (< 1 mm). To convert ore fines and concentrates to furnaceable material, they first need to be agglomerated by briquetting, pelletising and sintering, or sintering alone. Agglomeration is necessary to achieve good recoveries and also to give a permeable burden, which allows the gas from the reaction zone to escape [255, VDI 2010].

Green pellets are made by rolling fine, ground, moist ore with the addition of a binder and fine-grained coke breeze into balls in a rotary drum or on a disc. These are later sintered in a steel belt furnace to hard, porous pellets with constant physical and chemical properties. The steel belt sintering process consists of a multi-compartment oven through which the green pellets are carried on a perforated steel conveyor belt. Green pellets are dried in the drying compartment, by circulating gas from the last cooling compartment. In the preheating compartment, the temperature of the pellets is increased so that they are calcined and the carbon in the bed is ignited. Heating gas is taken from the second cooling compartment. In the sintering compartment, a sintering temperature of 1350–1450 °C is achieved. Heating gas, in addition to the energy from the burning of carbon and the oxidation of iron, is taken from the first cooling compartment. The front-end compartments are in a downdraught configuration, and cooling air is blown into the three cooling compartments from below. To control the temperature profile in the compartments, CO gas from smelting or natural gas is burnt in the burners located in the recycling gas duct of the preheating and sintering zones. Product pellets and circulating pellets are used as a bottom layer on the steel belt to protect it from excessively high temperatures. The steel belt sintering furnace is closed. The process is shown in Figure 8.1.



Source: [405, Euroalliages 2012]

Figure 8.1: Steel belt sintering process

Where thermal treatment (sintering) is involved, process off-gases must be cleaned in cascade scrubbers or fabric filters. For all the agglomeration processes, collected raw material dusts from these processes or from other raw material handling processes can be recycled. The external energy consumption in a steel belt sintering furnace is lower than in a shaft furnace and a grate furnace: energy consumption in a steel belt sintering furnace is 700–1400 MJ/t of pellets. In a Finnish plant applying this process, CO from the smelter is used as a fuel together with coke fines.

8.1.1.3 Production of ferro-chrome and silico-chromium

8.1.1.3.1 High-carbon ferro-chrome

High-carbon ferro-chrome (HC FeCr) is produced almost exclusively by the direct carbothermic reduction of chromite ore in three-phase submerged electric arc furnaces with continuous operation. The burden can be preheated in a shaft or rotary kiln using the CO gas from the smelting process. Pre-reduction in a rotary kiln is also possible. In both cases, the specific consumption of electrical energy will be reduced. Closed, semi-closed or open submerged electric arc furnaces including three-phase AC (alternating current) operation and single-phase DC (direct current) plasma arc furnaces are used. The DC arc furnace includes a single hollow graphite electrode. The building of open furnaces for ferro-chrome production is prohibited in many countries for environmental reasons. The formation of chromium(VI) in the dust is too high.

The submerged arc furnaces use Söderberg electrodes. The electrode may be formed by hot paste, briquettes, blocks or paste cylinders. The electrode paste is charged on top of the electrode in accordance with its consumption. The material is subject to increased heat as it moves downwards in the electrode column. It melts at about 80 °C and bakes at 500 °C. To control the smelting process, the furnace operation can be based on resistance or current control,

so that the electrodes are lifted and lowered when necessary to keep the resistance or current constant. A system of electrode sealing is needed to prevent air leakage into the furnace. As an alternative, another practice is commonly used where the electrode moves only during slipping and otherwise stands in place.

During the smelting process, the metal oxides are reduced by the coke, with metal carbides as the final product. The reduction produces large volumes of CO gas from the reaction zone under the electrode tips. In an open furnace, the CO gas is burnt at the surface of the furnace. Thus, the heating value of the CO-rich gas is wasted. Compared with an open furnace, the off-gas volume can be reduced in a closed sealed furnace by a factor of 50–75 and by a factor of 10–20 in the case of a semi-closed furnace. The investment costs for the off-gas cleaning systems for closed furnaces are much lower than for open furnaces. The cleaned CO gas can be used as fuel for preheating raw material, coke drying and similar processes, substituting oil or other fossil fuels. The heating value of the off-gas from semi-closed furnaces can be recovered in the form of steam or hot water.

Ferro-chrome and the slag are tapped off at regular intervals from tapholes near the bottom of the furnace. Slag and metal are tapped through the same tapholes using cascade tapping into the same metal vessel. The lower density slag will float to the top and eventually overflow through the ladle spout to the slag pot or via a secondary launder to a slag pit, granulating basin or other slag vessel. Bed casting and layer casting are the most frequently used methods for casting ferro-chrome because of the simplicity and the low costs of these methods. The cooled castings are crushed and screened on the product handling line to produce the commercial product lot specified by the customers. If possible, the molten ferro-chrome can also be transferred directly to an adjacent stainless steelmaking plant.

The slag can either be granulated with a high-pressure water jet or cast outdoors in layers, cooled, crushed and screened.

Below is a description of how the slag is directly granulated during tapping, where ferro-chrome is tapped into ladles. The overflow from the ladles flows along the slag launder to the granulation pond, where high-pressure water breaks the slag into small fractions and efficiently cools it down. Granulated slag is a very homogeneous product. The grain size is < 6 mm. Each granule is tight and partly crystalline. Typically the granulated slag includes three different phases: an amorphous glass phase, crystalline and zonal Fe-Mg-Cr-Al spinels, and metal drops. The granulation process is shown in Figure 8.2.

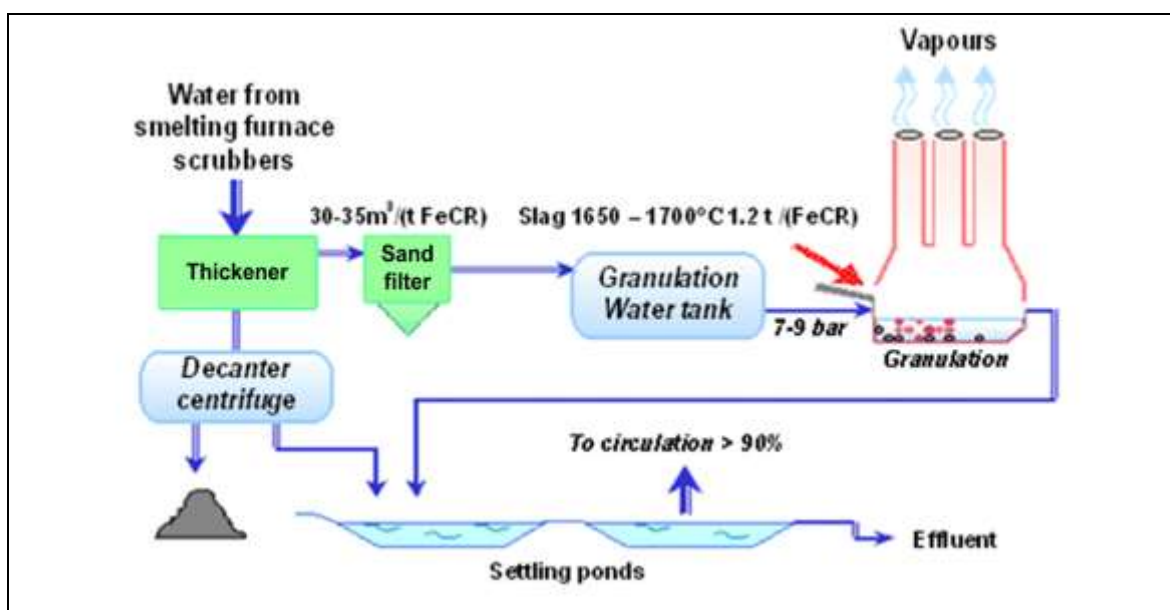


Figure 8.2: Slag granulation process

Cast slag that contains metal is also crushed and the metal content recovered by means of slag-metal separation [255, VDI 2010]. Recovered slag-free lump metal can be sold, while slag-contaminated metal and fines can be sold or recycled to the smelting process. Slag can also be treated by heavy media separation, magnetic separation or jigging. Both the granulated and the lump slag are reused as building and road construction material.

An example of a high-carbon ferro-chrome production process using a closed submerged electric arc furnace is shown in Figure 8.3.

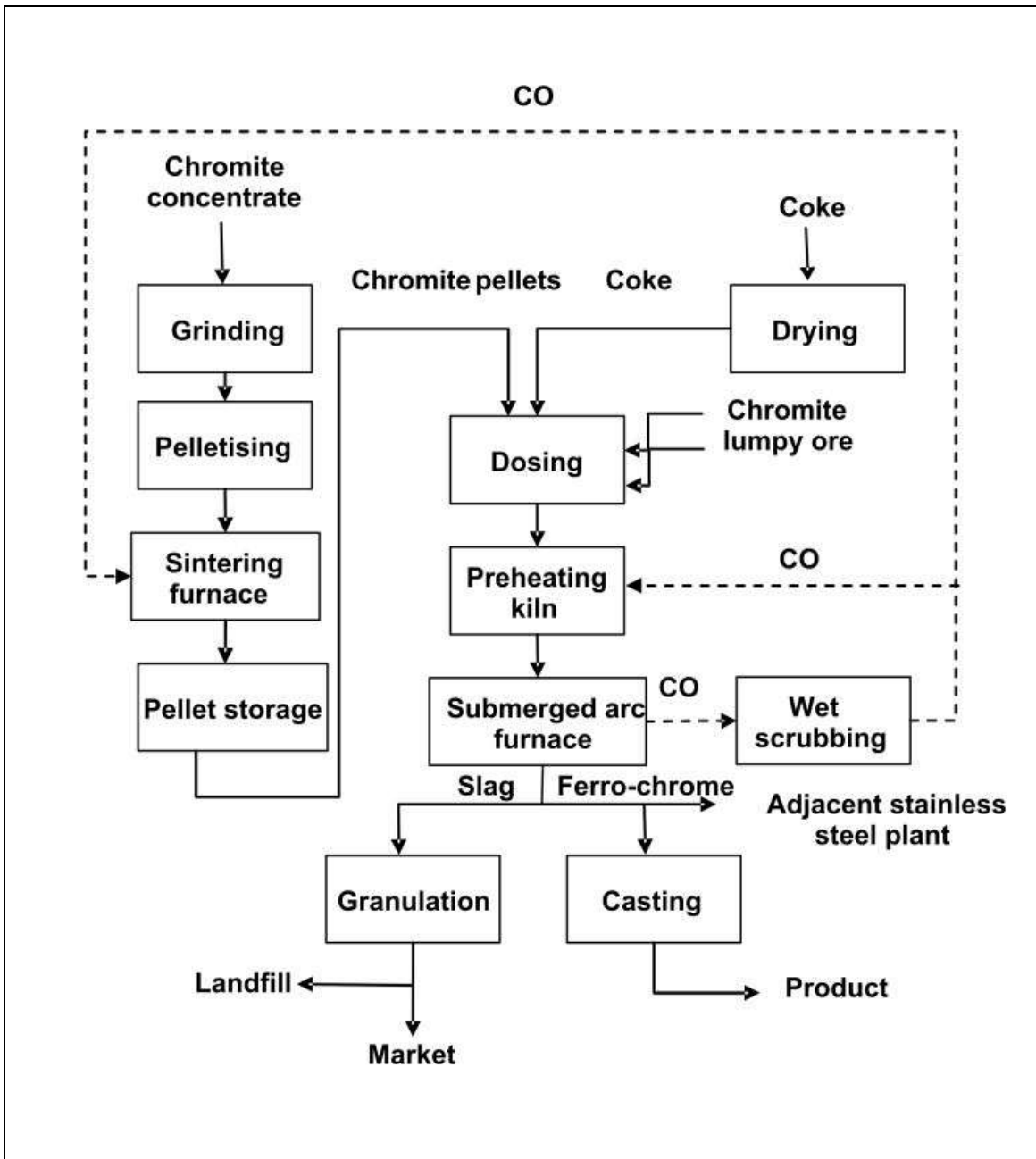


Figure 8.3: High-carbon ferro-chrome production using a closed submerged electric arc furnace

An example of a ferro-chrome production process using a semi-closed submerged electric arc furnace is shown in Figure 8.4.

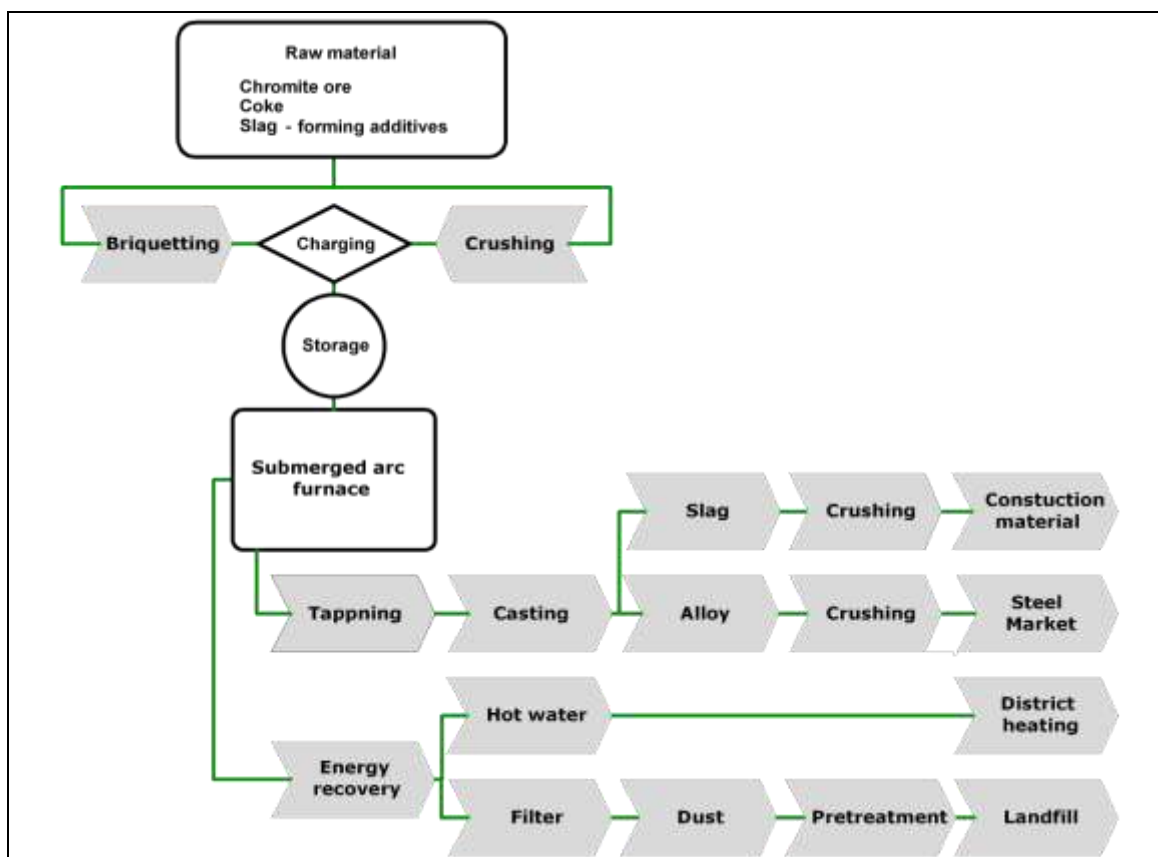


Figure 8.4: Ferro-chrome production using a semi-closed submerged arc furnace

8.1.1.3.2 Medium-carbon ferro-chrome

Medium-carbon ferro-chrome (MC FeCr) can be produced by the silicothermic reduction of chromite ore and concentrates, or by the decarburisation of HC FeCr in an oxygen-blown converter. The oxygen can be introduced in the molten metal from the top of the melt using water-cooled lances or by injection at the bottom of the converter. The bottom-blowing process has the advantage that a high decarburisation rate can be achieved together with a high chromium recovery. The high bath temperature in a bottom-blown converter affects the high decarburisation and chromium recovery rates.

The silicothermic route is more economical and therefore more suitable for producing MC FeCr. The reason may be the small MC FeCr demand compared with the high demand for HC FeCr together with the fact that low-carbon ferro-chrome can be produced by the same process as well.

8.1.1.3.3 Low-carbon ferro-chrome

In order to get the desired low carbon content in low-carbon ferro-chrome (LC FeCr), a carbothermic process cannot be used. The most commonly used processes are therefore metallothermic reductions known as the Duplex, Perrin or Simplex processes.

The only process used in the EU-28 to produce LC FeCr is the Duplex process. In this process, LC FeCr is produced by the silicothermic reduction of a lime-chromite slag. The slag smelting process takes place in a tiltable AC arc furnace with Søderberg electrodes. The furnace is operated at about 1750 °C. The liquid melt is tapped at regular intervals into a first reaction ladle. When SiCr, ore and lime are added to the ladle, the reacting mixture is converted into LC FeCr and an intermediate slag. During this process the ladle is covered by a smoke hood. About

70 % of the intermediate slag is transferred to a second reaction ladle, which is also covered by a fume collection hood. Adding Si, FeSi, sand and boric acid to the mixture produces a final slag and a metal. The metal is recycled back to the first ladle. A fabric filter cleans the off-gas of the furnace from both reaction ladles. The dust from the bag filter is recycled into the smelting furnace. The Perrin process is similar but uses two arc furnaces.

LC FeCr can also be produced by the Simplex process. In the Simplex process, HC FeCr is crushed in a ball mill in order to get a ferro-alloy powder. After briquetting the HC FeCr powder together with Cr_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 , the mixture can be decarburised by annealing at about 1350 °C in a vacuum furnace.

8.1.1.3.4 Silico-chromium

Silico-chromium is also used as an alloying element in the steel industry. It can be produced in the same kind of three-phase submerged electric arc furnaces as used for HC FeCr production. The reduction of SiO_2 to Si is combined with the generation of huge amounts of CO gas. The high generation rate of CO makes it important to use a porous burden (e.g. gas coke), and a semi-closed or closed furnace with an appropriate energy recovery system.

8.1.2 Ferro-silicon and silicon alloys

Ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium (CaSi) are used as additives in different industrial products. As an alloying element, ferro-silicon increases the strength of steel and is therefore used in steel that is needed to produce wire cords for tyres or ball bearings. Ferro-silicon is also used to remove dissolved oxygen from molten steel. High-purity FeSi is used to produce high-permeability steel for electric transformers. Silicon metal is important as an alloying element in aluminium and for the production of chemicals and electronic products. The major user of silico-calcium is the steel industry. The aforementioned metals can be classified by their silicon content as follows:

- ferro-silicon: silicon content of less than 96 %;
- silicon metal: silicon content of above 96 %;
- silico-calcium: silicon content of about 60–65 % and calcium content of 30–35 %.

8.1.2.1 Raw materials

The raw materials that are commonly used for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium are listed in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Raw materials for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium

Raw material	Ferro-silicon	Silicon metal	Silico-calcium
Quartz	X	X	X
Coke	X	NA	X
Petrol coke	NA	X	NA
Coal	X	X	X
Charcoal	X	X	NA
Woodchips	X	X	NA
Limestone	NA	X	X
Iron ore/steel scrap	X	NA	NA
Amorphous carbon	NA	X	NA
Graphite electrodes	NA	If a combined graphite/ Söderberg electrode is used	NA
Söderberg electrode paste	X	NA	X
NB: NA = Not applicable.			

In order to achieve good process results, the selection of the raw material is made based on strict quality requirements. The thermal strength of the quartzite for example is of special importance because it is connected to the gas permeability of the charge where too much fine-sized material may prevent gas flow. The carbon quality is important for the environmental performance of the process, because the coal and coke contain sulphur and trace elements which can be emitted into the environment [226, Nordic Report 2008]. If carbon contains mercury or other vaporous elements, they will evaporate in the process and will be emitted as part of the off-gas into the environment.

The generation of fines due to the free fall of different raw materials has been studied and is presented in Table 8.2 (repetitive falls may result in higher fines generation per fall). To avoid the generation of fines, excessive falls/drops and handling of the raw materials should be avoided. A more extensive literature study of how quartz handling generates fines has been done by Aasly et al. [337, K. Aasly 2008].

Table 8.2: Fines generation due to free fall

Fines generation	Coal	Coke	Quartz	Iron pellets
2 m fall	0.6 %	0.2 %	0.2 %	0.1 %
16 m fall	2.7 %	0.5 %	0.8 %	0.4 %

8.1.2.2 Production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium

The different raw materials that are used for Si, FeSi and CaSi production are preferably stored on hard surfaces in order to prevent contamination. The reducing agents are stored outdoors or indoors, the latter to protect the material from humidity caused by rain. Some of the reducing agents can have self-igniting characteristics. In these cases, appropriate methods have to be implemented to avoid self-combustion, e.g. in charcoal or coal with a high volatile matter and woodchips content.

Ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium are commonly produced in low-shaft three-phase submerged electric arc furnaces [255, VDI 2010]. The furnace can be of the open or semi-closed type. The furnace normally rotates in order to connect the reaction areas around each electrode tip to break down crust in between the electrodes. The rotation gives rise to some difficulties in obtaining good capture efficiency of the diffuse emissions at the taphole as the location of the taphole will rotate with the furnace. The raw material is fed from storage bins above the furnace, through feeding tubes. In small furnaces, the raw material can also be fed using stocking cars.

The smelting of silicon metal and silicon alloys normally takes place in open or semi-closed furnaces. The open furnaces are commonly built with movable curtains or gates around the furnace hood to secure access for maintenance and possible manual feeding. The furnace/smoke hood is the upper part of the furnace and has several tasks. First of all, it collects the process off-gas and shields the equipment from the process heat. Secondly, the hood is where the electrodes are placed and raw materials are charged. Hoods often include a cooling arrangement. For FeSi and CaSi production, Söderberg electrode technology is used. For silicon production, the electrode is often prebaked and screwed on top of the previous electrode depending on the electrode consumption. In recent years, an electrode has been developed utilising a combination of the Söderberg technology and a graphite core with a stable iron electrode casing. This combined electrode allows the implementation of the Söderberg technology in the production of silicon metal. The aims are to reduce the iron impurities caused by the electrode casing and to reduce the high costs of prebaked graphite electrodes [233, COM 2008], [226, Nordic Report 2008].

The semi-closed furnace has been introduced to control the suction of air into the furnace top, thereby reducing the total gas stream from the furnace. This increases the gas temperature and requires an improved temperature control on the off-gas side, but at the same time allows for an even higher energy recovery. The process off-gas which contains silica fumes is cleaned in a bag filter. The liquid metal is tapped continuously or at regular intervals. The metal is cast from the ladle after the tapping is finished. Transportable tapping vessels can be brought to the tapping position by suitable vehicles or by overhead cranes. The metal can also be directly tapped to the casting area without using transport vessels. The silicon alloy is then cast into moulds and crushed by jaw, rotary or roll crushers or granulated in water.

In semi-closed furnaces, an energy recovery system can be implemented, although this largely depends on the local parameters/circumstances (applicability). Figures 8.5 and 8.6 outline the energy balances for a silicon production process in a semi-closed furnace with and without energy recovery.

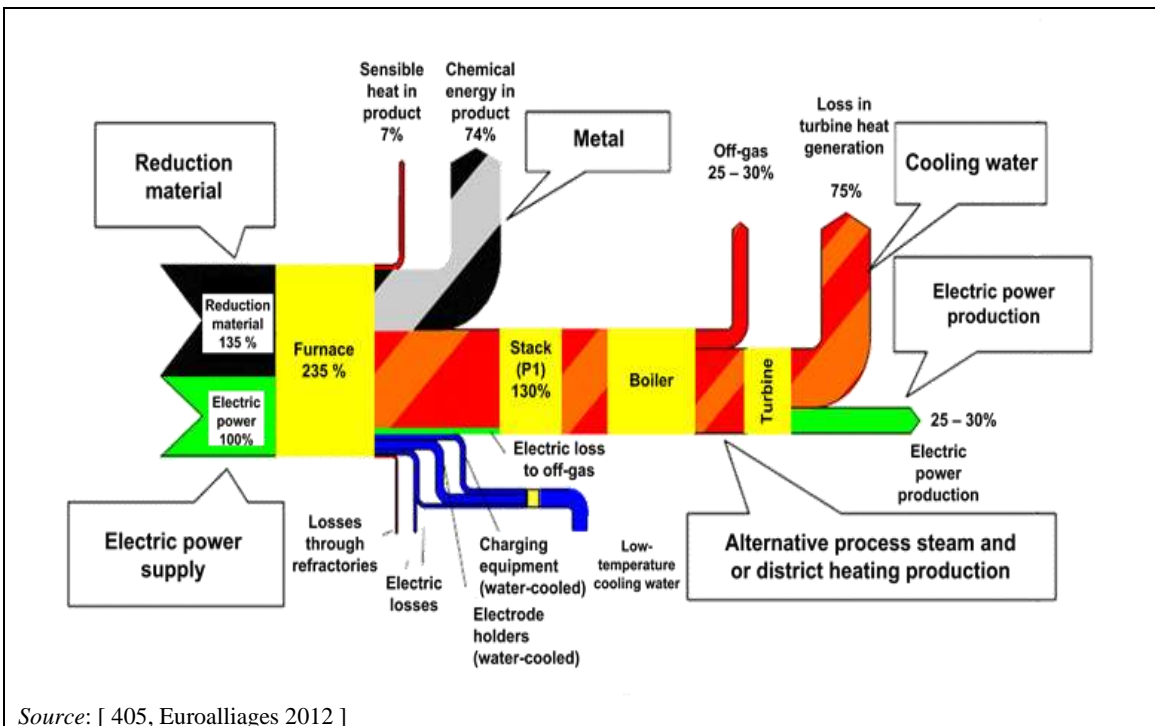


Figure 8.5: Energy balance for a silicon production process with energy recovery

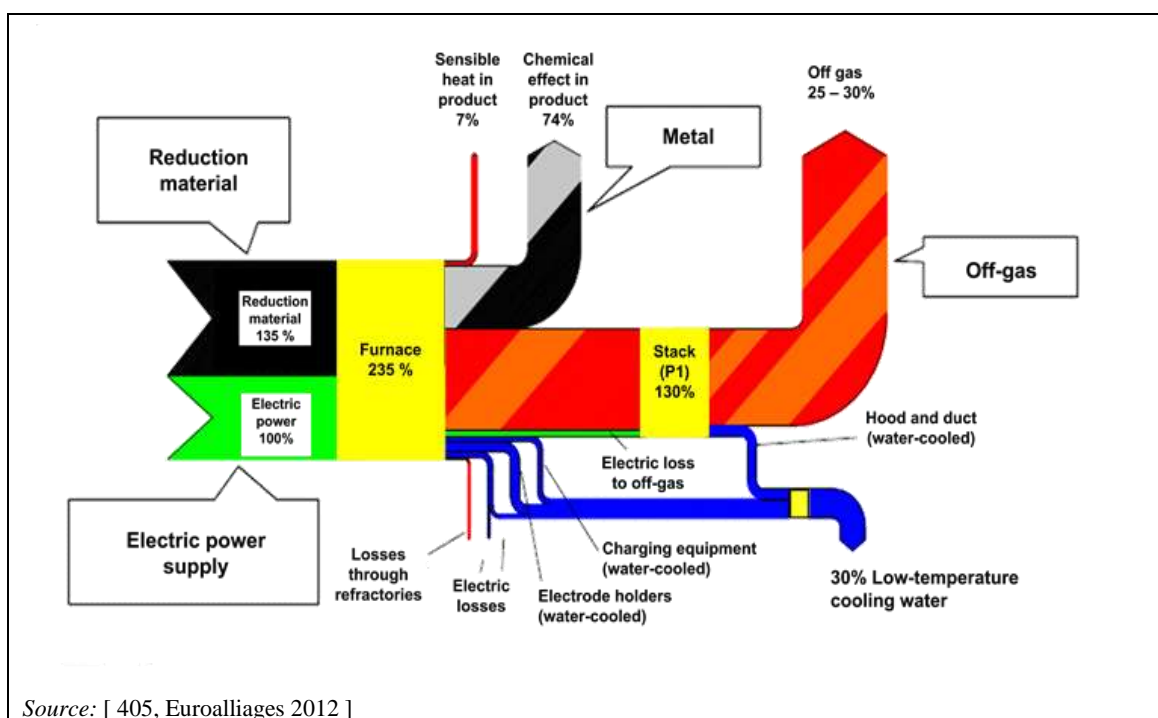


Figure 8.6: Energy balance for a silicon production process without energy recovery

It should be noted that the production of silicon metal and ferro-silicon is an almost slag-free process, as nearly all the impurities present in the raw material are transferred to the products, metal or micro-silica. To obtain a higher purity metal, a further refining step is needed. The refining takes place by oxidising the impurities in a ladle. Injection of oxygen gas or air is done through immersed lances, porous plugs in the ladle bottom or injectors. Correcting slag can also be added to improve the refining process. The refining stage is covered with a fume collection system, e.g. a fume collection hood, which is connected to a bag filter.

8.1.3 Ferro-manganese and manganese alloys

Ferro-manganese is another bulk ferro-alloy of great importance, mainly in the steel and stainless steel industries. Initially employed as a deoxidising and desulphurising agent, today ferro-manganese is mostly used to improve the hardness and wear resistance of steel. Ferro-manganese and other important manganese alloys can basically be classified as [226, Nordic Report 2008]:

- high-carbon ferro-manganese (HC FeMn): Max. C content of 7.5 %;
- medium-carbon ferro-manganese (MC FeMn): Max. C content of 2.5 %;
- low-carbon ferro-manganese (LC FeMn): Max. C content of 0.75 %;
- silico-manganese (SiMn): Max. C content of 2.0 %;
- low-carbon silico-manganese (LC SiMn): Max. C content of 0.10 %.

8.1.3.1 Raw materials

The production of ferro-manganese and silico-manganese is based on a blend of ores that contain manganese as a primary raw material. In order to obtain good process efficiency, the manganese ore and concentrates (with a low iron content) should be of a lump variety or as sintered material. Other raw materials that are required for the smelting process are iron ore and fluxing agents such as limestone and dolomite. Coke and low volatile coal are used as a reducing agent and, in the case of HC FeMn production in a blast furnace, also as an energy

source. For the production of silico-manganese, rich ferro-manganese slag, ferro-silicon scrap, silicon skulls and quartz are needed.

8.1.3.2 Pretreatment techniques

To use fine ores in the production of ferro-manganese, an agglomeration, pelletising and sintering step is used. Besides ore fines, the burden for sinter incorporates fuels (coke fines, coal fines, gas for ignition) and fluxes like limestone and dolomite as well as recycled fines and dust. Sintering is used in order to achieve a more suitable size and to reduce the natural ore to an intermediate metallurgical-grade raw material. The main advantages of the agglomeration and sinter process are [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]:

- fine ore, which has a limited application and value in conventional smelting, is agglomerated and converted to a superior product;
- reduced gas volumes, and hence fewer furnace eruptions result when smelting sinter;
- furnace availability and operating loads are increased;
- better porosity of the burden with easier penetration and elimination of the gas generated by the reduction reactions.

For the production of HC FeMn and SiMn, travelling grate sintering is usually applied. In the grate sintering technology, sintering of the burden is achieved by batch in a static way. For each cycle, burners are positioned above the burden and fuel is consumed until the layer is properly sintered. At the end of the sintering cycle, burners are removed and the layer is collected by rotation.

The off-gases generated during sintering can be dedusted with an electrostatic precipitator and fabric filter. A complementary filtration of the off-gas produced during sintering and cooling of the sinter can be achieved using cyclones or fabric filters.

8.1.3.3 Production of ferro-manganese and silico-manganese

8.1.3.3.1 High-carbon ferro-manganese

High-carbon ferro-manganese (HC FeMn) is produced by the carbothermic reduction of lumpy or sintered manganese ore in a three-phase submerged electric arc furnace.

The commonly used electric arc furnaces are the closed, semi-closed and open types, which has no or only limited consequences on the furnace itself, but does affect the gas composition, flow rate, recovery and dedusting system used. The diameter of the furnace varies from 2 metres to 20 metres. Smaller furnaces have the advantage of being more flexible, because they can switch more easily between different products.

The raw material is fed to the smelting process by gravity from storage bins above the furnace. The feeding tubes are placed around the electrodes in order to ensure an even distribution of raw material to the furnace.

The electric arc furnace for the production of HC FeMn should be adapted compared to the furnaces that are normally used to produce ferro-alloys. Due to the high vapour pressure of ferro-manganese, the smelting process needs a careful temperature control because the charge should not be overheated. The vapour pressure together with the relatively low resistivity of the ferro-manganese burden results in the electrodes having a low current density. As a consequence, the furnace should be operated at a low voltage which requires the electrodes to have a larger diameter for the high current that is needed for the process. A typical closed electric arc furnace for the production of ferro-manganese operating with Söderberg electrodes is shown in Figure 8.7.

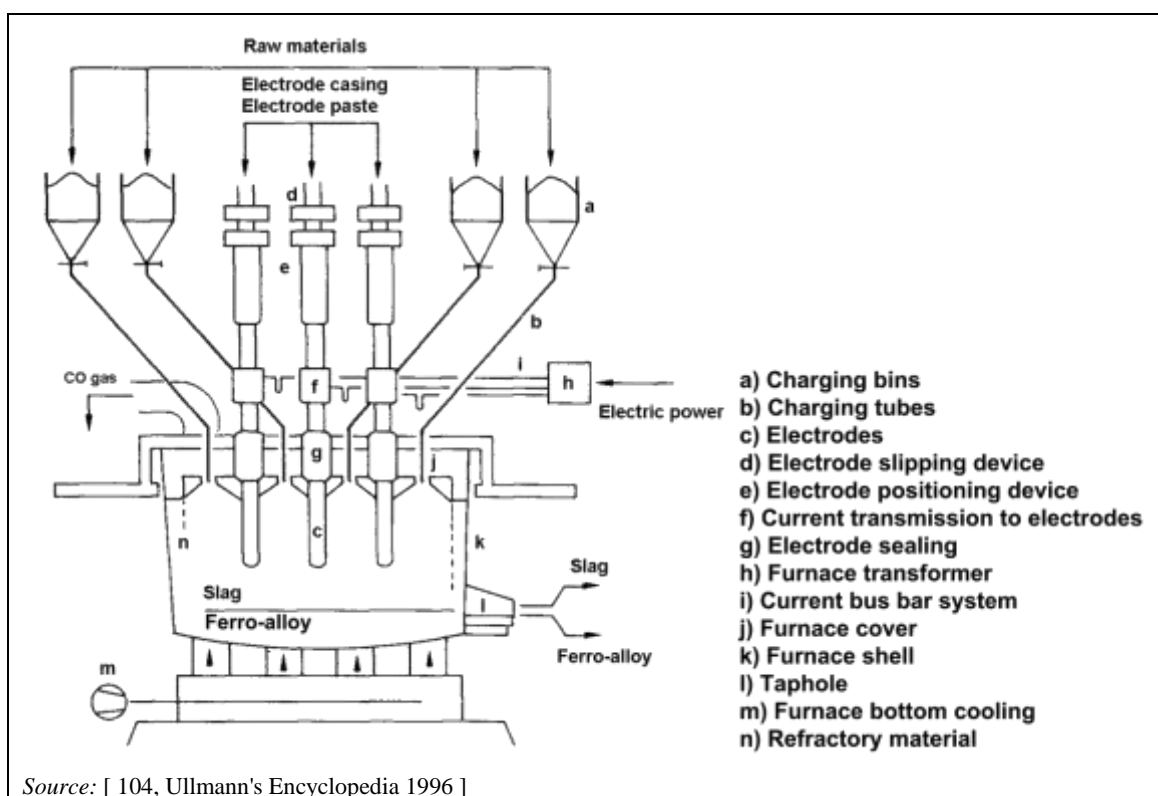


Figure 8.7: Closed electric arc ferro-manganese furnace operating with Söderberg electrodes

Electric arc furnaces for the production of ferro-manganese are operated only with self-baking Söderberg electrodes. Because of the large diameter, the use of prebaked electrodes is uneconomical compared with Söderberg electrodes. (See Figure 8.7).

Söderberg electrodes consist of a mild steel or stainless steel casing which is stiffened with internal fines and filled with a carbonaceous paste, consisting of a solid aggregate, usually calcined anthracite, and a binder of coal tar pitch. The tar becomes plastic when hot and fills the entire volume of the casing. On further heating of the electrode by the current and furnace heat, the paste is baked and becomes solid [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996].

The molten metal and the slag can be tapped off continuously or at regular intervals. The metal is cast into moulds lined with crushed ferro-manganese. A casting machine can also be used for casting the liquid metal. The solidified metal is then crushed and screened for the specific needs of the customers. Slag is normally obtained as rich slag (with about 30 % manganese) and is used further for the production of silico-manganese.

There are some facilities where the CO-rich off-gas is used to produce electricity. The CO-rich gas can also be utilised for other industrial uses, for instance as a raw material for chemical synthesis.

8.1.3.3.2 Medium-carbon ferro-manganese

For the production of medium-carbon ferro-manganese (MC FeMn) two different routes can be used:

- the silicothermic reduction of manganese ore;
- the decarburisation of HC FeMn in an oxygen-blown converter.

The most important process in the EU is the decarburisation of HC FeMn, which is also known as the refining process of HC FeMn.

For the decarburisation of HC FeMn, oxygen is blown into the molten metal, which is tapped off from the furnace into a ladle. The oxygen blown into the melt oxidises part of the manganese and increases the bath temperature from about 1350 °C to 1550 °C. With increasing temperatures, the carbon present in the HC FeMn also tends to be oxidised which again raises the temperature from 1550 °C up to 1750 °C. The oxidation of carbon consequently reduces the carbon content of the ferro-manganese. For the production of MC FeMn, the decarburisation process ends when a corresponding carbon content of about 1.3 % is reached. The high temperature also leads to the vaporisation of ferro-manganese which leaves the process as fumes. The fumes can be collected using hoods and further abated using a bag filter or electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) before being sent back to the HC FeMn smelter or sold.

In contrast to the refining process which uses HC FeMn as a raw material, the silicothermic process needs manganese ore and lime or a high-grade slag and silico-manganese. The reduction itself is performed in a three-phase electric arc furnace, with electrodes made of graphite. At the end of the cycle, the molten alloy and the slag are cast and separated. The slag is recycled, after cooling and crushing, as a raw material to the silico-manganese production plant. The fumes of the furnaces will be dedusted in a fabric filter. With the silicothermic reduction, production of MC FeMn containing < 1 % carbon is possible.

The main advantages of the refining process are the lower operating and capital investment costs. The main advantage of the silicothermic process is the production of low-carbon ferro-manganese in the same process.

8.1.3.3 Low-carbon ferro-manganese

Low-carbon ferro-manganese (LC FeMn), which usually contains less than 0.75 % carbon, is traditionally produced by a silicothermic process route. A rich slag is suitable as a raw material due to its low level of impurities. Also, the presence of already-reduced manganese oxides in the rich slag is favourable for the process. The production of LC FeMn takes place in an electric arc furnace very similar to that used for MC FeMn produced by a silicothermic process. The slag obtained is used for silico-manganese production as a raw material or sold for other applications in the metallurgical industry.

Recent process developments have made the decarburisation of HC FeMn an economical and environmentally favourable processing route for LC FeMn. A carbon content of less than 0.5 % can be achieved, but the level usually produced is 0.75 % [226, Nordic Report 2008].

8.1.3.4 Silico-manganese

Silico-manganese is required as an alloying element in the steel industry as well as a raw material to produce MC and LC FeMn. The production of silico-manganese is based on manganese ore or sinter and quartz as raw material. Instead of manganese ore, a rich ferro-manganese slag like that produced as rich slag in HC, MC and LC FeMn production may be used as a manganese source. Silico-manganese is only produced in submerged electric arc furnaces, which can be closed, semi-closed or open types. The furnaces are the same or very similar to those used for HC FeMn production and often a furnace is operated with alternate campaigns of each alloy. Depending on the composition of the feed mix, silico-manganese with a silicon content from 15 % to 35 % can be produced. For proper furnace operation and effective silicon reduction, it is necessary to insert the electrodes deeper into the burden in order to reach the high temperature needed for the process.

8.1.4 Ferro-nickel

8.1.4.1 Raw materials

Ferro-nickel (FeNi), as well as ferro-chrome, is the major alloying agent in the production of stainless steel. Laterite ore is the main raw material. Laterite ore is characterised by a relatively low nickel content (1.2–3 %) and a high moisture content (up to 45 %) together with chemically bound water in the form of hydroxide [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]. Typical European ores contain 1–3 % nickel and have a moisture content of 5–10 %.

Besides laterite ore, coke and/or coal are the other raw materials that are needed in ferro-nickel production. Coke or coal is needed as a reducing agent, as ferro-nickel production takes place by a carbothermic process. FeNi can also be produced from secondary raw materials, such as spent catalysts and sludge from the galvanising industry.

8.1.4.2 Production of ferro-nickel from primary raw materials

The production of ferro-nickel from primary raw materials is carried out exclusively by the rotary kiln electric furnace process. As already mentioned, the raw material can carry a significant amount of water. Consequently, when there is a high moisture content, the first step of the process is a drying operation. Drying normally takes place in a directly fired rotary dryer where the moisture content can be reduced from about 45 % to 20 %. The resulting emissions are treated in an abatement system such as an ESP. Further drying to below 20 % should be avoided though, in order to limit dust generation in the subsequent calcining and smelting process.

The next process step is homogenisation where the different ores are mixed with coal, coke and pelletised dust, which is recycled from the main process. The feed is then fed to a rotary kiln. The rotary kiln is used to dehydrate the ore by calcination and to pre-reduce the nickel and iron oxide. The process takes place at about 800–1000 °C. The calcining and pre-reducing process results in a furnace feed that contains the nickel as a metal and the pre-reduced iron, mostly in the form of iron(II) oxides.

The hot pre-reduced calcine can be introduced directly to the smelting furnace, or by ladles. These may be used for two reasons; first to conserve heat, and second to also add the coke or coal required for complete reduction before they are discharged into the electric arc furnace, where melting and final reduction occurs [110, Anthony, T. 1997].

Ferro-nickel smelting takes place in open bath semi-closed electric arc furnaces with submerged electrodes. In the electric arc furnace, the reductive smelting operation occurs by the combined action of carbon electrodes and added solid carbonaceous reducing agent. The choice of the most suitable operation mode (open bath or closed bath) depends mainly on the oxides content of the slag (primarily FeO, SiO₂, MgO, CaO) as well as the mass ratio between the slag and nickel metal.

To reduce a high content of nickel oxides, the burden commonly contains an excess of carbon. This also increases the amount of iron that will be reduced and the final carbon content of the crude ferro-nickel. To reduce the iron and carbon content, a further refining step is necessary. To avoid further refining, several process improvements have been made. For instance, in the Ugine ferro-nickel process, no reducing agent is added. The electric arc furnace produces a molten ore, which is reduced to ferro-nickel by using ferro-silicon in a further ladle furnace. In the Falcondo ferro-nickel process, a shaft furnace is used instead of a rotary kiln. In the shaft furnace, a briquetted ore is reduced with a reducing gas (low-sulphur naphtha). The subsequent electric arc furnace is then only used to melt the metal and to separate it from the slag.

Ferro-nickel produced by the conventional process needs further refining. Besides the reduction of iron and carbon, the impurities like sulphur, silicon and phosphorus should be removed. For ferro-nickel refining, a variety of equipment is available, e.g. a shaking reaction ladle, an induction furnace, an electric arc furnace and oxygen-blown converters. The purified ferro-nickel is cast into ingots or granulated under water.

The off-gas from the calcination rotary kiln, the electric arc smelting furnace and the refining step is treated by an appropriate abatement system such as a dry ESP. The filtered dust can be pelletised and recycled to the raw material blending station.

8.1.4.3 Production of ferro-nickel from secondary raw materials

Ferro-nickel can also be produced from residues that contain nickel. These residues, mostly spent catalysts from grease production, are burnt in a rotary kiln in order to concentrate the nickel content as nickel oxide in the flue-dust. The off-gas is cleaned in a membrane fabric filter, where the collected dust is used as the raw material for the smelting process. The production of FeNi then takes place in a submerged electric arc furnace. The molten alloy is tapped, granulated in water and packed in drums or big bags for supply.

8.1.5 Ferro-vanadium

The addition of ferro-vanadium to a steel melt increases the tensile strength and the high-temperature strength of carbon steel even if small amounts are added. Vanadium alloyed steel is therefore used for high-speed cutting tools.

Ferro-vanadium (FeV) can be produced by a carbothermic or a metallothermic reduction of vanadium oxides, assisted by the presence of iron. Because carbon is used in a carbothermic reduction, the final carbon content of the produced alloy is high. The production of ferro-vanadium using carbon as a reducing agent is therefore only possible if there are no requirements for a low carbon content.

8.1.5.1 Raw materials

The base materials for ferro-vanadium are vanadium oxides of different oxidation states produced in the vanadium oxide plant, with lime, aluminium and scrap iron included as additives.

Purchased raw material used in FeV production is delivered by truck or train. The raw materials V_2O_3 and V_2O_4 are stored temporarily in refined steel containers. In a further step, these raw materials are kept in a vanadium hopper. V_2O_5 is temporarily stored in a locked poison storeroom. Before use, V_2O_5 is kept in a raw material hopper.

The auxiliary agents used in FeV production are delivered by truck or train and temporarily stored in defined storerooms. Before use, these auxiliary agents are stored in a hopper, from where weighted amounts will be taken for use in the production process.

A given composition of the vanadium raw materials and the auxiliary agents are taken from the hoppers and transported via conveying tubes to a weighing scale. From there, weighted amounts are transported to the furnaces.

8.1.5.2 Production of ferro-vanadium

Ferro-vanadium is usually produced by an aluminothermic reduction.

When necessary, grinding, sizing and drying can be carried out prior to charging the mix to the smelting process. The aluminothermic reduction of vanadium oxide is a self-sustaining process that can be carried out in a refractory-lined crucible. The reaction vessels used for this process can be of the following types:

- Refractory-lined crucible using a non-reusable lining.
- Refractory-lined ring placed into a pit that contains sand.
- Electric furnace where additional energy can be supplied either to increase the heat of reaction or to enable slag-refining operations to be carried out. The electric arc furnace is also used, because the FeV fines generated by FeV crushing can be remelted.

The smelting operation takes place in a batch process where the whole charge is transferred to the reaction vessel and ignited. After ignition, the combustion time for a common batch size of about 1 tonne of ferro-vanadium is only a few minutes. Due to the short reaction time, the content of vanadium oxides in the slag and the aluminium content in the metal may not reach equilibrium. The production in an electric furnace therefore has the advantage of keeping the charge in a molten state until the reaction is completely finished. The fumes from the process are exhausted and cleaned using fabric filters or wet scrubbers.

Depending on the process type, the slag and metal can be allowed to cool down in the crucible, or the slag and metal can be tapped together into ladles or into beds to allow the separation of the slag and the metal and to provoke rapid cooling. Tapping of the crucible requires extraction hoods and extraction rates sufficient to evacuate the fumes and the dust escaping during the tapping. The slag from the aluminothermic process can be used for further crucible linings or crushed and sized to be used in other industries (as aggregate in the steel industry and as basic material in the refractory industry). The metal block can be air-cooled or water-cooled which facilitates further crushing. All crushing and sieving operations have dedicated dust extraction units, from where the dust is returned to the production process at the most appropriate point to ensure a continuous recycling of recovered products.

The following figure shows the production route for ferro-vanadium.

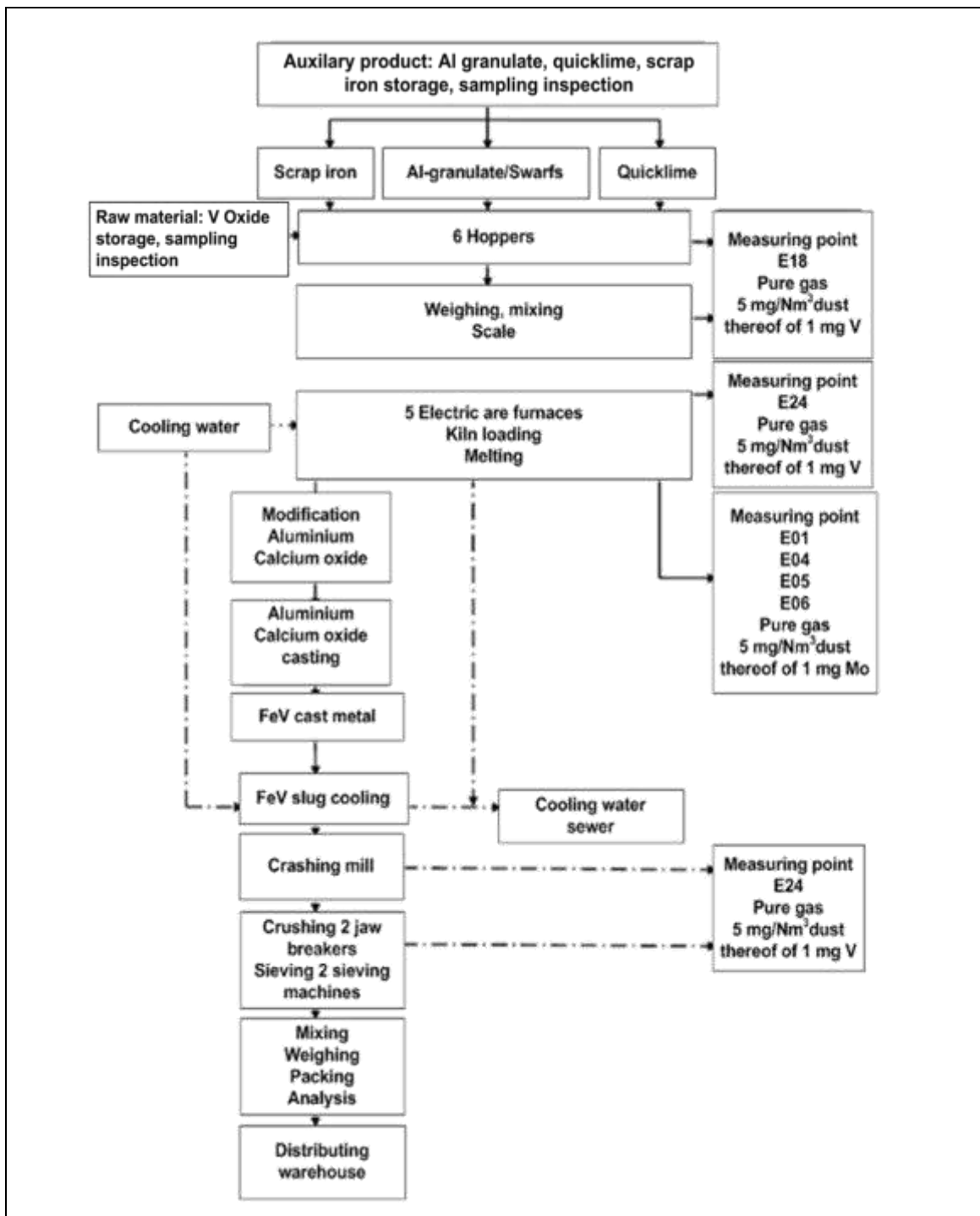


Figure 8.8: Ferro-vanadium production flowsheet

In the premelt plant, nickel, vanadium oxides and molybdenum oxides are used for the production of ferro-molybdenum-nickel alloys and ferro-vanadium alloys. The raw materials are melted together with lime, to create slag, in an electric arc furnace. With aluminium, ferro-silicon or coke, the metallic oxides are reduced to the metal. The slag resulting from the production is removed and sold to the steel industry as conditioner slag. The metal is poured off, either to form granulated metal or to form blocks.

8.1.5.3 Post-production operations

The packaging of the finished crushed ferro-vanadium alloy occurs in the packing station. The content of the FeV finished product hopper is discharged over a vibrator chute to several packaging drums and weighted via a calibrated scale. The finished FeV alloys are loaded into sheet steel drums, big bags, PE bags, drums or tin plate boxes and palletised according to customer specifications. Afterwards, the drums and big bags are secured with strapping bands.

In the pulveriser plant, fine-grained FeV materials are pulverised to powdery alloys, which are mainly used in the production of welding electrodes. The undersized particles of the individual alloys are pre-ground to a grain size of < 3 mm in the pulveriser plant. The material is transferred into conical transport containers. All intermediate fractions are lifted via an assembly-hall crane to the respective feed hopper. The next grinding step occurs in the Palla (rod) mill. The obtained powdery alloys are control-sieved via a double deck screen. After sampling and analysis, these alloys are stored in metal containers. This pulverisation process is also applied for ferro-molybdenum (Austria).

8.1.6 Molybdenite roasting and the production of ferro-molybdenum

8.1.6.1 Molybdenite roasting

Technical-grade molybdenum trioxide (MoO_3), also named roasted molybdenum concentrate (RMC) by REACH, is the main raw material in the production of ferro-molybdenum and alloys that contain molybdenum, as well as the starting compound for a number of other molybdenum-based products such as ammonium dimolybdate, sodium molybdate and molybdenum metal [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]. Roasting as shown schematically in Figure 8.9 converts concentrated molybdenite (molybdenum sulphide ore) into technical-grade molybdenum trioxide for the metallurgical or chemical industry.

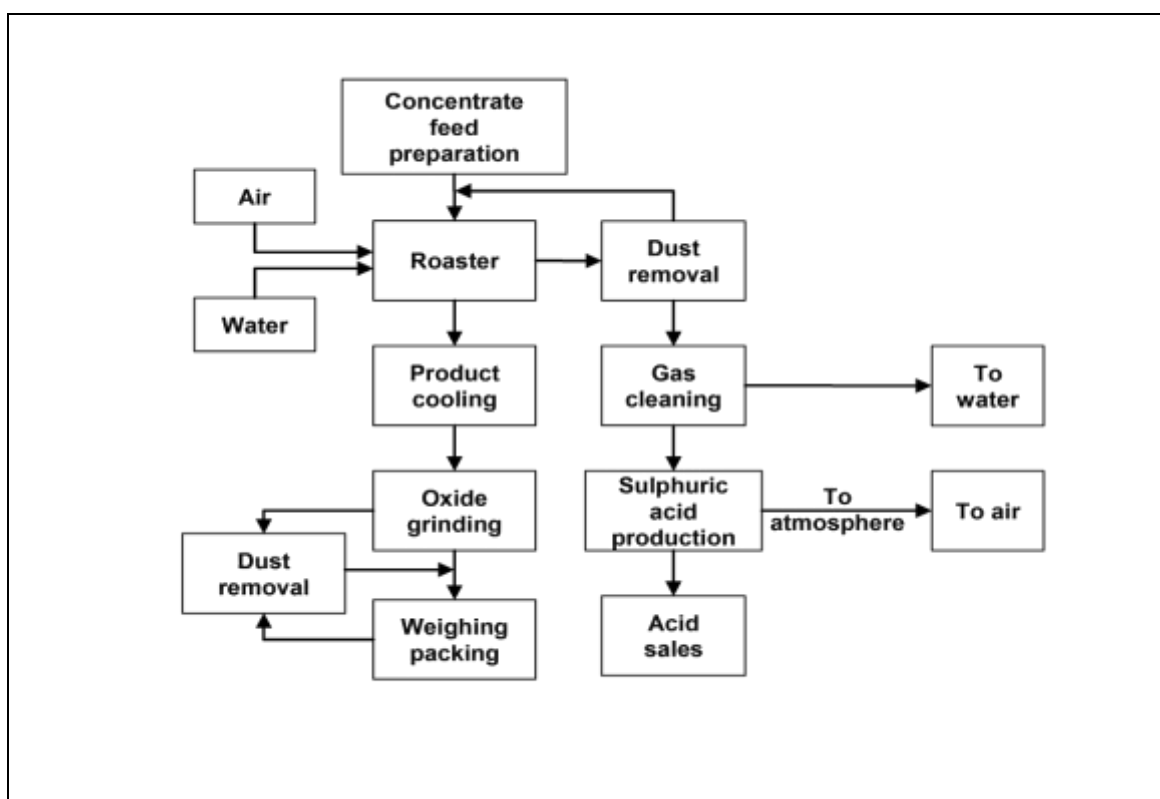
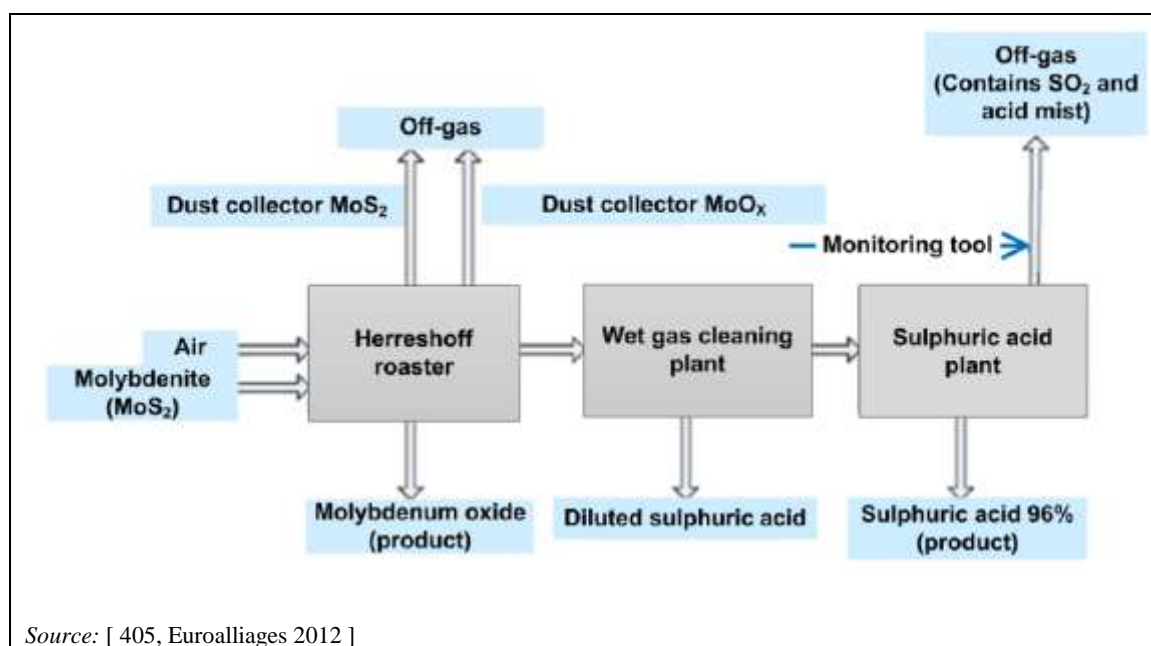


Figure 8.9: Molybdenite roasting flowsheet

The process of roasting molybdenite concentrate takes place in a multiple hearth furnace (see description in Section 13.1.1.3). Multiple hearth furnaces consist of a number of vertically arranged hearths. In the upper part of the furnace, additional energy is added in the form of natural gas (or a liquid fuel such as diesel), in order to evaporate water and bring the feed to roasting temperature.

The roasting process itself is exothermic and does not need additional energy, unless the heat losses associated with the centre axle column cooling air, radiation from the shell of the roaster, or the discharge of hot oxide from the roaster are significant. By means of induced-draught fans, the roaster operates at a negative pressure relative to atmospheric pressure. This serves to control the inflow of ambient air for oxidation and cooling, and prevents any emissions of sulphur dioxide to the environment. Airflow, transportation rate, and sometimes water spray injection control the reaction rates and temperatures. The molybdenum oxide produced is discharged from the roaster and then cooled, ground to a fine powder, sampled and analysed prior to weighing and packing.

The off-gas from the process contains large amounts of sulphur dioxide and dust (up to 15 % of the concentrate feed). The dust content can be removed from the gas stream using (multi-) cyclones and high-temperature electrostatic precipitators together and recycled to the concentrate feed entering the roaster. The sulphur dioxide is normally converted into sulphuric acid in an adjacent sulphuric acid plant. The conversion of sulphur dioxide into sulphuric acid is described in detail in Section 2.7.1. In addition to the generation of dust and sulphur dioxide, elements such as rhenium and selenium are vaporised and emitted. These elements can be removed from the gas stream by wet scrubbing, with a subsequent treatment plant for the scrubbing liquid. Selenium is mostly recovered by flocculation, decantation and filtration, and rhenium is generally recovered by solvent extraction or ion exchange techniques. Other metals are removed using precipitation techniques.



Source: [405, Euroalliages 2012]

Figure 8.10: Molybdenite roasting and gas cleaning (the Netherlands)

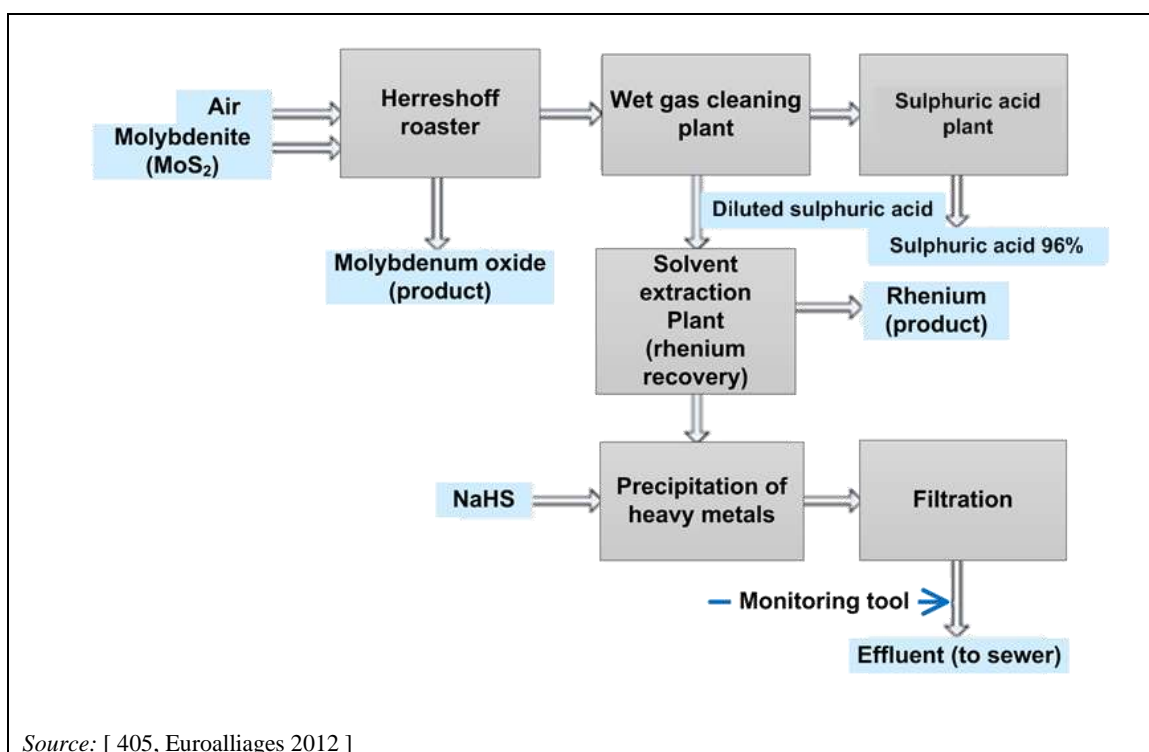


Figure 8.11: Molybdenite roasting and waste water treatment (the Netherlands)

In the toll conversion of molybdenum concentrates, batches of raw material can have high differences in molybdenum content (46–59 %) and in other components. The roasting of batches with different grades influences the treatment of the off-gases.

8.1.6.2 Production of ferro-molybdenum

Ferro-molybdenum can be produced either by the carbothermic or metallothermic reduction of molybdenum oxides. Due to practical reasons like the smelting equipment used for the process and the reduced manufacturing costs, the metallothermic production of ferro-molybdenum is much more widespread than the carbothermic reduction. Thus the latter is not described.

The following figure shows the production route for ferro-molybdenum.

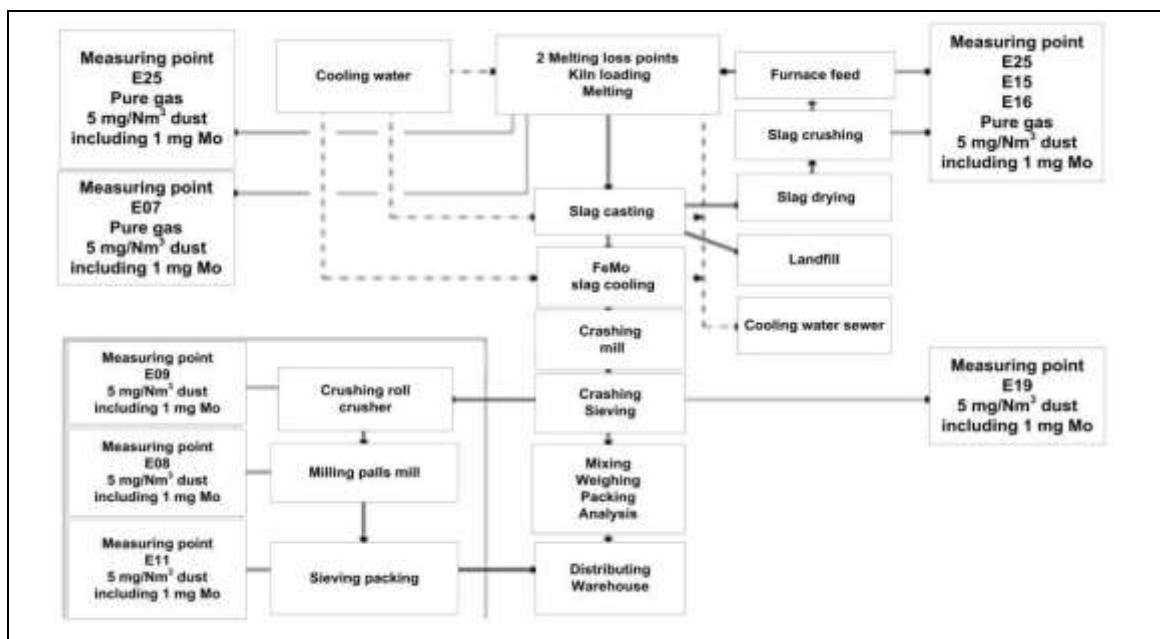


Figure 8.12: Ferro-molybdenum production flowsheet

8.1.6.2.1 Raw materials

The production of ferro-molybdenum is based on the use of molybdenum oxides as raw material. Besides the main raw material, molybdenum trioxide, iron oxide or millscale iron scrap, steel punchings or turnings are needed to produce ferro-molybdenum. Lime and fluorspar are commonly used as fluxing agents and charcoal, silicon (ferro-silicon) and some aluminium are needed as a reducing agent.

8.1.6.2.2 Metallothermic production of ferro-molybdenum

Metallothermic reduction is the most common process used for the production of ferro-molybdenum. Due to the higher Gibbs free energy of aluminium compared with silicon, ferro-silicon is the preferred reducing agent in order to ensure safe process conditions. However, to obtain the required heat balance for the reaction, it is necessary to use a small amount of aluminium.

The metallothermic process requires dry raw material for the process. Millscale that arrives wet is stored in a covered bunker prior to screening and drying in order to prevent diffuse losses. Steel scrap that also arrives in bulk is offloaded and stored in a covered bunker. Smooth, efficient smelting reactions require a blend of suitably sized raw material, this is of particular importance with respect to the oxides and the reducing agents. Fluorspar is sometimes added to improve the slag and metal separation. To get the right size raw material, it is often necessary to grind and screen ferro-silicon. All the pretreatment operations like grinding, screening, transferring and blending should be carried out using dust control measures.

The smelting operation can be done in a number of ways, the most common are as follows [125, Euroalliages (B) 1998]:

- The use of long pits that contain sand where refractory-lined steel cylinders are placed to form crucibles that contain the metallothermic reaction. The reaction itself can be carried out in different ways. The 'top-fired reaction' takes place when the whole charge is placed in the crucible and then ignited from the top. Alternatively, only a part of the charge may be placed in the crucible and ignited, the remainder of the charge can then be added as the reaction proceeds (fed reaction).

- The use of refractory-lined crucibles that are placed inside a chamber that can be enclosed. As in the previous description, the reaction can then be carried out by placing all of the charge in the crucible and igniting it, or by adding only a part of the charge, initiating the reaction and then progressively adding the rest of the charge as the reaction proceeds.

As the reaction is caused by metals instead of carbon, the exothermic reaction does not generate CO or CO₂. Theoretically, no gas is generated at all. However, the intense heat generation creates a substantial updraught of the included and surrounding air and of any water vapour present. These fumes carry a substantial amount of dust particles.

The dust and fumes generated by the process must be extracted, recovered and recycled in order to protect the environment. The treatment of the fumes consists of classical dedusting units such as a settling chamber, cyclones and bag filters. The filter bags may be manufactured from special fabrics sometimes applied with additional coating to withstand high temperatures. The bag filter dust can then be fed directly back to the main smelting process. Good housekeeping is also necessary to recycle all splashes, floor sweepings, etc. in order to get an efficient overall molybdenum yield.

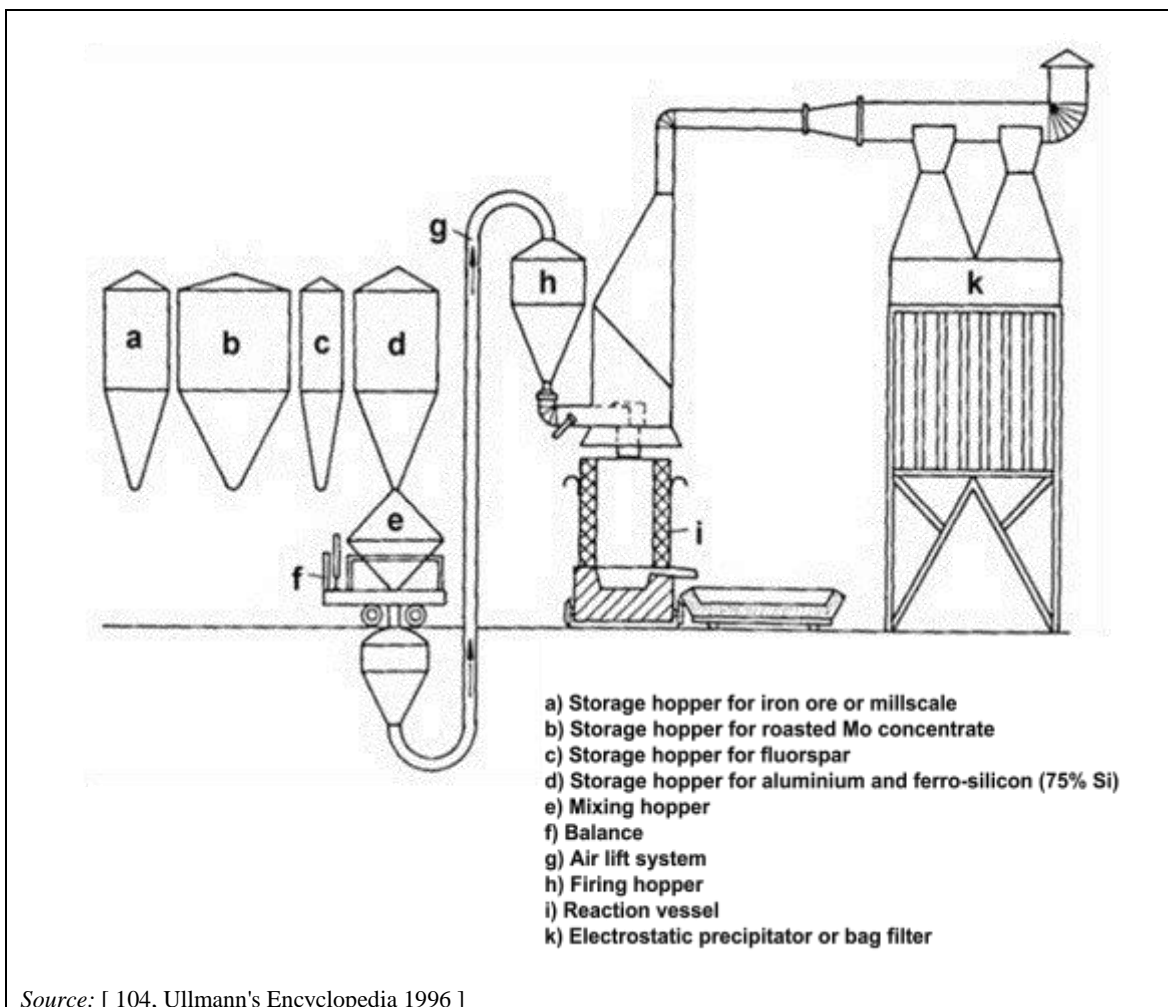


Figure 8.13: Metallothermic firing arrangement

The smelting process produces an alloy block that weighs between 2.5 tonnes and 4 tonnes. After the slag is separated, the hot metal block must be cooled. This can either be done by natural air cooling or by quenching in water. The cooled metal block is then broken into pieces

that can be fed into an integrated crushing and screening plant to produce the wide range of product sizes used worldwide.

A process flowsheet that demonstrates the principle steps of the metallothermic ferro-molybdenum production process is presented in Figure 8.14.

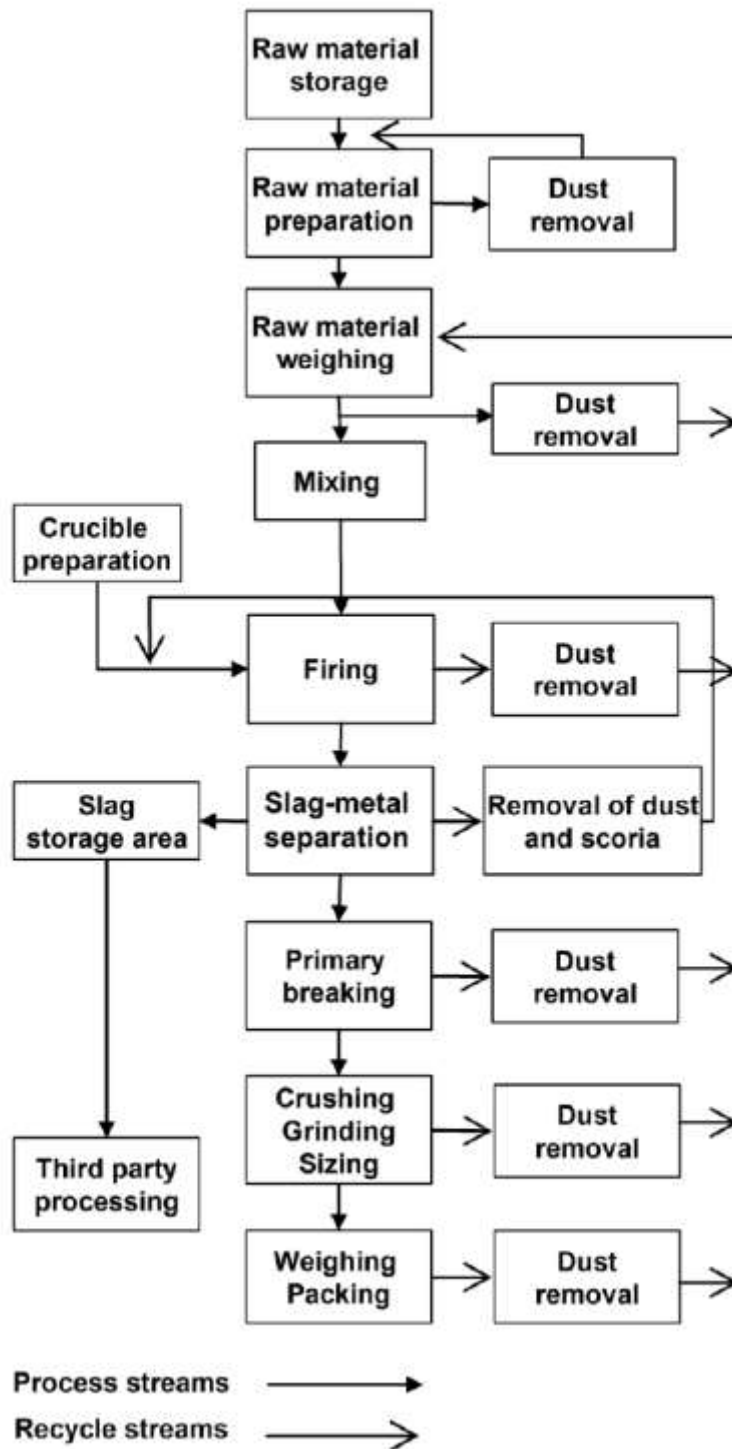


Figure 8.14: Production of ferro-molybdenum by metallothermic reduction

8.1.7 Ferro-tungsten

Ferro-tungsten, as well as tungsten melting base (TMB), which is made from secondary raw material, is mainly used to improve the properties of steel. Tungsten as an alloying element forms stable carbides and therefore increases the high-temperature strength and wear resistance of steel. Such steel (high-speed steel) is needed to produce high-speed cutting tools that can be used up to temperatures of about 600 °C. Tungsten will also increase a number of other properties of the steel, such as the hardness, yield strength and the ultimate tensile strength [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996].

8.1.7.1 Production of ferro-tungsten and tungsten melting base

Ferro-tungsten can be produced from different raw materials that contain tungsten oxides, e.g. wolframite, scheelite and hübnerite. The reduction of these minerals can be done either by carbothermic or metallothermic reduction, or by a combination of both.

The carbothermic process, which is known as the solid block melting process, takes place in an electric arc furnace. Due to the high melting temperature of ferro-tungsten, the alloy produced cannot be tapped off from the furnace. After the smelting has started, the metal accumulates in the bottom of the furnace. When the amount of metal has reached the desired weight, the furnace is switched off. The metal ingot can then be recovered from the furnace once the refractory lining has been removed. The metal is then crushed and screened. If several furnaces are used in parallel, the production can then take place as a quasi-continuous process. The off-gases from the furnace are treated by a gas purification system in order to minimise the environmental impact and to recover the tungsten trioxide in the flue-dust.

A combination of the carbothermic and metallothermic processes using both carbon and ferro-silicon as reducing agents is used to produce a ferro-alloy with a high tungsten content. The process is carried out in three successive stages in an electric arc furnace. In the first stage, a tungsten trioxide slag is produced, which is further reduced with ferro-silicon in the following stage. The third and final stage is needed to increase the tungsten content by refining the low-tungsten metal from the second stage by adding tungsten concentrates.

The metallothermic process is less economical because the process requires very pure and therefore expensive raw material. In order to keep the process self-sustaining, a mixture of silicon and aluminium is normally used as a reducing agent. The metal can be recovered from the furnace vessel after the cooling and removal of the furnace linings. Metallothermic production of ferro-tungsten is today only economically viable if there are special customer requirements.

TMB is a tungsten alloy that is produced from secondary raw material. The main sources are different kinds of tungsten metal scrap. TMB production is only a remelting and alloying process, which can take place in an electric arc furnace. The fact that more and more tungsten scrap is available on the market increases the use of a remelting process that requires less energy than the primary smelting process.

8.1.8 Ferro-titanium

Ferro-titanium can be produced either from primary or secondary raw material and is used for a variety of different purposes. As an alloying element, it increases yield strength and reduces the cracking tendency. In the production of stainless steel with a high chrome and nickel content, ferro-titanium is used to bond the sulphur [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996].

For the production of ferro-titanium, the primary raw materials are minerals that contain titanium oxide, such as ilmenite. The reduction is usually carried out by the metallothermic process since carbothermic reduction produces an alloy that contains too much carbon and is therefore not of interest as an alloying element in the steel industry. The production takes place as a batch process in a refractory-lined crucible or in an electric furnace, depending on the process variation.

In recent years, the availability of titanium scrap on the market has increased and therefore the production of ferro-titanium from secondary raw material is more common. The production of ferro-titanium is achieved by melting ferrous scrap and titanium in an electric induction melting furnace. The alloying process is a slag-free process.

Ferrous units are purchased to a specification in the form of mild steel solids. Titanium scrap is delivered to the site in container trucks. The feedstock includes lump scrap metal castings, wrought products and turnings (swarf) from machining processes. Upon receipt, materials are checked to ensure that they are not contaminated with radioactive materials. Large lumps of scrap are reduced in size by oxy-flame cutting. Swarf is chipped using a swarf pulveriser and then fed through a centrifuge to remove oil and moisture.

The titanium swarf is degreased in a rotary dryer, where the oil-bearing gases are led through a cyclone to remove dust and carry-over. These gases then pass through an afterburner, which is heated by a gas-fired burner. Combustion gases/fumes are either recirculated through the dryer or are ducted to a second cyclone. After passing through the cyclone, sorbent (sodium bicarbonate) is introduced to neutralise the gas stream and to prevent corrosion damage to the filtration plant. Finally, the gas passes through a ceramic filter before being discharged to the atmosphere via a stack.

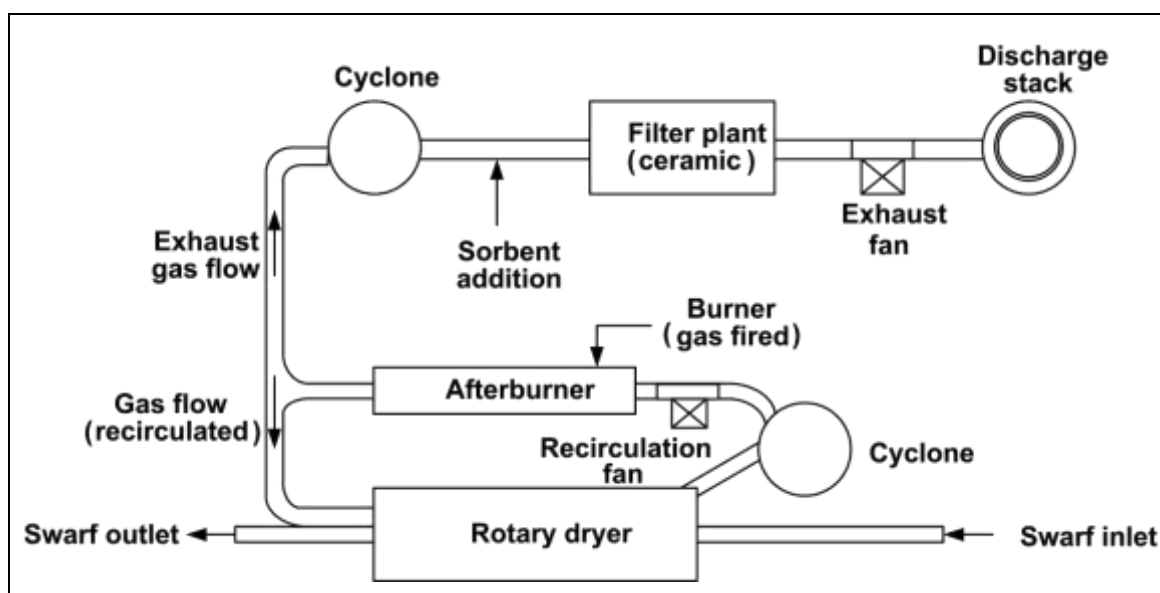


Figure 8.15: Gas-cleaning system for a degreasing plant

Furnace charges are calculated based on the analysis of the raw materials. The materials are weighed into pans and fed into an electric induction melting furnace. A chute system is used to feed in materials during the melting operation. When melting is complete, the molten metal is tapped into an ingot mould and a stream sample is taken for analysis. After cooling, the ingot is transferred to other operations such as breaking, crushing and grinding to achieve the required product size. Figure 8.16 presents a flow diagram for the production of ferro-titanium.

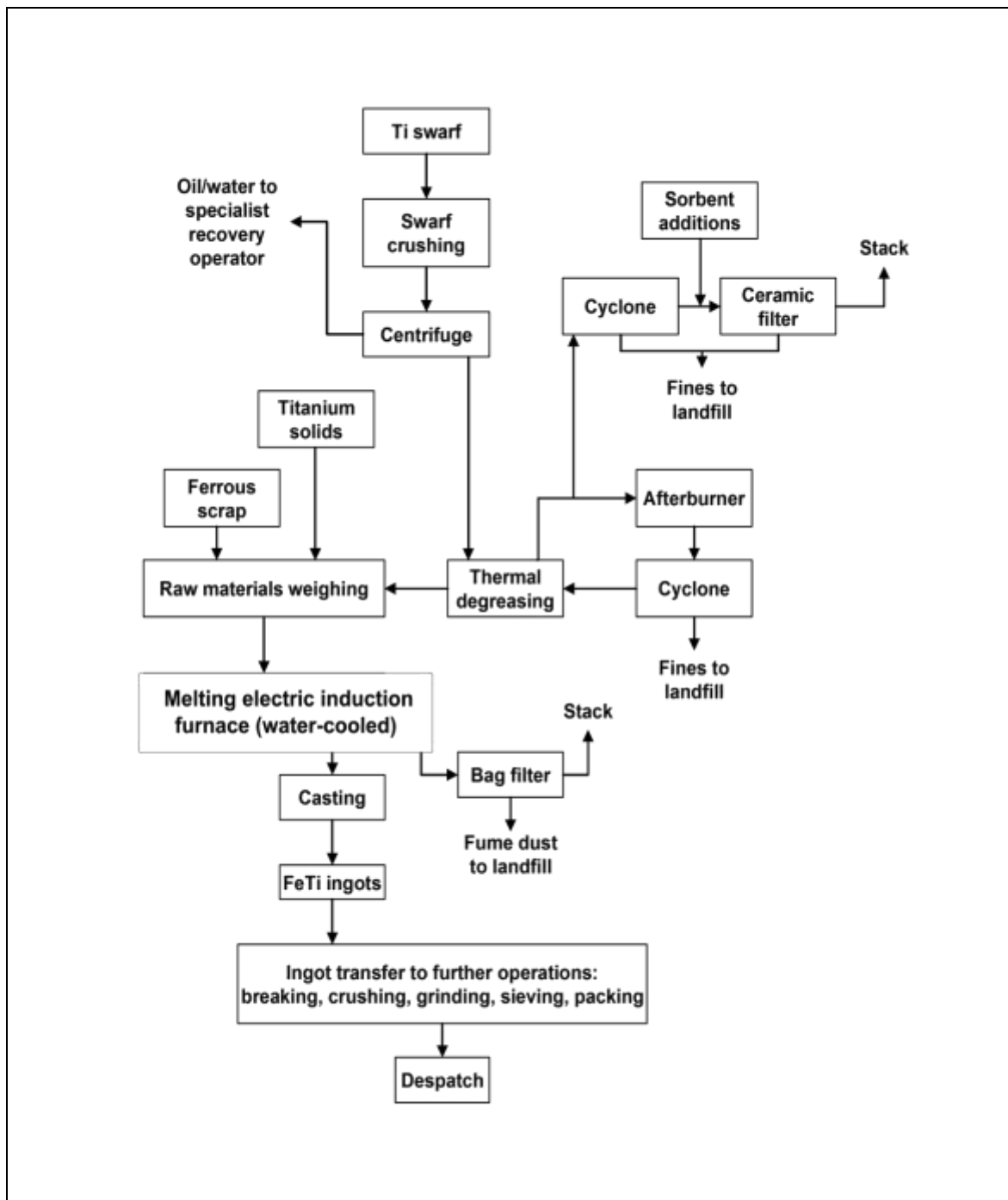


Figure 8.16: Flow diagram for ferro-titanium production

8.1.9 Ferro-boron

Ferro-boron is mainly used as an additive in steelmaking to increase the hardenability, creep resistance and hot workability because boron-alloyed steel is oxidation-resistant up to 900 °C. The raw materials needed to produce ferro-boron are boric oxides and boric acid. Carbon (charcoal), aluminium or magnesium is used as a reducing agent. The alloys can be produced by carbothermic or metallothermic reduction processes.

The raw materials arrive in a variety of containers for example drums, flexible intermediate bulk containers, pallets, stillages and polyethylene-wrapped bales. The materials are weighed out into enclosed bins at a specially designed weigh station. The bulk bags are discharged within a framework incorporating a sealing membrane, which prevents diffuse emissions. A local exhaust ventilation system vented to a filter unit furthers the removal of any dust.

The carbothermic reduction takes place in single- or three-phase submerged electric arc furnaces depending on the process specifications. Some variations of the carbothermic process exist. In one, boric oxides and iron oxides are reduced simultaneously with charcoal in a submerged electric arc furnace. In another process, boric acid, iron powder and charcoal are reacted in a Héroult-type electric arc furnace. Figure 8.17 shows the process for ferro-boron and boron alloy production.

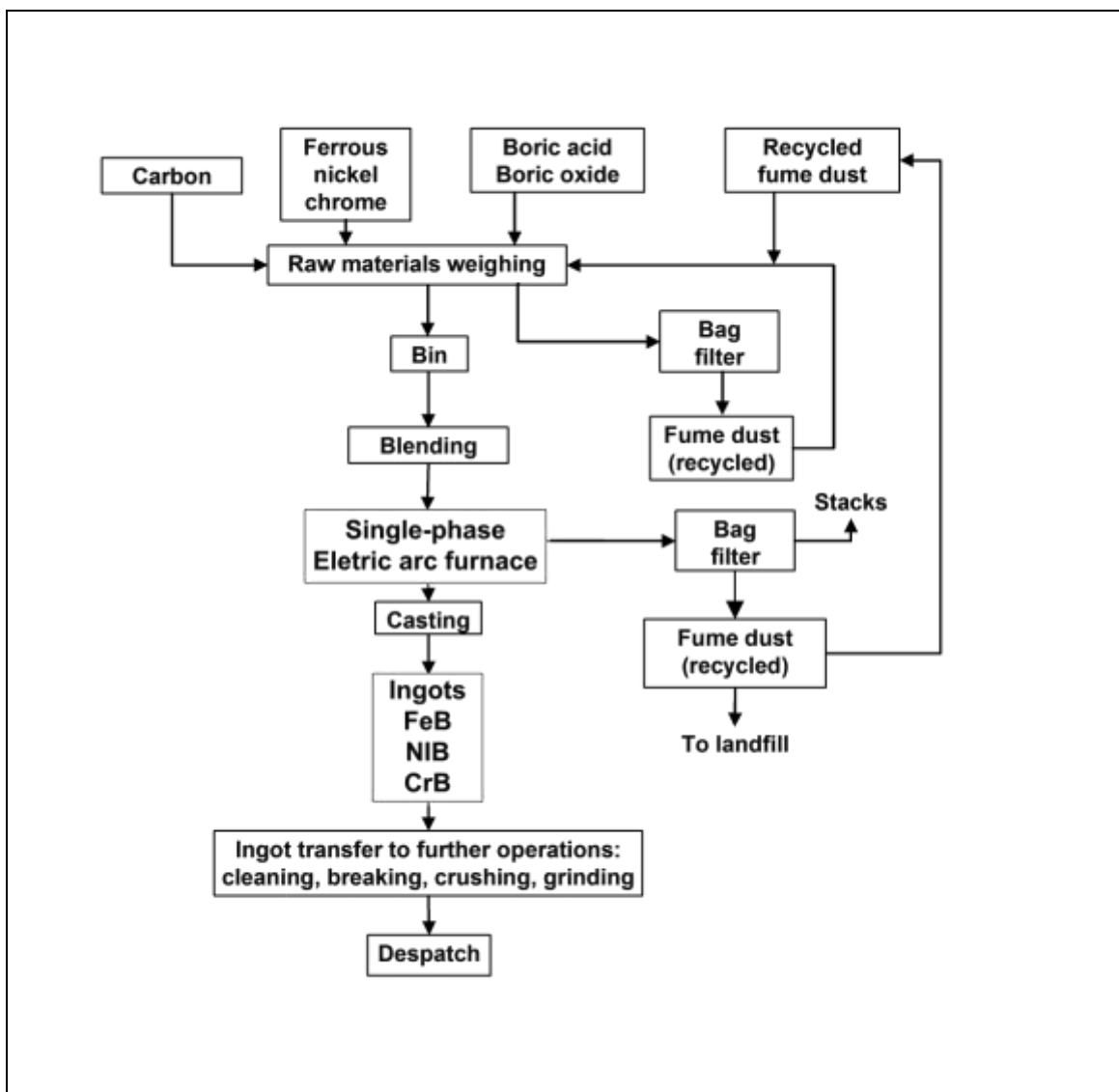


Figure 8.17: Process for ferro-boron and boron alloy production

The metallothermic process uses aluminium together with a small portion of magnesium as a reducing agent. This reaction is highly exothermic and needs only a few minutes to take place in a refractory-lined crucible. The reaction can be ignited as a whole charge or as a starting mix. After the reaction is finished, the metal alloy that builds up in the bottom of the furnace can be removed mechanically. It can then be crushed and screened in order to produce the desired particle size.

8.1.10 Ferro-niobium

Ferro-niobium as an alloying agent improves the corrosion resistance and weldability of steel and especially prevents the inter-crystalline corrosion of stainless chrome-nickel steel. The raw materials needed to produce ferro-niobium are ores and concentrates that contain niobium and iron oxide. The reduction occurs as an aluminothermic process. The reaction normally takes place in a refractory-lined crucible where the whole charge can be ignited or just a part of it that then serves as a starting mixture.

Niobium can be produced from pyrochlore ore, which also contains traces of polonium, which is a volatile, radioactive metal. The smelting of pyrochlore therefore requires enhanced safety and environmental procedures.

8.1.11 Production of ferro-alloys from secondary raw materials

Due to the large number of available secondary raw materials, especially metal oxides from the production of stainless steel, the recovery of ferro-alloys, mainly ferro-chrome, has become an important part of the ferro-alloy industry. The development of the various processes followed the increasing need of stainless steel manufacturers to treat their waste products in order to reclaim the valuable metal content and to limit or prevent the dumping of waste.

The main constituent of recovered materials is furnace dust, which contains a high proportion of zinc and other volatile metals (up to 30 %) besides the main components of stainless steel, Fe, Cr, Ni and Mo.

The total waste treatment market of these kinds of residues from the stainless steel industry in Europe is estimated to be approximately 200 000 t/yr corresponding to approximately 100 000 tonnes of alloys. Two thirds of this market is processed and converted into metal and enriched zinc oxide. The market is strongly related to the development of the stainless steel industry.

8.1.11.1 Raw material and its preparation

The typical raw materials for the production of secondary ferro-alloys are the following residues generated mainly within the production of stainless steel:

- electric arc furnace (EAF) filter dust;
- converter filter dust;
- all kinds of scale fines;
- shot blasting dust;
- grinding dust.

The chemical and the physical characteristics of these raw materials vary considerably, but typical contents are shown in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Typical amounts of metal oxides in secondary raw materials

Element	Content (%)
Cr ₂ O ₃	10–25
NiO	2–15
MoO ₃	0–5
Fe ₂ O ₃	30–65
CaO	1–30
Al ₂ O ₃	0.5–4
SiO ₂	1–15
MgO	1–5
ZnO	1–20
PbO	0.2–1
CdO	0.001–0.05
CuO	0.1–3
S	0.2–0.5
Cl	0.1–1
F	0–3
Hg	0–15 ppm

The residues are mostly oxidised materials with a smaller, variable fraction of metals. The metallic fraction comes mostly from surface treatment operations such as grinding, shot blasting, etc. The grain size of the raw material is typically between 1.0 µm and 30 µm and some materials are agglomerated and compacted.

The moisture content in the raw material might vary between 0 % and 35 % due to different gas-cleaning or other separation steps installed at the steel mills. This requires, to a certain extent, flexible handling and the use of conveying equipment, as well as drying equipment.

Owing to the various sources and qualities of residues, the economic viability of the activity requires a minimum content of alloying elements: nickel, chromium and if it can be used, molybdenum. Residues from the manufacture of austenitic (18-8 or better) stainless steel offer an appropriate content of typically > 3 % nickel and > 12 % chromium, while a large proportion of residues from ferritic stainless steel production (17 % chromium) are still dumped for processing cost reasons.

The product range of a single steelworks mainly influences the composition of the waste products by the technology employed and by the raw materials fed. Two major issues in this regard are the amount of lime in the filter dust and its zinc content. The lime content is mainly influenced by the different operations in the steel plant and the quality of the lime itself. The quality of the lime, i.e. its proportion of fines, influences the total quantity of lime present in the filter dust. The zinc content in the filter dust and other metals, e.g. lead, cadmium and mercury, is mainly dependent on the quality of the scrap feed for the electric arc furnace. If there is a high proportion of scrap feed that contains galvanised scrap, the entire zinc content is collected in the steel mill filter dust.

PCDD/F may be present in the furnace filter dust. The presence and the quantity of PCDD/F are dependent on the quality of the scrap feed in the stainless steel melt shops and the manner in which the off-gas is treated. Plastic impurities (chlorine compounds) support the formation of PCDD/F in the filter dust.

Other oxidised secondary raw materials are generated by other industries. Depending on the extent to which their composition is compatible with the metal requirements, they may be added to the mix. In this category are dust from foundries, Mo- and Ni-based spent catalysts, etc.

The quantity of raw material necessary to produce ferro-alloys varies considerably due to the differing metal contents in the feed. Typically, reclamation produces 400–600 kg of metal per tonne of dry raw material.

8.1.11.2 Preprocessing

Due to the presence of various undesired coarse elements in the raw material, e.g. filter masks, scrap pieces and refractories, it is necessary to screen the raw materials. The raw material can be delivered in big bags or in bulk. The big bags are emptied in an enclosure that is equipped with separate dedusting equipment. The dry raw material is then conveyed to a vibrating screen where foreign elements are removed. After this step, the material is conveyed to a silo group, which is used as a buffer silo prior to the mixing step.

When using the submerged arc furnace, the free lime contained in the raw materials is neutralised with water in a specific mixer prior to agglomeration by briquetting. After curing under cover, the briquettes are mixed with other charge ingredients and fed to the furnace.

8.1.11.2.1 Mixing and drying (plasma dust process only)

After screening, the slag-forming agents in the raw materials are analysed in order to determine the quantity of additions (sand, lime) required to balance the composition of the slag. The necessary amount of slag-formers are added, predominantly silica sand together with approximately 1–10 % water, in a high-turbulence batch mixer in order to obtain enough free-flowing micropellets. The consumption of silica sand is dependent on the basicity of the raw material. However, it is typically in the range of 0–100 kg/tonne of dry raw material.

The aim of drying the material is to obtain a homogeneous dry feed that can be sent pneumatically to the furnace building. The indirect rotating dryer used for this purpose is heated with CO-rich process gas. The dryer is equipped with a combined gas and oil burner. After drying, the material leaves the dryer at less than 100 °C. The material is screened again before it is conveyed to an intermediate silo.

A filter unit is used where the mercury emissions are monitored continuously on-line. Before entering the dryer, a small amount of Na₂S is added to the material to form stable mercury compounds, in order to prevent the evaporation of mercury.

8.1.11.3 Submerged arc furnace process

The recovery process that uses a submerged electric arc furnace is very similar to the production of ferro-chrome in an electric arc furnace. One installation in the US employs a rotary hearth furnace for the pre-reduction, followed by melting in a submerged arc furnace.

The furnace off-gas is dry-filtered in a conventional fabric filter. The gas is diluted by the ambient air in the open-top furnace where the combustion of CO is complete. Typical composition is 90 % air (18–20 % excess O₂), 7 % CO₂, and 3 % H₂O.

Off-gas cleaning is done in a two-stage bag filter. After cooling to below 200 °C, furnace dust is separated in the first stage and collected for recycling or processing for shipment. The dust is highly concentrated in zinc and can be further processed in a Waelz kiln prior to its use as feed for zinc production. In the second stage, adsorbent granules (activated carbon or lignite coke) are injected. Volatile metals, notably mercury and to a lesser extent cadmium and lead, are chemisorbed on the surface of the carbon. The absorbent also traps chlorine compounds including PCDD/F. This second stage operates below 130 °C. The same fabric filter collects the fumes from the tapping process.

A limited amount of water is injected and vaporised in the off-gases for temperature control. Process and cooling water are circulated in a closed circuit, the net water consumption is released as steam in the furnace flue-gases and by evaporative coolers.

Therefore, the process does not produce liquid effluents. About 60 % of the water consumption is covered by the collection of rainwater falling on the industrial site (ground and buildings).

The liquid slag is separated from the metal by gravity. The use of multiple cascades affords virtually complete separation. The low basicity of slag (0.7–0.8) ensures the formation of stable silicates which are non-leaching. Prior to shipment, chemical composition and leaching tests are performed to qualify each production load. The slag is used in various construction applications after the appropriate downsizing.

The alloy is cast in iron moulds. The pigs weigh 2–4 tonnes each. The free-flowing slag is collected in an open pit where it solidifies. After the solidification of the metal, the ingots are broken into a few large pieces with a hydraulic hammer in order to facilitate shipment and remelting. Because of its nickel content, the metal is relatively tough (not brittle), in contrast to most ferro-alloys. It requires no further processing and is suitable for bulk transport by truck or rail cars.

8.1.11.4 Plasma dust process

After the preprocessing steps described above, the raw material is pneumatically transported from the raw material preparation building to the furnace building, [233, COM 2008]

Smelting takes place in a shaft furnace comprising a 12-metre-high water-cooled shell with an inner diameter of approximately 2.5 metres. The furnace is equipped with three plasma generators providing an installed plasma heating effect of 21 MW_{th}. The shaft is filled with lump coke, which acts as a reducing agent. The plasma generators are symmetrically placed around the lower part of the furnace to supply the energy required for the endothermic reactions. The recirculated process gas is led to the furnace through water-cooled copper tuyères. The raw material is injected through tuyères and mixed with the plasma gas (approximately 4000–5000 °C) in the raceway where the reactions take place.

Coke is charged from the top of the furnace at regular intervals. The coke column acts as a reducing agent and filter for the gas being led out of the furnace. Due to the equal heat distribution in the furnace and its height, a high yield can be achieved in terms of the reduction of the valuable elements Ni, Cr, Mo and Fe and a comparatively low carry-over into the gas-cleaning step. Before tapping is carried out, raw material is injected into the shaft. At regular intervals, the furnace is tapped by drilling a hole at the bottom of the furnace, similar to the procedure with blast furnaces. The hot metal is cast at a temperature of approximately 1400 °C into casting beds lined with refractory material, to pigs of 3–4 tonnes each. This corresponds to a 40–60 % metal yield. The alloy is enriched with carbon (4–6 %) and can be granulated in a water bath which benefits handling and transportation, or crushed into pieces of approximately 500–800 kg, depending on the requirements of the end-users in the various steel mills.

Emissions to air come from channelled emissions and from diffuse sources. The process gas is cooled and cleaned in a three-stage Venturi scrubber system, followed by a wet ESP. Process gas that is not recycled to the shaft furnace is treated in a mercury filter unit (selenium filter). The cleaned gas is combusted/used in the drying of raw materials, in water boilers, or for energy delivery to the communal remote heating network, or is flared (excess gas). The raw material dryer system exhaust gases are cleaned in two bag filters. About 50 % of this energy for the district heating system is produced by direct heat exchange of cooling water from the furnace, the other 50 % is produced in a hot water boiler. About 50 % of the process gas is recirculated into the plasma generators through a compressor and used as heat transfer gas. The mercury emissions in the gas stream after the flare are measured continuously on-line [233, COM 2008]

The filter cake from the scrubber is highly concentrated in zinc and can be further processed in a Waelz kiln prior to its use as feed for zinc production.

The slag is separated from the metal by gravity and skimming the slag from the metal. The inert slag flows into a pit where it is regularly dug out and crushed at the same time. The slag can also be granulated. Then, the slag is separated externally from metal pieces. Based on experience, the basicity is approximately 1.0 (CaO , SiO_2), meaning that this kind of slag product can be sold as a non-leachable material for road construction. Long-term large-scale leaching tests have been carried out, in which slag was exposed to rainwater for 1.5 years. Slag has proven to be a suitable material for road construction purposes due to its very low leachability of metals and characteristics similar to those of natural mineral rocks.

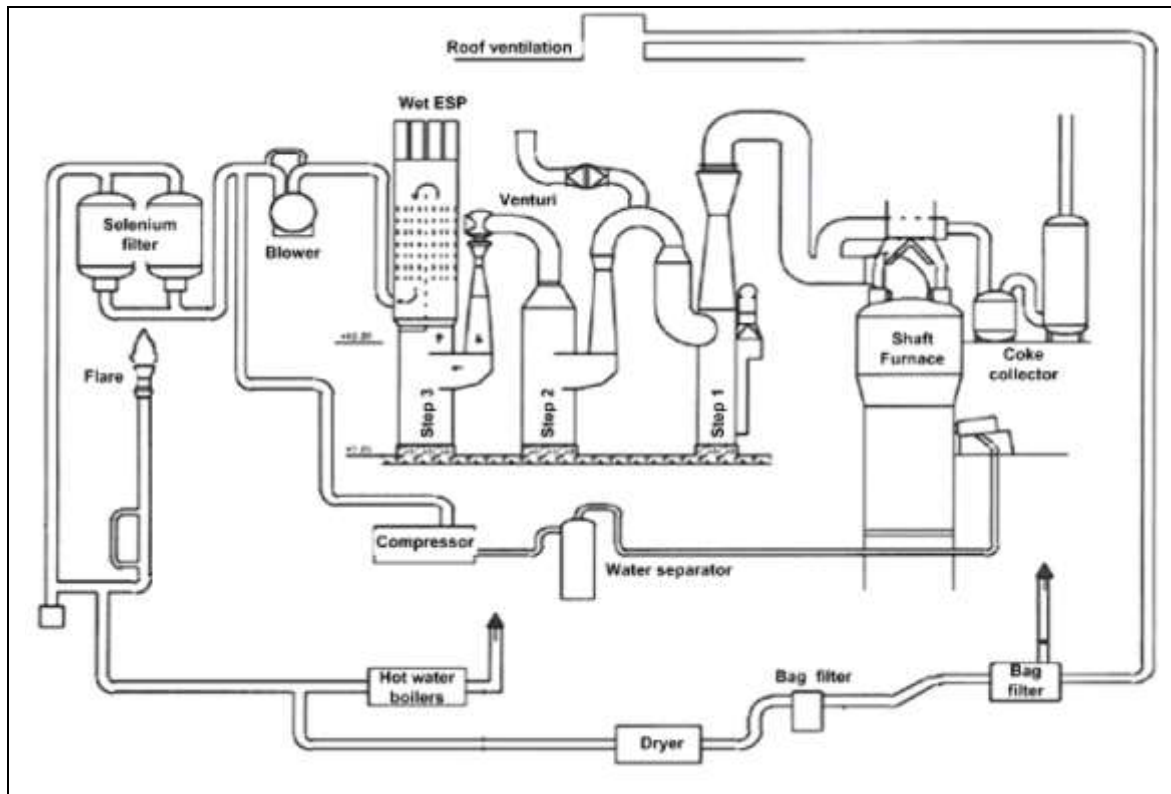


Figure 8.18: Plasma dust processing smelter (Sweden)

8.1.12 Summary of the smelting systems used in the ferro-alloy industry

Table 8.4: Summary of the smelting systems used in the ferro-alloy industry

Smelting system	Production	Gas collection and abatement	Advantages	Disadvantages
Open submerged electric arc furnace with three electrodes	FeCr, FeMn, SiMn, FeSi, FeNi, FeV, Si metal alloy recovery	Hooded and cleaned in a fabric filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Robust, simple design Low investment and maintenance costs Can use almost any raw material and can perform pre-reduction Remelting and reuse of the furnace dust The smelting process can be easily controlled Hot water production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High electrical energy consumption No heat recovery except hot water production Large off-gas volumes Need for large pollution control systems Higher environmental impact due to the off-gas volume and the heat supplied to the ambient air Formation of Cr(VI) when FeCr is produced
Open submerged arc furnace with a single electrode	Special ferro-alloys, FeV, FeB	Hooded and cleaned in a fabric filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Robust, simple design High flexibility in production Low investment and maintenance costs Can use almost any raw material Can remelt fines and perform pre-reduction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The open furnace with a single electrode is normally used in the production of special alloys for small quantities. The aforementioned disadvantage is therefore relatively lower
Semi-closed submerged arc furnace	FeCr, FeMn, SiMn, FeNi FeSi, Si metal alloy recovery, special ferro-alloys	Hooded and cleaned in a fabric filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More flexibility in raw materials Energy recovery as electrical energy and/or steam Hot water production Smaller off-gas filter plant Easy control of the smelting process Reduced environmental impact 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relatively high energy consumption if no pre-reduction More complex system Higher maintenance costs Can use a limited amount of fines without agglomeration Formation of Cr(VI) when FeCr is produced
Closed submerged arc furnace	FeCr, FeMn, Si Mn, FeNi, special ferro-alloys	Sealed furnace with wet scrubber or a dry wire-cloth filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low environmental impact Energy recovery in the form of CO-rich gas as a secondary fuel Low off-gas volume Fairly simple system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for well-sized lumpy or agglomerated raw materials Off-gas consists of CO (explosive and poisonous) Wet gas cleaning system Waste water and sludge need to be treated or reused
Closed submerged arc furnace with preheating in a rotary kiln	FeCr	Sealed furnace with a wet scrubber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low electrical energy consumption Energy-efficient Low environmental impact Increased furnace capacity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for stricter amounts of well-sized hard lumpy ore or concentrates have to be agglomerated Agglomeration or pelletising plant Higher investment costs Little flexibility in the choice of raw material Complex system Wet gas cleaning system
Closed submerged arc furnace with a preheating shaft furnace	FeCr	Sealed furnace with a wet scrubber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More flexibility in raw materials Low energy consumption Energy recovery Low environmental impact Increased productivity of the furnace 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for well-sized hard lumpy ore or agglomerated raw material Wet gas cleaning system

Smelting system	Production	Gas collection and abatement	Advantages	Disadvantages
Closed submerged arc furnace with pre-reduction in a rotary kiln	FeCr	Sealed furnace with a wet scrubber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very low electrical energy consumption • Heat recovery, full utilisation of off-gases • Higher coal consumption, lower coke consumption • Increased productivity of the furnace 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher investment costs • Wet gas cleaning system • Very complex system • No flexibility in raw material supply • Relatively high maintenance cost • Possibility of accretion formation
Plasma arc furnace	FeCr	Sealed furnace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possibility to use any ore except lumpy ore • Use of fines without agglomeration • Energy recovery • Use of coal instead of coke 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher investment costs • High energy consumption • Complex system • Shorter operating time • CO in a pressurised system
DC furnace	FeCr	Sealed furnace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lumpy ore cannot be used • Use of fines without agglomeration • Low investment costs • Higher energy density 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Injection with unknown difficulties • Problems with the bottom electrode when overheated • Need for prebaked electrodes
Refractory-lined crucible	Special ferro-alloys, FeMo, FeV	Hooded and cleaned in a fabric filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low investment costs • High flexibility in production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher off-gas volume • Less effective gas collection system
		Enclosed in a reaction chamber connected to a fabric filter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low investment costs • High flexibility in production • Effective fume collection system • Lower off-gas volume 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slightly higher investment costs
Multiple hearth furnace	Molybdenite roasting	Wet scrubber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proven technology • Sulphuric acid can be produced 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NA
Plasma dust process	Ferro-alloys recovery	Sealed furnace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of fines without agglomeration • Energy recovery • High energy density • High flexibility in production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher investment costs • High energy consumption • Complex system • CO in a pressurised system • Wet gas cleaning system
<p>NB: NA= not available The use of open furnaces for producing FeCr is limited by the production of Cr(VI). For Mn and FeMn, a mercury removal stage should be incorporated. These are described in detail in Chapter 2. Source: [405, Euroalliances 2012]</p>				

8.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The production of ferro-alloys generates mainly dust and solid waste/by-products, and consumes a considerable amount of energy. When abatement techniques are applied to reduce emissions, cross-media effects occur. Generally, Sections 8.2.1 to 8.2.6 describe the most relevant environmental issues in ferro-alloy production processes.

Consumption of raw material and energy

- Raw material and energy consumption.

Emissions to air

- Dust and fume emissions including metals.
- SO₂, NO_x, CO gas, CO₂, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), VOCs, PCDD/F and volatile metals.

Emissions of noise and vibrations

- Associated with machinery and releasing of skulls.

Solid residues, wastes and by-products

- Dust and sludge.
- Slag.

Waste water emissions

- Waste water from wet scrubbing systems.
- Waste water from the cooling of slag and the granulation of metals.
- Blowdown from cooling water cycles.

Energy recovery

- Energy recovery in terms of the utilisation of the CO-rich off-gas from closed furnaces.
- Energy recovery from the high-temperature off-gas either as electrical energy or hot water for heating purposes.
- Energy recovery from cooling water.

8.2.1 Consumption of raw material and energy

The raw material consumption mainly depends on the metal content of the ore or concentrate, the metal yield in the furnace process, the composition of the product and losses during raw material and product handling (transport, screening, etc.) and treatment (refining, solidification, crushing, packing, etc.). Higher yields result in a lower consumption of raw materials and energy per tonne of metal for a specific process. The production of special alloys may require cleaner raw materials that have less favourable process properties, giving a low yield and with a higher consumption of raw materials and energy per tonne of metal produced.

The energy consumption per tonne of metal differs greatly from one ferro-alloy to another. One reason is the difference in the chemical bonding strengths to oxygen for different elements in the ore and the temperature required for the chemical reactions to proceed. Silicon, for instance, has both a higher bonding energy and requires higher process temperatures than manganese. Other reasons are variations in the metal content of the ore or concentrate and the final product, and the metal yield that it is possible to obtain for different ferro-alloys. The latter is mostly governed by the amount of slag that is produced per tonne of metal and the amount of metal fume contained in the gases present in the production furnace at different temperatures.

The raw material and energy consumption figures listed in this section are for producing 1 tonne of tapped liquid metal. As an example, standard ferro-silicon can be tapped directly into moulds filled with low-value fines from previously crushed metal, adding several percentages to the

tapped tonnage. This gives low raw material and energy consumption values per tonne of product sold. The production of high-purity low-titanium ferro-silicon, on the other hand, requires extremely clean raw materials with less favourable process properties and post-taphole refining, often involving the use of both a tapping ladle and a refining ladle. The poorer raw materials give less silicon yield in the furnace process, while the post-taphole treatment results in substantial losses through oxidation of elements to be removed by refining, imperfect slag-metal separation and through metal that solidifies in the ladles used. The raw material and energy consumption levels per tonne of product sold are therefore much higher for this quality. The consumption values are given as intervals covering normal variations in the metal yield.

The latent chemical combustion energy of the free carbon in the carbon materials is listed even though this carbon is used as a reducing agent for the ore in highly energy-consuming chemical reactions rather than for energy production by combustion with oxygen. The substantial amount of volatile components in coal cannot, for instance, be used in the silicon metal and ferro-silicon process since they do not react with the ore. Nor does it add any energy in parts of the furnace where energy is needed. The energy consumption in ferro-alloy production is therefore always given by the amount of electrical energy used per tonne of tapped metal. The values in the tables are for the metal production process only and do not include auxiliary energy for operating various support systems like fans, heat exchangers, raw material handling, keeping ladles warm, etc. The auxiliary power normally amounts to between 5 % and 10 % of the values given in Table 8.5, Table 8.6, Table 8.7, Table 8.8, Table 8.9 and Table 8.10.

To avoid false differences between process alternatives, it is important to present only the gross energy consumption. The energy sources going into the production process consist of electrical energy and latent chemical energy in the carbonaceous material. One kg of carbon has a potential gross energy content on conversion to CO₂ of approximately 8.8 kWh, or approximately 7.7 kWh/kg of coke. If these figures are used, the gross consumption of energy for the production of bulk ferro-alloys can be calculated. The gross amount of CO₂ emitted will be directly proportional to the amount of coke consumed in the process. Auxiliaries consumption is not included in the figures of the following tables. The auxiliary power normally amounts to between 5 % and 10 % of the values shown.

Table 8.5: Gross consumption data for the production of ferro-chrome as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced

Raw material	HC FeCr				LC FeCr
Chromite (kg/t)	2400–3000 ⁽¹⁾	2300–2400 ⁽²⁾	NA	NA	1600
Reducing agent (kg/t)	550–700 ⁽¹⁾	500–550 ⁽²⁾	600 ⁽³⁾	NA	675 (FeSiCr)
Fluxes (kg/t)	100–400 ⁽¹⁾	200–300 ⁽²⁾	NA	NA	1100
Others (kg/t)	Electrode 8–25 Remelts 0–300	Electrode 7–10	NA	NA	Sand < 100 kg Si < 40 kg Electrode 10 kg Boric acid 3kg
Electricity (kWh/t)	3800–4500 ⁽¹⁾	3100–3500 ⁽²⁾	2600–3100 ⁽³⁾	4500 ⁽⁴⁾	3400 ⁽⁵⁾
Potential energy by using coke (kWh/t)	4235–5390 ⁽¹⁾	3850–4235 ⁽²⁾	4620 ⁽³⁾	NA	NR
Total energy input (kWh/t)	8035–9890 ⁽¹⁾	6950–7735 ⁽²⁾	7220–7720 ⁽³⁾	NA	3400
<p>⁽¹⁾ Consumption data of a conventional open submerged arc furnace, lumpy and fine ore without agglomeration, preheating and/or pre-reduction processes.</p> <p>⁽²⁾ Consumption data for using preheated pellets as raw material and no remelts.</p> <p>⁽³⁾ Consumption data for using pre-reduced pellets as raw material. In this case, the energy consumption is dependent on the grade of metallisation.</p> <p>⁽⁴⁾ DC furnace without pre-reduction process.</p> <p>⁽⁵⁾ The energy consumption presented refers to the conversion of FeSiCr to LC FeCr. If the production of the intermediate product - FeSiCr - is included, the electrical energy consumption is 8050–9500 kWh/t, the potential energy consumption by using coke 5750–6400 kWh/t and the total energy input 13 800–15 900 kWh/t.</p> <p>NB: The aforementioned electricity and reducing agent consumption are for the whole production process. The electrical energy consumption is about 95 % of the total consumption. Most of the remaining 5 % is electrical energy needed for the off-gas treatment.</p> <p>NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]</p>					

Generally, a higher chromium content in the alloy requires more energy for production. Coke breeze consumption will generally be in the range of 60–90 kg per tonne of sinter. With sinter consumption of 2–2.5 tonnes per tonne of ferro-chrome, this equals 120–225 kg of breeze per tonne of ferro-chrome. The external energy consumption of a steel belt sinter furnace ranges between 200 kWh and 400 kWh per tonne of pellets. The energy comes from coke breeze and CO gas from smelting. The coke breeze consumption is 20–40 kg per tonne of pellets and the proportion of CO as external energy is about 20–40 %. The external energy for coke drying in a shaft furnace is about 200 kWh per tonne of coke, equalling 100 kWh per tonne of FeCr.

The consumption of Söderberg electrode paste ranges between 8 kg and 25 kg per tonne of FeCr, the lowest consumption being achieved when using preheated or pre-reduced and agglomerated charge.

Water is used in the production of ferro-chrome both as process water and cooling water. Process water is used for scrubbing and slag granulation. If the process water treatment is in a closed circuit, 3–10 m³ per tonne of ferro-chrome is normally used. For cooling purposes, 5–15 m³ per tonne of ferro-chrome is also used.

Oxidised steel mill waste, dust and scale are recovered using processes adapted from high-carbon ferro-chrome production. The energy consumption for the metallurgical reduction is shown in Table 8.6 for typical contents of recoverable metals. Two types of furnaces are in use, conventional submerged arc furnaces and DC plasma shaft furnaces.

Table 8.6: Consumption data for the recovery of ferro-alloys from steel mill residues as specific input of raw materials per tonne of recovered metal

Component	Conventional submerged electric arc furnace	Plasma dust process
Residues (kg/t)	1650–2500	1650–2500
Reducing agent (kg/t)	400–500	400–500
Electricity (kWh/t)	3000–3400	2800–3800
Metal contents (output):	(%)	(%)
Ni	3–15	3–15
Cr	15–25	15–25
Mo	1–5	1–5
C	4–6	4–6
Si	0.5–8	0.1–1
Fe	Balance	Balance
Water (m ³ /t)	1.0–1.5	2.8–3.2
Alloy recovery (output):	(%)	(%)
Cr	90–95	90–95
Ni	90–98	90–98
Mo	90–98	90–98
Fe	90–98	90–98
<i>Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]</i>		

The consumption of energy and raw material for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon metal and silico-calcium are presented in terms of specific input factors in Table 8.7. The amount of electrical energy that is given is for the furnace process only and refers to 1 tonne of liquid metal tapped from the furnace at the specified silicon yield, electrical efficiency of the furnace and carbon loss from the top of the furnace.

Table 8.7: Consumption data for the production of ferro-silicon, silicon and silico-calcium as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced

	Ferro-silicon (75 % Si)	Silicon metal	Silico-calcium
Quartzite (kg/t)	1800	2700	1500
Reducing agent (kg/t)	1100–1200	1150–1500	925
Electrode (kg/t)	40	100 ⁽¹⁾	120
Iron ore pellets (kg/t)	300–350	NR	NR
Limestone (kg/t)	NR	NR	900
Woodchips (kg/t)	0–900	1000–2000	NR
Electricity (kWh/t)	9000	10 800–12 000 ⁽²⁾	9500
Potential energy assuming coke or coal is used (kWh/t)	10 500 (coke/coal)	10 120–13 200 (coal)	7122 (coke)
Total energy input (kWh/t)	19 250	20 920–25 200	16622
⁽¹⁾ Some silicon producers are using a combined Söderberg-graphite electrode. The aim is to use the Söderberg technology but reduce the iron impurities caused by the electrode casing.			
⁽²⁾ The ideal energy consumption for the production of silicon metal is 10 100 kWh/t (heat of reaction = 8 kWh/t, heat loss with the metal = 0.9 kWh/t and heat loss in the off-gas = 1.2 kWh/t).			
NB: NR = Not relevant.			
<i>Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]</i>			

A combination of the Söderberg technology and a graphite core is used for the production of silicon metal. The aim of this compound electrode is to reduce the cost of the electrode, whilst keeping the iron impurities caused by the electrode casing at an acceptable level for the silicon metal.

The specific input factors for the production of the different sorts of ferro-manganese as well as for silico-manganese and the sinter process of manganese ores and concentrates are given in Table 8.8 below.

Table 8.8: Consumption data for the production of manganese ore sinter, ferro-manganese and silico-manganese as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced

Source	Sinter	HC FeMn	MC/LC FeMn (silicothermic)	MC/LC FeMn (decarburisation process)	SiMn (standard and LC SiMn)
		EAF			
Ore ⁽¹⁾ (kg/t)	1000–1300	1900–2400	1000–2000	2200–2800	500–2000
Coke or coal (kg/t)	100	410–500	200–300	480–580	400–700
Gas (m ³ /t)	150–200	NR	NA	NR	NR
Electrode (kg/t)	NR	8–30	6–8	9–29	10–50
Water ⁽²⁾ (m ³ /t)	12–18	1.5–40 ⁽³⁾ cooling water	Cooling water	2–50 ⁽³⁾	1.5–40 ⁽³⁾ cooling water
Others (kg/t)	NR	NR	Fluxes 500–1000 SiMn 700–1000	Oxygen 60–100 m ³ /t	FeMn slag 400–2500
SiMn (kg/t)	NA	NA	500–1200	NA	NA
Electricity (kWh/t)	100	2200–3200	1400–2000	2600–3700	3800–6000
Potential energy by using coke (kWh/t)	900–1000	3800–4100	5700–13 300	4400–4800	3100–5000
Total energy input (kWh/t)	1000–1100	6000–7300	7300–15 300	7000–8500	6900–11 000
⁽¹⁾ The raw materials consumed normally contain recycled materials such as dusts and sludges from the abatement system. ⁽²⁾ The consumption of water is dependent on the water processing equipment and varies from 20 m ³ /t to 40 m ³ /t in open circuits and from 1.5 m ³ /t to 5 m ³ /t in closed circuits. ⁽³⁾ Water consumption is associated with wet dedusting. NB: Silicon can be replaced by aluminium. EAF = Electric arc furnace. NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008] [370, France 2009]					

The specific input factors for the production of ferro-nickel are given in Table 8.9 below.

Table 8.9: Consumption data for the production of ferro-nickel alloy as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced

Source	FeNi alloy (~ 20 % Ni)
Ore (t/t)	20
Coke or coal (t/t)	4
Gas (m ³ /t)	0.006
Electrode (t/t)	0.048
Others (crude oil, limestone, cement) (kg/t)	0.57
Electricity (MWh/t)	10
<i>Source: [406, Greece 2013]</i>	

The available information on the consumption of raw material and energy for the production of various special ferro-alloys is presented in

Table 8.10.

Table 8.10: Consumption data for the production of special ferro-alloys as specific input of raw materials per tonne of alloy produced

Component	FeV	FeMo ⁽¹⁾	FeTi	FeB
Metal oxides (kg/t)	1100–2000 ⁽²⁾	NA	NA	NA
Electricity (kWh/t)	2200–2800	160–405	770	6000–11 000
Gas (m ³ /t)	NR	148–155 MJ/t	55	75
Water (m ³ /t)	NA ⁽³⁾	NR	NM	0.3
⁽¹⁾ The consumption data for the production of FeMo are based on one tonne of molybdenum. ⁽²⁾ The data presented contain the amount of V ₂ O ₃ and V ₂ O ₅ . ⁽³⁾ The consumption of water is very site-specific and therefore not representative. NB: NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant in this production process. NM = Not measured. <i>Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]</i>				

The process of roasting molybdenite concentrates is an exothermic process as the oxidation reaction is ignited. External energy in the form of electricity will therefore only be needed for the mechanical operation of the multiple hearth furnaces. Natural gas is used to dry the concentrates and to ignite flotation oil and elevate the temperature to the point at which the exothermic reactions are triggered and the remaining sulphur removed.

8.2.2 Emissions to air

8.2.2.1 Dust and fume emissions

Depending on the raw material that is needed and the unit operations used, e.g. crushing, drying, sintering, reduction, tapping and product handling, the most important sources of environmental emissions are dust and fumes. Figure 8.19 shows the potential emission points for dust and fumes from a ferro-alloy production plant. The main sources of diffuse emissions are raw material handling from quay to storage bin, raw material transport from storage bins to the reduction furnace, furnace processes, tapping, metal transport and refining processes, casting processes and crushing, screening and packing.

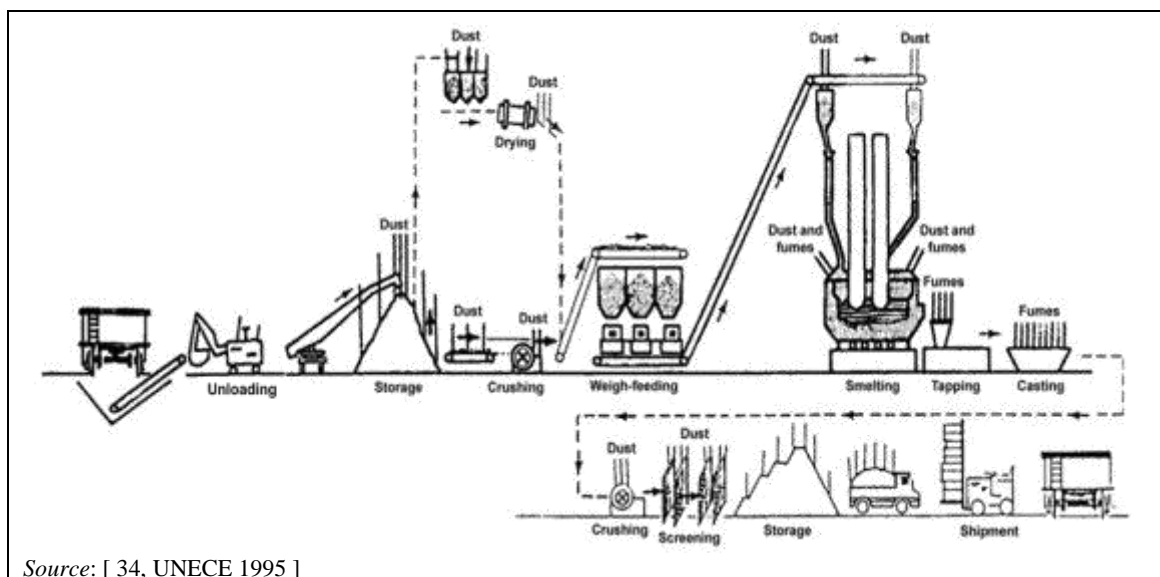


Figure 8.19: Ferro-alloy production flow diagram showing potential points of emissions to air

Some raw materials contain a considerable amount of fines and dust. The unloading and storage of raw material can generate dust when the material falls from one conveyor to another. Dust can also be produced if the conveyor is running too fast (i.e. more than 3.5 m/s). If a front-end loader is used, dust is emitted during the whole journey.

Dust that is produced by the reduction process is collected by hoods or, for a closed furnace, by the furnace sealing itself, and transferred to an abatement plant and dedusted. The dedusting of closed furnace off-gases is generally achieved with wet scrubbers or dry cleaning systems, while bag filters can be used for open and semi-closed furnaces. Typically, by using a closed, sealed furnace, the volume of the off-gas can be reduced by a factor of 50–75, and by a factor of 10–20 by using a semi-closed furnace. The investment costs for the off-gas cleaning systems for closed furnaces are much lower than for open furnaces.

Tapping off-gas consists of dust and fumes from the furnace process and oxygen lancing, dust from drilling, fumes from vaporised slugs if a tapping gun is used and fumes from all exposed metal and slag surfaces. These fumes that arise from tapping contain little CO or CO₂ but will mainly be oxides of the metals involved in the reduction process.

Table 8.11, Table 8.12, Table 8.13 and Table 8.14 present the available emission data for the emissions of dust when producing different ferro-alloys.

Table 8.11: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-chrome based on the production of one tonne of alloy

Source	HC FeCr		MC FeCr		LC FeCr	
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)
Raw material handling	0.01–0.02	f ⁽¹⁾	NA	f ⁽¹⁾	f ⁽¹⁾	
Drying	0.01–0.02 (coke)	1–50	NA	NA	0.082 (ore)	5
Crushing	0.002	NA	NA	NA	0.003	3
Pelletising/sintering (²)	0.01–0.02 /t pellets	1–15	NR	NR	NR	NR
Dosing station	0.01–0.02	1–30 (²)	NA	NA	0.024	5
Preheating	0.001–0.005	1–15 (²)	NR	NR	NR	NR
Smelting furnace	0.02–0.1 (³)	1–100 (²)(⁴)(⁵)	NA	NA	0.101	8
Tapping	(⁶)	5–12 (²)	NA	NA	(⁷)	(⁷)
Casting	(⁶)	5–12 (⁶)	NA	NA	0.2–0.4 (²)	3–15 (²)
Slag handling	NM	NM	NA	NA	0.04	10–15
Product handling (crushing, screening, storage, etc.)	0.02–0.05	r	NA	NA	NA	NA

(¹) The material loss caused by handling and storage of raw material is estimated to be less than 1 %.

(²) The dust emissions presented are dependent on the furnace type and the off-gas abatement technique used. For instance, most bag filters achieve less than 5 mg/Nm³. Dust emissions from a sinter furnace using a cascade wet scrubber are reported to be below 5 mg/Nm³.

(³) The Cr(VI) content of the furnace dust is between 5 ppm and 100 ppm in the closed furnace and between 1000 ppm and 7000 ppm in the open furnace.

(⁴) This illustrates the range between good and poor performers.

(⁵) The furnace gas from a closed furnace is used as fuel after wet scrubbing. The gas is flared only if a customer is temporarily not available.

(⁶) Sampling of the ventilation air leaving the furnace building, including the tapping and casting area, over long periods of time can give an indication of the average values. These show average dust concentrations of between 5 mg/Nm³ and 12 mg/Nm³.

(⁶) The furnace gas from a closed furnace is used as fuel after wet scrubbing. The gas is flared only if a customer is temporarily not available.

(⁷) Included in 'smelting furnace' source.

NB: NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. NM = Not measured.

f = Diffuse dust emissions. r = Dust is recycled back into the process.

Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

Table 8.12: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-silicon and silicon metal based on the production of one tonne of alloy

Source	FeSi		Si and CaSi	
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)
Raw material handling	f ⁽²⁾	f ⁽²⁾	f ⁽²⁾	f ⁽²⁾
Drying of woodchips	NM	NM	NM	NM
Crushing	NM	NM	NM	NM
Weighing dosing station	f	f	f	f
Smelting	0.1–2	1–20 ⁽¹⁾	0.1–1.5	1–20 ⁽¹⁾
Tapping	⁽³⁾ ⁽⁴⁾	⁽³⁾ 5–12 ⁽⁴⁾	⁽³⁾ ⁽⁴⁾	⁽³⁾ 5–12 ⁽⁴⁾
Casting	⁽⁴⁾	5–12 ⁽⁴⁾	⁽⁴⁾	5–12 f ⁽⁴⁾
Refining	⁽³⁾	⁽³⁾	⁽³⁾	⁽³⁾
Product crushing	0.3–0.5	r	0.3–0.5	r

⁽¹⁾ Using a bag filter, plants achieve dust emissions below 5 mg/Nm³, corresponding to a cleaning grade of above 99.5 %. The silica fume is collected in the filter as a by-product (micro-silica).
⁽²⁾ The material loss caused by handling and storage of raw material is estimated to be around 0.2 %.
⁽³⁾ If the fumes and dust from the tapping area are collected and cleaned in the bag filter the dust concentrations are in the same range as the concentration of dust emissions from the smelting furnace.
⁽⁴⁾ Sampling of the ventilation air leaving the furnace building, including the tapping and casting area, over long periods of time can give an indication of the average values. These show average dust concentrations between 5 mg/Nm³ and 12 mg/Nm³ and total dust emissions amounting to 0.2–0.6 kg/tonne of alloy produced.
 NB: NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. NM = Not measured.
 f = Diffuse dust emissions. r = Dust is recycled back into the process.
 Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

Data provided by Norway indicate that sometimes a significant amount of channelled dust emissions bypasses the abatement system during the production of ferro-silicon and silicon metal. Reasons given for bypassing the abatement system are associated with excessively high temperatures (which could damage the bag) that may occur when irregularities in the furnace take place and during start-ups and shutdowns.

Table 8.13: Dust emissions from the production of ferro-manganese and silico-manganese based on the production of one tonne of alloy

Source	HC FeMn			MC and LC FeMn		SiMn	
	BF	EAF		(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)
		(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)				
Raw material handling	NR	f	f	f	f	f	< 0.1
Weighing dosing station	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	< 0.1
Smelting	NR	0.1–0.4	5–60 ⁽¹⁾	NA	< 25	0.02–0.4	5–60
Tapping	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	3.2
Casting	NR	0.05–0.1	NA	0.05–0.1	NA	NA	NA
Refining	NR	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Product crushing	NR	0.1–0.3	r	0.1–0.3	r	NA	r
Waste heat boiler	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR
Electricity production	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR

⁽¹⁾ If the dedusting of the off-gases from a closed sealed furnace takes place in a cascaded wet scrubber dust emissions below 10–40 mg/Nm³ are achieved. Some plants that are operating semi-closed furnaces using bag filters for dedusting are achieving dust emissions below 5 mg/Nm³.
NB: BF = Blast furnace. EAF = Electric arc furnace.
NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant.
f = Diffuse dust emissions. r = Dust is recycled back into the process.
Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

Table 8.14: Dust emissions to air (after abatement) from the production of ferro-alloys

Source	Fe Ni (mg/Nm ³)	FeV (g/Nm ³)	FeMo (mg/Nm ³)	FeTi (mg/Nm ³)	FeB (mg/Nm ³)	Molybdenite roasting (mg/Nm ³)
Raw material handling	1–15	< 5	0.5–15	1–15	1–15	1–15
Raw material drying	1–15	NR	4–17	1–15	1–10	NR
Crushing	< 1 ⁽¹⁾	NR	1–5			NR
Pelletising		NR	NR			NR
Sintering/roasting		NR	NA			1–15
Dosing		NR	1			NM
Preheating		NR	NR			NR
Smelting		1–15	< 5	1–30	1–15	1–10
Tipping/tapping	NA	< 5	5–15	NA	NA	NR
Casting	NA		⁽²⁾	NA	NA	NR
Slag handling	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NR
Product crushing	1–15	< 5	0.5–5	NA	NA	NM

⁽¹⁾ Data are from the production of secondary FeNi where a modern membrane fabric filter is used. The result gives the amount of Ni oxide as part of the emitted dust from the rotary kiln.
⁽²⁾ Emissions are estimated from the roof exhaust fans.
NB: NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. NM = Not measured.
Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

Table 8.15: Ferro-nickel emissions to air

Component smelter total	Measured concentration in stack emissions (mg/m ³)	Maximum airflow rates (Nm ³ /h)	Sampling frequency
Dust	113	1 200 000	4 times per year
Ni	1–1.551		
Co	0.078		
As	0.012		
Pb	0.049		
Cd	0.002		
Hydrocarbons	1322		
CO	3262		

Source: [356, ENIA 2008]

Table 8.16: Sources of ferro-nickel emissions

Source	Stack emission factor (g/tonne)	Abatement system
Rotary kilns	1993 (reference year: 2006)	ESP, multi-cyclones, Venturi scrubbers and bag filters
EAF	20 993 (reference year: 2006)	
Converter	315	

Source: [356, ENIA 2008]

Table 8.17 shows the measured data after dust abatement by bag filter from different sources when producing ferro-vanadium and ferro-molybdenum at one site.

Table 8.17: Emissions from the production of ferro-vanadium and ferro-molybdenum

Source	Off-gas flow (Nm ³ /h)	Dust (mg/Nm ³)	Tot. C (mg/Nm ³)	PAH ⁽¹⁾ (µg/Nm ³)	PCDD/F (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)
Rolling scale drying	10 000	4.83	NR	NR	NR
Mo burden preparation	10 000	1.74	NR	NR	NR
5 EAF (FeV)	approx. 17 000 per furnace	1.36	1.7–3.3	23	0.00032–0.00044 PCDF 0.0011–0.0015 PCDD
Thermite oven (FeMo) (exothermic reaction)	19 411	1.43	2.3–3.8	35	0.0012–0.0014 PCDD 0.00015–0.0005 PCDF
Product crushing					
FeMo	9700	0.82	NR	NR	NR
FeV	11 800	0.91			
Slag crusher					
FeMo	1500	0.99	NR	NR	NR
FeV	25 000	2.80			
Refractory crushing	1400	1.03	NR	NR	NR
Packing	5400–8200	1.73	NR	NR	NR
Diffuse emissions via the roofline	225 700–314 300 ⁽²⁾	3.88	NR	NR	NR

(¹) 16 EPA PAH.
(²) The lower value represents the furnace out of operation and the higher value represents the furnace in operation.
NB: NR = Not relevant.
Source: [369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.2.2.2 Other emissions to air

The most important pollutants from the production of ferro-alloys besides dust are SO₂, NO_x, CO, CO₂, HF, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and metals. The formation of PCDD/F in the combustion zone and in the cooling part of the off-gas treatment system (de novo synthesis) may be possible in open or semi-closed furnaces. N₂O and CH₄ are emitted from sinter and pelletising plants. Mercury, if present in the ore, can also be emitted from reduction processes. The emissions can escape the process either as stack emissions or as diffuse emissions, depending on the design and maintenance of the plant and the technology used. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically and reported by on-site staff or off-site consultants to the competent authorities.

In the carbothermic process, only the fixed carbon content is used as a reducing agent, which means that volatile matter, ashes and moisture mostly leave the furnace with the off-gas and slag. The volatile matter consists mainly of hydrocarbons and does not take part in the reaction but leaves the furnace together with the CO when the furnace is closed, or is burnt near the surface in a semi-closed or open furnace to produce CO₂. Closed furnaces produce higher concentrations of CO that can be used as a fuel gas in other processes.

The sulphur content in metallurgical coke varies between 0.4 % and 1.0 %. Of this sulphur, 60–85 % remains in the slag and about 5 % escapes the furnace as SO₂. The production of silicon alloys requires different reducing agents like coal, coke, petrol coke and charcoal. These reducing agents contain different amounts of sulphur, and typical variations are between 0.5 % and 3 %. Silicon alloy production is almost slag-free and nearly all sulphur escapes from the furnace as SO₂ or as sulphur bound to the micro-silica. By using a reducing agent or a mixture of different carbon sources, with in total a high sulphur content of about 2–3 %, higher SO₂ emissions may occur.

The off-gas generated by roasting molybdenite concentrates contains large amounts of SO₂ that are normally cleaned in a desulphurisation plant, producing sulphuric acid. The tail gas from the desulphurisation plant of a molybdenite roaster contains SO₂, since the conversion of SO₂ into SO₃ will not be 100 %. The off-gas also contains a certain amount of sulphuric acid mist as well as some SO₃.

Metals are carried into the process as trace elements in the raw material. The metals with a high enough vapour pressure will escape as gases in the form of metal vapour, which partly condenses and oxidises to form part of the dust from the smelting furnace. Even after tapping and especially during refining, the temperature of the molten metal and slag is high enough to allow vaporisation of components both from the metal and from the slag. The fumes arising from this evaporation evolve the whole time, from the start of tapping until casting is finished. Even after the ladle is emptied, some fumes may evolve from the metal skull. During tapping, most of the fumes are collected through the tapping fume collection system and cleaned.

Depending on the type of raw materials used, mercury could be emitted to the air by ferro-manganese or silico-manganese furnaces. This can be addressed either by controlling the mercury content in the raw materials, pretreating the raw materials in order to remove the mercury (for instance through sintering) or by treating the off-gas (several commercial technologies are available for mercury removal from off-gases, as reported in Section 2.12.5.5) [[226, Nordic Report 2008](#)].

Mercury removal from raw materials will involve large-scale equipment. Ore dressing is only economical due to scale. For the converting step, the cleaning of the off-gas might be feasible if a satisfactory gas collection system can be installed. Sintering plants are usually built for the treatment of ore fines. If the material must be sintered due to size, mercury removal should be installed. For alloy production, online measurement and cleaning measures must be at least a minimum requirement.

In the production of ferro-molybdenum, fluorspar may be used to improve slag and metal separation. Fluorspar is a calcium fluoride ore that is used as a flux and lowers the melting point and the viscosity of the slag, resulting in an enhanced fluidity of the slag. Additionally, when mixed with lime, it reduces the phosphorus and sulphur content of the metal. Lower melting points favour the metal-slag separation, since the slag remains liquid for a longer time during the cooling. This effect, together with the reduced viscosity, makes it possible for small dispersed droplets to sink and coagulate in the metal phase at the bottom. However, the use of fluorspar as a fluxing agent results in emissions of fluorides within the range of 150–260 mg/Nm³. Due to the biotoxic nature of fluoride, the use of fluorspar should be minimised as far as possible. Table 8.18 and Table 8.19 present some figures of measured emissions to air when producing bulk ferro-alloys, however the data are not meant to be representative of the whole EU-28 industry.

Table 8.18: Emissions to air (after abatement) when producing bulk ferro-alloys

Component	FeCr				FeSi		Si metal		FeMn				Silico-manganese	
	HC FeCr		MC and LC FeCr						HC FeMn EAF		MC and LC FeMn			
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)
SO ₂	0.2–3.0	NA	NR	NR	0.5–5 ⁽¹⁾	< 450	12–18	< 450	0.1–0.2	NA	NA	NA	0.002–0.1	NA
CO	NM	NM	NM	NM	2.0–2.5	< 200	NM	< 200	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
CO ₂	1200–2000 ⁽²⁾	NA	110 ⁽³⁾	NA	5300 ⁽⁴⁾	93 g/Nm ³	7500 ⁽⁴⁾	125 g/Nm ³	1100–1800	NA	1800 ⁽⁵⁾	NA	1100–1800	NA
NO _x	0.5–1.5	NA	0.35	NM	10–11	400	10–13	< 500	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
HF	NM	NM	NM	NM	NM	NM	NM	NM	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
PCDD/F	< 0.1 ng/Nm ³	NA	NM	NM	40 ng/t ⁽⁶⁾	NA	40 ng/t ⁽⁶⁾	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Metals	Cr (in the dust) 1–15 % Cr(VI) 0.1–0.3 % ⁽⁷⁾	NA	Cr < 0.01 Cr ⁶⁺ < 0.002	NA	NA	1.0 µg Hg/Nm ³ ⁽⁶⁾	NA	1.0 µg Hg/Nm ³ ⁽⁶⁾	See Table 8.19					
PAH	NM	NM	NA	3–6 µg/Nm ³	0.0015 ⁽⁶⁾	70 µg/Nm ³	0.003 ⁽⁶⁾	0.02	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
VOCs	NM	NM	NA	NA	0.045 ⁽⁶⁾	100	0.13 ⁽⁶⁾	100	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Cyanides	0.02–0.05	NA	NA	NM	NM	NM	NM	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

⁽¹⁾ The high value corresponds to a production of high-purity FeSi in which a great quantity of petrol coke is used.

⁽²⁾ The emissions of CO₂ include total emissions from the pretreatment smelting and post-furnace processes. The external use of the CO gas from the smelting furnace reduces the local emissions from the FeCr plant only.

⁽³⁾ The emissions are due to 80 kg/t from the natural-gas-fired dryer, ladle heating, etc. and 30 kg/t from the electrode pastes that are consumed.

⁽⁴⁾ The CO₂ data contain the amount of fossil fuels as well as the amount of biological CO₂.

⁽⁵⁾ The CO₂ data are due to the silicothermic production of LC FeMn. The CO₂ emissions by producing MC FeMn from HC FeMn are about 100–500 kg/t of alloy.

⁽⁶⁾ Results from comprehensive 24-hour surveys of emissions to air from the production of FeSi 75 and high-purity Si metal. In this case, it should be noted that the data are based on relatively short measuring periods at two specific plants and should not be taken as representative of the industry.

⁽⁷⁾ The amount of Cr(VI) in the dust is emitted from a semi-closed furnace; cyanides account for 0.2–0.05 % from a closed furnace.

NB: NA = Not available. NR = Not relevant. NM = Not measured.

Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008], [373, Grådahl et al. 2007]

Table 8.19: Emission of metals from ferro-manganese and silico-manganese production

FeMn				
	HC FeMn		MC and LC FeMn	
	EAF			
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)		
SO ₂	0.1–0.2	NA	NA	
CO	NA	NA	NA	
CO ₂	1100–1800	NA	60–100	
NO _x	NA	NA	NA	
Hg	0.0001–0.00015	0.001–0.2		
Pb	0.0002–0.0004	NA		
As	2×10 ⁻⁵	NA		
Cd	5×10 ⁻⁶	NA		
Cr	2×10 ⁻⁵	NA		
Cu	8×10 ⁻⁵	NA		
Sum	0.0001	0.0002		
Emissions to air				
SiMn				
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)		
SO ₂	0.002–0.2	NA		
CO	NA			
CO ₂	1100–1800			
NO _x	NA			
Hg	0.00003–0.0007			
Pb	0.0002–0.0007			
As	2×10 ⁻⁵			
Cd	5×10 ⁻⁶ –10 ⁻⁴			
Cr	2×10 ⁻⁵ –10 ⁻³			
Cu	0.0001–0.0003			
Sum	0.0001		0.0002	

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [233, COM 2008], [226, Nordic Report 2008] [395, France 2013]

The emissions to air when producing primary ferro-nickel are shown in Table 8.20 and Table 8.21.

Table 8.20: Emissions to air from primary ferro-nickel production

Component	FeNi	
	(kg/t)	(mg/Nm ³)
SO ₂	20–25	NA
CO ₂	45 000	NA
NO _x	10–15	NA
PCDD/F	NA	0.4 ng/Nm ³

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [406, Greece 2013]

Table 8.21: Characterisation of the emissions to air from primary ferro-nickel production

Operation	Emissions to air						
	Dust/Fume			Gases			
	Total	Ni	Others	SO ₂	CO ₂	CO	NO _x
Ore crushing	HL	LL	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Drying	HL	HL	NA	LL	ML	LL	NA
Roasting	HL	HL	NA	HL	ML	LL	LL
Reductive calcination	HL	LL	NA	LL	ML	LL	LL
Smelting	HL	LL	NA	NA	ML	ML	LL
Converting	HL	ML	SiO ₂	NA	ML	LL	LL
Pouring	HL	LL	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

NB: NA = Not applicable.
 LL = Low level. ML = Medium level. HL = High level.
Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008], [106, Raffinot, P. 1993]

Emissions from a process producing ferro-alloys are presented in Table 8.22. This process uses material recovered from steel mill residues in a submerged electric arc furnace. The percentage of metals in dust will dictate the concentration of metals.

Table 8.22: Emission from a secondary ferro-alloys production process

Pollutants	Concentrations (gas and particles) (mg/Nm ³)
Dust	2–5
SO ₂	< 100
CN	0.002–0.006
HC	< 50
F	0.1–1.5
Cd	< 0.001
Cd+Hg+Ti	< 0.1
As	< 0.003
Se	< 0.002
Te	< 0.002
Zn	2.0
Pb	0.2
CO ₂	1.2–1.5 t/t of alloy

Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

In the production of silicon and ferro-silicon, the combustion process in the smoke hood and off-gas channels may create emissions to air. The main problems are the formation of NO_x, PAH and PCDD/F. The preferred reporting convention is the EPA 16, as this is compatible with the PRTR reporting requirements.

8.2.3 Emissions of noise and vibrations

Heavy machinery, such as crushers and large fans, used in ferro-alloy production can give rise to emissions of noise and vibration. Also, the mechanical releasing of skulls from the ladles may be a source of noise.

8.2.4 Emissions to water

For the production of ferro-alloys, the emissions to water are very dependent on the process, for instance the abatement system and the type of waste water treatment used. A variety of different water collection and waste water treatment systems are used in the ferro-alloy industry. Some plants use a central waste water treatment plant in which water from different production processes and surface run-off water will be cleaned together. Other facilities use a separate treatment system for rainwater and special treatment processes for the different process waste water streams. The main water pollutants are suspended solids and metal compounds. The waste water is treated in order to remove dissolved metals and solids and is recycled or reused as much as possible in the process. The possible waste water streams are:

- surface run-off and drainage water;
- waste water from wet scrubbers;
- waste water from slag cooling and metal granulation;
- cooling water.

The contaminated water is normally led to a thickener or a settling pond to settle out the suspended solids. Precipitation steps are often used to remove metal compounds from the water. In special cases, for instance for cleaning scrubbing water from a molybdenite roasting furnace, ion exchangers are used to remove metal compounds such as selenium and rhenium from the scrubbing water.

The particles mostly consist of very fine particles, so it may therefore be necessary to add a flocculant to assist settling in thickeners. After the treatment in a thickener or a settling pond, the suspended solids are usually below 40 mg/litre, which allows the water's reuse in scrubbers as cooling water or as process water for other purposes.

If a thickener, slag granulation and settling ponds are used, emissions of suspended solids will correspondingly be 10–20 g with a total amount of chromium of about < 1 g, zinc < 2 g and cyanide in the range of < 1 g per tonne of FeCr. For the production of LC FeCr, it has been reported that the amount of chromium discharged in the waste water is < 1.0 g/tonne of product. PAH emissions to water after abatement for the production of ferro-manganese have been reported to be in the range of 0.05–0.2 g/t of FeMn.

The contaminated waste water of the scrubber system from an alloy recovery plant is cleaned in a separate waste water treatment plant in which rainwater from the site may also be cleaned. The partly oxidised particles contained in the water are concentrated in a thickener and, in a later step, separated from free water in two filter presses. The resulting filter cake with 20–25 % moisture consists of the following main constituents:

- ZnO: 30–40 %;
- SiO₂: 10–15 %;
- CaO: 5–15 %;
- FeO: 5–7 %;
- PbO: 3–5 %;
- Hg: 0.001 %.

The amount of dry cake generated is 200–400 kg/tonne of alloy.

This filter cake is shipped at regular intervals for zinc and lead recycling either to the ISF (Imperial Smelting Furnace) or the Waelz process.

There is a bleed-off from the scrubber system of approximately 0.5–2 m³/tonne of ferro-alloys recovered. This bleed-off is cleaned in several steps as follows:

- cyanide removal;
- reduction of Cr₆₊ to Cr₃₊;
- precipitation of metal hydroxides at a high pH together with the oxidation of cyanides;
- precipitation of fluoride and cleaning the water of particles in a sand filter.

The emissions to water from the recovery of ferro-alloys from steel mill residues using the plasma dust process with a wet scrubber followed by a wet ESP as the abatement technique are presented in Table 8.23.

Table 8.23: Emissions to water from the recovery of ferro-alloys from steel mill residues using the plasma dust process with a wet scrubber followed by a wet ESP as the abatement technique

Component	mg/l	kg/year
As	NA	0.05
Cr	0.3	0.56
Ni	0.1	0.66
Zn	0.5	2.7
Cu	0.2	0.55
Cd	NA	0.04
Pb	NA	0.04
Hg	NA	0.003
F	35	235
Total N	NA	347
CN	0.5	1.05
NB: 2008 total water discharge: 0.2 m ³ /t. 2008 total water treated: 11 761 m ³ . NA = Not available. <i>Source: [379, Sweden 2013]</i>		

Data reported for an example of a waste water treatment plant for a molybdenite roaster and ferro-molybdenum plant are presented in Table 8.24.

Table 8.24: Emissions to water from roasting molybdenite and ferro-molybdenum in one plant

SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/l)	HF (mg/l)	Mo (mg/l)	Pb (mg/l)	Cu (mg/l)	Zn (mg/l)	As (mg/l)	Se (mg/l)
10–680	1.1–1.3	0.015–1.7	0.008	0.016–0.028	0.035–0.088	0.017	0.018
<i>Source: [407, Euroalliances 2013]</i>							

8.2.5 Process residues

The production of ferro-alloys is related to the generation of a number of by-products, residues and wastes, which are also listed in the European Waste Catalogue. The most important process-specific residues are filter dusts, sludge from wet scrubbers, slag from the reduction process, used furnace linings and packaging material like drums or big bags. These residues are sold as by-products, recycled to the process or, in cases of wastes without economic utility, transported to a deposit or a disposal site. The amount of slag and filter dust or sludge generated per tonne of ferro-alloy produced and the possibilities for exploiting them are shown in Table 8.25 and Table 8.26.

Table 8.25: Generation, recycling, reuse and discharge of ferro-alloy slag

Ferro-alloy		Slag (t/t of alloy)	Analytical composition	Recycling, reuse and discharge
FeCr	HC FeCr	1.0–1.7	Mixture of spinel, MgO, Al ₂ O ₃ , forsterite, 2MgO, SiO ₂ and Cr ₂ O ₃ (3–15 %) Slag is chemically very stable	The low basicity of slag (0.7–1.0) ensures the formation of stable silicates, which are non-leachable. Crushed lump and granulated slag is used as building material and road construction materials. Slag can also be used as a sandblasting grit, and for the production of refractory castables
	MC FeCr	NA	NA	
	LC FeCr	1	CaO 44–45 % SiO ₂ 23–33 % MgO 9–13 % Al ₂ O ₃ 5–9 % Cr ₂ O ₃ 2.5–6.5 % FeO 0.6–1.2 %	The slag will be reused
Alloy recovery from steel mill residues		0.4–1.2	CaO 25–40 % SiO ₂ 35–50 % MgO 3–15 % Al ₂ O ₃ 1–35 % Cr ₂ O ₃ < 3 % Fe ₂ O ₃ < 2 % NiO < 0.1 %	The low basicity of slag (0.7–1.0) ensures the formation of stable silicates, which are non-leachable. The slag is used in various construction applications
Si metal FeSi		20–30 kg/t	Si/FeSi 20–30 % SiO ₂ 5–20 % SiC 20–40 % CaO 25–40 % Al ₂ O ₃ 3–35 %	The production of silicon metal and FeSi is almost a slag-free process (small amounts of quartz are transformed into slag, < 1 %). During refining of silicon metal and FeSi, some small amounts of refining slag are produced. FeSi slag can be reused (i.e. SiMn production, road construction)
CaSi		0.4–0.6	SiO ₂ 10–20 % SiC 15–25 % CaO 50–60 % Al ₂ O ₃ 5–10 % CaC ₂ 3–8 %	All the slag is recycled to the furnace
FeMn	HC FeMn	Electric arc furnace 0.8–1.7	MnO 20–50 % SiO ₂ 20–40 % Al ₂ O ₃ 5–20 % CaO 4–20 % MgO 2–15 %	Standard exhausted slag (low MnO content) is used as a construction material. Rich slag (high MnO content) is sold as raw material for the production of silico-manganese or other metallurgical applications
	MC FeMn	0.9–1.9	Decarburisation process: same as HC FeMn. Silicothermic process: NA	
	LC FeMn	0.9–1.9	Decarburisation process: same as HC FeMn. Silicothermic process: NA	
SiMn		0.9–2.2	MnO 2–17 % SiO ₂ 30–50 % CaO 15–30 % Al ₂ O ₃ 9–30 % MgO 3–15 % K ₂ O 0–2 % BaO 0–2 % S 0–1.5 % Fe < 1 %	Slag is used as a construction material

Ferro-alloy	Slag (t/t of alloy)	Analytical composition	Recycling, reuse and discharge
FeNi	20 (~ 20 % Ni)	MnO 0.3–0.4 % SiO ₂ 35–45 % CaO 3–6 % Al ₂ O ₃ 6–10 % MgO 3–8 % FeO ~ 1–3 % Cr ₂ O ₃ 2–4 % Fe ₂ O ₃ 33–35 %	Slag is sold as secondary raw material to the process industry, e.g. for the production of refractories and geopolymers, as sandblast material, as an additive in the cement industry
FeV	2.6–3	NA	Depending on the composition, the slag is sold for further processing or deposited in a landfill
FeMo	1.5–3	NA	Slag can be used as a construction material
FeW, FeTi, FeB	NA	NA	
FeNb	1.9	NA	
<i>Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008], [406, Greece 2013], [407, Euroalliages 2013]</i>			

Table 8.26: Generation, recycling, reuse and discharge of dust and sludge from the air emissions abatement system

Ferro-alloy		Dust or sludge (kg/t of alloy)	Recycling, reuse and discharge
FeCr	HC FeCr	20–80 ⁽¹⁾	Dust from the furnace will be landfilled. Dust from crushing and screening is remelted in the furnace or is used in stainless steel production. Dust from the raw material transport systems, coke drying, agglomeration and dosing station can be recycled back to the processes. Sludge from the wet scrubber may contain PAH and metals and will in that case need to be discharged to a hazardous waste landfill. About 8–10 kg/t of coarser dust with a high chromium content that is collected in a waste heat boiler after a semi-closed furnace can easily be recirculated to the furnace after agglomeration. Dry dust from FeCr open furnaces often contains Cr(VI) and cannot be landfilled
	MC FeCr	NA	
	LC FeCr	70	Dust is recycled back to the smelting furnace
Alloy recovery from steel mill residues		100–500	Furnace dust is high in ZnO (20–60 %) and PbO (2–6 %). It is pelletised and recycled by the zinc industry (in the IFS or using the Waelz process as an intermediate concentration step). Sludge from the wet scrubber is recycled in the Waelz process to recover Zn and Pb
FeSi		200–300	Silica fume (micro-silica) is collected in the fabric filter and sold as a by-product. Micro-silica is used as a cement additive, which increases the strength of the concrete and leads to a very smooth surface that protects the concrete from water infiltration
Si metal		300–400	
FeMn	HC FeMn	30–50	Dust and sludge are recycled, used in other industries or discharged to a landfill. Sludge from the wet scrubber will contain PAH and metals and need to be treated in a waste water system or discharged in a hazardous waste landfill
	MC FeMn	30–50	Dust and sludge are recycled, used in other industries or discharged to a landfill
	LC FeMn	EAF 30–50	Dust and sludge are recycled, used in other industries or discharged to a landfill
SiMn		30–60	Dust and sludge are recycled, used in other industries or discharged to a landfill. Sludge from wet scrubbers will contain PAH and metals and should be disposed of in a hazardous waste landfill
FeNi		NA	Dust and sludge are pelletised and recycled in the production process (rotary kilns)
FeV		NA	Dust is recycled to the smelting process or partly discharged to a landfill
Molybdenite roasting		NA	Off-gas leaving the roaster contains a quantity of dust equivalent to up to 15 % of the concentrate feed. Most of the dust and sludge from the off-gas cleaning is recycled to the concentrate feed
FeMo		NA	Dust is recycled to the smelting process or sent to special waste disposal or processed to recover Mo
FeW, FeTi, FeB, FeNb		NA	Dust from the furnace is discharged to a landfill except for some FeNb
⁽¹⁾ The composition of the dust or sludge varies depending on the smelting furnace and the raw materials used. Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008], [406, Greece 2013]			

8.2.6 Energy recovery

The production of ferro-alloys is a highly energy-consuming process because high temperatures are needed for the reduction of metal oxides and smelting. Factors affecting the energy consumption are, among other things, the quality of raw materials (such as ores, quartz and reducing agents) and their pretreatment before smelting, the utilisation of reaction energies, and the heat content of the processes. The energy used in the process can be supplied as electrical energy or fossil fuel in the form of coal, coke, charcoal or sometimes natural gas.

The electrical energy used is necessary for the chemical reduction process in the furnace. In a semi-closed furnace, the heat in the off-gases can be recovered in a waste heat boiler. In a closed furnace, the off-gases contain CO, CH₄ and H₂, which can be used for energy production.

In a sealed furnace, if carbon is used as a reducing agent, the process gases produced in the smelting process contain significant concentrations of CO which can be used as a secondary fuel and transferred by pipe within the plant like any other fuel gas. It can be used by direct burning for instance in the sinter furnace and for drying or preheating the furnace charge, as well as for energy recovery in the form of hot water, steam and/or electricity.

Recovery of energy from ferro-alloy smelting furnaces is site-specific as it relies on the technical and economic feasibility. There are several examples of successful energy recovery.

Figure 8.20 below shows the energy flow in a 10 MW_e submerged electric arc furnace for the production of silicon metal.

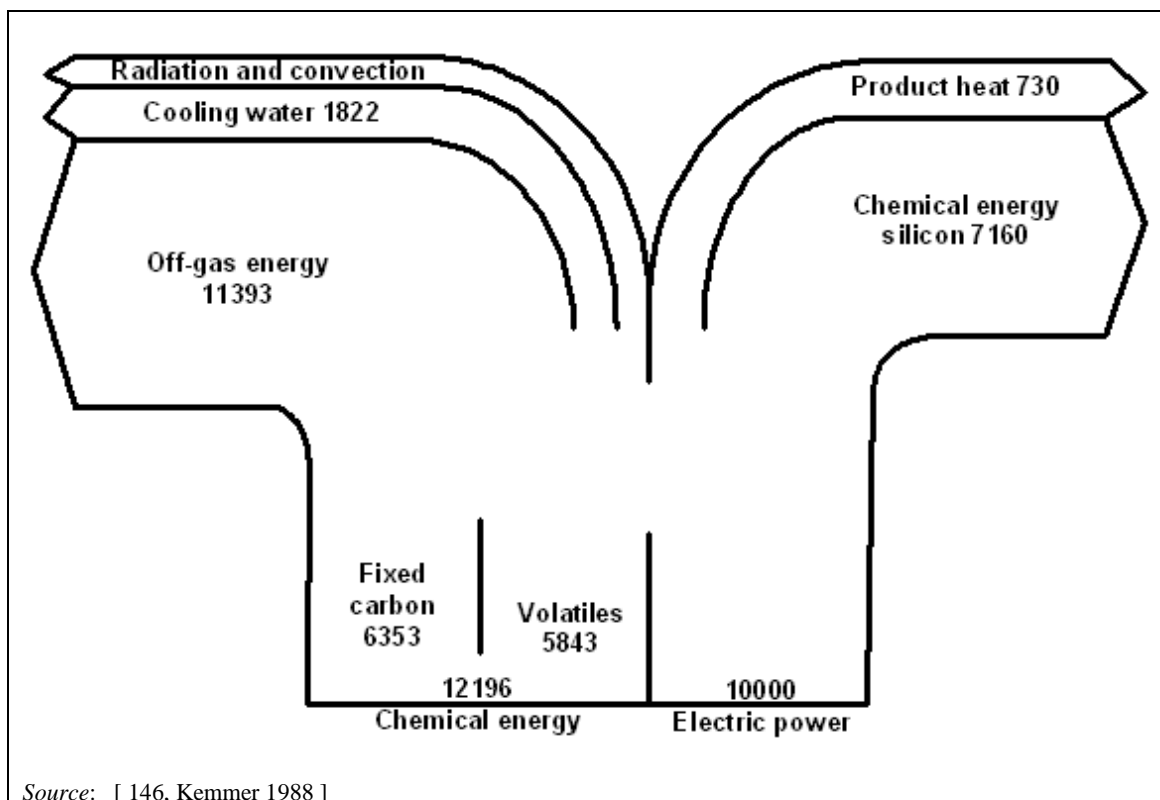


Figure 8.20: Energy flowsheet (in MW_{th}) in a 10 MW_e silicon furnace

Figure 8.20 shows that there is a large amount of waste energy from the silicon and ferro-silicon processes. For instance, in the production of ferro-silicon and silicon metal, only about 32 % of the energy consumed is retained as chemical energy in the product. This means that about 68 % of the energy is lost as waste heat in the furnace off-gas and cooling water system. The figure

also shows that volatiles from the reduction materials contribute significantly to the energy input. The viability of energy recovery is a site-specific issue depending on potential savings and the use of the energy.

There are some direct plant improvements that can be made to reduce energy consumption, such as running the process with a high metal yield or improving the furnace design to achieve lower energy loss. A high amount of metal oxides would imply a lower content of gangue materials and less slag generation, thus reducing the proportion of electrical power necessary to melt the slag. Nevertheless, the quality of raw materials and their metal oxide content are limited by the necessary minimum proportion of slag to metal required to achieve the adequate operating conditions of the furnace in the production of ferro-alloys.

In the case of silico-manganese production, the introduction of metallic silicon can decrease the energy consumed [243, France 2008].

In a plant in Austria producing ferro-vanadium, the electricity consumption of the electric arc furnace is reduced by higher reaction enthalpy during the reaction of V_2O_5 and aluminium if a higher quantity of V_2O_5 is available. In return, the higher oxygen content of the raw material must be reduced by including a higher quantity of aluminium. The specific electricity consumption has been gradually reduced from an yearly average of 3.1 kWh/kg of vanadium to < 1.0 kWh/kg of vanadium. This energy reduction has been mainly achieved by improving the operating mode.

In addition to the direct plant improvements, about 15–20 % of the electrical energy consumed by the electric arc furnace can be recovered as electricity by an energy recovery system. This percentage is considerably higher for a system that produces electricity and uses the thermal energy of the furnace cooling and the off-gas. This will also be the case if the CO gas is utilised directly as a secondary fuel in order to replace fossil fuels.

The best way to recover energy is to produce heat energy. The temperature from the furnace is determined by the total off-gas from the furnace and may vary from 200 °C to 900 °C. Due to the lack of a (economically) feasible usage for heat energy, some installations recover energy as electrical energy. This gives a lower energy recovery rate.

Often energy recovery efficiency is defined as the amount of energy recovered in relation to the electrical energy input to the furnace, as shown in Table 8.27.

Table 8.27: Energy recovery efficiency for silicon and ferro-silicon furnaces

Applicability	Electric power recovery (%) ⁽¹⁾	Heat energy recovery (%) ⁽¹⁾ (hot water or steam)
Existing plants	22	70
Optimised new plants	30–35	70–100

⁽¹⁾ Recovery is related to the electrical energy input to the reduction furnace. The heat energy in the off-gas may be in the order of 20 % higher than the electrical energy.
Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

If a semi-closed submerged electric arc furnace is used for the production of FeCr, FeSi, silicon metal, SiMn or FeMn, the CO gas from the smelting process burns in air, thus creating a hot off-gas. Therefore, the semi-closed furnaces are sometimes equipped with a waste heat boiler as an integrated energy recovery system. The waste heat boiler generates superheated steam that can be sold to neighbouring mills or used for electricity production in a back-pressure turbine.

During the production of FeCr, FeMn or SiMn in a closed electric arc furnace, the off-gas contains a very high percentage of CO, which is collected without being burnt above the charge surface. This CO is a high-quality fuel that can be favourably used for electricity production or

supplied to a neighbouring industrial plant as a secondary fuel or as a synthesis gas that serves as a raw material in chemical processes. A typical CO-rich gas formed in a closed furnace producing HC FeCr contains 75–90 % CO, 2–15 % H₂, 2–10 % CO₂, 2–5 % N₂ and < 5 % H₂O.

Table 8.28 and Table 8.29 give an overview of the different possibilities for energy recovery and the use of the recovered energy.

Table 8.28: Overview of energy recovery in the Norwegian ferro-alloys industry

Ferro-alloy	Number of plants	Electrical energy used (GWh/yr)	Possible recovery (GWh/yr)			Actual recovery (GWh/yr)		
			Electrical energy	Thermal energy	Total	Electrical energy	Thermal energy	Total
FeSi	9	4940	856	1024	1880	115	183	298
Si metal	3	1250	163	215	378		1	1
FeMn SiMn	4 ⁽¹⁾	2290	100	790	890	90	386	476
Total	16	8480	1119	2029	3148	205	570	595 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Gas is partly used as fuel or synthetic gas.
⁽²⁾ Of the 16 reported ferro-alloy plants in 1989, energy was recovered by 8 plants.
 NB: Energy recovery data of 16 Norwegian ferro-alloy plants.
 Source [148, Kolbeinsen, L. et al. 1995], [226, Nordic Report 2008]

Table 8.29: Energy reuse when producing bulk ferro-alloys

Ferro-alloy	HC FeCr		HC FeMn		SiMn		FeSi	Si metal
	Semi-closed EAF	Closed EAF	Semi-closed EAF	Closed EAF	Semi-closed EAF	Closed EAF	Semi-closed EAF	Semi-closed EAF
Drying		X	X	X	X	X		
Ladle heating		X		X		X		
Sintering		X		X		X		
Preheating		X		X		X		
Hot water	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Steam	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Electricity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Neighbouring mills	X	X				X	X	X

NB: Energy recovery is not always used because local conditions, for instance local energy prices, production periods and the absence of possible customers, should be taken into account.
 Source [148, Kolbeinsen, L. et al. 1995]

8.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Tabelle 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

8.3.1 Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung

8.3.1.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Primärrohstoffen

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen zur Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [[290, COM 2006](#)].

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Ausgangsstoffe für die Herstellung von Ferrolegierungen sind im Wesentlichen Erze, Quarz, Konzentrate, Reduktionsmittel (Koks, Kohle, Holzspäne oder sonstige Kohlenstoffträger), Elektroden oder eine andere Energiequelle, wie z.B. Plasma, Brennstoffe (gasförmig, fest, flüssig), und Zuschläge. Wesentliche mit der Lagerung und dem Umschlag dieser Materialien verbundene Umwelteinwirkungen sind diffuse Staubemissionen sowie Oberflächengewässer- und Bodenverschmutzung infolge von atmosphärischem Staubeintrag durch Regen.

Der Transport feiner, staubender Materialien erfolgt mittels Förderanlagen. Je nach Gefährlichkeitseinstufung und potenziellen Umwelteinwirkungen der geförderten Materialien können an Materialübergabestellen Wassersprühsysteme zur Staubbindung oder gekapselte Fördersysteme und Materialübergabestellen mit Absaugung der Materialabwurfstellen und Entstaubung der erfassten Abluft eingesetzt werden. Im letzteren Fall wird die staubbeladene Abluft aus den Silos, gekapselten Förder- und Beschickungssystemen in Gewebefiltern entstaubt, die mit einer Differenzdrucküberwachung zur automatischen Einleitung der Filterabreinigung ausgestattet werden können.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Staubemissionswerte für den Prozessschritt Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung sind in Tabelle 8.30 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 8.30: Staubemissionswerte für den Prozessschritt Rohstoffanlieferung, -umschlag und -lagerung

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anzahl Messungen pro Jahr)	
Y	SiMn	Staub	Gewebe-filter	3,6	15,6	Unzul. Werte (> EGW)	diskontinuierlich	12	
X	FeMo			0,4	17,7	NR	diskontinuierlich	2	
AC	FeV + FeMo			n.v.	2,00	n.v.	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (4 Öfen)	n.v.
					1,13				
					1,01				
					1,74				
O	FeMn	3	4,6	5,6	diskontinuierlich	alle 5 Jahre (3 Proben)			
O	SiMn	0,4	0,65	0,8	diskontinuierlich	alle 5 Jahre			

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012.]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik ist für die meisten Anlagen geeignet.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vermeidung schädlicher Umwelteinwirkungen
- Verringerung indirekter Energieverluste

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in NO, AT, BE und ES

Literatur

[290, COM 2006].

8.3.2 Materialvorbereitung**8.3.2.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Brechen und Mahlen der Einsatzmaterialien****Beschreibung**

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

In einigen Hütten werden Brecher und Siebe zur Herstellung der gewünschten Körnung der Beschickung eingesetzt. Beim Brechen von feuchtem Einsatzmaterial entstehen aufgrund des schwereren Staubs nur geringe diffuse Staubemissionen. Sofern keine Staubeentwicklung zu erwarten ist, kann das Brechen und Sieben feuchter Einsatzmaterialien im Freien erfolgen. Zur Vermeidung von Schallemissionen und Erschütterungen sind die Brechanlagen lärm- und erschütterungsarm ausgeführt. Soweit erforderlich können die Brecher und Agglomerationseinrichtungen über Gewebefilter abgesaugt werden. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird dem Beschickungssystem zugeführt, evtl. nach vorheriger Agglomeration (nicht notwendig, wenn die Brech- und Siebanlagen in geschlossenen Räumen aufgestellt sind).

Bei Einsatz mobiler Einrichtungen zur Zerkleinerung von trockenem, staubendem Material oder von nassen Schlacken können Wassersprühsysteme zur Minderung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt werden. In diesen Fällen wird das Wasser recycelt.

Hochwertige Erze, insbesondere zur Erzeugung von Ferrochrom, sind häufig nicht in stückiger Form verfügbar. Es ist deshalb weltweit gängige Praxis, niedrig konzentrierte Erze durch Nassmahlung oder Schwerkraftaufbereitung (Schwertrübescheider, Setzmaschinen, Wendelscheider, Schüttelherde usw.) anzureichern, wobei taubes Gestein entfernt und z.B. der Cr₂O₃-Gehalt erhöht wird. Mit den meisten dieser Verfahren erhält man ein feinkörniges, hochangereichertes Produkt, das durch Filtration entwässert und anschließend vor dem Schmelzen durch z.B. Brikettieren, Sintern oder Pelletieren/Sintern agglomeriert werden muss. Auch stückige Einsatzstoffe, wie z.B. Quarz, werden ggf. einer Wäsche mit Wasser unterzogen, um Feinanteile, die einen höheren Verunreinigungsgrad aufweisen, zu entfernen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Staubemissionswerte für den Prozessschritt Brechen und Mahlen im Rahmen der Materialvorbereitung sind in Tabelle 8.31 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 8.31: Staubemissionswerte von Brech- und Mahlanlagen in der Materialvorbereitung

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
S	Si	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	0,53	n.v.	diskonti- nuierlich	1 (12 Proben, Probenahme- dauer je 2 h)
I	LC SiMn + HC SiMn			7,8	8,3	8,8	diskonti- nuierlich	4
T	Si			1,6	1,6	1,7	diskonti- nuierlich	1 (3 Proben)
DE 1	FeCr			0,2	n.v.	0,3	diskonti- nuierlich	halbstündlich

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in NO, FR und ES

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.2.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Dosieren, Mischen und der Mischungszusammenstellung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Wassersprühsysteme
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Vor Sinterung wird die Sintermischung durch lagenweises Aufbringen der einzelnen Mischungskomponenten auf Förderbänder hergestellt. Zur Erzielung eines besseren Mischeffekts können auch geschlossene Trommelmischer eingesetzt werden. Der Transport staubender, feinkörniger Materialien erfolgt über gekapselte Fördereinrichtungen und Materialübergabestellen. Staubtrüchtige Materialabwurfstellen werden über ein Filter abgesaugt. Die aus den gekapselten Förder- und Beschickungssystemen abgesaugte, staubbeladene Abluft wird in Gewebefiltern entstaubt, die zur automatischen Filterabreinigung mit einer Differenzdrucküberwachung ausgestattet werden können.

Bei Förderung staubender Materialien können an den Bandübergabestellen Bedüsung- oder Benebelungssysteme eingesetzt werden. So können z.B. in den Dosier- und Mischanlagen oberhalb der Abzugsbänder zwischen Rohstoffsilos und Bandwaagen Sprühdüsen zur leichten Befeuchtung des Materials angeordnet werden. Die feinen Wassertröpfchen binden die suspendierten Staubpartikel und bewirken deren Agglomeration zu schwereren und größeren Partikeln, die auf das Materialbett auf dem Förderband oder auf den Boden absinken. Zur wirksamen Staubbindung müssen die Wassertröpfchen möglichst klein sein. Eine weitere Voraussetzung sind gute Betriebs- und Wartungspraktiken.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Staubemissionswerte für die Prozessschritte Dosieren, Mischen und Mischungszusammenstellung sind in

Tabelle 8.32 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 8.32: Staubemissionswerte für die Prozessschritte Dosieren, Mischen und Mischungszusammenstellung

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- erfassung
Y	SiMn	Staub	Gewebefilter	3,0	4,8	7,7	kontinuierlich
AC	FeV + FeMo	Staub	Gewebefilter	n.v.	1,01 1,74	n.v.	diskontinuierlich
Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Norwegen und Österreich

Literatur

[369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.3.2.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Brikettierung, Pelletierung und Sinterung der Einsatzmaterialien

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1) und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) mit oder ohne Dosierung von Spezialtonen
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)

Technische Beschreibung

Ein Großteil der Erze und Konzentrate ist nur in Form von Feinstoffen verfügbar. Um diese Feinstoffe zu nutzen, setzen einige Hütten Sinterpellets für den Schmelzprozess ein, insbesondere bei der Herstellung von hochgekohltem FeCr, hochgekohltem FeMn und SiMn. Der wichtigste Grund für das Sintern von feinen Einsatzstoffen ist die Erhöhung der Porosität des Einsatzguts und somit eine bessere Durchgasung der Schüttsäule und Abführung der durch die Reduktionsreaktionen erzeugten Gase. Das Sintern kann in Rostsinteranlagen (Mangansinter zur Herstellung von hochgekohltem FeMn oder SiMn) oder Stahlbandsinteranlagen (Chromit-Sinterpellets zur Herstellung von FeCr) erfolgen, wobei das Stahlbandsinterverfahren wirtschaftliche und ökologische Vorteile bietet.

Bei Kaltverfahren treten in erster Linie Staubemissionen auf. Emissionen gasförmiger Luftschadstoffe (SO₂, usw.) sind nur bei der Heißbrikkettierung und Sinterung relevant.

Bei Rostsinteranlagen kann die Abgasentstaubung in Elektrofiltern oder Gewebefiltern durchgeführt werden. Ergänzend können Zyklone oder Gewebefilter zur Sinteranlagen- und Sinterkühlerentstaubung vorgesehen werden.

Es ist zu beachten, dass einige Erze, wie z.B. Manganerze, erhöhte Quecksilbergehalte aufweisen können. Bei heißen Agglomerationsverfahren tritt das leichtflüchtige Quecksilber in die Gasphase über und muss durch geeignete Quecksilberminderungstechniken abgeschieden werden. Durch direktes Einblasen spezieller Tone in den Abgasstrom können Quecksilber und sonstige Luftschadstoffe, wie SO_x oder Dioxine, chemisorptiv im Gewebefilter gebunden werden.

Das Stahlbandsinterverfahren wird nur in einer einzigen Anlage in der EU-28 eingesetzt. Dort erfolgt die Sinterbandentstaubung mittels Nasswäschern. Weltweit wird das Stahlbandsinterverfahren in ca. 15 Anlagen eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

EGR und Gewebefilter mit oder ohne Zugabe von Spezialtonen als Sorbens

Tabelle 8.33: Emissionswerte von Brikettier-, Pelletier- und Sinteranlagen

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
Z	HC FeMn	Staub	EGR + chemisch aktiviertes Gewebefilter	2,1	2,8	3,9	kontinuierlich	halb- stündlich
		Hg		0,00	0,02	0,08	diskontinuierlich	39
		Pb		0,01	0,04	0,11		
		As		0,00	0,003	0,017		
		Cd		0,00	0,003	0,014		
		Zn		0,02	1,29	1,80		
		Mn		0,02	0,51	1,35	diskontinuierlich	36
		SO ₂		19	87	129	diskontinuierlich	12
		NO _x		158	261	333	diskontinuierlich	21
PCDD/F	0,01 ng/Nm ³	0,07 ng/Nm ³	0,16 ng/Nm ³	diskontinuierlich	15			
Y	SiMn	Staub	k.A.	0,04	1,3	4,5	kontinuierlich	
DE 1	FeCr	Staub	Gewebefilter	1,8	NR	2,8	diskontinuierlich	halb- stündlich

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012] [385, Germany 2012]

Nasswäscher

Für Nasswäscher in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe wurden Emissionswerte von < 10 mg/Nm³, angegeben als Tagesmittelwert, berichtet.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Für einige Prozesse werden in kalten Klimazonen wegen der harten Winter (Temperaturen von -10 °C bis -45 °C über längere Zeiträume) und des Feuchtegehalts der Prozessabgase diverse

Nasswäschertypen eingesetzt. Unter diesen Bedingungen sind Gewebefilter ungeeignet, da der Feuchtigkeitsgehalt des Prozessgases in Verbindung mit der niedrigen Gastemperatur zum Einfrieren und zur Verstopfung des Filters führen würden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für ein Gewebefilter (< 100 000 m³/h) liegen bei etwa EUR 3 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung der Emissionen
- Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs

Beispielanlagen

- Gewebefilter: Anlagen in Frankreich und Norwegen (Rostsinterung)
- Nasswäscher: Anlage in Finnland (Stahlbandsinterverfahren)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.2.4 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Trocknung von Erzen und sonstigen Einsatzmaterialien

Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Trocknung sulfidischer Erze sind bei der Ferronickelherstellung von Bedeutung und werden im Unterkapitel "Nickelerzeugung" behandelt.

In einer Anlage außerhalb Europas, in der lateritische Erze verhüttet werden, wird ein Elektrofilter als alleinige Technik zur Minderung von Staubemissionen aus der Erztrocknung eingesetzt. Da das Elektrofilter erst vor kurzem in Betrieb genommen wurde, beziehen sich die berichteten Emissionswerte auf nur einen Monat. Die Staubemissionswerte liegen im Bereich von 24 mg/Nm³–58 mg/Nm³ mit einem Mittelwert von 36 mg/Nm³.

Zum Erschmelzen von Ferrolegierungen aus Stahlwerksrückständen im Elektroreduktionsofen kommen überwiegend trockene EAF-Stäube zum Einsatz. Diese werden im Allgemeinen im Gemisch mit anderen Einsatzstoffen eingesetzt, so dass eine Trocknung nur notwendig ist, wenn der Feuchtigkeitsgehalt der Mischung über dem notwendigen Niveau für die Kaltbrikettierung liegt. Bei der Kaltbrikettierung wird grundsätzlich Feuchtigkeit benötigt. Demgegenüber ist eine Trocknung beim Plasmaprozess zwingend.

8.3.2.5 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Kokstrocknung

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

In einer Ferrochromhütte erfolgt die Kokstrocknung in einem Schachtofen, der mit CO-reichem Abgas aus dem Schmelzprozess befeuert wird. Zur Abgasreinigung eignen sich Gewebefilter oder auch Nasswäscher [138, Niemelä, P. 1999].

Der im Schmelzprozess eingesetzte Koks kann im Fall von nassgelöschtem Koks Feuchtigkeitsgehalte von bis zu 10–20 % aufweisen. Hohe Feuchtigkeitsgehalte der Einsatzstoffe wirken sich i.d.R. nachteilig auf den Schmelzprozess aus und haben einen höheren Strom- und Koksverbrauch zur Folge. Dies gilt insbesondere für geschlossene Öfen. Die Kokstrocknung ermöglicht die Einstellung eines optimalen Kohlenstoffgehalts der Ofencharge.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung von Staub und Abrieb
- Durch den Einsatz von CO-reichem Gas als Brennstoff reduziert sich der Gesamtenergieverbrauch des Prozesses. Das im Trocknungsprozess eingesetzte CO-Gas hat einen Energiegehalt von 550–700 MJ.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Kokstaubemissionen in die Luft liegen bei ca. 35–45 g/t Koks. Bei den im Koksbett vorherrschenden Temperaturen kommt es nicht zur Bildung von SO₂. Die CO₂-Emissionen liegen bei 45–70 kg/t FeCr, die NO₂-Emissionen bei 20 g/t Koks.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

Diese Technik kann in allen neuen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden, in denen nassgelöschter Koks eingesetzt wird, sofern CO-reiches Abgas aus den Schmelzöfen zur Kokstrocknung zur Verfügung steht.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs
- Verringerung der Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Finnland

Literatur

[138, Niemelä, P. 1999].

8.3.2.6 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der thermischen Vorbehandlung von Walzzunder oder Metallspänen

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommen Nachverbrennungskammern (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.5) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Die Entfettung von Titanspänen im Drehrohrofen ist in Abschnitt 8.1.8 im Zusammenhang mit der Ferrotitanerzeugung beschrieben.

Die maximale Abgastemperatur am Filtereintritt beträgt 350 °C. Die Filteranlage ist für einen Abgasvolumenstrom von ca. 7000 Nm³/h ausgelegt und mit 576 Keramikfilterelementen bestückt. Zum Einsatz kommen röhrenförmige Filterelemente aus Calcium- oder Aluminosilikat. Die Filterabreinigung erfolgt vollautomatisch durch Druckluftstöße, die die Filterelemente entgegen der Strömungsrichtung des Abgases durchlaufen. Die Reingasemissionen werden kontinuierlich überwacht. Jede Überschreitung eines voreingestellten Grenzwerts löst einen Alarm aus.

Anders als in den meisten Anwendungen in der Metallindustrie, wo Gewebefilter zur Minderung von Staubemissionen eingesetzt werden, kommen bei der thermischen Spänebehandlung aufgrund der hohen Abgastemperaturen Keramikfilter zur Anwendung. Mit Keramikfiltern werden gute Abscheideleistungen bei minimalen Umweltauswirkungen erzielt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und VOC-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In der Anlage werden folgende Betriebsstoffe eingesetzt:

- Gas: Der Gasverbrauch ist je nach Dichte des verarbeiteten Materials, Menge an Ölanhaftungen und Feuchtigkeitsgehalt sehr unterschiedlich. Der durchschnittliche Verbrauch liegt i.d.R. bei 374 m³/t verarbeitete Späne.
- Strom: Der berechnete typische Stromverbrauch liegt bei 180 kWh/t verarbeitete Späne.
- Wasser: nicht zutreffend

Die VOC-Emissionswerte nach der Nachverbrennungskammer liegen unter 20 mg/Nm³, die Staubemissionswerte nach dem Keramikfilter unter 5 mg/Nm³.

Die Anlage arbeitet abwasserfrei. Abgeschiedene Filterstäube werden auf einer zugelassenen Deponie entsorgt. Die anfallende Staubmenge hängt von der Menge und Qualität der behandelten Späne ab.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebenen Techniken können in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Der Trommeltrockner und die Nachverbrennungskammer wurden 1993 installiert. Die Investitionskosten in 1998 betragen EUR 0,607 Millionen. Die Kosten für den 1998 installierten Zyklonabscheider, Abgaskanal und (Keramik)filter lagen bei EUR 0,410 Millionen. Die geschätzten Kosten für das Gesamtprojekt (Basis 1998) lagen bei EUR 1,017 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung der Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in UK

Literatur

[159, Coulton, G. 1999]

8.3.2.7 Erzvorwärmung und -vorreduktion zur Reduzierung des Energieaufwands

Beschreibung

Die Vorwärmung und Vorreduktion von Chromit-, Laterit- oder Manganerzen unter Einsatz von Abgas aus dem Schmelzofen vermindert den spezifischen elektrischen Energieverbrauch des Schmelzprozesses bei gleichzeitiger Steigerung der Produktivität des Schmelzaggregats.

Technische Beschreibung

Im Fall von Manganerzen findet die Vorreduktion von höheren Manganoxiden bei Einsatz von Stückerz direkt in der oberen Ofenzone oder, im Fall von Feinerz, im Zuge der Sinterung in der Sinteranlage statt. Zur Vorreduktion von Manganerzen eignen sich auch andere Ofentechnologien (Drehrohrofen, Schachtofen, usw.), die derzeit jedoch (wenn überhaupt) nur vereinzelt eingesetzt werden.

Bei Vorliegen von Quecksilber in den Einsatzstoffen (z.B. bei einigen Manganerzen) tritt das leichtflüchtige Quecksilber während des Reduktionsprozesses in die Gasphase über, so dass Maßnahmen zur Minderung von Quecksilberemissionen getroffen werden müssen.

In einer japanischen Ferrochrom-Anlage werden Chromitfeinerze zusammen mit Koks als Reduktionsmittel pelletiert und in einem Drehrohrofen gebrannt. Die Befeuerung des Drehrohrs erfolgt über einen Kohlestaub-/CO-/Ölbrenner. Die Abwärme des Drehrohrs wird in einem Abhitzeessel zur Dampferzeugung genutzt. Die Abgasentstaubung erfolgt in einem Gewebefilter. Zur Vermeidung einer Reoxidation werden die vorreduzierten Pellets in einem vollständig abgedichteten Aufgabebunker gelagert. Das vorreduzierte, noch heiße Material wird dann in den Schmelz-Reduktionsofen chargiert. Auf diese Weise wird gleichzeitig eine Vorwärmung und Vorreduktion der Charge erreicht.

Bei der Ferronickelerzeugung wird die Einsatzmischung (Lateriterze, recycelter Staub und Schlamm in Form von Pellets, Kohle und Koks) vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen in einem Drehrohrofen vorgewärmt und vorreduziert. Die Vorteile dieser Technik liegen in einem geringeren elektrischen Energieverbrauch und einer höheren Produktivität des Schmelzofens.

Beim Outokumpu-Verfahren erfolgt die Vorwärmung der Charge mittels CO-Gas aus dem Schmelzprozess. Durch die Chargenvorwärmung konnte der Stromverbrauch des anschließenden Schmelzprozesses um 250–330 MJ pro 100 °C Temperaturerhöhung und Tonne Ferrochrom gesenkt werden. Bei Vorwärmung der Charge auf 700 °C wird die Feuchtigkeit und ein Großteil der flüchtigen Verbindungen vor Aufgabe des Materials in den Elektroofen ausgetrieben. Auf diese Weise wird eine stabile Bildung von Reduktionsgasen im Elektroreduktionsofen erreicht.

Der Vorwärmofen ist geschlossen ausgeführt. Um Falschlufteintritt in den Ofen oder eine Freisetzung von Gasen in die Umgebung zu vermeiden, wird der Druck über der Materialsäule im Schachtofen auf Null gehalten. Zur Minimierung von Kohlenstoffverlusten wird die Temperatur begrenzt (800°C) und ein sehr niedriger Sauerstoffgehalt in der Ofenatmosphäre eingestellt. Das Ofenabgas wird in einem Venturiwäscher gereinigt.

Neben Energieeinsparungen wird mit dieser Technik auch eine homogenere Zusammensetzung der Ofencharge erreicht und damit der Ablauf der chemischen Reaktionen im geschlossenen Schmelzofen unterstützt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des elektrischen Energieverbrauchs des anschließenden Schmelzprozesses. Bei der Erzeugung von hochgekohtem FeCr oder hochgekohtem FeMn in geschlossenen Öfen liegt der Koksverbrauch bei 420–520 kg/t. Durch Vorreduktion des Erzes mit Hilfe von Kohle oder sonstiger kohlenstoffhaltiger Materialien als Energieträger und Reduktionsmittel lassen sich sowohl der Koks- als auch der Stromverbrauch des Schmelzofens reduzieren.
- Durch Vorwärmung der Charge auf 700 °C können die Feuchtigkeit und der Großteil der flüchtigen Verbindungen vor Aufgabe des Materials in den Elektroofen ausgetrieben werden. Auf diese Weise wird eine stabile Bildung von Reduktionsgasen im Elektroofen erreicht.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Pro 100 °C Temperaturerhöhung der Charge reduziert sich der elektrische Energieverbrauch des nachgeschalteten Schmelzofens um 70–90 kWh.

In Schachtofen, in denen ein Gemisch aus Pellets und Stückerz auf eine Temperatur von 700 °C vorgewärmt wird, fallen 500–600 Nm³ Abgas pro Tonne FeCr an mit einer CO₂-Fracht von 300–400 kg/FeCr und einer Staubfracht von 1–5 g/t FeCr. Das Ofenabgas wird abgesaugt und einer Minderungseinrichtung zugeführt. In Anbetracht der hohen Gastemperaturen erfolgt die Abgasreinigung in einem Nasswäscher. Der bei der Nassgasreinigung anfallende inerte Schlamm kann in bestimmten Anwendungen als Baustoff genutzt oder deponiert werden.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Bei Einsatz von Drehrohröfen zur Vorreduktion erhöhen sich der Gesamtverbrauch an Kohlenstoffträgern und der Gesamtenergieverbrauch des Prozesses [149, Schei, A, et al.1998].

Bei Vorwärmöfen nach dem Schachtofenprinzip entstehen keine erhöhten Verbräuche.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die Vorwärmung und Vorreduktion können in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden.

Die Verwendung von CO-Gas als Sekundärbrennstoff ist nur in Anlagen mit geschlossenen Schmelzöfen möglich.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs (Durch die Vorwärmung der Charge reduziert sich der elektrische Energieverbrauch des anschließenden Ferrochrom-Schmelzprozesses.)

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Frankreich und Finnland

Literatur

[111, Shunan Denko, Japan 1998], [140, Ferro-Alloy Expert Group 1998],
[243, France 2008]

8.3.3 Erschmelzen von Ferrolegierungen

8.3.3.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Schmelzöfen

Der wichtigste Prozessschritt bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen ist die Reduktion der Metalloxide und Legierung mit dem im Prozess vorhandenen Eisen. Je nach eingesetztem Reduktionsmittel kommen unterschiedliche Schmelzaggregate (wie z.B. der Elektrolichtbogenofen oder ein Reaktionstiegel) zum Einsatz. Elektroreduktionsöfen werden normalerweise mit eingetauchten Elektroden betrieben und sind geschlossen, halbgeschlossen oder oben offen ausgeführt. Bestimmend für die Schmelzofenausführung sind die angestrebte Produktionsflexibilität, die Palette an verarbeiteten Einsatzstoffen, Möglichkeiten zur Energierückgewinnung bei neuen Öfen, die Ofenauslegung und die Umweltleistung. Die zur Energierückgewinnung in Betracht kommenden Techniken sind abhängig von den eingesetzten Schmelzaggregaten und den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen, wie z.B. Energiepreise, Bauzeiten und potenzielle Abnehmer.

Die in der Herstellung von Ferrolegierungen eingesetzten Ofentechnologien wurden bereits an früherer Stelle beschrieben und sind in Table 8.4 zusammen mit den jeweils hergestellten Legierungen und den Vor- und Nachteilen der einzelnen Systeme aufgeführt.

8.3.3.1.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus oben offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen

Gegenüber halbgeschlossenen oder geschlossenen Reduktionsöfen haben oben offene Öfen einen höheren Energieverbrauch bedingt durch die größeren zu reinigenden Abgasmengen und die unterschiedlichen Betriebsbedingungen (z.B. Einsatz von feinkörnigen Einsatzstoffen, Ofengang, keine Vorwärmung der Charge). Auch ist bei diesem Ofentyp die Wärmenutzung stärker eingeschränkt (nur Warmwassererzeugung) als bei halbgeschlossenen oder geschlossenen Öfen.

Offene Elektroreduktionsöfen mit drei Elektroden werden zum Erschmelzen von FeMn, SiMn, FeSi, FeNi und Siliciummetall sowie zur Rückgewinnung von Legierungen eingesetzt. Zur Erzeugung von FeV, FeB und Spezialferrolegierungen kommen offene Lichtbogenöfen mit einer Elektrode zur Anwendung. Oben offene Öfen werden auch bei der Sekundärgewinnung von Ferrolegierungen aus Stahlwerksrückständen verwendet. In einer Ferrolegierungshütte in Österreich wird ein offener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit drei Elektroden zur Herstellung von FeV₈₀ eingesetzt.

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) mit oder ohne Adsorbenszugabe in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Gewebefilter

Gewebefilter in der Ferrolegierungs- und Metallindustrie sind häufig als Überdruckfilter mit rohgasseitiger Anordnung des Gebläses ausgeführt. Darüber hinaus kommen auch geschlossene Unterdruckfilter mit Saugzuggebläse auf der Reingasseite zur Anwendung. Gegenüber Überdruckfiltern bieten geschlossene Unterdruckfilter Vorteile hinsichtlich Wärmerückgewinnung (zur Stromerzeugung) und Überwachung.

Adsorbenszugabe und Gewebefilter

Bei Vorliegen von Quecksilber in den Einsatzstoffen (z.B. bei einigen Manganerzen) tritt das flüchtige Quecksilber während des Reduktionsprozesses in die Gasphase über und muss durch geeignete Quecksilberminderungstechniken abgeschieden werden. Bei der Sekundärgewinnung von Ferrolegierungen aus Stahlwerksrückständen muss der Prozess wegen des hohen Zinkgehalts der Einsatzstoffe (bis zu 30 % ZnO) mit Luftüberschuss betrieben werden, um die Verbrennung der Zinkdämpfe im Abgas und die Rückgewinnung großer Mengen an ZnO-reichem Staub (bis zu 200 kg/t Einsatz) im nachgeschalteten Gewebefilter sicherzustellen.

Bei offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen wird zur Minderung von Dioxin- und Quecksilberemissionen Aktivkohle oder Braunkohlekoks in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gewebefilter

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Adsorbenszugabe und Gewebefilter

Minderung von Staub-, Quecksilber-, Cadmium- und Dioxinmissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 8.34: Emissionswerte von offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen (Emissionskonzentrationen)

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
T	FeSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	0,53	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A)	1 (2 Proben)
			keine		36			1 (1 Probe)
		NO _x	10					
	FeSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	NR	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B)	1 (2 Proben)
			keine		50			1 (1 Probe)
		NO _x	27					
	FeSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	NR	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen C)	1 (2 Proben)
			keine		65			1 (1 Probe)
		NO _x	55					
P	Si Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	0,6	1,6	2,6	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A, 2010, 2011 und 2012)	2
				2,7	5,5	8,2		
				1,5	4,5	7,4		
				2,2	2,2	2,2	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B, 2012; in 2010 und 2011 wurden die Öfen A und B über ein gemeinsames Gewebe- filter entstaubt)	
				2,7	5,5	8,2		
				1,5	4,5	7,4		
				1,9	2,5	3,1	diskontinuierlich (Ofen C, 2010, 2011 und 2012)	
				2,9	3,9	4,9		
				0,65	0,7	0,7		
				SO ₂	keine	34	86	
NO _x	29,4	83	131	n.v.		n.v.		
Q	Si- Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	3,9	n.v.	diskontinuierlich	2
			keine		41			
		NO _x	42					
		VOC	3,75					
R	Si- Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	5,4	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A)	3
					Partikelförmige Metalle			
		SO ₂	19					
		NO _x	18					
		VOC	3,2					
		PAK	0,00002					
		PCDD/F	0,0008 ng/Nm ³		1			
	FeSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	31,17*	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B)	3
					Partikelförmige Metalle			
		SO ₂	82					
		NO _x	28					
		VOC	8,57					
		PAK	0,0001					
	PCDD/F	0,0018 ng/Nm ³	1					
CaSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	22,0*	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen C)	3	
				Partikelförmige Metalle				0,05
	SO ₂	48,3						
	NO _x	34,3						
	VOC	8,57						

		PAK			0,00001			1		
		PCDD/F			0,0008 ng/Nm ³					
S	Si-Metall	Staub	n.v.	n.v.	0,86	2,84	8.2**	1 (12 Proben)		
		Partikelförmige Metalle			0,048	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A)			
		SO ₂			18					
		NO _x			41					
		VOC			0,98					
	PAK	KM								
	Si-Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,01	14,98**	n.v.	n.v.	1 (16 Proben)		
		Partikelförmige Metalle		0,086						
		SO ₂	keine	n.v.	9,4	n.v.	diskontinuierlich (Öfen B und C)	1 (1 Probe)		
		NO _x		28						
VOC		2,33								
PAK	KM									
U	Si-Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,7	2,0	2,8			n.v.	1 (4 Proben)
		Partikelförmige Metalle		n.v.	0,008	n.v.				
		SO ₂	keine	31	32	32	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A)	1 (2 Proben)		
		NO _x		6,3	6,4	6,3		1		
		VOC		n.v.	10	n.v.		1		
		PAK		0,0002	n.v.	1 (2 Proben)				
	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,4	4,0	11.4**	n.v.		1 (4 Proben)		
	Partikelförmige Metalle		0,008	0,17	0,328			1 (2 Proben)		
	Si-Metall	SO ₂	keine	30,3	31,2	32	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B)	1 (2 Proben)		
		NO _x		n.v.	19	n.v.		1		
		VOC		12	n.v.	1				
		PAK		0,0008	0,0008	0,0009		1 (2 Proben)		
		Si-Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,5	1,6		1,7	n.v.	1 (4 Proben)
			Partikelförmige Metalle		0,008	0,008		0,009		1 (2 Proben)
	SO ₂		keine	34,5	35,3	36	diskontinuierlich (Ofen C)	1 (2 Proben)		
	NO _x			n.v.	17,8	n.v.		1		
	VOC			5,4	n.v.	1				
	PAK	0,00009	0,0001	0,0001	1 (2 Proben)					
V	Si Metall	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	11,3	n.v.		diskontinuierlich	1	
		Partikelförmige Metalle			0,007					
		SO ₂	keine		210		n.v.			
		NO _x			34					
		VOC			8,9					
		PAK			0,045					
H	HC FeMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,53	4,141	7,96		diskontinuierlich	5	
		Cd+Hg+Tl		0,0012	0,0087	0,016				
		Pb		0,0041	0,011	0,0302				
		Mn		0,68	1,24	2,368				
		Sb+Cr+Co+ Cu+Mn+Ni+V		0,7	1,37	2,41				
		As+Te+Se	0,001	0,002	0,004					
		HCl	keine	0,09	1,8	3,7				
		HF		0,19	0,26	0,85				
		SO ₂		0,232	1,6	2,9				
		NO _x		7,14	11,34	15,4				
		VOC		0,5	1,14	4,4				
		PCDD/F	0,0031 ng/Nm ³	0,013 ng/Nm ³	0,024 ng/Nm ³					
AC	FeV + FeMo	Staub	Gewebe- filter	n.v.	1,0	n.v.	diskontinuierlich			
					0,99					
					1,07					
					1,36					
		C _{org.}	1,7		3,3					
PAK	keine	n.v.	23 µg/Nm ³	n.v.						

		PCDD/F			< 0,001 ng I-TEQ / Nm ³ :			
O	LC SiMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	0	3	n.v.	kontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	täglich
				Pb+Cd+Hg	0,004	0,005	0,007	diskontinuierlich
		keine	CO	17	70	213	kontinuierlich	täglich
			SO ₂	0	0	0	diskontinuierlich	24
			NO _x	0	7	16		
PCDD/F	0,004 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	0,007 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	n.v.	diskontinuierlich	1			
O	LC SiMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1	2,1	4,2	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	1
DE 1	FeCr	Staub	Gewebe- filter	0,1	n.v.	0,4	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2011)	halbstündlich

* Berichteter Emissionsgrenzwert: 9 mg/Nm³.
 ** Berichteter Emissionsgrenzwert: 5 mg/Nm³.
 Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar, KM = keine Messung, NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.35: Emissionswerte von offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen (Emissionsfrachten)

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (kg/t)	Mittelwert (kg/t)	Max. (kg/t)	Messwertfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
N	FeSi	Staub	Gewebefilter	0,56	0,57	0,58	berechnet	
		SO ₂	Primär- maßnahmen	4,0	6,3	8,7	diskontinuierlich	2 x (je 1 Probe)
		NO _x		4,7	5,4	6,1		2 x (je 3 Proben)
M	FeSi	Staub	Gewebefilter	0,47	0,47	0,47	berechnet	
		SO ₂	Primär- maßnahmen	4,5	5,4	6,3	diskontinuierlich	2 x (je 1 Probe)
		NO _x		2,2	3,6	3,9		2 x (je 3 Proben)

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Adsorbenszugabe und Gewebefilter

Mit dieser Technik werden Emissionswerte von < 0,2 mg/Nm³ für Quecksilber und Cadmium erreicht.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter

Gewebefilter eignen sich sowohl zur Entstaubung von offenen Elektroreduktionsöfen mit drei Elektroden als auch von Öfen mit einer Elektrode.

Hinsichtlich des Emissionsmessverfahrens können sich technische Einschränkungen ergeben. So ist z.B. in Ferrosilicium- und Siliciummetall-Anlagen eine kontinuierliche Emissionsmessung aufgrund der höheren Abgastemperaturen und der spezifischen Geometrie der Reingasableitung (Abgaskästen statt Abgasrohr) technisch nicht möglich.

Adsorbenszugabe und Gewebefilter

Die Adsorbenszugabe zum Abgasstrom wird z.B. in Anlagen zur Sekundärgewinnung von Legierungen aus Stahlwerksrückständen angewendet, bei denen ein Abgas mit erhöhten Gehalten an leichtflüchtigen Metallen (z.B. Quecksilber) anfällt und die entsprechenden Emissionen verringert werden müssen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung von Staubemissionen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in ES, FR und AT

Literatur

[369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.3.3.1.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus halbgeschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen

Halbgeschlossene Elektroreduktionsöfen werden in der Erzeugung von FeCr, FeMn, SiMn, FeNi, FeSi und Siliciummetalllegierungen sowie zur Rückgewinnung von Spezialferrolegerungen eingesetzt.

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) mit oder ohne Adsorbenszugabe in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Relevante Emissionen beim Erschmelzen von Ferrolegerungen in halbgeschlossenen Öfen betreffen Staub, Schwermetalle, CO₂, NO_x, SO₂ und PCDD/F sowie PAK in Spurenkonzentrationen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 8.36: Emissionswerte halbgeschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
L	SiMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	2	3	3	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	alle 2 Jahre (3 Proben)
				1	1	1	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2010)	
				5	5	5	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2008)	
O	LC FeMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	0	2	20	kontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	täglich
		Pb+Cd+Hg		0,004	0,006	0,010	diskontinuierlich	3
		CO	keine	21	48	119	kontinuierlich	täglich
		SO ₂		0	0,2	1,4	diskontinuierlich	24
		NO _x		6	52	185		
		PCDD/F		0,004 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	0,006 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	0,01 ng I-TEQ/ Nm ³	diskontinuierlich	1
O	LC FeMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	10,2	20,3	NR	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A, 2013)	alle 2 Jahre
	LC FeMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	10,2	17,4	NR	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B, 2013)	alle 2 Jahre
AA	FeCr	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,2	3,0	8,8	kontinuierlich	täglich
		Cr			0,3		diskontinuierlich	4
	FeSi	Staub	Gewebe- filter	1,0	2	3,9	kontinuierlich	täglich
		Cr			0,04		diskontinuierlich	2
		CO	keine	n.v.	60	n.v.	diskontinuierlich	1
		SO ₂			120			
	NO _x		245					

Anmerkung: k.A. = keine Angaben, NR = nicht repräsentativ
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [407, Euroalliances 2013]

Tabelle 8.37: Emissionswerte halbgeschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und Adsorbenszugabe

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
AB	FeCr	Staub	Zweistufiges Gewebefilter mit Adsorbenszugabe vor der 2. Stufe	3	5	7	kontinuierlich	täglich
		Hg		< 0,0005	0,013	0,033	diskontinuierlich	5
		Pb		0,013	0,026	0,075		
		F		0,057	0,113	0,29		
		Cd		0,0003	0,0013	0,0052		
		Cr		0,0051	0,0383	0,148		
		Ni		0,0007	0,0024	0,006		
		Mn		0,006	0,0087	0,0094		
		Zn		0,05	0,133	0,23		
		VOC		6,3	7,1	7,4		
		Sb+Cr+Co+ Cu+Mn+Ni+V		n.v.	0,16	n.v.		
		As+Te+Se			0,0027			
		Gesamtcyanid			0,008			
		SO ₂			< 0,22			
		NO _x			59			
		PCDD/F			0,004 ng/Nm ³			

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Hinsichtlich des Emissionsmessverfahrens können sich technische Einschränkungen ergeben. In Ferrosilicium- und Siliciummetall-Anlagen ist eine kontinuierliche Emissionsüberwachung aufgrund der höheren Abgastemperaturen und der spezifischen Geometrie der Reingasableitung (Abgaskästen statt Abgasrohr) technisch nicht möglich.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in SE, NO, ES und FR

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.3.1.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus geschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen

Geschlossene Elektroreduktionsöfen kommen bei der Erzeugung von FeCr, FeMn, SiMn und Spezialferrolegierungen zum Einsatz. Des Weiteren wird dieser Ofentyp in Vorschmelzanlagen zur Erzeugung von FeNiMo und FeV₆₀ eingesetzt.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)
- Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Quecksilberabscheider (Nass-EGR und Adsorber)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Nasswäscher

Bei geschlossenen Öfen sind Nasswäscher zur Entstaubung und Reinigung des mit sehr hohen Temperaturen anfallenden CO-reichen Abgases in Betracht zu ziehen.

Beim Erschmelzen von FeCr in geschlossenen Öfen entsteht ein Abgas mit 85–90 % CO, 5–7 % H₂, 2–5 % CO₂, 2–5 % N₂ und 1–2 % H₂O. Das Abgas aus geschlossenen FeMn/SiMn-Schmelzöfen besteht aus 40–80 % CO, 5–50 % CO₂ und 0–15 % H₂ [407, Euroalliances 2013]. Bei dem CO-Gas handelt es sich um einen hochwertigen Brennstoff mit sehr niedrigem Schwefelgehalt. Aufgrund des geringen Abgasvolumens und der Abgasnutzung in anderen Prozessen sind die Staubemissionen in die Atmosphäre minimal. Das CO-Gas ersetzt bei verschiedenen Verbrauchern andere Brennstoffe, wie z.B. Schweröl und Flüssiggas.

Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Quecksilberabscheider (Nass-EGR und Adsorber)

Bei Vorliegen von Quecksilber in den Einsatzstoffen (z.B. bei einigen Manganerzen) tritt das leichtflüchtige Quecksilber während des Reduktionsprozesses in die Gasphase über und muss durch geeignete Quecksilberminderungstechniken abgeschieden werden.

Gewebefilter

Laut vorliegenden Informationen wird in einer Anlage ein Gewebefilter statt eines Nasswäschers zur Reinigung des Abgases aus dem Ferrolegierungsöfen eingesetzt. Dadurch wird eine Rückgewinnung des Abgaswärmeinhalts möglich, und ein Nasswäschersystem kann entfallen. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird pelletiert und geht in den Ofen zurück. Das gereinigte Abgas wird in einer Kesselanlage verbrannt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Nasswäscher

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Quecksilberabscheider (Nass-EGR und Adsorber)

Minderung von Staub- und Quecksilberemissionen

Gewebefilter

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Bei geschlossenen Öfen liegt der Chrom(VI)-Gehalt des Ofenstaubs bei 5 ppm. Der abgeschiedene Ofenstaub besteht hauptsächlich aus SiO₂, MgO, Zn und C sowie geringen Anteilen an Cr, Fe, Al₂O₃ und CaO.

Nasswäscher

Tabelle 8.38: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher (Emissionskonzentrationen)

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
Z	HC FeMn	Staub	Nasswäscher	n.v.	0,7	n.v.	geschätzt	n.v.
		Hg		0,002	0,084	0,164	diskontinuierlich	36
		Pb		n.v.	0,004	n.v.	geschätzt	n.v.
		As			0,002			
		Cd			0,01			
		Mn			0,09			
		Zn			0,01			
M	FeMn + SiMn	Staub	Nasswäscher	n.v.	n.v.	25,4	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A, 2011 und 2012)	1 x pro Jahr (1 Probe)
						33,8		
						2,6	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B, 2010 und 2012)	
						7,7		
L	FeMn + SiMn	Staub	Nasswäscher	16	23,7	32	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A, 2011)	alle 2 Jahre (3 Proben)
				11	11,7	13	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B, 2013)	
				10	12,3	14	diskontinuierlich (Ofen C, 2012)	
				30	34	39	diskontinuierlich (Ofen D, 2012)	

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.39: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher (Emissionsfrachten)

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (kg/t)	Mittelwert (kg/t)	Max. (kg/t)	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
AE	HC FeCr	Staub Cr Hg Pb As Cd Zn Ni Cu V VOC PCDD/F	Nass- wäscher	n.v.	0,2247	n.v.	kontinuierlich	kontinuierlich
					0,0021			
					0,000002			
					0,0003			
					0			
					0,0000007			
					0,0061			
					0,00003			
					0,000004			
					0,00001			
					0,0195			
					2,1645 ng/t			
M	SiMn	Staub	Nass- wäscher	0,042	0,0635	0,085	diskontinuierlich	2
		SO ₂		0,0001	0,00055	0,001		
M	FeMn	Staub	Nass- wäscher	0,026	0,059	0,092	diskontinuierlich	
		SO ₂		0,0002	0,0004	0,0006		
L	FeMn + SiMn	Staub	Nass- wäscher	n.v.	0,05	0,164	diskontinuierlich	n.v.

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Um den Zusammenhang zwischen Emissionskonzentrationen und -frachten zu verdeutlichen, sind in Tabelle 8.40 die Emissionskonzentrationen und -frachten von Anlage M und Anlage L gegenübergestellt.

Tabelle 8.40: Zusammenhang zwischen Konzentrationen und Frachten in Anlagen mit geschlossenen Öfen

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Min. (kg/t)	Mittelwert (kg/t)	Max. (kg/t)
M	FeMn + SiMn	Staub	n.v.	n.v.	25,4	n.v.	n.v.	0,022
					33,8			0,026
					2,6			0,003
					64,1			0,085
L	FeMn + SiMn	Staub	16	23,7	32	0,034	0,050	0,067
			12	23,3	35	0,019	0,037	0,057
			20	25,7	31	0,031	0,036	0,044
			11	11,7	13	0,01	0,012	0,014
			13	38,3	58	0,015	0,050	0,075
			10	18,7	31	0,007	0,013	0,02
			10	12,3	14	0,014	0,017	0,02
			9	11	13	0,011	0,013	0,015
			10,2	13,1	15	0,012	0,014	0,018
			30	34	39	0,042	0,047	0,052
			12	18,3	30	0,019	0,028	0,045
			26	38	55	0,035	0,047	0,065

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Quecksilberabscheider

Tabelle 8.41: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Nasswäscher und Hg-Abscheider

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- fassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messun- gen pro Jahr)
I	LC SiMn + HC SiMn	Staub	Venturiwäscher, Abhitzekeessel und Hg- Abscheider (Nasswäscher)	2,5	3,35	4,0	diskontinu- ierlich	4
J	HC FeMn	Staub	Venturi, Nass- EGR und Adsorber	n.v.	2	n.v.	berechnet	n.v.
K	LC FeMn + MC FeMn + SiMn	Staub	Venturiwäscher, Nass-EGR u. Adsorber	n.v.	2	n.v.		

n.v. = nicht verfügbar
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 8.42: Emissionswerte geschlossener Elektroreduktionsöfen mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Mittelwert (mg/Nm ³)	Messwert- erfassung
AC	FeV + FeMo	Staub	Gewebefilter	0,10	diskontinuierlich
				0,16	
				0,10	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen*Nasswäscher*

Anfall von Wäscherabwasser und Schlamm, die einer weiteren Behandlung bedürfen. Das Wäscherabwasser ist mit unterschiedlichen Anteilen an suspendierten Feststoffen belastet, die vor Rückführung des Wassers in den Prozess oder vor Ableitung entfernt werden müssen. Der inerte Klärschlamm kann als Baustoff für bestimmte Anwendungen genutzt oder deponiert werden. Das Wäscherabwasser wird in eine Anlage bestehend aus Eindickern und Absetzteichen gepumpt. Da die Feststoffe überwiegend sehr fein sind, wird dem Abwasser zur Unterstützung der Sedimentation im Eindicker ein Flockungsmittel zugegeben. Außerdem enthält das Wäscherabwasser geringe Anteile an Cyaniden. Zur Senkung des Cyanidgehalts kann dieser Abwasserstrom in der Schlackengranulierung eingesetzt werden, wobei der Großteil der Cyanide verdampft und oxidiert wird. Eine weitere Senkung des Cyanidgehalts kann in großen Abwasserteichen mit ausreichend langen Verweilzeiten zur Oxidation der Cyanide und

weitgehenden Sedimentation der suspendierten Feststoffe erreicht werden. Zur Cyanidumsetzung wird der Wärmeinhalt der Schlacke genutzt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Nasswäscher können generell bei geschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen angewendet werden. Laut vorliegenden Informationen ist der Einsatz von Gewebefiltern hinter geschlossenen Elektroreduktionsöfen nur möglich, wenn eine Oxidation des Reaktionsgases vor Absaugung aus dem Ofen erfolgt (d.h. bei Abgas mit niedrigem CO-Gehalt), da andernfalls ein Explosionsrisiko nicht ausgeschlossen werden kann.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

- Nasswäscher: Anlagen in NO, ES, FR und FI
- Nasswäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Quecksilberabscheider: eine Anlage in Norwegen
- Gewebefilter: eine Anlage in Österreich

Literatur

[369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.3.3.1.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem geschlossenen Plasmadust-Prozess

Das Plasmadust-Verfahren wird zur Verarbeitung von Stahlwerksrückständen (hauptsächlich Stäube aus der Edelstahlherzeugung) eingesetzt. Dieses Verfahren ermöglicht die Verarbeitung von feinteiligen Einsatzstoffen ohne vorherige Agglomeration, benötigt jedoch trockenes Einsatzgut.

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6)
- Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2)
- Selenfilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5)

Technische Beschreibung

In einer Anlage in Schweden wird das Prozessgas gekühlt und anschließend in einem dreistufigen Venturiwäscher mit nachgeschaltetem Nass-EGR gereinigt. Ein Teil des Prozessabgases wird in den Plasmaprozess zurückgeführt. Das verbleibende Prozessabgas wird über einen Quecksilberabscheider (Selenfilter) geleitet und anschließend verbrannt/zur Trocknung der Einsatzstoffe, Warmwasserbereitung oder Fernwärmeerzeugung genutzt oder abgefackelt (Überschussgas). Das Abgas aus der Einsatzmaterialtrocknung wird in zwei Gewebefiltern entstaubt.

An allen Emissionsquellen, an denen potenziell Staub und sonstige Luftschadstoffe freigesetzt werden können einschließlich der Schmelzhalle, wird das Abgas erfasst und in zwei Gewebefiltern entstaubt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In der schwedischen Plasmadust-Anlage werden ca. 60 000 Tonnen Produkte (Ni, Mo, Cr, Mn und Fr) pro Jahr aus 70 000 t/a metallhaltigen Stäuben erzeugt.

Die Gesamtstaubemissionen dieser Anlage sind in Tabelle 8.43 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 8.43: Emissionswerte des geschlossenen Plasmadust-Prozesses

Staubemissionsquellen	Staub (mg/Nm ³)	Staub (kg/a)	kg/t trockener Einsatz
Fackel	1,3	13,1	0,003
Nach Kesseln	1,0	34	
Nach Gewebefilter	0,12	131,3	
Insgesamt	n.a.	178,4	
Anmerkung: n.a. = nicht anwendbar			

Die Staubemissionen aus diffusen Quellen werden auf 30–70 kg/a geschätzt.

Der Quecksilbergehalt im Reingas nach dem Selenfilter beträgt 0,009 mg/Nm³ entsprechend einer Hg-Abscheideleistung von 94 %.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Schweden

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.3.1.5 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Etagenöfen

In der Ferrolegierungsindustrie werden Etagenöfen zur Röstung sulfidischer Erzkonzentrate eingesetzt. In der Molybdänherstellung ist der Etagenofen der am häufigsten eingesetzte Ofentyp zur Umwandlung von Molybdänit (das sulfidische Konzentrat) in Molybdänoxide (geröstetes Molybdänkonzentrat).

Beschreibung

Als Emissionsminderungstechniken kommen Trockenentstaubungsverfahren (Absetzkammern, Zyklonabscheider und Trocken-EGR), Nassentstaubungsverfahren (Nassabscheider, Kondensatoren und Tropfenabscheider), der Schwefelsäureprozess oder die H₂SO₄-Gewinnung (SO₂-Minderung) in Kombination mit einem Nebelabscheider in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Rösten von Erzen in Etagenöfen sind hauptsächlich Staub- und SO₂-Emissionen von Umweltrelevanz und erfordern entsprechende Minderungstechniken. Zur Vermeidung diffuser

Emissionen werden der Röstofen und der Großteil der Abgasreinigungsanlage im Unterdruck betrieben.

Staubabsatzkammern, Zyklonabscheider und Trocken-EGR (Trockenentstaubung)

Hauptzweck dieser Technik ist die Abscheidung von Grob- und Feinstaub, wozu etablierte Entstaubungseinrichtungen wie Staubabsatzkammern, Zyklonabscheider und Trocken-EGR miteinander kombiniert werden.

Nasswäscher, Kondensator und Tropfenabscheider

Hauptzweck dieser Technik ist die Abscheidung von Feinstaub und gasförmigen Luftschadstoffen, wie z.B. Sauer gases (HCl, HF) und leichtflüchtigen Metallverbindungen (Selenverbindungen, Arsenoxide).

Schwefelsäureprozess oder H₂SO₄-Gewinnung

Nach der Trocken- und Nassentstaubung ist das Prozessgas bis auf seinen SO₂-Gehalt sauber. Zur Abgasentschwefelung stehen zahlreiche Techniken zur Verfügung. Bei der Molybdäntröstung kann die SO₂-Minderung unter Erzeugung von H₂SO₄ erfolgen. Das hierfür am besten geeignete Verfahren ist das Nassverfahren zur Schwefelsäureherstellung. Bei Anreicherung des SO₂-haltigen Prozessgases durch Schwefelverbrennung kann das klassische Schwefelsäureverfahren eingesetzt werden. Der Unterschied zwischen dem Nass-Schwefelsäureverfahren und dem klassischen Schwefelsäureverfahren ist in Kapitel 2 beschrieben.

Nebelabscheider

Der Schwefelsäureanlage wird gewöhnlich ein Nebelabscheider nachgeschaltet. Hierzu kommen, je nach Säurenebelkonzentration und Verhältnis von H₂SO₄-Ausbeute zu Energieeinsatz (und damit CO₂-Emissionen), Kerzenfilter (Brink-Filter) oder Nasselektrofilter zur Anwendung.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Staubabsatzkammern, Zyklonabscheider und Trocken-EGR (Trockenentstaubung)

Reduzierung von Grob- und Feinstaubemissionen

Nasswäscher, Kondensator und Tropfenabscheider

Reduzierung von Feinstaubemissionen sowie von gasförmigen Emissionen, wie Sauer gases und dampfförmige Metallverbindungen

Schwefelsäureprozess oder H₂SO₄-Rückgewinnung

Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen

Tropfenabscheider

Reduzierung der Säurenebelkonzentration

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Röstanlagen mit nachgeschalteter Schwefelsäureanlage zeichnen sich stets durch sehr niedrige Staubemissionen aus, da nach der Trocken- und Nassentstaubung verbleibender Reststaub weitgehend in den Katalysatorbetten zurückgehalten wird. Es handelt sich hierbei um einen selbstregulierenden Kreislauf. Um ein Verstopfen der Katalysatorbetten zu verhindern, werden die Trocken- und Nassentstaubungseinrichtungen im Hinblick auf maximale Entstaubungsleistung ausgelegt und betrieben. Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte sind sehr niedrig (< 2 mg/Nm³).

Wie in vielen metallurgischen Prozessen unterliegen der Volumenstrom und SO₂-Gehalt des Röstgases starken zeitlichen Schwankungen. Hieraus erklärt sich, warum in Anlagen, in denen H₂SO₄ als Nebenprodukt der Reinigung SO₂-haltiger Gase gewonnen wird, nicht die gleichen Emissionsstandards eingehalten werden können wie in Anlagen, deren Hauptzweck die Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure ist und die unter sehr stabilen Prozessbedingungen betrieben

werden. Dessen ungeachtet kann in modernen Säureanlagen zur Verarbeitung von Röstgasen aus der Molybdänitröstung eine stabile SO_2 -Minderungsleistung mit Emissionswerten von ca. 500 mg/Nm^3 im Jahresmittel erreicht werden.

Typische Säurenebelemissionen nach dem Nebelabscheider liegen bei $5\text{--}20 \text{ mg SO}_3/\text{Nm}^3$ mit einem Spitzenwert von 50 mg/Nm^3 . Bei diesen Werten ergibt sich eine kaum noch sichtbare Abgasfahne.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Trocken- und Nassentstaubung, Abgasentschwefelung). Zur SO_2 -Minderung im Wege der Schwefelsäureproduktion wird sowohl elektrische Energie zum Ausgleich von Druckverlusten als auch thermische Energie (erzeugt durch Verbrennung von Erdgas oder Brennstoff) zum Ausgleich von Wärmeverlusten im Prozess benötigt. Der typische Stromverbrauch liegt bei 600 kWh/t abgeschiedenes SO_2 , der typische Gas- oder Brennstoffverbrauch bei $50\text{--}650 \text{ kWh/t}$ abgeschiedenes SO_2 .
- Hoher Druckverlust des Systems (Kerzenfilter) mit typischen Werten von $20\text{--}25 \text{ mbar}$

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Obwohl Schwefelsäure ein Handelsprodukt ist, sind die Erlöse aus dem Verkauf nicht ausreichend zur Deckung der Erzeugungskosten oder auch nur der Betriebskosten (Energie, Personalkosten, Wartung und Verbrauchsstoffe). Das heißt, dass die Kosten der SO_2 -Minderung aus dem Erlös für das Röstprodukt gedeckt werden müssen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung negativer Umwelteinwirkungen
- Immissionsgrenzwerte

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Belgien und Niger

Literatur

[104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]

8.3.3.1.6 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus feuerfest ausgekleideten Reaktionstiegeln

Feuerfest ausgekleidete Reaktionstiegel werden in der Herstellung von Ferromolybdän und Ferrovandium eingesetzt.

Beschreibung

Als Emissionsminderungstechniken kommen Staubabsetzkammern, Zyklonabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.3) und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Unabhängig davon, ob ein feststehender Reaktor oder eine Karussellanlage mit feuerfest ausgekleideten Tiegeln eingesetzt wird, ist das Abgasreinigungskonzept im Grunde ähnlich und besteht aus klassischen Entstaubungseinrichtungen, wie Staubabsetzkammern, Zyklonabscheidern und Gewebefiltern. Zur Begrenzung der Filtereintrittstemperatur (Schutz des Filtergewebes) wird das Abgas durch Ansaugen von Sekundärluft – hauptsächlich im Bereich des Reaktionsgefäßes – gekühlt. Dadurch verbessert sich die Stauberfassung am Ort der Reaktion. Bei Zugabe von Flussmitteln können gasförmige Emissionen auftreten, die nicht vom Gewebefilter zurückgehalten werden. Diese Emissionen sollten durch sorgfältige Kontrolle der

Flussmittelzugabe minimiert werden. Bei Bedarf kann ein Nasswäscher oder ein Trockensorptionsverfahren vorgesehen werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 8.44: Emissionswerte feuerfest ausgekleideter Reaktionstiegel

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
A	FeMo	Staub	Gewebe-filter	0,2	0,92	1,4	kontinuierlich	stündlich
		Staub		0,2	1,69	4,77	diskontinuierlich	12
X	FeMo	Staub	Gewebe-filter	2	2,15	2,3	diskontinuierlich	2
AC	FeMo + FeV	Staub	Gewebe-filter	n.v.	< 2	n.v.	diskontinuierlich	n.v.
		PAK			35 µg/Nm ³			
		C _{org.}			2,7			
		PCDD/F			< 0,001 ng I-TEQ/Nm ³			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Ferromolybdän-Öfen können über längere Zeiträume betrieben werden und stellen daher höhere Anforderung an die eingesetzte Emissionsminderungstechnik. Längere Betriebszeiten führen z.B. zu höheren Staubkonzentrationen und folglich einer höheren Belastung der Filtersysteme.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Zur Vermeidung von Staub- und Dämpfemissionen aus dem Schmelztiegel muss unterhalb der Absaughaube oder in der Reaktionskammer (je nach Abgaserfassungs- und Minderungstechnik) über ein Gebläse ein Unterdruck eingestellt werden. Aufgrund des diskontinuierlichen Ablaufs der Reaktionen müssen die Gebläse hohe Volumenstromspitzen bewältigen, was mit einem hohen elektrischen Energieeinsatz zur Aufrechterhaltung der Druckdifferenz über die Entstaubungseinrichtung einhergeht (Motorleistungen von 200 kW sind nicht unüblich).

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung negativer Umwelteinwirkungen
- Immissionsgrenzwerte, hauptsächlich für Staub

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in AT, BE und UK

Literatur

[104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996], [369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.3.3.1.7 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus Drehrohröfen

Die Herstellung von Ferronickel aus Primärrohstoffen erfolgt ausschließlich durch Vorreduktion im Drehrohröfen und anschließendes reduzierendes Schmelzen im Elektroöfen.

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Emissionsminderungsmaßnahmen beim Drehrohröfenprozess betreffen in erster Linie die Abgasentstaubung ($\sim 150 \text{ g/Nm}^3$), wozu überwiegend Elektrofilter zum Einsatz kommen.

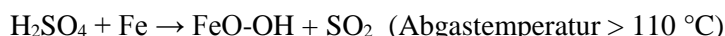
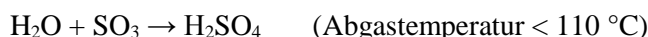
Für eine wirksame Abscheidung müssen die Stäube leicht ionisierbar sein, was auf die Stäube der Einsatzstoffe zutrifft. Kalzinierte Stäube haben indessen einen höheren elektrischen Staubwiderstand und lassen sich schlechter im Elektrofilter abscheiden. Tabelle 8.45 gibt einen Überblick über die Herkunft der anfallenden Stäube.

Tabelle 8.45: Herkunft der Stäube im Prozess

Staubherkunft	Menge (%)
Vorgetrocknete Erze	65
Wärmeempfindliche Flugstäube	29
Kohlestaub	6

Die Einhaltung der Emissionsgrenzwerte ist bei entsprechender Prozessführung möglich, z.B. Erhöhung oder Senkung des Strömungsdrucks, soweit zutreffend, und den kombinierten Einsatz von Heizöl und Kohle.

Da es bei gleichzeitiger Anwesenheit von SO_3 und Wasser im Abgas zur Schwefelsäurebildung kommt, darf die Abgastemperatur $110 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Schwefelsäuretaupunkt) nicht unterschreiten.



Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Mit Elektrofiltern wird eine wirksame Minderung von Staubemissionen erreicht (Abscheidegrade von $> 99,67 \%$ wurden berichtet).

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Einhaltung von Emissionsgrenzwerten
- Rückgewinnung von Staub mit hohem Metallgehalt zur Zurückführung in den Schmelzprozess

Beispielanlage

Eramet SLN (Neukaledonien)

Literatur

[110, Anthony, T. 1997]

8.3.3.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Abstichvorgängen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Beschreibung

Als Techniken kommen geeignete Absaughauben (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3) und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Das Öffnen der Abstichöffnung des Schmelzofens erfolgt mittels pneumatischer oder hydraulischer Bohrer (nicht im Fall von Silicium). Sauerstofflanzen werden ebenfalls eingesetzt, entweder als alleinige Methode oder als Ersatz oder Ergänzung zum Bohren. Verstopfungen können mittels einer Stichlochräummaschine beseitigt werden. Nach Beendigung des Abstichvorgangs wird die Abstichöffnung mittels einer Stopfmaschine oder Stichlochstopfmasse verschlossen [226, Nordic Report 2008].

Die am häufigsten eingesetzte Abstichtechnik bei Schlackeverfahren, wie z.B. bei der FeMn-, SiMn- and FeCr-Erzeugung, ist das Kaskadenabstechen (nicht geeignet für Siliciummetall oder FeSi). In diesem Fall werden Metall und Schlacke zusammen in einen Kübel abgestochen. Die leichtere Schlacke schwimmt auf und läuft über ein Wehr in eine separate Pfanne. In diesem Zusammenhang ist zu beachten, dass Siliciumschlacke eine höhere Dichte als Siliciummetall besitzt.

Bei den beim Abstechen freigesetzten Rauchen/Dämpfen handelt es sich um Ofenrauche, die über das Stichloch entweichen, Rauche und Staub, die beim Aufbrennen des Stichlochs mit Sauerstofflanzen bzw. beim Aufbohren des Stichlochs auftreten, sowie Rauche/Dämpfe verdampfender Metallklumpen, wenn eine Stichlochräummaschine eingesetzt wird. Diese Rauche/Dämpfe bestehen im Wesentlichen aus den Oxiden der am Schmelzprozess beteiligten Metalle. Bei der Gestaltung des Haubensystems ist auf die Zugangsmöglichkeit zum Chargieren und anderen Ofenbedienvorgängen sowie auf wechselnde Abgasvolumenströme in den verschiedenen Betriebsphasen des Prozesses zu achten [140, Ferro-Alloy Expert Group 1998].

Die Gestaltung geeigneter Absaughauben zur Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen im Abstichbereich hängt in hohem Maße von der Anordnung der Abstichöffnungen ab. Dementsprechend existiert eine Vielzahl verschiedener Haubenausführungen.

Als Beispiel sei hier das Abstichsystem einer ERAMET-Anlage in Norwegen angeführt. Das Metall fließt über eine kurze geneigte Rinne aus der Abstichöffnung in die Abstichpfanne unterhalb der Abstichbühne (Ofenbühne etwa 40 cm unterhalb der Abstichöffnung). Die Abstichpfanne befindet sich auf einem Wagen, der während des Abstichvorgangs unter der Abstichbühne steht. Nach Beendigung des Abstichvorgangs fährt der Wagen an eine Stelle, an der die Pfanne vom Hallenkran zum Abtransport aufgenommen werden kann. Während des Abstichvorgangs ist die Pfanne unter der Abstichbühne eingehaust, so dass der freigesetzte Staub über ein Gebläse abgesaugt werden kann. Über der Abstichöffnung ist eine Absaughaube angebracht. Ein nach unten gerichteter Luftstrom an den Innenkanten der Haube (Luftschleier) sorgt dafür, dass kein Staub in die Hallenatmosphäre entweichen kann. Das staubbeladene Abgas wird über ein an die Haube angeschlossenes Gebläse abgesaugt und in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Weitere Verbesserungen können erzielt werden, indem man den Pfannenwagen so positioniert, dass der Staub unterhalb der Abstichbühne in Richtung Primärhaube gelenkt wird (wodurch die Staubbelastung im Arbeitsbereich unterhalb der

Sekundärhaube drastisch reduziert wird) und am Ende der Abstichbühne einen Abschluss schafft, entweder in Form einer senkrechten Wand oder eines senkrechten Luftschleiers, um zu verhindern, dass staubhaltige Luft im Bereich unterhalb der Abstichbühne nach außen entweichen kann.

Mit Hilfe numerischer Strömungssimulation (computational fluid dynamics, CFD) können neue Absaughaben für einen maximalen Stauberfassungsgrad ausgelegt bzw. bestehende Hauben optimiert werden.

In Silicium- oder Ferrosilicium-Öfen kann ein Haubensystem wie nachstehend abgebildet eingesetzt werden.

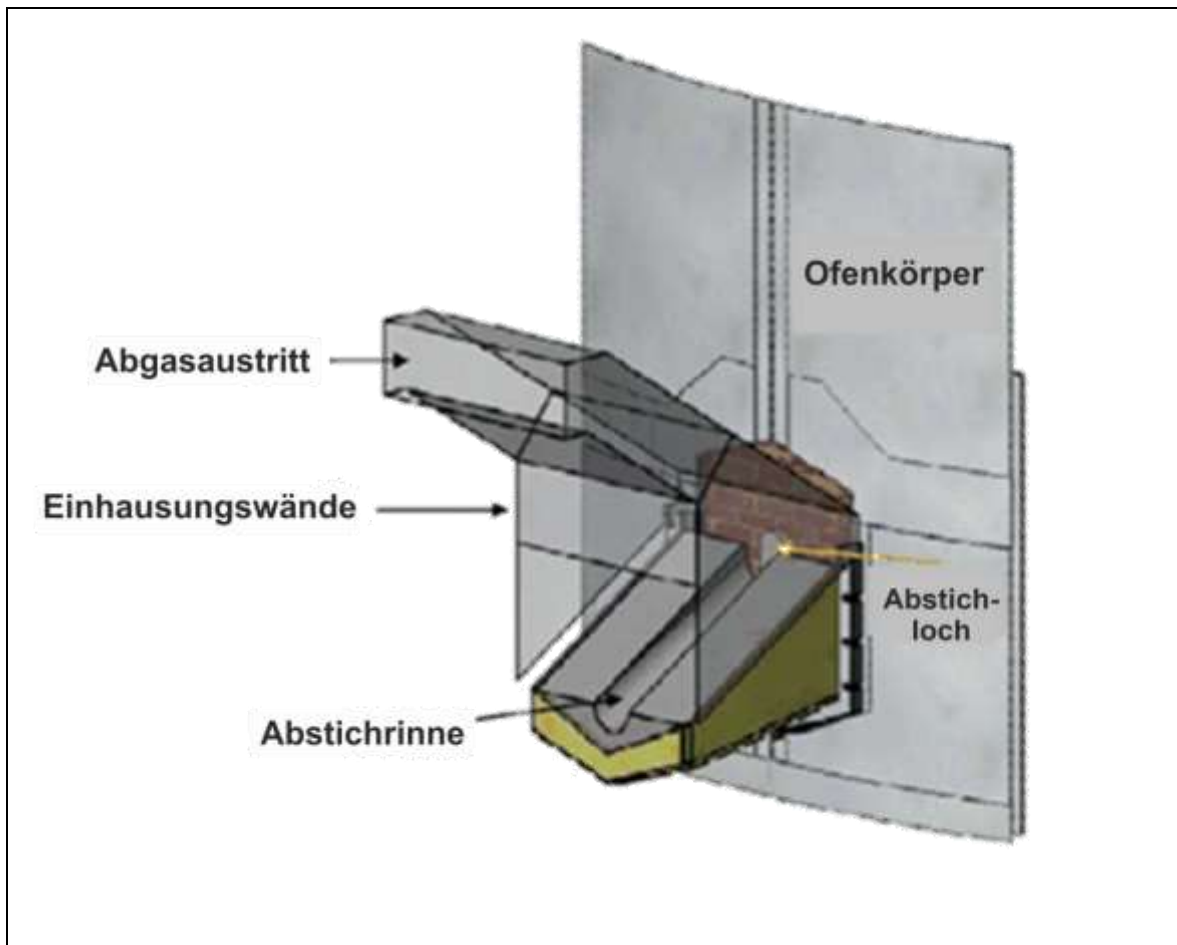


Abbildung 8.21: Haubensystem für Silicium- und Ferrosiliciumöfen

Zur Reinigung des Abgases aus dem Abstichbereich werden Gewebefilter eingesetzt. Dies kann ein separates Filter oder ein Filtersystem sein, in dem auch die Rauche/Dämpfe aus dem Metallgießbereich oder das Ofenabgas gereinigt werden.

Das Stauberfassungssystem besteht aus mehreren Hauben, die oberhalb des Abstichbereichs des Ofens angeordnet sind.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Durch den Einsatz geeigneter Haubensysteme wird gleichzeitig auch eine Verbesserung der Arbeitsplatzsituation erreicht.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Erreichte Erfassungsgrade:

- Primärhaube: 96 %.
- Haube im Metallabstichbereich: 86 %.
- Haube über der Abstichrinne (siehe Abbildung 8.21): 100 %.
- Erfassungsgrad: schwer direkt zu messen. Laut Ergebnissen von CFD-Berechnungen liegt der Wirkungsgrad zwischen 70 % und 90%.
- Volumenstrom: 100 000 Nm³/h.

Tabelle 8.46: Staubemissionen aus Abstichvorgängen

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Max. mg/Nm ³	Messwert- erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
Z	HC FeMn	Staub	Gewebe- filter	0,3	0,6	1,2	diskontinuierlich	36
K	LC FeMn + MC FeMn + SiMn		Gewebe- filter	0,02	0,04	0,05	diskontinuierlich	4
			Gewebe- filter	0,03	0,035	0,04		
L	FeMn + SiMn		Gewebe- filter	5	5,6	7	diskontinuierlich (Ofen A, 2009 und 2012)	alle 3 Jahre (3 Proben)
				3	3	3		
				4	4	4	diskontinuierlich (Ofen B, 2010 und 2012)	
				1	1	1		
Y	SiMn		Gewebe- filter	0,23	4,3	Unzul. Werte (> EGW)	diskontinuierlich	
I	LC SiMn + HC SiMn		Gewebe- filter	2,80	3,65	4,20	diskontinuierlich	4
O	FeMn		Gewebe- filter	1	1,6	2,4	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	1 x pro Jahr (3 Proben)
O	SiMn	Gewebe- filter	3,6	8,1	13,6*	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	1 x pro Jahr (3 Proben)	
M	Si	Gewebe- filter			3	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)	1 x pro Jahr (1 Probe)	
					30	diskontinuierlich (Bezugsjahr 2012)		

* Die berichteten Werte für vier weitere Bezugsjahre liegen durchgehend unter 5 mg/Nm³.
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]
 Legende: **EGW** = Emissionsgrenzwert

Wie aus den anlagenspezifischen Daten ersichtlich können mit Gewebefiltern in dieser Prozessstufe Staubemissionswerte von < 5 mg/Nm³ erreicht werden.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)
- Die wirkungsvolle Abgaserfassung setzt eine Einhausung des Abstichbereichs voraus, was sich in einer höheren Wärmebelastung des Betriebspersonal auswirkt.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

Das Haubenkonzept ist stark von den standortspezifischen Absticheinrichtungen und deren Anordnung abhängig.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Emissionsminderung
- Verringerung der Belastung des Betriebspersonals durch Staub/Dämpfe in der Schmelzhalle

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in FR, ES, DE, NO, SE und FI

Literatur

[140, Ferro-Alloy Expert Group 1998] [141, Elkem Asa 1998], [197, Kantola, E. 1999], [199, EnviroSense 1995], [226, Nordic Report 2008], [255, VDI 2010]

8.3.4 Gießen, Raffination und Legieren

8.3.4.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus Gieß-, Transport und Nachfüllvorgängen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Beschreibung

Als Techniken kommen geeignete Absaughauben (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3) und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Gießdämpfe entstehen bei allen der Atmosphäre ausgesetzten Metall- und Schlackeflächen. Bei diesen Dämpfen handelt es sich im Wesentlichen um die Oxide der am Schmelzprozess beteiligten Metalle. Bei der Gestaltung des Haubensystems ist auf die Zugangsmöglichkeit zum Chargieren und anderen Ofenbedienvorgängen sowie auf wechselnde Abgasvolumenströme während der verschiedenen Betriebsphasen des Prozesses zu achten [140, Ferro-Alloy Expert Group 1998].

Die Ausführung geeigneter Absaughauben zur Erfassung von Rauchen/Dämpfen aus dem Gießbereich hängt in hohem Maße von den standortspezifischen Gießeinrichtungen und deren Anordnung ab. Entsprechend groß ist die Vielfalt an Haubenausführungen. Das Abgas aus dem Gießbereich kann in einem eigenen Filter oder gemeinsam mit dem erfassten Abgas aus dem Metallabstichbereich oder dem Ofenabgas gereinigt werden.

In einigen Fällen wird das flüssige Metall in geschlossene Gruben abgegossen, in denen die Dämpfe erfasst und einem Gewebefilter zugeführt werden. Um eine maximale Abdichtung der Gruben zu gewährleisten, wird die Schlacke über eine Kipprinne abgestochen. Bei diesem Arbeitsgang findet die stärkste Dämpfe-/Rauchentwicklung statt. In Flüssig-Ferrochrom-Anlagen und integrierten Stahlwerken kann das flüssige Metall direkt im Stahlerzeugungsprozess eingesetzt und damit Gießvorgänge und die damit verbundenen Emissionen minimiert werden. Da eine perfekte zeitliche Abstimmung zwischen Ferrochromerzeugung und Bedarf der Stahlerzeugungsanlage nicht immer möglich ist, müssen auch in integrierten Ferrochromanlagen Gießeinrichtungen vorhanden sein.

Die Abgasentstaubung erfolgt in der Regel in Gewebefiltern.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung diffuser Emissionen und damit auch eine Verbesserung der Arbeitsplatzsituation

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 8.47: Staubemissionen aus Gießvorgängen

Anlage	Ferrolegerung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs-technik	Mittelwert (kg/h)	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
U	Silicium	Staub	Gewebefilter	0,1	1,1	diskontinuierlich	1
		Partikelförmige Metalle		0,02	0,15		
		PAK		0,0003	0,003		
		VOC		2,2	20		
		SO ₂		0,04	0,4		
		NO _x		5,7	51		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter sind allgemein anwendbar.

In bestehenden Anlage ist der Einsatz von Haubensystemen im Gießbereich aufgrund der Platzverhältnisse nicht immer möglich. In diesem Fall können die Pfannen mittels Förderanlagen und Hallenkränen in einen Bereich transportiert werden, in dem eine Absaugung über ein Haubensystem möglich ist.

Der Einsatz von flüssigem Ferrochrom in Stahlwerken ist nur möglich, wenn die Legierungsproduktion in die Edelstahlproduktion integriert ist.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung der Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Frankreich

Literatur

[140, Ferro-Alloy Expert Group 1998], [255, VDI 2010], [408, Kadkhodabeigi M. 2011]

8.3.4.2 Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Raffinations- und Legierungsprozessen bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegerungen

Die in Abschnitt 2.12.3 beschriebenen Grundsätze der Prozesskontrolle sind auf die in dieser Metallgruppe verwendeten Produktionsprozesse anwendbar. Bei einigen Öfen und Prozessen kann die Umweltleistung durch gleichzeitige Anwendung mehrerer Techniken verbessert werden. Technisch ist auch der Einsatz von Gewebefiltern in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe möglich.

8.3.5 Aufbereitung der Produkte und Nebenprodukte

8.3.5.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Produktzerkleinerung

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Nach Abstich, Vergießen und Erkalten werden die Schlacke und die erzeugte Ferrolegierung gebrochen und abgeseibt, um die gewünschte Körnung gemäß Kundenspezifikation herzustellen. Der Betrieb der Zerkleinerungsaggregate ist mit Staubemissionen verbunden. Die Zerkleinerungsanlage ist vollständig eingehaust und geräusch- und erschütterungsarm ausgeführt. Brecher werden über Gewebefilter abgesaugt. Bei Einsatz mobiler Geräte zur Förderung von trockenem, staubendem Material oder zum Brechen von trockenen Schlacken können Staubemissionen durch Einsatz von Wassersprühsystemen, ähnlich den in Abschnitt 8.3.2.1 beschrieben, gemindert werden.

Im Fall von Ferrochrom werden die Gussblöcke einer integrierten Brech- und Siebanlage zur Erzeugung einer breiten Körnungspalette zugeführt. Aufgrund des Staubpotenzials dieser Arbeitsgänge sind die entsprechenden Aggregate in einem überdachten Bereich aufzustellen. Die Aggregate werden abgesaugt, die Abluft in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt und der abgeschiedene Staub in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

In einer schwedischen und einer finnischen Anlage z.B. erfolgt die Zerkleinerung in einer überdachten Halle mit integrierten Brech- und Siebanlagen sowie teilgekapselten Förderbändern. Brecher, Siebmaschine und Förderbänder werden abgesaugt. Die Abluft wird in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt ($90\,000\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$). Das Absaugvolumen richtet sich nach den jeweiligen Gegebenheiten (z.B. Größe der Halle).

Ferromolybdän und FeV_{80} werden u.a. bei der Herstellung von Schweißelektroden eingesetzt. Die beim Absieben der einzelnen Legierungen anfallende Feinfraktion wird in einer Pulverisierungsanlage auf eine Korngröße von $< 3\text{ mm}$ vorgemahlen und in konische Transportbehälter überführt. Alle Zwischenfraktionen werden über den Hallenkran in die jeweiligen Aufgabebunker überführt. Die Nachmahlung erfolgt in einer Palla-(Stab)mühle. Die erzeugten Pulverlegierungen werden einer Kontrollsiebung auf einer Doppeldeck-Siebmaschine unterzogen und nach Beprobung und Analyse in Metallbehälter abgefüllt und gelagert.

Die bei der Produktaufbereitung anfallenden Feinanteile können vermarktet werden (verkaufsfähiges Produkt) und werden in geschlossenen Silos gelagert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 8.48 zeigt Daten zur Rückgewinnung von Fines aus der Brech- und Siebstation in einer Ferrochromhütte.

Tabelle 8.48: Rückgewinnung von Fines aus der Brech- und Siebstation einer Ferrochromhütte

Jahr	Gesamtmenge an zerkleinertem FeCr (t)	Zurückgewonnene Fines (t)	
		Brechstation	Siebstation
2010	142 100	389	136
2011	131 600	319	120

Die berichteten Staubemissionswerte für die Produktaufbereitung sind in

Tabelle 8.49 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 8.49: Staubemissionswerte der Produktnachzerkleinerungsanlagen

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungs- technik	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert (mg/Nm ³)	Max. (mg/Nm ³)	Messwert- erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
AE	FeCr	Staub	Gewebe- filter		< 5	< 10	kontinuierlich	stündlich
I	LC SiMn + HC SiMn			8,3	8,63	9,0	diskontinuierlich	4
K	LC FeMn + MC FeMn + SiMn			0,26	1,05	2,14	diskontinuierlich	21
S	Silicium				4,01		diskontinuierlich	1
T	FeSi			1,6	1,6	1,7	diskontinuierlich	3
X	FeMo			0,5	0,53	0,55	diskontinuierlich	2
				0,50	0,85	1,20		
AC	FeV + FeMo				< 3		diskontinuierlich	
P	Si (Brecher 1, Bezugsjahr 2012)			1,15	1,3	1,51	diskontinuierlich	2
	Si (Brecher 2, Bezugsjahr 2012)			0,94	1,0	1,02		
L	FeMn + SiMn (Brecher 1, Bezugsjahr 2013)			2	2,3	3	diskontinuierlich	alle 2 Jahre (3 aufeinander folgende Messungen)
L	FeMn + SiMn (Brecher 2, Bezugsjahr 2011)	3	3	3	diskontinuierlich			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

- Rückgewinnung von verkaufsfähigem Staub

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in AT, BE, FI, FR, NO und SE

Literatur

[369, Treibacher Industries AG 2008]

8.3.5.2 Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Handhabung, Lagerung und dem Transport von Fines

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- die in Abschnitt 2.12.4 und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung [290, COM 2006] beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen (geschlossene pneumatische Fördersysteme, Lagerung und Transport in geschlossenen Behältern)
- Kompaktierung von Silica-Pulver und anderen in Gewebefiltern abgeschiedenen Stäuben; siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4.

Technische Beschreibung

Staub und Fines aus dem Herstellungsprozess werden in geschlossenen Systemen, insbesondere gekapselten Förderanlagen, pneumatischen Förderanlagen transportiert und in geschlossene Big Bags abgefüllt.

Zur Verbesserung der Handhabbarkeit werden Kieselerdeaerocel (Mikrosilica) und andere im Filter abgeschiedene Ferrolegierungsstäube häufig kompaktiert. Im Kompaktierungsprozess wird das Pulver in kleine Kügelchen mit einem Durchmesser von ca. 0,5–1 mm umgewandelt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung diffuser Staubemissionen
- Minderung von Staubemissionen während des Transports (Kompaktierung von Silicapulver)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Nicht verdichteter Siliciumdioxidstaub hat eine Schüttdichte von $< 0,2 \text{ t/m}^3$. Durch Kompaktierung wird eine Erhöhung der Schüttdichte auf $0,5\text{--}0,6 \text{ t/m}^3$ erreicht.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Die Kompaktierung ist mit zusätzlichem Energieaufwand verbunden.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Geschlossene pneumatische Förderanlagen, Abfüllung in geschlossene Behälter sowie Lagerung und Transport in geschlossenen Behältern sind allgemein anwendbar.

Die Kompaktierung kann in neuen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden, in denen Mikrosilica, Silico-Manganpulver, Ofenstaub und Mangan- und Eisenoxide gehandhabt werden müssen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Der Einsatz von Druckluft für die pneumatische Förderung resultiert in höhere Betriebskosten.

Ferner fallen Wartungskosten für die Lager- und Transportbehälter an. Gleichzeitig werden aber durch die verbesserte Rückgewinnung von Fines höher Erlöse erzielt.

Die Kompaktierung von Silica-Pulver führt zu Einsparungen von ca. 65 % bei den Transportkosten.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Emissionen und geringeres Abfallaufkommen
- Höhere Verkaufserlöse

Beispielanlagen

- Allgemeine Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen: Anlagen in FR, ES, SE und FI
- Kompaktierung von Silica-Pulver und anderen Filterstäuben: eine Anlage in Norwegen

Literatur

[141, Elkem Asa 1998]

8.3.5.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Verpackungsprozess bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- allgemeine Techniken zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen (Abfüllen in geschlossene Behälter), siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4
- Gewebefilter, siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4

Technische Beschreibung

Ferrolegierungen können als Schüttgut oder in Behälter oder Big Bags verpackt transportiert werden. Die Verladung von Schüttgut erfolgt entweder im Freien oder in einer geschlossenen Halle, um diffuse Emissionen zu minimieren. Zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen können Absaughauben oberhalb der Verladestation vorgesehen werden.

Primärprodukte können zur Reduzierung der Feianteile im Produkt in einem geschlossenen Raum abgesiebt werden. Beim Brechen, Sieben und Fördern in die Abluft freigesetzte Metallpartikel werden in Gewebefiltern zurückgewonnen. Der Siebdurchgang wird in einem geschlossenen, mit einem Staubfilter (Gewebefilter) ausgestatteten Silo gesammelt. Die Stäube werden in geschlossene Behälter abgefüllt.

Der Transport erfolgt mittels abgeplanter Lkws.

Für den Überseetransport wird das Produkt mittels Förderband oder Radlader in Container gefüllt und in diesen gelagert und weitertransportiert.

Im Fall der in der Edelstahlproduktion eingesetzten Flüssigferrolegierungen wird das flüssige Metall nach Abstich und Abschlacken in einem Pfannenwagen in die benachbarte Stahlschmelzhalle transportiert.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 8.50: Staubemissionen aus dem Produktverpackungsprozess

Anlage	Ferrolegierung	Luftschadstoff	Minderungstechnik	Mittelwert mg/Nm ³	Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
U	Si	Staub	Gewebefilter	3,4	diskontinuierlich	1
		Partikelförmige Metalle		0,067		
AC	FeV + FeMo	Staub	Gewebefilter	1,73	diskontinuierlich	n.v.
				0,91		

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Gebläse)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Frankreich und Österreich

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.5.4 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Schlackenbehandlung bei der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik in Ferrochromhütten kommt ein Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Generell kann die Schlacke direkt in die Schlackenegrube abgegossen oder, je nach Verwendungszweck, in einem Granulator granuliert werden. Erfolgt eine Granulation, so wird die Schlacke direkt in ein Wasserbad abgegossen oder in der Schlackenegrube oder ggf. dem Gießplatz mit Wasser besprüht. Die Rauche/Dämpfe werden abgesaugt und über eine Emissionsminderungseinrichtung geleitet. Mit all diesen Techniken wird eine Minderung von Rauch-/Dämpfe- und Staubemissionen erzielt. Das eingesetzte Wasser muss einem Absetzbecken oder einer ähnlichen Einrichtung zur Feststoffabscheidung zugeführt werden. Ferner kann eine Wärmerückgewinnung vorgesehen werden. Das behandelte Wasser kann als Quenchwasser genutzt werden. Soweit möglich wird die Schlacke zwecks Rückgewinnung von Metallen aufgearbeitet. Wird die Schlacke mittels Wasserstrahl granuliert, verdampft das Wasser bei Kontakt mit der heißen Schlacke, und es fällt kein Abwasser an.

Bei Ferrochrom-Öfen werden die Rauche/Dämpfe aus der Schlackengranulation in einem Nass-EGR abgereinigt.

Darüber hinaus existieren auch Techniken zur Rückgewinnung von Legierungen aus der Schlacke durch Brechen und weitere Anreicherung der Legierungen unter Nutzung der unterschiedlichen Dichte der Schlacke und der Legierung.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Abwasseranfall, wenn ein Wasserbad eingesetzt wird

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Durch Investitionen in Schlackengranulations- und -zerkleinerungsanlagen kann die gesamte bei der Ferrochromerzeugung anfallende Schlacke als Nebenprodukt verkauft werden. Damit entfällt die Deponierung.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung der Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Finnland

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.6 Abwasser**8.3.6.1 Techniken zur Abwasservermeidung****Beschreibung**

Als Technik zur Abwasservermeidung kommt die Wiederverwendung von Kühlabwässern, behandeltem Abwasser einschließlich Niederschlagswasser im Prozess in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Die meisten Ferrolegierungsanlagen arbeiten mit einem geschlossenen Kühlkreislauf zur Minimierung des Wasserverbrauchs. Behandeltes Abwasser kann in bestimmten Prozessstufen genutzt werden und dort Frischwasser ersetzen bzw. den Anfall von Abwasser vermeiden.

In Nordeuropa, wo die Winter kalt sind, wird die indirekte Wasserkühlung in Durchlaufsystemen ohne nennenswerte Wärmebelastung des Aufnahmegewässers eingesetzt. Das Kühlabwasser wird zurück in den Fluss oder das Meer geleitet. In kalten Klimazonen kann das erwärmte Kühlwasser im Winter zum Auftauen genutzt werden (z.B. zur Vermeidung des Zufrierens von Häfen und damit verringerter Einsatz von Eisbrechern und Reduzierung der damit verbundenen Emissionen, usw.).

In Ferrochromfilterstaub-Deponien kann der Sickerwasseranfall durch Abdeckung der Deponiekörper reduziert werden. In diesem Fall wird das Niederschlagswasser getrennt vom Sickerwasser erfasst, das eventuell vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter zur Reduzierung des Chromgehalts behandelt werden muss.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Wasserverbrauchs
- Vermeidung von Wasserverschmutzung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Höherer Chemikalienverbrauch

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Alle Anlagen

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.6.2 Abwasserbehandlung

Beschreibung

Es kommen die in Abschnitt 2.12.6.2 beschriebenen Techniken in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Entfernung von gelösten Metallen, Feststoffen und sonstigen Komponenten bzw. zur Reduzierung dieser Schmutzfrachten muss das Abwasser vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter behandelt werden.

Das bei der Nassgasreinigung und Schlackengranulation anfallende Abwasser ist mit suspendierten Feststoffen belastet, die vor Rückführung des Wassers in den Prozess abgeschieden werden müssen. Zur Einhaltung der Einleitungsgrenzwerte für Schadstoffe muss der Wäscherabstoß u.U. einer Behandlung unterzogen werden. Hierzu können die in Unterkapitel 2.12 beschriebenen Techniken eingesetzt werden.

Beim Plasmadust-Prozess wird das Spülwasser des Nass-EGR, Granulierwasser und Wasser aus dem Schmelzanlagenbereich gesammelt und vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter in einer AWA behandelt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minimierung der Einleitung von Chrom(IV) und sonstigen schädlichen Verbindungen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 8.51: Anlage AB – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrochrom)

Abwasseranfallstelle	Abwasserreinigung	Abwasserparameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwertfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Niederschlagswasser und Prozessabwasser (ca. 95 % des behandelten Abwassers werden zur Metall- und Schlackenkühlung, Befuchtung des aufzubereitenden Staubs, usw. wiederverwendet)	Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung durch Flockung und Koagulation bei einem pH-Wert von 8–9 zur Fällung gelöster Metalle. Dosierung von Eisensulfat zur Reduktion von Cr(VI) zu Cr(III)	Pb	< 0,02	< 0,02	< 0,02	Einfache Stichprobe	3
		Zn	0,157	0,376	0,717		
		Cu	0,023	0,05	0,076		
		Hg	< 0,0005	< 0,0005	< 0,0005		
		Cd	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01		
		As	< 0,02	< 0,02	< 0,02		
		Ni	0,05	0,07	0,09		
		Cr ges.	0,05	0,15	0,20		
		Cr(VI)	0,01	0,02	0,04		
		N ges.	1,85	2,16	2,29		
		BSB ₅	11	12,74	15		
		CSB	58	67,3	77		
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	8	9	10		
		pH-Wert	7,7	7,85	7,95		
		Kohlenwasserstoffe	0,9	0,97	1,1		
Fluoride	2,5	3,6	6,5				
Gesamtcyanid	< 0,01	< 0,01	< 0,01				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.52: Anlage AC – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrochrom)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Emissionen ⁽¹⁾ (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Ma x.		
Prozess- u. Kühl-abwässer, Abwasser aus der nassen Sinter-abgasreinigung, FeCr-Schmelzöfen	Das Abwasser wird gesammelt und entweder direkt oder nach Filtration (Sandfilter) und Zentrifugation in Absetzteiche geleitet. Die Anlage besteht aus mehreren Teichen, in denen sich die Feststoffe und Metalle absetzen. Zur Verbesserung des Absetzverhaltens werden dem Abwasser Flockungsmittel zugegeben. Das Klarwasser aus dem letzten Teich wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt. Der Überlauf wird abgeleitet.	Zn	0,11	0,26	0,83	Wöchentliche Mischproben	29
		Ni	0,01	0,03	0,05		
		Cr ges. ⁽²⁾	0,05	0,09	0,15		
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	2	6,11	11,8		

(¹) Die berichteten Emissionswerte beziehen sich auf den gemeinsamen Abwasserkanal eines Stahlwerks und einer Ferrochromanlage.
(²) Die Cr_{ges.}-Konzentrationen im Abwasser aus der Ferrochromproduktion liegen bei 0,2–0,4 mg/l (angegeben als Wochenmittelwert).
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.53: Anlage N – Emissionen in das Wasser (Ferrosilicium)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Schadstoff	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen/Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Oberflächenwasser	Physikalische Behandlung (Sedimentation), keine chemische Behandlung	Zn	0,038	0,31	0,598	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	täglich
		Cu	0,009	0,019	0,030		
		Hg	< 0,0001	< 0,0001	< 0,0001		
		Mn	0,20	0,57	1,3		
		Cr(VI)	< 0,005	< 0,05	< 0,05		
		Al	< 0,1	0,2	0,41		
		BSB ₅	< 1	1,83	4		
		CSB	< 5	13,86	24		
Suspend. Feststoffe	< 2	11,24	47				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.54: Anlage U – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silicium)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Kühlwasser	Absetz-becken	BSB ₅	< 3	4,5	6	Diskontinuierliche Mischproben	2
		CSB	< 30	41	52		
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	n.v.	95	n.v.		
		Kohlenwasserstoffe	< 0,1	< 0,1	< 0,1		

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.55: Anlage V – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silicium)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Kühlwasser	Absetz-becken	CSB	10	19	27	Kontinuierliche Entnahme von Mischproben und Analyse	4

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.56: Anlage J – Emissionen in das Wasser (HC FeMn)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Abwasser aus der Abgasreinigung (Venturiwäscher)	Polymerzugabe, Sedimentation Flockungschemikalien: Eisensulfat und Polymer; Sandfilter und Aktivkohlefilter	Pb	0,011	0,047	0,177	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	monatlich
		Zn	0,002	0,648	8,56		täglich
		Cu	0,293	3,056	5,21		monatlich
		Cd	0,0012	0,0024	0,0053		
		As	0,028	0,056	0,08		
		Ni	0,582	0,94	1,41		
		Cr ges.		0,025			
		Co	0,95	1,762	3,4		
Mn	0,001	0,00477	0,021	täglich			

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.57: Anlage Z – Emissionen in das Wasser (HC FeMn)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Niederschlagswasser		Pb	0	0,14	0,8	Einfache Stichprobe	52
		Zn	0,01	1,18	7,87		12
		Mn	0,56	4,03	15,19		52
		Sonstige Metalle	1,8	8,24	19,5		12
		Fe	1,27	2,79	5,95		
		N ges.	5,32	11,92	16,22		
		P ges.	0,34	0,72	1,13		12
		BSB ₅	0	3	8		
		CSB	59	96	151		52
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	2	38,25	98		
		PAK	0	0,08	0,4		12

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.58: Anlage K – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC FeMn + MC FeMn + SiMn)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Abwasser aus der Abgasreinigung (Venturiwäscher)	Polymerzugabe, Sedimentation; Flockungschemikalien: Eisensulfat und Polymer; Sandfilter und Aktivkohlefilter	Pb	0,0082	0,034	0,165	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	monatlich
		Zn	0	0	0,0063		täglich
		Cu	0,256	2,502	6,62		monatlich
		Cd	0,001	0,0015	0,002		
		As	0,006	0,017	0,04		
		Ni	0,228	0,816	1,46		täglich
		Cr ges.		0,025			
		Co	0,642	1,346	2,12		
		Mn	0,06	0,31	4,56		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.59: Anlage M – Emissionen in das Wasser (FeMn + SiMn)

Abwasseranfallstelle	Abwasserreinigung	Abwasserparameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwertfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Oberflächenwasser	Physikalische (Sedimentation) und chemische Behandlung	Pb	< 0,005	< 0,00519	< 0,011	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	täglich
		Cd	< 0,02	< 0,02	< 0,02		
		As	< 0,004	< 0,005	< 0,005		
		Ni	< 0,01	< 0,02	0,06		
		Cr ges.	< 0,01	< 0,05	< 0,05		
		Fe	< 0,05	0,14	0,27		
		N ges.	< 5	< 5	< 5		
		BSB ₅	< 1	1,4	5		
		CSB	< 5	11,36	17		
		Suspend. Feststoffe	< 2	7,8	12		
		PAK	< 0,003	< 0,003	< 0,003		
		BTEX	< 0,001	< 0,003	< 0,0035		
		TPH	< 0,05	0,021	0,21		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.60: Anlage O – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC SiMn + LC FeMn + MC FeMn)

Abwasseranfallstelle	Abwasserreinigung	Abwasserparameter	Einheit			Messwertfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen/Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Kühlwasser	Physikalische Behandlung (Sedimentation), keine chemische Behandlung	pH-Wert	7,9	8,2	8,4	Einfache Stichprobe	365
		Temperaturdifferenz (°C)	0	1,5	3		12
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	2	5,8	14		8
		Kohlenwasserstoffe	< 0,05	0,06	0,13		4

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.61: Anlage I – Emissionen in das Wasser (LC SiMn + HC SiMn)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
Abwasser aus der Abgas-reinigung (Venturiwäscher)	Flockung, Absetzbecken + Sand- und Aktivkohlefilter	Pb	n.v.	0,095	n.v.	Kontinuierliche Mischproben
		Zn	0,01	0,02	0,13	
		Cu	n.v.	0,21	n.v.	
		Cd	n.v.	0,025	n.v.	
		As	n.v.	0,051	n.v.	
		Mn	0,1	0,15	1,3	
		Cr ges.	n.v.	0,15	n.v.	
		Suspendierte Feststoffe	1	4,77	21	
		PAK	0,0009	0,014	0,29	
		Cyanide	n.v.	1,35	n.v.	

Anmerkung: n.v. = nicht verfügbar
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.62: Anlage Y – Emissionen in das Wasser (Silico-Mangan)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
		Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Kühlwasser	Pb	0,0025	0,025	0,23	Diskontinuierliche Mischproben	monatlich
	Zn	0,009	0,6	8,7		wöchentlich
	Cu	0,001	1,8	22,2		
	Mn	0,022	1,72	23,3		
	Suspendierte Feststoffe	1,2	13,5	69,7		
	PAK (B6)	0,0001	0,02	0,17		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.63: Anlage B – Emissionen in das Wasser (Molybdänit-Röstanlage)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-reinigung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (g/d)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Abwasser aus der Schwefelsäureanlage (Abschlammwasser aus dem Kühlkreislauf wird als Zusatzwasser in der Nassgasreinigung genutzt).	H ₂ O ₂ -Zugabe zur SO ₂ -Eliminierung. Solventextraktion zur Abscheidung/Rückgewinnung von Rhenium. Zugabe von Natriumhydro-sulfit zur Mo-, Re-, Cu-, Pb-, As- und Se-Fällung. Filtration zur Feststoffabscheidung	Pb	0,1	0,3	1,0	Kontinuierliche Mischproben	10
		Zn	0,3	53	380		1
		Cu	0,1	0,3	1,1		
		Sn	0,1	0,4	3,3		
		Bi	0,1	0,4	2,3		
		F angeg. als HF	1,1 kg/d	4,4 kg/d	10,8 kg/d	10	
H ₂ SO ₄	0 kg/d	2318 kg/d	6022 kg/d				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 8.64: Anlage X – Emissionen in das Wasser (Röstanlage und Ferromolybdänproduktion)

Abwasser-anfallstelle	Abwasser-behandlung	Abwasser-parameter	Einheit (mg/l)			Messwert-erfassung	Messintervall (Anz. Messungen pro Jahr)
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Prozessabwässer, Kühlabwässer und Niederschlagswasser	Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung: Flockung (Se-Entfernung) und chemische Fällung (von Mo, As, usw.) mit FeCl ₃	Pb	0,008	0,0081	0,0082	diskontinuierliche Mischproben	3
		Zn	0,035	0,067	0,088		12
		Cu	0,016	0,021	0,028		
		As	0,017	0,017	0,017		
		Mo ges.	0,015	1,29	1,70		
		Se ges.	0,0181	0,0181	0,0181		
		F ⁻	1,1	1,2	1,3		
		SO ₄ ⁻	10	375	680	3	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höherer Chemikalienverbrauch

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in BE, ES, FI, FR, NL und NO

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.7 Prozessrückstände

Die bereits in Unterkapitel 8.1 und 8.2 als angewandte Techniken diskutierten Prozesse und Recyclingrouten sind insgesamt zu berücksichtigende Maßnahmen im Sinne der BVT. Zur Reduzierung nachteiliger Umwelteinwirkungen von Prozessrückständen kommt prozessintegrierte Maßnahmen, die zu einem geringeren Anfall von Rückständen führen, die größte Bedeutung zu. Verbleibende Rückstandsmengen nach Anwendung von Primärmaßnahmen sollten soweit wie möglich recycelt oder wiederverwendet werden. Die spezifischen Einsatzstoffe bestimmen letztlich die Prozessauswahl. Die in Unterkapitel 2.9 erörterten Techniken sollten ebenfalls in Verbindung mit diesen Prozessen berücksichtigt werden.

8.3.7.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Rückständen und Abfällen aus der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Beschreibung

Die in Betracht zu ziehenden Techniken sind das Recyceln und die Wiederverwendung der anfallenden Schlacken (sofern es sich um ein Nebenprodukt und nicht um Abfall handelt) und Stäube/Schlämme aus der Abgasreinigung. Weitere Informationen zu Recycling- und Nutzungstechniken sind in Abschnitt 8.2.5 zu finden.

Technische Beschreibung

Siehe Abschnitt 8.2.5.

Tabelle 8.65 zeigt am Beispiel von Ferrochromschlacke eine Gegenüberstellung der mittels Säulenversuch bei einem Wasser/Feststoff-Verhältnis von 10 ermittelten Eluatwerte und der Kriterien für die Annahme auf Deponien für inerte Abfälle und nichtgefährliche Abfälle.

Tabelle 8.65: Eluatwerte von Ferrochromschlacke

Metall	Ferrochromschlacken	Kriterien für die Annahme auf Deponien für inerte Abfälle	Kriterien für die Annahme auf Deponien für nichtgefährliche Abfälle
Gesamtchrom	0,048–0,112	0,5	10
Arsen	< 0,105	0,5	2
Cadmium	< 0,011	0,04	1
Quecksilber	< 0,01	0,01	0,2
Fluorid	4,22-6,30	10	150
Molybdän	< 0,056	0,5	10
Nickel	< 0,105	0,4	10
Zink	< 0,941	4	50

Ökologischer Nutzen

Einsparung natürlicher Ressourcen und Verringerungen der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.3.8 Energie**8.3.8.1 Techniken zur Energierückgewinnung aus halbgeschlossenen Öfen****Beschreibung**

Als Technik kommt die Nutzung des Abgaswärmeinhalts zur Erzeugung von elektrischer oder Wärmeenergie oder beidem in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen wird das sich im Schmelzprozess bildende CO-Gas vollständig innerhalb des Ofens oxidiert. Das den Ofen verlassende Heißgas hat eine Temperatur von 400-800°C mit Spitzenwerten von bis zu 1200 °C. Hier bietet es sich, an den Ofen mit einem

integrierten Energierückgewinnungssystem bestehend aus den folgenden Komponenten auszustatten:

- Absaughaube mit Abgaskanal
- Abhitzeessel
- Speisewassersystem
- Wärmeverteilungssystem oder Dampfturbine mit Generator und Kondensator

Im Abhitzeessel wird die Abwärme der heißen Abgase aus den Ofenprozessen in Form von überhitztem Dampf zurückgewonnen. Es kommen vergleichsweise konventionelle Wasserrohrkessel mit Überhitzer, Economiser und Kondensator in Kombination mit einem effizienten System zur Reinigung der Heizflächen zum Einsatz, die aufgrund des hohen Abgasstaubgehalts schnell verschmutzen.

Die Absaughaube oberhalb des Ofens ist den hohen Ofentemperaturen ausgesetzt und wird konventionell durch ein keramisch ausgekleidetes Wasserrohrsystem gekühlt. Ein Teil der Ofenabwärme gehen mit dem Kopfhäubenkühlwasser verloren. Zur Energierückgewinnung kann die Kopfhäube über ungeschützte Hochdruckwasserrohrschlangen gekühlt und das heiße Wasser zur Dampferzeugung im Abhitzeesselsystem genutzt werden. Derartige Hauben existieren und leisten einen erheblichen Beitrag zur Energierückgewinnung. Der Dampf kann in einer Kondensations- oder Gegendruckturbine zur Stromerzeugung genutzt oder an benachbarte Industrieanlagen verkauft werden. Das Wärmerückgewinnungssystem kann zur Warmwassererzeugung konzipiert werden, das vor Ort für Heizzwecke eingesetzt werden kann (siehe Abbildung 8.22).

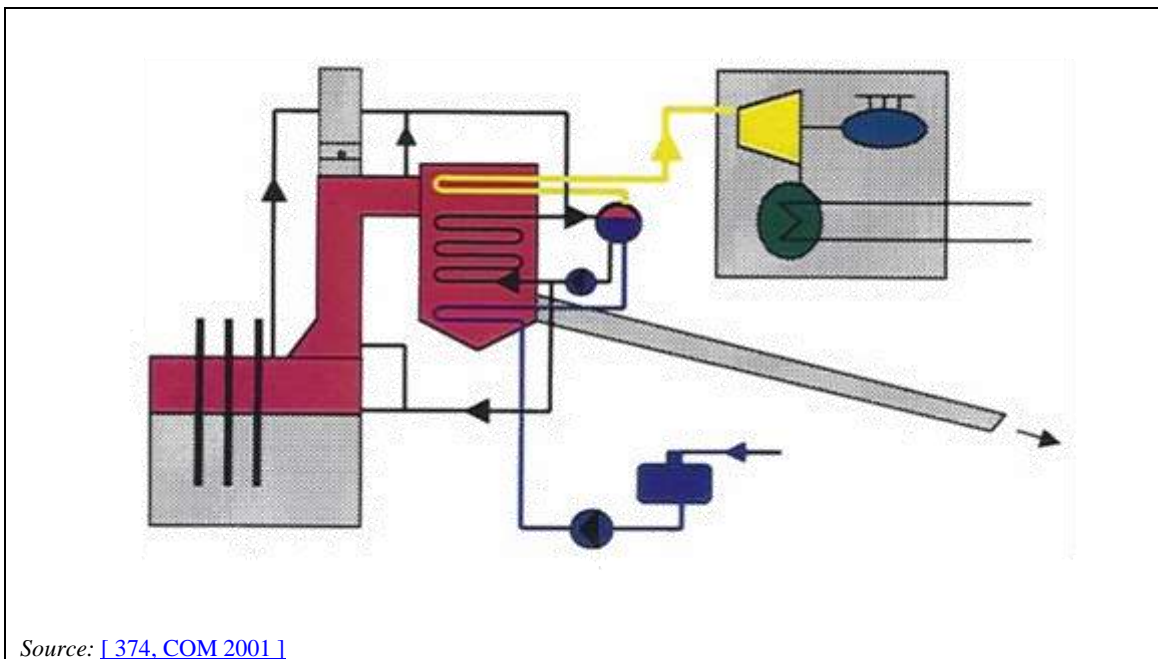


Abbildung 8.22: Energierückgewinnung bei einem halbgeschlossenen Ofen

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung des Gesamtenergieverbrauchs des Prozesses
- Reduzierung von Emissionen in die Luft (in den meisten Fällen ersetzt die zurückgewonnene Energie fossile Brennstoffe wie Öl oder Kohle)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Wird die Abwärme zur Stromerzeugung genutzt, beträgt die Rückgewinnungsrate 15–35 % der im Prozess eingesetzten elektrischen Energie. Alternativ kann eine Mitteldruckdampfanzapfung

vorgesehen und der Mitteldruckdampf in ein Fernwärmenetz eingespeist werden. In diesem Fall wird eine Energierückgewinnung von ca. 80–90 % erreicht, wobei jedoch nur 20 % der Abwärme als Strom zurückgewonnen werden. Da die Nachfrage nach Fernwärme übers Jahr schwankt, stellt die Kraft-Wärme-Kopplung die effizienteste Lösung dar, wobei Wärmeenergie nur dann erzeugt wird, wenn sie benötigt wird.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Höherer anlagentechnischer Aufwand für das Ofenabgassystem

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Die beschriebene Technologie kann in Neuanlagen und bestehenden Anlagen angewendet werden. In bestehenden Anlagen lohnt sich die Energierückgewinnung, wenn die Energie in einer Form bereitgestellt werden kann, die direkt in der Anlage oder im Anlagenumfeld eingesetzt werden kann.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Energierückgewinnungssysteme erfordern einen hohen Investitionsaufwand. Unter Berücksichtigung der lokalen Energiepreise, der Produktionszeiten und übers Jahr schwankenden Nachfrage ist die zu erwartende Rendite u.U. nicht hoch genug, um Investitionen in die Energierückgewinnung zu rechtfertigen.

Die folgenden Ergebnisse (siehe Tabelle 8.66) sind als Anhaltswerte zu verstehen, da die exakten Kosten sehr stark von den anlagenspezifischen Gegebenheiten abhängen.

Die Investitionskosten für eine Energierückgewinnungsanlage zur Erzeugung von 70–100 MW Strom werden mit EUR 70–100 Millionen angegeben.

Tabelle 8.66: Beispiele für die Wärmerückgewinnung bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen

Technologie	Abwärmeträger	Wärmerückgewinnung als	Temperaturniveau der Abwärme (°C)	Rückgewinnung (%)	m EUR/MWh
	Abgas / Kühlwasser / Thermoöl	Warmwasser	50–200	75–95	0,4–2
Wärmepumpe	Wasser/ Abgas	Warmwasser (50–90 °C)	25–60	COP: 3–5	30–50
Rauchrohrkessel, wasserbasiert	Abgas	Sattdampf 6-15 bar 160-200 °C	200–600	30–65	25–50
Wasserrohrkessel, wasserbasiert	Abgas	Überhitzter Dampf 8–60 bar, 280–480 °C	400–1000	30–75	40–150
ORC-Kessel/ Turbine	Abgas	Elektrizität	150–500	10–15	70–120
Wasserkessel / Turbine	Abgas	Elektrizität	500–1000	20–35	300–400
Thermoelektrisches Modul		Elektrizität	Wärmestrahlung 800–1500	5–10	

COP: Leistungskoeffizient
 ORC: Organischer Rankine-Kreisprozess
 Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012.]

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Norwegen und Schweden

Literatur

[148, Kolbeinsen, L. et al. 1995] [149, Schei, A. et al. 1998], [154, Lindstad, T. et al. 1994], [183, ABB 1999], [184, Elkem 1999], [196, Finkeldei, L. 1999]

8.3.8.2 Energierückgewinnung aus geschlossenen Elektrolichtbogenöfen

Beschreibung

Als Technik kommt die Nutzung des CO-reichen Abgases der geschlossenen Elektrolichtbogenöfen als Sekundärbrennstoff in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Unter der Annahme dass der gesamte Kohlenstoff zu CO umgewandelt wird, d.h. keine CO-Umsetzung, kann der Kohlenstoff theoretisch als CO-Gas zurückgewonnen werden [255, VDI 2010]. Im Fall von geschlossenen Elektrolichtbogenöfen kann das CO-reiche Gas (40–90 % CO) als Brennstoff in anderen Prozessen genutzt werden [407, Euroalliages 2013]

Vor Einsatz als Sekundärbrennstoff wird das CO-Gas in einem Nasswäscher gereinigt. Eine mögliche Anwendung ist die Verbrennung unter Luftzugabe in einem Dampfkessel. Der erzeugte Dampf wird zum Antrieb eines Hoch- und Niederdruckturbinenstrangs genutzt und in Form von elektrischer Energie zurückgewonnen (siehe Abbildung 8.23).

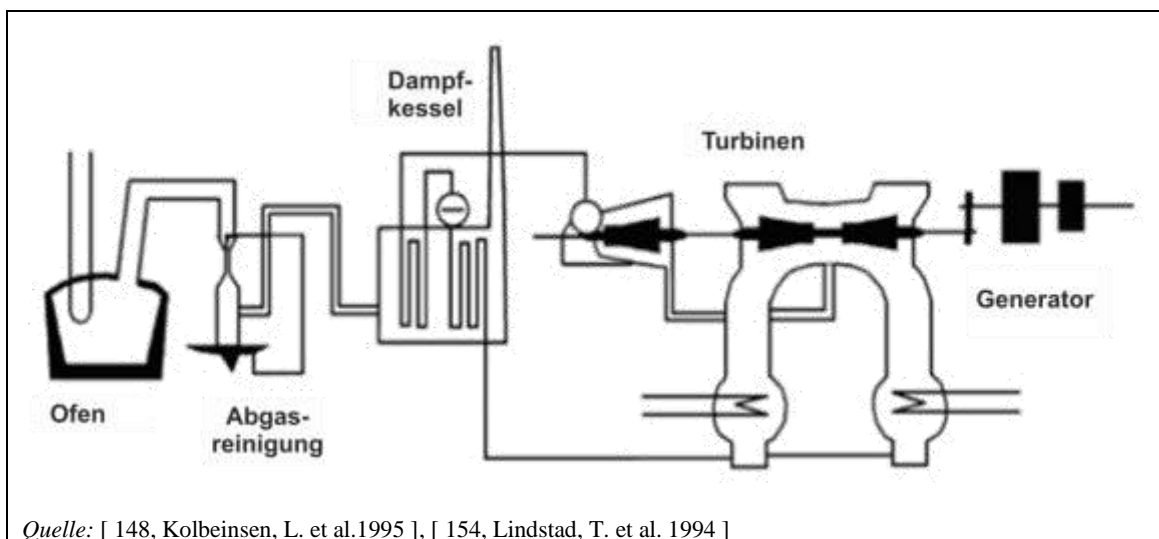


Abbildung 8.23: Direkte Nutzung von CO-reichem Gas zur Erzeugung elektrischer Energie

Neben der Stromerzeugung kann das CO-Gas auch zur Trocknung und Beheizung der Gießpfannen genutzt oder in eine Versorgungsringleitung der Anlage zur Nutzung als Sekundärbrennstoff für diverse Zwecke eingespeist werden. Den größten Nutzen erreicht man bei direkter Verbrennung als Substitut für fossile Brennstoffe, z.B. Schweröl oder Kohle. Bei der Herstellung von Ferrochrom, Ferromangan und Silico-Mangan kann das CO-Gas zur Trocknung von Koks und anderen Einsatzstoffen genutzt werden. Des Weiteren kann das CO-Gas auch als Brennstoff in der Stahlbandsinteranlage zur Reduzierung des Primärenergieverbrauchs des Zündofens eingesetzt werden. Bei der Herstellung von Ferrochrom wird CO-Gas zur Vorwärmung der Charge eingesetzt, womit sich Stromeinsparungen von 70–90 kWh pro 100 °C Temperaturerhöhung erzielen lassen. Eine weitere Möglichkeit ist die Aufbereitung zu Synthesegas, das in einem benachbarten Stahl- oder Chemiewerk als Ausgangsstoff eingesetzt werden kann [138, Niemelä, P. 1999].

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Gesamtenergiebedarfs des Prozesses
- Reduzierung von Emissionen in die Luft (in den meisten Fällen ersetzt die zurückgewonnene Energie fossile Brennstoffe wie Öl oder Kohle)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

- Erzeugte Dampfmenge: 35–40 t/h
- Energierückgewinnung: 70 GWh/a entsprechend 13,5 % des elektrischen Energieeintrags

Beim Reduktionsprozess entstehen bei guter Abdichtung des Ofens 650–750 Nm³ CO-Gas pro Tonne Ferrochrom mit einer Reaktionsenergie von 7550–8300 MJ (2100–2300 kWh) (Outokumpu). 66% des elektrischen Energieeintrags werden zurückgewonnen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Diese Technik ist auf neue und bestehende Anlagen zur Herstellung von Ferrochrom, Ferromangan und Silicomangan in geschlossenen Öfen anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten betragen ca. EUR 0,025 per kWh (bei einem Realzinssatz von 7 % und einer Standzeit von 15 Jahren).

Die in Betracht kommenden Energierückgewinnungstechniken hängen in hohem Maße von den standortspezifischen Randbedingungen ab, wie z.B. Energiepreise, Bauzeiten und das Vorhandensein potenzieller Abnehmer.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen in Norwegen und Finnland

Literatur

[148, Kolbeinsen, L. et al. 1995] [149, Schei, A. et al. 1998], [154, Lindstad, T. et al. 1994], [233, COM 2008], [255, VDI 2010], [371, Pekka et al. 2014]

8.3.8.3 Energierückgewinnung aus sonstigen Öfen**Beschreibung**

Als Technik kommt die Rückgewinnung der Ofenabhitze als Warmwasser in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Herstellung von Ferrovanadium (insbesondere von Nickeloxid und Vanadiumoxid in Österreich), kann die Prozessabwärme in Form von Warmwasser für die Beheizung von Bürogebäuden und Arbeitsplätzen, für die Heißwasserbehandlung und teilweise zum Frostschutz genutzt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Reduzierung des Gesamtenergieverbrauchs des Prozesses
- Reduzierung von Emissionen in die Luft (in den meisten Fällen ersetzt die zurückgewonnene Energie fossile Brennstoffe wie Öl oder Kohle)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs

Beispielanlagen

Eine Anlage in Österreich

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

8.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Die folgenden Techniken befinden sich derzeit noch in Entwicklung, d.h. sie sind in der Ferrolegierungsindustrie noch nicht voll etabliert.

- Einsatz eines Drehherdofens zur Vorreduktion von Chromit
- Schmelzreduktionsverfahren, bei denen die gesamte Schmelzenergie zur Umwandlung von Chromit zu Ferrochrom über Kohle und Sauerstoff oder sauerstoffangereicherte Luft in den Prozess eingebracht wird
- Geschlossen Öfen für die Herstellung von Ferrosilicium und Siliciummetall (Entwicklung noch nicht erfolgreich abgeschlossen)
- Einsatz eines Wirbelschichtreaktors zur Molybdänitröstung
- Recyceln von Schlacke aus der Siliciumgewinnung zur Reduzierung des Energie- und Rohstoffverbrauchs bei der Silico-Manganerzeugung [244, France 2008]
- Vorbehandlung der Erze (Trocknung, Vorreduktion, usw.) in der Manganherstellung vor Aufgabe in den Schmelzofen [407, Euroalliages 2013]

9 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE NICKEL AND COBALT

9.1 Applied processes and techniques

Nickel is produced from oxidic (laterite and saprolite) or sulphidic ore, about 60 % of the nickel comes from sulphide deposits and 40 % from oxide deposits. There are several variations in the processes used to produce nickel from these ores and these variations are dependent on the grade of the concentrate and also on the other metals that are present in the material [92, Laine et al. 1998].

Cobalt is usually present in nickel and copper ores and is recovered during their production. Refining of the recovered by-product that contains cobalt is performed by a combination of processes governed by the composition of the concentrate and the physical and chemical characteristics of the final product. Cobalt arsenide ores are also sources of cobalt. These ores are roasted to remove the majority of arsenic as arsenic oxide [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]. However, the process is not used in the EU.

Table 9.1 shows the composition of some ores.

Table 9.1: Composition of some ores

Source of ore	Type	Ni (%)	Cu (%)	Co (%)
Murrin Murrin (Australia)	Laterite	1.07	NA	0.08
Cerro Matoso (Colombia)	Laterite	2.16	NA	NA
Selebi-Phikwe (Botswana)	Sulphide	0.77	NA	NA
Sudbury area (Canada)	Sulphide	1.18	1.73	NA
Raglan (Canada)	Sulphide	2.56	0.71	NA
Vale, Copper Cliff (Canada)	Sulphide	1.55	2	0.04
Cosmos (Australia)	Sulphide	5.7	0.2	0.1
Mount Keith (Australia)	Sulphide	0.6	0	NA
NB: NA=not available				

Secondary nickel and cobalt are consumed directly in the form of remelted scrap and other recycled products, generally in the production of ferro-nickel and stainless steel [92, Laine, L. 1998]. Other secondary materials such as catalysts and precipitator dusts are recovered in the primary smelting processes, usually in the slag furnace.

Because these metals are so closely associated, their production processes are dealt with together as far as possible [92, Laine, L. 1998].

9.1.1 Nickel production

9.1.1.1 Oxidic ores

In laterite ores, nickel and cobalt are bound with iron and manganese oxides or silica compounds and are difficult to upgrade to a concentrate. Smelting of these ores with a source of carbon in an electric furnace can be used. Ferro-nickel is produced or a nickel matte can be made after the addition of sulphur. The generic flowsheet is shown in Figure 9.1.

Prior to smelting, the ore is usually preheated or calcined in a rotary kiln. [106, Raffinot, P. 1993]. An electric furnace is then usually used for smelting.

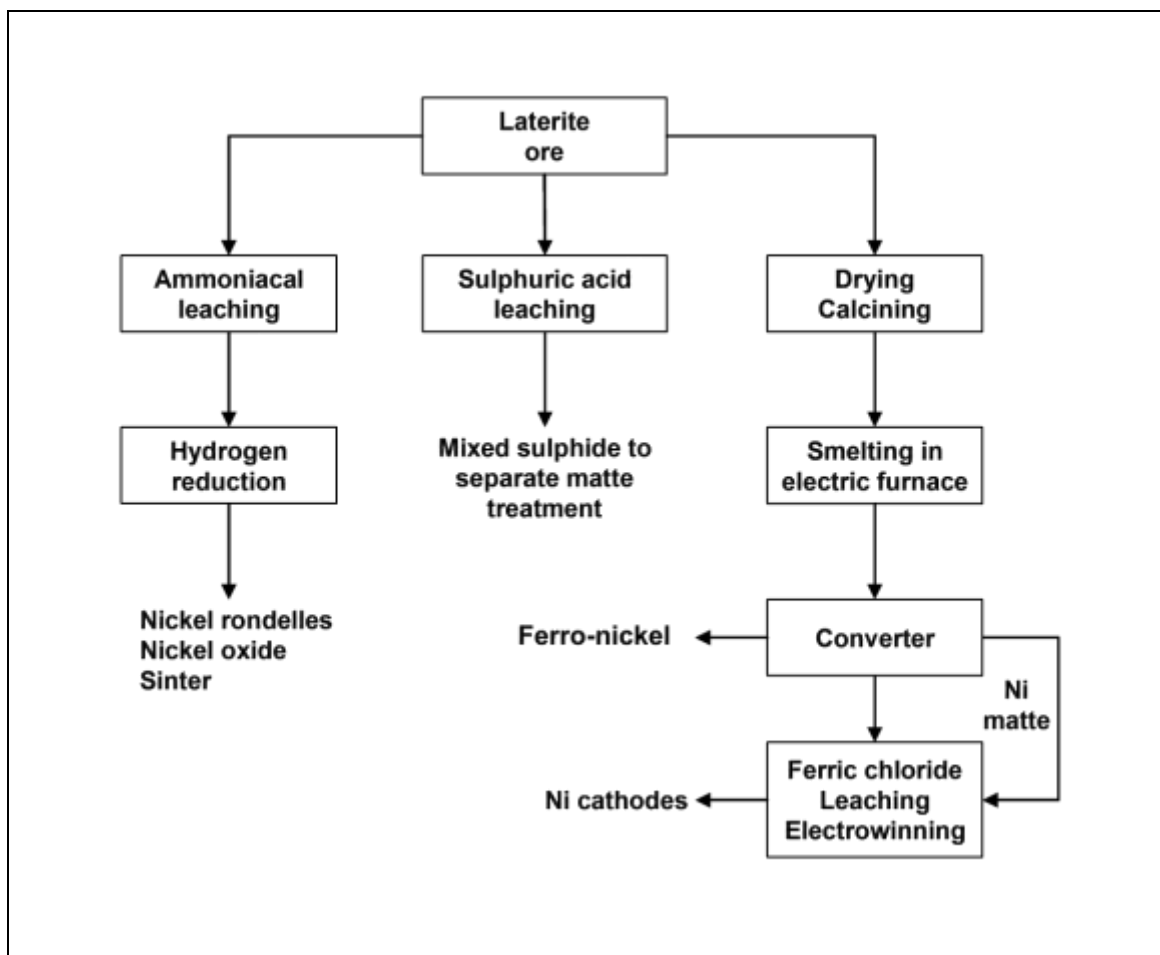


Figure 9.1: Generic flowsheet for nickel production from laterite ores

Saprolite ores can be smelted with sulphur so that the nickel oxide is converted to a nickel sulphide matte and iron is removed as a slag [106, Raffinot, P. 1993]. The matte is treated in the same manner as matte produced from sulphidic ores.

Smelting to ferro-nickel accounts for a large proportion of nickel production from laterite ores. These processes are discussed under ferro-alloys in Section 8.1.4. Leaching of laterite with ammonia is also used to extract nickel [19, HMIP (UK) 1994], [56, Knuutila, K. 1997], [94, Laine, L. 1998] and this process is becoming more widespread. Although conversion of nickel oxide to impure nickel and then to nickel carbonyl, which is volatile, is used to produce refined nickel, the nickel oxide is produced from the smelting of a sulphidic ore. The laterite ores generally have a maximum nickel content of 3% and are therefore not used directly in this process.

The pressure leaching of laterites with sulphuric acid is principally a simple and straightforward process. The temperature, pressure and other parameters may vary from case to case to achieve the best possible metallurgical conditions depending on the ore and products in question and other objectives. The temperature of the leaching autoclaves is usually between 230 °C and 260 °C and pressures of up to 43 bar are used. Oxygen can also be used in the process.

The resultant solution is purified either by modern solvent extraction methods or by traditional precipitation methods. For example, hydrogen sulphide is used to selectively precipitate nickel and cobalt sulphides, which are sent for further metal recovery. The solution can be neutralised so that iron precipitates. Nickel and cobalt will be precipitated and re-leached with ammonia.

Solvent extraction is used to separate nickel and cobalt chlorides or sulphates. Metallic nickel can be produced by electrowinning and cobalt can be precipitated as cobalt sulphide. Alternatively, nickel and cobalt can be recovered as metal powders using hydrogen reduction.

Table 9.2 shows the processes used in the EU-28.

Table 9.2: Processes used in the EU-28

Company name	Location	Industry sector	Process description
Eramet	Sandouville, France	Ni metal producer, Ni salts producer (Ni chloride, Ni hydroxycarbonate)	Nickel refining by a hydrometallurgical process, receiving imported nickel matte which is ground, dissolved with chlorine, purified and refined by electrowinning (NiCl ₂ salt and Ni metal production)
Xstrata Nickel	Kristiansand, Norway	Ni metal producer	Nickel refining by a hydrometallurgical process, receiving matte which is grained, dissolved with chlorine, purified and refined by electrowinning (Ni metal production)
Norilsk Nickel	Harjavalta, Finland	Ni metal producer, Ni salts producer (Ni sulphate, Ni hydroxycarbonate)	Nickel refining by electrowinning and hydrogen reduction
Boliden	Harjavalta, Finland	Nickel smelting	Sulphidic ore concentrates brought to the plant. Direct Outotec Nickel flash smelting (DON process). Production of Ni matte from sulphidic concentrates. Boliden also operates a copper flash smelter at the same site, producing copper anodes from sulphidic concentrates. The emissions of the nickel smelter and copper smelter are inseparable and thus emissions reported originate from both smelters. The dust emissions are monitored in three stacks: ventilation gases, Ni drying plant and Cu drying plant
Vale	Clydach, Swansea, UK	Ni metal producer, Ni sulphate producer (in China, not Clydach), Ni chloride producer (in China, not Clydach)	Imported nickel oxide. Refining of nickel using the carbonyl process

9.1.1.2 Sulphidic ores

Nickel-bearing sulphidic ores can be concentrated, e.g. by flotation, to upgrade the nickel content. Generally, nickel concentrates are produced containing 7–25 % nickel, which makes further processing easier. Sulphidic concentrates can also be dried in rotary dryers, steam-heated coil dryers or fluidised bed dryers. Feeding dry sulphidic concentrate to a primary smelting furnace, like a flash smelting furnace, enhances process performance and reduces the energy consumption and exhaust gas flow. Concentrates and sand used as flux are dried to reduce the moisture content from 7–8 % to about 0.2 % prior to the smelting process. The nickel concentrates are usually smelted under oxidising conditions to remove iron sulphide and other gangue materials from the concentrate to produce a nickel matte. The Outotec flash furnace is used in Europe; the Outotec and INCO flash furnaces and electric or shaft furnaces are used elsewhere in the world.

The nickel is recovered in a sulphide matte that contains 35–70 % nickel, cobalt and copper. The matte can be treated in a Peirce-Smith converter or alternatively it can be granulated or slowly cooled before a hydrometallurgical recovery stage [139, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999]. The converter stage is not used in Europe.

Important components of the nickel mattes are cobalt, copper and precious metals. The slag produced during smelting also contains recoverable metal and is treated in an electric furnace to produce more nickel matte. This can be granulated and treated separately [92, Laine et al. 1998], [94, Laine, L. 1998]. Secondary materials are sometimes recovered in the electric furnace. Figure 9.2 gives an overview of the process options.

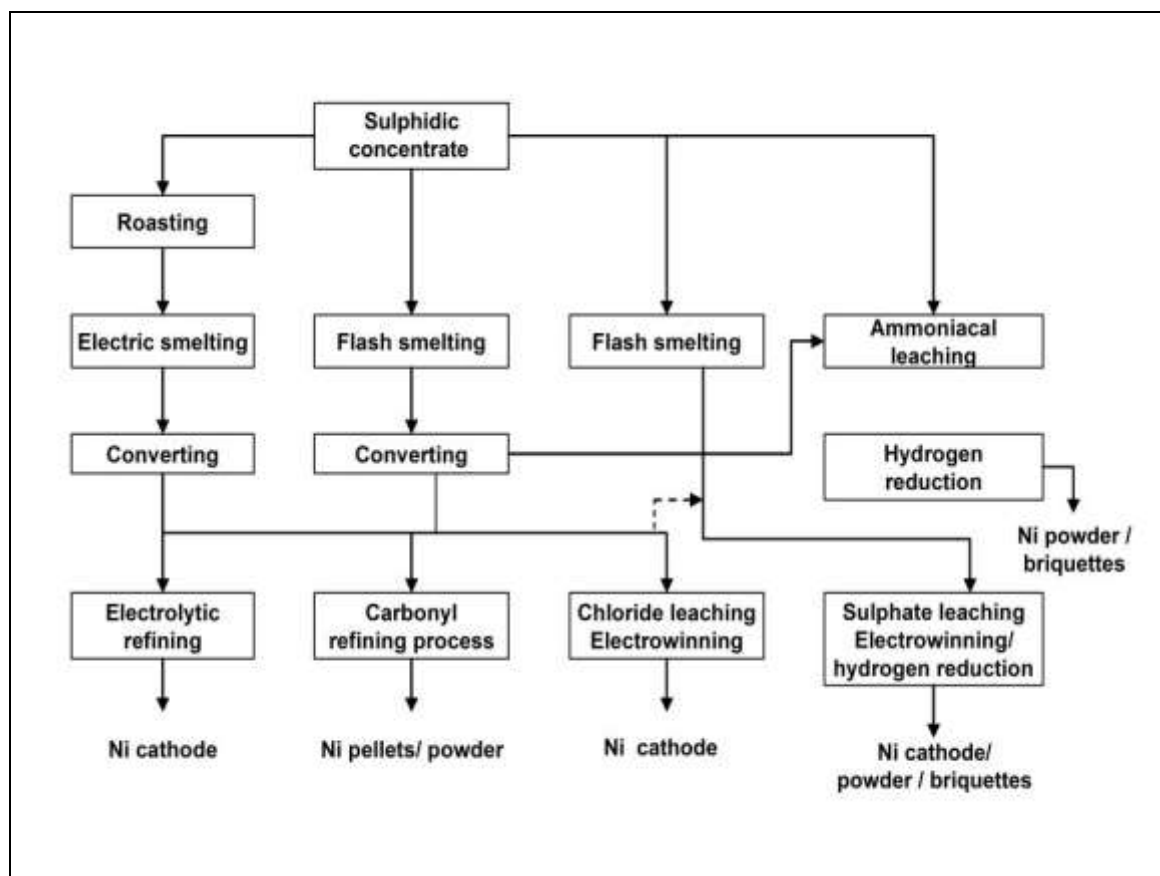


Figure 9.2: Generic flowsheet for the production of nickel from sulphidic concentrates

9.1.1.2.1 Conventional flash smelting process

Conventional smelting processes are used to remove iron and other gangue materials from sulphidic concentrates to produce nickel matte. Worldwide there are five smelters that use this process. Two of these use a flash smelting furnace designed by BHP Billiton (formerly Western Mining Corporation), where the smelting and slag cleaning furnaces have been built together to form one larger unit.

There are differences in operations between the smelters. The most visible is the matte grade but variations in the raw material composition also cause some differences. The generic flowsheet is shown below in Figure 9.3.

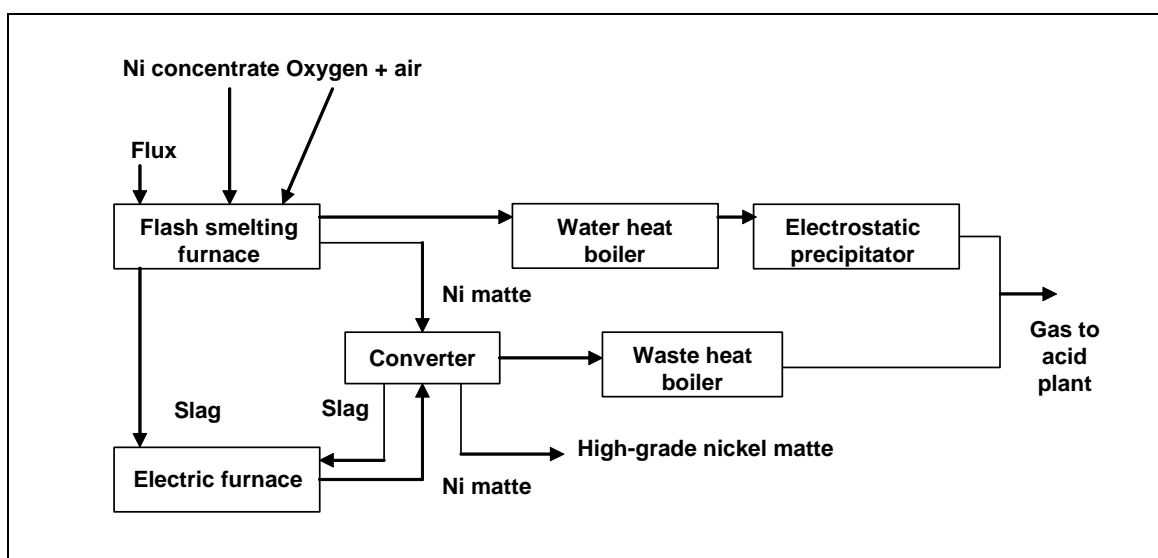


Figure 9.3: Conventional flash smelting process

9.1.1.2.2 Direct Outotec Nickel (DON) process

The DON process combines both smelting and converting to produce a high-grade matte which is further treated hydrometallurgically, [310, Makinen T., Taskinen P. 2006]

The flash smelting furnace is based on the utilisation of energy contained in the raw material itself to drive the smelting process. The dried concentrate and flux mixture is fed continuously with oxygen-enriched air through the concentrate burner into the vertical reaction shaft of a sealed furnace where the reaction between oxygen and concentrate particles takes place rapidly in suspension. Some of the sulphide compounds in the feed ignite, oxidise and release heat, thus acting as a fuel for the process. The operation uses oxygen enrichment to reach levels of about 30–90 % oxygen in the process air. The degree of oxygen enrichment is determined by the concentrate quality and the heat balance requirement. Oil burners are used to produce additional energy, when needed.

Molten phases are collected in the horizontal settler part of the flash smelting furnace where slag and matte form separate layers. The slag is laundered semi-continuously to the electric slag cleaning furnace where it is treated with coke and a sulphidising agent in order to recover the valuable metals left in the slag. The matte is periodically tapped and granulated by water quenching of the sprinkled melt. The solid matte granules settle in the bottom section of the tank, from where they are pumped with water to a dewatering screen. The granules are lifted in a bucket elevator into an intermediate bin and then taken on the belt conveyor for grinding and to the hydrometallurgical nickel plant.

The process is shown in Figure 9.4.

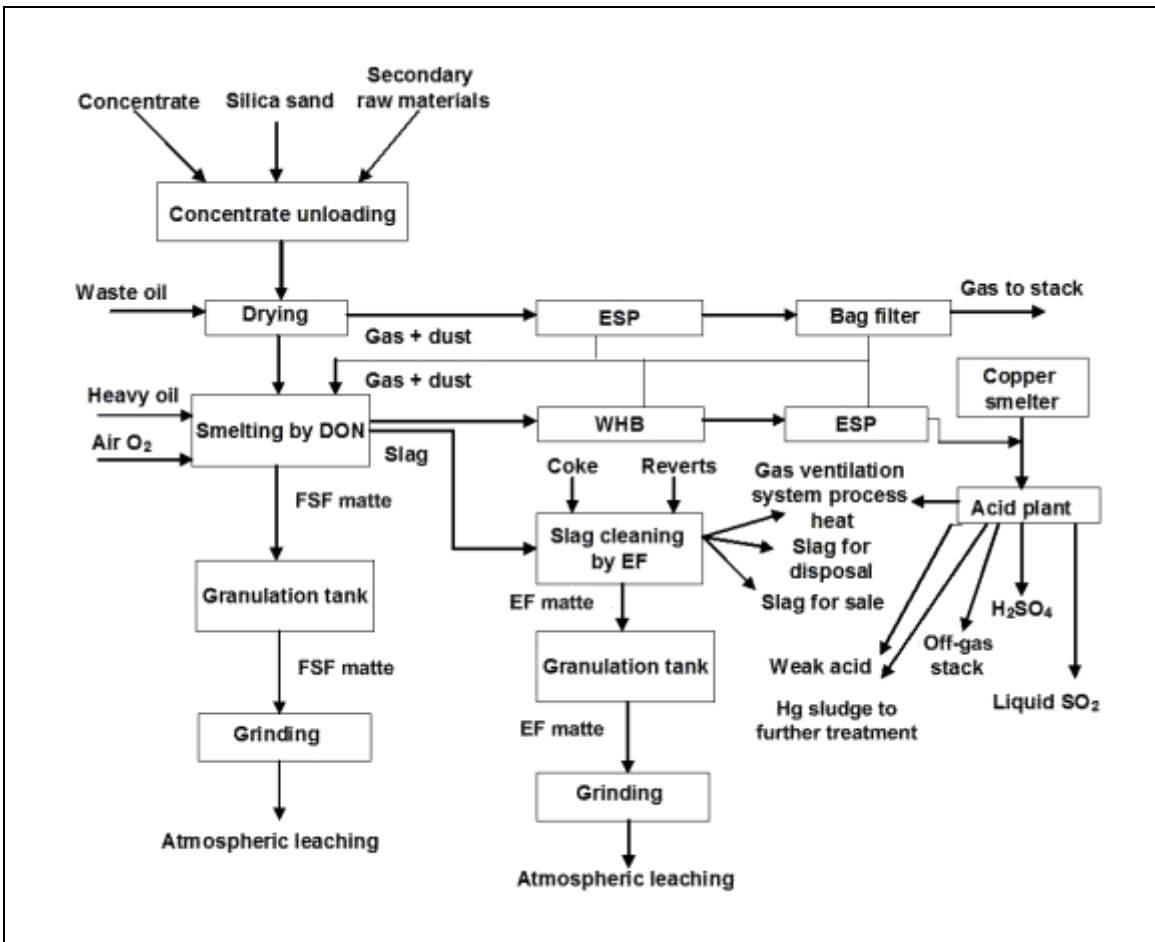


Figure 9.4: The DON process

9.1.1.3 Matte refining processes

The mattes produced by the smelting processes must be treated further in order to recover and refine the metal content. Nickel matte must go through a multistage refining process to reject iron and recover copper, cobalt and precious metals. Matte can be treated pyrometallurgically but hydrometallurgical processes are more commonly used. A variety of electrorefining, leaching, reduction and precipitation processes are carried out. Nickel is recovered from purified solutions by electrowinning or by hydrogen reduction.

Figure 9.5 shows the generic processing routes.

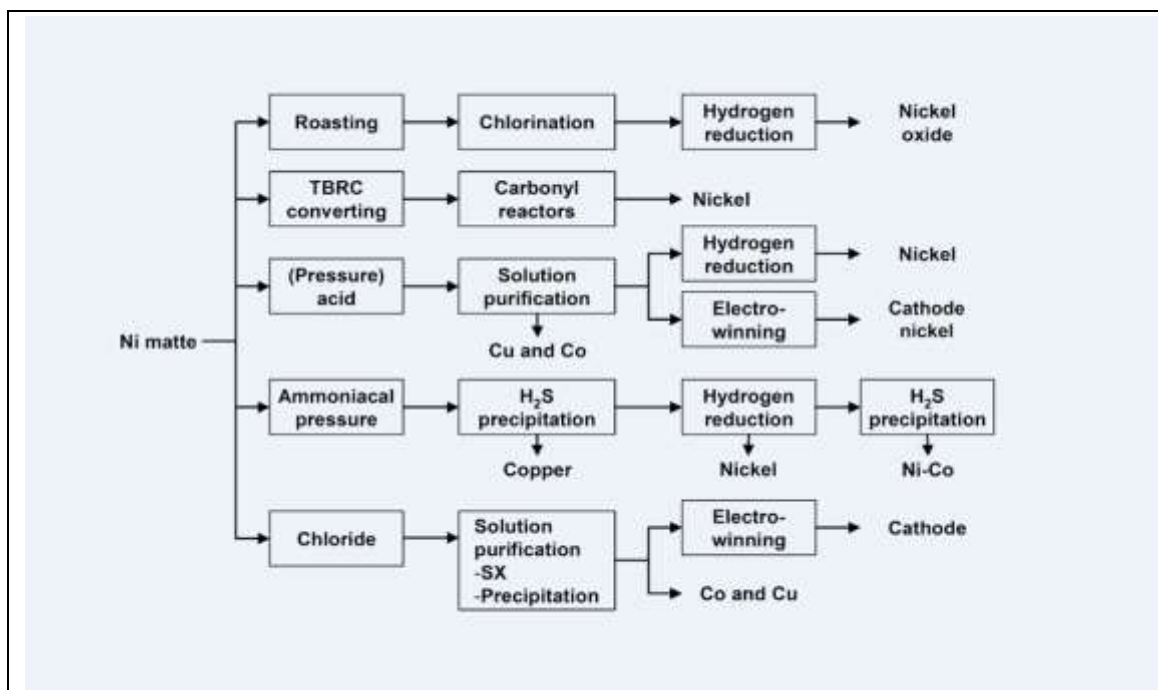


Figure 9.5: Generic flowsheet for nickel matte refining processes

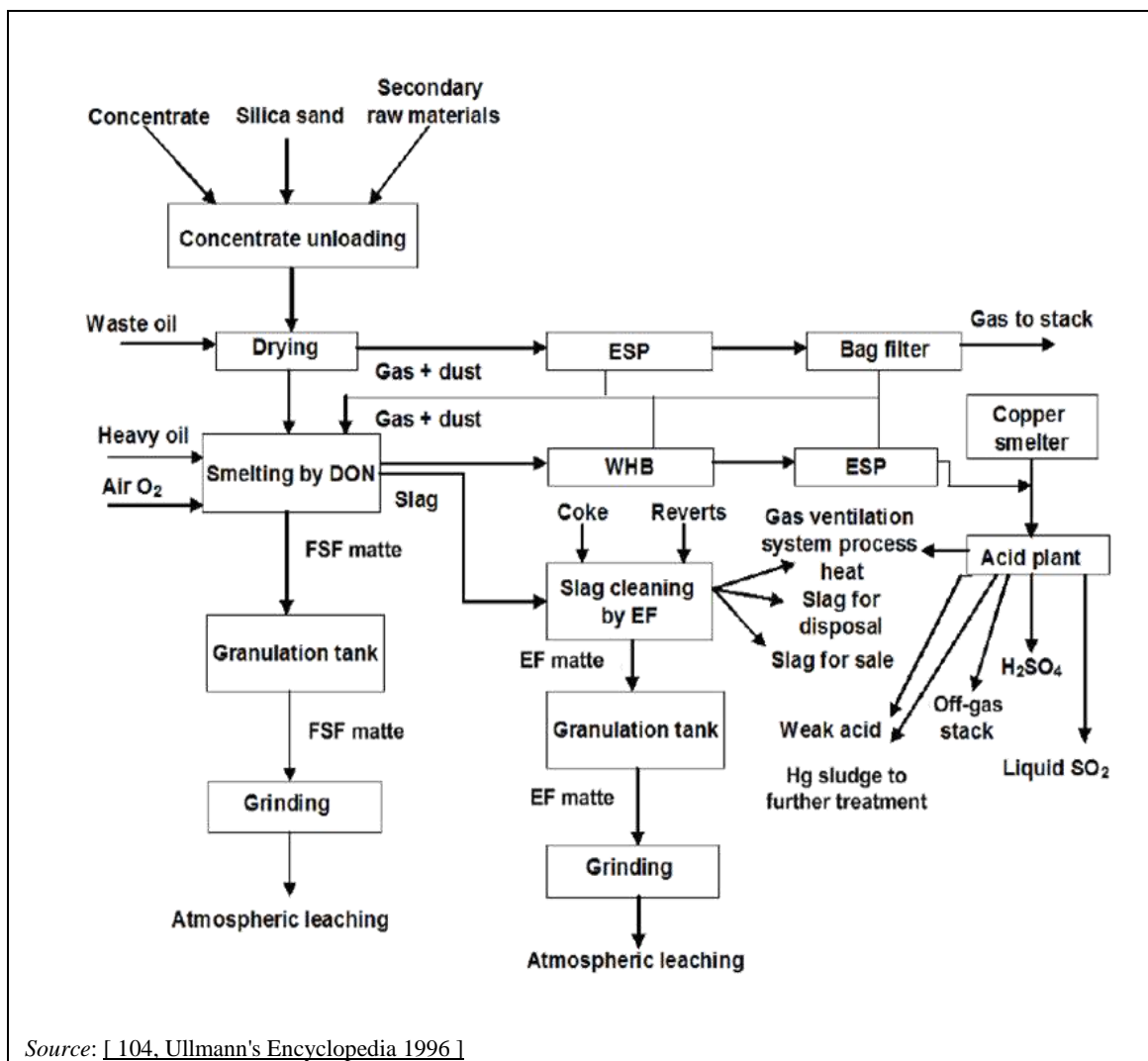
Nickel-containing raw materials are leached in reactors (atmospheric; temperature < 110 °C and pressure 1 bar) and/or in pressure autoclaves (temperature > 100 °C and pressure > 1 bar). Leaching takes place in chloride- (see Section 9.1.1.3.1), sulphate- (see Section 9.1.1.3.2) or ammoniac- (see Section 9.1.1.3.3) based solutions and oxygen or chlorine gases are used as an oxidant. Impurities like copper and iron are precipitated as cake. In most cases copper cake is further processed and iron cake is recycled to the smelter or sent to the waste areas. Nickel solution is purified by a combination of solvent extraction and precipitation processes to remove cobalt and other impurities. Impurities like lead, manganese and gypsum are deposited in a designated waste area.

9.1.1.3.1 Chloride leaching of matte followed by electrowinning

Matte is leached in a chloride solution in several stages at a high temperature and pressure using chlorine gas as an oxidant. The chlorine gas is generated in the electrowinning cells and is returned to the leaching circuit. Copper is precipitated as sulphide and then iron and arsenic are precipitated as hydroxides and arsenates to purify the leachate. Copper sulphide is roasted in a fluidised bed furnace and the resulting calcine is leached with spent copper electrolyte. Copper is then electrowon.

Cobalt is removed by solvent extraction of the chloride solution using an organic solvent and is electrowon. The nickel solution is further purified using chlorine to remove lead and manganese, followed by electrowinning of nickel using a dimensionally stable anode (DSA) made with titanium, enclosed in a diaphragm bag to collect chlorine gas.

This is known as the Falconbridge process and is shown in Figure 9.6.



Source: [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]

Figure 9.6: The Falconbridge process

9.1.1.3.2 Sulphate-based atmospheric pressure leaching followed by electrowinning/hydrogen reduction

Matte is leached in a sulphate-based anolyte recycled from nickel electrowinning. [57, Knuutila, K. et al. 1996], [58, Kojo, I.V. et al. 1997] Nickel sulphide matte is leached in an atmospheric leaching stage using oxygen- or air-sparged leach vessels with the aid of copper ions. Dissolved iron is oxidised to form iron oxide which precipitates (see Figure 9.7).

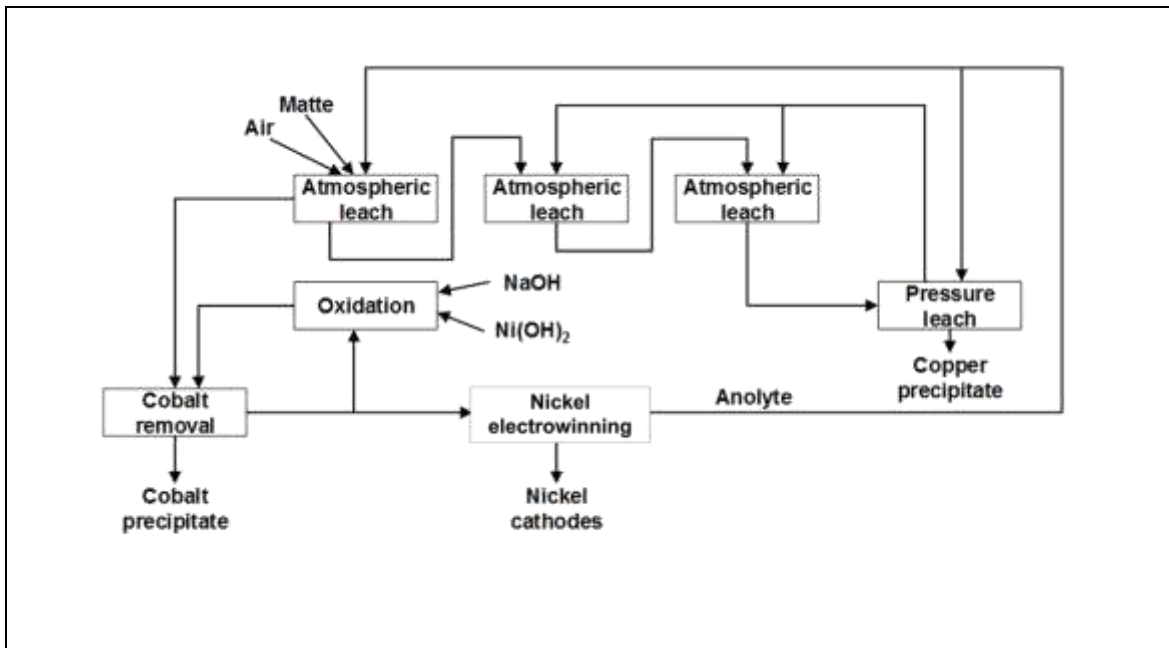


Figure 9.7: Sulphate-based leaching process

The residue from atmospheric leaching is passed to the pressure leaching stage where the nickel content is dissolved and copper is precipitated as copper sulphide, which is returned to the copper smelter. The iron oxide precipitate is returned to the nickel smelter. Alternatively, the iron residue is disposed of. The nickel solution from the atmospheric leach is purified by solvent extraction to remove cobalt and impurities. Cobalt can be electrowon or reduced to cobalt powder using hydrogen. Nickel can be electrowon from the purified sulphate solution to produce cathodes. [310, Makinen T., Taskinen P. 2006].

Nickel powder can be produced by adding ammonia and ammonium sulphate to the solution. The mixture is then reduced in an autoclave using a hydrogen atmosphere. The powder is sold or can be sintered into briquettes. The sulphuric acid present is neutralised by ammonia. The ammonium sulphate is recovered for sale or reuse in the process.

This process has been developed into a two-stream process to allow separate treatment of the mattes produced from the smelter and the slag cleaning furnaces. The flowsheet of the DON refining process is shown in Figure 9.8.

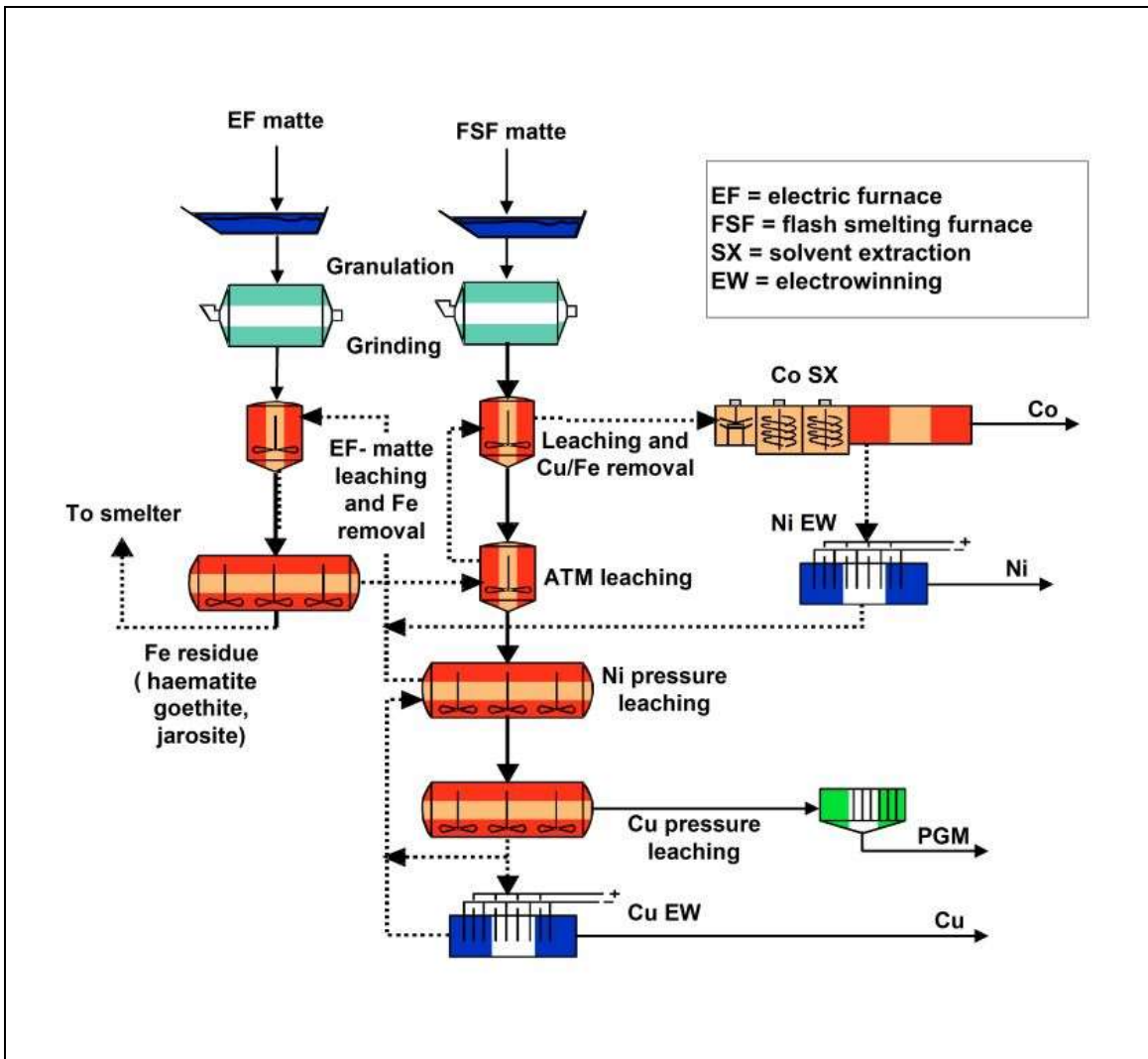


Figure 9.8: Flowsheet of the DON refining process

9.1.1.3.3 Ammonia pressure leach and hydrogen reduction

Matte is leached into ammoniacal ammonium sulphate solution in pressure autoclaves using air as an oxidant. After the precipitation of copper sulphide, nickel solution is reduced with hydrogen in the autoclaves to produce metallic nickel powder. The ammonium sulphate formed in the hydrogen reduction stage is recovered by crystallisation and drying. After the hydrogen reduction, the rest of the dissolved nickel and all the cobalt are precipitated with hydrogen sulphide for further treatment [92, Laine et al. 1998] [94, Laine, L. 1998]. This is known as the Sherritt process and is shown in Figure 9.9.

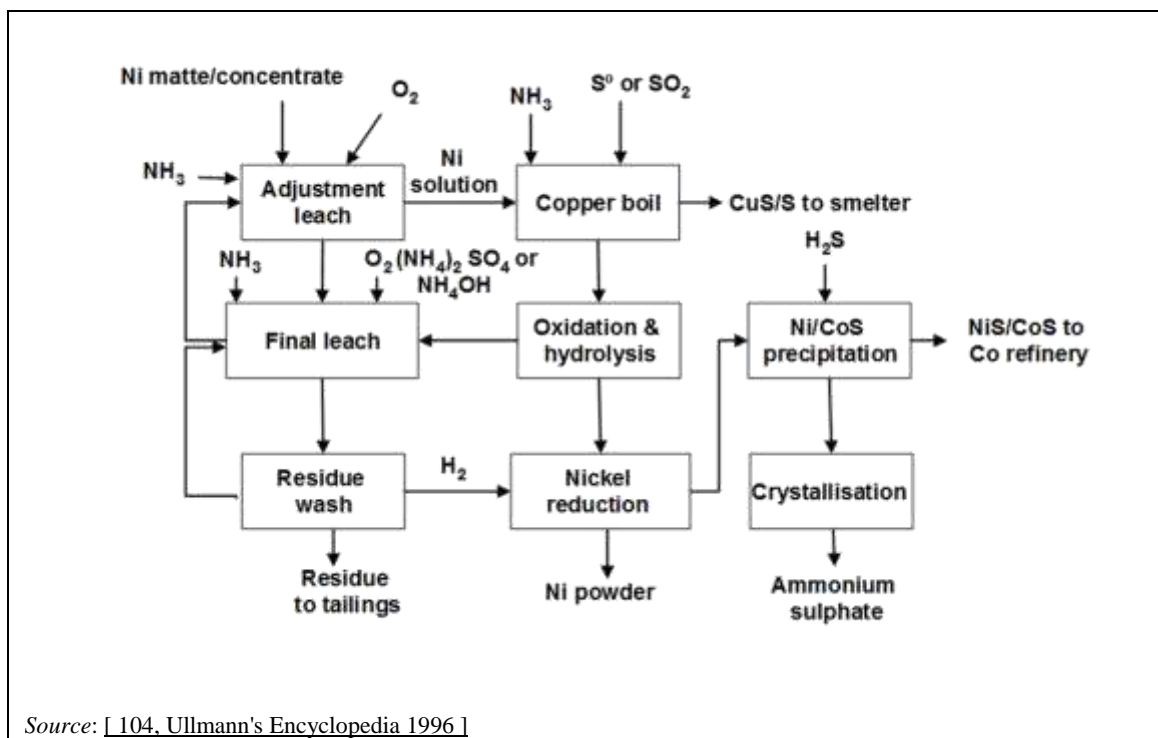


Figure 9.9: The Sherritt ammonia leach process

9.1.1.3.4 Ferric chloride leaching

Matte is leached in several stages using recycled ferric chloride in the presence of chlorine (which is generated from the electrowinning cells) near to boiling point. Sulphur remains in the elemental state and is filtered from the final solution. Iron is then removed by solvent extraction using tributyl phosphate, allowing ferric chloride to be recovered. Cobalt is removed in a further solvent extraction stage using triisooctylamine. Cobalt chloride solution is sold [92, Laine et al. 1998] [94, Laine, L. 1998].

Other minor impurities such as chromium, aluminium and lead are removed using a combination of electrolysis, ion exchange and activated carbon. Nickel is then electrowon from the purified solution in diaphragm cells using titanium anodes and nickel cathodes. Chlorine is collected and returned to the leach circuit.

9.1.1.3.5 Carbonyl process

The low-pressure carbonyl process uses an impure oxide produced by smelting sulphidic ore as the raw material to refine the nickel. This oxide is reduced to an impure metal using hydrogen and the metal is then activated. Nickel carbonyl is then formed by the reaction of the metal with carbon monoxide at a low temperature and pressure. Nickel carbonyl is volatile and is refined

by separation from the solid impurities. The solid residue is returned for further processing to the primary smelter to recover other metals that are present [19, HMIP (UK) 1994], [25, OSPARCOM 1996].

Nickel carbonyl gas passes out of the reactor and is then decomposed using heat to form powders and pellets. It can also be decomposed onto other substrates such as carbon fibres to produce nickel-coated materials. During decomposition, carbon monoxide is released and is recovered and reused to produce more nickel carbonyl. Pure nickel salts are produced by the reaction of nickel pellets with acids. Any exhaust gases from the process are incinerated to destroy any nickel carbonyl and carbon monoxide. Dust from the afterburner is removed using a bag filter.

9.1.1.3.6 Matte electrorefining

Nickel matte can be cast into anodes. These are dissolved in a diaphragm electrolytic cell using a chloride/sulphate electrolyte. The electrolyte from the anode compartment is purified and circulated through the cathode bag. The anodes are also bagged to collect the slime which contains sulphur. Elemental sulphur and precious metals are recovered from the slime. This process is limited to mattes that have a low copper content [94, Laine, L. 1998]

9.1.1.3.7 Solvent extraction

Most of the processes described above use a solvent extraction stage to remove iron, calcium and zinc and to separate nickel and cobalt prior to electrowinning or transformation. Metal ion complexes are formed using chelating agents so that the desired metal ions can be extracted into an organic phase. The desired ions are then back-extracted into a second aqueous phase by altering the conditions of that second aqueous phase.

The choice of solvent and chelating (complexing) agent allows specific metal ions to be removed from the aqueous solution and to be concentrated. The solvent/chelating mixture is recycled between the extraction and electrowinning baths. The baths comprise a mixer/settler to allow solvent-water contact and then phase separation. Sealed or covered systems are used to prevent the emission of solvent fumes. Figure 9.10 shows a generic process outline [239, ENIA 2008].

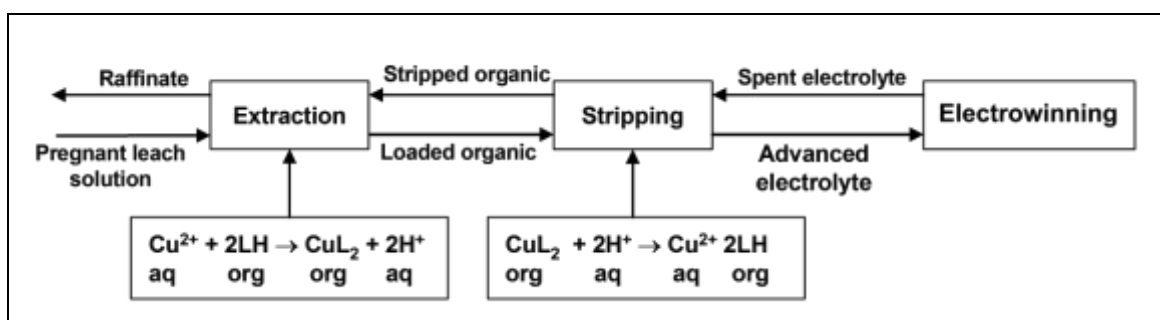


Figure 9.10: Solvent extraction (SX) process outline

9.1.1.3.8 Nickel matte refining process

Eramet has developed a refining process that originated in the 1970s which can (see Figure 9.11) [239, ENIA 2008].

- obtain very high-purity nickel metal;

- recover all of the by-products;
- minimise the solid residue production.

Pyrometallurgical nickel matte is leached by chlorine in a chloride medium in the presence of recycled ferric chloride near to boiling point. The major constituent of the leaching residue is elemental sulphur. This by-product, after roasting, allows the production of sulphuric acid.

The major constituents of the leaching solution are nickel, cobalt and iron chlorides. Impurities like aluminium, chromium, manganese and lead are also present.

After complementary oxidation of the solution, the iron is first extracted by solvent extraction using tributylphosphate (TBP) as an extractant. The stripping is performed with water. The iron chloride solution is sold, in concentrations of up to 40 wt-% FeCl_3 . It is used in water treatment processes.

The cobalt is extracted from the iron-depleted solution by solvent extraction using triisooctylamine as an extractant. The stripping is performed with water. The cobalt chloride is sold, after complementary purification, in concentrations of up to 27 wt-% CoCl_2 , as raw material for chemical specialities production.

Remaining minor impurities such as aluminium, chromium and lead are removed using a combination of precipitation, electrolysis and activated carbon in order to obtain a very pure nickel chloride solution that is used as a feed material to obtain various products including the following:

- Nickel chloride solution or crystals after concentration, crystallisation and drying.
- Nickel hydroxycarbonate by precipitation, filtration and spray drying.
- Nickel metal (purity > 99.99 %) by electrolysis in a chloride medium on titanium and nickel cathodes. Chlorine produced at the anodes is recycled at the matte leaching step.

The energy used for this nickel production process is in the range of 20 GJ per tonne of nickel which is in accordance with the energy use of the refining stages.

Emissions to air

The process has the following emissions to air:

- Ni: 0.025 kg/t Ni;
- Cl_2 : 0.010 kg/t Ni;
- VOCs: 3.6 kg/t Ni;
- SO_2 : 3.7 kg/t Ni;
- CO_2 : 600 kg/t Ni.

Emissions to water

The process has the following emissions to water:

- Ni: 0.017 kg/t Ni;
- Suspended solids: 0.18 kg/t Ni;
- COD: 2.0 kg/t Ni.

Residues and waste production

The Eramet nickel refinery using the process described here does not produce any solid residue for disposal.

The quantity of waste produced is 22 kg/t Ni. These data do not include wastes that are not linked to the production process itself.

A flowsheet of the Eramet refining process is shown in Figure 9.11.

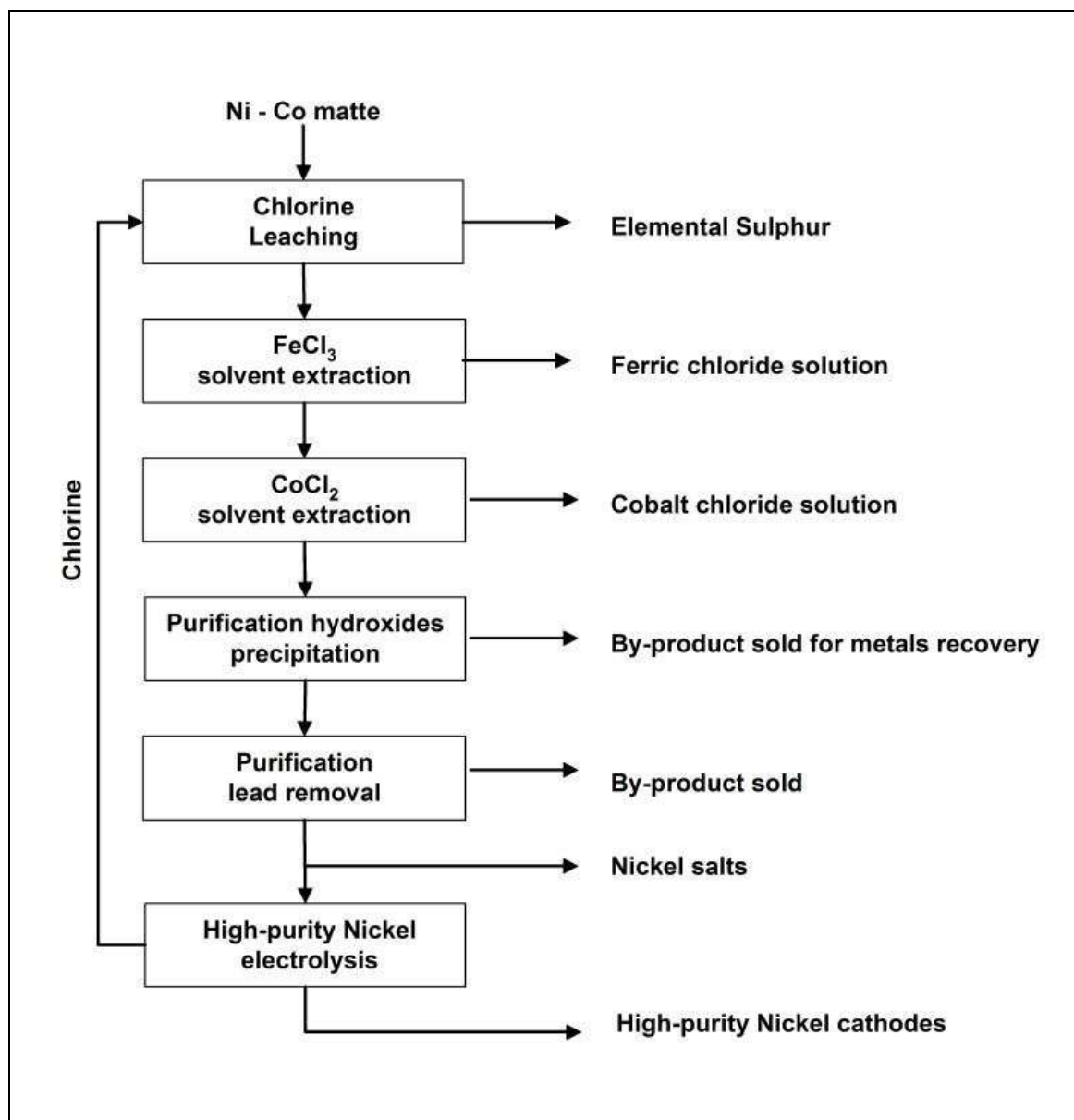


Figure 9.11: Flowsheet of the Eramet refining process

9.1.1.4 Nickel alloy production from secondary materials

The process includes raw material preparation, melting (including tapping and casting), ingot stripping and dressing, scrap recycling and 'electroslag refining' with a throughput of about 7000 t/yr.

Raw materials for the process consist of recycled scrap, purchased scrap and virgin material. Scrap in the form of turnings, swarf off-cuts, etc. is treated to remove oil by centrifuging and/or degreasing. Raw materials are weighed into charging vessels to the desired alloy composition. The charging vessels are then transported to the relevant furnace.

Melting is carried out in an induction furnace, with fumes captured by one of two extraction systems fitted with fabric filters. Some of the metal is further refined in vacuum refining furnaces. Vacuum induction melting is carried out in a 7.5-tonne-capacity furnace. Casting from the furnace is performed either under vacuum or argon. Vacuum arc refining is carried out

producing solid ingots under vacuum. The vacuum is provided by steam ejectors, and gases from the ejectors are cooled using spray condensers. Slag is refined in an electric furnace.

Three casting techniques are used: top casting, uphill casting and Durville casting. Casting fluxes and anti-piping compounds are used during casting. Ladles used for casting are preheated by gas-fired burners.

The ingots from casting are stripped of any residual refractory material. Solid waste from the casting processes, casting/ladle refractories, slags, etc. are collected for the recovery of residual metal. The stripped ingots may then be subjected to various processes: machining, sawing, grinding and shot blasting. The scrap from these processes in the form of dust, swarf and turnings is collected for reprocessing or sale.

9.1.2 Cobalt production

Cobalt is produced during the recovery of nickel after separation by solvent extraction (SX) and is described above in Section 9.1.1.3.7. Cobalt can be electrowon from the solution to produce saleable cathodes using diaphragm cells in the same manner as nickel [233, COM 2008]. The electrowinning process can be sulphate- or chloride-based.

Cobalt can also be recovered from the solution as a powder by hydrogen reduction. Alternatively, the solution can be treated to precipitate an impure cobalt by-product for further refining or for sale.

Further refining of these and other by-products that contain cobalt, intermediates and recycled materials is performed using atmospheric and oxygen pressure leaching in a sulphuric or hydrochloric acid medium. Separation using hydroxides, carbonates and amine or ammonium complexes is also used [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996].

Precipitation, solvent extraction and ion exchange techniques are used to purify the solutions. Cobalt is then recovered as metal powder, metal oxide or salts. The products are made with a wide variety of very specific physical and chemical characteristics. Pyrolysis of carboxylates, high-temperature reduction of oxides, precipitation and crystallisation techniques are used depending on the particle size or other characteristics that are required. [104, Ullmann's Encyclopedia 1996]

These processes are commercially confidential and very site-specific in nature. A generic flowsheet is shown in Figure 9.12 and a more specific process is shown in Figure 9.13.

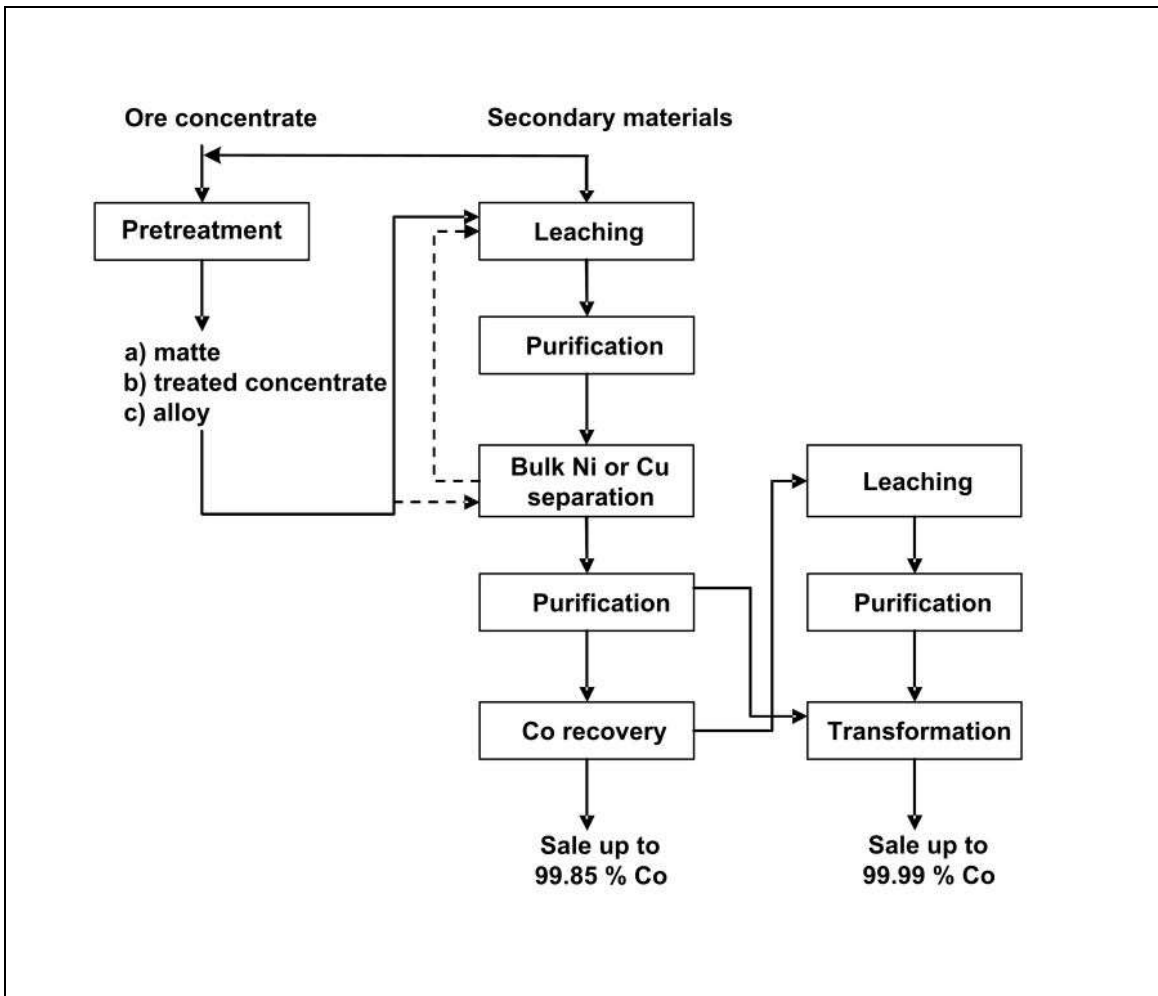
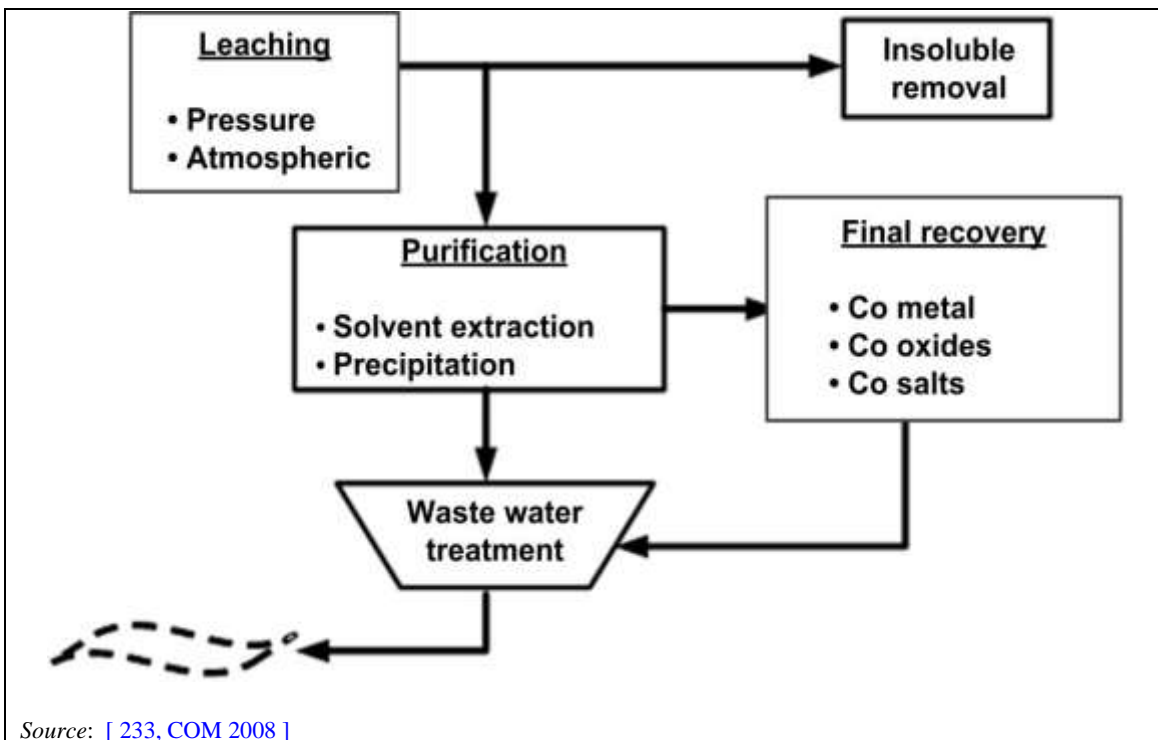


Figure 9.12: Generic flowsheet for cobalt production



Source: [233.COM 2008]

Figure 9.13: A practical cobalt flowsheet

9.2 Current emission and consumption levels

9.2.1 Energy consumption

The energy consumed for the production of matte from sulphidic concentrates is reported to be in the range 25–65 GJ per tonne of nickel for concentrates that contain 4–15 % nickel. The energy consumed in the various refining stages is reported to be 17–20 GJ per tonne of nickel.

9.2.2 Emissions to air

The potential emissions of concern to air from nickel and cobalt production are:

- sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and other acid gases;
- oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and other nitrogen compounds;
- metals and their compounds including arsenic;
- dust;
- chlorine;
- VOCs and odours;
- CO and carbonyls (alarm levels are usually set at 80 parts per billion).

The significance of the substances potentially emitted from the major sources is given in Table 9.3 and is discussed later in this section.

Table 9.3: Significance of potential emissions to air from cobalt and nickel production

Component	Roasting or smelting	Leaching and purification	Electrolysis	Solvent extraction	Sulphuric acid plant	Final recovery and transformation
Sulphur dioxide and trioxide ⁽¹⁾ HCl	•• ⁽¹⁾	•	•	•	••	NR
VOCs (including CO and odours)	•	•	NR	••	NR	NR
Chlorine	NR	••	••	NR	NR	NR
Nitrogen oxides	• ⁽¹⁾	NR	NR	NR	•	NR
Dust and metals	•• ⁽¹⁾	•	•	NR	NR	••

⁽¹⁾ The direct emissions from the roasting or smelting stages of sulphidic ores are treated and/or converted in the gas-cleaning steps and sulphuric acid plant; the remaining emissions of sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxides of the sulphuric acid plant are still relevant. Diffuse or uncaptured emissions are also relevant from these sources.
NB: •• More significant – • Less significant.
NR = Not relevant.

The sources of emissions from the process are:

- roasting;
- other pretreatment;
- smelting, converting and slag treatment;
- leaching and purification;
- solvent extraction;
- electrolysis;
- final recovery or transformation stage;
- sulphuric acid plant.

9.2.2.1 Sulphur dioxide and other acid gases

The major sources of sulphur dioxide emissions are diffuse emissions from the roaster or smelter. Uncaptured emissions from the ladle transfer and blowing stages of the converter and direct emissions from the sulphuric acid plant are also significant. Good extraction and sealing of the furnaces prevents diffuse emissions and the collected gases are passed to a gas-cleaning plant and then to the sulphuric acid plant.

After cleaning, the sulphur dioxide in the gas from the roasting stages is converted to sulphuric acid. Section 2.7.2 provide more information about the techniques and emissions from sulphuric acid plants in this sector.

During start-up and shutdown there may be occasions when weak gases are emitted without conversion. These events need to be identified for individual installations and many companies have made significant improvements to process control to prevent or reduce these emissions. Sulphur dioxide emissions from some processes are shown in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4: Sulphur dioxide production from some nickel and cobalt processes

Process	Product	Metal production (t/yr)	Sulphur dioxide (kg per tonne of metal produced)
Grinding/Leaching	Co and compounds	5000	0.01
Ni smelter	Ni, Co, Cu	200 000	18

NB: The data refer to specific raw materials, grinding of matte produced from sulphidic ore and smelting of Cu/Ni sulphidic concentrates.
 Source: [239, ENIA 2008]

During electrolysis, there are emissions of aerosols (diluted hydrochloric and sulphuric acids and metal salts) to the tank house. These emissions leave the tank house via the (natural) ventilation or from the cooling towers and are classed as diffuse emissions. Cells can be covered by foams or plastic beads to reduce the production of mists. Cell room ventilation air can be demisted and the solution returned to the electrolysis stage.

Chlorine is formed during the electrolysis of chloride solutions. This is collected in the sealed anode compartment and is returned to the leaching stage. Chlorine monitors are used to detect leaks and scrubbers are used to remove traces of chlorine from the ventilation air and other sources.

9.2.2.2 VOCs

VOCs can be emitted from the solvent extraction stages. A variety of solvents are used and they contain various complexing agents to form complexes with the desired metal that are soluble in

the organic layer. Emissions can be prevented or minimised by using covered or sealed reactors and, in this case, emissions in the order of 30 mg/Nm³ have been reported.

The solvents can be aliphatic or aromatic in nature but usually a mixture is used. VOCs can be classified according to their toxicity but aromatic and chlorinated VOCs are usually considered to be more harmful and require efficient removal. Solvent vapours are emitted depending on the temperature of the extraction stage and the vapour pressure of the solvent components at that temperature. VOC concentrations of up to 1000 mg/Nm³ (~ 1 kg/h) have been reported but the operating conditions are not known [92, Laine et al. 1998]. The nature of the solvents and conditions of use need to be determined so that the hazard can be assessed.

VOCs can be removed using condensers or by cooling the ventilation air and recovering the solvent for further use. Mass emissions of 0.2 kg per tonne of metal produced have been reported following condensation [92, Laine et al. 1998]. Carbon filters or biofilters can also be used to reduce VOC emissions further but do not allow solvent recovery.

9.2.2.3 Dust and metals

Dust carry-over from the roasting, smelting and converting processes are potential sources of direct and diffuse emissions of dust and metals. In some processes, the gases are collected and treated in scrubbers and fabric filters or in the gas-cleaning processes of a sulphuric acid plant. Dust is removed and returned to the leaching process. Fabric filters and scrubbers are used to remove dust and large particles. Dust and metal emissions from some processes are shown in Table 9.5 and Table 9.6 but it should be noted that different processes and process stages are involved and the data are not comparable [260, Nyberg et al. 2000].

Table 9.5: Dust and metal emissions from some European processes

Process	Product	Production (tonnes)	Dust (kg per tonne of metal)	Ni (kg per tonne of metal)
Matte grinding	Ni	12 000	0.02	0.005
Refining nickel matte	Ni		0.04	NA
Carbonyl process	Ni	40 000	0.01	0.005
DON process and copper smelter ⁽¹⁾	Ni, Cu	240 000	0.25	0.02

⁽¹⁾ The DON process and copper smelter comprises a site that includes drying, smelting (Cu+Ni), Cu converting, slag cleaning (Cu+Ni), all Ni matte refining processes and other abatement processes.
NA=not available.
Source: [239, ENIA 2008]

Table 9.6: Emissions to air from some process stages of cobalt production

Process	Product	Production (tonnes)	Co (kg per tonne of metal)	Ni (kg per tonne of metal)	VOCs (kg per tonne of metal)
Grinding/leaching	Co	10 000	0.1	NA	NA
Solvent extraction	Co	10 000	NA	NA	4.0
Final recovery or transformation	Co	10 000	0.8	0.1	NA
Total	Co	10 000	0.9	0.1	4.0

NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [239, ENIA 2008]

9.2.2.4 Chlorine

Chlorine is used in some leaching stages and is produced during the subsequent electrolysis of chloride solutions. The leach vessels are sealed and chlorine gas scrubbing is used to remove uncaptured chlorine.

The anodes in the electrolytic cells are contained in a membrane and enclosed by a collection hood. The chlorine generated is collected and reused in the leaching stage. The systems are sealed and diffuse emissions only occur during membrane or pipework failures. Chlorine alarms are used extensively in leach and cell rooms to detect such failures and there are normally no emissions of chlorine [233, COM 2008].

The presence of chlorine in waste water can lead to the formation of organic chlorine compounds if solvents, etc. are also present in a mixed waste water.

9.2.2.5 Hydrogen, carbon monoxide and carbonyls

Carbon monoxide and hydrogen are used in the vapometallurgical refining of nickel to produce crude nickel and then nickel carbonyl. These gases are explosive or very toxic and so sophisticated reactor seals and control equipment are used to prevent emissions. Comprehensive monitoring and alarm systems are used. Hydrogen is also used as a reducing agent in hydrometallurgical or pyrometallurgical recovery or transformation processes. Carbon monoxide is also produced in electric reduction furnaces if afterburning is not used. Robust process design including scaled equipment and appropriate gas exhaust systems is used to avoid explosive gas mixtures.

Carbon monoxide is recovered and waste process gases are finally incinerated to destroy any carbon monoxide or carbonyl that may be present. Nickel carbonyl is converted to nickel oxide, which is recovered.

9.2.2.6 Nitrogen oxides

The roasting and smelting stages are potential sources of nitrogen oxides (NO_x). NO_x may be formed from nitrogen components that are present in the concentrates or as thermal NO_x . The sulphuric acid produced can absorb a large part of the NO_x and this can therefore affect sulphuric acid quality. If high levels of NO_x are present after the roasting stages, treatment of the roasting gases may be necessary for product quality and environmental reasons. Direct smelting uses oxygen enrichment except for slag fuming and can reduce the thermal NO_x . Other furnaces that use oxy-fuel burners also show a reduction in NO_x but the reverse may be true at lower levels of oxygen enrichment when the temperature increase and the nitrogen content are significant. The range for all of the processes is 20–400 mg/Nm³.

9.2.2.7 Diffuse emissions

Besides process emissions, diffuse emissions occur. The major diffuse emission sources are:

- dust from storage and handling of concentrates;
- leakage from roasters, smelters and converters;
- dust from the exhaust gases of leaching and purification vessels;
- exhaust gases (including HCl, Cl_2 and VOCs) from the solvent extraction and electrowinning units;
- dust from the exhaust gases of casting furnaces;
- miscellaneous emissions including building ventilation air.

Although diffuse emissions are difficult to measure and estimate, there are some methods that have been used successfully (see Section 2.3.5). Table 9.7 gives some estimates from a primary smelter where the smelter and converter ventilation gases are collected and treated with the dryer gases.

Table 9.7: Significance of secondary fume capture and diffuse emissions

Emissions	Primary capture (t/yr)	Secondary capture (t/yr)	Diffuse (t/yr)
Sulphur dioxide (1999)	523	2242	147
Sulphur dioxide (2004)	630	1976	248
<i>Source: [239, ENIA 2008]</i>			

Table 9.7 shows that diffuse emissions can be significant in primary smelting if ventilation gases are not collected and treated. In this case they would be much higher than abated emissions. Refining processes are reported to have lower diffuse emissions and the carbonyl process is particularly well sealed. Action to reduce diffuse emissions may be needed in many processes.

It is possible to reduce the diffuse emissions arising from granulation fumes by treating the fumes with NaOH solution. Another way to reduce them is to use covered, ventilated lids on the launders. These launders can be heated using fuel or preferably electrically heated covers, which then allow an efficient collection of diffuse emissions thanks to the small amount of gas released.

Diffuse emissions from molten material transportation are also significant. In the DON process, as well as in flash smelting and flash converting processes, there is no ladle transportation of molten material and thus diffuse emissions are much easier to control.

The collection of diffuse emissions is described in Section 2.12.4.

9.2.3 Emissions to water

Metals and their compounds and materials in suspension are the main pollutants emitted to water. The metals concerned are copper, nickel, cobalt, arsenic and chromium. Other significant substances are fluorides, chlorides and sulphates.

Possible sources of waste water are:

- hydrometallurgical purification processes;
- matte granulation;
- waste water from wet scrubbers;
- waste water from wet electrostatic precipitators;
- waste water from slag granulation;
- anode and cathode washing liquid effluent;
- sealing water from pumps;
- general operations, including the cleaning of equipment, floors, etc.;
- discharge from cooling water circuits;
- rainwater run-off from surfaces (in particular storage areas) and roofs;

Waste waters from wet gas cleaning (if used) of the smelter, converter and fluidised bed roasting stages are the most important sources. Others are cleaning and miscellaneous sources. The leaching stages are usually operated on a closed circuit and drainage systems are isolated but there are potential problems unless good leak prevention and detection systems are used. Electrolyte bleed liquors are used in the leaching stage.

9.2.3.1 Waste waters from abatement plants

If wet scrubbers are used after the leaching and roasting processes, an acidic solution is produced. The scrubber removes fluorides, chlorine, chlorides, most mercury and selenium and some particles that pass the mechanical gas treatment. To avoid the build-up of contaminants, some liquid should be bled continuously from the scrubber and then treated. Dissolved SO₂ is removed prior to the discharge. Weak acid can also be treated by concentrating it and feeding it back into the uptake shaft of a flash smelting furnace.

Wet ESPs also generate an acidic scrubbing liquid. This is recycled after filtering or, after concentrating, it is returned to the uptake shaft of the flash furnace. Some liquid should be bled from this circuit to remove the build-up of contaminants. This bleed liquid is treated and analysed before discharge.

Table 9.8 provides an indication of the composition of the gas-cleaning effluents before treatment.

Table 9.8: Typical composition of gas-cleaning effluents

Pollutant	Concentration (dissolved)	Percentage of suspended solids
Solids		250–1500 mg/l
Sulphate	13–25 g/l	
Chlorides	1.3–1.8 g/l	
Fluorides	0.3–0.5 g/l	
Cobalt	0.1–9 mg/l	5–30
Nickel	0.1–10 mg/l	10–60
Copper	5–15 mg/l	< 0.05
Zinc	0.1–2.5g/l	2–6
Cadmium	1–5 mg/l	
Lead	1–3 mg/l	5–50

9.2.3.2 Miscellaneous sources

The electrodes and membrane bags used during electrolysis need to be rinsed periodically to remove material deposited on the surface. Manganese dioxide can be formed on the surface of the anodes by the reaction of oxygen with dissolved manganese. After rinsing the anodes, the manganese is separated from the rinse water for external reuse. Cathodes are cleaned after removal of the cobalt or nickel sheets. The anode and cathode washing liquid effluents are acidic and likely to contain copper, nickel, cobalt and suspended solids.

Granulation water from the granulation of matte or slag is usually recirculated in a closed circuit system. There have been reports of the formation of persistent organic chlorine compounds and PCDD/F in some cooling circuits of chlorine leach processes.

Filters and waste water from the hydrometallurgical separation and transformation processes are treated to remove metals and suspended solids. The products of this treatment may be returned to upstream operations, depending on their composition and value. The wet ESP can be used for that purpose. Potential sources of waste waters are reported in Table 9.9.

Table 9.9: Summary of potential waste water sources and treatment options

Process unit	Operation/source	Use/treatment options
General	Rainwater from roads, yards, roofs Wet cleaning of roads Cleaning of lorries, etc.	Waste water treatment plant/reuse Waste water treatment plant Recirculation, waste water treatment plant
Smelting operation	Cooling water from the furnace, machinery and equipment	Recirculation
Matte or slag granulation	Wet ESP effluent (if needed) Granulation water	Recirculation, waste water treatment plant Recirculation
Gas cleaning system	Condensate from gas cooling, wet ESP Condensate from mercury removal Leakage	Removal of suspended dusts and reuse as feed, or to waste water treatment plant After mercury removal to waste water treatment plant Recirculation
Sulphuric acid plant	Cooling water equipment Leakage	Recirculation Waste water treatment plant
Feed storage	Surface water (rain/wetting)	Waste water treatment plant
Sinter plant	Scrubber (sinter fine cooling)	Waste water treatment plant
Roaster gas cleaning	Wet gas cleaning	Waste water treatment plant
Leaching	General operations including wet gas cleaning	Recovery of metals
Purification	General operations Filter cakes	Recovery of metals Countercurrent washing
Electrolysis	Cleaning of cells, anodes and cathodes	Recovery of metals
All process units	Maintenance	Waste water treatment plant
Waste water treatment plant	Effluent treatment	Reuse for certain applications/discharge

Table 9.10 and Table 9.11 give data for emissions to water and the mass emissions of nickel per tonne produced for some European sites [239, ENIA 2008].

Table 9.10: Examples of waste water analyses

Process	Effluent (m ³ /d)	Flow (m ³ /t)	Main components (mg/l)					
			Cu	Zn	As	Co	Ni	COD
Co	NA	200	< 0.1	< 1.5	< 0.1	< 1.5 ⁽¹⁾	< 1.0	25
Cl leach	NA	55	0.1	NA	NA	0.2	0.7	NA
Cl leach	NA	NA	1.0	1.0	NA	0.25	1.0	NA
Carbonyl	NA	450	0.4	NA	NA	0.1	1.4	NA
Smelter + leach ⁽²⁾	10 900	NA	10 g/t	4 g/t	2 g/t	NA	10 g/t	NA

(¹) The Co emission is 0.5 kg per tonne of Co produced.
(²) The data of Smelter + leach covers process waters, cooling water, acid plant water and rainwater from a combined Cu and Ni smelter and nickel leaching.
NB: NA = Not available.
Source: [239, ENIA 2008]

Table 9.11: Mass emissions of nickel per tonne produced for European processes

Process	Waste water volume (m ³ /d)	Emission of nickel (g Ni per tonne produced)
Matte grinding and leaching	1640	15.7
Matte grinding and leaching	3233	16
Nickel smelting and matte refining ⁽¹⁾	1900	29.6
Carbonyl process	6615	30
⁽¹⁾ The data of nickel smelting and matte refining covers both the Cu and Ni smelter and the nickel leaching process. <i>Source:</i> [239, ENIA 2008]		

9.2.4 Process residues

The production of metals is related to the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, which are also listed in the European Waste Catalogue (Council Decision 94/3/EEC). The most important process-specific residues are listed in this section.

Residues arise as a result of the treatment of liquid effluents. The main residues are gypsum (CaSO₄) waste and metal hydroxides that are produced at the waste water neutralisation plant. These wastes are considered to be a cross-media effect of these treatment techniques but many are recycled to the metallurgical process to recover the metals, depending on their value.

Dust and/or sludge from the treatment of gases are used as raw materials for the production of other metals such as precious metals and copper, etc. or can be returned to the smelter or to the leach circuit for recovery.

9.2.4.1 Precipitates from purification processes

The production of iron-based solids accounts for a significant volume of waste depending on the process used. An example of the compositions of different types of residues is shown in Table 9.12.

Table 9.12: Example compositions of different types of residues

Process	Fe (%)	Zn (%)	Co (%)	Cu (%)	Ni (%)
Iron hydroxide residues in the chloride leaching process	40	NA	0.1	< 0.1	1–2
Gypsum residues	NA	25	2–3	NA	NA
Waste water treatment plant	< 10	< 10	< 0.5	< 1	< 0.05
NB: NA=Not available.					

The disposal of these residues can entail considerable costs as specially constructed, lined ponds are used to contain the material. Particular care is taken with regards to leakage and operators of these ponds have to monitor groundwater. This is a significant cross-media effect. One site deposits the waste in underground rock caverns.

9.2.4.2 Pyrometallurgical slags and residues

Slags from smelting processes usually contain very low concentrations of leachable metals after slag cleaning. They are therefore suitable for use in construction, abrasives and other purposes. The slag output is between four and ten times the weight of the metal produced depending on the source of the concentrate.

Table 9.13 gives examples of the composition of some nickel slags. The exact composition will also depend on the source of the concentrate [139, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999].

Table 9.13: Example compositions of typical nickel slags

Component	Reverberatory furnace	Electric furnace	Outotec flash ⁽¹⁾
Nickel (%)	0.2	0.17	0.1–0.3
Cobalt (%)	0.1	0.06	0.1–0.25
Copper (%)	0.08	0.01	0.05–0.25
Iron (%)	38	NA	35–43
Silica (%)	36	35	30–39
Lime (%)	2	NA	0.5–7
⁽¹⁾ After cleaning in an electric furnace. NA=not available.			

A number of standard leachability tests are used by Member States and these are specific to the country in question. Nickel slags are listed in the EU on the amber list of the Transfrontier Shipment of Waste Regulations. The dross and solids, removed during the melting and refining stages, contain metals that are suitable for recovery. Table 9.14 shows some of the treatment or reuse options for solid residues from nickel and cobalt production processes.

Table 9.14: Some treatment or reuse options for solid residues from nickel and cobalt production processes

Process step	Solid output	Use/treatment options
Autoclave	Residue	Smelting furnace
Iron removal	Precipitate	Smelting furnace or disposal
Abatement	Filter dust	Smelting furnace
Pressure leaching	Sulphide residue	Cu recovery
Decoppering	Cu cement	Cu smelter
Nickel and cobalt regeneration	Impure nickel carbonate	Pure nickel sulphate production
Slag treatment	Clean slag	Construction
Removal of As, etc.	Gypsum ferric arsenate	Special disposal or As recovery
Effluent treatment	Precipitate	Recovery of other metals or disposal

9.2.4.3 Other materials

Depending on their composition and value, other residues or sludges arising from the different process stages or from general waste water treatment may be recycled or sent for final disposal.

9.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Tabelle 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 dargestellten allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse. Darüber hinaus können auch in anderen Industriesektoren eingesetzte Techniken zur Anwendung kommen, insbesondere Techniken zur Schwefelrückgewinnung.

9.3.1 Nickelerzeugung

9.3.1.1 Materialanlieferung, Lagerung und Umschlag

9.3.1.1.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen bei der Materialanlieferung, -lagerung und dem -umschlag

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Anlieferung, Lagerung und beim Umschlag von Rohstoffen für die Nickelerzeugung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt zu Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [[290, COM 2006](#)].

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Erfassung und sichere Lagerung gefährlicher Stoffe
- Abgasfassungssysteme mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Einsatzstoffe für die Nickelgewinnung sind Konzentrate, Chlor, sonstige Gase, Zwischenprodukte, Flussmittel und Brennstoffe. Weitere zu handhabende Materialien sind die entstehenden Produkte, Schwefelsäure, Schlacken und Prozessrückstände.

Nachstehend werden die von den technischen Prozessen ausgehenden Emissionen und Maßnahmen zu deren Minderung erörtert.

- Da die Zwischenprodukte, wie z.B. Nickelstein, zur Staubentwicklung neigen, müssen diese i.d.R. in einer getrennten, geschlossenen Lagerhalle unter Verwendung geeigneter Absaug- und Stauberfassungssysteme gehandhabt und gelagert werden.
- Für den Umgang mit Chlor, Sauerstoff und sonstigen Gasen sind die einschlägigen Sicherheitsvorschriften zu beachten, um Leckagen zu vermeiden und die Gase sicher zu lagern.

- Prozessgase wie Sauerstoff und Chlor werden gesammelt und in zugelassenen Druckbehältern gelagert. Diese Gase werden gewöhnlich regeneriert und recycelt, d.h. direkt in den Prozess zurückgeführt, oder bis zur späteren Verwendung zwischengelagert.
- Die im Prozess anfallende Säure wird in doppelwandigen Tanks gelagert und/oder die Lagertanks werden in chemikalienbeständigen Auffangwannen aufgestellt. Die in der Schwefelsäureanlage anfallenden Säureschlämme sowie die Schwachsäure aus den Nasswäschern werden vor Ort behandelt oder weiterverarbeitet und können als Sekundärrohstoffe für andere Anwendungen genutzt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Ggf. Wiederverwendung des abgeschiedenen Staubs im Prozess
- Vermeidung von Stoffaustritt

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten sind in Tabelle 9.15 zusammengefasst.

Tabelle 9.15: Staubemissionen aus der Verladung und dem innerbetrieblichen Transport in einer Nickelhütte

Anlage	Technik	Emissionsquelle	Staub (mg/Nm ³)			Messwert- erfassung
			Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	
Anlage E	Gewebefilter	Verladung und innerbetrieblicher Transport von Nickelstein	0,1	2,1	15,6	kontinuierlich (Tagesmittelwerte)
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>						

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen
- Umwelt- und Arbeitsschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage D (UK) und Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

[291, COM 2001]

9.3.1.2 Materialvorbereitung

9.3.1.2.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Erzvorbereitung und -aufbereitung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) und Wassersprühsysteme
- Sedimentation und Flotation (Eindicker)
- Oberflächenentwässerungssystem

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Erzvorbereitung und -aufbereitung können trockene oder nasse Verfahren zur Anwendung kommen. Emissionsminderungsmaßnahmen konzentrieren sich auf die Staubbinderung, den Umgang mit unbeabsichtigten Stofffreisetzungen und die Wasserrückgewinnung mit dem Ziel der Reduzierung des Abfallanfalls und der Rückführung des Wassers in den Produktionsprozess.

Zur Minderung diffuser Staubemissionen können Stauberfassungssysteme mit angeschlossenem Gewebefilter oder Wassersprühsysteme zur Staubbinderung eingesetzt werden.

Die Wasserrückgewinnung erfolgt in Eindickern. Für die optimale Apparateauswahl und Dimensionierung müssen Vorversuche zur Bestimmung der Kennwerte der einzudickenden Feststoffsuspension durchgeführt werden. Das Wirkprinzip von Eindickern beruht auf dem Absetzen der Partikel im Schwerkraftfeld. Zur Maximierung der Wasserrückgewinnung können der zu trennenden Suspension Flockungsmittel und/oder Flockungshilfsmittel zugegeben werden.

Trockene Reststoffe oder Reststoffe mit begrenztem Wassergehalt lassen sich im Rückstandslager der Anlage relativ einfach handhaben.

Zur Minderung der Auswirkungen möglicher unbeabsichtigter Stofffreisetzungen sollte die gesamte Anlage mit einem Entwässerungssystem ausgestattet und das Oberflächenwasser in einem Sumpf gesammelt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Ressourcenschonung durch Nutzung des Filterstaubs im Prozess
- Reduzierung des Wasserverbrauchs

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Der Betrieb von Eindickern ist i.d.R. mit dem Einsatz von Flockungs- und Flockungshilfsmitteln verbunden. Als Flockungshilfsmittel kommen gewöhnlich organische Polymere, als Flockungsmittel organische oder mineralische Additive zum Einsatz. Übliche Dosierungen liegen bei 5 g/t–50 g/t TS, wobei jedoch in manchen Fällen mehrere hundert Gramm/t TS erforderlich werden können. Wenn mit diesem Behandlungsschritt keine ausreichende Wasserrückgewinnung erreicht wird, können Zentrifugen oder Filter zur Verbesserung des Entwässerungsergebnisses eingesetzt werden. In Zentrifugen wird das Absetzen der Feststoffe durch Zentrifugalkräfte verstärkt und eine höhere Absetzgeschwindigkeit erreicht.

Zur Fest-Flüssig-Trennung kommen zwei Filtertypen zur Anwendung: Vakuumfilter und Druckfilter. Druckfilter ermöglichen eine effizientere Entwässerung von Schlämmen mit erhöhten Gehalten an schwer entwässerbaren Feinstoffen/Tonpartikeln, die in Vakuumfiltern zu Verstopfungen führen können. Mit dem Einsatz dieser Technologien erhält man einen Klarlauf mit einem niedrigen Gehalt an suspendierten Feststoffen, der in den Produktionsprozess zurückgeführt werden kann.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Einsatz von Chemikalien

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Technisch-ökonomische Abstimmung der Prozesses

Beispielanlagen

Anlage F (FR)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.2.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Nickelerz- und Konzentrattrocknung**Beschreibung**

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Heißgas-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Trommeltrockner werden mit Heißgas, das durch Verbrennung eines Brennstoffs in einer separaten Kammer erzeugt wird, oder mit recyceltem Prozessgas betrieben. Das Heißgas wird mit dem Konzentrat oder der Einsatzmischung in Kontakt gebracht, das sich dabei aufheizt und seine Feuchtigkeit an die Gasphase abgibt. Die Brennerflamme kommt nicht direkt mit dem Trocknungsgut in Berührung. Vor Eintritt in die Trocknertrommel wird das Verbrennungsgas auf eine Temperatur von 500 °C abgekühlt, um eine Zündung der Sulfide zu vermeiden. Im Fall einer Zündung und Oxidation sinkt der Heizwert der Konzentrate und es kommt zur Schwefeldioxidbildung. Zur Minimierung von Schwefeldioxidemissionen muss daher eine Zündung des Trocknungsgut durch Kühlung des Heißgases verhindert werden.

Weitere Möglichkeiten, eine Selbstzündung zu vermeiden, sind die Inertisierung mit Stickstoff, die Trocknung bei niedrigen Temperaturen und der Einsatz von recyceltem Prozessabgas, z.B. aus dem Anodenofen. Das Abgas des Trommeltrockners wird in einem Elektrofilter mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter entstaubt. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird dem Einsatzmaterial beigemischt.

Dampftrockner werden mit einer Dampftemperatur von 130–214 °C betrieben. Ihre Durchsatzleistung ist abhängig vom Dampfdruck und der Dampftemperatur und kann durch Erhöhung des Dampfdrucks auf 18–20 bar gesteigert werden. Zur Aufnahme des verdampfenden Wassers wird eine kleine Menge Trägerluft oder Stickstoff (zur Oxidationsunterdrückung) durch den Trockner geleitet. Im Vergleich zur Trommeltrocknern fällt bei Dampftrocknern eine deutlich geringere Abluft-/Abgasmenge an. Die Entstaubung erfolgt in einem Gewebefilter.

Zur Reinigung heißer Abgase werden in NE-Metallhütten vorwiegend Elektrofilter, zur Reinigung gekühlter Abgase vorwiegend Gewebefilter eingesetzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Ressourcenschonung, da der Filterstaub in den Prozess zurückgeführt wird
- Mit dem Einsatz von indirekten Dampftrocknern werden SO₂-Emissionen vermieden, da eine Konzentratzündung bei den niedrigen Trocknungstemperaturen ausgeschlossen ist.
-

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Zur Einsparung fossiler Brennstoffe können direkt beheizte Trommeltrockner mit Abgas aus anderen Prozessstufen betrieben werden. Allerdings muss Stützbrennstoff verfeuert werden, um das notwendige Temperaturniveau für die Trocknung sicherzustellen.

Dampftrockner werden mit zurückgewonnenem Dampf aus den Abhitzeesseln der Primärschmelzanlage und der Schwefelsäureanlage betrieben. Der Dampfverbrauch liegt je nach Feuchtigkeitsgehalt der Konzentrate und eventueller sekundärer Einsatzstoffe bei ca. 150–180 kg/t Konzentrat.

In Anlage A wird das Trocknerabgas in einem Elektrofilter und Gewebefilter entstaubt, um staubförmige Emissionen in die Atmosphäre zu reduzieren. Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten sind in Tabelle 9.16 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 9.16: Emissionen eines Trommeltrockners in einer Nickelhütte

Anlage	Trockner- typ	Kapazität	Heiz- medium	Abgas- reinigung	Emissionen (Min.–Mittelwert–Max.)
Anlage A	Trommel- trockner	60 t/h	Schweres Heizöl ~ 10 kg/t Einsatz	Heißgas- EGR und Gewebefilter	Kontinuierliche Messung Gasvolumenstrom: 53 070–66 350–75 510 Nm ³ /h (Tagesmittelwert) Staub: < 0,02–,59 mg/Nm ³ (Tagesmittelwert) SO ₂ : < 8– 188–481 mg/Nm ³ (Tagesmittelwert)
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>					

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gewebefilter und EGR

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Heißgas-Elektrofilter und Gewebefilter eignen sich generell für Neuanlagen und bestehende Anlagen, wobei die Parameter des Trocknerabgases zu beachten sind. Welcher Trocknertyp eingesetzt wird, ist abhängig von den örtlichen Gegebenheiten, wie z.B. einer zuverlässigen Dampfversorgung. Da die Schmelzanlagen kontinuierlich betrieben werden, ist eine zuverlässige Dampfversorgung in der Regel sichergestellt.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Umweltschutzvorschriften
- Rückgewinnung von Rohstoffen

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI)

Literatur

[378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

9.3.1.3 Pyrometallurgische Umwandlungsprozesse**9.3.1.3.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Ofenbeschickung in der Primärnickelerzeugung****Beschreibung**

Als Techniken kommen gekapselte Förderanlagen, wie z.B. pneumatische Dichtstromfördersysteme und Luftförderrinnen, Differentialverwiege- und Dosiersysteme und ein Konzentratbrenner in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Nichteisenmetallverhüttung kommt dem Beschickungssystem eine besondere Bedeutung zur Homogenisierung der Beschickung zu.

Bei der pneumatischen Dichtstromförderung wird das Fördergut ohne Fluidisierung in aufeinanderfolgenden Pfropfen durch die Förderleitung transportiert. Diese Fördertechnik zeichnet sich durch einen niedrigen Förderluftbedarf aus.

Differentialverwiege- und Dosiersysteme gewährleisten den Austrag einen konstanten Massenstroms in die Luftförderrinne, die das Material zum Konzentratbrenner transportiert. Bei dem Differentialverwiege- und Dosiersystem handelt es sich um ein gravimetrisches Dosiersystem bestehend aus einem Aufgabebunker und einem Dosierbehälter mit Austragsschnecke. Aus dem Dosiersystem wird die Einsatzmischung über eine Austragsschurre in die Luftförderrinne ausgetragen und im geschlossenen System dem Konzentratbrenner des Schwebeschmelzofens zugeführt, wobei gleichzeitig kleinere Schwankungen in der Aufgabegutmenge ausgeglichen werden. Luftförderrinnen arbeiten geräuschlos und staubfrei. Sie sind mit einem automatischen Domventil ausgestattet. Der Neigungswinkel der Förderrinne ist einstellbar. Die Fluidisierungsluft gelangt zusammen mit der suspendierten Einsatzmischung in den Schwebeschmelzofen. Des Weiteren besteht auch die Möglichkeit, das Luftförderrinnensystem zweistufig auszuführen. In diesem Fall nehmen die ersten Förderrinnen das Material aus den Differentialverwiege- und dosiersystemen auf und werfen es auf eine Aufgabeschurre ab, auf der dem Beschickungsgut Stäube beigemischt werden. Die Aufgabeschurre dient der guten Durchmischung der Beschickung vor Aufgabe in den Brenner über eine weitere Luftförderrinne.

Konzentratbrenner sind speziell für den Betrieb mit hoher Sauerstoffanreicherung und eine gleichmäßige Verteilung des Konzentrats über die Reaktionsflamme ausgelegt. Hauptaufgabe des Konzentratbrenners ist die innige Durchmischung der festen Einsatzstoffe mit dem Prozessgas. Konzentratbrenner nach dem neuesten Stand der Technik gewährleisten optimale Verbrennungsbedingungen durch genaue und gleichzeitige Regelung der Strömungsgeschwindigkeit der zugeführten Einsatzstoffe und des Prozessgases.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Minderung diffuser Emissionen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage A wird die Förderluft des pneumatischen Fördersystems der Abgasreinigungsanlage (Heißgas-EGR und Gewebefilter) im Bereich der Konzentratrocknung zugeführt. Die Emissionsdaten sind in Abschnitt 9.3.2.2 aufgeführt.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Der Energieaufwand und die Kosten für die Absaugung sind sehr niedrig.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Vermeidung von Staubentwicklung am Arbeitsplatz

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI)

Literatur

[310, Makinen T., Taskinen P. 2006]

9.3.1.3.2 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Direct Outotec Nickel (DON)-Prozess

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abhitzeessel und Heißgas-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1) mit nachgeschaltetem Nass-EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.2), Quecksilber- und Arsenabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.5) und Schwefelsäureanlage (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.4.1 und 2.12.5.4.2)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2) oder Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Heißgaszyklon und Venturiwäscher unter Verwendung von Natriumhydroxid als Waschlösung
- abgedeckte und abgesaugte Abstichrinnen

Technische Beschreibung

Das kontinuierlich anfallende Abgas verlässt den Ofen über den Abgasschacht und wird in einem Zwangsumlauf-Abhitzeessel bestehend aus einem Strahlungs- und einem Konvektionsteil unter Erzeugung von Sattdampf heruntergekühlt. Ein Teil des Flugstaubs setzt sich im Abhitzeessel ab, der Rest wird in einem Elektrofilter abgeschieden. Der im Abhitzeessel und EGR abgeschiedene Staub wird den Primäreinsatzstoffen beigemischt und in den Schwebeschmelzofen zurückgeführt.

Das mit einem konstant hohen SO₂-Gehalt anfallende Abgas wird nach Entstaubung und weiteren Reinigungsschritten der SO₂-Rückgewinnung zugeführt, hauptsächlich durch Umsetzung zu Schwefelsäure in einer Schwefelsäureanlage. Die bei der Nassgasreinigung anfallende Schwachsäure kann in den Abgasschacht des Schmelzofens eingedüst und damit in den Schmelzprozess zurückgeführt werden. Dabei zerfällt die Schwefelsäure wieder zu SO₂, Sauerstoff und Wasser, und das SO₂ kann in der Schwefelsäureanlage erneut zurückgewonnen werden.

Zur Erfassung diffuser gasförmiger Emissionen sind die Schlacke- und Steinabstichrinnen, Abstichöffnungen und Granulationsbecken mit Absaughauben ausgestattet. Das abgesaugte Abgas wird entweder in einem Nasswäscher oder nach Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk in Gewebefiltern gereinigt.

Das Abgas aus der Schlackengranulierung wird unter Verwendung einer NaOH-Waschlösung in einem Hochdruck-Multi-Venturiwäscher entschwefelt und entstaubt. Haupteinflussgrößen auf die Entschwefelungsleistung des Wäschers sind der pH-Wert der Waschlösung und das L/G-

Verhältnis. Die Entstaubungsleistung ist primär eine Funktion des Drucks, mit dem die Waschflüssigkeit in den Wäscher eingebracht wird. Die Reinigung CO₂-haltiger Abgase erfordert einen pH-Wert < 7. Ein höherer pH-Wert kann bei CO₂-freiem Abgas gewählt werden. Der Wäscherabstoß wird zur Neutralisation des Granulierwassers verwendet, der Abstoß aus dem Granulierwasserkreislauf wird in die AWA geleitet.

Die Materialaufgabemenge, kritische Prozess- und Verbrennungsbedingungen und die Gaszufuhr werden über ein Prozessleitsystem (PLS) überwacht und geregelt. Zur Prozesssteuerung werden einige Betriebsparameter, wie z.B. Temperatur, Ofendruck (oder -unterdruck) und Gasvolumenstrom oder Strömungsgeschwindigkeit gemessen. Für kritische Betriebsparameter erfolgt bei Über- oder Unterschreitung eines vorgegebenen Grenzwerts eine Alarmmeldung.

Schlacke und Nickelfeinstein werden regelmäßig beprobt und analysiert, um einen möglichst reibungslosen Betriebsablauf zu gewährleisten.

Beim kontinuierlichen DON-Prozess wird Nickelfeinstein direkt in einem Schmelzaggregat und in einer Hitze erzeugt, womit der Pfannentransport von schmelzflüssigem Stein und Schlacke entfällt. Metall und Schlacke werden über abgedeckte und abgesaugte Rinnen abgestochen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung diffuser Emissionen
- Minderung von Staub-, Metall und Schwefeldioxidemissionen
- Die aus dem Schmelzprozess entstehende Abwärme wird im Abhitzeessel in Form von Dampf zurückgewonnen, der zur Konzentrattrocknung, zur Deckung des Dampfbedarfs in anderen Prozessstufen oder zur Strom- oder Fernwärmeerzeugung genutzt wird.
- SO₂ wird in der Doppelkontakt-Schwefelsäureanlage in Form von Schwefelsäure zurückgewonnen.
- Der in den Entstaubungsanlagen (Kessel und Elektrofilter) abgeschiedene Flugstaub wird in den Schmelzofen zurückgeführt.
- Durch den Betrieb mit Sauerstoffanreicherung und Nutzung der in der Beschickung enthaltenen chemischen Energie für die Schmelzarbeit reduzieren sich der Brennstoffbedarf und die da mit einhergehenden CO₂-Emissionen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage A wird das Prozessabgas des Schmelzofens in einem Abhitzeessel unter Erzeugung von Hochdruckdampf heruntergekühlt, der für Heizwecke in anderen Prozessen genutzt wird. Vor Zuführung zur Säureanlage zur SO₂-Rückgewinnung wird das Abgas in einem Heißgas-EGR entstaubt.

Die Schlackenabstiche werden über Hauben abgesaugt und die abgesaugte Luft vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre in einem zentralen Gewebefilter gereinigt. Zur Minderung von SO₂-Emissionen und Verbesserung der Entstaubungsleistung wird kontinuierlich Kalk in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen. Zur Vermeidung nachteiliger Umwelteinwirkungen (Rauche/Dämpfe) ist die Schlackenabstichrinne abgedeckt. Die Schlacke wird in einem Elektrolichtbogenofen zwecks Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle weiterverarbeitet.

Das im Bereich der Steinabstichöffnungen erfasste Sekundärabgas wird in einem Venturiwäscher entschwefelt. Als Waschflüssigkeit dient eine NaOH-Lösung. Zur Grobentstaubung ist dem Wäscher ein Heißgaszyklon vorgeschaltet. Feinstaub wird in der Waschlösung abgeschieden.

Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten sind in

Tabelle 9.17 zusammengestellt.

Tabelle 9.17: Emissionen des DON-Prozesses

Anlage	Ofentyp	Schmelzleistung	Primärabgasführung	Primärabgasreinigung	Sekundärabgasquelle	Sekundärabgasreinigung	Emissionen (Min.–Mittelwert–Max.)
Anlage A	DON-Schwebeschmelzofen, Einstrahlbrenner, Sauerstoffanreicherung 80-90 %	1320 t/d	Abhitze-kessel und EGR Dampf 40 t/h	Doppelkontakt-Schwefel-säure-anlage	Sekundär-abgas Schlacke n-abstichbereich	Kalk-dosierung und Gewebe-filter	Staub: 0,01–0,14–5 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierlich) SO ₂ : 40–337–721 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierlich)
					Sekundär-abgas Stein-abstichbereich	Heißgas-Zyklon Venturi-wäscher mit NaOH	SO ₂ : 50–100–300 mg/Nm ³ (diskontinuierl.)
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [409, Finland 2013] [378, Industrial NGOs 2012], [409, Finland 2013]							

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Chemikalien
- Bei nassen Gasreinigungsverfahren fallen ein fester Abfallstoff und Abwasser an, die vor Entsorgung/Ableitung behandelt werden müssen.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung von Staub-, Metall- und SO₂-Emissionen
- Schwefelrückgewinnung

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI)

Literatur

[310, Makinen T., Taskinen P. 2006], [410, Mäkinen et al. 2005], [411, Taskinen et al. 2001]

9.3.1.3.3 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Elektrolichtbogenofen

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Nachverbrennungskammer (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2) oder Vorkonditionierung mit Kalk und Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Heißgaszyklon und Venturiwäscher unter Verwendung einer NaOH-Waschlösung
- abgedeckte und abgesaugte Abstichrinnen

Technische Beschreibung

Aus dem Schmelzofen wird die Schlacke periodisch abgestochen und über eine gekühlte und abgedeckte Schlackenrinne oberhalb der bereits eingebrachten Koksschicht in den Elektroofen chargiert.

Die Elektroofenschlacke wird abgestochen, granuliert, in den Schlackenlagerbereich transportiert und findet als Baustoff Verwendung.

Das CO-haltige Elektroofenabgas wird zunächst mit Luftüberschuss in einer wassergekühlten Verbrennungskammer nachverbrannt und anschließend gekühlt. Vor Eintritt in den Kamin erfolgt eine weitere Abgasreinigung durch Zugabe von $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ und anschließende Entstaubung in einem Gewebefilter oder Nasswäscher.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Erzeugung einer inerten Schlacke
- Reduzierung von CO- und SO_2 -Emissionen in die Luft durch Abgasreinigung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage A wird das Prozessabgas des Schlackenreinigungssofens nachverbrannt, durch Zugabe von Verdünnungsluft gekühlt und anschließend zum zentralen Gewebefilter geleitet. Die Schlackenabstiche werden über Hauben abgesaugt und die abgesaugte Luft vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre im selben zentralen Gewebefilter gereinigt. Zur Minderung von SO_2 -Emissionen und Verbesserung der Entstaubungsleistung wird kontinuierlich Kalk in den Abgasstrom eingeblasen.

Zur Vermeidung nachteiliger Umwelteinwirkungen (Dämpfe/Rauche) ist die Endschlackenrinne abgedeckt. Die Endschlacke wird mit Wasser granuliert.

Das im Bereich der Steinabstichöffnungen erfasste Sekundärabgas wird in einem Venturiwäscher entschwefelt. Als Waschflüssigkeit dient eine NaOH-Lösung. Zur Grobentstaubung ist dem Wäscher ein Heißgaszyklon vorgeschaltet. Feinstaub wird in der Waschlösung abgeschieden.

Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten sind in

Tabelle 9.18 und Tabelle 9.19 zusammengefasst [[378, Industrial NGOs 2012](#)].

Tabelle 9.18: Emissionen des Elektrolichtbogenofens

Anlage	Ofentyp	Einsatzmaterial	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen (Min.–Mittelwert–Max.)
Anlage A	Elektrolichtbogenofen, 3 Elektroden (Söderberg)	Schwebeschmelzofenschlacke	Thermische Nachverbrennung vor Eintritt in das zentrale Gewebefilter	Staub: 0,01–0,14–5 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierliche Messung) SO ₂ : 40–337–721 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierliche Messung)

Tabelle 9.19: Emissionen aus der Absaugung der Schlacke- und Steinabstich- und -granulierungsbereiche

Anlage	Ofen-	Sekundärabgasquelle	Abgasreinigung	Emissionen (Min.–Mittelwert–Max.)
Anlage A	Elektrolichtbogenofen	Schlackenabstich	Trockenkonditionierung mit Kalk und zentrales Gewebefilter	Staub: 0,01–0,14–5 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierliche Messung) SO ₂ : 40–337–721 mg/Nm ³ (kontinuierliche Messung)
		Steinabstich und -granulierung	Heißgas-Zyklon Venturiwäscher mit NaOH	SO ₂ : 20–80–250 mg/Nm ³ (diskontinuierliche Messung)

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Chemikalien
- Bei nassen Gasreinigungsverfahren fallen ein fester Abfallstoff und Abwasser an, die vor Entsorgung/Ableitung behandelt werden müssen.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI) und eine Anlage in Fortaleza (Brasilien)

Literatur

[310, Makinen T., Taskinen P. 2006], [410, Mäkinen et al. 2005], [411, Taskinen et al. 2001]

9.3.1.3.4 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderungen von Emissionen aus dem Nickelkonverterprozess

Beschreibung

Als Techniken kommen Absaughauben, Betrieb bei Unterdruck (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3) und der Einsatz eines Gewebefilters in Betracht (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Technische Beschreibung

In Anlage F in Frankreich wird der im Schmelzofen gewonnene Ferro-Nickelrohstein in einem Nickelkonverter durch Oxidation und Schwefelung auf Nickelfeinstein verarbeitet. Das Verblasen erfolgt zweistufig in zwei Peirce-Smith-Konvertern mit Schlackerückführung. Der erzeugte Nickelfeinstein wird in einer anderen französischen Hütte mittels chloridischer Laugung und Gewinnungselektrolyse zu hochreinen Nickelsalzen und Nickelmetall weiterverarbeitet. Eisen wird mittels Solventextraktion in Form von Eisenchlorid entfernt, wobei auch ein gewisser Anteil an Kobaltchlorid extrahiert wird.

Das beim Blasbetrieb aus dem Konverter austretende Prozessabgas wird erfasst. Um zu vermeiden, dass das Prozessabgas in den Bereich außerhalb der Abgaserfassungseinrichtung gelangt, wird über die Absaugleistung des Gebläses ein Unterdruck am Konvertermund eingestellt. Das Abgaserfassungssystem ist an Gewebefilter angeschlossen. Während des Absetzens der Schmelze oder beim Abgießen des Konverters werden die Abgaserfassungssysteme so gesteuert, dass Emissionen in den Konverterbereich vermieden werden.

Das erfasste Abgas wird in einem Wärmetauscher unter natürlicher oder erzwungener Konvektion gekühlt und anschließend in einem Gewebefilter entstaubt.

Bedingt durch das thermodynamische Gleichgewicht des Konverterprozesses kommt es zu keiner nennenswerten SO₂-Bildung und somit zu keinen relevanten SO₂ Emissionen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Metallhaltiger Staub wird aus dem erfassten Abgas abgeschieden und in den Erzschnmelzprozess zurückgeführt.
- Staubförmige Emissionen in die Luft werden erheblich reduziert.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es werden Staubemissionswerte < 15 mg/Nm³ berichtet.

Emissionen über das Abwasser sind nicht relevant, da die Abgasreinigung mittels trockener Verfahren erfolgt. Abwässer fallen lediglich bei der Kühlung bestimmter Aggregate an (Kondensate).

Mit 75 000 Tonnen bei einer Jahresproduktion von 15 000 Tonnen Nickelstein macht die feste Schlacke die größte Abfallmenge aus. Die Schlacke wird aus dem 60 t-Konverter abgestochen und zu einem separaten Abkühlplatz transportiert, von wo aus sie nach Abkühlung auf Umgebungstemperatur in einem separaten Lagerbereich überführt wird. Diese Schlacke ist als Abfall eingestuft.

Der über die Absaugeinrichtungen erfasste Staub besteht überwiegend aus metallischen und nichtmetallischen Oxiden (FeO, NiO, MgO und SiO₂) und wird in Gewebefiltern abgeschieden. Vor Rückführung in den Prozess (in den Schmelzofen) muss der Staub agglomeriert werden. Als Bindemittel kann unter anderem Beton eingesetzt werden, was den Betrieb der Agglomerationsanlage und die Handhabung vereinfacht.

Als weitere feste Abfallstoffe entstehen in der Konverterstufe Pfannenbären und Schrott, die in den Konverter zurückgeführt werden.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage F (FR)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.4 Hydrometallurgische Nickelraffination

9.3.1.4.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- abgedichtete oder geschlossene Prozessausrüstungen (Reaktoren, Absetzbehälter und Druckautoklaven/-kessel)
- Einsatz von Sauerstoff oder Chlor anstelle von Luft in den Laugungsstufen zur Minimierung des Prozessgasvolumenstroms und Maximierung der Rohstoffausbeute
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)
- Online-Überwachung und Regelung kritischer Betriebsparameter des Laugungsprozesses und der Abgasreinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Die Prozessausrüstungen der Laugungsstufen (Reaktoren, Absetzbehälter, Druckautoklaven/-kessel, Entspannungsbehälter) sind geschlossen ausgeführt. Das Prozessabgas wird erfasst und vor Abgabe an die Atmosphäre über eine Minderungseinrichtung, z.B. Gewebefilter oder Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5), geführt. Die Reststoffe aus der Abgasreinigung werden erneut gelaugt und die dabei anfallenden wässrigen Phasen in die Laugungsstufen zurückgeführt, wo sie Frischwasser ersetzen bzw. zur Reduzierung des Frischwasserverbrauchs beitragen.

Zur Maximierung des Nickelausbringens bei gleichzeitiger Minimierung der Emissionen müssen die kritischen Betriebsparameter der Laugungs- und Abgasreinigungseinrichtungen online überwacht und geregelt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen
- Höheres Nickelausbringen durch Rückführung der Reststoffe aus der Abgasreinigung

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die wichtigsten Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung sind in Tabelle 9.20 und Tabelle 9.21 zusammengefasst.

Tabelle 9.20: Emissionen der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung mit Schwefelsäure

Anlage	Verfahren	Kapazität	Minde- rungs- technik	Nickel (mg/Nm ³)			Messwert- erfassung	Mittel- wert- bildung
				Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.		
Anlage C	Normal- druck- und Druck- laugung / Sulfat / Sauerstoff	66 000 t Ni/a	Nass- wäscher	0,01	0,2	1,3	diskonti- nuierlich (12 x pro Jahr)	Mittel- wert über die Probe- nahme- dauer
				< 1000 kg/a				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Tabelle 9.21: Emissionen aus der Normaldruck- und Drucklaugung mit Chlorgas

Anlage	Verfahren	Kapazität	Minde- rungs- technik	Chlor (kg/h)			Messwert- erfassung	Mittel- wert- bildung
				Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.		
Anlage E	Normal- druck- und Drucklau- gung mit Chlorgas	92 000 t Ni/a	Nasswäsch er	0,1	0,23	0,87	diskonti- nuierlich (52 x pro Jahr)	Mittelwert über die Probe- nahme- dauer

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (geringfügiger Anstieg des Energieverbrauchs bei Einsatz von Nasswäschern)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher sind allgemein anwendbar.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Kosten für die 2009 in Anlage C in Betrieb genommenen Nasswäscher beliefen sich auf je EUR 500 000.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung der Emissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Anlage C (FI) und Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.4.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Solventextraktions-Raffination (Sulfatroute)

Beschreibung

Zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Solventextraktionsraffination der in der Laugungsstufe gewonnenen Lösungen kommen folgende Techniken entweder einzeln oder in Kombination in Betracht:

Bei "Low-Shear"-Mischern:

- Einsatz eines Mischers mit schonendem Eintrag der Scherkraft in das Gemisch aus Lösemittel und wässriger Phase zur Optimierung der Tröpfchengröße, Minimierung des Luftkontakts, Reduzierung von Lösemittelverlusten durch Verdampfung und Unterstützung der Auflösung des Metallkomplexes
- Verschließen der Mischer-, Separator- und Absetzstufen mit Deckeln zur Reduzierung von VOC-Emissionen in die Luft und VOC-Verschleppung in die wässrige Phase
- Einsatz von Minderungseinrichtungen zur Behandlung der erfassten Abluft (Kondensatoren, Kühler, Aktivkohlefilter und Biofilter)
- Einsatz von Rührwerken mit geringer Scherwirkung und stufenlos regelbaren Pumpen zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs des Systems

Bei "High-Shear"-Mischern:

- Konventionelle Mixer-Settler mit Misch- und Pumpturbinenimpellern mit hoher Scherwirkung
- Vollständig geschlossene, über ein zentrales Gebläse abgesaugte Behälter zur Vermeidung von Emissionen
- Einfache Minderungseinrichtung in Form eines Kühlturms mit nachgeschalteter Strömungsberuhigungsstrecke zum Absetzen und zur Rückgewinnung kondensierter VOC vor dem Saugzuggebläse

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Vermeidung der Freisetzung von Lösemitteldämpfen aus den Solventextraktionsbehältern kommen geschlossene oder abgedeckte Systeme zur Anwendung.

Eine Behandlung der Abluft ist zwar möglich, wird aber wegen der großen Volumenströme, des niedrigen VOC-Gehalts und der hohen Kosten im Normalfall nicht angewendet. Statt dessen wird ein Kühlturm im Abluftkanal der Extraktions- und Rückextraktionsstufen vorgesehen. Das anfallende VOC-Kondensat kann dann als Speisewasser im Solventextraktionsprozess genutzt werden. Da die VOC-Emissionen der Extraktionsstufe in etwa linear mit dem Abluftvolumenstrom steigen, ist die Minimierung des Absaugvolumenstroms ohne negative Auswirkungen auf die Luftqualität im Arbeitsbereich eine wichtige Maßnahme zur Reduzierung von VOC-Emissionen.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung von VOC-Emissionen in die Luft
- Senkung des Energieverbrauch des Systems durch Einsatz von "Low-shear"-Mischern und stufenlos regelbaren Pumpen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die wesentlichen Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Solventextraktionsanlagen in Nickelhütten sind in Tabelle 9.22 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 9.22: VOC-Emissionen der Solventextraktionsraffination

Anlage	Verfahren	Kapazität	Minde- rungs- technik	VOC (mg/Nm ³)			Messwert- erfassung	Mittel- wert- bildung
				Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.		
Anlage C	Co und CaSX/ Sulfat	Reinigung von bis zu 140 m ³ /h Nickel- sulfat- lösung	Geschlos- sene/abge- deckte Behälter, Mischer mit geringer Schewirkung, stufenlos regelbare Pumpen	3	42	134	diskon- tinuier- lich (2x pro Monat)	Mittel- wert über die Probe- nahme- dauer
				< 100 t/a				
				3,5 kg/h	4,9 kg/h	7,0 kg/h		
				< 70 t/a				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Behälterabdeckungen können bei neuen und bestehenden Extraktionsbehältern angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verminderung von VOC-Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

- Mischen mit geringer Scherwirkung: Anlage C (FI)
- Mischen mit starker Scherwirkung: Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.4.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Nickelfeinsteinraffination mittels Eisensalzlaugung unter Einleitung von Chlorgas (Chlorroute)

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommt ein Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Der Nickelfeinstein-Raffinationsprozess ist in Abschnitt 9.1.1.3.8 beschrieben

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Nebenprodukte (oder Abfälle) werden als chemische Zwischenprodukte weiterverkauft.
- Der Anfall nicht verwertbarer Prozessrückstände wird minimiert.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die wichtigsten Daten zur Umweltleistung der Raffinationsstufe in Anlage B sind in der nachstehenden Tabelle zusammengefasst (Mittelwerte über den Zeitraum 2007 bis 2011)

Der Energieverbrauch des Raffinationsprozesses in Anlage B liegt bei 20 GJ /t erzeugtes Nickel.

Tabelle 9.23: Staubemissionen des Nickelfeinstein-Raffinationsprozesses (Chloroute) in Anlage B

Verfahren	Minderungs- technik	Nickel (mg/Nm ³)			Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
		Min.	Mittel- wert	Max.		
Erzeugung von Nickelchlorid- salzen	Gewebefilter	0,04	0,53	1,4	diskontinuier- lich	Mittelwert über die Probenahme dauer

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Mit insgesamt 22 kg/t Nickel fallen in der Raffinationsstufe von Anlage B keine nennenswerten Mengen an festen Rückständen an.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlage B (FR)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.4.4 Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Gewinnungselektrolyse

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Online-Überwachung kritischer Prozessparameter wie Temperatur, Durchfluss und Stromverbrauch
- Erfassung und Wiederverwendung des Chlorgases und Verwendung dimensionsstabiler Anoden (DSA)
- Abdeckung der Zellen mit Polystyrolkugeln zur Vermeidung von Aerosolemissionen in die Luft
- Einsatz von Schäumungsmitteln zur Bildung einer stabilen Schaumschicht auf der Badoberfläche

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Gewinnungselektrolyse werden Gase an der Anode gebildet. Die aufsteigenden Gasbläschen zerplatzen an der Oberfläche des Elektrolyten und können zur Freisetzung metallhaltiger Säurenebel in die Umgebungsluft führen.

Bei der Nickelchlorid-Elektrolyse wandern die Chloridionen zu den Anoden und werden als Chlorgas abgeschieden. Die Anode, eine sogenannte dimensionsstabile Anode (DSA), befindet sich in einem Diaphragmabeutel und ist von einer Absaughaube umschlossen. Das direkt über der Anode erfasste Chlorgas wird in ein zentrales System geleitet und in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt. Während der Elektrolyse werden die Elektrolytbäder mit Polystyrolkugeln abgedeckt, um zu verhindern, dass die beim Zerplatzen der aufsteigenden Gasbläschen an der Badoberfläche entstehenden Elektrolytnebel in die Hallenatmosphäre und letztendlich in die Umgebungsluft freigesetzt werden. Deshalb ist darauf zu achten, dass die gesamte Badoberfläche mit einer geschlossenen Decke aus Polystyrolkugeln bedeckt ist. Nach Durchlaufen der Elektrolysezelle wird der Elektrolyt in zwei Phasen getrennt. Der chlorhaltige Anolyt wird in einen Entchlörungsbehälter geleitet und anschließend mit chlorfreiem Anolyt aus dem Überlauf der Elektrolysezelle gemischt. Das Chlorgas wird in den Prozess zurückgeführt.

Der Nickelsulfat-Elektrolyse liegt die folgende Reaktion zugrunde: $\text{NiSO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Ni} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2$. Die Nickelsulfatlösung wird in die Diaphragmabeutel, in die die Kathoden eingehängt sind, eingespeist. Dort scheidet sich Nickel an den Kathoden ab. Die Sulfationen reagieren mit Wasser unter Bildung von Schwefelsäure, die in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt wird. Der sich an der Anode entwickelnde Sauerstoff wird in die Hallenatmosphäre und von dort über die Hallenentlüftung in die Atmosphäre freigesetzt. Die anodisch gebildeten Gase enthalten Nickel- und Säurenebel. Zur Minimierung von Nebelemissionen wird eine stabile Schaumschicht auf der Badoberfläche aufrechterhalten.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Chlorgas-, Säure- und Metallemissionen in die Luft
- Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs (Online-Überwachung und Optimierung der Betriebsparameter)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In Anlage E wird das Chlorgas erfasst und wiederverwendet, so dass in der Gewinnungselektrolyse selbst keine direkten Chloremissionen auftreten. (Allerdings entstehen bei der Nutzung des erfassten Chlors in den Laugungs- oder Reinigungsstufen indirekte Chloremissionen, die bei dem entsprechenden Prozessschritt zu berücksichtigen sind). Der Energieverbrauch des Raffinationsprozesses liegt bei ca. 20 GJ/Mt erzeugtes Nickel.

Tabelle 9.24: Emissionen der Gewinnungselektrolyse

Anlage	Verfahren	Kapa- zität	Minderungs- technik	Nickel (mg/Nm ³)			Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
				Min.	Mittelwert	Max.		
Anlage C	Nickelsulfat- elektrolyse	20 000 t Ni/a	Stabile Schaum- schicht auf der Elektro- lytoberfläche in den Zellen	0,3	0,5	0,8	diskon- tinuier- lich (24 x pro Jahr)	Mittel- wert über die Probe- nahme- dauer
				1500 kg/a		2500 kg/a		
Anlage E	Hydrometal- lurgisches Reinigungs- verfahren und Nickel- chlorid- elektrolyse	92 000 t metallisc hes Ni/a	Abdeckung der Elektro- lysezellen mit Polystyrol- kugeln zur Vermeidung von Säure- /Metallnebel- emissionen in die Luft	0,3		0,5	diskon- tinuier- lich (3 x pro Jahr)	
					880 kg/a	1500 kg/a		

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Geringfügig höherer Energieverbrauch für die Chlorgasfassung

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

In Europa gibt es nur wenige Nickelhütten, in denen Nickel durch chlorierende Laugung und Gewinnungselektrolyse erzeugt wird (alle bekannten Standorte sind im vorliegenden Referenzdokument repräsentiert). Damit relativiert sich die Bedeutung der Chlorgasfassung und Wiederverwendung in anderen Industriesektoren oder an anderen Produktionsstandorten.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Dimensionsstabile Anoden erfordern zusätzliche Wartungsmaßnahmen und sind höher in den Anschaffungskosten.

Durch die interne Wiederverwendung des Chlorgases und der Schwefelsäure reduziert sich der Bedarf an extern zu beschaffenden Reagenzien für den Prozess.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Minderung von Chlorgas-, Säurenebel- und Metallemissionen in die Luft

Beispielanlagen

Anlage C (FI) und Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

[412, Norwegian Environment Agency 2012]

9.3.1.4.5 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Carbonyl-Prozess

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Abgaserfassung (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.3)

- Nachverbrennungskammer (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Technische Beschreibung

Das Abgas des Carbonylprozesses (bestehend aus einem CO/Nickelcarbonylgemisch und Wasserstoff) sowie das Abgas aus der Anlagenspülung und Druckentlastung werden erfasst, in einen zentralen Abgassammelkanal geleitet und von dort kontrolliert einer Verbrennungskammer zur thermischen Nachverbrennung (TNV) zugeführt.

Die TNV besteht aus einem luftgekühlten Stahlblechgehäuse mit Feuerfestauskleidung. Die Beheizung der Brennkammer erfolgt über zwei Hochleistungsbrenner, wovon einer mit Erdgas (Erdgasbrenner) und der andere mit Abgas (Restwasserstoff aus der Reduktionstufe) befeuert wird. Die baugleich ausgeführten Gasbrenner sind tangential in der Brennkammer angeordnet. Vorteilhaft bei der Tangentialfeuerung ist die Ausbildung einer Rotationsströmung und der damit verbundene verbesserte Ausbrand. Jeder Brenner besteht aus drei konzentrisch angeordneten Rohren: der Brennstofflanze, dem Wasserkühlmantel und einem Luftkühlmantel zum Quenchen der heißen Gase bei Bedarf. Im Brenner werden Kohlenstoffmonoxid und Nickelcarbonyl mit Luft gemischt und anschließend in der Brennkammer verbrannt.

Das sich dabei bildende Nickeloxid fällt als feinkörniger Staub an, der mit dem Verbrennungsgas aus der Brennkammer ausgetragen wird. Das nichttoxische Wasserstoffrestgas (aus der Anlagenspülung) wird dem Gasverteiler zugeführt und als Stützbrennstoff für den Abgasbrenner genutzt. Der Druck des Wasserstoffrestgases wird über eine auf Bodenniveau angeordnete Wassertasse überwacht und geregelt. Bei einem Flammenausfall wird die Wassertasse über ein Abblaserrohr entlüftet. Die Wasserstoffgasreaktion ist an anderer Stelle beschrieben.

Zur Sicherstellung des vollständigen Ausbrands der toxischen und leicht entzündbaren Gase und Vermeidung einer Überhitzung der Brennkammer sind drei Regelkreise vorgesehen:

- Aufgabe der Primärregelung ist die Sicherstellung der erforderlichen Mindesttemperatur zur Oxidation toxischer gasförmiger Verbindungen. Stellgröße ist die Gasmenge zum Erdgasbrenner.
- Der zweite Regelkreis verhindert eine Überschreitung der durch die Brennkammerwerkstoffe vorgegebenen maximal zulässigen Betriebstemperatur der Brennkammer. Bei zu hoher Brennkammertemperatur wird die Primärluftmenge zum CO-Brenner erhöht und für den Fall, dass dies nicht ausreicht, Sekundärluft in den Brenner eingeleitet.
- Die dritte Regelkreis stellt sicher, dass die maximal zulässige Temperatur am Gasaustritt nicht überschritten wird. Bei Annäherung der Abgastemperatur an den oberen Grenzwert öffnen zwei Luftklappen, über die Quenchlufte in die Brennerkammer eingeleitet und das heiße Abgas mit kalter Luft verdünnt wird.

Im Austrittsstutzen der Brennkammer sind wärmebeständige Klappen aus Stahl angeordnet, über deren Winkelstellung der Abgasvolumenstrom der Brennkammer geregelt und der Austrittskanal ggf. abgesperrt werden kann. Der Austrittskanal mündet in den Abgassammelkanal. Das staubbeladene Verbrennungsgas strömt über die Klappen in den Abgaskanal, der in ein Filtersystem mündet.

Das Pulse-Jet-Gewebefilter besteht aus mehreren Filterkammern mit jeweils separaten Gaseintritts- und -austrittsklappen. Die einzelnen Filterkammern sind mit Filterschläuchen bestückt, die in der Lage sind, Partikel bis in den Submikron-Bereich zurückzuhalten. Die Filter werden über Schlauchbruchwächter überwacht und automatisch über Druckluftimpulse abgereinigt (Pulse-Jet-Abreinigung).

Die abgeschiedenen Partikel fallen in die unterhalb der Filterkammern angeordneten Staubsammeltrichter und werden über eine Zellenradschleuse in Aufschlammbehälter

ausgetragen. Dort wird der Staub in einem kontinuierlichen Wasserstrom aufgeschlämmt und anschließend in die Abwasserreinigungsanlage der Nickelraffinerie geleitet.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung von Nickel- und CO₂-Emissionen in die Luft
- Rückgewinnung von Nickel aus dem Abgasstrom und damit Schonung natürlicher Ressourcen
- Nutzung des Wasserstoffrestgases aus dem Carbonyl-Prozesses zur Stützfeuerung
- Erzeugung eines stabilisierten Carbonylierungsreaktorrückstands, der in einer Hochdruck-Nickelextraktionsstufe weiterverarbeitet werden kann
- Der Hochdruck-Nickelextraktion kann eine Kobalt/Kupfer-Extraktion nachgeschaltet werden. Der danach verbleibende, mit Platingruppemetallen (PGM) angereicherte Rückstand kann anschließend der PGM-Gewinnung zugeführt werden. Auf diese Weise gelingt die Extraktion aller im Erz enthaltenen Metalle.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Die Emissionswerte des Carbonyl-Prozesses in Anlage D sind in Tabelle 9.25 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 9.25: Emissionen des Carbonylprozesses

Anlage	Verfahren	Minderungs-technik	Luftschadstoff	Min. (mg/Nm ³)	Mittelwert (mg/Nm ³)	Max. (mg/Nm ³)	Messwert-erfassung	Mittelwert-bildung
Anlage D	Carbonyl-Prozess	Nachverbrennungskammer mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	Staub	0,03	0,98	7,4	kontinuierlich	Tagesmittelwert
			Ni	0,003	0,06	0,3	diskontinuierlich (2 x pro Jahr)	Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer
			CO	265	297	329		
			SO ₂	13,6	18,5	23,4		
			NO _x	4,9	6,3	7,7		
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>								

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (Erdgasverbrauch)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Vollständige Oxidation des toxischen Nickelcarbonylgases zu Nickeloxidpulver
- Hocheffiziente Rückgewinnung der Metalle aus dem Primärcarbonylprozess und gleichzeitige Rückgewinnung der Metalle aus den Reststoffen der Abgas- und Abwasserreinigung
- Umweltschutzvorschriften

Beispielanlagen

Anlage D (UK)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.4.6 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts durch Reduktion mit Wasserstoff unter Druck

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- geschlossene oder abgedeckte Prozessausrüstungen (Reaktoren, Absetzbehälter und Autoklaven/Druckkessel, Pulverfördersysteme, Produktsilos)
- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)
- Online-Überwachung und Regelung kritischer Betriebsparameter des Reduktionsprozesses und der Abgasreinigung

Technische Beschreibung

Die Nickelextraktion durch Reduktion mit Wasserstoff erfolgt nach folgendem Verfahrensablauf (eine ausführlichere Beschreibung findet sich in Abschnitt 9.1.1.3). Ausgangsstoff ist die gereinigte Nickellösung aus der Solventextraktionsstufe, der ggf. Ammoniak oder Ammoniumsulfat zugesetzt wird. In den Autoklaven wird die Einsatzlösung mit Hilfe von Wasserstoff zu metallischem Nickelpulver reduziert, das entweder direkt verkauft oder gesintert und als Brikett in den Handel gebracht wird. Die im Reduktionsprozess gebildete Schwefelsäure wird mit Ammoniak neutralisiert. Die resultierende Ammoniumsulfatlösung enthält geringe Mengen an Nickel und Kobalt, die mit Hilfe von Schwefelwasserstoff zur weiteren Aufarbeitung ausgefällt werden. Das Ammoniumsulfat wird durch Kristallisation und Trocknung zurückgewonnen.

Der Reduktionsprozess wird diskontinuierlich in mehreren Autoklaven bei hohen Temperaturen (ca. 200 °C) und Drücken (ca. 30 bar) durchgeführt. Das heiße, feuchte Abgas der Autoklaven wird in Nasswäschern unter Verwendung von Schwefelsäure als Waschlösung gereinigt. Unter den vorherrschenden Prozessbedingungen gestaltet sich die Ammoniakrückgewinnung schwierig. Zur Reduzierung von Ammoniakemissionen in die Luft müssen die kritischen Betriebsparameter des Prozesses und der Abgasreinigung überwacht und geregelt werden.

Die Herstellung von Nickelbriketts aus Nickelpulver erfolgt in mehreren Arbeitsschritten, in denen es zur Staubeentwicklung und -freisetzung in die Hallenatmosphäre kommen kann. Alle Fördereinrichtungen, Silos und Prozessausrüstungen müssen gekapselt sein und über eine Emissionsminderungseinrichtung abgesaugt werden.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung oder Verminderung von Nickel- und Ammoniakemissionen in die Luft

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Eine Übersicht über die wesentlichen Betriebs- und Leistungsdaten von Wasserstoffreduktionsprozessen ist Tabelle 9.26 zu entnehmen.

Tabelle 9.26: Emissionen aus Wasserstoffreduktionsprozessen bei der Herstellung von Nickelstaub und -briketts.

Anlage	Prozess	Kapazität	Minderungs-technik	Luftschadstoff	Min.	Mittelwert	Max.	Messwertfassung	Mittelwertbildung
Anlage C	Wasserstoffreduktion, Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und -briketts	40 000 t/a	Gewebe- filter (für Nickel- pulver) und Nass- wäscher (für Am- moniak)	Ni (mg/Nm ³)	0,05	0,6	3,7	diskontinu- ierlich (12 x pro Jahr)	Mittel- wert über die Probe- nahme- dauer
					< 1000 kg/a				
					< 200 t/a				

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Leicht höherer Energieaufwand bei Einsatz von Emissionsminderungseinrichtungen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen in die Luft können bei neuen und bestehenden Wasserstoffreduktionsanlagen angewendet werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Verringerung der Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

Anlage C (FI)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.5 Abwasser

9.3.1.5.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung von Abwasseranfall

Siehe Abschnitt 2.12.6.1.

9.3.1.5.2 Abwasserbehandlung

Beschreibung

Zur Behandlung von Abwässern (außer Kühlabwässer) vor Ableitung in den Vorfluter kommen folgende Techniken in Betracht:

- Vorbehandlung in bestimmten Fällen
- chemische Fällung
- Sedimentation oder Flotation
- Filtration

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Gewinnung von Nichteisenmetallen fallen diverse Abwässer unterschiedlicher Zusammensetzung an.

Vorbehandlung

Abhängig von der Anfallstelle kann in einigen Fällen eine Abwasservorbehandlung notwendig werden.

Das über die Abwasserkanalisation gesammelte Abwasser ist in der Regel mit groben und suspendierten Feststoffen, gelösten Metallen und Salzen belastet. Es setzt sich zusammen aus Niederschlagswasser, Ablaufwasser aus der Berieselung, Oberflächenwasser aus der Dach-, Straßen- und Lagerbereichsentwässerung, Abwasser aus der Grundwassersanierung, Kühlabwässern, Reinigungsabwässern und neutralen Prozessabwässern.

Grobe, aufschwimmende Fraktionen im Mischabwasser müssen vor der weiteren Behandlung über Siebe abgetrennt werden. Grobe absetzbare Feststoffe werden vor der weiteren Behandlung in einem Puffer- oder Absetzbecken, ggf. unter Zugabe eines Polyelektrolyten, sedimentiert. Der sich am Beckenboden absetzende Schlamm wird über einen Schlammrechen aus dem Becken ausgetragen und anschließend in einer Filterpresse oder Filterzentrifuge entwässert. Der Presskuchen enthält i.d.R. Wertmetalle und wird in den Produktionsprozess zurückgeführt. Nach dieser Vorbehandlung wird das Abwasser gemeinsam mit den Prozessabwässern aus der Verhüttung und nachgeschalteten Metallverarbeitung wie nachstehend beschrieben weiterbehandelt.

Abwasser aus der Nickelproduktion kann mit suspendierten Feststoffen, Säuren, gelösten Metallen und Salzen belastet sein. Auch die Abwassertemperatur muss u.U. berücksichtigt werden, z.B. bei Prozess- oder Kühlabwässern.

Chemische Fällung

Zur Abtrennung gelöster Metalle und anderer gelöster Elemente werden diese zunächst in eine unlösliche Form überführt:

- Durch Zugabe einer Base (z.B. Natrium- oder Kalziumhydroxid) werden gelöste Metalle bei einem pH-Wert von 10–11,5 als unlösliche Metallhydroxide ausgefällt.
- Bei Zugabe von Kalziumhydroxid (Kalkmilch) werden im Abwasser vorhandene Sulfate als Gips ausgefällt. Fluoride werden dabei als Calciumfluorid mitgefällt. Bei Einstellung eines pH-Werts von +/- 1 entsteht so Gips mit einer ausreichenden Reinheit zur Verwertung.
- Durch Zugabe von Sulfid (z.B. Dinatriumsulfid, Natriumhydrogensulfid, Trimercaptotriazin (TMS)) unter alkalischen Bedingungen werden Metalle als unlösliche Metallsulfide ausgefällt. Diese Technik kann auch nach der Hydroxidfällung zur Abtrennung von Tl^+ eingesetzt werden.
- Die Arsenentfernung erfolgt durch Zugabe von Eisen (Eisensulfat oder Eisen-III-Chlorid). Zur Aufrechterhaltung eines optimalen pH-Werts von +/- 10 muss eventuell eine Base zugesetzt werden.
- Zur Unterstützung der Fällung wird ein Polyelektrolyt zugegeben, der die Aggregation der Partikel zu größeren Flocken bewirkt.

Bei komplex zusammengesetzten Abwässern kann eine mehrstufige Behandlung bei unterschiedlichen pH-Werten, wie oben beschrieben, erforderlich werden.

Sedimentation/Flotation und Filtration

Suspendierte Feststoffe, ausgefallte Metalle, Gips und Kalziumfluorid werden in Absetzbecken abgetrennt. Zur Verbesserung des Absetzverhaltens wird ein Polyelektrolyt zugegeben. Der sich im Absetzbecken absetzende Schlamm wird in einer Filterpresse oder einer Zentrifuge entwässert, um einen Filterkuchen zu erzeugen, der entweder deponiert oder zur Rückgewinnung der enthaltenen Metalle in den Metallgewinnungsprozess zurückgeführt

werden kann. In größeren Nickelhütten werden die verschiedenen Abwasserströme einer zentralen Abwasserreinigungsanlage zugeführt, in der sie getrennt nach zwei Abwassergruppen behandelt werden, um die Metallrückgewinnung durch Erzeugung zweier unterschiedlicher Schlämme zu maximieren.

Vor Ableitung des gereinigten Abwassers muss ggf. eine pH-Wert-Einstellung durch Zugabe von Salzsäure oder Einblasen von CO₂ vorgenommen werden.

Wenn die Temperatur des AWA-Ablaufs oder des indirekten Kühlwassers zu hoch für eine Ableitung oder Wiederverwendung ist, sollte eine Kühlung erfolgen (Kühltürme, Wärmetauscher). Offene Kühltürme sollten nicht zur Rohwasserkühlung verwendet werden, um Metalleinträge durch Korrosion und Abrasion zu vermeiden. In diesem Zusammenhang ist auch die Leitfähigkeit des Abwassers zu berücksichtigen.

Nach Behandlung kann das gereinigte Abwasser für Kühl- und Berieselungszwecke und z.T. auch als Prozesswasser genutzt werden. Dabei kann der Salzgehalt einer Wiederverwendung im Wege stehen, z.B. Bildung von Kalkbelägen in Wärmetauschern. Außerdem besteht bei diesem (i.d.R. warmen) Wasserstrom ein Legionellenrisiko, wodurch sich erhebliche Einschränkungen für eine Wiederverwendung ergeben können.

Zur Regelung der Additivdosierung oder des Durchflusses müssen die relevanten Parameter des Abwasserreinigungsprozesses mittels geeigneter Messeinrichtungen gemessen werden. Die Messungen können online erfolgen, z.B. pH-Wert, Redox-Potenzial, Durchfluss und Leitfähigkeit, und direkt zur Regelung der Additivdosierung verwendet werden. Zur Bestimmung des Metallgehalts kann eine durchflussproportionale Probe, z.B. aus dem Kontrollbecken, gezogen werden oder es können Schöpfproben, die zur Prozesskontrolle entnommen werden, herangezogen werden. Analysemethoden, wie z.B. Atomabsorptionsspektrometrie (AAS) oder die ICP-Methode (induktiv gekoppeltes Plasma) erlauben eine schnelle Abwasseranalyse, wobei mit der ICP-Methode eine niedrigere Nachweisgrenze und die Bestimmung einer breiteren Parameterpalette möglich ist. Wenn ein Pufferbecken vorgesehen ist und bei relativ langer Verweilzeit des Abwassers im Prozess genügen u. U. Stichproben und deren sofortige Analyse, um auf Prozessabweichungen zu reagieren.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Entfernung von suspendierten Feststoffen und Grobstoffen, Metallen, Säuren, Sulfaten und Fluoriden aus dem Abwasser auf Restkonzentrationen, die eine Ableitung oder Wiederverwendung erlauben
- Gewinnung eines verwertbaren Schlammes (z.B. verkaufsfähiger Reingips, wertmetallhaltiger Schlamm, der in den Produktionsprozess zurückgeführt werden kann) und damit Vermeidung eines festem Abfallstoffs, der entsorgt werden muss
- Anreicherung umweltschädlicher Schwermetalle (Cadmium, Arsen) in einem konzentrierten Schlamm und damit einhergehend eine Reduzierung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmenge
- Gewinnung von Wasser, das im Hüttenbetrieb wieder eingesetzt werden kann, z.B. als Berieselungs-, Kühl-, oder Reinigungswasser und z.T. auch als Prozesswasser

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

In der Abwasserreinigungsanlage von Anlage D werden alle Prozessabwässer (einschl. Oberflächenwasser aus der Oberflächen-, Straßen- und Dachentwässerung, ausgetretene Flüssigkeiten, Reinigungsabwässer und Niederschlagswasser) im Zulaufsumpf gesammelt und gemeinsam gereinigt. Filtrat aus den Produktionsprozessen sowie Rücklauf aus dem Notspeicherbecken wird ebenfalls in diesem Zulaufsumpf gesammelt.

Das Rohwasser gelangt zunächst in ein Alkaliendosierbecken und wird dort durch Zugabe von Natriumhydroxid auf einen pH-Wert von 10,2 eingestellt. Von dort fließt es in einen Eindicker, in dem sich die Feststoffe auf dem Boden absetzen.

Das Klarwasser fließt über ein Überlaufwehr in das Klarwasserbecken und wird nach Einstellung eines pH-Werts von 9,2 über Mehrschicht-Sandfilter geleitet.

Jedes Sandfilter wird im 24-stündigen Rhythmus rückgespült. Zu diesem Zweck wird zur Betauflockerung zunächst Fluidisierungsluft durch das Filter geleitet und anschließend mit Spülwasser aus dem Klarwasserbecken rückgespült. Das Rückspülwasser wird im Spülwassersammelbecken gesammelt und über Rücklaufpumpen in den Zulaufsumpf zurückgepumpt. Vor Ableitung in den Fluss wird das gefilterte Wasser über ein Säuredosierbecken geleitet, in dem durch Zugabe von Kohlendioxid oder Schwefelsäure ein pH-Wert zwischen 6 und 9 eingestellt wird. Bei zu hohem oder zu niedrigem pH-Wert erfolgt eine Umleitung des Ablaufs in Notspeicherbecken.

Aus dem Eindicker werden die abgesetzten Feststoffe in Schlammvorlagebehälter ausgetragen und anschließend in einer Kammerfilterpresse entwässert. Das Filtrat wird zurück in den Zulaufsumpf geleitet. Der Filterkuchen wird auf einem Bandtrockner verdichtet und durch Heißluftumwälzung getrocknet. Das getrocknete Material wird mittels eines Senkrechtförderers in einen Produktbunker überführt und vor dem Versand oder der weiteren Verarbeitung abgesackt.

Die berichteten Emissionswerte für Anlage D sind in Tabelle 9.27 aufgeführt.

Tabelle 9.27: Anlage D – Emissionen in das Wasser

Schadstoff	Min. (mg/l)	Mittelwert (mg/l)	Max. (mg/l)	Messwerterfassung
Ni	0,1	0,56	3,2	Diskontinuierliche Mischproben und Analyse (Mischprobe zusammengestellt aus 2 Proben pro Tag)
Gelöstes Ni	0,1	0,41	2,5	
Co	0,1	0,1	0,2	
Cu	0,1	0,1	0,2	

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Anlage C und Anlage A sind am gleichen Standort angesiedelt. Bei Anlage A handelt es sich um eine Kupfer- und Nickelhütte, bei Anlage C um eine Nickelraffinerie (Laugung, Solventextraktion, Gewinnungselektrolyse, Wasserstoffreduktion) mit integriertem Chemiewerk. Beide Hütten sind mit einer AWA ausgestattet. In Anlage A wird ein Teil des Oberflächenwassers und das Abwasser aus der Entwässerung des Abfalllagerbereichs von Anlage C behandelt.

Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage von Anlage A ist in Abschnitt 3.3.6.2 beschrieben. Die Ablaufwerte dieser Anlage sind in Tabelle 9.28 wiedergegeben.

Tabelle 9.28: Anlage A – Emissionen in das Wasser

Anlage	Minderungs-technik	Schadstoff	Min. (mg/l)	Mittelwert (mg/l)	Max. (mg/l)	Messwert-erfassung	Mittelwert-bildung
Anlage A (Kupfer- und Nickelhütte)	1) Vorklärung 2) Fällung: Metallhydroxid-fällung mit NaOH (pH-Wert ca. 10,5). 3) Actiflo®-Behandlung: I) Dosierung von Eisen-(III)-sulfat (Flockungsmittel). II) Zugabe von Mikrosand und innige Mischung mit dem Abwasser zur Homogenisierung III) Dosierung von Flockungshilfsmittel IV) Schwere Flocken setzen sich am Boden des Absetzbeckens ab; Klarwasser verlässt das Becken über den Überlauf. Zur Verbesserung der Klärleistung sind die Sedimentationsbecken als Lamellenklärer ausgeführt. Der abgesetzte Schlamm wird zu Hydrozyklonen gepumpt, in denen der Sand abgetrennt und anschließend in den Prozess zurückgeführt wird. Der metallhaltige Schlamm setzt sich im Vorklärbecken ab, wird von dort in das Schlammbecken gepumpt und der Schlackenflotationsanlage zugeführt.	Cu	<0,01	0,0	1,8	kontinuierliche Mischproben	Tagesmittelwert
		Ni	<0,01	0,06	1,9		
		Zn	<0,01	0,02	0,4		
		Pb	<0,008	0,009	0,05		
		As	< 0,01	0,02	0,4		
		Cd	< 0,001	0,003	0,08		
		Hg	<00001	0,0002	0,006		
	Volumenstrom	490 m ³ /h	1348 m ³ /h	3100 m ³ /h	kontinuierliche Überwachung	Jahresmittelwert	
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

In Anlage C setzt sich der Zulauf der AWA aus Prozessabwässern des chemischen Betriebs, Oberflächenwässern und Prozessabwässern aus der Raffination zusammen. Die Abwasserbehandlung erfolgt wie folgt:

- pH-Wert-Einstellung durch Zugabe von Natriumhydroxid oder Natriumcarbonat
- ggf. Zugabe von Flockungs- und Flockungshilfsmitteln
- Sedimentation: die abgesetzten Feststoffe werden in die Laugungsstufe zurückgeführt; das Klarwasser wird über einen Sandfilter geleitet und nach Durchlaufen eines Nachklärbeckens in den Kokemäenjoki-Fluss eingeleitet.

Tabelle 9.29: Anlage C – Emissionen in das Wasser

Anlage	Minderungs-technik	Schadstoff	Min. (mg/l)	Mittelwert (mg/l)	Max. (mg/l)	Messwert-erfassung	Mittelwert-bildung
Anlage C (Nickel- raffinerie und Chemie- betrieb)	pH-Wert- Einstellung, ggf. Koagu- lation und Flockung, Sedimenta- tion, Sandfilter	Ni	0,02	0,2	0,9	kontinuier- liche Misch- proben	Tagesmittel- wert
		Cu	< 0,01	0,02	0,4		
		Zn	< 0,01	0,2	0,8		
		U	< 0,01	0,2	0,6		
		Pb	< 0,01	0,03	0,6		
	As	< 0,01	< 0,01	0,06			
		Volumen- strom	33 m ³ /h	86 m ³ /h	115 m ³ /h	kontinuier- liche Überwa- chung	Monatsmittel- wert

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Für Anlage B werden folgende Emissionswerte nach Abwasserreinigung (physikalisch-chemische Behandlung) berichtet.

Tabelle 9.30: Anlage B – Emissionen in das Wasser

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Min. (mg/l)	Mittelwert (mg/l)	Max. (mg/l)	Messwert-erfassung
Anlage B	Physikalisch-chemische Behandlung	Ni	0,02	0,55	1,5	einfache Stichprobe
		Fe	<0,01	0,2	2	
		Co	<0,005	0,05	0,5	
		Cu	<0,005	0,03	0,5	
		TSS	k.A.	0,2 kg/t Ni	k.A.	k.A.
		TVOC	k.A.	0,17 kg/t Ni	k.A.	k.A.

Anmerkung: Da die Anwesenheit von Chloriden das Ergebnis der CSB-Bestimmung verfälscht, sind die Analyseergebnisse nicht repräsentativ. In Anlage B wird zur Kontrolle des Raffinationsabwasser auf organische Verbindungen der Gesamtgehalt an organischen Kohlenstoffen (TOC) anstelle des CSB bestimmt.
k.A. = keine Angaben

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Die Ablaufwerte der AWA in Anlage E sind in der nachfolgenden Tabelle aufgeführt.

Tabelle 9.31: Anlage E – Emissionen in das Wasser

Anlage	Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Min. (mg/l)	Mittelwert (mg/l)	Max. (mg/l)	Messwert- erfassung	Mittelwert- bildung
Anlage E	Belüftungsbecken als erste Behandlungsstufe zur Entfernung von CO ₂ durch Mischen und Belüftung bei niedrigem pH-Wert (< 5,5). Im nachgeschalteten Fällbecken werden Metalle durch NaOH-Dosierung als Hydroxide ausgefällt. Die Feststoffphase wird abfiltriert und geht in den Prozess zurück. Das Filtrat wird mit Kühlwasser gemischt und in das Meer eingeleitet.	Ni	0,06	0,10	0,13	kontinuierliche Mischproben	Mischprobe aus Tagesproben über einen Monat
		Fe	0,02	0,06	0,13		
		Co	0,01	0,02	0,04		
		Cu	0,02	0,03	0,05		
		As	0,009	0,03	0,11		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]							

Bei Anlage G handelt es sich um eine Multimetall-Hütte mit einer zentralen AWA zur Behandlung der anfallenden Abwässer (Mischabwasser bestehend aus Sanitärabwasser, Prozessabwässern und Niederschlagswasser). Eine Beschreibung dieser AWA sowie die Ablaufwerte sind Abschnitt 3.3.6.2 zu entnehmen.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Reagenzien
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs zur Beseitigung oder zur Verwertung im Schachtofen
- Wärmeverlagerung vom Wasser in die Luft

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Bei der Auswahl der Techniken müssen die Besonderheiten der Produktionsprozesse und Einsatzstoffe sowie die jeweiligen Randbedingungen berücksichtigt werden. Auch die Größe und Fließgeschwindigkeit des Aufnahmegewässers kann einen Einfluss auf die Auswahl der Techniken haben.

Um die Bildung von Schwefelwasserstoff zu vermeiden, dürfen Sulfide nicht mit Säuren in Kontakt kommen. Der Überschuss an Sulfidionen nach der Metallfällung kann durch Zugabe von Eisen-(III)-sulfat in einer weiteren Fällstufe entfernt werden.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage in Anlage C wurde 2002 in Betrieb genommen. Die Investitionskosten beliefen sich auf rund EUR 3,5 Millionen. Die jährlichen Betriebskosten liegen bei ca. EUR 400 000.

Die Abwasserreinigungsanlage in Anlage B ging 2009 in Betrieb. Die Investitionskosten betragen rund EUR 4 Millionen. Die jährlichen Betriebskosten liegen bei ca. EUR 800 000.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Reduzierung von Emissionen in das Wasser und Einhaltung der Einleitungsgrenzwerte

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI), Anlage B (FR), Anlage C (FI), Anlage D (UK), Anlage E (NO), Anlage F (FR) und Anlage G (BE)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.6 Prozessrückstände**9.3.1.6.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Prozessrückständen und Abfällen****Beschreibung**

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Nutzung von Rückständen und Abfällen im selben oder in einem anderen Prozess zur Metallrückgewinnung
- Wertstoffrückgewinnung bei externen Verwertern
- Aufbereitung zur Nutzung in anderen Anwendungen wie in der nachfolgenden technischen Beschreibung dargestellt

Technische Beschreibung

Die bei der Nickelproduktion anfallenden Rückstands- und Abfallmengen sind in erster Linie von der Zusammensetzung der eingesetzten Rohstoffe abhängig. Die Einsatzstoffe enthalten Verunreinigungen in unterschiedlichen Konzentrationen, die in den jeweiligen Prozessstufen ausgefällt und extrahiert werden müssen. Einige Rückstände sind als transportierte oder standortinterne isolierte Zwischenprodukte gemäß REACH-Verordnung registriert und werden intern oder extern als Roh- oder Baustoffe genutzt. Rückstände, die keiner Verwertung zugeführt werden können, sind Abfälle zur Beseitigung und werden nach einer geeigneten Behandlung (Stabilisierung) entsprechend den geltenden Umweltschutzvorschriften deponiert.

Als Hauptrückstand der Schmelzprozesse fallen Eisensilicateschlacken an. Die Schlacken weisen i.d.R. sehr niedrige Konzentrationen an eluierbaren Metallen auf und können in der Bauwirtschaft, Schleifmittelherstellung oder in anderen Anwendungen verwendet werden. Pro Tonne erzeugtes Metall fallen vier bis zehn Tonnen Schlacke an. Schlacke, die keiner Verwertung zugeführt werden kann, wird deponiert.

Die sich in den Laugungs- und Laugenreinigungstufen bildenden Rückstände werden in verschiedenen Prozessstufen gefällt. Die Menge an anfallenden Fällrückständen hängt in erster Linie von der Qualität der verarbeiteten Konzentrate und der Effizienz der Fällung ab. Einer der Hauptrückstandsfractionen der hydrometallurgischen Verfahrensrouten ist der Eisenrückstand (in Form von Jarosit oder Göthit), der zum größten Teil deponiert wird. Die anfallende Menge an Eisenrückständen ist eine direkte Funktion des Eisengehalts der Einsatzstoffe. Begleitelemente im Einsatzmaterial müssen extrahiert und abgetrennt werden, um reines Nickel zu erzeugen und eine Anreicherung dieser Elemente im geschlossenen hydrometallurgischen Kreislauf zu unterbinden. Einige dieser extrahierten Elemente werden unter Gewinnung von verkaufsfähigen, "standortinternen isolierten oder transportierten Zwischenprodukten" angereichert und gemäß REACH-Verordnung registriert.

Reststoffe aus der Abgasreinigung werden mit Wasser aufgeschlämmt (sehr feiner Nickelstaub ist potenziell pyrophorisch und muss aus Sicherheitsgründen befeuchtet werden) und direkt der AWA vor Ort zur Behandlung und Wertstoffrückgewinnung zugeführt. Trockene Reststoffe aus der Abwasserbehandlung werden zwecks Metallrückgewinnung in die Schmelzanlage zurückgeführt. Der in den Carbonylierungsreaktoren anfallende Rückstand wird der Nickel-Druckextraktionsstufe und nachgeschalteten Kupfer- und Kobaltextraktionsstufe zugeführt. Der

verbleibende Rückstand geht an einen Verwertungsbetrieb zur Rückgewinnung der darin enthaltenen Platingruppemetalle (PGM).

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Maximierung von verkaufsfähigen Zwischenprodukten zur internen/externen Aufarbeitung und Verwertung
- Minimierung der anfallenden Abfallmengen, die inertisiert und deponiert werden müssen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 9.32 gibt einen Überblick über die typischen Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der pyro- und hydrometallurgischen Prozessstufen der Nickelgewinnung

Tabelle 9.32: Typische Abfallströme und Prozessrückstände der pyro- und hydrometallurgischen Prozessstufen der Nickelgewinnung

Anlage	Prozess	Prozessrückstand/Abfall	Anfallstelle	Verwertungs-/Aufbereitungsmöglichkeiten
A	DON- und Elektrolichtbogenofen-Schmelzprozess	Granulierte Schlacke	Elektrolichtbogenofen	Deponierung / Bausektor / Schleifmittel
		Flugstaub	Elektrolichtbogenofen	Einsatzstoff für die Zinkgewinnung
		Flugstaub aus der Steingranulierung	DON- und Elektrolichtbogenöfen	Einsatzstoff für die Nickelraffination / Umschmelzen
B	Chlorierende Laugung, Gewinnungselektrolyse und Chemikalienerzeugung	Schwefelrückstand	Steinvorbereitung (Filtration)	Einsatzstoff für die Schwefelsäureerzeugung
C	Sulfatierende Laugung, Solventextraktion, Gewinnungselektrolyse, Wasserstoffreduktion und Chemikalienerzeugung	Eisenrückstand	Laugung	Stabilisierung u. Deponierung / Einsatzstoff für Nickelschmelzanlage
		Metallcarbonatrückstand (Zn)	Solventextraktion	Stabilisierung u. Deponierung / Einsatzstoff für die Zinkgewinnung
		Kupferrückstand	Laugung	Einsatzstoff für die Kupfergewinnung
E	Chlorierende Laugung, Solventextraktion, Gewinnungselektrolyse	Kupferrückstand	Laugung	Einsatzstoff für die Kupfergewinnung
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Einsatz von Chemikalien für die Fällung
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Nachhaltigkeit des Produktionsbetriebs

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI), Anlage B (FR), Anlage C (FI) und Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.1.7 Energieeffizienz und Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs**Beschreibung**

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Betrieb der Schmelzöfen mit sauerstoffangereicherter Luft und Konverterbetrieb mit Sauerstoff
- Nutzung der Abwärme des heißen, SO₂-haltigen Prozessabgases der Schmelz- und Konverterstufen in einem Abhitzekessel zur Erzeugung von Hochdruckdampf
- Nutzung des Energiegehalts heißer Abgase
- Wärmetauscher zur Wärmerückgewinnung aus heißen Abgas- und Flüssigkeitsströmen

Technische Beschreibung

Zur Steigerung der Energieeffizienz und Reduzierung des Verbrauchs an externem Brennstoff können Techniken zur Wärmerückgewinnung oder zur Reduzierung des Energiebedarfs eingesetzt werden.

Betrieb der Schmelzaggregate mit sauerstoffangereicherter Luft und Konverterbetrieb mit Sauerstoff

Schmelz- und Konvertierungsstufen: Beim konventionellen schmelzmetallurgischen Verfahrensweg entsteht zunächst ein Rohnickelstein, der anschließend im Konverter auf eisenarmen Nickelfeinstein verblasen wird. Beide Prozessstufen werden mit Sauerstoffanreicherung betrieben, um einen autogenen Schmelzbetrieb zu ermöglichen. Die beim Betrieb mit Sauerstoffanreicherung entstehende Überschusswärme kann zum Einschmelzen von Kreislaufmaterial, Schrotten und anderen sekundären Materialien insbesondere in den Konvertern genutzt werden. Gleichzeitig verringert sich auch das Abgasvolumen und damit der Energiebedarf für die Gebläse (Prozessluft-, Absauggebläse, usw.)

Beim DON-Verfahren (Direct Outotec Nickel-Prozess) wird direkt im Schwebeschmelzofen ohne zusätzliche Konverterstufe Nickelfeinstein mit einem niedrigen Eisengehalt erzeugt. Die getrocknete Einsatzmischung wird im Konzentratbrenner innig mit sauerstoffangereicherter Prozessluft und Dispersionsluft gemischt mit der Folge der sofortigen Zündung und Oxidation des Konzentrats in der turbulenten Gas-Feststoffströmung im Reaktionsschacht. Dabei findet eine weitergehende Oxidation des Konzentrats als bei konventionellen Verfahren statt. Die großen Mengen an Wärme, die bei der Oxidation des Konzentrats freigesetzt werden, reichen zum Einschmelzen der gesamten Beschickung aus. Dadurch ist das Schwebeschmelzverfahren besonders energieeffizient und kommt weitgehend ohne zusätzliche Brennstoffzufuhr aus. Neben signifikanten Energieeinsparungen führt der Betrieb des Schwebeschmelzofens mit Sauerstoffanreicherung auch zu geringeren Emissionen. Der erzeugte Nickelstein hat einen niedrigen Eisen- und hohen Nickelgehalt. Mit dem DON-Verfahren entfällt eine zusätzliche Konverterstufe mit entsprechend günstigen Auswirkungen auf die Umweltbelastung und den Energieverbrauch.

Abhitzekessel

Das heiße SO₂-reiche Prozessgas des Schmelzofens oder Konverters wird über einen Abhitzekessel geleitet und unter Nutzung seines Wärmeinhalts zur Dampferzeugung gekühlt. Der erzeugte Dampf wird z.B. zur Konzentrattrocknung und zur Deckung des Wärmebedarfs in den verschiedenen Prozessstufen, z.B. in den Autoklaven, verwendet. Nicht benötigter Dampf kann zur Strom- und Fernwärmeerzeugung in einem Kraftwerk genutzt werden.

Indirekte Dampftrockner nutzen den im Abhitzekessel des Schmelzofens erzeugten Sattdampf als Heizmedium.

Nutzung des Energiegehalts heißer Abgase

Bei der Direkttrocknung wird das Heißgas durch Verbrennung eines Brennstoffs in einer separaten Brennkammer erzeugt. Eine Nutzung des Energiegehalts heißer Abgase aus anderen Prozessstufen kann durch Zuführung eines Teilstroms des Anodenofenabgases zum Konzentrattrockner realisiert werden.

Wärmetauscher zur Wärmerückgewinnung aus heißen Abgas- und Flüssigkeitsströmen

Bei der Schlackenreinigung werden die in der Schmelzofen-/Konverterschlacke enthaltenen Metalle als eisenhaltiger Nickelstein in einem Elektroofen zurückgewonnen. Das Elektroofenabgas wird nachverbrannt und anschließend unter Wärmerückgewinnung in einem Wärmetauscher gekühlt. Die zurückgewonnene Wärme wird zur Trocknung und Vorwärmung der Zuschläge oder des Koks vor Aufgabe in den Elektroofen genutzt.

Bei der Verarbeitung SO₂-haltiger Gase zu Schwefelsäure entsteht Überschusswärme, die abgeführt und genutzt wird. Bei der Oxidation von Schwefeldioxid zu Schwefeltrioxid handelt es sich um eine exotherme Reaktion. Ein Teil der freigesetzten Wärme wird über einen Wärmetauscher in Form von Warmwasser zurückgewonnen, das zur Beheizung in anderen Prozessstufen genutzt oder einem zweiten Wärmetauscher zur Erzeugung von Fernwärme zugeführt wird.

Die Säurekühlung erfolgt in einem Wärmetauscher unter Abführung der Wärme an Wasser als Zwischenwärmeträgermedium, das über einen zweiten Wärmetauscher einem Fernwärmenetz zugeführt oder in anderen Prozessstufen genutzt wird.

Bei der chloridischen Laugung werden große Wärmemengen freigesetzt. Der im Abgas der Laugungstanks enthaltene Wasserdampf wird kondensiert und die Kondensationswärme an einen getrennten Glykolkreislauf zur Beheizung der Bürogebäude und Produktionshallen abgeführt.

Der Anolyt muss vor Rückführung in die Nickelelektrolyse in einem Wärmetauscher gekühlt werden. Das dabei erzeugte Warmwasser wird anderen Prozessen mit einem Warmwasserbedarf zugeführt oder zu Reinigungszwecken in anderen Bereichen der Hütte genutzt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Verringerung des Energieverbrauchs
- Reduzierung von Emissionen in die Luft (in den meisten Fällen ersetzt die zurückgewonnene Energie fossile Brennstoffe)

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Anlage A: Der direkte Stromverbrauch der Nickelhütte liegt bei 1400–1800 kWh/t erzeugtes Metall ohne Berücksichtigung des Energieaufwands für z.B. die Sauerstoff- und Druckluftherzeugung (allgemeine Verbrauchsstoffe). Die Hütte hat einen Heizölverbrauch von 300–400 kg/t erzeugtes Metall. Darin eingeschlossen sind der Heizölbedarf für die Konzentrattrocknung, den Schwebeschmelzofen sowie der Bedarf zum Vorwärmen der Schwebeschmelz- und Elektroöfen. Der Koksverbrauch liegt bei 200–250 kg/t erzeugtes Metall einschließlich des Bedarfs für die Schlackenreinigung im Elektroofen.

Anlage C: Der Stromverbrauch der Nickelraffinerie liegt bei 3000–4000 kWh/t, der Wärmeverbrauch bei 7 000–9 000 kWh/t erzeugtes Nickel. Die Kupfer- und Nickelhütten von Anlage A und die Raffinerie von Anlage C sind am gleichen Standort angesiedelt. Die beiden Unternehmen betreiben ein gemeinsames Wärmerückgewinnungssystem am Standort. Ca. 50 %–70 % des Wärmebedarfs am Standort werden aus den verschiedenen Prozessstufen zurückgewonnen.

Anlage E: Der Stromverbrauch der Nickelraffinerie liegt bei ca. 5 MWh/t erzeugtes Nickel, Kupfer und Kobalt. Über die Schwefelsäureanlage werden 40 000–45 000 MWh Wärme pro Jahr in das Fernwärmenetz ausgekoppelt. Aus dem exothermen chloridischen Laugungsprozess

werden 12 MW Wärme zur Gebäudeheizung am Standort zurückgewonnen. Der Wärmetauscher zur Anolytkühlung und Warmwassererzeugung für Reinigungszwecke hat eine Kapazität von 40 000–50 000 MWh/a.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Nachhaltigkeit des Produktionsbetriebs; ökologische Verträglichkeit und Wirtschaftlichkeit der Prozesse

Beispielanlagen

Anlage A (FI), Anlage C (FI) und Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

[413, Warner et al. 2007]

9.3.2 Kobalterzeugung

9.3.2.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Solventextraktionsprozess zur Kobaltgewinnung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Einsatz von Pumpen mit geringer Scherwirkung in den Mixer-Settler-Einheiten zur Reduzierung von Verdampfungsverlusten an organischer und wässriger Lösung. Gleichzeitig reduziert sich durch das schonende Mischen auch die Bildung einer stabilen Emulsion, das sog. "Crud", ein Abfallprodukt des Solventextraktionsprozesses.
- Einsatz eines "High-shear"-Mischers
- Die Mixer-Settler-Einheiten werden geschlossen ausgeführt, um VOC-Emissionen in die Arbeitsplatzatmosphäre zu vermeiden.

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Solventextraktionsprozess werden Kobalt-(II)-Ionen in der wässrigen Einsatzlösung selektiv extrahiert und in einer Prozesslösung angereichert, die hauptsächlich aus Nickel besteht. In einem Flüssig-Flüssig-Reaktor wird die kobalthaltige wässrige Einsatzlösung mit einer organischen Lösung in Kontakt gebracht, der eine Extraktionschemikalie zugesetzt wird. Diese reagiert mit Kobalt unter Bildung eines organometallischen Komplexes, der in der organischen Phase in Lösung geht. Als Extraktionschemikalien werden i.d.R. saure Ionenaustauscherharze eingesetzt. Dadurch entsteht bei der Extraktionsreaktion Säure, die zwecks pH-Wert-Kontrolle durch Zugabe eines alkalischen Neutralisationsmittels, z.B. Ammoniak oder Natriumhydroxid, neutralisiert werden muss. Da die Extraktionschemikalien nicht vollkommen selektiv für das Zielmetall sind, enthält die kobaltbeladene organische Phase auch mitextrahierte Verunreinigungen, die in einer nachgeschalteten Reinigungsstufe durch Mischen der organischen Phase mit einer wässrigen, i.d.R. kobalthaltigen Lösung entfernt werden. Anschließend wird das Kobalt durch Umkehrung der Extraktionsreaktion aus der organischen Phase in die wässrige Lösung rückextrahiert. Dies geschieht durch Mischen mit wässriger Lösung bei einem niedrigeren pH-Wert, wobei der Organokomplex aufgebrochen und Kobaltionen freigesetzt werden. Das gestrippte organische Lösemittel wird wieder in die Extraktionsstufe zurückgeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minimierung von VOC-Emissionen in die Luft
- Verringerung des Abfallanfalls

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Einsatz von Ammoniak zur Neutralisation der bei der Extraktionsreaktion gebildeten Säure und Bildung von Ammoniumsulfat. Für die Reinigungs- und Rückextraktionsstufen wird hochreines Wasser benötigt, das hergestellt werden muss.
- Einsatz von Säure zur Kobaltrückextraktion

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Solventextraktionsverfahren werden zur Extraktion von Kobalt bei der Verarbeitung kobalthaltiger Nickelerze eingesetzt. Um ein hochreines Produkt zu erhalten, sollten vor der Solventextraktion, Zink, Eisen Kalzium, Mangan und Kupfer aus der Rohlösung entfernt werden. Zur pH-Wert-Einstellung in den Extraktions- und Reinigungsstufen wird eine chemische Neutralisation zwischengeschaltet. Kobalt wird als hochkonzentrierte, hochreine Lösung zurückgewonnen, die sich z.B. als Ausgangsstoff für die Kobalt-Gewinnungselektrolyse eignet.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Hochreines Produkt durch selektive Kobaltextraktion
- Geringer Energie- und Chemikalienverbrauch
- Geringer Abfallanfall

Beispielanlagen

Norilsk Nickel Harjavalta (FI), OMG Kokkola Chemicals (FI), Murrin Murrin (Australien), Kasese Cobalt Company (Uganda), Knightsbridge Cobalt (Südafrika) und Anglo Platinum Rustenburg Base Metals Refinery (Südafrika)

Literatur

[414, Peek et al. 2009]

9.3.2.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Mischhydroxid- und Mischsulfidfällung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Einsatz geschlossener Prozessausrüstungen, soweit notwendig (Reaktoren, Absetzbehälter, Filter)
- Einsatz geschlossener Systeme zur Flüssigkeits- und Schlammförderung (Rohrleitungen und abgedeckte Rinnen)
- Einsatz hocheffizienter Fest-Flüssig-Trenn- und Waschsysteme zur Vermeidung von übermäßigem Wasserverbrauch
- Einsatz von qualitativ hochwertigem Schwefelwasserstoffgas oder anderen Fällmitteln zur Vermeidung großer Abgasvolumenströme und Verbesserung der Effizienz der Fällung
- Einsatz von Minderungseinrichtungen (Gewebefilter, Nasswäscher, usw.) zur Abgasbehandlung
- Rückführung der bei der Abgasreinigung anfallenden festen Reststoffe und Schlämme in den Prozess
- Online-Überwachung und Regelung kritischer Betriebsparameter der Laugung und Abgasreinigung oder Verwendung einer anderen gleichwertigen Überwachungsmethode oder Standardarbeitsanweisung (SOP)
- Online-Überwachung und Regelung kritischer Prozessparameter (z.B. Reagensdosierung) zur Vermeidung einer Chemikalienüberdosierung und Gewährleistung einer effizienten Metallfällung

Technische Beschreibung

Der Verfahrensablauf bei der Mischhydroxid- und Mischsulfidfällung ist wie folgt:

Mischhydroxidfällung (MHF):

- Die Mischhydroxidfällung erfolgt in einem Reaktor unter Normaldruck durch Zugabe von Grundchemikalien, z.B. Natriumhydroxid.
- Der Fällprozess wird in Abhängigkeit vom pH-Wert im Fällreaktor und folglich der Metallkonzentration im Reaktorablauf geregelt.
- Der im Fällreaktor anfallende Schlamm wird eingedickt, wobei ein Teilstrom des eingedickten Schlamms als Keimbildner in die Fällstufe zurückgeführt wird. Der überwiegende Anteil des eingedickten Schlamms wird in einer Filtrationsstufe weiterbehandelt.

- Dort werden die ausgefallenen Feststoffe durch Filtration aus dem Eindickerunterlauf abgetrennt. Sofern notwendig wird der Filterkuchen einer Wäsche mit Wasser unterzogen.
- Vor Versand werden die Feststoffe getrocknet (wenn notwendig) und in einer geeigneten Weise verpackt.

Mischsulfidfällung (MSF):

- Die Einsatzlösung muss eventuell vorneutralisiert werden.
- Die Mischsulfidfällung erfolgt in einem Reaktor unter Normaldruck durch Zugabe eines Schwefelträgers, z.B. Schwefelwasserstoff. Aufgrund der bei der Sulfidfällung gebildeten Schwefelsäure muss der anfallende Fällschlamm neutralisiert werden.
- Die Prozessregelung erfolgt in Abhängigkeit vom pH-Wert im Fällreaktor und damit vom Metallgehalt der ablaufenden Lösung. Die pH-Wert-Regelung ist zwingend notwendig, um die Bildung von Schwefelwasserstoffgas zu vermeiden.
- Der im Fällreaktor anfallende Schlamm wird eingedickt, wobei ein Teilstrom des eingedickten Schlammes als Keimbildner in die Fällstufe zurückgeführt wird. Die Schlammrückführung in den Fällprozess begünstigt die Partikelagglomeration und verbessert die Trenneigenschaften der Feststoffe, was sich in einem niedrigeren Wasserverbrauch auswirkt. Der überwiegende Anteil des eingedickten Schlamms wird in einer Filtrationsstufe weiterbehandelt.
- Dort werden die ausgefallenen Feststoffe durch Filtration aus dem Eindickerunterlauf abgetrennt. Sofern notwendig wird der Filterkuchen einer Wäsche mit Wasser unterzogen.
- Je nach Verwendung der Mutterlauge kann ein zusätzlicher Belüftungsschritt zur Zerstörung von noch vorhandenen Resten an freiem Schwefelwasserstoff notwendig werden.
- Vor Versand werden die Feststoffe getrocknet (wenn notwendig) und in einer geeigneten Weise verpackt.

Das erfasste Abgas der Sulfidfällstufe wird einem alkalischen Nasswäscher zur Entschwefelung zugeführt. Zur Gewährleistung eines sicheren und effizienten Betriebs (Minimierung gasförmiger Emissionen, hohe Ausbeute an Wertstoffen und hohe Qualität des Fällprodukts) werden die wichtigsten Betriebsparameter (Temperatur, pH-Wert, Metallkonzentration) entweder über ein Online-Monitoringsystem oder eine anderes geeignetes Mess- und Regelsystem überwacht und geregelt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Vermeidung und Verminderung von Staub-, Metall- und sonstigen Emissionen
- Effektivere Rückgewinnung von Nickel und Kobalt

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 9.33: Emissionswerte der Kobaltgewinnungsanlage Kokkola

Prozessstufe	kg Co/t Metall	kg Ni/t Metall	kg VOC/t Metall	kg H ₂ S/t Metall
Mahlung/Laugung	0,1	NR	NR.	2
Solventextraktion	NR.	NR	2	NR
Gewinnung und Umwandlung	n.v.	0,0.81	NR	NR
Gesamtkobaltproduktion	0,9	0,1	4	2
Anmerkung: Produktion: 10 000 t Co/a n.v. = nicht verfügbar NR = nicht relevant				

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand bei Einsatz von Nasswäschern

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen
- Rohstoffeinsparungen

Beispielanlagen

Kokkola (FI)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.3.2.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Gewinnungselektrolyse

Beschreibung

Als Technik zur Vermeidung von Aerosolemissionen in die Luft bei der Kobaltsulfat-Elektrolyse kommt die Abdeckung der Elektrolytbäder mit Kunststoff- oder Polystyrolhohlkugeln in Betracht.

In Betracht zu ziehende Techniken für die Kobaltchlorid-Elektrolyse sind die Erfassung und Wiederverwendung des beim Laugungsprozess entstehenden Chlorgases und der Einsatz dimensionsstabiler Elektroden (DSA).

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Kobaltelektrolyse ausgehend von einer Sulfatlösung bilden sich bei der Hauptanodenreaktion Sauerstoffbläschen, über die Schwefelsäureaerosole (Säurenebel) in die Umgebungsluft emittiert werden können. Je nach Anlage wird die Badoberfläche mit Kunststoff- oder Polystyrolhohlkugeln abgedeckt, um eine physische Barriere an der Elektrolyt/Umgebungsluftgrenzfläche zu schaffen.

Bei sulfatischen Elektrolyten werden gewöhnlich Edstahlkathoden verwendet, die zur Erleichterung des Kathodenstrippens mit einem Gel benetzt werden. Umgekehrt können bestimmte Verunreinigungen im Elektrolyten auch zu einem Selbststrippereffekt führen. Um dem vorzubeugen, verwenden einige Anlagen geprägte oder strukturierte Kathoden und stellen so statt Kobaltblechen kleinere Rondellen her. Als Anodenwerkstoff kommt überwiegend eine Blei-Antimon-Legierung zum Einsatz.

Bei chloridischen Elektrolyten entwickelt sich an der Anode Chlorgas. Die Anode ist in einen für den Elektrolyten durchlässigen Diaphragmabeutel eingehängt, an dessen offenem Kopfe das Chlorgas im Normalfall über eine Erfassungseinrichtung abgesaugt (zurückgewonnen) und im Laugungsprozess wiederverwendet wird.

Bei der Kobaltchlorid-Elektrolyse werden entweder Titankathoden oder Kobaltstartbleche auf Basis von Titanmutterblechen verwendet. Als Anodenwerkstoff dient beschichtetes Titan (bekannt als dimensionsstabile Anoden). Die Beschichtung enthält in der Regel RuO_2 als Katalysatorkomponente.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Vermeidung diffuser Schwefelsäurenebel- oder Chlorgasemissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Anlage E in Norwegen ist die einzige Anlage in Europa in der Kobalt im Wege der Gewinnungselektrolyse erzeugt wird. (Die Jahresproduktion in 2010 belief sich auf 3208 t Kathodenkobalt). Neben dieser Anlage gibt es weltweit nur noch eine weitere Anlage (Sumitomo, Japan), in der die Kobaltchlorid-Elektrolyse eingesetzt wird.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand (für die Absaugung von Säurenebeln aus den Elektrolysezellen im Fall von Sulfatlösungen und zur Chlorgaserfassung im Fall von Chloridlösungen)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Beispielanlagen

Anlage E (NO)

Literatur

Es liegen keine Literaturangaben vor.

9.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

In der Literatur wird über verschiedene Verfahrensentwicklungen auf dem Gebiet der Niederdruck- und Normaldrucklaugung zur Nickelgewinnung aus sulfidischen Erzen berichtet. Die wichtigsten dieser Verfahren sind im Folgenden zusammengefasst: [[139, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999](#)]

- Activox-Laugung: Feinmahlung und Laugung bei 100 °C und 10 bar
- CESL-Verfahren: chloridische Laugung in einer Sulfatlösung unter Verwendung von Eisenchlorid
Diese Verfahren sind im Pilotmaßstab erprobt.
- Für das Nickelprojekt Eramet Weda Bay in Indonesien wurde ein hydrometallurgisches Verfahren zur Gewinnung von Nickel- und Kobaltverbindungen aus Limonit- und Saproliterzen entwickelt und patentiert. Das Verfahren wurde speziell für Nickellateriterze mit einem mittleren bis hohen Limonit/Saprolit-Verhältnis konzipiert und ermöglicht die Verhüttung einer Erzmischung aus verschiedenen lithologischen Horizonten, womit der Abbau des Erzlagers optimiert und der Bergeanfall erheblich reduziert wird.
Bislang wurden mehr als 35 kontinuierliche Versuchskampagnen (mehr als 86 Wochen) unter großtechnischen Bedingungen mit guten Ergebnissen durchgeführt, wobei seit 2005 auch Umweltschutzmaßnahmen in den großtechnischen Prozess integriert wurden. Als abschließender Schritt vor der großtechnischen Inbetriebnahme der Nickelhütte Weda Bay steht noch die umwelttechnische Optimierung an.
Der hydrometallurgische Prozess beruht auf der Erzlaugung im schwefelsauren Medium bei Normaldruck und ca. 100°C. Die Abwärme der Schwefelsäureanlage wird zur Dampferzeugung genutzt, wodurch erhebliche Einsparungen an fossilen Brennstoffen für die Energieerzeugung erzielt werden. Die Klimagasemissionen des Gesamtprozesses werden auf ca. 5,8 t/t Nickel geschätzt.
Bei dem Verfahren fallen ein eisenhaltiger und ein manganhaltiger Rückstand an, die beide als umweltunbedenklich eingestuft sind. Die Rückstände werden auf getrennt Halden in einem eigenen Lagerbereich für entwässerte Rückstände gelagert.
Abwässer werden neutralisiert und vor Ort über Sandfilter geleitet. Die bei der Abwasserbehandlung anfallenden Fällprodukte werden komplett in den hydrometallurgischen Prozess zurückgeführt [[139, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999](#)].
- Derzeit befinden sich drei neue Anlagen zur schwefelsauren Drucklaugung von Lateriterzen im Bau oder in der Inbetriebnahmephase [[139, Riekkola-Vanhanen, M. 1999](#)]. Bis auf die Laugenreinigungsstufen zur Entfernung von Begleitmetallen weisen diese Verfahren viele Ähnlichkeiten mit dem eingeführten Moa Bay-Prozess in Kuba auf. Ein weiteres Verfahren zur Normaldrucklaugung von Lateriterzen befindet sich gegenwärtig in Entwicklung.
- In Deutschland wird zurzeit eine Anlage bestehend aus einem Oxy-Fuel-Ofen und einer Solventextraktionsraffination zur Rückgewinnung von Nickel und Zink aus Prozessrückständen in Betrieb genommen. Nähere Einzelheiten über dieses Projekt sind nicht bekannt.

9.4.1 Thermische Zersetzung von Nickelkomplexen

Beschreibung

Gewinnung von Nickelpulver aus dem Abstoßelektrolyt der elektrolytischen Raffination verunreinigter Kupferanoden in einem Elektroofen unter einer Inertgasatmosphäre

Technische Beschreibung

Bei Metallo-Chimique wird Nickel auf dem folgenden Verfahrensweg gewonnen:

Nickel wird durch Fällung aus dem nickelangereicherten Abstoßelektrolyt zurückgewonnen. Die Nickel(komplex)fällung erfolgt durch Zugabe eines organischen Komplexbildners zum Nickelsulfatelektrolyt in einem geschlossenen Reaktionsbehälter. Der Abstoßelektrolyt fällt bei der elektrolytischen Raffination verunreinigter Kupferanoden im Zuge der Kathodenkupferproduktion an. Der ausgefällte, unlösliche Nickelkomplex wird durch Filtration abgetrennt.

Die anschließende thermische Zersetzung der Nickelkomplexe in feinteiliges Nickelpulver erfolgt unter einer Inertgasatmosphäre im Elektroofen. Als Produkt entsteht Nickelpulver, das nach Kühlung mittels eines Fördersystems der Brikettierpresse zugeführt wird. Die erzeugten Briketts werden in Big-Bags abgefüllt.

Zur Emissionsminderung ist ein zweistufiger NaOH-Wäscher vorgesehen, der für eine Abgasvolumenstrom von 7500 m³/h ausgelegt ist. Neben der Abluft der Reaktionsbehälter wird diesem Wäscher auch das Abgas des Elektroofens zugeführt.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Rückgewinnung von Nickelmetall
- Verringerung von Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Laut der vorliegenden Betriebsdaten zum Wäscher, basierend auf Stichprobenmessungen im Zeitraum 2011-2012, lagen die Staubemissionen im Bereich von 0,7–2,5 mg/Nm³ bei einem Abgasvolumenstrom von 1500–7500 Nm³.

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Höhere Investitionskosten (aufgrund des zusätzlichen apparativen Aufwands)
- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Höhere Betriebskosten bedingt durch den Additiveinsatz
- Notwendigkeit einer geeigneten Behandlung des anfallenden Abwassers

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Die Investitionskosten für einen Wäscher belaufen sich auf rund EUR 100 000.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Verringerung von Emissionen.
- Rohstoffeinsparungen
- Strenge Emissionsgrenzwerte und behördliche Auflagen

Beispielanlagen

Metallo-Chimique (BE)

Literatur

[415, Nickel Institute 2013]

10 PROCESSES TO PRODUCE CARBON AND GRAPHITE ELECTRODES, CATHODES AND SHAPES

10.1 Applied processes and techniques

There are a number of processes that are used to produce a wide range of carbon and graphite products. Carbon or graphite electrodes and furnace linings are produced for a variety of production processes, in particular, primary aluminium smelting, and ferro-alloy and steel production. This chapter covers the production of carbon and graphite electrodes, cathodes and shapes not intended for use in aluminium production.

All of the processes use coke, anthracite, graphite and other raw materials such as pitch to produce pastes, electrodes and shapes.

Traditionally, the sector divides its process steps into:

- supply, storage, preparation, mixing and shaping (the so-called green department);
- baking, impregnation and rebaking (also known as the baking plant);
- graphitisation;
- machining;
- packing and dispatch.

The main product types and process stages are shown in Table 10.1 and Figure 10.1.

Table 10.1: Overview of materials and process steps for carbon and graphite products

Input materials	Process	Products
Anthracite coal Uncalcined coke	Calcining	Calcined anthracite Coal Coke
Calcined anthracite coal Coke Graphite Pitch, additives, resins (solids)	Storage, handling, grinding, sieving	
Pitch, additives, resins (liquids)	Storage, handling	
Calcined anthracite coal Coke Graphite Pitch, additives, resins (solids and liquids)	Mixing	Paste
Paste and green powder	Shaping	Green shapes and green powder
Green shapes	Baking	Baked shapes
Baked shapes Graphite shapes Pitch, additives, resins	Impregnation	Impregnated shapes
Impregnated shapes	Rebaking	Rebaked shapes
Baked or rebaked shapes	Graphitising	Graphite shapes
Baked and graphitised shapes	Machining	Graphite and carbon components
<i>Source: [116, VDI 1998].</i>		

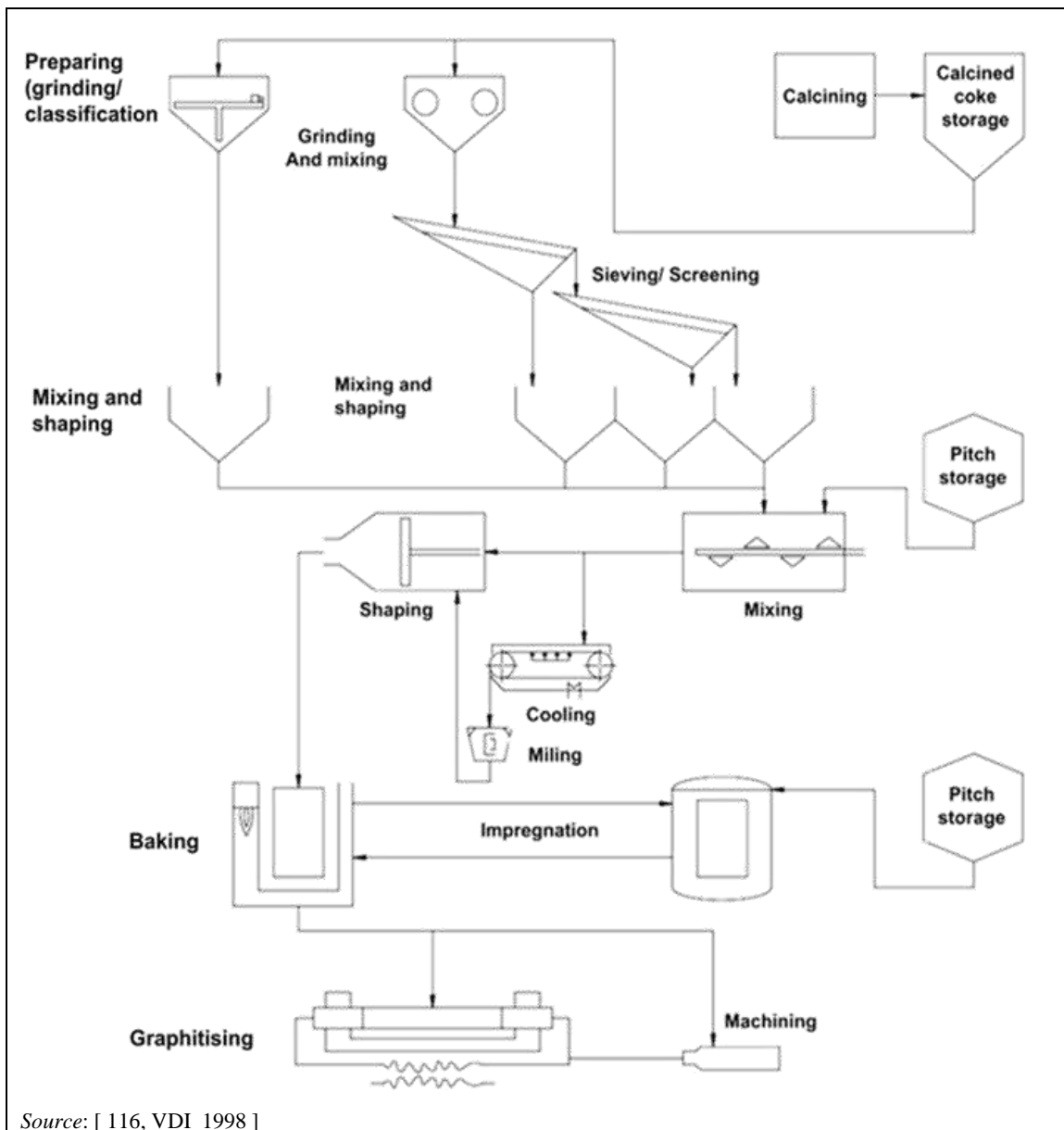


Figure 10.1: Overview of carbon and graphite production

10.1.1 Processes to produce calcined materials

Calcining is a heat treatment process used to remove moisture and volatiles from a raw material. Suitable materials for calcining include uncalcined coal (e.g. anthracite) and coke (e.g. pitch coke, metallurgical coke and petroleum coke). These raw materials are supplied at the top of the furnace, with the flow through the furnace controlled by the rate of discharge at the bottom of the furnace. Moisture, sulphur and volatiles are released during this process.

There are two types of calcining process: the electrical calcining furnace process and the gas calciner process.

An electrical calcining furnace applies electrical power for heating. The necessary electrical current is supplied either to the furnace through one carbon electrode positioned in the top of the furnace and one carbon electrode in the bottom, or through two graphite electrodes positioned in the top of the furnace and one carbon furnace lining in the bottom. The material in the furnace will reach temperatures in the range of 1200–3000 °C. Ash components in the carbonaceous material are volatilised in the hottest areas of the furnace and radially transferred outwards,

where they condense on cooler material or the furnace lining. The ash components will finally be withdrawn together with the calcined material at the bottom of the furnace. All gases generated are burnt off from the top of the furnace.

A gas calciner uses all released volatiles from the calcining process as fuel material to reach the required temperature for the heat treatment. The temperature range is 1200–1350 °C.

In both cases, the flaring of the aforementioned off-gases generates emissions of H₂O, CO₂, NO_x and SO_x. The calcined materials are normally used as raw material in green paste. They can also be used as carbon raiser for steel production and cast iron.

10.1.2 Processes to produce paste, green powders and green shapes

Green paste production is the starting point for the production of all carbon and graphite products. All green pastes are manufactured from a mixture of different types of calcined coke and coal, with up to 40 % pitch, which acts as a binder. For speciality graphite products, resins can also be used as a binder. Other additives such as sulphur and metals can be added to the blend of raw materials to give the desired physical properties to speciality graphite products.

Depending on the origin of cokes, they can contain substances such as metals (e.g. nickel) and sulphur compounds. Highly annealed metallurgical and lignite cokes are used as auxiliaries for packing. Calcined and annealed cokes by themselves are free of hydrocarbons and PAH.

Solid raw materials are normally transferred by sealed conveyor or dense phase pneumatic systems and are stored in silos. Liquid pitch is transported in the molten state and is transferred by pumping and is stored in heated tanks. The tank ventilation gases contain hydrocarbon fumes and are usually cleaned. Afterburners, condensers or scrubbers and back-venting of the tank gases are used.

Raw materials are mechanically prepared (grinding, milling, sieving) and are mixed in heated mixers. The ratio of pitch in the mixture is adjusted according to the application and to allow the paste to be handled.

The preparation and mixing stages are important, as there are a wide variety of graphite products and specifications and the characteristics of these products often depend on a particular grain size. The choice of grinding or milling technique is made according to the carbon particle size required for a particular product.

Raw materials are mixed to produce a constant feed and weighing systems are used to prepare a particular recipe depending on the product. A variety of mixers are used depending on the product required, the particle size of the raw material and the throughput required. Heated mixers and screw conveyors (typically at 200 °C) are used to prevent batches from solidifying and to allow the efficient discharge of the contents. Kneading mixers, paddle mixers and continuous action mixers are used. Continuous or batch operation is practised and can depend on the scale of the operation.

The green mixture is passed to a shaping process to produce the shapes required. Moulding, extrusion and vibrating systems are used. During special carbon production, green shapes may be washed with alcohol to remove excess resin. Large shapes may also be cooled in a closed circuit water bath.

In the case of Söderberg paste, the blend is produced in a way that allows it to be added to the electrode shell. Söderberg paste is normally used for electrodes in the primary aluminium industry, but the paste can also be made into electrodes by pressing and forming for use in other applications, for example in electric furnaces for the production of ferro-alloys. Söderberg electrodes are also produced from the paste by a forming process. In this case, the green electrodes are formed into the required size and shape [75, Nordheim, E. 1998]. These

electrodes are commonly used in submerged electric arc furnaces. A number of variants exist, for example hollow electrodes can be made to allow furnace feeding through the electrode, and composite electrodes can be made to overcome production problems.

Raw material storage and handling stages use enclosed delivery and handling systems and integrated dust filters. Liquid pitch delivery and storage systems use tank back-venting and condensers for tank breathing during storage. Solid pitch is delivered in bulk in closed containers or in closed big bags.

Dust from handling and mechanical processes is collected in bag filters. Gases from all of the processing stages are collected and treated by different kinds of abatement systems such as afterburners (TOs or RTOs), wet or dry scrubbers, ESPs or combinations of systems. Solvents from the washing stages of special carbon production are collected, extracted and reused if possible or removed in biofilters.

10.1.3 Processes to produce baked shapes

During the baking process, in which the green shapes are baked, the pitch is converted into pitch coke, making the material electrically conductive. Green shapes are baked at temperatures from 700 °C to 1300 °C in the absence of air. The baking process can take up to 28 days. This thermal process results in the shapes losing up to 20 % of their weight.

Multi-chamber furnaces (like closed or open ring furnaces) and single chamber furnaces (like car bottom or pit furnaces) are used for the baking stage.

Ring furnaces consist of a large number of pits, which contain the green shapes. Refractory brick walls separate the pits, and ducts are created for the flue-gases. Green shapes are stacked in the baking furnace in rows and the heating ducts are created. Layers of packing coke separate the parts and prevent oxidation. This coke is consumed during the heating and cooling cycle at a rate of up to 14 kg per tonne of green material, and the remaining coke is reused. At any one time, pits in separate sections of the furnace are being filled, heated, cooled or emptied. [91, OSPARCOM 1992]

Hot air is passed through the ducts using movable gas-fired burners and the shapes are baked. The ducts are kept under negative pressure to contain the fumes. At the end of the heating cycle, the ducts are connected to blowers to cool the section. Hot air passing from the furnace section being cooled is then recycled through the burners or through other furnace sections to preheat that part of the system. [116, VDI 1998].

Two main types of ring furnace are used for baking: open and closed. Open furnaces use a horizontal duct and closed furnaces use a vertical flue. The horizontal ducts of the open furnace are separate and parallel, which allows the heating cycle to be optimised for each duct and so reduces fuel consumption [91, OSPARCOM 1992]. A typical open furnace layout is shown in Figure 10.2.

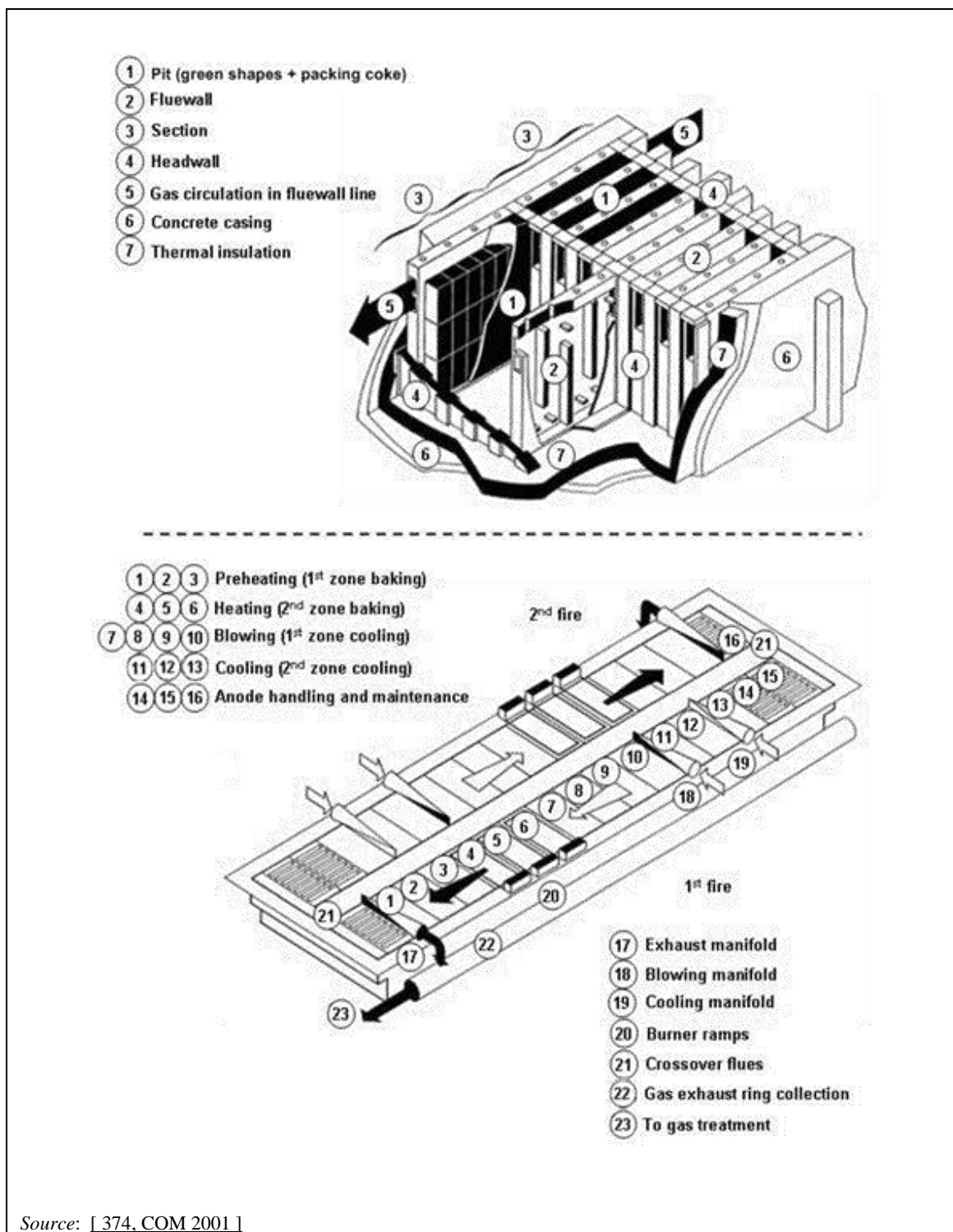


Figure 10.2: General view of a multi-chamber furnace (open ring furnace)

The use of multiple chambers in the furnace allows heat from one section to be used in other sections.

The car bottom furnace is a single chamber furnace. In the car bottom concept, the car (which is the furnace bed or bottom) is constructed as a mobile platform mounted on railroad wheels. It can be removed from the furnace and transferred to loading or unloading areas.

The car bottom furnace consists of a steel shell that is built above ground and lined with refractory thermal insulation. The entrance end of the furnace is closed by means of a vertical

travel door that seals to the two sides and to the roof when in the downward/closed position. The car is sealed to the three walls of the shell and to the door by means of a water trough (on the car) and seal blades (on the shell). Fans mounted in the roof move air from the top of the furnace to the bed, spreading the heat from top to bottom.

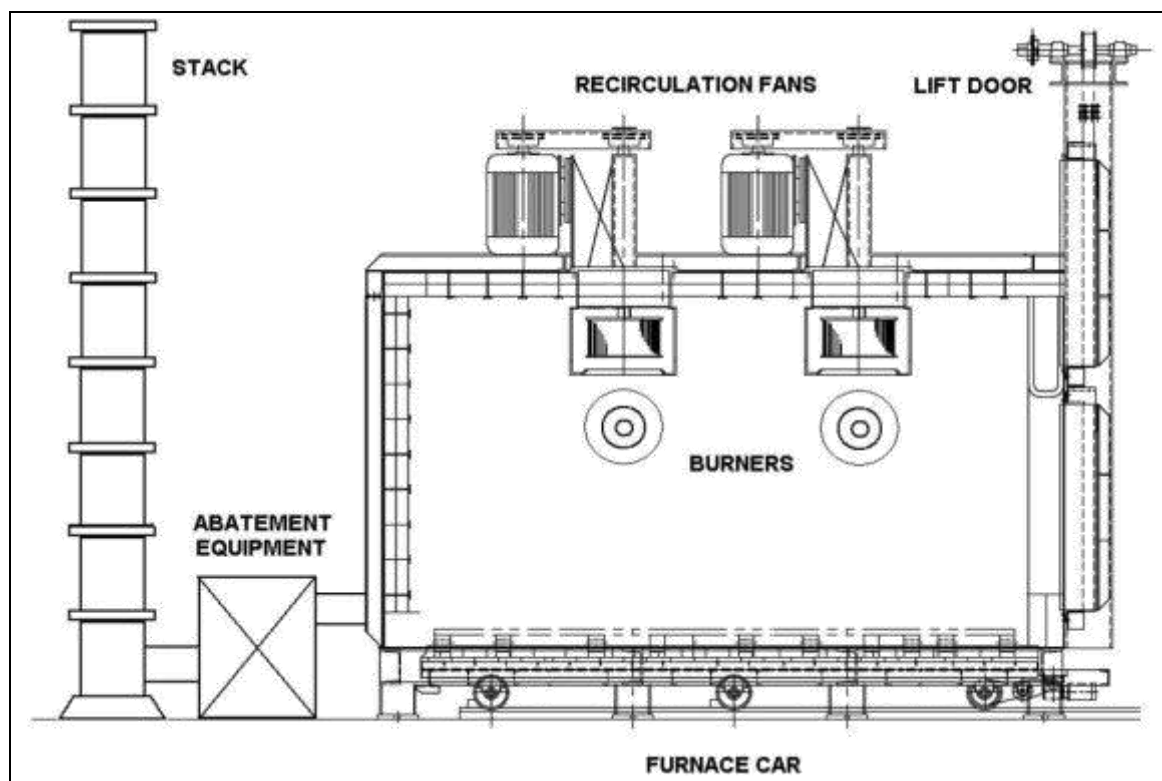


Figure 10.3: General view of a single chamber furnace (car bottom furnace)

In a loading station, the green shapes are introduced into a cylindrical canister called a sagger and filled with packing material to avoid the deformation of the shapes during the heating process. Then, the loaded saggars are placed on the furnace car for transportation to the furnace. Once the car bottom furnace is loaded and the door is closed, the heating cycle starts.

The car bottom furnace can also be used for baking without any packing material. Then the green or impregnated shapes are stacked in either vertical or horizontal frames.

The cycle used for the baking operation consists of different steps and may vary depending on the furnace characteristics, product size and binder content. The hot air coming from the furnace chamber during the baking process is transferred to the stack after treatment. The characteristics of the hot air depend on the heating cycle step in which it is generated.

After the baking cycle is finished, the door is opened and the car is taken out of the furnace and transported to an unloading station, where the shapes are extracted from the canisters. The packing material contained in the saggars is reused.

Tunnel furnaces are used for the small-scale production of speciality carbon. The tunnel furnace is fed with preshaped forms that are carried through the fired zone in a sagger filled with packing material. The furnace is usually gas- or oil-fired and a recuperator is usually incorporated to preheat fuel or combustion air.

10.1.4 Processes to produce impregnated shapes

Impregnation is an optional stage carried out in order to improve the properties of the final product.

Pitches, resins, molten metals and other reagents can be added to the baked shapes (in special applications, graphite shapes can also be impregnated) and are used to fill the voids formed in the carbonised material. Soaking with hot coal tar pitch with or without vacuum and autoclaving are used. Various impregnating techniques are used depending on the product, such as batch or quasi-continuous operations. The impregnation cycle usually involves preheating the shapes, impregnation and cooling. A hardening reactor may also be used. Electrodes that are to be impregnated can be preheated by the waste heat of the thermal oxidiser.

Only speciality carbons are impregnated with various metals.

10.1.5 Processes to produce rebaked shapes from impregnated shapes

Rebaking is only used for impregnated shapes.

Impregnated shapes are rebaked at temperatures of up to 1300 °C using a variety of furnaces such as tunnel, single chamber, multiple chamber, annular and push rod furnaces depending on the size and complexity of the product. Continuous baking is also carried out. The furnace operations are similar to those used for the shapes baking process, but the furnaces are usually smaller.

10.1.6 Processes to produce graphitised shapes

Baked or rebaked shapes may then be subject to graphitisation.

Graphite is manufactured by the conversion of baked carbonaceous material to graphite, in a process called graphitising, which is a heat treatment of the material at temperatures from 2200 °C up to 3300 °C. During the graphitising process, the more or less preordered carbonaceous material is converted into a three-dimensionally ordered graphite structure. There are two types of furnace common in industrial use, depending on the sizes or shapes of the products and the raw material used. Graphitising is carried out in Acheson or Castner furnaces.

Both furnaces are electric resistance furnaces constructed from refractory material. They differ in the way the current is applied to the furnace. In the Acheson furnace, shapes are placed inside the furnace body and the interstices filled with a coke-graphite mixture (resistor packing), and current is passed through the resistor packing and the shapes. In the Castner furnace, the shapes form the entire current path and lead to gains in the current efficiency.

Other specialised furnaces are also used, like tunnel furnaces, induction furnaces or vacuum graphitising furnaces for speciality products.

Castner and Acheson furnaces are shown in Figure 10.4 and Figure 10.5.

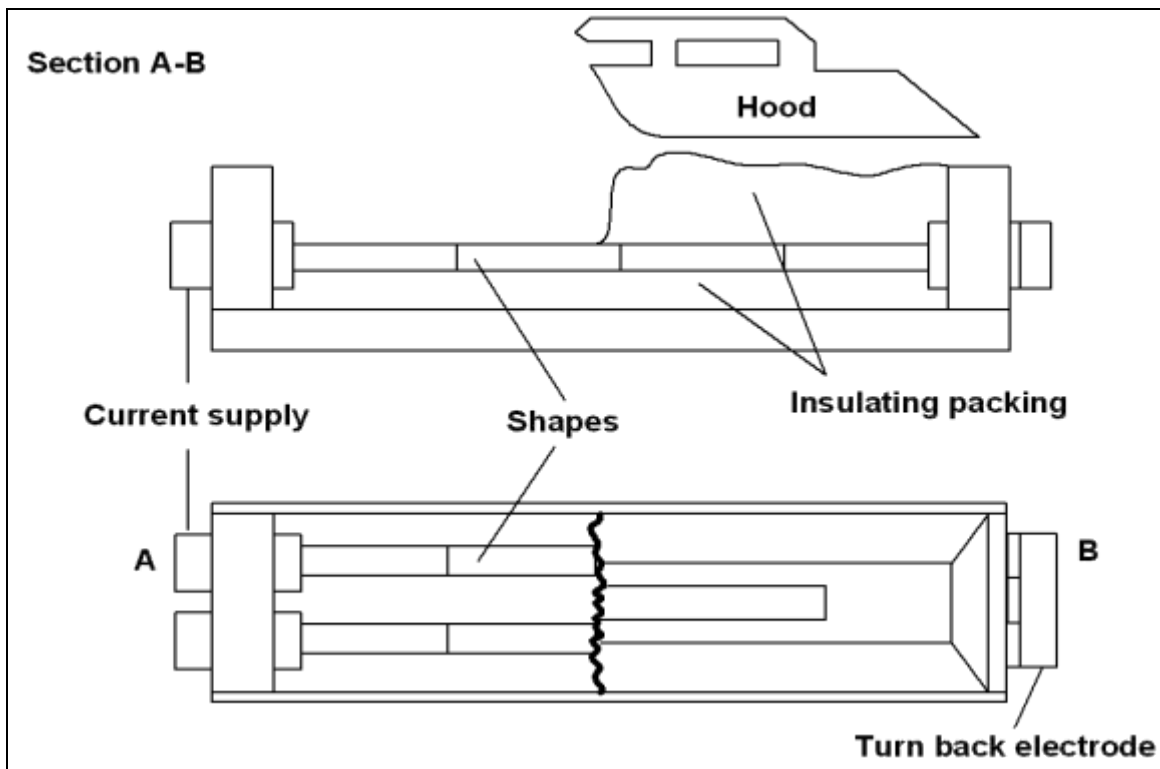


Figure 10.4: Castner graphitising furnace

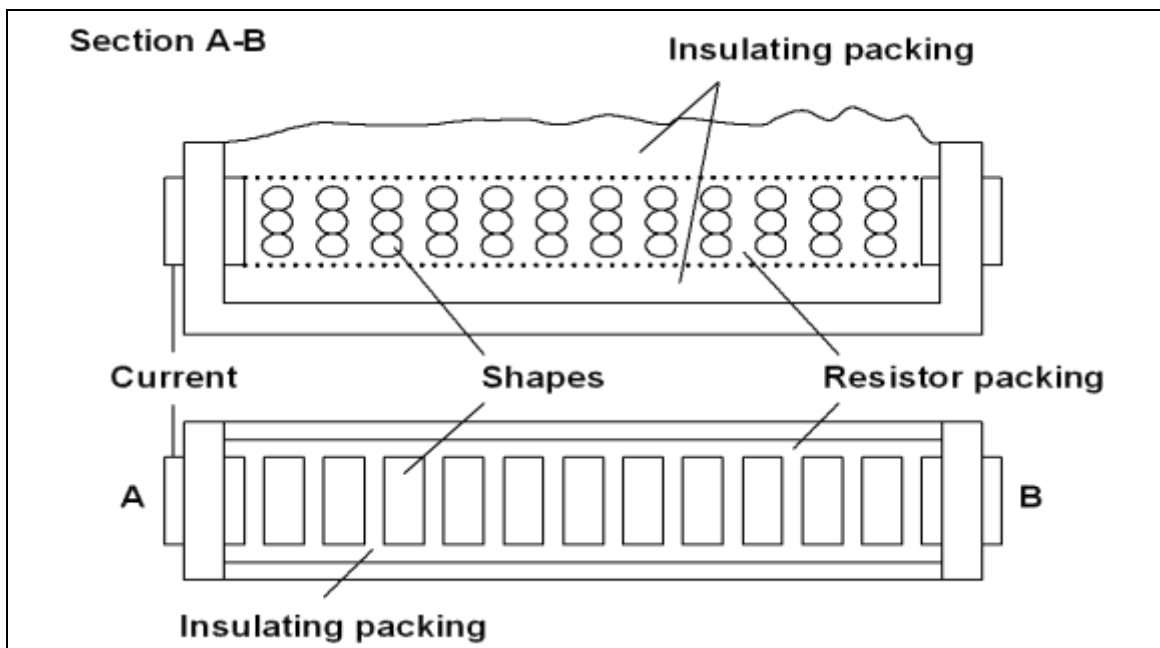


Figure 10.5: Acheson graphitising furnace

In some cases, no hoods are used where there are only minor diffuse dust emissions and the carbon oxides are well dispersed at the roofline.

The Acheson furnace is used for baked or rebaked shapes with irregular dimensions and cross-sections. The furnace charge is arranged in blocks within a horizontal bed, usually perpendicular to the axis of the furnace. The space between these segments is filled with a resistor material consisting of silicon carbide, coke, sawdust and sand mixture. The current is supplied to the firing charge by two water-cooled head electrodes at the narrow sides of the furnace. The

furnace charge is thermally insulated by a mixture of coke, sand, carbon black and/or sawdust, thus protecting the carbonaceous material against oxidation. As the electrical resistance of the furnace decreases with an increasing degree of graphitisation, the power to the head electrodes is controlled and adjusted by transformers. Depending on the size of the furnace and its operation mode, one working cycle including cooling lasts two to six weeks.

The Castner furnace is used for shapes with parallel faces and equal cross-sections. Lengthwise graphitisation (longitudinal array) is characterised by the direct connection of one furnace charge to another in a row without a resistor material in between. The insulation against oxidation and high heat losses is achieved by packing material consisting of coke and graphite. The prebaked carbonaceous electrodes are clamped between the head electrodes of the furnace and heated by passing the current directly through the load. Heating cycles vary from several hours to several days and the cooling cycle takes up to 14 days.

10.1.7 Processes to produce machine baked, rebaked or graphitised products

Sawing, turning, drilling, milling and similar mechanical processes are used to prepare the baked, rebaked and graphitised shapes according to the requirements of the customer. The surfaces of the final shapes are treated according to the final use. After the mechanical completion, surface coating measures to reduce negative burnout effects at the final destination may be applied. Powders, particles or dust produced by these processes are collected, extracted and stored in silos, bags or closed containers, and reused or recycled as far as possible.

10.1.8 Processes to produce speciality carbon and graphite products

Other graphite products such as seals, brushes, crucibles and comparable products are produced in a similar way to graphite electrodes. There are differences in the size and complexity of the products and this affects the processes that are used. Other additives such as sulphur and metals can be added to the blend of raw materials to give the desired physical properties to the product. Sometimes resins are used instead of pitch.

Porous graphite is also produced in the basic process by blending sawdust with the raw materials. During baking, the sawdust is combusted and a porous matrix of carbon or graphite remains.

High-purity graphite is produced in a similar way, but the graphitising process is used to remove impurities such as metals. In this case, chlorine or Freons are used in the gas stream and they decompose to produce chlorine and fluorine, which react with metallic impurities to form volatile salts therefore removing the metals from the graphite. Current practice includes the use of Freons that are recovered from appliances, and the process therefore provides a useful method for dealing with these materials. Excess halogens and metal salts are removed from the off-gas by dry or wet scrubbing.

Speciality products such as carbon fibre-reinforced carbon, carbon fibres and carbon fabrics are also made, and an induction or pit furnace is used. The processes used to produce carbon fibres and associated materials can include acrylonitrile as a precursor in the form of polyacrylonitrile cloth (PAN cloth) or as an impregnating agent [128, Davies, N. 1998]. In these cases, hydrogen and sodium cyanides can be produced during the heating stages in the furnace. Sodium cyanide can be converted at high temperatures in the presence of carbon oxides to sodium carbonate. An afterburner is used to oxidise the gases emitted.

10.2 Current emission and consumption levels

The potential emissions points of the various process stages are shown in Figure 10.6.

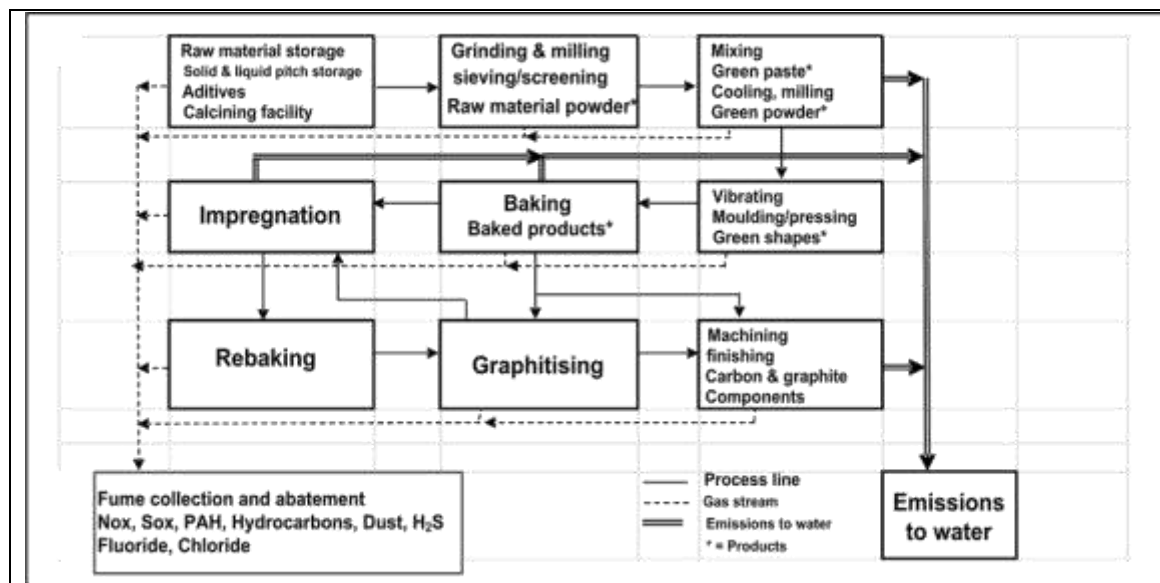


Figure 10.6: Generic emission diagram of the carbon and graphite production processes

Energy use in baking is up to 11 GJ/t (including the abatement equipment's energy consumption; furnaces are usually fired with gas or oil), and in graphitising it is 9–20 GJ/t.

10.2.1 Emissions to air

The emissions can escape the process either as stack emissions or as diffuse emissions depending on the age of the plant and the techniques used. Stack emissions are normally monitored continuously or periodically depending on the component measured and reported by on-site staff or off-site consultants to the competent authorities.

There are potential emissions to air of hydrocarbons (such as PAH), sulphur dioxide, dust, and cyanide (only for fibre production from acrylonitrile). The formation of SO₂ is influenced by the fuel, raw materials and other additives used, whereas the formation of NO_x is determined by the combustion temperature.

In carbon and graphite processes, a combination of techniques such as afterburners, electrostatic precipitators, scrubbers and bag filters is used. Dust from handling and mechanical processes is collected in bag filters. Solvents from the washing stages of special carbon production are collected and reused if possible or removed in biofilters.

The removal of PAH by adsorption onto coke is temperature-dependent. At higher temperatures, the lighter substances will not adsorb. Modern prebake furnaces have a more complete combustion. The old technique of indirect cooling prior to dry scrubbing cannot be used, since the deposit is no longer a free-flowing tar but a sticky powder. Packing coke is consumed at a rate of ~ 12–18 kg per tonne of electrodes [116, VDI 1998].

Coke filters can be used, but it is concluded that the tar fraction that is emitted by the baking process is the light condensable fraction. This may not be fully carbonised during the subsequent early stages.

There is therefore a distinct possibility that not all of the condensable fraction will be collected if only absorption onto coke is used for the baking stages. A significant portion of the tars can be recycled from the coke filter material during the temperature increase of the preheating stage of the baking furnace.

Besides coke filters, the removal of PAH in carbon and graphite processes is also possible by using a combination of techniques such as afterburners, regenerative thermal oxidisers, dry or wet scrubbers, bag filters and electrostatic precipitators.

There are also differences in the emissions characteristics depending on whether open or closed baking furnaces are used. In some cases (depending on the baking process and on the manufactured products), in open furnaces more volatile hydrocarbons are burnt within the furnace.

10.2.1.1 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

Carbon and graphite paste and shapes are produced from different cokes and pitches. Emissions of hydrocarbons and PAH can occur during storage, handling and transport of pitch, mixing and shaping, baking and impregnation. PAH are potentially hazardous to the environment as well as inside industrial plants and this is an important issue within the carbon and graphite industry. The raw gas characteristics are reported in [318, Hagen et al. 2007].

PAH values are subject to some uncertainty. Several standardised methods exist to measure and report PAH and the following groups have been used for this report: VDI-group I (2 compounds), VDI-group II (7 compounds), VDI-group I+II (9 compounds), OSPAR 11 (11 compounds), EPA (16 compounds) and Norwegian Standard NS 9815 (16 compounds).

The PAH compounds measured and reported for these conventions are shown in Table 10.2.

Table 10.2: Reporting conventions for PAH

PAH compounds	PRTR	VDI-I	VDI-II	VDI-I+II	OSPAR II	EPA	Norw. Std (NS 9815)
Naphthalene	X					X	
Acenaphthylene						X	
Acenaphthene						X	
Fluorene						X	
Phenanthrene					X	X	X
Anthracene	X				X	X	X
Fluoranthene					X	X	X
Pyrene						X	X
Benzo(a)pyrene	X	X		X	X	X	X
Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene		X		X	X	X	X
Benzo(a)anthracene			X	X	X	X	X
Benzo(b)fluoranthene	X		X	X	X	X	X
Benzo(j)fluoranthene			X	X			
Benzo(k)fluoranthene	X		X	X	X	X	X
Chrysene			X	X	X	X	X
Indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene	X		X	X	X	X	X
Benzo(ghi)perylene					X	X	X
Benzo(b)naphtho(2,1-d)thiophene			X	X			
Benzo(a)fluorene							X
Benzo(b)fluorene							X
Benzo(e)pyrene							X
Dibenzo(a,e)pyrene							X

NB: In the framework of the European Pollutant Release and Transfer Register (E-PRTR), established in Regulation (EC) No 166/2006, PAH are to be measured for reporting of releases to air as benzo(a)pyrene, benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene and indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene. Anthracene and naphthalene have to be reported separately.

The preferred reporting convention for PAH emissions is the EPA as this is compatible with the PRTR reporting requirements [299, COM 2007]. However, low-molecular-weight PAH are very sensitive to the sampling and testing conditions and procedures, and so there is more uncertainty in EPA data due to the possible incompleteness of their collection. It has also been established as a common practice in some countries to report BaP as an indicator of high-molecular-weight PAH.

10.2.1.2 Dust

During production, dust emissions occur during all process stages (calcining, storage, transfer, grinding, sieving, mixing, shaping, baking, graphitising and machining). The emissions are mainly caused by dust generated during the grinding, screening and shaping processes and from the carbonisation gases. Most of the production stages are enclosed and extracted [116, VDI 1998]. The source of dust and its material characteristics influence the abatement method used to remove it and its effectiveness. Bag filters are generally used.

In some cases of manufacturing special carbon and graphite products, absolute filters are used to remove dust and the cleaned air is then used in the workplace.

10.2.1.3 Combustion gases

Gases produced from the combustion of gas or fuel oil will be emitted from the process. There is potential for emissions of carbon oxides and oxides of sulphur and nitrogen. Optimisation of combustion conditions and the use of low-NO_x burners are commonly practised and the fuel choice is made according to site conditions and availability.

10.2.1.4 Sulphur dioxide

The raw materials from which the products are made contain sulphur and the fuel used for heating (oil) can also contain sulphur. This results in the emission of sulphur dioxide during the baking and calcining of coke and coal [6, McLellan and Partners Ltd 1993]. Furthermore, there are some products that require the addition of sulphur to improve their quality. This can be a significant source of sulphur dioxide and wet scrubbers are sometimes used to remove this.

10.2.1.5 VOCs (from the manufacture of special carbon and graphite products)

VOCs may be emitted during the use of resins as a binder or for impregnation. Afterburning or adsorption techniques are used to control these [116, VDI 1998]. Washing and drying stages in speciality carbon production use solvents such as ethanol. These materials are potential sources of odours and are usually removed at source. Biofilters are used to absorb and decompose the organic compounds and remove odours from the gas stream. The gas is prewetted and usually passes through a number of filters in series. The biofilters operate on a batch basis and the biological substrate (peat, twigs, etc.) is replaced periodically. VOC emissions of less than 20 mg/Nm³ are achieved.

10.2.1.6 Cyanides (polyacrylonitrile (PAN)-based carbon fibre production)

Cyanides are produced during the decomposition of acrylonitrile (in PAN cloth) used in the production of carbon fibres. HCN concentrations of 55 mg/Nm³ have been reported during periods when abatement has not been available [128, Davies, N. 1998]. Afterburners are used to decompose hydrogen cyanide.

Sodium cyanide can also be formed if sodium thiocyanate is used as a solvent for acrylonitrile. In this case, the sodium is driven off the carbon fibre during the high-temperature treatment stage and solid sodium cyanide is formed during cooling. In the presence of CO₂ at high temperatures, this is mainly converted into sodium carbonate. Cyanide emissions of less than 2–5 mg/Nm³ are achieved.

10.2.1.7 PCDD/F

Test results on emission sources and abatement units in this sector indicate that PCDD/F are not relevant for the conventional carbon and graphite manufacturing processes. This will need to be re-examined if chlorine compounds or additives are used.

10.2.1.8 Summary of the main air pollutants

The relative significance of emissions of SO₂, halides, hydrocarbons, cyanide, NO_x and dust from the processes that are used in the production of carbon and graphite are shown in Table 10.3.

Table 10.3: Relative significance of potential emissions to air from carbon and graphite production

Component	Calcining	Storage and handling	Grinding and milling	Mixing and forming	Baking	Impregnation	Graphitising	Machining
Sulphur dioxide	•• (¹)(²)	NR	NR	NR	•• (¹)(²)	NR	•• (²)	NR
Hydrocarbons including PAH	NR	••• (³) • (⁴)	•	••	•••	•••	NR	NR
Cyanide	NR	NR	NR	NR	•• (⁵)	NR	•• (⁵)	NR
Nitrogen oxides	NR	NR	NR	NR	•• (²)	NR	•• (²)	NR
Dust	•	••	•••	••	•	NR	••	•••

(¹) With raw materials that contain sulphur.
(²) Combustion gases.
(³) High concentration during loading. Solid pitch.
(⁴) High concentration during loading. Liquid pitch.
(⁵) With carbon fibres.
NB: ••• More significant – • Less significant.
NR = Not relevant.
Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008], [373, Grådahl et al. 2007]

In carbon and graphite processes, the calcining of coal and coke usually takes place without using any abatement technique. Emission ranges vary depending on the heat source (electrically calcined materials or gas-heated calcined materials), as shown in Table 10.4 and Table 10.5.

Table 10.4: Emissions from electrically calcined coke and coal

Source	Abatement type	Pollutant	Emissions range (kg/t product)
Calcining (electrical)	No abatement technique used	SO ₂	< 5
		NO _x	0.1–0.35

Table 10.5: Emissions from natural gas-calcined coke and coal

Source	Abatement type	Pollutant	Emissions range (mg/Nm ³)
Calcining (natural gas)	No abatement technique used	Dust	< 20
		SO ₂	< 150
		NO _x	< 350
		BaP	0.01

The main air pollutants and emission ranges achieved by various abatement techniques during carbon and graphite electrode production are shown in Table 10.6.

Table 10.6: Examples of emission ranges for a number of carbon and graphite production processes

Source	Abatement type	Pollutant	Concentration range (mg/Nm ³)
Material handling and storage (coke)	Cyclone	Dust	20–150
	Bag filter	Dust	1–20 (up to 30 when using truck loading filters or silo roof filters)
Material handling and storage (pitch)	Bag filter	BaP particulates	< 0.01 (for pitch containing dust)
	Re-venting, condensation	Hydrocarbons	1–75
Grinding, mixing and shaping ⁽¹⁾	Fabric filter	Dust	1–20
		Dust	9–20
		BaP	0.01–0.05
		SO ₂	< 150 (in the event of sulphur addition in the process, a wet scrubber is used)
	Regenerative thermal oxidiser	NO _x	< 100
		Dust	1–20
		BaP	0.002–0.01
	Dry scrubber followed by bag filter	NO _x	< 10
		Dust	1–20
	Baking	Bag filter	Dust
BaP			< 0.1–0.3
ESP		Dust	< 20 (for handling packing materials)
		Dust	1–40
		Hydrocarbons	2–17
		Benzene	0.15–7.5
		BaP	0.01–0.05
		SO ₂	50–330
		NO _x	< 500
Thermal oxidiser		Dust	< 20
		BaP	0.01–0.05
		SO ₂	10–90 (in the event of sulphur addition in the process, a wet scrubber is used)
		NO _x	50–70
		Dust	3–20
Thermal oxidiser and wet or dry scrubber ⁽²⁾		BaP	0.01–0.1
		SO ₂	< 90
		NO _x	< 100
		Dust	< 100
Regenerative thermal oxidiser		Dust	2–20
		BaP	0.003–0.05
	SO ₂	< 100	
ESP and regenerative thermal oxidiser	NO _x	< 100	
	Dust	2–20	
	BaP	< 0.05	
Regenerative thermal oxidiser and dry scrubber	SO ₂	< 200 (in the event of sulphur addition in the process, a dry scrubber is used)	
	Dust	2–20	
	BaP	< 0.02	
ESP and dry scrubber	SO ₂	< 100	
	Dust	1–200	
Impregnation	Thermal oxidiser	Dust	1–200

		BaP	0.001–0.05
		Hydrocarbons	3.5–7.5
		PAH	0.0002–0.2
		Benzene	0.4–7.5
		SO ₂	100–200
		NO _x	80–200
	Dry scrubber	Dust	2–20
		BaP	0.0005–0.01
Rebaking	Thermal oxidiser	Dust	< 35
		BaP	< 0.003
		SO ₂	5–330
		NO _x	< 500
Graphitising	Bag filter	Dust	1–20
		Hydrocarbons	1–25
Machining and shaping	Bag filter	Dust	1–20
		Hydrocarbons	1–25
<p>(¹) Due to the fact that the flow rates in the grinding, mixing and forming areas are lower than emissions arising from other processes, in many cases these off-gases are treated in the abatement systems available in other stages (e.g. baking process).</p> <p>(²) Wet or dry scrubbers are used only when using special additives.</p> <p>Source: [345, UBA (D) 2009], [381, ECGA 2012]</p>			

In a RTO, the different PAH are not destroyed to the same extent; higher molecular PAH are more difficult to remove. The 16 substances normally reported belong to different classes of pollutants in terms of toxicity.

Table 10.7 shows the rate of destruction of some PAH in a RTO and the effect of pretreatment.

Table 10.7: Rate of destruction of some PAH in a RTO

Parameter	Unit	Upstream of pretreatment	Downstream of pretreatment	Downstream of RTO
Flow rate	m ³ /h	NA	NA	56 150
Temperature	°C	NA	NA	151
O ₂	vol-%	NA	NA	18.4
Dust	mg/Nm ³	NA	NA	5.6
Benzene	mg/Nm ³	NA	NA	< 0.03
CO	mg/Nm ³	NA	NA	3.8
NO _x (as NO ₂)	mg/Nm ³	NA	NA	62.6
TVOC	mg/Nm ³	NA	NA	8.9
PAH				
Naphthalene	mg/Nm ³	6.1	6.0	0.021
2-Methylnaphthalene	mg/Nm ³	2.8	2.8	0.012
1-Methylnaphthalene	mg/Nm ³	2.0	1.9	0.012
Acenaphthylene	mg/Nm ³	2.3	2.1	0.021
Acenaphthene	mg/Nm ³	2.9	0.5	0.026
Fluorine	mg/Nm ³	2.9	2.6	0.043
Phenanthrene	mg/Nm ³	40.9	39.5	1.104
Anthracene	mg/Nm ³	6.3	5.9	0.154
Fluoranthene	mg/Nm ³	46.3	50.3	3.445
Pyrene	mg/Nm ³	30.6	32.8	2.524
Chrysene	mg/Nm ³	22.9	23.3	3.155
Benzo(a)anthracene	mg/Nm ³	12.3	12.3	1.314
Benzo(b+k)fluoranthene	mg/Nm ³	16.3	17.1	1.739
Benzo(a)pyrene	mg/Nm ³	3.5	4.4	0.386
Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene	mg/Nm ³	0.4	0.4	0.035
Indeno(cd)pyrene	mg/Nm ³	1.8	1.8	0.149
Benzo(g,h,i)perylene	mg/Nm ³	1.8	1.8	0.138
NB: NA=not available				
Source: [345, UBA (D) 2009]				

Table 10.8 shows emission ranges from RTOs operating in carbon and graphite baking and rebaking processes.

Table 10.8: Example of emissions from RTOs operating in carbon and graphite baking and rebaking processes

Product Furnace type Abatement type	Graphite electrode Open furnace RTO	Special graphite Open furnace ESP + RTO	Cathode Open furnace RTO	Graphite electrode Closed furnace RTO
Component	Range (mg/Nm ³)	Average of 4 measurements in one day (mg/Nm ³)	Average (mg/Nm ³)	Range (mg/Nm ³)
PAH - EPA 16	2.61–19.45	0.989	1.535	2–16
BaP	0.045–0.3	0.015	0.012	0.1–1.0
Benzene	NA	NA	NA	< 1.0
Dust	NA	NA	NA	< 20
NB: NA=not available				

10.2.2 Emissions to water

The production of carbon and graphite shapes is an inherently dry process. Nevertheless, a few water cooling cycles are needed.

The cooling process can be performed using indirect water systems, resulting in a discharge of clean cooling water. Indirect water systems can also be used to cool the flue-gases, to make them suitable for abatement with regular techniques such as bag filters and electrostatic precipitators.

Discharges of process waste water are usually limited to cooling water (e.g. to cool green shapes). Cooling water used to directly cool the green and/or impregnated shapes is treated sufficiently or discharged as waste water. By sedimentation treatment, insoluble materials such as PAH are removed as sludge and discharged according to national regulations.

Considerable amounts of waste water can be discharged when wet systems are used for air pollution control. The waste water produced by wet systems is regarded as a cross-media effect of the abatement techniques. Wet scrubbers and biofilters are sources of contaminated waste water that has to be discharged afterwards.

Rainwater run-off from surfaces and roofs may contain carbon dust and associated material. Open storage of raw materials and deposited solid emissions are other sources of potential contamination. Measures are taken to avoid contaminated rainwater being discharged.

10.2.3 Process residues

The production of carbon and graphite is related to the generation of several by-products, residues and wastes, consisting of solid carbon materials, tar, pitch and mixtures that are comparable to usual trade products.

These materials are generated to a large degree as dust or coarse-grained material, stored in silos or big bags and, if needed after a physical preparation process, commonly reused in the production economic cycle.

Residues obtained from the mechanical preparation and machining stages are usually suitable for reuse within the process as raw materials or are recycled in other processes as fuel or

carburising material, depending on the features. In some cases, carbonised or graphitised material is deliberately produced so that it can be returned as raw material to the production process under controlled conditions.

Refractory bricks from the baking furnaces can be reused in other applications after cleaning or can be disposed of as waste.

Used biological substrate is also disposed of but has some value as a soil conditioner provided that toxic components have been broken down.

Other residues include the material removed during the shaping, cutting and grinding stages together with tar or pitch fractions. Depending on the material, they are usually suitable for recycling within the process as raw materials or in other processes as fuel or carburising material.

10.3 BEI DER BESTIMMUNG DER BVT ZU BERÜCKSICHTIGENDE TECHNIKEN

In den Unterkapiteln mit der Überschrift "Bei der Bestimmung der BVT zu berücksichtigende Techniken" werden Techniken beschrieben, die geeignet erscheinen, ein hohes Umweltschutzniveau in den in den Anwendungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallenden Industriesektoren zu erreichen. Zur Vorgehensweise bei der Beschreibung der einzelnen Techniken wird auf Unterkapitel 2.12 und Tabelle 2.10 verwiesen.

Im vorliegenden Unterkapitel werden Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen einschließlich fester Abfallstoffe sowie Techniken zur Reduzierung des Energieverbrauchs insgesamt behandelt. Alle aufgeführten Techniken sind großtechnisch verfügbar. Zur Veranschaulichung von Techniken mit guter Umweltleistung werden Anwendungsbeispiele aufgeführt. Die entsprechenden Angaben basieren auf Informationen der Industrie, der EU-Mitgliedsstaaten und der Auswertung des European IPPC Bureau. Die in Kapitel 2 beschriebenen allgemeinen Techniken für Prozesse, die allen Nichteisenmetallhütten gemeinsam sind, sind weitgehend auch auf die im hier betrachteten Sektor eingesetzten Prozesse anwendbar und haben einen Einfluss auf die Art der Prozessführung und den Betrieb der Haupt- und Nebenprozesse.

10.3.1 Rohstoffannahme, -umschlag und -lagerung

10.3.1.1 Techniken zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von festen Einsatzstoffe

Allgemein anwendbare Techniken zur Minderung diffuser Emissionen bei der Lagerung, dem Umschlag und Transport von Einsatzstoffen für die Kohlenstoff- und Grafitherstellung sind in Kapitel 2 (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.4.1) und im BVT-Merkblatt Emissionen aus der Lagerung beschrieben [290, COM 2006]. Die bei der Lagerung und dem Umschlag von Koks und Pech zur Anwendung kommenden Techniken sind sektorspezifisch.

Beschreibung

Als Techniken kommen Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4) oder Zyklonabscheider (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.3) im Verbund mit einem Gewebefilter in Betracht.

Technische Beschreibung

Bei der Lagerung, dem Transport und der mechanischen Aufbereitung (z.B. Mahlung) der trockenen Einsatzstoffe, wie z.B. Anthrazit, Koks, festes Pech, grüne Masse und pulverförmige Zuschlagstoffe, können staubförmige Emissionen auftreten. Staubemissionen werden i.d.R. erfasst und in einem Gewebefilter abgereinigt (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4).

Kurzzeitige Staubemissionsspitzen können bei staubenden Arbeitsgängen, wie z.B. Silobefüllung und LkW-Beladung, aufgrund erhöhter Emissionsfrachten auftreten.

Ökologischer Nutzen

- Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen
- Reduzierung staubgebundener PAK-Emissionen
- ggf. Wiederverwendung des abgeschiedenen Staubs im Prozess

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Folgende Staubemissionswerte nach Abgasreinigung in einem Gewebefilter wurden vom Europäischen Kohlenstoff- und Grafitverband (ECGA) berichtet.

Tabelle 10.9: Bandbreite der Staubemissionen aus Umschlag, Lagerung und Transport basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite mg/Nm ³
Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1–15
	B[a]P ⁽¹⁾	< 0,01
<small>(¹) Soweit in Sonderfällen festes Pech verarbeitet wird, kann ein Gewebefilter zur Rückhaltung von staubgebundenem B[a]P eingesetzt werden. Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</small>		

Bei Einsatz von Verladekopffiltern oder Siloaufsatzfiltern sind Staubemissionswerte von 30 mg/Nm³ erreichbar [345, UBA (D) 2009].

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn der abgeschiedene Staub für eine Verwertung nicht geeignet ist

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein anwendbar

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Je nach Art des Prozesses und Anlagengröße können die Investitionskosten stark variieren. Der Investitionsaufwand für eine Anlage mit einer Kapazität von 20 000–50 000 m³/h beläuft sich auf schätzungsweise ca. EUR 60 000–250 000 ohne Berücksichtigung von Montage-, Betriebsmittel-, Inbetriebnahmekosten usw. Die geschätzten Instandhaltungskosten liegen bei ca. EUR 10 000–50 000/a.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

- Minderung negativer Umwelteinwirkungen
- Materialeinsparungen. Abhängig von den Inhaltsstoffen, der Art der Mischung, Korngröße und den Qualitätsanforderungen kann der abgeschiedene Staub in den meisten Fällen wiederverwendet oder als Nebenprodukt verkauft werden.

Beispielanlagen

Fast alle Mitgliedsunternehmen des Europäischen Kohlenstoff- und Grafitverbands (ECGA)

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.1.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen beim Lagern, Verarbeiten und Transport von Flüssigpech

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gaspendelung der Flüssigpech-Lagertanks
- Kondensation
- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3)
- Thermische Nachverbrennungs- (TNV) oder regenerative Nachverbrennungseinrichtung (RNV) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1) (ggf. in Verbindung mit einer Vorbehandlung, z.B. in einem EGR, siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Aufgrund der relativ kleinen Abgasvolumenströme wird das erfasste Abgas aus der Flüssigpechverarbeitung und -lagerung den Minderungseinrichtungen, z.B. der Trockensorptionsstufe (Beschreibung, siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) und TNV/RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1), einer nachgeschalteten Prozessstufe (z.B. Grünfertigung, Formgebung oder Brennbetrieb) zugeführt und dort gereinigt.

10.3.2 Materialvorbereitung**10.3.2.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Kohle- und Koksalkalinierung**

Es werden keine spezifischen Minderungstechniken eingesetzt. Die erreichten Emissionswerte für elektrisch und gasbeheizte Kalzinierer sind in Unterkapitel 10.2 aufgeführt.

10.3.2.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der mechanischen Aufbereitung (z.B. Mahlung und Siebung) der Einsatzstoffe

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter in Betracht. Die mit Gewebefiltern erreichbaren Emissionswerte im Prozessschritt Mahlen und Sieben sind in Abschnitt 10.3.1.1 wiedergegeben.

10.3.3 Herstellung von Kohlenstoff- und Grafitwerkstoffen**10.3.3.1 Techniken zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in den Prozessschritten Mischen und Formgebung (Herstellung von grüner Masse und grünen Formkörpern)****Beschreibung**

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit Staub als Adsorbens und nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter; ggf. nach vorheriger Kondensation
- AktivkoksfILTER
- TNV oder RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Technische Beschreibung

Beim Mischen und Formen pechhaltiger Materialien können insbesondere bei hohen Temperaturen Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen auftreten. Als Minderungstechniken kommen Kondensations- oder Adsorptionsverfahren oder eine thermische Nachverbrennung in Betracht.

Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)

Gewebefilter werden nur zur Abscheidung von Koksstaub eingesetzt, jedoch in der Regel nicht zur Minderung von PAK-Emissionen.

Kondensation

Die Abgaskondensation kann durch externe und/oder interne Kühlung mit Luft und/oder Wasser erfolgen. Häufig werden hierzu Konditioniertürme eingesetzt. Nach Kondensation können die nun partikelförmig vorliegenden Kohlenwasserstoffe mittels Adsorptionsverfahren oder Elektrofiltern abgeschieden werden.

Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter

Durch Einblasen von Staub in den Abgasstrom vor Eintritt in den Staubabscheider werden gasförmige Luftschadstoffe am Staub adsorbiert und anschließend im Staubabscheider abgeschieden. Grundsätzlich sind sowohl Gewebefilter als auch Elektrofilter für diese Anwendung geeignet, doch werden i.d.R. Gewebefilter wegen ihres höheren Abscheidegrads und der Möglichkeit des Einsatzes von Sorbentien bevorzugt. Ein Teil der im Gewebefilter abgeschiedenen Feststoffpartikel kann mehrfach in den Abgasreinigungsprozess rezirkuliert werden, um so ein optimales Gemisch aus Sorbens und Kohlenwasserstoffdämpfen zu erhalten. Das Sorbens muss periodisch aus dem System ausgetragen werden und wird häufig im Produktionsprozess wieder eingesetzt oder einem anderen Prozess zugeführt oder in seltenen Fällen entsorgt. Abbildung 10.7 zeigt eine typische Sorptionsfilteranlage mit Staubdosierstation und Staubabscheider.

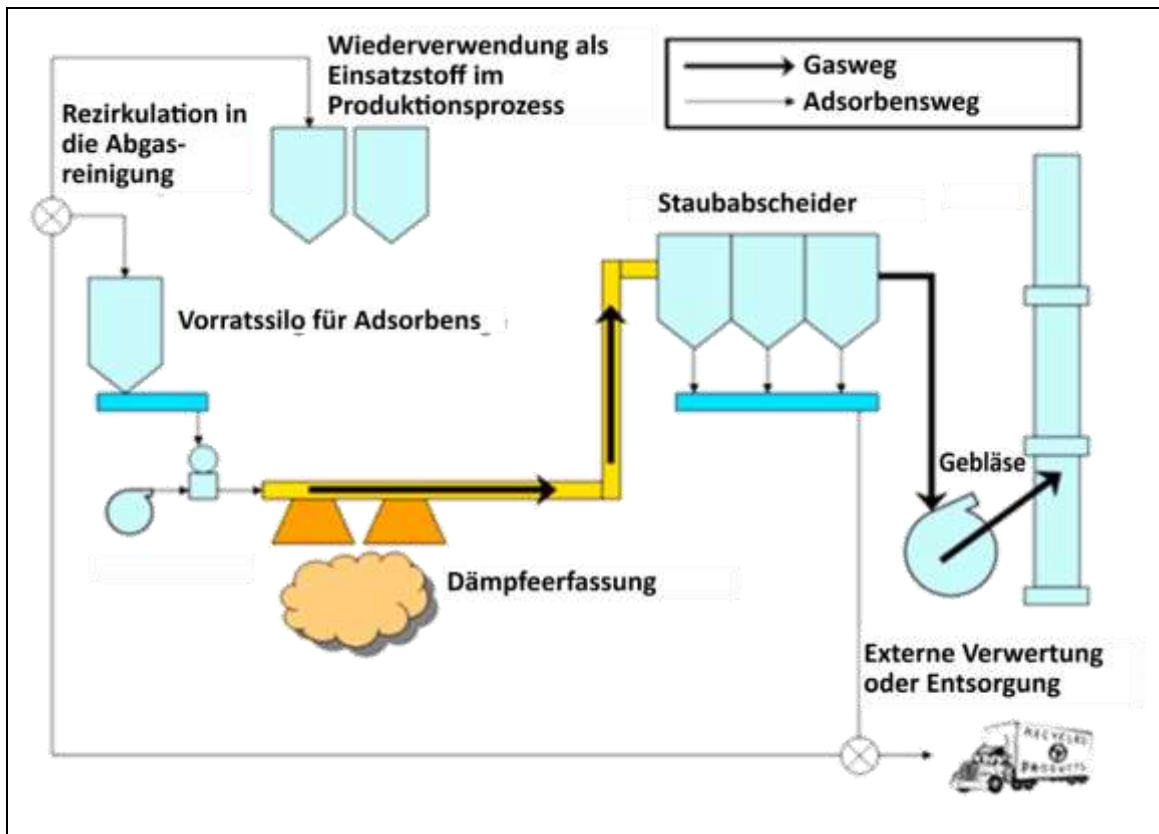


Abbildung 10.7: Sorptionsfilteranlage mit Staubdosierstation und Staubabscheider

In Anlagen zur Herstellung von Kohlenstoff- und Graphitelektroden ist dies das am häufigsten eingesetzte Adsorptionsverfahren in dieser Verarbeitungsstufe.

TNV oder RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1).

Des Weiteren kommen thermische Oxidationsverfahren wie TNV und RNV zur Minderung von Emissionen aus der Grünfertigung zur Anwendung. Je nach Anlagenkonfiguration kann das Abgas aus den Bereichen Mischen und Formgebung in einer eigens für diese Bereiche vorgesehenen TNV- oder RNV-Einrichtung behandelt (Ein Betrieb gibt an, eine separate RNV zur Behandlung der Dämpfe aus dem Mischprozess einzusetzen) oder der TNV/RNV des Brennbetriebs zugeführt werden (wobei in diesem Fall eine Vorbehandlung, z.B. in einem EGR, erforderlich ist). In den meisten Fällen erfolgt eine gemeinsame Reinigung mit dem Abgas aus dem Brennbetrieb.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gewebefilter

Minderung diffuser Staubemissionen

Trockensorptionsverfahren oder Aktivkoksfilter

- Minderung von Staub- und Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen
- In einigen Fällen dient das Staubeinblasen gleichzeitig auch zur Reinigung der Rohrleitungsinneiwände.

TNV oder RNV

- Verringerung von Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen
- In einigen Fällen, wie z.B. bei der Herstellung von Spezialgraphit, muss eine TNV (oder alternativ ein Chemisorptionsverfahren mit kalkdotiertem Koks) zur H₂S-Abscheidung vorgesehen werden.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten*Gewebefilter***Tabelle 10.10: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters**

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1–10
	B[a]P	≤ 0,001 (nur bei Niedertemperaturverfahren, bei denen die PAK in der Feststoffphase verbleiben)
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter***Tabelle 10.11: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Trockensorptionsverfahrens mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1–12
	B[a]P	≤ 0,01
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*Aktivkoksfilter***Tabelle 10.12: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz eines Aktivkoksfilters**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Aktivkoksfilter	Staub	1–8
	B[a]P	0,001
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

TNV

Tabelle 10.13: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
TNV	Staub	1–15
	B[a]P	Es liegen keine anlagenspezifischen Daten vor.
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

RNV

Tabelle 10.14: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Misch- und Formgebungsstufe bei Einsatz einer RNV

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
RNV	Staub	< 1–10
	B[a]P	< 0,01
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

Gewebefilter

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn der abgeschiedene Staub für eine Verwertung nicht geeignet ist

Trockensorptionsverfahren oder Aktivkohsfilter

Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs (der jedoch i.d.R. wiederverwendet werden kann und nur in seltenen Fällen entsorgt wird)

TNV oder RNV

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Gegenüber einer TNV ermöglicht eine RNV Energieeinsparungen von bis zu 70 %.
- Höhere CO₂- und NO_x-Emissionen

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Gewebefilter

Allgemein anwendbar

Trockensorptionsverfahren oder Aktivkohsfilter

Trockensorptionsverfahren unter Einsatz von Staub als Sorbens sind nur anwendbar, wenn ausreichend Material zur Verfügung steht, das als Sorbens verwendet werden kann. Im Allgemeinen wird das in der Abgasentstaubungsanlage abgeschiedene beladene Sorbens wiederverwendet.

TNV oder RNV

Informationen zur Anwendbarkeit von TNV- und RNV-Einrichtungen sind Abschnitt 10.3.3.2 zu entnehmen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Trockensorptionsverfahren

Die Investitionskosten für eine Trockensorptionsanlage mit einem Durchsatz von 50 000 m³/h liegen bei ca. EUR 1,4 Millionen (einschl. Montagekosten, ohne Abgaskanalsystem).

TNV oder RNV

Kostendaten für TNV- und RNV-Einrichtungen sind in Abschnitt 10.3.3.2 aufgeführt.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Gewebefilter

Minderung diffuser Staubemissionen

Trockensorptionsverfahren oder AktivkoksfILTER

- Minderung von Staub- und Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen
- Staub- und Pechrückgewinnung

TNV oder RNV

Minderung von Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen

Beispielanlagen

- Gewebefilter: Anlagen 1, 4, 5, 9, 10 und 14
- Trockensorptionsverfahren mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter: Anlagen 5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 18, 21 und 22
- AktivkoksfILTER: Anlage 7
- TNV: Anlage 1
- RNV: Anlagen 4, 9, 10, 15 und 16
- RNV und EGR: Anlage 11

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.3.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus dem Brenn- und Abglühbetrieb

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4)
- EGR (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)
- TNV oder RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) und/oder Trockensorption (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3)

Technische Beschreibung

Elektrofilter, TNV- und RNV-Einrichtungen sind die gängigsten Techniken zur Minderung von Emissionen aus den Glüh- und Nachglühöfen. Nasswäscher und Trockensorptionsverfahren kommen vorwiegend zur Abscheidung von Schwefelverbindungen zum Einsatz. Abhängig von der standortspezifischen Anlagenkonfiguration wird gewöhnlich eine Kombination der vorgenannten Techniken eingesetzt.

Gewebefilter

Gewebefilter werden ausschließlich zur Reinigung der Abluft aus der Handhabung der Koks-Schüttmaterials eingesetzt.

Elektrofilter (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.1)

Elektrofilter - i.d.R. im Verbund mit einer RNV zur Nachverbrennung flüchtiger organischer Verbindungen im Abgas – sind die am weitesten verbreitete Minderungstechnik zur Reinigung teerhaltiger Abgase in der Kohlenstoff- und Grafitelektrodenherstellung.

Dabei dienen die Niederschlags Elektroden des EGR als Kondensationsfläche für die Teere. Je nach Zusammensetzung kann der kondensierte Filterteer u.U. als Brennstoff für den Ringofen oder die RNV genutzt werden. Andernfalls muss er entsorgt werden.

Speziell für teerhaltige Abgase entwickelte Filtereinbauten (Sprühdrähte), die auch bei viskosen Teeren nicht verstopfen, gewährleisten eine gute Gasverteilung im Elektrofilter. Die Erzielung hinreichender Abscheidegrade setzt einen optimalen Teertropfendurchmesser von 200–300 µm voraus. Dies wird durch Eindüsen von Wasser unter Druck im Gegenstrom zum Abgas erreicht. Die beste Abscheideleistung wird bei Gastemperaturen von 50–75 °C erzielt. Bei Einsatz eines EGR in Kombination mit einer RNV wird gewöhnlich auf eine Wassereindüsung verzichtet. Elektrofilter erreichen Abscheidegrade für schwerflüchtige Kohlenwasserstoffe von > 95 %. Die verbleibenden leichtflüchtigen Kohlenwasserstoffe werden in einer RNV oder TNV bei Temperaturen von > 750 °C thermisch nachverbrannt.

TNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Bei hochbeladenen, relativ kleinen Abgasvolumenströmen stellt eine TNV einen guten Kompromiss zwischen Effizienz, Energieaufwand und Investitionskosten dar.

RNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)

Je nach Beschaffenheit des zu behandelnden Abgases muss der RNV eine Vorreinigung vorgeschaltet werden. Bei hohen Rohgasbeladungen ist eine RNV als alleinige Reinigungsstufe nicht ausreichend, um die Emissionsgrenzwerte einzuhalten. In diesen Fällen muss das Abgas vor Eintritt in die RNV einer Vorreinigung zur Reduzierung des Pechgehalts (insbesondere der langkettigen Kohlenwasserstoffverbindungen) unterzogen werden.

Hierzu kommt üblicherweise ein EGR zum Einsatz. Sollte dies aufgrund der Kühleffekte nicht möglich sein, kann ein Keramikfilter zur Anwendung kommen (In der europäischen Kohlenstoff- und Grafitindustrie werden keine Keramikfilter eingesetzt.)

Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2) und Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3).

Zur Einstellung spezieller Material- und Produkteigenschaften wird in einigen Fällen Schwefel als Zuschlagstoff eingesetzt. Darüber hinaus enthalten auch einige Rohstoffe und Brennstoffe Schwefel. Nasswäscher und/oder Trockensorptionsverfahren sind die gängigsten Techniken zur Abgasentschwefelung.

Ökologischer Nutzen

Gewebefilter

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

EGR

Minderung der Emissionen an Staub und schwerflüchtigen Kohlenwasserstoffen

TNV oder RNV

Minderung von Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen

Nasswäscher und/oder Trockensorptionsverfahren

Minderung der Emissionen an Schwefelverbindungen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Berichtete Emissionswerte für den Glühprozess:

*Gewebefilter (Handhabung von Koks-Schüttmaterial)***Tabelle 10.15: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Handhabung von Koks-Schüttmaterial**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Gewebefilter	Staub	0,5–15
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*EGR***Tabelle 10.16: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
EGR	Staub	< 1–12
	B[a]P	< 0,2
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*TNV***Tabelle 10.17: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer TNV**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
TNV	Staub	5–20
	SO ₂ ⁽¹⁾	44–220
	NO _x	80–400
	BaP	≤ 0,01
⁽¹⁾ Der obere Wert ist auf den höheren Schwefelgehalt der Einsatzstoffe, des eingesetzten Brennstoffs in den Glühöfen und den Schwefelgehalt des Schüttmaterials zurückzuführen.		
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*RNV***Tabelle 10.18: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer RNV**

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
RNV	Staub	2,5–11
	SO ₂	< 90
	NO _x	35–100
	B[a]P	< 0,35
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

*TNV und Nasswäscher***Tabelle 10.19: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer TNV und eines Nasswäschers**

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
TNV und Nasswäscher	Staub	9–20
	SO ₂	10–90
	NO _x	50–70
	B[a]P	< 0,01
⁽¹⁾ Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf nur einer Anlage		
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

EGR und RNV

Tabelle 10.20: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR und einer RNV

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
EGR und RNV	Staub	< 5–10
	SO ₂	40–100
	NO _x	32–100
	B[a]P	< 0,02
	TVOC	1–10
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

RNV und Trockensorptionsverfahren

Tabelle 10.21: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz einer RNV und Trockensorptionsstufe

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
RNV und Trockensorption	Staub	< 5
	SO ₂	< 200
	NO _x	16–20
	B[a]P	< 0,01
⁽¹⁾ Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf nur einer Anlage		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

EGR und AktivkoksfILTER

Tabelle 10.22: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für den Brennbetrieb bei Einsatz eines EGR und Aktivkoksfilters

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
EGR und AktivkoksfILTER	Staub	1,8–15
	SO ₂	26–65
	NO _x	8–27
	CO	366–892
	B[a]P	0,01–0,02
	Toluol	0,5–1,1
	Xylol	0,5–1,7
⁽¹⁾ Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf nur einer Anlage		
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

Berichtete Emissionen für den Nachglühprozess:

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 10.23: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Nachglühstufe bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Gewebefilter	Staub	< 5
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

TNV

Tabelle 10.24: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Nachglühstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV

Minderungstechnik	Schadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
TNV	Staub	5–20
	SO ₂ ⁽¹⁾	4–220
	NO _x	12–400
	B[a]P	< 0,003
⁽¹⁾ Der obere Wert ist auf den höheren Schwefelgehalt der Einsatzstoffe, des eingesetzten Brennstoffs in den Nachglühöfen und den Schwefelgehalt des Schüttmaterials zurückzuführen. <i>Quelle:</i> [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen*Gewebefilter*

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn der abgeschiedene Staub für eine Verwertung nicht geeignet ist

EGR

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand
- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs, wenn der abgeschiedene Staub für eine Verwertung nicht geeignet ist

TNV oder RNV

- Zusätzlicher Energieaufwand. Wenn keine Abgasvorreinigung erfolgt, lässt sich mit einer RNV gegenüber einer TNV eine Energieeinsparung von bis zu 70 % erzielen.
- Höhere CO₂- und NO_x-Emissionen

Nasswäscher und/oder Trockensorptionsverfahren

- Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs (der jedoch i.d.R. wiederverwendet werden kann und nur in seltenen Fällen entsorgt wird)
- Anfall von Abwasser im Fall von Nasswäschern

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit*EGR und RNV*

Allgemein anwendbar

TNV

TNV-Einrichtungen sind wegen des sehr hohen Energieaufwands zum Aufheizen der großen Abgasvolumenströme für kontinuierlich betriebene Ringöfen nicht geeignet.

Trockensorptionsverfahren

Trockensorptionsverfahren unter Einsatz von Staub als Sorbens sind nur anwendbar, wenn ausreichend Material zur Verfügung steht, das als Sorbens verwendet werden kann. Generell wird das in der Abgasentstaubungsanlage abgeschiedene beladene Sorbens wiederverwendet.

Wirtschaftlichkeit*TNV*

Die Investitionskosten für eine TNV mit einer Durchsatzleistung von 30 000 Nm³/h wurden mit EUR 1 Million angegeben (Frankreich).

Gegenüber einer RNV ist der Investitionsaufwand für eine TNV deutlich geringer.

RNV

In Deutschland wurden 2011 zwei neue RNV-Anlagen mit einer Durchsatzleistung von ca. 60 000 Nm³/h errichtet und in Betrieb genommen. Die Investitionskosten wurden mit EUR 2 Millionen pro Anlage einschließlich Nebenanlagen angegeben.

In einer französischen Anlage beliefen sich die Investitionskosten für eine 2013 in Betrieb genommene RNV auf EUR 8 Millionen.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Gewebefilter

Minderung staubförmiger Emissionen

EGR

Minderung von Staub- und Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen

TNV oder RNV

Minderung von Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen

Nasswäscher und/oder Trockensorptionsverfahren

- Minderung der Emissionen an Schwefelverbindungen
- Minderung von Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen (Trockensorptionsverfahren)

Beispielanlagen

- Gewebefilter: Anlagen 3, 4, 5, 8, 11, 21 und 22
- EGR: Anlagen 1, 4, 5, 6, 8 und 20
- TNV: Anlagen 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 18, 19, 21 und 22
- RNV: Anlagen 10, 14 und 20
- TNV und Nasswäscher: Anlage 9
- EGR und RNV: Anlagen 2, 4, 5 und 11
- RNV und Trockensorptionsverfahren: Anlage 1
- EGR und Aktivkoksfilter: Anlage 7

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.3.3 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Imprägnierung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3)
- Aktivkoksfilter
- TNV (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.1)
- Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.2), Biofilter oder Biowäscher. In Biofiltern erfolgt die Reinigung von Abgasströmen durch aeroben Stoffabbau über Mikroorganismen, die auf einer festen organischen Trägersubstanz angesiedelt sind. Biowäscher kombinieren die physikalische Gaswäsche (Absorption) mit dem biologischen Abbau. Die Schadstoffe werden physikalisch aus dem Abgas ausgewaschen und anschließend in der wässrigen Phase mit Hilfe geeigneter Mikroorganismen biologisch abgebaut.

Technische Beschreibung

Thermische Nachverbrennung und Trockensorptionsverfahren werden üblicherweise in der Imprägnierstufe eingesetzt. Nasswäscher, Biofilter und Biowäscher finden nur bei der Herstellung von Spezialgrafit Anwendung, da hier spezielle Imprägniermittel, wie z.B. Harze,

eingesetzt werden. Da TNV-Einrichtungen, Trockensorptionsverfahren und Nasswäscher bereits in den vorherigen Abschnitten (10.3.3.1 und 10.3.3.2) behandelt wurden, beschränkt sich die nachfolgende Betrachtung auf die Umweltleistung dieser Techniken und Anwendungsbeispiele.

Aktivkoksfilter

Aktivkoksfilter bestehen aus einem Gehäuse mit einem Filterbett aus Aktivkoks. Pechdämpfe werden über das Saugzuggebläse entweder im Gegenstrom oder Gleichstrom durch das Aktivkoks Bett gesaugt und dabei an den Kokspartikeln adsorbiert. Das Reingas wird über den Abgaskamin in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet. Die Aktivkoksschüttung ruht auf einem Tragrost, um eine Regeneration des Adsorbens zu ermöglichen.

Laut vorliegenden Informationen wird in nur einer europäischen Anlage ein Aktivkoksfilter eingesetzt.

Biofilter und Biowäscher

Beim Durchströmen des Filterbetts werden die Abgasinhaltsstoffe im dünnen Biofilm auf der Oberfläche der Filtermedien sorbiert und von den dort angesiedelten Mikroorganismen bestehend aus Bakterien und Pilzen biologisch abgebaut.

Für den optimalen Betrieb des Biofilters ist die Aufrechterhaltung einer ausreichenden Feuchte im System von elementarer Bedeutung. Zu diesem Zweck wird die Abluft vor Eintritt in das Filterbett i.d.R. über ein Bedüsungssystem, einen Befeuchter, Biowäscher oder Rieselbettreaktor befeuchtet. Bei guter Pflege haben natürliche, organische Filtermaterialien, wie z.B. Torf, Pflanzenmulch, Rinde oder Holzhäcksel, eine Standzeit von mehreren Jahren. Technische Filtermaterialien bestehend aus organischen und synthetischen Komponenten erreichen Standzeiten von bis zu 10 Jahren.

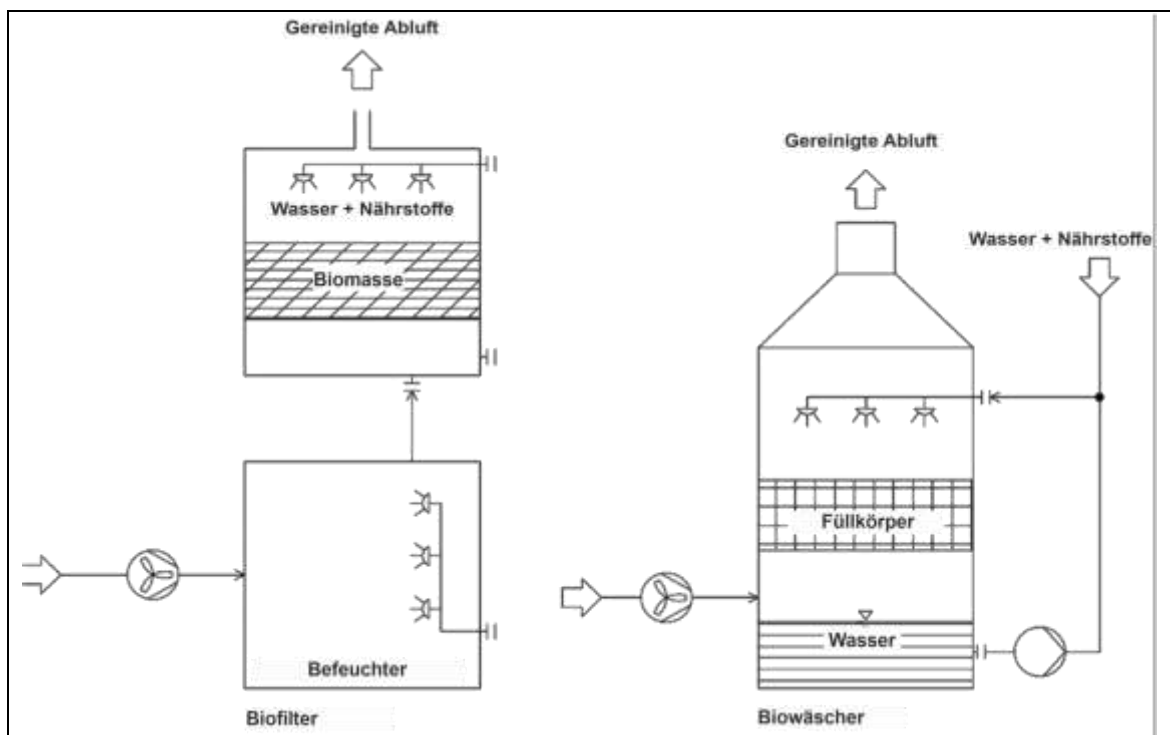


Abbildung 10.8: Biofilter und Biowäscher

Ökologischer Nutzen

Aktivkoksfilter

Minderung von Staub- und Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen

Biofilter und Biowäscher

Minderung von VOC-Emissionen

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Trockensorptionsverfahren (einschl. AktivkohlfILTER)

Tabelle 10.25: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz eines Trockensorptionsverfahrens

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Trockensorptionsverfahren	Staub	< 5–10
	B[a]P	< 0,01
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

TNV

Tabelle 10.26: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz einer TNV

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
TNV	Staub	< 5
	SO ₂	10–200
	NO _x	80–200
	B[a]P	≤ 0,05
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

Biofilter und Biowäscher (nur für einige Verfahren zur Herstellung von Sonderprodukten)

Tabelle 10.27: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Imprägnierstufe bei Einsatz von Biofiltern und Biowäschern

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Biofilter	TVOC	17–37 *
Biowäscher	Phenol	0,2–0,9
Biowäscher	Formaldehyd	< 0,2
* Die erreichten VOC-Emissionswerte liegen unter 20 mg/Nm ³ .		
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

Sonstige Spezialimprägnierprozesse (nur bei einigen Verfahren zur Herstellung von Sonderprodukten)

Tabelle 10.28: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für Spezialimprägnierprozesse

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
GewebeFILTER	Staub	< 5
	Cu	0,0001–0,0005
	Sn	0,0003
Aktivkohlefilter	Tetrachlorethylen	1,8–2,7
<i>Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]</i>		

Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen

AktivkohlfILTER

Anfall eines festen Abfallstoffs (der jedoch i.d.R. wiederverwendet werden kann und nur in seltenen Fällen entsorgt wird)

Technische Überlegungen zur Anwendbarkeit

Biofilter und Biowäscher

Diese Techniken werden in erster Linie bei der Herstellung von Spezialgrafit zur Abscheidung von Geruchsstoffen und wasserlöslichen VOC eingesetzt, die bei Einsatz von Harzen und biologisch abbaubaren Lösemitteln entstehen.

Wirtschaftlichkeit

Es liegen keine Angaben vor.

Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung

Aktivkoksfilter

- Minderung von Staub- und Kohlenwasserstoffemissionen
- Staub- und Pechrückgewinnung

Biofilter und Biowäscher

Minderung von VOC-Emissionen

Beispielanlagen

- Trockensorptionsverfahren: Anlagen 18, 21 und 22
- Aktivkoksfilter: Anlage 7
- TNV: Anlagen 2, 4, 5 und 11
- Biofilter und Biowäscher: Anlage 9

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.3.4 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Grafitierung

Beschreibung

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Gewebefilter (im Verbund mit Zyklonabscheidern) (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.4);
- Trockensorptionsverfahren (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.2.3) oder Nasswäscher (siehe Abschnitt 2.12.5.1.6 und 2.12.5.2.2)

Gewebefilter, Trockensorptionsverfahren und Nasswäscher wurden bereits in den vorhergehenden Abschnitten (10.3.3.1 und 10.3.3.2) beschrieben. Die nachfolgende Betrachtung beschränkt sich daher auf die Umweltleistung dieser Techniken und Anwendungsbeispiele.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Gewebefilter

Tabelle 10.29: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Grafitierung bei Einsatz eines Gewebefilters

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1–10

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Nasswäscher (NaOH)

Tabelle 10.30: Emissionsbandbreiten basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die Grafitierung bei Einsatz eines Nasswäschers

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Nasswäscher ⁽¹⁾	Staub	5–10
	SO ₂	20–100
	SO ₂	350

⁽¹⁾ Der Nasswäscher wird nur über eine sehr kurze Zeitdauer des Ofenbetriebs betrieben (z.B. beim Ausbau der Grafitkörper aus dem heißen Ofen).
Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Beispielanlagen

- Gewebefilter: Anlagen 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 21 und 22
- Nasswäscher: Anlagen 2, 7 und 11

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.3.5 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der maschinellen Oberflächenbearbeitung

Beschreibung

Als Minderungstechnik kommen Gewebefilter in Betracht.

Gewebefilter wurden bereits in Abschnitt 10.3.1.1 behandelt. Daher beschränkt sich die Betrachtung im Folgenden auf die Umweltleistung und Beispielanlagen.

Umweltleistung und Betriebsdaten

Tabelle 10.31: Emissionsbandbreite basierend auf anlagenspezifischen Daten für die maschinelle Oberflächenbearbeitung

Minderungstechnik	Luftschadstoff	Emissionsbandbreite (mg/Nm ³)
Gewebefilter	Staub	< 1–10

Quelle: [378, Industrial NGOs 2012]

Beispielanlagen

Anlagen 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 14, 15, 21 und 22

Literatur

[381, ECGA 2012]

10.3.3.6 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Herstellung von Werkstoffen aus Spezialkohlenstoff

Bei der Herstellung von Kohlenstoff- und Grafitfasern auf Basis Polyacrylnitril (PAN) entstehen Cyanidemissionen. Mit einer RNV sind Emissionswerte von < 2–5 mg/Nm³ erreichbar.

10.3.4 Abwasser

10.3.4.1 Techniken zur Vermeidung und Verminderung von Emissionen über das Abwasser

Folgende Techniken kommen in Betracht:

- Einsatz von indirekten Kühlsystemen, bei denen der Kühlwasserablauf unverschmutzt anfällt
- Wiederverwendung von behandeltem Abwasser. In einigen Anlagen werden Kühlabwässer, aufbereitetes Abwasser (einschl. Niederschlagswasser) wiederverwendet oder in den Prozess zurückgeführt.
- Rückhaltemaßnahmen für Lagereinrichtungen, um zu verhindern, dass die Tankinhalte bei unbeabsichtigtem Stoffaustritt in den Abwasserkanal gelangen
- Verfahrensanweisungen für Befüll- und Entleerungsvorgänge und Notfallanweisungen für den Fall von unbeabsichtigtem Stoffaustritt

10.3.4.2 Techniken zur Verminderung von Emissionen in das Wasser

Alle anfallenden Abwasserströme (Kühlabwässer aus der Direktkühlung von grünen und/oder imprägnierten Formkörpern, Abwasser aus der mechanischen Bearbeitung, Abwasser aus Emissionsminderungseinrichtungen) werden einer Behandlung zur Entfernung von Kohlenwasserstoffen und Feststoffen unterzogen. Hierzu kommen die in Abschnitt 2.12.6.2 dargestellten Techniken in Betracht, die es ermöglichen sollten, einen geschlossenen Prozesskreislauf ohne Abwasseranfall zu realisieren.

Soweit ein Kontakt des Wassers mit kontaminiertem Material nicht vermeidbar ist, wird das Abwasser einer AWA (intern oder extern) zugeführt.

10.3.5 Prozessrückstände

In Betracht kommende Techniken sind die weitgehende Wiederverwendung oder Rückführung von Kohlenstoffmaterialien, Graphit- und sonstigen Prozessrückständen in den Prozess oder die Verwertung in einem externen Produktionsprozess.

10.4 Technologien in Entwicklung

Es liegen keine Informationen vor.

11 BVT-SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN

Anwendungsbereich

Diese BVT-Schlussfolgerungen betreffen bestimmte in Anhang I Abschnitte 2.1, 2.5 und 6.8 der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU genannte industrielle Tätigkeiten, nämlich:

- 2.1: Rösten oder Sintern von Metallerz einschließlich sulfidischer Erze;
- 2.5: Verarbeitung von Nichteisenmetallen:
 - a) Gewinnung von Nichteisenrohmetallen aus Erzen, Konzentraten oder sekundären Rohstoffen durch metallurgische Verfahren, chemische Verfahren oder elektrolytische Verfahren;
 - b) Schmelzen von Nichteisenmetallen, einschließlich Legierungen, darunter auch Wiedergewinnungsprodukte, und Betrieb von Gießereien, die Nichteisen-Metalle herstellen, mit einer Schmelzkapazität von mehr als 4 t pro Tag bei Blei und Cadmium oder 20 t pro Tag bei allen anderen Metallen;
- 6.8: Herstellung von Kohlenstoff (Hartbrandkohle) oder Elektrographit durch Brennen oder Graphitieren.

Gegenstand dieser BVT-Schlussfolgerungen sind insbesondere die folgenden Prozesse und Tätigkeiten:

- die Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Nichteisenmetallen;
- die Erzeugung von Zinkoxid aus Dämpfen, die bei der Erzeugung anderer Metalle entstehen;
- die Erzeugung von Nickelverbindungen aus Laugen, die bei der Erzeugung eines Metalls entstehen;
- die Erzeugung von Calcium-Silicium (CaSi) und Silicium (Si) im selben Ofen wie Ferrosilicium;
- die Erzeugung von Aluminiumoxid aus Bauxit vor der Erzeugung von Primäraluminium, wenn diese ein integraler Bestandteil der Metallerzeugung ist;
- das Recycling von Aluminiumsalzschlacke;
- die Erzeugung von Kohlenstoff- und/oder Graphitelektroden.

Diese BVT-Schlussfolgerungen gelten nicht für die folgenden Prozesse und Tätigkeiten:

- das Sintern von Eisenerz – dies fällt unter die BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Eisen- und Stahlerzeugung;
- die Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure auf Basis von SO₂-haltigen Gasen aus der Erzeugung von Nichteisenmetallen – dies fällt unter die BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Herstellung anorganischer Grundchemikalien – Ammoniak, Säuren und Düngemittel;
- Gießereien, die unter die BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für Schmieden und Gießereien fallen.

Folgende andere Merkblätter können für die in diesen BVT-Schlussfolgerungen behandelten Tätigkeiten relevant sein:

Merkblatt	Gegenstand
Energieeffizienz (ENE)	Allgemeine Aspekte der Energieeffizienz
Allgemeine Abwasser- und Abgasbehandlungssysteme in der chemischen Industrie (CWW)	Verfahren für die Abwasseraufbereitung zur Verminderung von Metallemissionen in Wasser
Herstellung anorganischer Grundchemikalien – Ammoniak, Säuren und Düngemittel (LVIC-AAF)	Schwefelsäureerzeugung
Industrielle Kühlsysteme (ICS)	Indirekte Kühlung mit Wasser und/oder Luft
Emissionen aus der Lagerung (EFS)	Lagerung und Umschlag von Rohstoffen
Ökonomische und medienübergreifende Effekte (ECM)	Wirtschaftliche und medienübergreifende Auswirkungen von Verfahren
Überwachung der Emissionen aus IE-Anlagen in die Luft und in Wasser (ROM)	Überwachung von Emissionen in Luft und Wasser
Abfallbehandlung (WT)	Umgang mit und Behandlung von Abfällen
Großfeuerungsanlagen (LCP)	Feuerungsanlagen zur Dampf- und/oder Stromerzeugung
Oberflächenbehandlung unter Verwendung von organischen Lösungsmitteln (STS)	Säurefreies Beizen
Oberflächenbehandlung von Metallen und Kunststoffen (STM)	Säurebeizen

Begriffsbestimmungen

Für den Zweck dieser BVT-Schlussfolgerungen gelten die folgenden Definitionen:

Verwendeter Begriff	Definition
Neue Anlage	Eine Anlage, die am Anlagenstandort erstmals nach der Veröffentlichung dieser BVT-Schlussfolgerungen genehmigt wird, oder eine vollständige Ersetzung einer Anlage auf dem bestehenden Fundament nach der Veröffentlichung dieser BVT-Schlussfolgerungen
Bestehende Anlage	Eine Anlage, die keine neue Anlage ist
Wesentliche Änderung	Eine wesentliche Veränderung der Konstruktion oder der Technik einer Anlage mit wesentlichen Anpassungen oder Ersetzungen der Prozesseinheiten und der zugehörigen Ausrüstung
Primäremissionen	Direkt aus den Öfen abgeleitete Emissionen, die sich nicht im unmittelbaren Umfeld der Öfen verteilen
Sekundäremissionen	Emissionen, die aus der Ofenausmauerung oder bei Vorgängen wie Beschickung oder Abstich austreten und die durch eine Haube oder Einhausung (z. B. ein Doghouse) erfasst werden
Primärerzeugung	Erzeugung von Metallen aus Erzen und Konzentraten
Sekundärerzeugung	Erzeugung von Metallen aus Rückständen und/oder Schrott, einschließlich Wiedereinschmelz- und Legierungsprozesse
Kontinuierliche Messung	Messung mit einem automatischen Messsystem, das am jeweiligen Standort für die kontinuierliche Emissionsüberwachung fest installiert ist
Periodische Messung	Manuelle oder automatische Ermittlung einer Messgröße (d. h. einer bestimmten zu messenden Menge) in bestimmten Zeitabständen

Allgemeine Erwägungen

Beste verfügbare Techniken

Die in diesen BVT-Schlussfolgerungen genannten und beschriebenen Techniken sind weder normativ noch erschöpfend. Es können andere Techniken eingesetzt werden, die mindestens das gleiche Umweltschutzniveau gewährleisten.

Wenn nicht anders angegeben, sind diese BVT-Schlussfolgerungen allgemein anwendbar.

Mit den BVT assoziierte Werte für Emissionen in die Luft

Die mit den besten verfügbaren Techniken assoziierten („BVT-assozierten“) Emissionswerte für Emissionen in die Luft, die in diesen BVT-Schlussfolgerungen angegeben sind, beziehen sich auf die folgenden Standardbedingungen: trockenes Abgas bei einer Temperatur von 273,15 K und einem Druck von 101,3 kPa.

Mittelungszeiträume für Emissionen in die Luft

Hinsichtlich der Mittelungszeiträume für Emissionen in die Luft gelten die folgenden Begriffsbestimmungen:

Tagesmittelwert	Mittelwert über einen Zeitraum von 24 Stunden als Durchschnitt aller geltenden Halbstunden- oder Stundenmittelwerte aus kontinuierlichen Messungen
Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum	Mittelwert aus drei aufeinanderfolgenden Messungen mit einer Mindestdauer von jeweils mindestens 30 min, sofern nicht anders angegeben ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Im Chargenbetrieb kann der Mittelwert einer repräsentativen Anzahl von über die gesamte Chargenzeit verteilten Messungen oder das Ergebnis einer über die gesamte Chargenzeit durchgeführten Messung verwendet werden.	

Mittelungszeiträume für Emissionen in Wasser

Hinsichtlich der Mittelungszeiträume für Emissionen in Wasser gilt die folgende Begriffsbestimmung:

Tagesmittelwert	Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von 24 Stunden, gemessen anhand von durchflussproportionalen Mischproben oder – bei nachweislich ausreichender Durchflussstabilität – anhand einer zeitproportionalen Mischprobe ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Für diskontinuierliche Durchflussmengen kann ein unterschiedliches Probenahmeverfahren eingesetzt werden, das repräsentative Ergebnisse liefert (z. B. Momentprobenahme).	

Abkürzungen

Begriff	Bedeutung
BaP	Benzo[<i>a</i>]pyren
I-TEQ	Internationale toxische Äquivalenz, abgeleitet durch Anwendung internationaler toxischer Äquivalenzfaktoren im Sinne von Anhang VI Teil 2 der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU
NO _x	Die Gesamtmenge an Stickstoffmonoxid (NO) und Stickstoffdioxid (NO ₂), ausgedrückt als NO ₂
PCDD/F	Polychlorierte Dibenzo- <i>p</i> -dioxine und Dibenzofurane (17 Kongenere)
PAK	Polyzyklische aromatische Kohlenwasserstoffe
TVOC	Gesamte flüchtige organische Verbindungen, gemessen mittels Flammenionisationsdetektor (FID) und ausgedrückt als Gesamtkohlenstoff (<i>total volatile organic carbon</i>)
VOC	Flüchtige organische Verbindungen im Sinne von Artikel 3 Absatz 45 der Richtlinie 2010/75/EU (<i>volatile organic compounds</i>)

11.1 Allgemeine BVT-Schlussfolgerungen

Die in den Abschnitten 11.2 bis 11.9 beschriebenen prozessspezifischen BVT-Schlussfolgerungen gelten zusätzlich zu den in diesem Abschnitt genannten allgemeinen BVT-Schlussfolgerungen.

11.1.1 Umweltmanagementsysteme (UMS)

BVT 1. Die BVT zur Verbesserung der allgemeinen Umweltleistung besteht in der Einführung und Anwendung eines Umweltmanagementsystems (UMS), das alle folgenden Merkmale umfasst:

- a. Besonderes Engagement der Führungskräfte, auch auf leitender Ebene;
- b. Festlegung einer Umweltstrategie, die eine kontinuierliche Verbesserung der Anlage durch die Führungskräfte umfasst;
- c. Planung und Umsetzung der erforderlichen Verfahren, Ziele und Vorgaben, einschließlich finanzieller Planung und Investitionen;
- d. Durchführung der Verfahren unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der folgenden Punkte:
 - i. Struktur und Zuständigkeiten,
 - ii. Einstellung, Schulung, Sensibilisierung und Kompetenz,
 - iii. Kommunikation,
 - iv. Einbeziehung der Arbeitnehmer,
 - v. Dokumentation,
 - vi. effiziente Prozessregelung,
 - vii. Instandhaltungsprogramme,
 - viii. Bereitschaftsplanung und Maßnahmen für Notfallsituationen,
 - ix. Gewährleistung der Einhaltung von Umweltschutzvorschriften;
- e. Leistungskontrolle und Korrekturmaßnahmen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der folgenden Punkte:
 - i. Überwachung und Messung (siehe auch das Merkblatt zu Überwachung der Emissionen aus IE-Anlagen in die Luft und in das Wasser – ROM),
 - ii. Korrektur- und Vorbeugungsmaßnahmen,
 - iii. Führen von Aufzeichnungen,
 - iv. (soweit praktikabel) unabhängige interne oder externe Prüfung, um festzustellen, ob mit dem Umweltmanagementsystem die vorgesehenen Regelungen eingehalten werden und ob das UMS ordnungsgemäß eingeführt wurde und angewandt wird;
- f. Überprüfung des Umweltmanagementsystems und seiner fortgesetzten Eignung, Angemessenheit und Wirksamkeit durch die leitenden Führungskräfte;
- g. kontinuierliche Entwicklung umweltverträglicherer Technologien;
- h. Berücksichtigung der Umweltauswirkungen einer späteren Stilllegung der Anlage schon bei der Konzeption einer neuen Anlage sowie während der gesamten Nutzungsdauer;
- i. regelmäßige Durchführung von sektorspezifischen Benchmarking .

Das UMS umfasst auch die Erstellung und Durchführung eines Aktionsplans für diffuse Staubemissionen (siehe BVT 6) und die Anwendung eines Wartungsmanagementsystems, das speziell auf die Leistungsoptimierung von Entstaubungssystemen ausgelegt ist (siehe BVT 4).

Anwendbarkeit

Der Anwendungsbereich (z. B. die Detailtiefe) und die Art des Umweltmanagementsystems (z. B. standardisiert oder nicht-standardisiert) hängen in der Regel mit der Art, Größe und

Komplexität der Anlage sowie mit dem Ausmaß ihrer potenziellen Umweltbelastung zusammen.

11.1.2 Energiemanagement

BVT 2. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Energieeffizienzmanagementsystem (z. B. ISO 50001)	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Regenerative oder rekuperative Brenner	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Wärmerückgewinnung (z. B. Dampf, Heißwasser, Heißluft) aus der Prozessabwärme	Nur für pyrometallurgische Prozesse anwendbar
d	Regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)	Nur anwendbar, wenn die Minderung eines brennbaren Schadstoffs notwendig ist
e	Vorwärmung der Ofencharge, der Verbrennungsluft oder des Brennstoffs mit Wärme, die aus heißen Gasen aus der Schmelzphase zurückgewonnen wurde	Nur für das Rösten oder Schmelzen von Sulfiderz/-konzentrat und für sonstige pyrometallurgische Prozesse anwendbar
f	Erwärmung der Auslauglösungen mittels Dampf oder heißem Wasser aus der Abwärmerückgewinnung	Nur für Aluminiumoxid oder hydrometallurgische Prozesse anwendbar
g	Verwendung der heißen Gase aus den Gießbrinnen als vorgewärmte Verbrennungsluft	Nur für pyrometallurgische Prozesse anwendbar
h	Verwendung sauerstoffangereicherter Luft oder reinen Sauerstoffs in den Brennern, um den Energieverbrauch durch autogenes Einschmelzen oder die vollständige Verbrennung kohlenstoffhaltiger Materialien zu senken	Nur für Öfen anwendbar, die schwefel- oder kohlenstoffhaltige Rohstoffen verwenden
i	Trocknung von Konzentraten und nassen Rohstoffen bei niedrigen Temperaturen	Nur anwendbar, wenn eine Trocknung durchgeführt wird
j	Rückgewinnung des chemischen Energiegehalts des in einem Elektro- oder Schacht-/Hochofen erzeugten Kohlenmonoxids durch Nutzung der Abgase – nach Abscheidung von Metallen – als Brennstoff in anderen Produktionsprozessen oder zur Erzeugung von Dampf/Heißwasser oder Strom	Nur für Abgase mit einem CO-Gehalt von > 10 Volumenprozent anwendbar. Die Anwendbarkeit wird zudem durch die Zusammensetzung des Abgases sowie dadurch beeinflusst, dass kein kontinuierlicher Betrieb (d. h. Chargenbetrieb) möglich ist.
k	Rückführung der Rauchgase durch einen Sauerstoffbrenner (Oxy-Fuel) zur Rückgewinnung der im gesamten organischen Kohlenstoffgehalt enthaltenen Energie	Allgemein anwendbar
l	Angemessene Isolierung für Hochtemperatur-Anlagenelemente wie Dampf- und Heißwasserrohre	Allgemein anwendbar
m	Nutzung der aus der Produktion von Schwefelsäure aus Schwefeldioxid erzeugten Wärme zur Vorwärmung des zur Schwefelsäureanlage geleiteten Gases oder zur Erzeugung von Dampf und/oder Heißwasser	Nur anwendbar für Nichteisenmetallanlagen die Schwefelsäure oder Flüssig-SO ₂ produzieren
n	Einsatz hocheffizienter Elektromotoren mit Frequenzumrichter für Anlagenkomponenten wie Gebläse	Allgemein anwendbar
o	Einsatz von Steuersystemen, die je nach den tatsächlichen Emissionen das Abluftsystem automatisch aktivieren oder die Abzugsleistung anpassen	Allgemein anwendbar

11.1.3 Prozesssteuerung

BVT 3. Die BVT zur Verbesserung der allgemeinen Umwelleistung besteht in der Gewährleistung eines stabilen Prozessablaufs mithilfe eines Prozesssteuerungssystems und einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Untersuchung und Auswahl der Einsatzstoffe je nach Prozess und angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken
b	Gute Vermischung der Einsatzmaterialien zur Erreichung einer optimalen Umwandlungseffizienz und zur Verminderung der Emissionen und der Ausschussproduktion
c	Wiege- und Dosiersysteme für das Einsatzmaterial
d	Prozessoren für die Steuerung der Chargiergeschwindigkeit, der kritischen Prozessparameter und -bedingungen, einschließlich der Alarmsysteme, der Verbrennungsbedingungen und der Gaszufuhr
e	Online-Überwachung der Ofentemperatur, des Ofendrucks und der Gasströmung
f	Überwachung der kritischen Prozessparameter der Anlage zur Minderung der Emissionen in die Luft, zum Beispiel Gastemperatur, Reagenziosierung, Druckverlust, Elektrofilterstrom und -spannung, Durchflussmenge und pH-Wert der Abscheiderflüssigkeit sowie gasförmige Bestandteile (z. B. O ₂ , CO, VOC)
g	Kontrolle des Staub- und Quecksilberanteils in den Abgasen vor dem Transfer in die Schwefelsäureanlage (bei Anlagen, in denen Schwefelsäure oder flüssiges SO ₂ erzeugt werden)
h	Online-Überwachung von Erschütterungen zur Feststellung von Blockagen und eventuellen Anlagenausfällen
i	Online-Überwachung des Stroms, der Spannung und der Temperatur elektrischer Kontakte in elektrolytischen Prozessen
j	Überwachung und Regelung der Temperatur von Schmelz- und Einschmelzöfen zur Vermeidung der Bildung von Metall- und Metalloxiddämpfen infolge von Überhitzung
k	Prozessor zur Steuerung der Reagenziosierung und der Leistung der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage durch Online-Überwachung von Temperatur, Trübung, pH-Wert, Leitfähigkeit und Strömung

BVT 4. Die BVT zur Verminderung gefasster Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft besteht in der Anwendung eines Wartungsmanagementsystems, das als Teil des Umweltmanagementsystems speziell auf die Leistungsfähigkeit der Staubminderungssysteme ausgerichtet ist (siehe BVT 1).

11.1.4 Diffuse Emissionen

11.1.4.1 Allgemeiner Ansatz für die Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen

BVT 5. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft und in Wasser besteht darin, diffuse Emissionen möglichst quellnah zu erfassen und zu behandeln.

BVT 6. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen in die Luft besteht in der Erstellung und Durchführung eines Aktionsplans für diffuse Staubemissionen als Teil des Umweltmanagementsystems (siehe BVT 1), der die beiden folgenden Maßnahmen umfasst:

- a. Identifizierung der wichtigsten Quellen diffuser Staubemissionen (z. B. nach EN 15445);

- b. Festlegung und Durchführung angemessener Maßnahmen sowie Festlegung und Einführung angemessener Techniken zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in einem bestimmten Zeitrahmen.

11.1.4.2 Diffuse Emissionen aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen

BVT 7. Die BVT zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen aus der Lagerung von Rohstoffen besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Lagerung staubender Materialien (z. B. Konzentrate, Flussmittel und feine Stoffe) in geschlossenen Gebäuden oder geschlossenen Silos/Bunkern
b	Überdachte Lagerung von nicht staubenden Materialien (z. B. Konzentrate, Flussmittel, feste Brennstoffe, Schüttgüter und Koks) sowie von Sekundärrohstoffen, die wasserlösliche organische Verbindungen enthalten
c	Feste Verpackung staubender Materialien oder Sekundärstoffe, die wasserlösliche organische Verbindungen enthalten
d	Lagerung pelletierter oder agglomerierter Materialien in überdachten Lagerbuchten
e	Bei staubenden Materialien: Benetzung mit Wasser und Sprühnebel mit oder ohne Zusatzstoffe wie Latex
f	Anbringung von Staub-/Gasabzugsvorrichtungen an Stellen, an denen staubende Materialien umgeschlagen oder abgekippt werden
g	Lagerung von Chlorgas oder chlorhaltigen Mischungen in zertifizierten Druckbehältern
h	Verwendung von Tanks aus Materialien, die gegenüber den darin gelagerten Stoffen beständig sind
i	Zuverlässige Leckagedetektionssysteme und Tank-Füllstandsanzeige mit Alarmfunktion zur Vermeidung einer Überfüllung
j	Lagerung reaktiver Materialien in doppelwandigen Tanks oder in Tanks, die sich innerhalb chemikalienbeständiger Auffangwannen derselben Kapazität befinden, und Nutzung eines Lagerbereichs, der undurchlässig und gegenüber den gelagerten Materialien beständig ist
k	Auslegung von Lagerbereichen nach folgenden Kriterien: - Leckageverluste aus Tanks und Anlieferungssystemen werden in Auffangwannen mit der Mindestlagerkapazität des größten Lagerbehälters im System aufgefangen. - Anlieferungsstellen befinden sich innerhalb der Auffangwanne, damit verschüttete Materialien gesammelt werden.
l	Verwendung einer Inertgasüberlagerung für die Lagerung von Materialien, die mit Luft reagieren
m	Erfassung und Behandlung von Emissionen aus der Lagerung mittels eines Emissionsminderungssystems, das auf die Behandlung der gelagerten Verbindungen ausgelegt ist; Erfassung und Behandlung des Wassers, das den Staub auswäscht, vor dessen Ableitung
n	Regelmäßige Reinigung des Lagerbereichs und, sofern erforderlich, Befeuchten mit Wasser
o	Bei Lagerung im Freien: Ausrichtung von Lagerhalden mit der Längsachse parallel zur Hauptwindrichtung
p	Bei Lagerung im Freien: Schutzpflanzungen, Windschutzzäune oder windwärts positionierte Konstruktionen zur Verringerung der Windgeschwindigkeit
q	Bei Lagerung im Freien: eher ein größerer Haufen als mehrere kleine, sofern möglich
r	Verwendung von Öl- und Feststoffabscheidern zur Drainage offener Lager; Lagerung von Materialien, die Öl freisetzen können, (z. B. Metallspäne) auf betonierte Flächen mit Rinnsteinen oder anderen Auffangvorrichtungen

Anwendbarkeit

BVT 7.e ist nicht anwendbar bei Prozessen, die trockene Materialien oder Erze/Konzentrate erfordern, bei denen es aufgrund ihres natürlichen Feuchtegehalts nicht zu einer Staubbildung kommt. Die Anwendbarkeit kann in Regionen mit Wassermangel oder sehr niedrigen Temperaturen eingeschränkt sein.

BVT 8. Die BVT zur Vermeidung diffuser Emissionen aus Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Geschlossene Förderanlagen oder pneumatische Systeme für Übergabe und Umschlag von staubenden Konzentraten und Schmelzmitteln sowie feinkörnigen Materialien
b	Überdachte Förderanlagen für den Umschlag von nicht staubenden Feststoffen
c	Bei staubenden Materialien: Absaugung von Staub an Befüllstellen, Silo-Entlüftungsöffnungen, pneumatischen Umschlagsystemen und Übergabestellen sowie Anbindung an ein Filtersystem
d	Verschlossene Säcke oder Fässer für Materialien mit dispergierbaren oder wasserlöslichen Komponenten
e	Geeignete Behälter für pelletierte Materialien
f	Befeuchten der Materialien an den Umschlagstellen
g	Minimierung der Transportstrecken
h	Verringerung der Fallhöhe von Förderbändern, Schaufelladern oder Greifern
i	Anpassung der Geschwindigkeit offener Förderbänder (< 3,5 m/s)
j	Minimierung der Absenkgeschwindigkeit oder der freien Fallhöhe der Materialien
k	Positionierung von Förderanlagen und Rohrleitungen in sicheren, offenen Bereichen über dem Boden, damit Leckagen schnell erkannt und Beschädigungen durch Fahrzeuge oder andere Vorrichtungen verhindert werden können. Bei Verwendung von unterirdisch verlegten Leitungen: Dokumentation und Markierung des Leitungsverlaufs und Einsatz sicherer Ausbaggerungssysteme.
l	Automatisch schließende Auslässe für den Umschlag von Flüssigkeiten und Flüssiggas
m	Rückführung verdrängter Gase in die Tanks des Lieferfahrzeugs zur Minderung der VOC-Emissionen (Gaspindelung)
n	Waschen der Räder und der Karosserie von Fahrzeugen, die staubende Materialien abliefern oder umschlagen
o	Durchführung gezielter Straßenreinigungen
p	Trennung miteinander unverträglicher Materialien (z. B. Oxidationsmittel und organische Materialien)
q	Minimierung von Materialtransporten zwischen Prozessen

Anwendbarkeit

BVT 8.n ist eventuell nicht anwendbar, wenn die Gefahr einer Eisbildung besteht.

11.1.4.3 Diffuse Emissionen aus der Metallerzeugung

BVT 9. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Metallerzeugung besteht in der Optimierung der Effizienz der Abgas erfassung und -behandlung durch eine Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Thermische oder mechanische Vorbehandlung des Sekundärrohstoffs zur Minimierung der organischen Verunreinigung des Ofen-Einsatzmaterials	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Einsatz eines geschlossenen Ofens mit ordnungsgemäß konzipiertem Entstaubungssystem oder Abdichtung des Ofens und anderer Prozesseinheiten mithilfe eines geeigneten Entlüftungssystems	Die Anwendbarkeit kann aus Sicherheitsgründen (z. B. Typ/Konstruktion des Ofens, Explosionsrisiko) eingeschränkt sein.
c	Verwendung einer Sekundärhaube für Ofenvorgänge wie Beschicken oder Abstich	Die Anwendbarkeit kann aus Sicherheitsgründen (z. B. Typ/Konstruktion des Ofens, Explosionsrisiko) eingeschränkt sein.
d	Erfassung von Staub oder Rauch/Dämpfen an Stellen, an denen staubende Materialien umgeschlagen werden (z. B. Ofen-Beschickungs- und -Abstechpunkte, abgedeckte Gießbrinnen)	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Optimierung der Konstruktion und des Betriebs der Abzugshauben und -schächte zur Erfassung der Rauche/Dämpfe, die in der Beschickungsöffnung und beim Abstich des heißen Metalls, des Steins oder der Schlacke und während des Umschlags in abgedeckten Gießbrinnen freigesetzt werden	Bei bestehenden Anlagen kann die Anwendbarkeit durch Beschränkungen des verfügbaren Platzes und der Anlagenkonfiguration eingeschränkt sein.
f	Einhausung von Öfen/Reaktoren (z. B. „House-in-House“ oder „Doghouse“) für Abstech- und Beschickungsvorgänge	Bei bestehenden Anlagen kann die Anwendbarkeit durch Beschränkungen des verfügbaren Platzes und der Anlagenkonfiguration eingeschränkt sein.
g	Optimierung des Abgasstroms aus dem Ofen durch computergestützte Fluidodynamikuntersuchungen und Tracer	Allgemein anwendbar
h	Beschickungssysteme für halbgeschlossene Öfen für eine Rohstoffzufuhr in kleinen Mengen	Allgemein anwendbar
i	Behandlung der erfassten Emissionen in einem geeigneten Emissionsminderungssystem	Allgemein anwendbar

11.1.5 Überwachung von Emissionen in die Luft

BVT 10. Die BVT besteht in der Überwachung der gefassten Emissionen in die Luft mit der nachstehend angegebenen Mindesthäufigkeit unter Einhaltung von EN-Normen. Wenn keine EN-Normen verfügbar sind, besteht die BVT in der Anwendung von ISO-Normen, nationalen Normen oder sonstigen internationalen Normen, die die Ermittlung von Daten einer gleichwertigen wissenschaftlichen Qualität gewährleisten.

Parameter	Für die Überwachung relevante BVT	Mindestüberwachungshäufigkeit	Norm(en)
Staub ⁽²⁾	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 56, BVT 58, BVT 59, BVT 60, BVT 61, BVT 67, BVT 81, BVT 88</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 94, BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 119, BVT 122</p> <p><u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 140</p> <p><u>Ferrolegierungen:</u> BVT 155, BVT 156, BVT 157, BVT 158</p> <p><u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u> BVT 171</p> <p><u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle:</u> Emissionen aus Produktionsstufen wie der Vorbehandlung der Einsatzmaterialien, der Beschickung, dem Einschmelzen, dem Schmelzen und dem Abstich</p>	Kontinuierlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 13284-2
	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 40, BVT 41, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 56, BVT 58, BVT 59, BVT 60, BVT 61, BVT 66, BVT 67, BVT 68, BVT 80, BVT 81, BVT 82, BVT 88</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 94, BVT 95, BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 113, BVT 119, BVT 121, BVT 122, BVT 128, BVT 132</p> <p><u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 140</p> <p><u>Ferrolegierungen:</u> BVT 154, BVT 155, BVT 156, BVT 157, BVT 158</p> <p><u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u> BVT 171</p> <p><u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 178, BVT 179, BVT 180, BVT 181</p> <p><u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle:</u> Emissionen aus Produktionsstufen wie der Vorbehandlung der Einsatzmaterialien, der Beschickung, dem Einschmelzen, dem Schmelzen und dem Abstich</p>	Einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 13284-1
Antimon und seine Verbindungen,	<p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 96, BVT 97</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385

Parameter	Für die Überwachung relevante BVT	Mindest-überwachungs-häufigkeit	Norm(en)
ausgedrückt als Sb			
Arsen und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als As	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Zink:</u> BVT 122</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Cadmium und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Cd	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 41, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 94, BVT 95, BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 122, BVT 132</p> <p><u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 156</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Chrom(VI)	<p><u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 156</p>	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
Kupfer und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Cu	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 96, BVT 97</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Nickel und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Ni	<p><u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u> BVT 172, BVT 173</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Blei und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Pb	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 41, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 94, BVT 95, BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 156</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Thallium und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Tl	<p><u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 156</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Zink und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Zn	<p><u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 113, BVT 114, BVT 119, BVT 121, BVT 122, BVT 128, BVT 132</p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385
Sonstige Metalle, sofern relevant ⁽³⁾	<p><u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 37, BVT 38, BVT 39, BVT 40, BVT 41, BVT 42, BVT 43, BVT 44, BVT 45</p> <p><u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 94, BVT 95, BVT 96, BVT 97</p> <p><u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 113, BVT 119, BVT 121, BVT 122, BVT 128, BVT 132</p> <p><u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 140</p> <p><u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 154, BVT 155, BVT 156, BVT 157, BVT 158</p> <p><u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u></p>	Einmal jährlich	EN 14385

Parameter	Für die Überwachung relevante BVT	Mindest-überwachungs-häufigkeit	Norm(en)
	BVT 171 <u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle</u>		
Quecksilber und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Hg	<u>Kupfer, Aluminium, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Ferrolegerungen, Nickel, Kobalt, sonstige Nichteisenmetalle:</u> BVT 11	Kontinuierlich oder einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 14884 EN 13211
SO ₂	<u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 49 <u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 60, BVT 69 <u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 100 <u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 142, BVT 143 <u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u> BVT 174 <u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle</u> ⁽⁶⁾⁽⁷⁾	Kontinuierlich oder einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾⁽⁴⁾	EN 14791
	<u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 120	Kontinuierlich	
	<u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 182	Einmal jährlich	
NO _x , ausgedrückt als NO ₂	<u>Kupfer, Aluminium, Blei, Zinn, FeSi, Si (pyrometallurgische Prozesse):</u> BVT 13 <u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 141 <u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle</u> ⁽⁷⁾	Kontinuierlich oder einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 14792
	<u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit</u>	Einmal jährlich	
TVOC	<u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 46 <u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 83 <u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 98 <u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 123 <u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle</u> ⁽⁸⁾	Kontinuierlich oder einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 12619
	<u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 160 <u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 183	Einmal jährlich	
Formaldehyd	<u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 183	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
Phenol	<u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 183	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
PCDD/F	<u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 48 <u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 83 <u>Blei, Zinn:</u> BVT 99 <u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 123 <u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 146 <u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 159 <u>Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle</u> ⁽⁵⁾⁽⁷⁾	Einmal jährlich	EN 1948, Teile 1, 2 und 3
H ₂ SO ₄	<u>Kupfer:</u> BVT 50 <u>Zink, Cadmium:</u> BVT 114	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
NH ₃	<u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 89 <u>Edelmetalle:</u> BVT 145 <u>Nickel, Kobalt:</u> BVT 175	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
Benzo[a]pyren	<u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 59, BVT 60, BVT 61 <u>Ferrolegerungen:</u> BVT 160 <u>Kohlenstoff/Graphit:</u> BVT 178, BVT 179, BVT 180, BVT 181	Einmal jährlich	ISO 11338-1 ISO 11338-2
Gasförmige Fluoride,	<u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 60, BVT 61, BVT 67	Kontinuierlich ⁽¹⁾	ISO 15713
	<u>Aluminium:</u> BVT 60, BVT 67, BVT 84	Einmal	

Parameter	Für die Überwachung relevante BVT	Mindestüberwachungshäufigkeit	Norm(en)
ausgedrückt als HF	Zink, Cadmium: BVT 124	jährlich ⁽¹⁾	
Gesamtfluoride	Aluminium: BVT 60, BVT 67	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
Gasförmige Chloride, ausgedrückt als HCl	Aluminium: BVT 84	Kontinuierlich oder einmal jährlich ⁽¹⁾	EN 1911
	Zink, Cadmium: BVT 124 Edelmetalle: BVT 144	Einmal jährlich	
Cl ₂	Aluminium: BVT 84 Edelmetalle: BVT 144 Nickel, Kobalt: BVT 172	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
H ₂ S	Aluminium: BVT 89	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
PH ₃	Aluminium: BVT 89	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar
Summe aus AsH ₃ und SbH ₃	Zink, Cadmium: BVT 114	Einmal jährlich	Keine EN-Norm verfügbar

Anmerkung: „Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle“ bezieht sich auf die Erzeugung von anderen Nichteisenmetallen als den in den Abschnitten 11.2 bis 11.8 ausdrücklich genannten.

⁽¹⁾ Bei großen Emissionsquellen besteht die BVT in einer kontinuierlichen Messung oder, wenn eine kontinuierliche Messung nicht anwendbar ist, in einer häufigeren periodischen Überwachung.

⁽²⁾ Bei kleinen Quellen von Staubemissionen (< 10 000 Nm³/h) aus Lagerung und Umschlag von Rohstoffen kann die Überwachung auf der Messung von Surrogatparametern (wie Druckverlust) basieren.

⁽³⁾ Welche Metalle zu überwachen sind, hängt von der Zusammensetzung der verwendeten Rohstoffe ab.

⁽⁴⁾ Bezogen auf BVT 69.a können die SO₂-Emissionen durch Messung des Schwefelgehalts jeder der verbrauchten Anodenchargen mittels einer Massenbilanzierung berechnet werden.

⁽⁵⁾ Sofern angesichts von Faktoren wie dem Gehalt der verwendeten Rohstoffen an halogenierten organischen Verbindungen, dem Temperaturprofil usw. relevant.

⁽⁶⁾ Die Überwachung ist relevant, wenn die Rohstoffe Schwefel enthalten.

⁽⁷⁾ Die Überwachung kann für hydrometallurgische Prozesse nicht relevant sein.

⁽⁸⁾ Sofern angesichts des Gehalts an organischen Verbindungen in den verwendeten Rohstoffen relevant.

11.1.6 Quecksilberemissionen

BVT 11. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Quecksilberemissionen in die Luft aus pyrometallurgischen Prozessen (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Verwendung von Rohstoffen mit einem geringen Quecksilbergehalt, auch durch Zusammenarbeit mit Lieferanten, um Quecksilber in Sekundärrohstoffen zu entfernen
b	Verwendung von Adsorptionsmitteln (z. B. Aktivkohle, Selen) in Kombination mit einer Staubfiltration ⁽¹⁾

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.1

Tabelle 11.1: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für Quecksilberemissionen in die Luft aus pyrometallurgischen Prozessen mit quecksilberhaltigen Rohstoffen (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziiertes Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Quecksilber und seine Verbindungen, ausgedrückt als Hg	0,01-0,05
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	
⁽²⁾ Das untere Ende der Bandbreite wird assoziiert mit der Verwendung von Adsorptionsmitteln (wie Aktivkohle, Selen) in Kombination mit Staubfiltration (außer bei Prozessen, die Wälzrohröfen verwenden).	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.1.7 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 12. Die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen aus Abgasen mit hohem SO₂-Gehalt und zur Vermeidung von Abfällen aus dem Rauchgasreinigungssystem besteht in der Rückgewinnung von Schwefel durch Erzeugung von Schwefelsäure oder von flüssigem SO₂.

Anwendbarkeit

Nur für Anlagen anwendbar, die Kupfer, Blei, Primärzink, Silber, Nickel und/oder Molybdän erzeugen.

11.1.8 NO_x-Emissionen

BVT 13. Die BVT zur Vermeidung von NO_x-Emissionen in die Luft aus pyrometallurgischen Prozessen besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	NO _x -arme Brenner
b	Sauerstoffbrenner (Oxy-Fuel)
c	Bei Sauerstoffbrennern (Oxy-Fuel): Rauchgasrückführung (durch den Brenner zur Reduzierung der Flammentemperatur)
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.1.9 Emissionen in Wasser sowie Überwachung dieser Emissionen

BVT 14. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung des Abwasseranfalls besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Messung der Menge des verbrauchten Frischwassers und der Menge des abgeleiteten Abwassers	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Wiederverwendung von Abwasser aus Reinigungsvorgängen (einschließlich des Anoden- und Kathodenspülwasser) und Wiederverwendung von Überlaufwasser im gleichen Prozess	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Wiederverwendung der in Nass-Elektrofiltern und Nasswäschern erzeugten schwachen Säuren	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metall- und Feststoffgehalt des Abwassers eingeschränkt sein.
d	Wiederverwendung des Abwassers aus der Schlackengranulierung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metall- und Feststoffgehalt des Abwassers eingeschränkt sein.
e	Wiederverwendung des Oberflächenablaufwassers	Allgemein anwendbar
f	Anwendung eines geschlossenen Kühlkreislaufsystems	Die Anwendbarkeit kann eingeschränkt sein, wenn prozessbedingt eine niedrige Temperatur erforderlich ist.
g	Wiederverwendung des in der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage aufbereiteten Wassers	Die Anwendbarkeit kann durch den Salzgehalt eingeschränkt sein.

BVT 15. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Wasserverunreinigung und zur Verminderung der Emissionen in Wasser besteht darin, nicht verunreinigte Abwasserströme von behandlungsbedürftigen Abwasserströmen zu trennen.

Anwendbarkeit

Das Verfahren der Trennung von nicht verunreinigtem Regenwasser ist bei bestehenden Abwassersammelsystemen möglicherweise nicht anwendbar.

BVT 16. Die BVT besteht darin, Wasser nach ISO 5667 zu beproben und die Emissionen in Wasser nach EN-Normen mindestens einmal im Monat⁽¹⁾ an der Stelle zu überprüfen, an der die Emissionen die Anlage verlassen. Wenn keine EN-Normen verfügbar sind, besteht die BVT in der Anwendung von ISO-Normen, nationalen Normen oder sonstigen internationalen Normen, die die Ermittlung von Daten einer gleichwertigen wissenschaftlichen Qualität gewährleisten.

⁽¹⁾ Die Überwachungshäufigkeit kann angepasst werden, wenn die Datenreihe eine hinreichende Stabilität der Emissionen ergibt.

Parameter	Anwendbar für die Erzeugung von ⁽¹⁾	Norm(en)
Quecksilber (Hg)	Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Edelmetalle, Ferrolegerungen, Nickel, Kobalt und sonstige Nichteisenmetalle	EN ISO 17852 EN ISO 12846
Eisen (Fe)	Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Edelmetalle, Ferrolegerungen, Nickel, Kobalt und sonstige Nichteisenmetalle	EN ISO 11885 EN ISO 15586 EN ISO 17294-2
Arsen (As)	Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Edelmetalle, Ferrolegerungen, Nickel und Kobalt	
Cadmium (Cd)		
Kupfer (Cu)		
Nickel (Ni)		
Blei (Pb)		
Zink (Zn)		
Silber (Ag)	Edelmetalle	
Aluminium (Al)	Aluminium	
Kobalt (Co)	Nickel und Kobalt	
Gesamtchrom (Cr)	Ferrolegerungen	
Chrom(VI) (Cr(VI))	Ferrolegerungen	EN ISO 10304-3 EN ISO 23913
Antimon (Sb)	Kupfer, Blei und Zinn	EN ISO 11885 EN ISO 15586 EN ISO 17294-2
Zinn (Sn)	Kupfer, Blei und Zinn	
Sonstige Metalle, sofern relevant ⁽²⁾	Aluminium, Ferrolegerungen und sonstige Nichteisenmetalle	
Sulfat (SO ₄ ²⁻)	Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Edelmetalle, Nickel, Kobalt und sonstige Nichteisenmetalle	EN ISO 10304-1
Fluorid (F ⁻)	Primäraluminium	
Abfiltrierbare Stoffe (AFS)	Aluminium	EN 872
⁽¹⁾ Anmerkung: Der Begriff „Sonstige Nichteisenmetalle“ bezieht sich auf die Erzeugung von anderen Nichteisenmetallen als den in den Abschnitten 11.2 bis 11.8 ausdrücklich genannten.		
⁽²⁾ Die Überwachung der Metalle hängt von der Zusammensetzung der verwendeten Rohstoffe ab.		

BVT 17. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Emissionen in Wasser besteht darin, Leckagen aus der Lagerung von Flüssigkeiten sowie das Abwasser aus der Nichteisenmetallerzeugung (einschließlich der Waschstufe des Wälzrohrprozesses) zu behandeln und Metalle und Sulfate durch eine Kombination der folgenden Techniken zu entfernen.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Chemische Fällung	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Sedimentation	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Filtration	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Flotation	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Ultrafiltration	Nur für bestimmte Ströme in der Nichteisenerzeugung anwendbar
f	Aktivkohlefiltration	Allgemein anwendbar
g	Umkehrosiose	Nur für bestimmte Ströme in der Nichteisenerzeugung anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte

Die mit den besten verfügbaren Techniken assoziierten Emissionswerte (BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte) für direkte Emissionen aus der Erzeugung von Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink, Cadmium, Edelmetallen, Nickel, Kobalt und Ferrolegierungen in ein Aufnahmegewässer sind in Tabelle 11.2 angegeben.

Diese BVT-assozierten Emissionswerte gelten an dem Punkt, an dem die Emission die Anlage verlässt.

Tabelle 11.2 BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für direkte Emissionen aus der Erzeugung von Kupfer, Blei, Zinn, Zink (einschließlich Abwasser aus der Waschstufe des Wälzrohrprozesses), Cadmium, Edelmetallen, Nickel, Kobalt und Ferrolegierungen in ein Aufnahmegewässer

BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/l) (Tagesmittelwert)						
Parameter	Erzeugte Produkte					
	Kupfer	Blei und/oder Zinn	Zink und/oder Cadmium	Edelmetalle	Nickel und/oder Kobalt	Ferrolegierungen
Silber (Ag)	n. r.		≤ 0,6	n. r.		
Arsen (As)	≤ 0,1 ⁽¹⁾	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,3	≤ 0,1
Cadmium (Cd)	0,02-0,1	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,05	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,05
Kobalt (Co)	n. r.	≤ 0,1	n. r.		0,1-0,5	n. r.
Gesamtchrom (Cr)	n. r.					≤ 0,2
Chrom(VI) (Cr(VI))	n. r.					≤ 0,05
Kupfer (Cu)	0,05-0,5	≤ 0,2	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,3	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,5
Quecksilber (Hg)	0,005-0,02	≤ 0,05	≤ 0,05	≤ 0,05	≤ 0,05	≤ 0,05
Nickel (Ni)	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,1	≤ 0,5	≤ 2	≤ 2
Blei (Pb)	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,2	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,5	≤ 0,2
Zink (Zn)	≤ 1	≤ 1	≤ 1	≤ 0,4	≤ 1	≤ 1

n. r.: nicht relevant
⁽¹⁾ Wenn die Einsatzstoffe der Anlage insgesamt einen hohen Arsengehalt aufweisen, kann der BVT-assozierte Emissionswert bis zu 0,2 mg/l betragen.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 16.

11.1.10 Lärm

BVT 18. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Lärmemissionen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Nutzung von Lärmschutzwällen zur Abschirmung der Geräuschquelle
b	Kapselung der Lärm verursachenden Anlagen oder Komponenten in schallabsorbierenden Konstruktionen
c	Verwendung vibrationsisolierender Halterungen und Verbindungen für die Ausrüstung
d	Angemessene Ausrichtung geräuschintensiver Maschinen
e	Änderung der Schallfrequenz

11.1.11 Geruch

BVT 19. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Geruchsemissionen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Angemessene Lagerung und angemessenes Handling geruchsintensiver Materialien	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Minimierung der Verwendung geruchsintensiver Materialien	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Sorgfalt bei Konstruktion, Betrieb und Wartung von Vorrichtungen, die Geruchsemissionen generieren können	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Nachverbrennung oder Filtrationstechniken, einschließlich Biofilter	Nur in eingeschränkten Fällen anwendbar (z. B. in der Imprägnierungsphase der Erzeugung spezieller Produkte im Kohlenstoff- und Graphitbereich)

11.2 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Kupfererzeugung

11.2.1 Sekundärrohstoffe

BVT 20. Die BVT zur Steigerung der Rückgewinnung von Sekundärrohstoffen aus Schrott besteht darin, nichtmetallische Komponenten durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken von anderen Metallen als Kupfer zu trennen.

	Technik
a	Manuelle Trennung großer sichtbarer Komponenten
b	Magnetische Trennung von Eisenmetallen
c	Optische Trennung oder Wirbelstromtrennung von Aluminium
d	Trennung verschiedener Metall- und Nichtmetallkomponenten aufgrund ihrer relativen Dichte (mittels Flüssigkeiten unterschiedlicher Dichte oder Luft)

11.2.2 Energie

BVT 21. Die BVT zur effizienten Nutzung von Energie in der Primärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Optimierung der Nutzung der im Konzentrat enthaltenen Energie durch Einsatz eines Schwebeschmelzofens	Nur für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen anwendbar
b	Nutzung der heißen Prozessgase aus den Schmelzphasen zur Erwärmung des Ofenbeschickungsmaterials	Nur für Schachtöfen anwendbar
c	Abdeckung der Konzentrate während Transport und Lagerung	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Nutzung der in der Primäreinschmelz- oder Konvertierungsphase erzeugten Abwärme zum Schmelzen kupferhaltiger Sekundärrohstoffe	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Nutzung der in Abgasen aus Anodenöfen enthaltenen Wärmeenergie in einer Kaskade für andere Prozesse wie die Trocknung	Allgemein anwendbar

BVT 22. Die BVT zur effizienten Nutzung von Energie in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verringerung des Wassergehalts des Einsatzmaterials	Die Anwendbarkeit ist beschränkt, wenn der Feuchtegehalt des Materials im Rahmen einer Technik zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen genutzt wird.
b	Dampferzeugung durch Rückgewinnung der Abwärme aus dem Einschmelzofen zur Erwärmung des Elektrolyts in der elektrolytischen Raffination und/oder zur Stromerzeugung in einer Kraft-Wärme-Kopplungsanlage	Anwendbar, wenn ein wirtschaftlich gerechtfertigte Nachfrage nach Dampf besteht
c	Nutzung der während des Einschmelz- oder Konvertierungsprozesses erzeugten Abwärme zum Schmelzen von Schrott	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Nutzung eines Warmhalteofens zwischen den verschiedenen Prozessstufen	Nur für chargenweise betriebene Einschmelzanlagen anwendbar, bei denen eine Pufferkapazität für geschmolzenes Material erforderlich ist
e	Nutzung der heißen Prozessgase aus den Schmelzphasen zur Vorwärmung der Ofencharge	Nur für Schachtöfen anwendbar

BVT 23. Die BVT zur effizienten Nutzung von Energie in elektrolytischen Raffinations- oder Extraktionsprozessen besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Isolierung und Abdeckung von Elektrolysetanks	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Zugabe von Tensiden zu den Elektrolysezellen für die elektrolytische Extraktion	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Energieoptimierte Zellenkonstruktion durch Anpassung der folgenden Parameter: Abstand zwischen Anode und Kathode, Anodengeometrie, Stromdichte sowie Zusammensetzung und Temperatur des Elektrolyts	Nur für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen anwendbar
d	Verwendung von Edelstahl-Kathodenblechen	Nur für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen anwendbar
e	Automatischer Kathoden-/Anodenwechsel für eine präzise Positionierung der Elektroden in der Zelle	Nur für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen anwendbar
f	Kurzschlusserkennung und Qualitätskontrolle zur Gewährleistung, dass die Elektroden gerade und flach sind und dass das Anodengewicht korrekt ist	Allgemein anwendbar

11.2.3 Emissionen in die Luft

BVT 24. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Sekundäremissionen in die Luft aus Öfen und Nebeneinrichtungen der Primärkupfererzeugung und zur Optimierung der Leistung des Emissionsminderungssystems besteht darin, Sekundäremissionen in einem zentralen Abgasreinigungssystem zu erfassen, zu mischen und zu behandeln.

Beschreibung

Sekundäremissionen aus verschiedenen Quellen werden in einem zentralen Abgasreinigungssystem erfasst, gemischt und behandelt, das darauf ausgelegt ist, die in den einzelnen Strömen vorhandenen Schadstoffe wirksam zu behandeln. Dabei wird darauf geachtet, dass Ströme, die chemisch nicht miteinander verträglich sind, nicht gemischt werden und dass unerwünschte chemische Reaktionen zwischen den verschiedenen erfassten Strömen vermieden werden.

Anwendbarkeit

Für bestehende Anlagen kann die Anwendbarkeit aufgrund ihrer Konstruktion und räumlichen Anordnung beschränkt sein.

11.2.3.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 25. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung (z. B. Vermengen, Trocknen, Mischen, Homogenisieren, Sieben und Pelletieren) von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung geschlossener Förderanlagen oder pneumatischer Umschlagsysteme für staubende Materialien	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Arbeiten mit staubenden Materialien (z. B. Vermischen) in geschlossenen Gebäuden	Bei bestehenden Anlagen kann die Anwendung aufgrund des Platzbedarfs schwierig sein.
c	Anwendung von Staubunterdrückungssystemen wie Wasserwerfern oder Sprenkieranlagen	Nicht für in Innenräumen durchgeführte Mischvorgänge anwendbar. Nicht für Prozesse anwendbar, die trockenes Material erfordern. Die Anwendbarkeit ist zudem in Regionen mit Wasserknappheit oder sehr niedrigen Temperaturen eingeschränkt.
d	Verwendung eingehauster Vorrichtungen für die Verarbeitung staubender Materialien (z. B. Trocknen, Mischen, Mahlen, Luftabscheiden und Pelletieren) mit einem an ein Emissionsminderungssystem angeschlossenen Abluftsystem	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Einsatz eines Absaugsystems für staub- und gasförmige Emissionen (z. B. eine Haube in Kombination mit einem Staub- und Abluftminderungssystem)	Allgemein anwendbar

BVT 26. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Beschickungs-, Einschmelz- und Abstichprozessen in Anlagen zur Erzeugung von Primär- und Sekundärkupfer sowie aus Warmhalte- und Schmelzöfen besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Brikettierung und Pelletierung von Rohstoffen	Nur anwendbar, wenn pelletierte Rohstoffe im Prozess und im Ofen verwendet werden können
b	Geschlossene Beschickungssysteme wie Einstrahlbrenner, Türabdichtung ⁽¹⁾ , geschlossene Förder- oder Beschickungseinrichtungen mit Abluftsystem in Kombination mit einem Staub- und Abluftminderungssystem	Der Strahlbrenner ist nur für Badschmelzöfen anwendbar.
c	Betrieb des Ofens und der Abgasführung bei Unterdruck und mit einer Gasextraktionsrate, die einen Druckaufbau verhindert	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Hauben/Einhausungen zur Emissionserfassung an Beschickungs- und Abstichpunkten in Kombination mit einem Abgasminderungssystem (z. B. Gehäuse/Tunnel für den Einsatz von Gießtiegeln beim Abstich, die mit einer beweglichen Tür/Barriere und einem Entlüftungs- und Emissionsminderungssystem ausgestattet sind)	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Kapselung des Ofens in einer abgesaugten Einhausung	Allgemein anwendbar
f	Aufrechterhaltung der Ofenabdichtung	Allgemein anwendbar
g	Einstellung der Temperatur im Ofen auf die niedrigste erforderliche Temperatur	Allgemein anwendbar
h	Verstärkte Absaugsysteme (Boosted Suction System) ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar
i	Geschlossenes Gebäude in Kombination mit anderen Techniken zur Erfassung der diffusen Emissionen	Allgemein anwendbar
j	Doppelglocken-Beschickungssystem für Schacht-/Hochöfen	Allgemein anwendbar
k	Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffmenge je nach Ofenart und angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken	Allgemein anwendbar
l	Einsatz von Gichtverschlüssen bei Anodendrehöfen	Allgemein anwendbar
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.		

BVT 27. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Peirce-Smith-Konverteröfen (PS-Konverter) in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Betrieb des Ofens und der Gasleitung bei Unterdruck und mit einer Gasextraktionsrate, die einen Druckaufbau verhindert
b	Sauerstoffanreicherung
c	Primärhaube über der Konverteröffnung zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Primäremissionen zu einem Minderungssystem
d	Zugabe von Materialien (z. B. Schrott und Schmelzmittel) über die Haube
e	System von Sekundärhauben zusätzlich zur Primärhaube zur Erfassung von Emissionen beim Beschicken und Abstich
f	Platzierung des Ofens in einem geschlossenen Gebäude
g	Verwendung motorbetriebener Sekundärhauben, die für jede Prozessstufe in die optimale Position gefahren werden, um die Effizienz der Erfassung von Sekundäremissionen zu steigern
h	Verstärkte Absaugsysteme (Boosted Suction System) ⁽¹⁾ mit automatischer Steuerung, um ein Blasen während des „Ein- und Ausfahrens“ des Konverters zu verhindern
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT 28. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Hoboken-Konverteröfen in der Primärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Betrieb des Ofens und der Abgasführung bei Unterdruck während Beschickungs-, Abkrätz-/Skimming- und Abstichvorgängen
b	Sauerstoffanreicherung
c	Öffnung mit während des Betriebs geschlossenen Deckeln
d	Verstärkte Absaugsysteme ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT 29. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Kupferstein-Konvertierung besteht in der Verwendung eines Flash-Konverterofens.

Anwendbarkeit: Nur für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen anwendbar.

BVT 30. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus einem Treibkonverter (TBRC) in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Betrieb des Ofens und der Gasleitung bei Unterdruck und mit einer ausreichenden Absaugung, um einen Druckaufbau zu verhindern	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Sauerstoffanreicherung	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Platzierung des Ofens in einem geschlossenen Gebäude in Kombination mit der Anwendung von Techniken zur Erfassung und Beförderung diffuser Emissionen vom Beschicken und Abstich zu einem Minderungssystem	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Primärhaube über der Konverteröffnung zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Primäremissionen zu einem Minderungssystem	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Hauben oder kranintegrierte Haube zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Emissionen aus dem Beschicken und Abstich zu einem Minderungssystem	Bei bestehenden Anlagen ist eine kranintegrierte Haube nur für wesentliche Änderungen der Ofenhalle anwendbar.
f	Zugabe von Materialien (z. B. Schrott und Flussmittel) über die Haube	Allgemein anwendbar
g	Verstärktes Absaugsystem (Boosted Suction System) ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.		

BVT 31. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Kupferrückgewinnung mittels Schlackekonzentrator besteht in der Anwendung der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Staubunterdrückungstechniken wie Wassersprenkler für Umschlag, Lagerung und Brechen von Schlacke
b	Feinzerkleinerung und Flotation mittels Wasser
c	Transport der Schlacke zum Endlagerbereich per Hydrotransport in einer geschlossenen Rohrleitung
d	Aufrechterhaltung einer Wasserschicht im Becken oder Verwendung eines Staubunterdrückungsmittels wie Kalkmilch in trockenen Bereichen

BVT 32. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Staubunterdrückungstechniken wie Wassersprenkler für Umschlag, Lagerung und Brechen der Endschlacke
b	Betrieb des Ofens bei Unterdruck
c	Geschlossener Ofen
d	Gehäuse, Einhausung und Haube zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Emissionen zu einem Minderungssystem
e	Abgedeckte Gießrinne

BVT 33. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus dem Anodengießen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Einsatz einer geschlossenen Gießwanne (Tundish)
b	Verwendung einer geschlossenen Zwischenpfanne
c	Verwendung einer mit einem Abluftsystem ausgestatteten Haube über der Gießpfanne und über dem Gießrad

BVT 34. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Zugabe von Tensiden zu den Elektrolysezellen für elektrolytische Extraktion	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Verwendung von Abdeckungen oder einer Haube zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Emissionen zu einem Minderungssystem	Nur für Elektrolysezellen zur elektrolytischen Extraktion oder Raffination für Anoden mit geringem Reinheitsgrad anwendbar; nicht anwendbar, wenn die Zelle zur Erhaltung der Arbeitstemperatur (etwa 65 °C) nicht abgedeckt werden darf
c	Geschlossene und feste Rohrleitungen zur Weiterleitung der Elektrolytlösungen	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Extraktion des Gases aus den Waschkammern der Kathoden-Strippinganlage und der Anodenschrott-Waschanlage	Allgemein anwendbar

BVT 35. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus dem Gießen von Kupferlegierungen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung von Einhausungen und Hauben zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Emissionen zu einem Minderungssystem
b	Verwendung von Abdeckungen für die Schmelze in Warmhalte- und Gießöfen
c	Verstärktes Absaugsystem (Boosted Suction System) ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT 36. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus dem säurefreien Beizen oder Säurebeizen besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Kapselung der Beizanlage mit einer Lösung aus Isopropanol in einem geschlossenen Kreislauf	Nur für das Beizen von Kupfer-Walzdraht in kontinuierlichen Verfahren anwendbar
b	Kapselung der Beizanlage zur Erfassung und Weiterleitung der Emissionen zu einem Minderungssystem	Nur für das Säurebeizen in kontinuierlichen Verfahren anwendbar

11.2.3.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

Beschreibungen der in diesem Abschnitt genannten Techniken finden sich in Abschnitt 11.10.

BVT-assoziierten Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.3.

BVT 37. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Annahme, der Lagerung, dem Umschlag, dem Transport, der Dosierung, dem Vermengen und Mischen, dem Brechen, dem Trocknen, der Filtration und dem Sieben von Rohstoffen sowie aus der Pyrolysebehandlung von Kupfer-Spänen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT 38. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Konzentrattrocknung in der Primärkupfererzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

Anwendbarkeit

Weisen die Konzentrate einen hohen organischen Kohlenstoffgehalt (z. B. etwa 10 Gewichtsprozent) auf, können Gewebefilter (aufgrund der Verstopfung des Gewebes) möglicherweise nicht anwendbar sein, und es können andere Techniken (z. B. Elektrofilter) eingesetzt werden.

BVT 39. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Primärkupfer-Einschmelzanlagen und Konvertern (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage, der Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ oder dem Kraftwerk zugeführt werden) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters und/oder eines Nasswäschers.

BVT 40. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Sekundärkupfer-Einschmelzanlagen und Konvertern sowie aus der Verarbeitung von Sekundärkupfer-Zwischenprodukten (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT 41. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus dem Sekundärkupfer-Warmhalteofen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT 42. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder Wäschers in Kombination mit einem Elektrofilter.

BVT 43. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus dem Anodenofen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder Wäschers in Kombination mit einem Elektrofilter.

BVT 44. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Anodengießen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder – bei Abgasen mit einem Wassergehalt nahe dem Taupunkt – eines Nasswäschers oder Tropfenabscheiders.

BVT 45. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus einem Kupferschmelzofen besteht darin, die Rohstoffe nach Ofenart und den angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken auszuwählen und zuzuführen und einen Gewebefilter zu verwenden.

Tabelle 11.3: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen aus der Kupfererzeugung in die Luft

Parameter	BVT	Prozess	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	BVT 37	Annahme, Lagerung, Umschlag, Transport, Dosierung, Mischen, Vermengen, Brechen, Trocknen, Filtern und Sieben von Rohstoffen sowie pyrolytische Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung	2-5 ⁽¹⁾⁽⁴⁾
	BVT 38	Konzentrattrocknung in der Primärkupfererzeugung	3-5 ⁽²⁾⁽⁴⁾⁽⁵⁾
	BVT 39	Primärkupfer-Einschmelzanlage und Konverter (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage, der Anlage für flüssiges SO ₂ oder dem Kraftwerk zugeführt werden)	2-5 ⁽³⁾⁽⁴⁾
	BVT 40	Sekundärkupfer-Einschmelzanlage und Konverter sowie Verarbeitung von Sekundärkupfer-Zwischenprodukten (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)	2-4 ⁽²⁾⁽⁴⁾
	BVT 41	Sekundärkupfer-Warmhalteofen	≤ 5 ⁽¹⁾
	BVT 42	Behandlung kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen	2-5 ⁽¹⁾⁽⁶⁾
	BVT 43	Anodenofen (in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung)	2-5 ⁽²⁾⁽⁴⁾
	BVT 44	Anodengießen (Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung)	≤ 5-15 ⁽²⁾⁽⁷⁾
	BVT 45	Kupferschmelzofen	2-5 ⁽²⁾⁽⁸⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽³⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert.
⁽⁴⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Schwermetallemissionen die folgenden Werte überschreiten: Blei: 1 mg/Nm³, Kupfer: 1 mg/Nm³, Arsen: 0,05 mg/Nm³, Cadmium: 0,05 mg/Nm³.
⁽⁵⁾ Wenn die verwendeten Konzentrate einen hohen organischen Kohlenstoffgehalt (z. B. etwa 10 Gewichtsprozent) aufweisen, sind Emissionen in Höhe von bis zu 10 mg/Nm³ zu erwarten.
⁽⁶⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Bleiemissionen über 1 mg/Nm³ liegen.
⁽⁷⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Gewebefilters assoziiert.
⁽⁸⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Kupferemissionen über 1 mg/Nm³ liegen.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.2.3.3 Emissionen organischer Verbindungen

BVT 46. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen sowie aus dem Trocknen, Schmelzen und Einschmelzen von Sekundärrohstoffen besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Nachverbrennung oder Nachverbrennungskammer oder regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)	Die Anwendbarkeit ist durch den Energiegehalt der zu behandelnden Abgase beschränkt, da Abgase mit geringerem Energiegehalt einen höheren Brennstoffverbrauch bedingen.
b	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels in Kombination mit der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Ofenkonstruktion und Minderungstechniken je nach verfügbaren Rohstoffen	Nur für neue Öfen und für wesentliche Änderungen an bestehenden Öfen anwendbar
d	Auswahl und Zugabe der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Thermische Zerstörung von TVOC bei hohen Temperaturen im Ofen (> 1000 °C)	Allgemein anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.4.

Tabelle 11.4: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen und aus dem Trocknen, Einschmelzen und Schmelzen von Sekundärrohstoffen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
TVOC	3-30

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz einer regenerativen Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) assoziiert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 47. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus der Lösungsmittelextraktion in der hydrometallurgischen Kupfererzeugung besteht in der Anwendung der beiden folgenden Techniken und der jährlichen Bestimmung der VOC-Emissionen, z. B. durch Massenbilanzierung.

	Technik
a	Prozessreagenz (Lösungsmittel) mit geringerem Dampfdruck
b	Geschlossene Vorrichtungen wie geschlossene Mischbehälter, Absetzeinrichtungen und Lagerbehälter

BVT 48. Die BVT zur Verminderung der PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen sowie aus dem Einschmelzen oder Schmelzen, der Feuerraffination (Anodenofen) und der Konvertierung in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Auswahl und Zugabe der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und den angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken
b	Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen
c	Bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen: Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen für geringe Rohstoffzugaben
d	Thermische Zerstörung von PCDD/F bei hohen Temperaturen im Ofen (> 850 °C)
e	Einblasen von Sauerstoff in die obere Ofenzone
f	Internes Brennersystem
g	Nachverbrennungskammer oder Nachverbrennung oder regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) ⁽¹⁾
h	Vermeidung von Absaugsystemen mit hoher Staubanhäufung bei Temperaturen > 250 °C
i	Schnelles Quenchen ⁽¹⁾
j	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels in Kombination mit einem effizienten Stauberfassungssystem ⁽¹⁾

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.5.

Tabelle 11.5: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrolytischen Behandlung von Kupfer-Spänen sowie aus dem Schmelzen, Einschmelzen, der Feuerraffination und der Konvertierung in der Sekundärkupfererzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
PCDD/F	≤ 0,1
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand BVT 10.

11.2.3.4 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

Beschreibungen der in diesem Abschnitt genannten Techniken finden sich in Abschnitt 11.10.

BVT 49. Die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen aus der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage, der Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ oder dem Kraftwerk zugeführt werden) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Trocken- oder Halbtrockenabscheider	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Nasswäscher	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen beschränkt sein: - sehr hoher Abgasdurchfluss (aufgrund des großen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit der Abwasserbehandlung)
c	Absorptions-/Desorptionssysteme auf Polyetherbasis	Nicht für die Sekundärkupfererzeugung anwendbar; nicht anwendbar, wenn keine Schwefelsäureanlage oder Anlage für flüssiges SO ₂ existiert

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.6.

Tabelle 11.6: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die einer Schwefelsäureanlage, einer Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ oder einem Kraftwerk zugeführt werden)

Parameter	Prozess	BVT-assoziiertes Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
SO ₂	Primärkupfererzeugung	50-500 ⁽²⁾
	Sekundärkupfererzeugung	50-300
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.		
⁽²⁾ Wenn ein Nasswäscher oder ein Konzentrat mit einem geringen Schwefelgehalt eingesetzt wird, kann der BVT-assoziierte Emissionswert bis zu 350 mg/Nm ³ betragen.		

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.2.3.5 Säureemissionen

BVT 50. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Emissionen saurer Abgase in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen für die elektrolytische Extraktion oder Raffination, aus der Waschkammer der Kathoden-Strippanlage und aus der Anodenschrott-Waschanlage besteht in der Verwendung eines Nasswäschers oder eines Tropfenabscheiders.

11.2.4 Boden und Grundwasser

BVT 51. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Boden- und Grundwasserverunreinigung aufgrund der Kupferrückgewinnung im Schlackenkonzentrator besteht darin, ein Entwässerungssystem in den Abkühlungsbereichen zu verwenden und den Lagerbereich für die Endschlacke so auszulegen, dass Überlaufwasser gesammelt wird und Flüssigkeitsleckagen vermieden werden.

BVT 52. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Boden- und Grundwasserverunreinigung aufgrund der Elektrolyse in der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung eines abgedichteten Entwässerungssystems
b	Undurchlässige und säurebeständige Böden
c	Verwendung doppelwandiger Tanks oder Platzierung der Tanks innerhalb von chemikalienbeständigen Auffangwannen mit undurchlässigem Untergrund

11.2.5 Abwasseranfall

BVT 53. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Anfalls von Abwasser aus bei der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht in einer bzw. einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Nutzung des Dampfkondensats zum Erwärmen der Elektrolysezellen oder zum Waschen der Kupferkathoden oder Rückführung in den Dampfkessel
b	Wiederverwendung des Wassers, das im Abkühlungsbereich, vom Flotationsprozess und vom Hydrotransport der Endschlacke gesammelt wurde, im Schlackekonzentrationsprozess
c	Recycling der Beizlösungen und des Spülwassers
d	Behandlung der Rückstände (Rohform) aus der Lösungsmittelextraktionsphase in der hydrometallurgischen Kupfererzeugung zur Rückgewinnung des organischen Anteils der Lösung
e	Zentrifugieren des Schlammes aus Reinigungsvorgängen und aus den Absetzeinrichtungen der Lösungsmittelextraktionsphase in der hydrometallurgischen Kupfererzeugung
f	Wiederverwendung des Elektrolyseablasses nach der Metallabscheidungsphase für die elektrolytische Extraktion und/oder den Laugungsprozess

11.2.6 Abfall

BVT 54. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Mengen von Abfall aus der Primär- und Sekundärkupfererzeugung besteht darin, Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus dem Staub und Schlamm aus dem Entstaubungssystem	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Wiederverwendung oder Verkauf der im Rahmen der SO ₂ -Minderung gebildeten Calciumverbindungen (z. B. Gips)	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metallgehalt und Marktverfügbarkeit beschränkt sein.
c	Regenerierung oder Recycling der verbrauchten Katalysatoren	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Rückgewinnung von Metall aus dem Schlamm der Abwasserbehandlung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metallgehalt und Markt-/Prozessverfügbarkeit beschränkt sein.
e	Verwendung schwacher Säure im Laugungsprozess oder für die Gipsproduktion	Allgemein anwendbar
f	Rückgewinnung des Kupferanteils kupferreicher Schlacke im Schlackeofen oder in der Schlackenflotationsanlage	
g	Verwendung der Endschlacke aus den Öfen als Strahlmittel oder als (Straßen-)Baumaterial oder für andere wirtschaftliche Anwendungen	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metallgehalt und Marktverfügbarkeit beschränkt sein.
h	Verwertung der Ofenauskleidung durch Rückgewinnung von Metallen oder durch Wiederverwendung als Feuerfestmaterial	
i	Verwendung der Schlacke aus der Schlackeflotation als Strahlmittel oder als Baumaterial oder für eine andere wirtschaftliche Anwendung	
j	Verwertung der Krätze aus den Schmelzöfen durch Rückgewinnung des darin enthaltenen Metalls	Allgemein anwendbar
k	Verwertung des verbrauchten Elektrolyts durch Rückgewinnung von Kupfer und Nickel; Verwertung der verbleibenden Säure zur Herstellung des neuen Elektrolyts oder zur Gipsproduktion	
l	Verwendung der verbrauchten Anode als Kühlmaterial in der pyrometallurgischen Kupferraffination oder beim Wiedereinschmelzen	
m	Verwertung von Anodenschlamm durch Rückgewinnung von Edelmetallen	
n	Verwendung des Gipses aus der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage im pyrometallurgischen Prozess oder zum Verkauf	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Qualität des erzeugten Gipses beschränkt sein.
o	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus Schlamm	Allgemein anwendbar
p	Wiederverwendung des erschöpften Elektrolyts aus dem hydrometallurgischen Kupferprozess als Laugungsmittel	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Metallgehalt und Markt-/Prozessverfügbarkeit beschränkt sein.
q	Recycling von Kupferzunder aus Walzvorgängen in einer Kupferschmelzanlage	Allgemein anwendbar
r	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus der verbrauchten Säurebeizlösung und Wiederverwendung der gereinigten Säurelösung	

11.3 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Aluminiumerzeugung einschließlich Aluminiumoxiderzeugung und die Anodenproduktion

11.3.1 Aluminiumoxiderzeugung

11.3.1.1 Energie

BVT 55. Die BVT zur effizienten Nutzung von Energie bei der Erzeugung von Aluminiumoxid aus Bauxit besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Beschreibung	Anwendbarkeit
a	Plattenwärmetauscher	Plattenwärmetauscher ermöglichen im Vergleich zu anderen Techniken (wie Entspannungskühlanlagen) eine höhere Rückgewinnung von Wärme aus der zum Ausfällungsbereich geleiteten Flüssigkeit	Anwendbar, wenn die Energie aus der Kühlflüssigkeit im Prozess wiederverwendet werden kann und wenn der Kondensathaushalt und der Flüssigkeitszustand dies zulassen
b	Wirbelschichtkalzinieröfen	Wirbelschichtkalzinieröfen sind viel energieeffizienter als Drehrohröfen, da mehr Wärmeenergie aus dem Aluminiumoxid und dem Rauchgas zurückgewonnen werden kann.	Nur für Schmelz-Aluminiumoxide anwendbar; nicht jedoch für Spezial-/Nicht-Schmelz-Aluminiumoxide, da diese einen höheren Kalzinierungsgrad erfordern, der derzeit nur mit einem Drehrohröfen erreicht werden kann
c	Auslegung des Aufschlussprozesses mit einem einzigen Strom	Der Schlamm wird in einem Kreislauf ohne Verwendung von Frischdampf und daher ohne Verdünnung des Schlammes erhitzt (im Gegensatz zum Aufschlussprozess mit Doppelstrom)	Nur für neue Anlagen anwendbar
d	Auswahl des Bauxits	Durch Bauxit mit einem höheren Feuchtegehalt gelangt mehr Wasser in den Prozess, wodurch sich der Energiebedarf für die Verdampfung erhöht. Zudem erfordern Bauxite mit einem hohen Monohydratgehalt (Böhmit und/oder Diaspor) während des Aufschlussprozesses einen höheren Druck und eine höhere Temperatur und bedingen so einen höheren Energieverbrauch.	Anwendbar innerhalb der Einschränkungen der spezifischen Anlagenkonstruktion, da einige Anlagen speziell auf eine bestimmte Bauxitqualität ausgelegt sind, was die Verwendung alternativer Bauxitquellen einschränkt

11.3.1.2 Emissionen in die Luft

BVT 56. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen aus der Aluminiumoxid-Kalzinierung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder eines Elektrofilters.

11.3.1.3 Abfall

BVT 57. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen und zur Verbesserung der Entsorgung von Bauxitrückständen aus der Aluminiumoxid-Erzeugung besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Verringerung des Volumens von Bauxitrückständen durch Verdichtung, um den Feuchtegehalt zu reduzieren, z. B. durch Verwendung von Vakuum- oder Hochdruckfiltern zur Bildung eines halbtrockenen Filterkuchens
b	Reduzierung/Minimierung der in den Bauxitrückständen verbleibenden Alkalinität, um eine Entsorgung der Rückstände auf Deponien zu ermöglichen

11.3.2 Anodenproduktion

11.3.2.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.3.2.1.1 Staub-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen aus der Rohanodenanlage

BVT 58. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft aus einer Rohanodenanlage (Entfernung von Koksstaub aus Vorgängen wie Lagerung und Feinzerkleinerung von Koks) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.7.

BVT 59. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Rohanodenanlage (Lagerung von heißem Pech, Mischen, Abkühlen und Formen der Rohanodenpaste (Grünpaste)) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

Technik ⁽¹⁾	
a	Trockenabscheider mit Koks als Adsorptionsmittel, mit oder ohne Vorkühlung, mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter
b	Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)
c	Katalytische Nachverbrennungsanlage (KNV bzw. CTO)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.7.

Tabelle 11.7: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus einer Rohanodenanlage

Parameter	Prozess	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	- Lagerung von heißem Pech, Mischen, Abkühlen und Formen der Rohanodenpaste (Grünpaste) - Entfernung von Koksstaub aus Vorgängen wie Lagerung und Feinzerkleinerung von Koks	2-5 ⁽¹⁾
BaP	Lagerung von heißem Pech, Mischen, Abkühlen und Formen der Rohanodenpaste (Grünpaste)	0,001-0,01 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.2.1.2 Staub-, Schwefeldioxid-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen aus der Anodenbrennanlage

BVT 60. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Staub-, Schwefeldioxid-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem Anodenproduktionswerk mit integrierter Primäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Einsatz von Rohstoffen und Brennstoffen mit einem geringen Schwefelgehalt	Allgemein zur Verminderung der SO ₂ -Emissionen anwendbar
b	Trockenabscheider mit Aluminiumoxid als Adsorptionsmittel, mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	Allgemein zur Verminderung der Staub-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen anwendbar
c	Nasswäscher	Die Anwendbarkeit für die Verminderung von Staub-, SO ₂ -, PAK- und Fluoridemissionen kann in den folgenden Fällen beschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromrate (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)
d	Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) in Kombination mit einem Entstaubungssystem	Allgemein zur Verminderung der Staub- und PAK-Emissionen anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.8.

Tabelle 11.8: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub-, BaP- (als Indikator für PAK) und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem Anodenproduktionswerk mit integrierter Primäraluminiumerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm³)
Staub	2-5 ⁽¹⁾
BaP	0,001-0,01 ⁽²⁾
HF	0,3-0,5 ⁽¹⁾
Gesamtfluoride	≤ 0,8 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 61. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Staub-, PAK- und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem nicht integrierten Anodenproduktionswerk besteht darin, eine Vorfiltrationseinheit und eine regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) mit nachgeschaltetem Trockenabscheider (z. B. Kalkbett) zu verwenden.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe

Tabelle 11.9.

Tabelle 11.9: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub-, BaP- (als Indikator für PAK) und Fluorid-Emissionen in die Luft aus einer Anodenbrennanlage in einem nicht integrierten Anodenproduktionswerk

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	2-5 ⁽¹⁾
BaP	0,001-0,01 ⁽²⁾
HF	≤ 3 ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert.	
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.2.2 Abwasseranfall

BVT 62. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Abwasseranfalls beim Backen (Brennen) von Anoden besteht in der Verwendung eines geschlossenen Wasserkreislaufs.

Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen anwendbar. Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach der Wasserqualität und/oder den Anforderungen an die Produktqualität beschränkt sein.

11.3.2.3 Abfall

BVT 63. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen besteht darin, den Kohlenstoffstaub aus dem Koksfilter als Abgasreinigungsmedium wiederzuverwenden.

Anwendbarkeit

Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Aschegehalt des Kohlenstoffstaubs beschränkt sein.

11.3.3 Primäraluminiumerzeugung

11.3.3.1 Emissionen in die Luft

BVT 64. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung mit dem Søderberg-Verfahren besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung einer Rohanodenpaste (Grünpaste) mit einem Pechgehalt zwischen 25 % und 28 % (trockene Paste)
b	Anpassung der Verteilerkonstruktion zur Ermöglichung einer geschlossenen Punktdosierung und einer effizienteren Abgaserfassung
c	Aluminiumoxid-Punktdosierung
d	Größere Anodenhöhe kombiniert mit der Behandlung gemäß BVT 67
e	Haubenabdeckung für die Zellen, wenn Anoden mit einer hohen Stromdichte verwendet werden, im Zusammenhang mit der Behandlung gemäß BVT 67

Beschreibung

BVT 64.c: Durch eine Punktdosierung des Aluminiumoxids wird die übliche Krustenbrechung (wie bei SWPB oder CWPB durchgeführt) vermieden, wodurch die damit verbundenen Fluorid- und Staubemissionen verringert werden.

BVT 64.d: Mit einer größeren Anodenhöhe können niedrigere Temperaturen im oberen Anodenbereich und damit geringere Emissionen in die Luft erreicht werden.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.12.

BVT 65. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Erfassung diffuser Emissionen aus Elektrolysezellen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung mit vorgebrannten Anoden besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Automatische Mehrfach-Punktdosierung des Aluminiumoxids
b	Vollständige Haubenabdeckung für die Zellen und geeignete Abgas-Absaugvolumina (für die Abgaszuleitung zur Behandlung gemäß BVT 67) unter Berücksichtigung der Fluoridbildung im Bad und des Kohlenstoffanoden-Verbrauchs
c	Verstärktes Absaugsystem (Boosted Suction System) in Verbindung mit den in BVT 67 genannten Minderungstechniken
d	Minimierung der für den Anodenwechsel und für andere Vorgänge, die ein Öffnen der Zellenhaube erfordern, benötigten Zeit
e	Effiziente Prozesssteuerung zur Vermeidung von Prozessabweichungen, die andernfalls zu einer verstärkten Gasbildung in der Zelle und zu verstärkten Emissionen führen könnten
f	Einsatz eines programmierbaren Systems für Zellenbetrieb und -wartung
g	Einsatz bewährter, wirksamer Reinigungsmethoden in der Anodenanschlagerei, um Fluoride und Kohlenstoff zurückzugewinnen
h	Lagerung entfernter Anoden in einer Kammer nahe der Zelle, im Zusammenhang mit der Behandlung gemäß BVT 67, oder Lagerung der Anodenreste in abgeschlossenen Boxen

Anwendbarkeit

BVT 65.c und BVT 65.h sind für bestehende Anlagen nicht anwendbar.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.12.

11.3.3.1.1 Gefasste Staub- und Fluoridemissionen

BVT 66. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.10.

Tabelle 11.10: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Rohstoffen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm³)⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5-10
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 67. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub-, Metall- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Trockenabscheider mit Aluminiumoxid als Adsorptionsmittel, mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Trockenabscheider mit Aluminiumoxid als Adsorptionsmittel, mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und Nasswäscher	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen beschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromrate (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.11 und Tabelle 11.12.

Tabelle 11.11: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	2-5 ⁽¹⁾
HF	≤ 1,0 ⁽¹⁾
Gesamtfluoride	≤ 1,5 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.3.1.2 Gesamte Staub- und Fluoridemissionen

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für die gesamten Staub- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus der Elektrolyseanlage (erfasst an den Elektrolysezellen und an den Dachreitern): Siehe Tabelle 11.12.

Tabelle 11.12: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für die gesamten Staub- und Fluoridemissionen in die Luft aus der Elektrolyseanlage (erfasst an den Elektrolysezellen und an den Dachreitern)

Parameter	BVT	BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für bestehende Anlagen (kg/t Al) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾	BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für neue Anlagen (kg/t Al) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	Kombination von BVT 64, BVT 65 und BVT 67	≤ 1,2	≤ 0,6
Gesamtfluoride		≤ 0,6	≤ 0,35

⁽¹⁾ Als Masse des Schadstoffs, die in einem Jahr aus der Elektrolyseanlage emittiert wird, geteilt durch die Masse des flüssigen Aluminiums, die im gleichen Jahr erzeugt wird.
⁽²⁾ Diese BVT-assozierten Emissionswerte sind nicht für Anlagen anwendbar, die aufgrund ihrer Konfiguration die über das Dach austretenden Emissionen nicht messen können.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 68. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzprozessen, aus der Flüssigmetallbehandlung und aus Gießprozessen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung von Flüssigmetall aus der Elektrolyse und nicht verunreinigten Aluminiummaterials, d. h. Festmaterial, das frei von Stoffen wie Farbe, Kunststoff oder Öl ist (z. B. der obere und untere Teil der Rohlinge, die aus Qualitätsgründen geschnitten werden)
b	Gewebefilter ⁽¹⁾

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.13.

Tabelle 11.13: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Schmelzprozessen, aus der Flüssigmetallbehandlung und aus Gießprozessen in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Staub	2-25

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert der über einen Zeitraum von einem Jahr gezogenen Proben.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Gewebefilters assoziiert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.3.1.3 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 69. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung von Anoden mit geringem Schwefelgehalt	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Nasswäscher ⁽¹⁾	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen beschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromrate (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

Beschreibung

BVT 69.a: Durch eine geeignete Kombination der verwendeten Rohstoffe können Anoden produziert werden, die im Jahresdurchschnitt weniger als 1,5 % Schwefel enthalten. Für den Elektrolyseprozess ist ein Mindest-Schwefelgehalt von durchschnittlich 0,9 % im Jahr erforderlich.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.14.

Tabelle 11.14: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Elektrolysezellen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (kg/t Al) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
SO ₂	≤ 2,5-15

⁽¹⁾ Als Masse des Schadstoffs, die in einem Jahr emittiert wird, geteilt durch die Masse des flüssigen Aluminiums, die im gleichen Jahr erzeugt wird.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Nasswäschers assoziiert. Der obere Wertebereich ist mit der Verwendung von Anoden mit einem geringen Schwefelgehalt assoziiert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.3.1.4 Perfluorkohlenwasserstoff-Emissionen

BVT 70. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Perfluorkohlenwasserstoff-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Primäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in der Anwendung aller folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Automatische Mehrfach-Punktdosierung des Aluminiumoxids	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Computersteuerung der Elektrolyseprozesse basierend auf der Datengrundlage der aktiven Zelle und auf der Messung der Zellenbetriebsparameter	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Automatische Anodeneffektunterbrechung	Nicht für Søderberg-Zellen anwendbar, da die (einteilige) Anodenkonstruktion den mit dieser Technik verbundenen Badstrom nicht zulässt

Beschreibung

BVT 70.c: Anodeneffekte treten auf, wenn die Aluminiumoxid-Konzentration des Elektrolyts unter 1-2 % absinkt. Während der Anodeneffekte kommt es anstelle einer Zersetzung des Aluminiumoxids zu einer Zersetzung des Kryolithbades in Metall- und Fluoridionen; letztere bilden gasförmige Perfluorkohlenwasserstoffe, die mit der Kohlenstoffanode reagieren.

11.3.3.1.5 PAK- und CO-Emissionen

BVT 71. Die BVT zur Verminderung von CO- und PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Primäraluminiumerzeugung nach dem Søderberg-Verfahren besteht darin, das CO und die PAK im Zellenabgas zu verbrennen.

11.3.3.2 Abwasseranfall

BVT 72. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Abwasseranfalls besteht darin, Kühlwasser und behandeltes Abwasser, einschließlich Regenwasser, im Prozess wiederzuverwenden oder zu rezyklieren.

Anwendbarkeit

Allgemein für neue Anlagen und für wesentliche Änderungen anwendbar. Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach der Wasserqualität und/oder den Anforderungen an die Produktqualität beschränkt sein. Die Menge des Kühlwassers, des behandelten Abwassers und des Regenwassers, die wiederverwendet oder rezykliert wird, darf nicht größer als die für den Prozess erforderliche Wassermenge sein.

11.3.3.3 Abfall

BVT 73. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Menge des zu entsorgenden Ofenausbruchs besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass das externe Recycling, beispielsweise in der Zementherstellung, im Prozess zur Rückgewinnung der Salzschlacke, als Aufkohlungsmittel in der Stahl- oder Ferrolegierungsherstellung oder als Sekundärrohstoff (z. B. Steinwolle) je nach Anforderungen der Endverbraucher erleichtert wird.

11.3.4 Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

11.3.4.1 Sekundärrohstoffe

BVT 74. Die BVT zur Steigerung der Rohstoffausbeute besteht darin, nichtmetallische Komponenten und Komponenten aus anderen Metallen als Aluminium durch die Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken – je nach Zusammensetzung der behandelten Materialien – zu trennen.

	Technik
a	Magnetische Trennung von Eisenmetallen
b	Wirbelstromtrennung des Aluminiums von den anderen Komponenten (mittels elektromagnetischer Wanderfelder)
c	Dichtentrennung verschiedener Metall- und Nichtmetallkomponenten (mittels Flüssigkeiten unterschiedlicher Dichte)

11.3.4.2 Energie

BVT 75. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Nutzung der Abgase zur Vorwärmung der Ofencharge	Nur für nicht-rotierende Öfen anwendbar
b	Rückführung der Gase, die unverbrannte Kohlenwasserstoffe enthalten, in das Brennersystem	Nur für Herdöfen und Trockner anwendbar
c	Bereitstellung des flüssigen Metalls zum Direktgießen	Die Anwendbarkeit ist durch die für die Beförderung erforderliche Zeit beschränkt (höchstens 4-5 Stunden).

11.3.4.3 Emissionen in die Luft

BVT 76. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von Emissionen in die Luft besteht darin, vor der Schmelzphase Öl und organische Verbindungen durch Zentrifugierung und/oder Trocknung⁽¹⁾ von den Metallspänen zu entfernen.

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

Anwendbarkeit

Die Zentrifugierung ist nur für stark mit Öl verunreinigte Späne anwendbar, sofern sie vor der Trocknung durchgeführt wird. Die Entfernung von Öl und organischen Verbindungen kann möglicherweise nicht erforderlich sein, wenn der Ofen und das Emissionsminderungssystem auf die Behandlung von organischem Material ausgelegt sind.

11.3.4.3.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 77. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung von Schrott besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Geschlossene oder pneumatische Fördereinrichtungen mit Abluftsystem
b	Einhausung oder Hauben für Beschickungs- und Austrittstellen, mit Abluftsystem

BVT 78. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Beschickung und der Entleerung/dem Abstich von Schmelzöfen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Positionierung einer Haube über der Ofentür und am Abstichloch mit einer Abgasabsaugung, die mit einem Filtersystem verbunden ist	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Einhausung zur Erfassung von Rauch/Dämpfen, die den Beschickungs- und Abstichbereich abdeckt	Nur für stationäre Trommelöfen anwendbar
c	Abgedichtete Ofentür ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Gekapselter Chargierwagen	Nur für nicht-rotierende Öfen anwendbar
e	Verstärktes Absaugsystem (Boosted Suction System), das an den jeweiligen Prozess angepasst werden kann ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Technik ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

Beschreibung

BVT 78.a und BVT 78.b umfassen die Anbringung einer Abdeckung mit einem Absaugsystem zur Erfassung und Beförderung der Abgase aus dem Prozess.

BVT 78.d: Der Chargierkübel schließt während der Beschickung mit Schrott dicht mit der offenen Ofentür ab und stellt dadurch während dieses Vorgangs eine Kapselung sicher.

BVT 79. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Emissionen aus der Krätzenbehandlung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Abkühlung der Krätzen in abgeschlossenen Behältern unter Inertgas, direkt nach der Abschöpfung
b	Vermeidung einer Befeuchtung der Krätzen
c	Verdichtung der Krätzen mit einem Abluft- und Entstaubungssystem

11.3.4.3.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 80. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen aus der Trocknung von Metallspänen, aus der Entfernung von Öl und organischen Verbindungen von den Spänen, aus dem Brechen, Mahlen und Trockenabscheiden von Nichtmetallkomponenten und anderen Metallen als Aluminium sowie aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.15.

Tabelle 11.15: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Trocknung von Metallspänen, aus der Entfernung von Öl und organischen Verbindungen von den Spänen, aus dem Brechen, Mahlen und Trockenabscheiden von Nichtmetallkomponenten und anderen Metallen als Aluminium sowie aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 81. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Ofenprozessen wie Beschickung, Schmelzen, Abstich und Behandlung des flüssigen Metalls in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.16.

Tabelle 11.16: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Ofenprozessen wie Beschickung, Schmelzen, Abstich und Behandlung des flüssigen Metalls in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-5
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 82. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung von nicht verunreinigtem Aluminiummaterial, d. h. festes Material, das frei von Stoffen wie Farbe, Kunststoff oder Öl ist (z. B. Barren)
b	Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen
c	Gewebefilter

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.17.

Tabelle 11.17: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Staub	2-5
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	
⁽²⁾ Bei Öfen, die auf die ausschließliche Verwendung von nicht verunreinigten Rohstoffen ausgelegt sind, für die die Staubemissionen unter 1 kg/h liegen und in denen auch ausschließlich solche Rohstoffe verwendet werden, gilt 25 mg/Nm ³ als Obergrenze für den Wertebereich (als Mittelwert der über einen Zeitraum von einem Jahr gezogenen Proben).	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.4.3.3 Emissionen organischer Verbindungen

BVT 83. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen von organischen Verbindungen und PCDD/F in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne) und aus dem Schmelzofen besteht darin, einen Gewebefilter in Kombination mit mindestens einer der folgenden Techniken zu verwenden.

Technik ⁽¹⁾	
a	Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und angewandten Emissionsminderungstechnik
b	Internes Brennersystem für Schmelzöfen
c	Nachverbrennung
d	Schnelles Quenchen
e	Aktivkohleinjektion

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.18.

Tabelle 11.18: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für TVOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne) und aus dem Schmelzöfen

Parameter	Einheit	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert
TVOC	mg/Nm ³	≤ 10-30 ⁽¹⁾
PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	≤ 0,1 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.4.3.4 Säureemissionen

BVT 84. Die BVT zur Verminderung von HCl-, Cl₂- und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne), aus dem Schmelzofen sowie aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen und aus der Behandlung von flüssigem Metall besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und angewandten Emissionsminderungstechnik ⁽¹⁾
b	Injektion von Ca(OH) ₂ oder Natriumbicarbonat in Kombination mit einem Gewebefilter ⁽¹⁾
c	Steuerung des Raffinationsprozesses durch Anpassung der Raffinationsgas-Menge, die für die Entfernung der in den flüssigen Metallen vorhandenen Verunreinigungen verwendet wird
d	Verwendung von mit Inertgas verdünntem Chlor im Raffinationsprozess

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

Beschreibung

BVT 84.d: Anstelle von reinem Chlor wird mit Inertgas verdünntes Chlor verwendet, um die Chloremissionen zu verringern. Die Raffination kann auch ausschließlich mit Inertgas durchgeführt werden.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe

Tabelle 11.19.

Tabelle 11.19: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für HCl-, Cl₂- und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus der thermischen Behandlung verunreinigter Sekundärrohstoffe (z. B. Metallspäne), aus dem Schmelzofen sowie aus dem Wiedereinschmelzen und aus der Behandlung von flüssigem Metall

Parameter	BVT-assoziiertes Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
HCl	≤ 5-10 ⁽¹⁾
Cl ₂	≤ 1 ⁽²⁾⁽³⁾
HF	≤ 1 ⁽⁴⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum. Für die Raffination mit chlorhaltigen Chemikalien bezieht sich der BVT-assoziierte Emissionswert auf die durchschnittliche Konzentration während der Chlorierung.
⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum. Für die Raffination mit chlorhaltigen Chemikalien bezieht sich der BVT-assoziierte Emissionswert auf die durchschnittliche Konzentration während der Chlorierung.
⁽³⁾ Nur für Emissionen aus Raffinationsprozessen mit chlorhaltigen Chemikalien anwendbar.
⁽⁴⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.4.4 Abfall

BVT 85. Die BVT zur Verringerung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen aus der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung besteht darin, betriebsinternen Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Bei Schmelzöfen mit Verwendung von Abdecksalz oder beim Prozess zur Rückgewinnung der Salzschlacke: Wiederverwendung des erfassten Staubes im Prozess
b	Vollständiges Recycling der Salzschlacke
c	Bei Öfen ohne Verwendung von Abdecksalz: Krätzebehandlung zur Aluminiumrückgewinnung

BVT 86. Die BVT zur Verminderung der anfallenden Salzschlacke-Menge in der Sekundäraluminiumerzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Bei Schrott, in dem Aluminium mit anderen Komponenten gemischt ist: Steigerung der Qualität des verwendeten Rohmaterials durch Trennung von Nichtmetallkomponenten und anderen Metallen als Aluminium	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Entfernung von Öl und organischen Komponenten aus verunreinigten Metallspänen vor dem Einschmelzen	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Einsatz von Metallpumpen und -rührwerken	Nicht für Drehöfen anwendbar.
d	Kippbarer Drehtrommelofen	Für den Einsatz dieses Ofens können Einschränkungen aufgrund der Größe der Einsatzmaterialien bestehen.

11.3.5 Recycling von Salzschlacke

11.3.5.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 87. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus dem Prozess des Salzschlackenrecyclings besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Einhausung der Einrichtungen mit einer Gasabsaugung, die mit einem Filtersystem verbunden ist
b	Haube mit einer Gasabsaugung, die mit einem Filtersystem verbunden ist

11.3.5.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 88. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Brech- und Trockenmahlprozessen im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.20.

Tabelle 11.20: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Brech- und Trockenmahlprozessen im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-5
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.3.5.3 Gasförmige Verbindungen

BVT 89. Die BVT zur Verminderung gasförmiger Emissionen aus Nassmahl- und Laugungsprozessen in die Luft im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Aktivkohleinjektion
b	Nachverbrennung
c	Nasswäscher mit H ₂ SO ₄ -Lösung
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.21.

Tabelle 11.21: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für gasförmige Emissionen in die Luft aus Nassmahl- und Laugungsprozessen im Rahmen des Prozesses zur Aufbereitung von Salzschlacke

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
NH ₃	≤ 10
PH ₃	≤ 0,5
H ₂ S	≤ 2
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.4 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Blei- und/oder Zinnerzeugung

11.4.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.4.1.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 90. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Vorbehandlung (z. B. Dosierung, Mischen, Vermengen, Brechen, Schneiden und Sieben) von Primär- und Sekundärrohstoffen (ausgenommen Batterien) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Geschlossene Fördereinrichtung oder geschlossenes pneumatisches Fördersystem für staubende Materialien	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Gekapselte Einrichtung. Bei Verwendung staubender Materialien werden die Emissionen erfasst und einem Minderungssystem zugeführt.	Nur für Einsatzstoffmischungen anwendbar, die mit Dosierbehältern oder mit Wiegeeinrichtungen zur Ermittlung der Gewichtsabnahme hergestellt wurden
c	Mischen der Rohstoffe in einem geschlossenen Gebäude	Nur für staubende Materialien anwendbar. Bei bestehenden Anlagen kann die Anwendung aufgrund des Platzbedarfs schwierig sein.
d	Staubunterdrückungssysteme wie Wassersprenkler	Nur für Mischvorgänge anwendbar, die im Freien durchgeführt werden
e	Pelletierung von Rohstoffen	Nur anwendbar, wenn pelletierte Rohstoffen im Prozess und im Ofen eingesetzt werden können

BVT 91. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Materialvorbehandlung (z. B. Trocknung, Zerlegung, Sinterung, Brikettierung, Pelletierung und Batterieaufbrechen, Sieben und Klassieren) in der Primärbleierzeugung und der Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnerzeugung besteht in einer oder beider der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Geschlossene Fördereinrichtung oder geschlossenes pneumatisches Fördersystem für staubende Materialien
b	Gekapselte Einrichtung. Bei Verwendung staubender Materialien werden die Emissionen erfasst und einem Minderungssystem zugeführt.

BVT 92. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Beschickungs-, Einschmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Blei- und/oder Zinnerzeugung und aus den der Entkupferung vorgeschalteten Prozessen in der Primärbleierzeugung besteht in einer geeigneten Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Gekapseltes Beschickungssystem mit Abluftsystem	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Bei Prozessen mit diskontinuierlicher Beschickung und Entleerung: geschlossene oder vollkommen abgedichtete Öfen mit Türdichtungen ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Betrieb des Ofens und der Gasleitungen bei Unterdruck und mit einer ausreichenden Absaugung, um einen Druckaufbau zu verhindern	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Hauben/Einhausungen zur Emissionserfassung an Beschickungs- und Abstichpunkten	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Geschlossenes Gebäude	Allgemein anwendbar
f	Vollständige Haubenabdeckung mit Abluftsystem	Bei bestehenden Anlagen oder wesentlichen Änderungen an bestehenden Anlagen kann die Anwendung aufgrund des Platzbedarfs schwierig sein.
g	Aufrechterhaltung der Ofenabdichtung	Allgemein anwendbar
h	Einstellung der Temperatur im Ofen auf die niedrigste erforderliche Temperatur	Allgemein anwendbar
i	Anbringung einer Haube am Abstichpunkt, an Gießtiegel und am Abkrätzbereich, mit Abluftsystem	Allgemein anwendbar
j	Vorbehandlung von staubendem Rohmaterial (z. B. Pelletierung)	Nur anwendbar, wenn pelletierte Rohstoffen im Prozess und im Ofen eingesetzt werden können
k	Verwendung eines Doghouse (Einhausung) für Gießtiegel während des Abstichs	Allgemein anwendbar
l	Abluftsystem für den Beschickungs- und Abstichbereich, verbunden mit einem Filtersystem	Allgemein anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Für Beschreibungen der Techniken siehe Abschnitt 11.10.

BVT 93. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus Wiedereinschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Haube über Tiegelofen oder Kessel, mit Abluftsystem
b	Deckel zum Schließen des Kessels während der Raffinationsreaktionen und der Chemikaliengabe
c	Haube mit Abluftsystem über Gießrinnen und Abstichpunkten
d	Temperaturüberwachung der Schmelze
e	Geschlossene mechanische Abschöpfungsvorrichtungen für die Entfernung von staubenden Krätzen/Rückständen

11.4.1.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 94. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Rohstoffvorbehandlung (z. B. Annahme, Umschlag, Lagerung, Dosierung, Mischen, Vermengen, Trocknen, Brechen, Schneiden und Sieben) in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.22.

Tabelle 11.22: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Rohstoffvorbehandlung in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 95. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Vorbehandlung von Batterien (Aufbrechen, Sieben und Klassifizierung) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder eines Nasswäschers.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.23.

Tabelle 11.23: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Vorbehandlung von Batterien (Aufbrechen, Sieben und Klassifizierung)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 96. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Schmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage oder der Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ zugeführt werden) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.24.

Tabelle 11.24: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Bleiemissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Schmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage oder der Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	2-4 ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Pb	≤ 1 ⁽³⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Metallemissionen die folgenden Werte überschreiten: Kupfer: 1 mg/Nm³, Arsen: 0,05 mg/Nm³, Cadmium: 0,05 mg/Nm³.
⁽³⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 97. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Wiedereinschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn besteht in der Anwendung der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Bei pyrometallurgischen Prozessen: Einstellung der Temperatur des Schmelzbadetes auf den niedrigsten möglichen Wert für die jeweilige Prozessstufe sowie Verwendung eines Gewebefilters
b	Bei hydrometallurgischen Prozessen: Verwendung eines Nasswäschers

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.25.

Tabelle 11.25: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und Bleiemissionen in die Luft aus Wiedereinschmelz-, Raffinations- und Gießprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	2-4 ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Pb	≤ 1 ⁽³⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Metallemissionen die folgenden Werte überschreiten: Kupfer: 1 mg/Nm³, Antimon: 1 mg/Nm³, Arsen: 0,05 mg/Nm³, Cadmium: 0,05 mg/Nm³.
⁽³⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.4.1.3 Emissionen organischer Verbindungen

BVT 98. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus der Rohstofftrocknung und dem Schmelzprozess in der Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnerzeugung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und der verwendeten Emissionsminderungstechniken	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Verringerung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Nachverbrennung oder regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)	Die Anwendbarkeit ist durch den Energiegehalt der zu behandelnden Abgase beschränkt, da Abgase mit einem geringeren Energiegehalt einen höheren Brennstoffverbrauch bedingen.

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.26.

Tabelle 11.26: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Rohstofftrocknung und dem Schmelzprozess in der Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnerzeugung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
TVOC	10-40

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 99. Die BVT zur Verminderung der PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen von Blei- und/oder Zinn-Sekundärrohstoffen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und der angewandten Emissionsminderungstechniken ⁽¹⁾
b	Bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen: Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen für geringe Rohstoffzugaben ⁽¹⁾
c	Internes Brennersystem ⁽¹⁾ für Schmelzöfen
d	Nachverbrennung oder regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) ⁽¹⁾
e	Vermeidung von Absaugsystemen mit hoher Staubanhäufung bei Temperaturen > 250 °C ⁽¹⁾
f	Schnelles Quenchen ⁽¹⁾
g	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels in Kombination mit einem effizienten Stauberfassungssystem ⁽¹⁾
h	Verwendung eines effizienten Stauberfassungssystems
i	Einblasen von Sauerstoff in die obere Ofenzone
j	Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.27.

Tabelle 11.27: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen von Blei- und/oder Zinn-Sekundärrohstoffen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (ng I-TEQ/Nm³)⁽¹⁾
PCDD/F	≤ 0,1
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.4.1.4 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 100. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung von SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Einschmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage oder der Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ zugeführt werden) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Alkalische Laugung von Rohstoffen, die Schwefel in Form von Sulfat enthalten	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Trocken- oder Halbtrockenabscheider ⁽¹⁾	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Nasswäscher ⁽¹⁾	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen eingeschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromrate (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)
d	Fixierung des Schwefels in der Schmelzphase	Nur für die Sekundärbleierzeugung anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

Beschreibung

BVT 100.a: Vor dem Einschmelzen werden die Sulfate mit Hilfe einer Alkalisalzlösung aus den Sekundärrohstoffen entfernt.

BVT 100.d: Die Fixierung des Schwefels in der Einschmelzphase wird durch die Zugabe von Eisen und Natriumcarbonat (Na₂CO₃) in den Schmelzanlagen erreicht; diese Zusatzstoffe reagieren mit dem in den Rohstoffen enthaltenen Schwefel und bilden Na₂S-FeS-Schlacke.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.28.

Tabelle 11.28: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Beschickungs-, Einschmelz- und Abstichprozessen in der Primär- und Sekundärerzeugung von Blei und/oder Zinn (ausgenommen Emissionen, die einer Schwefelsäureanlage oder einer Anlage für flüssiges SO₂ zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
SO ₂	50-350

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Wenn Nasswäscher nicht anwendbar sind, gilt 500 mg/Nm³ als Obergrenze des Wertebereichs.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.4.2 Boden- und Grundwasserschutz

BVT 101. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Boden- und Grundwasserverunreinigung durch Lagerung, Brechen, Sieben und Klassifizierung von Batterien besteht darin, einen säurebeständigen Bodenbelag und ein System für die Erfassung ausgetretener Säure zu verwenden.

11.4.3 Abwasseraufkommen und -behandlung

BVT 102. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Anfalls von Abwasser aus dem alkalischen Laugungsprozess besteht darin, das Wasser aus der Natriumsulfat-Kristallisierung der Alkalisalzlösung wiederzuverwenden.

BVT 103. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen in das Wasser aus der Batterievorbereitung, wenn der Säurenebel der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage zugeführt wird, besteht im Betrieb einer Abwasserbehandlungsanlage, die hinreichend darauf ausgelegt ist, die in diesem Abwasserstrom enthaltenen Schadstoffe zu mindern.

11.4.4 Abfall

BVT 104. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfälle aus der Primärbleierzugung besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Wiederverwendung des Staubes aus dem Entstaubungssystem im Bleierzugungsprozess	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Rückgewinnung von Se und Te aus dem Staub der trockenen Abgasreinigung bzw. aus dem Schlamm der nassen Abgasreinigung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann durch die Menge des vorhandenen Quecksilbers eingeschränkt sein.
c	Rückgewinnung von Ag, Au, Bi, Sb und Cu aus der Raffinationskrätze	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus dem Schlamm der Abwasserbehandlung	Ein Direktschmelzverfahren mit dem Schlamm der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage kann durch die Anwesenheit von Elementen wie As, Tl und Cd eingeschränkt sein.
e	Zugabe von Flussmitteln, die die Eignung des Schlammes für eine externe Nutzung erhöhen	Allgemein anwendbar

BVT 105. Die BVT zur Ermöglichung der Rückgewinnung des Polypropylen- und Polyethylenanteils von Bleibatterien besteht darin, diese vor dem Einschmelzen von den Batterien zu trennen.

Anwendbarkeit

Dies ist möglicherweise aufgrund der von nicht zerlegten (ganzen) Batterien gebotenen Gasdurchlässigkeit, die für die Ofenvorgänge erforderlich ist, für Schachtofen nicht anwendbar.

BVT 106. Die BVT zur Wiederverwendung oder Rückgewinnung der im Rahmen des Batterieverwertungsprozesses erfassten Schwefelsäure besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die interne oder externe Wiederverwendung bzw. das interne oder externe Recycling erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Wiederverwendung als Beizmittel	Allgemein anwendbar, je nach lokalen Bedingungen wie der Verwendung eines Beizprozesses und der Verträglichkeit der in der Säure enthaltenen Verunreinigungen mit dem Prozess
b	Wiederverwendung als Rohmaterial in einer chemischen Anlage	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach lokaler Verfügbarkeit einer chemischen Anlage eingeschränkt sein.
c	Regeneration der Säure durch Cracken	Nur anwendbar, wenn eine Schwefelsäureanlage oder eine Anlage für flüssiges Schwefeldioxid vorhanden ist
d	Gipsherstellung	Nur anwendbar, wenn die Unreinheiten, die in der im Verwertungsprozess anfallenden Säure enthalten sind, die Gipsqualität nicht beeinträchtigen oder wenn Gips von einer geringeren Qualität für andere Zwecke, z. B. als Flussmittel, genutzt werden kann
e	Herstellung von Natriumsulfat	Nur für den alkalischen Laugungsprozess anwendbar

BVT 107. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfälle aus der Sekundärblei- und/oder Sekundärzinnerzeugung besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Wiederverwendung der Rückstände im Einschmelzprozess zur Rückgewinnung von Blei und anderen Metallen
b	Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfälle in speziellen Anlagen zur Materialrückgewinnung
c	Behandlung der Rückstände und Abfälle, so dass diese für andere Anwendungen eingesetzt werden können

11.5 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Zink- und/oder Cadmiumerzeugung

11.5.1 Primärzinkerzeugung

11.5.1.1 Hydrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung

11.5.1.1.1 Energie

BVT 108. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht darin, durch eine oder eine Kombination der folgenden Techniken Wärme aus den in der Röstanlage entstehenden Abgasen zurückzugewinnen.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung von einem Abwärmekessel und Turbinen zur Stromerzeugung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Energiepreisen und Energiepolitik des jeweiligen Mitgliedstaats eingeschränkt sein.
b	Verwendung von einem Abwärmekessel und Turbinen zur Erzeugung mechanischer Energie, die im Prozess genutzt wird	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Einsatz eines Abwärmekessels zur Erzeugung von Wärme, die im Prozess und/oder für die Beheizung der Bürogebäude genutzt wird	Allgemein anwendbar

11.5.1.1.2 Emissionen in die Luft

11.5.1.1.2.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 109. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Vorbehandlung der Einsatzmaterialien für die Röstanlage und aus dem Beschickungsprozess besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Nassgutzuführung
b	Vollständig gekapselte Prozesseinrichtungen, verbunden mit einem Emissionsminderungssystem

BVT 110. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Kalzinierungsprozess besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Betrieb bei Unterdruck
b	Vollständig gekapselte Prozesseinrichtungen, verbunden mit einem Emissionsminderungssystem

BVT 111. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Prozessen der Laugung, der Trennung von flüssigen und festen Stoffen und der Laugenreinigung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung von Tankabdeckungen	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Abdeckungen für die Gießbrinnen zur Zu- und Ableitung der Prozessflüssigkeit	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Anbindung der Tanks an ein zentrales mechanisches Zugluftminderungssystem oder an ein Minderungssystem für einzelne Tanks	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Abdeckung von Vakuumfiltern mit Hauben und Anbindung an ein Emissionsminderungssystem	Nur für die Filtration heißer Flüssigkeiten in der Laugungsstufe und der Stufe für die Trennung flüssiger und fester Stoffe anwendbar

BVT 112. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der elektrolytischen Extraktion besteht darin, in den Elektrolysezellen für die elektrolytische Extraktion Zusatzstoffe, insbesondere Schäumungsmittel, zu verwenden.

11.5.1.1.2.2 Gefasste Emissionen

BVT 113. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung von Rohstoffen, aus der Vorbehandlung trockener Einsatzmaterialien für die Röstanlage, aus der Zuführung trockener Einsatzmaterialien und aus dem Kalzinierungsprozess besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.29.

Tabelle 11.29: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung von Rohstoffen, aus der Vorbehandlung trockener Einsatzmaterialien für die Röstanlage, aus der Zuführung trockener Einsatzmaterialien und aus dem Kalzinierungsprozess

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 114. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Zink- und Schwefelsäureemissionen in die Luft aus Laugungs-, Laugenreinigungs- und Elektrolyseprozessen und zur Verminderung der Arsenwasserstoff- und Stibaneemissionen aus Reinigungsprozessen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Nasswäscher
b	Tropfenabscheider
c	Zentrifugalsystem

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.30.

Tabelle 11.30: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Zink- und Schwefelsäureemissionen in die Luft aus Laugungs-, Laugenreinigungs- und Elektrolyseprozessen und für Arsenwasserstoff- und Stibanemissionen aus Laugenreinigungsprozessen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Zn	≤ 1
H ₂ SO ₄	< 10
Summe aus AsH ₃ und SbH ₃	≤ 0,5

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.1.1.3 Boden- und Grundwasserschutz

BVT 115. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Boden- und Grundwasserverunreinigung besteht darin, Tanks, die für Laugungs- und Laugenreinigungsprozesse eingesetzt werden, in wasserdichten Auffangbereichen zu platzieren und eine sekundäre Einhausung für Zellenräume zu verwenden.

11.5.1.1.4 Abwasseranfall

BVT 116. Die BVT zur Verminderung des Frischwasserverbrauchs und zur Vermeidung des Abwasseranfalls besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Rückführung des Ablasses aus dem Kessel und des Wassers aus den geschlossenen Kühlkreisläufen der Röstanlage zur nassen Gasreinigung oder zur Laugungsstufe
b	Rückführung des Abwassers aus den Reinigungsprozessen bzw. aus der Röstanlage und den Elektrolyse- und Gießprozessen zur Laugungsstufe
c	Rückführung des Abwassers aus den Reinigungsprozessen bzw. aus Laugung und Laugenreinigung, aus dem Waschvorgang der Filterkuchen und aus dem Nasswäscher zur Laugungs- und/oder Laugenreinigungsstufe

11.5.1.1.5 Abfall

BVT 117. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Wiederverwendung des in Konzentratlagerung und -umschlag erfassten Staubes im Prozess (zusammen mit der Konzentratbeschickung)	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Wiederverwendung des im Röstprozess erfassten Staubes über das Silo für das Röstert (ZnO)	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Recycling von blei- und silberhaltigen Rückständen als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage	Anwendbar in Abhängigkeit vom Metallgehalt und davon, ob ein Markt besteht bzw. ein Prozess verfügbar ist
d	Recycling von Cu-, Co-, Ni-, Cd- und Mn-haltigen Rückständen als Rohstoff in einer externen Anlage zur Gewinnung eines marktfähigen Produkts	Anwendbar in Abhängigkeit vom Metallgehalt und davon, ob ein Markt besteht bzw. ein Prozess verfügbar ist

BVT 118. Die BVT zur Vorbehandlung der Laugungsabfälle für die endgültige Entsorgung besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Pyrometallurgische Behandlung in einem Wälzrohrofen	Nur für neutrale Laugungsabfälle anwendbar, die nicht einen zu hohen Zinkferritanteil enthalten und/oder keine hohen Edelmetallkonzentrationen aufweisen
b	Jarofix-Prozess	Nur für Jarosit-Eisenrückstände anwendbar; eingeschränkte Anwendbarkeit aufgrund eines bestehenden Patents
c	Sulfidierungsprozess	Nur für Jarosit-Eisenrückstände und Direktlaugungsrückstände anwendbar
d	Verdichtung von Eisenrückständen	Nur für Goethitrückstände und gipsreichen Schlamm aus der Abwasserbehandlungsanlage anwendbar

Beschreibung

BVT 118.b: Im Jarofix-Prozess werden Jarositniederschläge mit Portlandzement, Kalk und Wasser vermischt.

BVT 118.c: Im Sulfidierungsprozess werden NaOH und Na₂S zu den Rückständen in einem Sichterbehälter und in Sulfidierungsreaktoren zugegeben.

BVT 118.d: Die Verdichtung von Eisenrückständen umfasst die Verringerung des Feuchtegehalts durch Filtration und die Zugabe von Kalk oder anderen Stoffen.

11.5.1.2 Pyrometallurgische Zinkerzeugung

11.5.1.2.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.5.1.2.1.1 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 119. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

Anwendbarkeit

Falls die Konzentrate einen hohen organischen Kohlenstoffgehalt (z. B. etwa 10 Gewichtsprozent) haben, sind Gewebefilter aufgrund der Zusetzung des Gewebes möglicherweise nicht anwendbar, und es können andere Techniken (z. B. Nasswäscher) eingesetzt werden.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.31.

Tabelle 11.31: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm³)⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
Staub	2-5
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	
⁽²⁾ Wenn ein Gewebefilter nicht anwendbar ist, gilt 10 mg/Nm ³ als Obergrenze des Wertebereichs.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 120. Die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) besteht in der Anwendung einer Nassentschwefelungstechnik.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.32.

Tabelle 11.32: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
SO ₂	≤ 500

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.2 Sekundärzinkerzeugung

11.5.2.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.5.2.1.1 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 121. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der Pelletierung und der Schlackebehandlung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.33.

Tabelle 11.33: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Pelletierung und Schlackebearbeitung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 122. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohrofen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

Anwendbarkeit

Ein Gewebefilter ist möglicherweise nicht für einen Klinkerprozess anwendbar (bei dem nicht Metalloxide, sondern Chloride gemindert werden müssen).

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.34.

Tabelle 11.34: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾⁽³⁾
Staub	2-5
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum. ⁽²⁾ Wenn ein Gewebefilter nicht anwendbar ist, kann die Obergrenze des Wertebereichs höher (bis zu 15 mg/Nm ³) angesetzt werden. ⁽³⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Arsen- oder Cadmiumemissionen 0,05 mg/Nm ³ überschreiten.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.2.1.2 Emissionen organischer Verbindungen

BVT 123. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels (Aktivkohle oder Braunkohlenkoks) mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter und/oder Elektrofilter	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Thermische Nachverbrennung (TNV)	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)	Möglicherweise aus Sicherheitsgründen nicht anwendbar
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.		

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.35.

Tabelle 11.35: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für TVOC- und PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen

Parameter	Einheit	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert
TVOC	mg/Nm ³	2-20 ⁽¹⁾
PCDD/F	ng I-TEQ/Nm ³	≤ 0,1 ⁽²⁾
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum. ⁽²⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.		

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.2.1.3 Säureemissionen

BVT 124. Die BVT zur Verminderung der HCl- und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohfen besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Prozess
a	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter	– Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme – Wälzrohrofen
b	Nasswäscher	– Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.36.

Tabelle 11.36: BVT-assoziierte Emissionswerte für HCl- und HF-Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen metallischer und gemischt metallischer/oxidischer Materialströme sowie aus dem Ofen zum Verflüchtigen von Stoffen aus der Schlacke und aus dem Wälzrohrofen

Parameter	BVT-assoziiertes Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
HCl	≤ 1,5
HF	≤ 0,3

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.2.2 Abwasseranfall und -behandlung

BVT 125. Die BVT zur Verminderung des Frischwasserverbrauchs im Wälzrohrprozess besteht in der Anwendung einer mehrstufigen Gegenstromwäsche.

Beschreibung

Das Wasser aus einer früheren Waschstufe wird gefiltert und in der nachfolgenden Waschstufe wiederverwendet. Es können zwei oder drei Stufen angewandt werden, wodurch im Vergleich zu einer einstufigen Gegenstromwäsche bis zu dreimal weniger Wasser verbraucht wird.

BVT 126. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung der Halogenidmissionen aus der Waschstufe im Wälzrohrprozess in Wasser besteht in der Anwendung der Kristallisation.

11.5.3 Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren und Erzeugung von Zinkpulver

11.5.3.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.5.3.1.1 Diffuse Staubemissionen

BVT 127. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren besteht darin, die Einrichtungen bei Unterdruck zu betreiben.

11.5.3.1.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 128. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemmissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren sowie aus der Erzeugung von Zinkpulver besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.37.

Tabelle 11.37: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Zinkbarren sowie aus der Erzeugung von Zinkpulver

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	≤ 5
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.3.2 Abwasser

BVT 129. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Anfalls von Abwasser aus dem Schmelzen und Gießen von Zinkbarren besteht darin, das Kühlwasser wiederzuverwenden.

11.5.3.3 Abfall

BVT 130. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen aus dem Schmelzen von Zinkbarren besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder beider der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung der oxidierten Fraktion der Zinkkrätze und des zinkhaltigen Staubes aus den Schmelzöfen im Röstofen oder im Prozess zur hydrometallurgischen Zinkerzeugung
b	Verwendung der metallischen Fraktion der Zinkkrätze und der metallischen Krätze aus dem Kathodengießen im Schmelzofen oder Rückgewinnung in Form von Zinkstaub oder Zinkoxid in einer Zinkraffinationsanlage

11.5.4 Cadmiumerzeugung

11.5.4.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.5.4.1.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 131. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Bei der Laugung und Trennung flüssiger und fester Stoffe in der hydrometallurgischen Erzeugung, bei der Brikettierung/Pelletierung und beim Verflüchtigen in der pyrometallurgischen Erzeugung, sowie bei Schmelz-, Legier- und Gießprozessen: Einsatz eines zentralen Absaugsystems, verbunden mit einem Emissionsminderungssystem
b	Bei der Elektrolysestufe in der hydrometallurgischen Erzeugung: Abdeckung der Zellen

11.5.4.1.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 132. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung und aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und

Gießen von Cadmiumbarren besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Gewebefilter	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Elektrofilter	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Nasswäscher	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen eingeschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromrate (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.38.

Tabelle 11.38: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub und Cadmium in die Luft aus der pyrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung und aus dem Schmelzen, Legieren und Gießen von Cadmiumbarren

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-3
Cd	≤ 0,1

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.5.4.2 Abfall

BVT 133. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen aus der hydrometallurgischen Cadmiumerzeugung besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Extraktion des Cadmiums aus dem Zinkprozess als cadmiumreiches Zementat in der Laugenreinigungsstufe, weitere Konzentrierung und Raffination (durch Elektrolyse oder einen pyrometallurgischen Prozess) und schließlich Umwandlung in marktfähige Cadmiummetalle oder Cadmiumverbindungen	Nur anwendbar, wenn eine wirtschaftlich ausreichende Nachfrage besteht
b	Extraktion des Cadmiums aus dem Zinkprozess als cadmiumreiches Zementat in der Laugenreinigungsstufe und anschließende Anwendung einer Reihe hydrometallurgischer Prozesse, mit denen ein cadmiumreicher Niederschlag (z. B. Zement (Cd-Metall), Cd(OH) ₂) erzeugt wird, der in Deponien entsorgt wird, während alle anderen Prozessströme in der Cadmiumanlage oder im Zinkanlagenstrom rezykliert werden	Nur anwendbar, wenn eine geeignete Deponie verfügbar ist

11.6 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Edelmetallerzeugung

11.6.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.6.1.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 134. Die BVT für die Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Vorbehandlungsprozessen (z. B. Brechen, Sieben und Mischen) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Einhausung von Vorbehandlungsbereichen und Übergabesystemen für staubende Materialien
b	Anbindung von Vorbehandlungs- und Umschlagvorgängen an Stauberfassungs- oder Staubabsaugvorrichtungen über Abzüge und ein Leitungssystem für staubende Materialien
c	Elektrische Anbindung der Vorbehandlungs- und Umschlageinrichtungen an die zugehörigen Stauberfassungs- oder Staubabsaugsysteme, um sicherzustellen, dass Vorrichtungen nur betrieben werden können, wenn das Stauberfassungs- und das Filtersystem ebenfalls aktiviert sind

BVT 135. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Einschmelz- und Schmelzprozessen (Doré- und Nicht-Doré-Verfahren) besteht in der Anwendung aller folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Kapselung von Gebäuden und/oder Schmelzofenbereichen
b	Betrieb bei Unterdruck
c	Anbindung von Ofenabläufen an Stauberfassungs- oder Staubabsaugvorrichtungen über Abzüge und ein Leitungssystem
d	Elektrische Anbindung der Ofenvorrichtungen an die zugehörigen Stauberfassungs- oder Staubabsaugsysteme, um sicherzustellen, dass Vorrichtungen nur betrieben werden können, wenn das Stauberfassungs- und das Filtersystem ebenfalls aktiviert sind

BVT 136. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Laugungsprozessen und aus der Goldelektrolyse besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Geschlossene Tanks/Behälter und geschlossene Rohrleitungen für Übergabesysteme
b	Hauben und Absaugsysteme für Elektrolysezellen
c	Wasservorhang für die Golderzeugung, um Chlorgasemissionen während der Laugung von Anodenschlämmen mit Salzsäure oder anderen Lösungsmitteln zu vermeiden

BVT 137. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen besteht in der Anwendung aller folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Rückhaltemaßnahmen wie gekapselte oder geschlossene Reaktionsbehälter, Lagertanks, Lösungsmittelextraktionsvorrichtungen und Filter sowie mit einer Füllstandskontrolle ausgestattete Behälter und Tanks, geschlossene Rohrleitungen und abgedichtete Entwässerungssysteme sowie Wartungspläne
b	Anbindung von Reaktionsbehältern und Tanks an ein allgemeines Leitungssystem mit Abgasabsaugung (mit einem automatisch gesteuerten redundanten Reservesystem für den Störfall)

BVT 138. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsprozessen besteht in der Anwendung aller folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Anbindung aller Kalzinierungsöfen, Verbrennungsanlagen und Trockenkammern an ein Leitungssystem zur Ableitung der Prozessabgase
b	Betrieb der Gaswäscheranlage an einem Vorrangstromkreis, der für den Fall eines Stromausfalls mit einem Notstromaggregat verbunden ist
c	Automatisches Steuersystem für Start und Abschaltung der Gaswäscheranlage, Ablass der verbrauchten Säure und Auffüllung mit frischer Säure

BVT 139. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus dem Schmelzen der Metall-Endprodukte bei der Raffination besteht in der Anwendung der beiden folgenden Techniken.

Technik	
a	Eingehauster Ofen mit Unterdruck
b	Geeignete Gehäuse, Einhausungen und Hauben zur Emissionserfassung mit effizienter Absaugung/Entlüftung

11.6.1.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 140. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus allen staubenden Prozessen wie Brechen, Sieben, Mischen, Schmelzen, Einschmelzen, Verbrennung, Kalzinierung, Trocknung und Raffination besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Gewebefilter	Möglicherweise nicht für Abgase anwendbar, die einen hohen Anteil an verflüchtigtem Selen aufweisen
b	Nasswäscher in Kombination mit einem Elektrofilter, so dass eine Selenrückgewinnung möglich ist	Nur für Abgase anwendbar, die verflüchtigtes Selen enthalten (z. B. Doré-Metallerzeugung)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.39.

Tabelle 11.39: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus allen staubenden Prozessen wie Brechen, Sieben, Mischen, Schmelzen, Einschmelzen, Verbrennung, Kalzinierung, Trocknung und Raffination

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-5

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.1.3 NO_x-Emissionen

BVT 141. Die BVT zur Vermeidung von NO_x-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, in denen Salpetersäure zur Auflösung/Laugung eingesetzt wird, besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

Technik ⁽¹⁾	
a	Alkalischer Abscheider mit Natronlauge
b	Abscheider mit Oxidationsmitteln (z. B. Sauerstoff, Wasserstoffperoxid) und Reduktionsmitteln (z. B. Salpetersäure, Harnstoff) für die Behälter in hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, in denen potenziell hohe NO _x -Konzentrationen gebildet werden können – diese Technik wird häufig in Kombination mit BVT 141.a angewandt.
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.40.

Tabelle 11.40: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für NO_x-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, in denen Salpetersäure zur Auflösung/Laugung eingesetzt wird

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
NO _x	70-150
⁽¹⁾ Als Stundenmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.1.4 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 142. Die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelz- und Einschmelzprozessen zur Herstellung von Doré-Metall, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge, (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

Technik ⁽¹⁾		Anwendbarkeit
a	Kalkinjektion in Kombination mit einem Gewebefilter	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Nasswäscher	Die Anwendbarkeit kann in den folgenden Fällen eingeschränkt sein: - sehr hohe Abgasstromraten (aufgrund des hohen Abfall- und Abwasseranfalls) - in Trockengebieten (aufgrund der großen benötigten Wassermenge und der Notwendigkeit für eine Abwasserbehandlung)
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.		

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.41.

Tabelle 11.41: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Schmelz- und Einschmelzprozessen zur Herstellung von Doré-Metall, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
SO ₂	50-480
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 143. Die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsabläufe, besteht in der Verwendung eines Nasswäschers.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.42.

Tabelle 11.42: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
SO ₂	50-100
⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.1.5 HCl- und Cl₂-Emissionen

BVT 144. Die BVT zur Verminderung der HCl- und Cl₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge, besteht in der Verwendung eines alkalischen Abscheiders.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.43.

Tabelle 11.43: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für HCl- und Cl₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen, einschließlich der zugehörigen Verbrennungs-, Kalzinierungs- und Trocknungsvorgänge

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
HCl	≤ 5-10
Cl ₂	0,5-2
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.1.6 NH₃-Emissionen

BVT 145. Die BVT zur Verminderung der NH₃-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen unter Verwendung von Ammoniak oder Ammoniumchlorid besteht in der Verwendung eines Nasswäschers mit Schwefelsäure

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.44.

Tabelle 11.44: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für NH₃-Emissionen in die Luft aus hydrometallurgischen Prozessen unter Verwendung von Ammoniak oder Ammoniumchlorid

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
NH ₃	1-3
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.1.7 PCDD/F-Emissionen

BVT 146. Die BVT zur Verminderung der PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus Trocknungsprozessen, bei denen die Rohstoffe organische Verbindungen, Halogene oder andere PCDD/F-Vorläufersubstanzen enthalten, sowie aus Verbrennungs- und Kalzinierungsprozessen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Nachbrenner oder Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) ⁽¹⁾
b	Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels in Kombination mit einem effizienten Stauberfassungssystem ⁽¹⁾
c	Optimierung der Verbrennungs- oder Prozessbedingungen zur Minderung von Emissionen organischer Verbindungen ⁽¹⁾
d	Vermeidung von Absaugsystemen mit hoher Staubanhäufung bei Temperaturen > 250 °C ⁽¹⁾
e	Schnelles Quenchen ⁽¹⁾
f	Thermische Zerstörung von PCDD/F bei hohen Temperaturen im Ofen (> 850 °C)
g	Einblasen von Sauerstoff in die obere Ofenzone
h	Internes Brennersystem ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.45.

Tabelle 11.45: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus Trocknungsprozessen, bei denen die Rohstoffe organische Verbindungen, Halogene oder andere PCDD/F-Vorläufersubstanzen enthalten, sowie aus Verbrennungs- und Kalzinierungsprozessen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
PCDD/F	≤ 0,1
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.6.2 Boden- und Grundwasserschutz

BVT 147. Die BVT zur Vermeidung der Boden- und Grundwasserverunreinigung besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung abgedichteter Entwässerungssysteme
b	Verwendung doppelwandiger Tanks oder Platzierung der Tanks innerhalb von chemikalienbeständigen Auffangwannen
c	Undurchlässiger und säurebeständiger Untergrund
d	Automatische Füllstandskontrolle bei Reaktionsbehältern

11.6.3 Abwasseranfall

BVT 148. Die BVT zur Vermeidung des Abwasseranfalls besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Recycling der verbrauchten/rückgewonnenen Abscheiderflüssigkeiten und anderer hydrometallurgischer Reagenzien in Laugungs- und anderen Raffinationsprozessen
b	Recycling der Lösungen aus Laugungs-, Extraktions- und Ausfällungsprozessen

11.6.4 Abfall

BVT 149. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Prozess
a	Rückgewinnung des Metallanteils von Schlacken, Filterstaub und Rückständen des Nassentstaubungssystems	Doré-Herstellung
b	Rückgewinnung des Selen, das in den Abgasen des Nassentstaubungssystems, die verflüchtigtes Selen enthalten, erfasst wurde	
c	Rückgewinnung von Silber aus dem verbrauchten Elektrolyt und aus den verbrauchten Schlamm-Waschlösungen	Elektrolytische Silberraffination
d	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus Rückständen aus der Elektrolytreinigung (z. B. Silberzement, Rückstände auf Basis von Kupfercarbonat)	
e	Rückgewinnung von Gold aus Elektrolyt, Schlämmen und Lösungen aus dem Goldlaugungsprozess	Elektrolytische Goldraffination
f	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus verbrauchten Anoden	Elektrolytische Silber- oder Goldraffination
g	Rückgewinnung von Metallen der Platingruppe aus Lösungen, die mit Metallen der Platingruppe angereichert sind	
h	Rückgewinnung von Metallen aus der Behandlung von Flüssigkeiten nach Prozessende	Alle Prozesse

11.7 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

11.7.1 Energie

BVT 150. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht darin, durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken Energie aus den CO-reichen Abgasen eines geschlossenen Elektro-Lichtbogenofens oder eines geschlossenen Plasmastaubprozesses zurückzugewinnen.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Einsatz eines Dampfkessels und von Turbinen zur Energierückgewinnung der Energiegehalts und zur Stromerzeugung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Energiepreisen und Energiepolitik des jeweiligen Mitgliedstaats eingeschränkt sein.
b	Direkter Einsatz des Abgases als Brennstoff im Prozess (z. B. für die Trocknung von Rohstoffen, die Vorwärmung der Beschickungsmaterialien, das Sintern sowie das Wärmen der Gießtiegel)	Nur anwendbar, wenn ein Bedarf an Prozesswärme besteht
c	Verwendung des Abgases als Brennstoff für benachbarte Anlagen	Nur anwendbar, wenn ein wirtschaftlich sinnvoller Bedarf an dieser Art von Brennstoff besteht

BVT 151. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht darin, durch eine oder beide der folgenden Techniken Energie aus den heißen Abgasen eines halbgeschlossenen Elektro-Lichtbogenofens zurückzugewinnen.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Einsatz eines Abwärmekessels und von Turbinen zur Energierückgewinnung und zur Stromerzeugung	Die Anwendbarkeit kann je nach Energiepreisen und Energiepolitik des jeweiligen Mitgliedstaats eingeschränkt sein.
b	Verwendung eines Abwärmekessels zur Heißwasser-Erzeugung	Nur anwendbar, wenn eine wirtschaftlich ausreichende Nachfrage besteht

BVT 152. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht darin, durch eine Heißwasser-Erzeugung die Energie aus den Abgasen eines offenen Elektro-Lichtbogenofens zurückzugewinnen.

Anwendbarkeit

Nur anwendbar, wenn eine wirtschaftlich ausreichende Nachfrage an Warmwasser besteht.

11.7.2 Emissionen in die Luft

11.7.2.1 Diffuse Staubemissionen

BVT 153. Die BVT zur Vermeidung oder Verminderung und zur Erfassung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus Abstich- und Gießprozessen besteht in einer oder beiden der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung eines Systems von Abzugshauben	Bei bestehenden Anlagen hängt die Anwendbarkeit von der Anlagenkonfiguration ab.
b	Vermeidung von Gießprozessen durch Verwendung von Ferrolegierungen im flüssigen Zustand	Nur anwendbar, wenn der Verbraucher (z. B. der Stahlhersteller) und der Hersteller der Ferrolegierungen integriert sind.

11.7.2.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 154. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Feststoffen, aus Vorbehandlungsprozessen wie Dosierung, Mischen, Vermengen und Entfettung sowie aus Abstich-, Gieß- und Verpackungsprozessen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.46.

BVT 155. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus Brech-, Brikkettierungs-, Pelletierungs- und Sinterprozessen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder eines Gewebefilters in Kombination mit anderen Techniken.

Anwendbarkeit

Die Anwendbarkeit eines Gewebefilters kann bei niedrigen Umgebungstemperaturen (-20 °C bis -40 °C) und bei einem hohen Feuchtegehalt der Abgase sowie aus Sicherheitsgründen beim Brechen von CaSi (Explosionsrisiko) eingeschränkt sein.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.46.

BVT 156. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus einem offenen oder halboffenen Elektro-Lichtbogenofen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.46.

BVT 157. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus einem geschlossenen Elektro-Lichtbogenofen oder einem geschlossenen Plasmastaubprozess besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Nasswäscher in Kombination mit einem Elektrofilter	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Gewebefilter	Allgemein anwendbar, sofern keine Sicherheitsbedenken hinsichtlich des CO- und H ₂ -Gehalts der Abgase bestehen

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.46.

BVT 158. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemissionen in die Luft aus einem Tiegel mit feuerfester Auskleidung für die Erzeugung von Ferro-Molybdän- und Ferro-Vanadiumlegierungen besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.46.

Tabelle 11.46: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus der Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen

Parameter	Prozess	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³)
Staub	- Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Feststoffen - Vorbehandlungsprozesse wie Dosierung, Mischen, Vermengen und Entfettung - Abstich, Gießen und Verpacken	2-5 ⁽¹⁾
	Brechen, Brikettierung, Pelletierung und Sintern	2-5 ⁽²⁾⁽³⁾
	Offener oder halbgeschlossener Elektro-Lichtbogenofen	2-5 ⁽²⁾⁽⁴⁾⁽⁵⁾
	- Geschlossener Elektro-Lichtbogenofen oder geschlossener Plasmastaubprozess - Tiegel mit feuerfester Auskleidung für die Erzeugung von Ferro-Molybdän- und Ferro-Vanadiumlegierungen	2-5 ⁽²⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽³⁾ Wenn die Verwendung eines Gewebefilters nicht möglich ist, kann die Obergrenze des Wertebereichs bis zu 10 mg/Nm³ betragen.
⁽⁴⁾ Bei der Erzeugung von FeMn, SiMn und CaSi kann die Obergrenze des Wertebereichs aufgrund der klebrigen Beschaffenheit des Staubes, die beispielweise auf die hygroskopischen oder chemischen Eigenschaften zurückzuführen ist und die Wirksamkeit des Gewebefilters beeinträchtigt, bis zu 15 mg/Nm³ betragen.
⁽⁵⁾ Es wird erwartet, dass die Staubemissionen im unteren Wertebereich liegen, wenn die Metallemissionen die folgenden Werte überschreiten: Blei: 1 mg/Nm³, Cadmium: 0,05 mg/Nm³, Chrom(VI): 0,05 mg/Nm³ und Thallium: 0,05 mg/Nm³.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.7.2.3 PCDD/F-Emissionen

BVT 159. Die BVT zur Verminderung der PCDD/F-Emissionen in die Luft aus einem Ofen zur Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen besteht in der Injektion von Adsorptionsmitteln und in der Verwendung eines Elektrofilters und/oder eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.47.

Tabelle 11.47: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für PCDD/F-Emissionen aus einem Ofen zur Erzeugung von Ferrolegierungen in die Luft

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (ng I-TEQ/Nm ³)
PCDD/F	≤ 0,05 ⁽¹⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über einen Probenahmezeitraum von mindestens sechs Stunden.

Die zugehörige Überwachung ist in BVT 10 angegeben.

11.7.2.4 Emissionen von PAK und organischen Verbindungen

BVT 160. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen von PAK und organischen Verbindungen in die Luft aus der Entfettung von Titanspänen in Drehrohröfen besteht in der Verwendung einer Thermischen Nachverbrennung (TNV).

11.7.3 Abfall

BVT 161. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Schlackemengen besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Schlacke erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung von Schlacke in Bauanwendungen	Nur für Schlacken aus der Erzeugung von kohlenstoffreichem FeCr und SiMn, für Schlacken aus der Legierungsverwertung aus Stahlwerksrückständen und für normal ausgeschöpfte Schlacke aus der FeMn- und FeMo-Erzeugung anwendbar
b	Verwendung von Schlacke als Strahlmittel	Nur für Schlacken aus der Erzeugung von kohlenstoffreichem FeCr anwendbar
c	Verwendung von Schlacke für Feuerfestbeton	Nur für Schlacken aus der Erzeugung von kohlenstoffreichem FeCr anwendbar
d	Verwendung von Schlacke im Einschmelzprozess	Nur für Schlacken aus der Erzeugung von Calcium-Silicium anwendbar
e	Verwendung von Schlacke als Rohstoff für die Erzeugung von Siliciummangan oder andere metallurgische Anwendungen	Nur für ergiebige Schlacke (mit einem hohen MnO-Anteil) aus der Erzeugung von FeMn anwendbar

BVT 162. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Mengen von zu entsorgendem Filterstaub und -schlamm besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Filterstaub und -schlamm erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit ⁽¹⁾
a	Verwendung von Filterstaub im Einschmelzprozess	Nur für Filterstaub aus der Erzeugung von FeCr und FeMo anwendbar
b	Verwendung von Filterstaub in der Herstellung von rostfreiem Stahl	Nur für Filterstaub aus Brech- und Siebprozesse in der Erzeugung von kohlenstoffreichem FeCr anwendbar
c	Verwendung von Filterstaub und -schlamm als Beschickungskonzentrat	Nur für Filterstaub und -schlamm aus der Abgasreinigung in der Mo-Röstung anwendbar
d	Verwendung von Filterstaub in anderen Industriebranchen	Nur für die Erzeugung von FeMn, SiMn, FeNi, FeMo und FeV anwendbar
e	Verwendung von Mikro-Silicium als Zusatzstoff in der Zementindustrie	Nur für Mikro-Silicium aus der FeSi- und Si-Erzeugung anwendbar
f	Verwendung von Filterstaub und -schlamm in der Zinkindustrie	Nur für Ofenstaub und Nasswäscher-Schlamm aus der Legierungsverwertung aus Stahlwerksrückständen anwendbar
⁽¹⁾ Stark verunreinigte Stäube und Schlämme können nicht wiederverwendet oder rezykliert werden. Die Wiederverwendung und das Recycling können auch durch eine problematische Akkumulation eingeschränkt sein (beispielsweise kann die Wiederverwendung von Staub aus der FeCr-Erzeugung zu einer Zn-Akkumulation im Ofen führen).		

11.8 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Nickel- und/oder Kobalterzeugung

11.8.1 Energie

BVT 163. Die BVT zur effizienten Energienutzung besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung von sauerstoffangereicherter Luft in Schmelzöfen oder LD-Konvertern
b	Verwendung von Abwärmekesseln
c	Verwendung der im Ofen erzeugten Rauchgase im Prozess (z. B. zur Trocknung)
d	Verwendung von Wärmetauschern

11.8.2 Emissionen in die Luft

11.8.2.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 164. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen in die Luft aus der Ofenbeschickung besteht in der Verwendung geschlossener Fördersysteme.

BVT 165. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Einschmelzprozessen besteht in der Verwendung abgedeckter und mit Hauben versehener Gießbrinnen, die an ein Emissionsminderungssystem angebunden sind.

BVT 166. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Staubemissionen aus Konvertierungsprozessen besteht darin, die Prozesse bei Unterdruck durchzuführen und Abzugshauben zu verwenden, die an ein Emissionsminderungssystem angeschlossen sind.

BVT 167. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus atmosphärischer Laugung oder Drucklaugung besteht in der Anwendung der beiden folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Gekapselte oder geschlossene Reaktoren, Absetzeinrichtungen und Autoklaven/Druckkessel
b	Verwendung von Sauerstoff oder Chlor anstelle von Luft in den Laugungsstufen

BVT 168. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der Lösungsmittelraffination besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Verwendung eines Mischers mit geringer oder hoher Scherwirkung für die Lösungsmittel/Wasser-Mischung
b	Verwendung von Abdeckungen für den Mischer und den Abscheider
c	Einsatz vollständig gekapselter Tanks, angeschlossen an ein Emissionsminderungssystem

BVT 169. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus der elektrolytischen Extraktion besteht in einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Erfassung und Wiederverwendung von Chlorgas	Nur für die elektrolytische Extraktion auf Chlorbasis anwendbar
b	Verwendung von Polystyrolkugeln zur Abdeckung der Elektrolysezellen	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Verwendung von Schäumungsmitteln zur Abdeckung der Zellen mit einer stabilen Schaumschicht	Nur für die elektrolytische Extraktion auf Sulfatbasis anwendbar

BVT 170. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser Emissionen aus dem Wasserstoffreduktionsprozess bei der Herstellung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts (unter Druck) besteht in der Verwendung gekapselter oder geschlossener Reaktoren, Absetzeinrichtungen, Autoklaven/Druckkessel, Pulverförderer und Produktsilos.

11.8.2.2 Gefasste Staubemissionen

BVT 171. Bei der Verarbeitung sulfidischer Erze besteht die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und Metallemmissionen aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung der Rohstoffe, aus den Materialvorbehandlungsprozessen (wie Erzvorbehandlung und Erz-/Konzentratdrying), aus Ofenbeschickung, Einschmelzen, Konvertierung, thermischer Raffination und Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts in die Luft in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters oder einer Kombination aus Elektrofilter und Gewebefilter.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.48.

Tabelle 11.48: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staubemissionen in die Luft aus dem Umschlag und der Lagerung von Rohstoffen, aus den Materialvorbehandlungsprozessen (wie Erzvorbehandlung und Erz-/Konzentratdrying), aus der Ofenbeschickung, dem Einschmelzen, der Konvertierung, der thermischen Raffination und der Erzeugung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts bei der Verarbeitung sulfidischer Erze

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-5

⁽¹⁾ Als Tagesmittelwert oder als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.8.2.3 Nickel- und Chloremissionen

BVT 172. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Nickel- und Chloremissionen in die Luft aus der atmosphärischen Laugung oder der Drucklaugung besteht in der Verwendung eines Nasswäschers.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe

Tabelle 11.49: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Nickel- und Chloremissionen aus der atmosphärischen Laugung oder der Drucklaugung in die Luft

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Ni	≤ 1
Cl ₂	≤ 1

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 173. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Nickemissionen in die Luft aus der Nickelstein-Raffination unter Verwendung von Eisen(III)-chlorid mit Chlor besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.50.

Tabelle 11.50: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Nickemissionen in die Luft aus der Nickelstein-Raffination unter Verwendung von Eisen(III)-chlorid mit Chlor

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Ni	≤ 1

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.8.2.4 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 174. Bei der Verarbeitung sulfidischer Erze besteht die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft aus Einschmelz- und Konvertierungsprozessen (ausgenommen Emissionen, die der Schwefelsäureanlage zugeführt werden) in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Kalkinjektion mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter
b	Nasswäscher

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

11.8.2.5 NH₃-Emissionen

BVT 175. Die BVT zur Verminderung der NH₃-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Herstellung von Nickelpulver und Nickelbriketts besteht in der Verwendung eines Nasswäschers.

11.8.3 Abfall

BVT 176. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem durch Anwendung einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik	Anwendbarkeit
a	Verwendung der granulierten Schlacke aus dem (für den Schmelzvorgang eingesetzten) Lichtbogenofen als Strahlmittel oder als Baumaterial	Die Anwendbarkeit hängt vom Metallgehalt der Schlacke ab.
b	Verwendung des erfassten Abgasstaubes aus dem (für den Schmelzvorgang eingesetzten) Lichtbogenofen als Rohstoff in der Zinkerzeugung	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Verwendung des Abgasstaubes aus der Metallsteingranulation, der am (für den Schmelzvorgang eingesetzten) Lichtbogenofen erfasst wurde, als Rohstoff in der Raffination/Umschmelzung von Nickel	Allgemein anwendbar
d	Verwendung der Schwefelrückstände nach der Metallsteinfiltration in der Laugung auf Chlorbasis als Rohstoff für die Schwefelsäureherstellung	Allgemein anwendbar
e	Verwendung der Eisenrückstände aus der Laugung auf Sulfatbasis als Einsatzmaterial für die Nickelschmelzanlage	Die Anwendbarkeit hängt vom Metallgehalt der Abfälle ab.
f	Verwendung der Zinkcarbonat-Rückstände aus der Lösungsmittelextraktion als Rohstoff für die Zinkerzeugung	Die Anwendbarkeit hängt vom Metallgehalt der Abfälle ab.
g	Verwendung der Kupferrückstände aus den Laugungsprozessen auf Sulfat- und Chlorbasis als Rohstoff für die Kupfererzeugung	Allgemein anwendbar

11.9 BVT-Schlussfolgerungen für die Kohlenstoff- und/oder Graphiterzeugung

11.9.1 Emissionen in die Luft

11.9.1.1 Diffuse Emissionen

BVT 177. Die BVT zur Verminderung diffuser PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von flüssigem Pech besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik
a	Gaspendelung des Lagertanks für flüssiges Pech
b	Kondensation durch externe und/oder interne Kühlung mit Luft- und/oder Wassersystemen (Kühltürme) mit nachgeschalteten Filtrationstechniken (Adsorptionsabscheider oder Elektrofilter)
c	Erfassung und Transport der Abgase zu Emissionsminderungssystemen (Trockenabscheider oder Anlage für thermische/regenerative thermische Oxidation), die in anderen Prozessstufen (z. B. Mischen und Formen oder Brennen/Backen) verfügbar sind

11.9.1.2 Staub- und PAK-Emissionen

BVT 178. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staubemissionen in die Luft aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Koks und Pech, aus mechanischen Prozessen (wie Feinzerkleinerung) sowie aus Graphitierung und maschineller Bearbeitung besteht in der Verwendung eines Gewebefilters.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.51.

Tabelle 11.51: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Lagerung, Umschlag und Transport von Koks und Pech, aus mechanischen Prozessen (wie Feinzerkleinerung) sowie aus Graphitierung und maschineller Bearbeitung

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-5
BaP	≤ 0,01 ⁽²⁾
⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.	
⁽²⁾ BaP-Partikel sind nur bei der Verarbeitung von festem Pech zu erwarten.	

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 179. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus der Herstellung von Frischpaste (Grünpaste) und unbehandelten Formen (Grünformen) besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Trockenabscheider mit Koks als Adsorptionsmittel, mit oder ohne Vorkühlung, mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter
b	Koksfilter
c	Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)
d	Thermische Nachverbrennung (TNV)
⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.	

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.52.

Tabelle 11.52: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus der Herstellung von Frischpaste (Grünpaste) und unbehandelten Formen (Grünformen)

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-10 ⁽²⁾
BaP	0,001-0,01

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Trockenabscheiders mit Koks als Adsorptionsmittel sowie eines nachgeschalteten Gewebefilters assoziiert. Der obere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz einer Thermischen Nachverbrennung (TNV) assoziiert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 180. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus Brenn-/Backprozessen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾	Anwendbarkeit
a	Elektrofilter in Kombination mit einer thermischen Oxidationsstufe (z. B. Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)), wenn leichtflüchtige Verbindungen zu erwarten sind	Allgemein anwendbar
b	Bei einem hohen Staubgehalt im Abgas: Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) in Kombination mit einer Vorbehandlung (z. B. Elektrofilter)	Allgemein anwendbar
c	Thermische Nachverbrennung (TNV)	Nicht für kontinuierliche Ringöfen anwendbar

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.53.

Tabelle 11.53: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Brenn-/Back- und Nachbrenn-/ Nachbackprozessen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-10 ⁽²⁾
BaP	0,005-0,015 ⁽³⁾⁽⁴⁾

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz einer Kombination aus einem Elektrofilter und einer regenerativen Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) assoziiert. Der obere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz einer Thermischen Nachverbrennung (TNV) assoziiert.
⁽³⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz einer Thermischen Nachverbrennung (TNV) assoziiert. Der obere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Elektrofilters in Kombination mit einer regenerativen Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) assoziiert.
⁽⁴⁾ Bei der Kathodenherstellung gilt 0,05 mg/Nm³ als Obergrenze des Wertebereichs.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

BVT 181. Die BVT zur Verminderung von Staub- und PAK-Emissionen in die Luft aus Imprägnierungsprozessen besteht in einer oder einer Kombination der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Trockenabscheider mit nachgeschaltetem Gewebefilter
b	Koksfilter
c	Thermische Nachverbrennung (TNV)

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.54.

Tabelle 11.54: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für Staub- und BaP-Emissionen (als Indikator für PAK) in die Luft aus Imprägnierungsprozessen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾
Staub	2-10
BaP	0,001-0,01

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.9.1.3 Schwefeldioxidemissionen

BVT 182. Bei Prozessen mit Schwefelzugabe besteht die BVT zur Verminderung der SO₂-Emissionen in die Luft in der Verwendung eines Trockenabscheiders und/oder eines Nasswäschers.

11.9.1.4 Emissionen organischer Verbindungen

BVT 183. Die BVT zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen in die Luft, einschließlich Phenol und Formaldehyd aus der Imprägnierungsstufe bei Verwendung spezieller Imprägniermittel wie Harze und biologische abbaubare Lösungsmittel, besteht in einer der folgenden Techniken.

	Technik ⁽¹⁾
a	Anlage für regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) in Kombination mit einem Elektrofilter für die Misch-, Brenn-/Back- und Imprägnierungsstufen
b	Biofilter und/oder Biowäscher für die Imprägnierungsstufe, in der spezielle Imprägniermittel wie Harze und biologisch abbaubare Lösungsmittel eingesetzt werden

⁽¹⁾ Eine Beschreibung der Techniken ist in Abschnitt 11.10 enthalten.

BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte: Siehe Tabelle 11.55.

Tabelle 11.55: BVT-assozierte Emissionswerte für TVOC-Emissionen in die Luft aus Misch-, Brenn-/Back- und Imprägnierungsprozessen

Parameter	BVT-assoziierter Emissionswert (mg/Nm ³) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾
TVOC	≤ 10-40

⁽¹⁾ Als Mittelwert über den Probenahmezeitraum.
⁽²⁾ Der untere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Elektrofilters in Kombination mit einer regenerativen Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO) assoziiert. Der obere Wertebereich ist mit dem Einsatz eines Biofilters und/oder eines Biowäschers assoziiert.

Die diesbezügliche Überwachung ist Gegenstand von BVT 10.

11.9.2 Abfall

BVT 184. Die BVT zur Verminderung der zu entsorgenden Abfallmengen besteht darin, betriebsinterne Vorgänge so zu organisieren, dass die Wiederverwendung oder, wenn dies nicht möglich ist, das Recycling von Prozessrückständen erleichtert wird, unter anderem

durch die Wiederverwendung oder das Recycling von Kohlenstoff und anderen Rückständen aus den Erzeugungsprozessen in den Prozessen selbst oder in anderen externen Prozessen.

11.10 Beschreibung der Techniken

11.10.1 Emissionen in die Luft

Die nachstehend beschriebenen Techniken sind nach den wichtigsten Schadstoffen sortiert, auf deren Minderung sie ausgelegt sind.

11.10.1.1 Staubemissionen

Technik	Beschreibung
Gewebefilter	Gewebefilter, auch als Schlauchfilter/Tuchfilter bezeichnet, bestehen aus einem durchlässigen Web- oder Filzstoff, durch den Gase geleitet werden, um Partikel zu entfernen. Bei Verwendung eines Gewebefilters muss jeweils ein Stoff gewählt werden, der für die Beschaffenheit der Abgase und die maximale Betriebstemperatur geeignet ist.
Elektrofilter (ESP)	Elektrofilter laden Partikel elektrisch auf und trennen diese anschließend unter Einwirkung eines elektrischen Feldes ab. Elektrofilter kommen unter den unterschiedlichsten Anwendungsbedingungen zum Einsatz. Bei einem Trocken-Elektrofilter wird das abgeschiedene Material mechanisch entfernt (z. B. durch Schütteln, Vibration oder Druckluft), während es in einem Nass-Elektrofilter mit einer geeigneten Flüssigkeit (üblicherweise Wasser) abgespült wird.
Nasswäscher	In einer Nasswäsche erfolgt die Staubabscheidung durch eine intensive Vermischung des einströmenden Gases mit Wasser, üblicherweise kombiniert mit der Abscheidung der groben Partikel durch Zentrifugalkraft. Der abgeschiedene Staub wird unten im Abscheider gesammelt. Stoffe wie SO ₂ , NH ₃ , einige flüchtige organische Verbindungen und Schwermetalle können ebenfalls abgeschieden werden.

11.10.1.2 NO_x-Emissionen

Technik	Beschreibung
NO _x -arme Brenner	NO _x -arme Brenner (Low-NO _x -Brenner) bewirken eine geringere NO _x -Bildung durch Reduzierung der Spitzentemperaturen der Flammen, was zu einer verzögerten, aber vollständigen Verbrennung führt und die Wärmeübertragung erhöht (erhöhte Flammenstrahlung). Ultra-NO _x -arme Brenner sind mit Verbrennungsstufung (Luft/Brennstoff) und mit Rauchgasrückführung ausgelegt.
Sauerstoffbrenner (Oxy-Fuel)	Bei dieser Technik wird die Verbrennungsluft durch Sauerstoff ersetzt; dabei wird die Bildung von thermischem NO _x durch den in den Ofen eintretenden Stickstoff konsequent verhindert bzw. verringert. Der Reststickstoff im Ofen hängt von der Reinheit des zugeführten Sauerstoffs sowie von der Qualität des Brennstoffs und von potenziellem Lufteintritt ab.
Rauchgasrückführung	Das Rauchgas aus der Feuerung wird in die Flamme zurückgeführt, um den Sauerstoffgehalt zu reduzieren und somit die Flammentemperatur zu senken. Bei Spezialbrennern werden die Verbrennungsgase, die die Flammenwurzel kühlen und den Sauerstoffgehalt im heißesten Bereich der Flammen reduzieren, intern zurückgeführt.

11.10.1.3 SO₂-, HCl- und HF-Emissionen

Technik	Beschreibung
Trocken-/Halbtrockenabscheider	Ein alkalisches Reagenz (z. B. Kalk oder Natriumbicarbonat) wird in Form eines trockenen Pulvers oder einer Suspension/Lösung in den Abgasstrom eingeführt und im Abgasstrom verteilt. Es reagiert mit den sauren Gasbestandteilen (z. B. SO ₂) und bildet feste Partikel, die durch Filtration abgetrennt werden (mit einem Gewebe- oder Elektrofilter). Der Einsatz eines Reaktionsturms steigert die Abscheidungseffizienz des Gaswäschers. Die Adsorption kann auch durch den Einsatz von Füllkörperkolonnen (z. B. Koksfilter) erreicht werden. Bei bestehenden Anlagen wird die Abscheideeffizienz an Prozessparameter wie Temperatur (mindestens 60 °C), Feuchtegehalt, Kontaktdauer, Gasfluktuationen und die Fähigkeit des Staubfiltrationssystems (z. B. Gewebefilter) gebunden, um die zusätzliche Staublast zu bewältigen.
Nasswäscher	Beim Nasswäscheverfahren werden gasförmige Verbindungen in einer Waschflüssigkeit (z. B. einer Kalk, NaOH oder H ₂ O ₂ enthaltenden alkalischen Lösung) gelöst. Im Anschluss an die Nasswäsche sind die Abgase mit Wasser gesättigt; vor der Freisetzung der Abgase werden die Tröpfchen abgetrennt. Die so abgetrennte Flüssigkeit wird nach einem Abwasserverfahren weiterbehandelt; die nicht löslichen Bestandteile werden durch Sedimentation oder Filtration abgeschieden. Bei bestehenden Anlagen ist diese Technik möglicherweise mit einem erheblichen Platzbedarf verbunden.
Verwendung von Brennstoffen mit geringem Schwefelgehalt	Die Verwendung von Erdgas oder schwefelarmem Heizöl reduziert die Menge der SO ₂ - und SO ₃ -Emissionen aus der Oxidation des im Brennstoff enthaltenen Schwefels während der Verbrennung.
Absorptions-/Desorptionssysteme auf Polyetherbasis	Zur selektiven Absorption des SO ₂ aus den Abgasen wird ein Lösungsmittel auf Polyetherbasis verwendet. Anschließend wird das absorbierte SO ₂ in einer weiteren Kolonne gestrippt und das Lösungsmittel vollständig regeneriert. Das gestrippte SO ₂ wird für die Erzeugung von flüssigem SO ₂ oder von Schwefelsäure verwendet.

11.10.1.4 Quecksilberemissionen

Technik	Beschreibung
Aktivkohleadsorption	Bei diesem Prozess erfolgt die Quecksilberadsorption an der Aktivkohle. Wenn die Adsorptionskapazität der Oberfläche ausgeschöpft ist, wird das adsorbierte Material als Teil der Regeneration des Adsorptionsmittels desorbiert.
Selenadsorption	Bei diesem Prozess werden selenbeschichtete Kugeln in einem Festbett verwendet. Rotes amorphes Selen reagiert mit dem im Gas enthaltenen Quecksilber und bildet HgSe. Anschließend wird eine Regeneration des Selen im Filter durchgeführt.

11.10.1.5 VOC-, PAK- und PCDD/F-Emissionen

Technik	Beschreibung
Nachverbrennung oder Thermische Nachverbrennung (TNV)	Verbrennungssystem, in dem der im Abgasstrom enthaltene Schadstoff bei einer kontrollierten Umgebungstemperatur mit Sauerstoff reagiert, so dass es zu einer Oxidationsreaktion kommt.
Regenerative Nachverbrennung (RNV bzw. RTO)	Verbrennungssystem, das in einem regenerativen Prozess die thermische Energie im Gas und in den Kohlenstoffverbindungen mittels feuerfester Betten nutzt. Für die Reinigung der Betten ist ein Verteilersystem erforderlich, um die Richtung des Gasstroms zu ändern. Dieses System wird auch als regenerativer Nachverbrennung bezeichnet.
Katalytische Nachverbrennungsanlage (KNV bzw. CTO)	Verbrennungssystem, in dem die Zersetzung bei niedrigeren Temperaturen auf einer Metallkatalysator-Oberfläche (üblicherweise zwischen 350 °C und 400 °C) erfolgt. Dieses System wird auch als katalytischer Nachverbrennung bezeichnet.

Biofilter	Ein Biofilter besteht aus einem Bett mit organischem oder inertem Material, in dem die in den Abgasströmen enthaltenen Schadstoffe von Mikroorganismen biologisch oxidiert werden.
Biowäscher	Ein Biowäscher kombiniert die Gaswäsche per Nasswäscher (Absorption) mit dem biologischen Abbau; dabei enthält die Waschflüssigkeit eine Population von Mikroorganismen, die die schädlichen Gaskomponenten oxidieren.
Auswahl und Zuführung der Rohstoffe entsprechend der Ofenart und angewandter Emissionsminderungstechnik	Die Rohstoffe werden so ausgewählt, dass der Ofen und das zur Erzielung der erforderlichen Minderungsleistung eingesetzte Emissionsminderungssystem eine hinreichende Behandlung der im Beschickungsgut enthaltenen Verunreinigungen erreichen können.
Optimierung der Verbrennungsbedingungen zur Verminderung der Emissionen organischer Verbindungen	Die Oxidation des organischen Kohlenstoffs einschließlich PCDD/F wird durch eine gute Vermischung von Luft oder Sauerstoff und dem Kohlenstoffanteil sowie durch die Steuerung der Gastemperatur und der Verweildauer bei hohen Temperaturen erreicht. Die Optimierung kann auch den Einsatz von angereicherter Luft oder reinem Sauerstoff umfassen.
Bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen: Verwendung von Beschickungssystemen für geringe Rohstoffzufuhren	Bei halbgeschlossenen Öfen werden die Rohstoffe in kleinen Portionen zugeführt, um die Ofenabkühlung während der Beschickung zu verringern. So kann eine höhere Gastemperatur gehalten werden, und Neubildung von PCDD/F wird vermieden.
Internes Brennersystem	Das Abgas wird durch die Brennerflamme geführt, und der organische Kohlenstoff wird mit Sauerstoff in CO ₂ umgewandelt.
Vermeidung von Abgassystemen mit hoher Staubanhäufung bei Temperaturen > 250 °C	Das Vorhandensein von Staub bei Temperaturen von über 250 °C begünstigt die Bildung von PCDD/F durch <i>De-novo</i> -Synthese.
Injektion eines Adsorptionsmittels in Kombination mit einem effizienten Stauberfassungssystem	Da PCDD/F an Staub adsorbiert werden können, lassen sich Emissionen durch ein effizientes Staubfiltrationssystem vermindern. Der Einsatz eines speziellen Adsorptionsmittels begünstigt diesen Prozess und reduziert die PCDD/F-Emissionen.
Schnelles Quenchen	Eine <i>De-novo</i> -Synthese von PCDD/F wird durch eine rasche Gasabkühlung von 400 °C auf 200 °C vermieden.

11.10.2 Emissionen in Wasser

Technik	Beschreibung
Chemische Fällung	Umwandlung gelöster Schadstoffe in eine unlösliche Verbindung durch Zugabe chemischer Fällungsmittel. Die gebildeten festen Niederschläge werden anschließend durch Sedimentation, Flotation oder Filtration abgeschieden. Falls erforderlich, kann eine Ultrafiltration oder Umkehrosmose nachgeschaltet werden. Typische für die Metallausfällung eingesetzte Chemikalien sind Kalk, Natriumhydroxid und Natriumsulfid.
Sedimentation	Abscheidung von Schwebeteilchen und Schwebstoffen durch schwerkraftbedingtes Absetzen.
Flotation	Trennung fester oder flüssiger Partikel aus dem Abwasser durch Anlagerung an kleine Gasblasen (üblicherweise Luftblasen). Die Partikel steigen nach oben, sammeln sich an der Wasseroberfläche an und werden mithilfe von Skimmern abgeschöpft.
Filtration	Trennung fester Stoffe aus dem Abwasser durch Passieren eines porösen Mediums. Sand ist das am häufigsten eingesetzte Filtermedium.
Ultrafiltration	Filtrationsprozess, bei dem Membranen mit Porengrößen von etwa 10 µm als Filtermedium eingesetzt werden.
Aktivkohlefiltration	Filtrationsprozess, bei dem Aktivkohle als Filtermedium eingesetzt wird.
Umkehrosmose	Membranverfahren, bei dem ein Druckunterschied zwischen den durch die Membran getrennten Kompartimenten dazu führt, dass Wasser aus der stärker konzentrierten Lösung in die weniger konzentrierte fließt.

11.10.3 Andere

Technik	Beschreibung
Tropfenabscheider	Tropfenabscheider sind Filtereinrichtungen, die mitgerissene Flüssigkeitströpfchen aus einem Gasstrom entfernen. Sie bestehen aus einem Gewebe aus Metall- oder Kunststoffdraht mit einer hochspezifischen Oberfläche. Die im Gasstrom vorhandenen kleinen Tröpfchen treffen durch ihre Eigendynamik auf dem Draht auf und bilden dort größere Tropfen.
Zentrifugalsystem	Zentrifugalsysteme nutzen die Masseträgheit, um mithilfe der Zentrifugalkraft Tröpfchen aus Abgasströmen zu entfernen.
Verstärktes Absaugsystem (Boosted Suction System)	Systeme, die darauf ausgelegt sind, die Leistung des Absaugebläses je nach Abgasquellen anzupassen, die sich während der Beschickungs-, Schmelz- und Abstichprozesse ändern. Zudem erfolgt eine automatische Steuerung der Brennerleistung, um während der Abläufe bei geöffneter Tür einen Mindest-Gasstrom zu gewährleisten.
Zentrifugierung von Metallspänen	Zentrifugierung ist ein mechanisches Verfahren zur Trennung des Öls von den Metallspänen. Zur Beschleunigung des Sedimentationsprozesses wird eine Zentrifugalkraft auf die Metallspäne ausgeübt, und das Öl wird abgeschieden.
Trocknung von Metallspänen	Der Trocknungsprozess für Metallspäne nutzt eine indirekt beheizte Drehtrommel. Die Ölentfernung erfolgt über einen Pyrolyseprozess bei einer Temperatur zwischen 300 °C und 400 °C.
Abgedichtete Ofentür oder Ofentürabdichtung	Die Ofentür ist auf wirksame Abdichtung ausgelegt, um diffuse Emissionen zu vermeiden und den Überdruck im Ofen während der Schmelz-/Einschmelzstufe aufrechtzuerhalten.

12 CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK

The key milestones of the review process are summarised in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1: Key milestones of the review process of the BREF for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries

Key milestone	Date
Reactivation of the TWG	12 December 2006
Call for wishes	23 February 2007
Kick-off meeting	24–26 September 2007
Collection of information	31 March 2008
First draft (D1) of revised NFM BREF	14 November 2008
End of commenting period on first draft (approximately 1800 comments)	26 January 2009
Second draft of revised NFM BREF (D2)	29 July 2009
End of commenting period (approximately 1240 comments)	15 October 2009
New way forward (restructuring of the BREF with subgroups and new data collection)	26 May 2011
Third draft of revised NFM BREF (D3)	28 February 2013
End of commenting period (approximately 2700 comments)	26 April 2013
Final TWG meeting	17–21 March 2014

During the review process, around 40 site visits in nine EU Member States were carried out, comprising primary and secondary copper production, primary and secondary aluminium production and salt slag recycling, primary and secondary lead production, primary and secondary zinc production (Waelz kiln), cobalt production, ferro-alloys production, nickel production and carbon and graphite production.

Sources of information and information gaps

During the review process, several hundred documents were shared by the TWG via the Commission's BAT information system (BATIS). These included approximately 100 questionnaires containing plant-specific data on emissions to air and water. Additional data on these emissions were also submitted in aggregate form without using the agreed questionnaire template. Major contributors of information were EAA, ECI, ILA, IZA, EPMF, Euroalliages, The Nickel Institute, ECGA, several EU Member States (Austria, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom) and Norway.

The review of the NFM BREF was started under the IPPC Directive (96/61/EC replaced by 2008/1/EC). In 2011, after the publication of the Industrial Emissions Directive (IED) (2010/75/EU), it was agreed that the information available was generally not sufficient to derive sound BAT conclusions with the level of detail required under the new IED regime, in particular regarding the description and applicability of techniques. Also, given the increased importance of the BAT-associated emission levels under the IED regime, it was considered that the data situation on which they are based needed to be improved.

Also, TWG subgroups were created in order to improve the data situation and to restructure the 'Techniques to consider in the determination of BAT' sections. This was not the case for the production of mercury, refractory metals and alkali and alkaline earth metals, due to the fact that

there are very few plants in operation in the EU-28. The information available for the refractory metals and alkali and alkaline earth metals production is now contained in a self-standing document, which is available on the EIPPCB website. The documents provided by the TWG subgroups and all the other documents submitted during the NFM BREF review process were assessed by the EIPPCB. As a result, approximately 315 documents, including also the references used for the drafting of the original NFM BREF (2001) that are still useful, are referenced in the revised BREF (see the REFERENCES chapter).

The production of sulphuric acid from non-ferrous metals installations is within the scope of the LVIC-AAF BREF. At the NFM kick-off TWG meeting it was decided:

- that techniques applied by NFM industries will cross-reference the LVIC-AAF BREF and build on information already there;
- to gather data from well-performing sulphuric acid production plants in NFM installations that may provide additional information for the review of LVIC-AAF BREF.

The information on the techniques applied by NFM industries to produce sulphuric acid was provided by the TWG members. In order to provide additional information for the review of the LVIC-AAF BREF, the techniques that are not currently described in the LVIC-AAF BREF are described mainly in Chapters 2, 3, 5 and 6 of this document. For the sake of consistency and to avoid overlaps, the NFM TWG decided, during the NFM final TWG meeting, to remove the production of sulphuric acid from the scope of the NFM BREF. The Czech Republic, Denmark, Spain, Finland, Poland, Sweden, Eurometaux and Orgalime would have preferred to keep the production of sulphuric acid within the scope of the NFM BREF because they believe that this would have better taken into account the peculiarity of the sulphuric acid produced by NFM installations.

Correction to the LVIC-AAF BREF adopted in 2007

During the final TWG meeting, it was acknowledged that in Table 4.24 '*Conversion rates and SO₂ emission levels associated with BAT*' in the LVIC-AAF BREF (adopted in 2007), in the 'Other double contact/double absorption plants' row, the upper end of the BAT-AEL range for SO₂ emissions from the production of sulphuric acid from non-ferrous metals production in a double contact/double absorption plant needs to be corrected. This value should be 770 mg/Nm³ (as a daily average) instead of 680 mg/Nm³ (as a daily average).

Degree of consensus reached during the information exchange

A total of 206 BAT conclusions have been set. At the final TWG meeting in March 2014, a high degree of consensus was reached on most of these BAT conclusions. However, 18 dissenting views were expressed (see Table 12.2).

Table 12.2: Split views

BAT conclusion	View expressed by	Split view
BAT 11 Tabelle 11.1	Cefic, Eurometaux	A dissenting view was expressed by Eurometaux, supported by Cefic, proposing to change footnote (2) in Tabelle 11.1, as follows: 'The lower end of the range can be achieved by a combination of techniques except for processes using raw materials with varying Hg content (e.g. Waelz kilns).'
BAT 17 Tabelle 11.2	Austria, Germany, EEB	A dissenting view was expressed by Austria, Germany EEB, proposing to delete footnote (2) from Tabelle 11.2
	Cefic, Eurometaux, Euromines	A dissenting view was expressed by Eurometaux, Euromines and Cefic, who consider that the BAT-AEL for mercury emissions to water from copper production should be ≤ 0.05 mg/l
Horizontal	Austria, Finland, Germany, The Netherlands, Sweden, EEB	A dissenting view was expressed by Austria, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden and EEB, who would have preferred to set a BAT-AEL for copper, lead, arsenic and cadmium emissions to air instead of mentioning them with indicative values in footnotes related to the BAT-AEL for dust
BVT 48 Tabelle 11.5	Poland, Spain, Cefic, Euroalliages, Eurometaux, Euromines	Eurometaux, supported by Poland, Spain, Euromines, Euroalliages and Cefic, expressed a dissenting view that the BAT-AEL for emissions of PCDD/F to air for existing shaft furnaces producing secondary copper should be expressed as a range, 0.1–0.4 ng I-TEQ/Nm ³
BVT 50 Tabelle 11.6	Eurometaux, Euromines	Eurometaux, supported by Euromines, expressed a dissenting view that the upper level of the BAT-AEL range for SO ₂ emissions to air from secondary copper production should be set at 450 mg/Nm ³
BAT 60	Germany, EEB	Germany, supported by EEB, expressed a dissenting view that a BAT-AEL for SO ₂ emissions to air from a baking plant in an anode production plant integrated in a primary aluminium smelter should be set and expressed as a range, 35–150 mg/Nm ³
BVT 67 Tabelle 11.11	Spain, Eurometaux, Euromines	Eurometaux, supported by Spain and Euromines, expressed a dissenting view that the levels of the BAT-AEL range for dust emissions to air from Söderberg cells should be 5–10 mg/Nm ³
BVT 68 Tabelle 11.13	Germany, EEB	Germany and EEB expressed a dissenting view that the upper end of the dust BAT-AEL range from melting and molten metal treatment and casting in primary aluminium production should be set at 5 mg/Nm ³
BVT 69, Tabelle 11.14	United Kingdom	The United Kingdom expressed a dissenting view that the description of BVT 69(a) should be amended by adding the following sentence: 'However, it is considered that global trends in the cost and in the availability of low S anodes may lead to a situation where installations applying this technique will have to rely on higher sulphur content anodes up to 2 % as a yearly average.' Consequently, they also expressed a dissenting view that the upper end of the BAT-AEL range for SO ₂ emissions to air from the electrolytic cells should be 20 kg/t Al
	France, Spain, Eurometaux, Euromines	Eurometaux, supported by France, Spain and Euromines, expressed a dissenting view that, in the description of BVT 69(a), the sulphur content in the anode should be 2.5 % and, in the same description, the following sentence should be added: 'A management plan ensures control of the raw materials' S content and allows anticipation of the SO ₂ emissions, to take into account local environmental conditions.' Consequently, they also expressed a dissenting view that the upper end of the BAT-AEL range for SO ₂ emissions to air from the electrolytic cells should be 25 kg/t Al

BVT 82 Tabelle 11.17	Austria, Germany, EEB	Austria, Germany and EEB expressed a dissenting view that footnote ⁽²⁾ on the dust emissions from the remelting of secondary aluminium production should be deleted
BVT 122 Tabelle 11.34	Germany, Netherlands, EEB	Germany, the Netherlands and EEB expressed a dissenting view that the upper level of the dust BAT-AEL range from the melting of metallic and mixed metallic/oxidic streams, and from the slag fuming furnace and the Waelz kiln should be lower than 5 mg/Nm ³
BVT 156 Tabelle 11.46	Germany, Netherlands, EEB	Germany, the Netherlands and EEB expressed a dissenting view that footnote ⁽²⁾ in Tabelle 11.46 should be deleted
BVT 157	Spain, Eurometaux, Euroalliages	Spain and Euroalliages, supported by Eurometaux, expressed a dissenting view that wet scrubbers (as a stand-alone technique) should be considered BAT to reduce dust and metal emissions from closed furnaces in ferro-alloy production for existing plants where the applicability of ESPs or bag filters is limited by safety and configuration constraints
BVT 157 Tabelle 11.46	Spain, Euroalliages	Spain and Euroalliages expressed a dissenting view that a footnote should be added in Tabelle 11.46, stating that for existing plants the upper end of the BAT-AEL range can be up to 20 mg/Nm ³ where, due to safety and space constraints, a bag filter or an ESP cannot be used
BVT 178 Tabelle 11.51	France, ECGA, Eurometaux	France and ECGA, supported by Eurometaux, expressed a dissenting view that a footnote should be added in Tabelle 11.51, stating that the upper end of the range may be up to 10 mg/Nm ³ during temporary operations such as material handling and the loading and unloading of packing materials
BAT 180 Tabelle 11.53	Austria, Germany, EEB	Austria, Germany and the European Environmental Bureau (EEB) expressed a dissenting view that footnote ⁽⁴⁾ in Tabelle 11.53 should be deleted

Consultation of the Forum and subsequent formal adoption procedure of the BAT Conclusions

In accordance with Article 13(3) of the Directive, the Forum gave its opinion on the draft Best Available Techniques (BAT) reference document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries at its meeting of 4 December 2014:

1. The Forum welcomed the draft Best Available Techniques (BAT) reference document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries as presented by the Commission.
2. The Forum acknowledged the discussions held at its meeting of 4 December 2014 and agreed that the changes to the draft Best Available Techniques (BAT) reference document for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries, as proposed in Annex A, should be included in the final document.
3. The Forum reaffirmed the comments in Annex B as representing the views of certain members of the forum but on which no consensus existed within the forum to include them in the final document.

Subsequently, the Commission took the opinion of the IED Article 13 Forum into account when preparing the draft Commission Implementing Decision establishing best available techniques (BAT) conclusions for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries. The IED Article 75 Committee, at its meeting of 3 December 2015, gave a positive opinion on this draft Commission Implementing Decision.

Subsequently, the Commission Implementing Decision (EU) 2016/1032 establishing best available techniques (BAT) conclusions for the Non-Ferrous Metals Industries was adopted on 13 June 2016 and published in the Official Journal of the European Union (OJ L 174, 30.6.2016, p. 32)

Recommendations for future work

The information exchange revealed a number of issues on which further information should be collected during the next review of the NFM BREF. The recommendations for the next review include the following:

- Gather data on the emissions to air and water with the relevant reference conditions including, for the emissions to air, the oxygen content.
- Gather information on the production of other non-ferrous metals in the EU-28 not specifically addressed in this BREF (e.g. tungsten production). In particular, in the next NFM BREF, a new chapter dedicated to the production of refractory metals may be added, including a section on 'Techniques to consider in the determination of BAT'.
- It may be valuable to collect specific data and information including the oxygen content of the emission, the raw materials used, the production and the specific loads and flow rates (mass of pollutant released per mass of product manufactured or mass of raw material used and emission flow rate per mass of product manufactured or mass of raw material used) in order to evaluate the performance of the process-integrated techniques.
- Gather plant-specific information on the process-integrated and end-of-pipe techniques applied to prevent or reduce metal emissions to air from the various NFM sectors and on the emissions of metals achieved with those techniques with a view to revisiting the possibility to set BAT-AELs for metal emissions to air.
- Gather data on NO_x emissions to air in loads and in concentrations and other relevant contextual information, such as the applicability of the techniques in non-ferrous metal production, in order to consider setting, during the next review of the NFM BREF, sound BAT-AELs. The emissions data should be collected with the relevant reference conditions including the oxygen content in the flue-gas.
- Gather information on the arsenic content of the copper-bearing input materials of the copper production plants and the related emissions to water.
- Gather plant-specific information on the emissions arising from the cooling of matte and on the overall energy efficiency in plants using a flash converting furnace, also in comparison with the energy saved by the other type of converters when melting copper scrap.
- Gather data on dust emissions from anode casting in copper production with all the necessary contextual information (e.g. techniques used, monitoring applied, and characteristics of the dust, in particular the metal content).
- Gather data on cross-media effects associated with the use of a regenerative afterburner in copper production.
- Gather information about the chlorine content in the input to primary copper smelters.
- Gather data on channelled H₂SO₄ emissions to air from the electrowinning cell, the electrorefining cell, the washing chamber of the cathode stripping machine and the anode scrap washing machine in primary and secondary copper production.
- Gather plant-specific data on emissions to water from primary and secondary aluminium production.
- Gather plant-specific SO₂ data on emissions to air from baking furnaces in primary aluminium production.
- Gather plant-specific data on collection efficiencies, both in prebake and Söderberg plants in primary aluminium production.
- Gather information on the market availability of low-sulphur coke (less than 1.5 %) and specific data on the percentage of sulphur content in the anodes used by the primary aluminium industry.
- Gather plant-specific information on the costs of installing bag filters in casthouses integrated with primary aluminium smelters.

- Gather information on the cross-media effects associated with the reuse of heat and its influence on PCDD/F emissions, especially in lead and tin production.
- Gather information on the emissions to air of SbH_3 from the purification stage in zinc production.
- Gather additional information and data on the emissions of SO_2 from pyrometallurgical zinc production, including from outside Europe.
- Gather data on PCDD/F emissions from Waelz kilns in zinc production.
- Gather data on the performance of peroxide scrubbers in terms of SO_2 emissions to air in precious metals production.
- Gather information on emissions of Cl_2 to air from the hydrometallurgical operation in precious metals production and on the techniques used to reduce these emissions together with information related to the effects on the abatement of other pollutants (e.g. NO_x , SO_2).
- Gather information on the emissions to air from the predrying and calcination of lateritic ores in ferro-alloys production.
- Gather information on the economic viability of using a bag filter or a wet scrubber in combination with an ESP to reduce the dust emissions from closed furnaces in ferro-alloys production.
- Gather information and data on PAH (BaP) and TVOC emissions from the degreasing of titanium swarf and other relevant sources in ferro-alloy production.
- Gather information on Ni and Cl_2 emissions from atmospheric and pressure leaching in nickel production.
- Gather information and data on NH_3 emissions to air from nickel powder and briquette production.
- Gather data on emissions and relevant contextual information for carbon and graphite production.
- It may be useful to collect specific information on the level of accuracy and representativeness of the lower level of dust emissions measured in NFM installations.
- It may also be useful to collect specific information on the accuracy and representativeness of the PCDD/F emissions measured in NFM installations.

Suggested topics for future R&D work

The Commission is launching and supporting, through its Research and Technological Development programmes, a series of projects dealing with clean technologies, emerging effluent treatment and recycling technologies and management strategies. Potentially, these projects could provide a useful contribution to future BREF reviews. Readers are therefore invited to inform the European IPPC Bureau of any research results which are relevant to the scope of this document (see also the fifth section of the Preface of this document).

13 ANNEXES

13.1 Metal production processes

There are several processes or combinations of processes that are used to produce and melt metals. Pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical processes are both described in this section. The order in which they appear is not significant and does not indicate a ranking. The techniques described in the metal-specific chapters (3 to 10) give more details of the pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical processes, the metals that they are used for and the specific advantages and disadvantages in those applications.

Furnaces are used for a variety of purposes in this industry such as roasting or calcining raw materials, melting and refining metals and for smelting ores and concentrates.

The same type of furnace or process may be used for a variety of purposes and it is therefore intended to give an overview of the various applications [21, COM 1991], [25, OSPARCOM 1996], [34, UNECE 1995].

An important aspect in the choice of process is the relationship with the collection of fumes and gases; sealed, semi-closed and open processes are encountered. The design of the fume collection system is strongly influenced by geometry, which in some instances can make fume collection difficult. The use of transfer systems that require collection hoods to be removed from a furnace is an illustration of this design aspect.

Computerised fluid dynamics (CFD) studies and tracers have been used to model the flow of furnace gases and also the movement of fused electrolytes [233, COM 2008] so that diffuse emissions can be prevented or minimised. The use of these techniques has resulted in optimised gas collection systems (see Section 2.12.4.3).

The other important factor in the applicability of a particular process type is the type and variability of the raw material used; some processes allow a range of materials to be used but others need a defined type of material. Modifications to furnace' or electrolyte-charging systems to give small, even additions of raw materials have been developed in parallel and also contribute to the prevention of diffuse emissions [233, COM 2008]. These issues are considered further in the individual metal production chapters (3 to 10). The operation and maintenance of these systems are also critical. The types of furnaces likely to be encountered are summarised in Table 13.1.

Table 13.1: Typical furnace applications

Metal	Type of furnace likely to be encountered	Comment
Copper	Flash smelting furnace Bath smelting furnace Electric furnace Rotary furnace or converter Blast and shaft furnaces Induction furnace Reverberatory furnace (also hearth and chamber furnaces)	A variety of applications depending on the raw material and process stage
Aluminium	Molten electrolyte cells Reverberatory (and closed well) furnace Rotary, tilting rotary and shaft furnaces Induction furnace	Molten electrolyte cells only for primary production processes
Lead	Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF) Doerschel (rotating/rocking) furnace Flash furnace (Kivcet) Bath furnace (QSL, Ausmelt/ISASMELT) Short rotary or tilting rotary furnace Reverberatory furnace Heated kettle Sinter machine Blast furnace Electric furnace TBRC (Kaldo)	A shaking ladle is used to produce tin from lead-tin alloys
Zinc	ISF and New Jersey distillation Fluidised bed roaster and sinter machine Induction and crucible furnaces Slag fuming furnaces and Waelz kiln	Temperature control of melting is vital
Precious metals	Electric furnace Blast furnace TBRC (Kaldo) Crucible furnace Rotary and static incinerator Cupel and BBOC Vacuum distillation	A variety of applications depending on the raw material and process stage
Refractory metals	Pusher furnace Band furnace Batch furnace Rotary furnace Electron beam furnace Vacuum induction furnace Herreshoff furnace	Pusher, band, batch and rotary furnaces are used for powder production. The electron beam furnace is used for ingot smelting. The Herreshoff furnace is only used for Mo concentrate roasting.
Ferro-alloys	Blast furnace Electric and submerged arc furnaces and electric furnace Reaction crucible Metallothermic reactor Induction furnace	The electric arc furnace is used as an open, semi-closed and closed furnace. The induction furnace is also used for remelting.
Alkali metals	Molten electrolyte cells Electric furnace, induction furnace	Induction furnaces are mostly used for remelting
Nickel and cobalt	Flash smelting furnace Bath smelting furnace Electric furnace, reverberatory furnace Converter Fluidised bed roaster Rotary kilns and furnace Induction furnace	A variety of applications depending on the raw material and process stage
Carbon and graphite	Pit furnace and vacuum furnace Electric furnace	

13.1.1 Furnaces for roasting and calcining

13.1.1.1 Rotary kilns

Rotary kilns use the same arrangement as a rotary furnace but operate without melting the charge as shown in Figure 13.1.

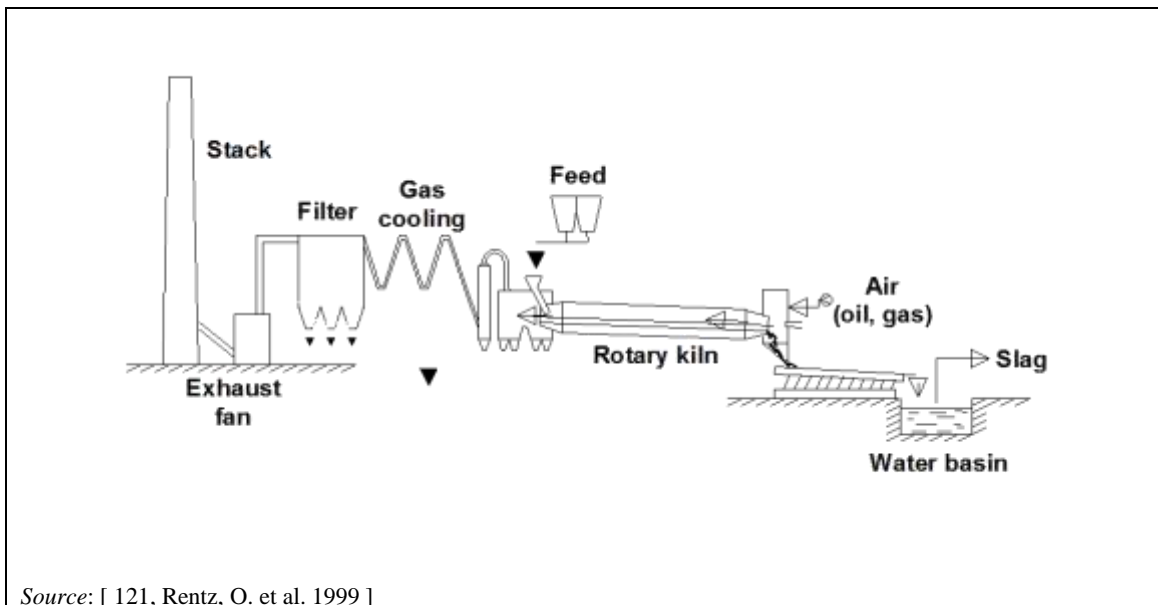


Figure 13.1: Rotary kiln

These kilns are used for a variety of fuming and calcining processes. Principal examples are the production of zinc oxide by fuming in a Waelz kiln; the production of calcine for the ferro-nickel process; the calcination of aluminium hydroxide and the calcination of magnesium hydroxide to a light burnt magnesium oxide for electrolytic magnesium production. Other applications are the pretreatment of a variety of raw materials at high temperatures, the incineration of photographic film and paper and the drying of concentrates and blends of material at lower temperatures.

13.1.1.2 Fluidised bed reactors

These furnaces are especially suitable when good temperature control is required, for example for the roasting of copper, nickel, cobalt and/or zinc sulphidic concentrates and the dead roasting of zinc concentrates and the partial roasting of copper concentrates as well as for Al_2O_3 calcining.

Combustion air is blown through tuyères in a grid at the bottom of the furnace and through the fluidised bed of material being roasted on the grid. (See Figure 13.2.)

The concentrate is fed onto the top of the bed. The oxygen reacts with the sulphides in the bed to produce sulphur dioxide (called the calcine). SO_2 gas is formed at about 900 °C to 1000 °C.

Part of the calcine is removed mechanically from the furnace but some is carried over in the gas stream and is removed in a waste heat boiler, cyclones or an ESP. The roasting removes some minor impurities like chlorine, fluorine, selenium and mercury into the gas phase.

The heat generated in the roasting is recovered as steam by cooling coils in the bed and in the waste heat boiler. Utilisation of the steam may vary somewhat depending on the needs at the plant site, but part of it is always used for heating in the process.

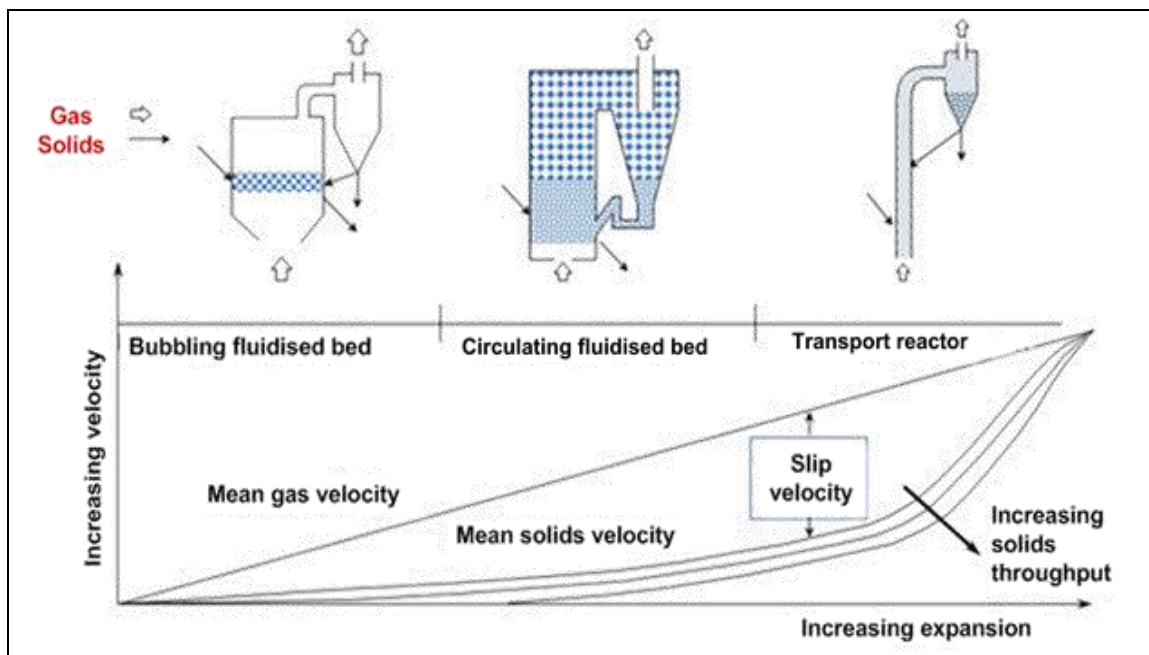


Figure 13.2: Fluidised bed reactors

13.1.1.3 Multiple hearth or Herreshoff furnace

The multiple hearth or Herreshoff furnace consists of a tower that contains 8 to 16 annular-shaped refractory brick hearths arranged vertically and enclosed in a cylindrical, refractory-lined steel shell. Material is usually fed to the outside of the top hearth of the furnace and is moved to the centre of this hearth by rabble arms where it falls to the centre of the second hearth. The material flow in the second hearth is from the centre outwards where it falls to the outside of the third hearth. This zigzag flow is repeated until the roasted material is discharged. The rabble arms are attached to a central, vertical rotating tube which is air-cooled. Gas or oil burners are provided at various points in the furnace depending on the combustion characteristics of the material. The cooling air that is used to cool the central tube is normally used as preheated combustion air for the furnace.

The furnace is shown in Figure 13.3.

This furnace is used to roast sulphidic ores or to produce metal directly or an oxide such as molybdenum oxide. Vaporised rhenium that is liberated in the roasting process of molybdenite can be recovered from the roaster off-gas by using a wet scrubbing system together with a subsequent rhenium recovery plant.

The multiple hearth furnace is also used to regenerate activated carbon. It is also reported to be used to treat steelmaking dust, leaching residues and coating sludges to recover zinc as an alternative to the Waelz process [227, IZA Report 2008]. It is reported to be used to produce steel and other metals from the residues in conjunction with a reduction furnace [257, Paul Wurth 2008].

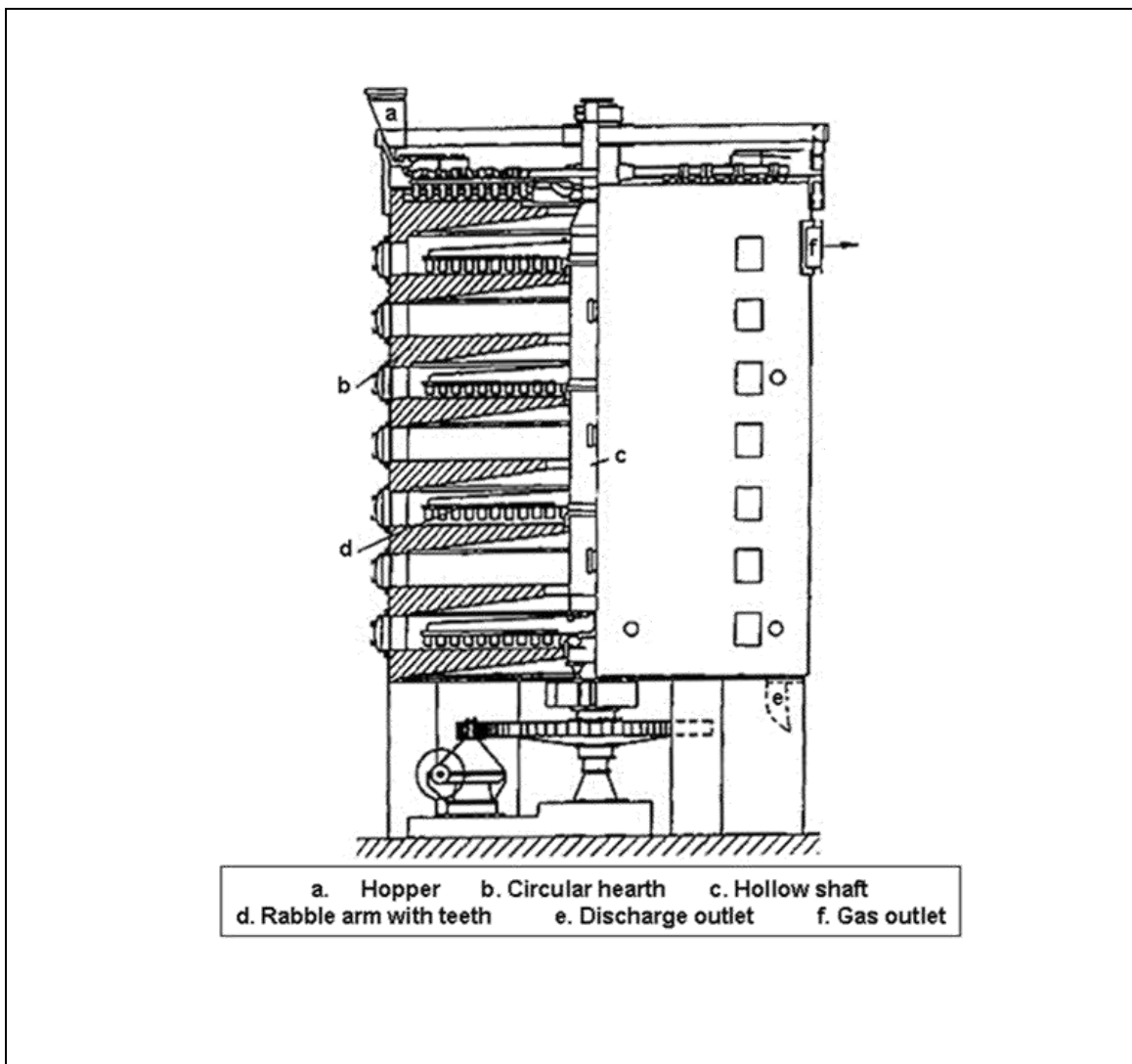


Figure 13.3: The Herreshoff or multiple hearth furnace

13.1.1.4 Sintering furnaces

The raw materials for the sintering plant are concentrates, ore fines, flue-dusts and other secondary material. In the sintering plant, the material is first agglomerated to the required extent and may be pelletised. The agglomerated material is fed to the sintering furnace in a layer or in carriers, heated gases are passed up (updraught) or down (downdraught) through the bed or travelling grate sinter machine.

In the steel belt sintering machine, a multi-compartment oven is used through which the green agglomerate is carried on a perforated steel conveyor belt. The agglomerate is dried in the drying compartment by circulating gas from the last cooling compartment. In the preheating compartment, the temperature of the agglomerate is increased so that the material is calcined and the carbon in the bed is ignited. Heating gas is taken from the second cooling compartment. In the sintering compartment, the sintering temperature is achieved. Heating gas, in addition to the energy from the burning of carbon and oxidation of iron, is taken from the first cooling compartment.

The front-end compartments are downdraught and cooling air is blown through the bed to the three cooling compartments. If additional energy is required to control the temperature profile in the compartments, CO gas from the smelting process or natural gas is burnt in the preheating and sintering compartments. Part of the product sinter or pellets is used as the bottom layer on

the steel belt to protect it from excessively high temperatures. The exhaust gases are cleaned in cascade scrubbers and/or fabric filters. Dusts are recycled back to the agglomeration. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.4.

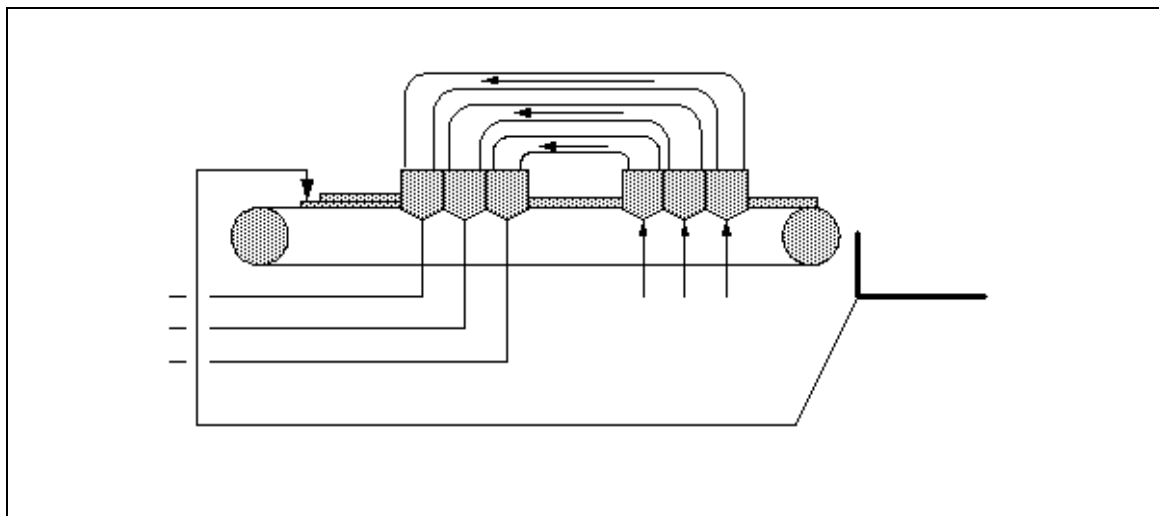


Figure 13.4: Steel belt sintering furnace

Sintering furnaces are applied to the sintering of a variety of ores, dusts and sludges. The steel belt sintering furnace is used for chromite pellets, manganese ore and niobium concentrate but may have other applications.

13.1.2 Smelting furnaces

Smelting involves the use or production of a lot of heat and much of this heat is recovered from the off-gases in waste heat boilers. Heat within a furnace, however, should be controlled to allow effective smelting and, at the same time, to protect the furnace. Cooling systems are used to protect the furnaces and to extend the life of the refractories. Waterfalls can be used to cool the outer shell or dedicated cooling elements can be used to cool the linings. Long campaigns are enjoyed when well-designed furnace cooling is employed.

Cooling is also beneficial at the throat of a furnace to prevent the build-up of slag and other materials that prevent effective sealing of off-gas collection hoods. Developments have provided reliable and safe cooling systems in these sensitive areas.

13.1.2.1 Reverberatory, hearth or closed well furnaces

The reverberatory furnace is also known as the hearth or closed well furnace. It is used for smelting concentrates and secondary material. Two general types exist, a simple bath furnace for the smelting of calcine or concentrates and a reverberatory hearth furnace for melting or refining. Furnaces can sometimes be tilted to pour or blow metal. Tuyères can be used for the injection of treatment gases or for the addition of fine material.

The furnace is constructed in a number of configurations depending on the particular metal and application. Variations include the provision of sloping hearths and side wells for specific melting purposes; and tuyères and lances for the addition of gases.

Slag is usually removed by tapping.

When sulphidic ores are smelted in a reverberatory furnace, the sulphur dioxide concentrations are normally low due to the high volume of combustion gases and the low rate of sulphur elimination in the furnace. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.5.

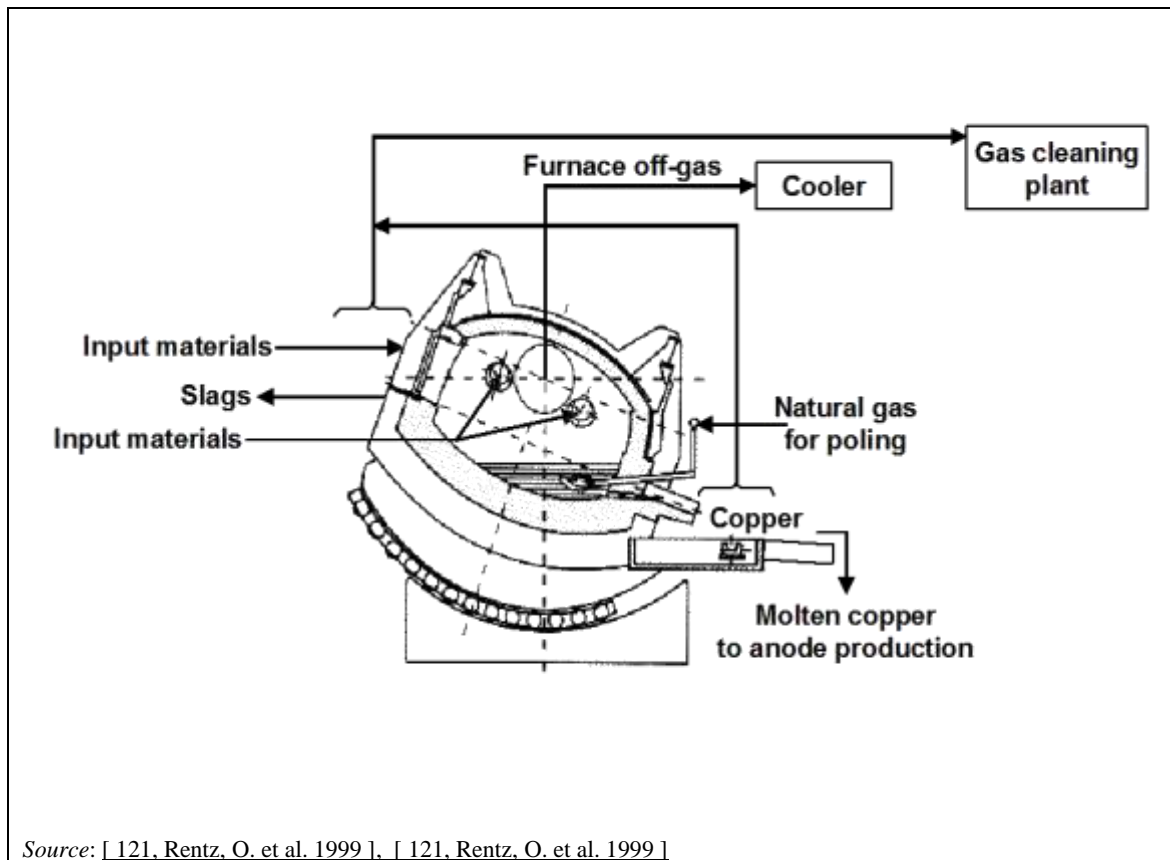


Figure 13.5: An example of a tilting reverberatory hearth furnace used for secondary materials

These furnaces are used for smelting a variety of primary and secondary raw materials and for fire refining. The use of a reverberatory (closed well) furnace for melting and recovering aluminium is described further below.

13.1.2.2 Blast furnaces (and the Imperial Smelting Furnace)

These are shaft furnaces and use a heated air blast from tuyères in the lower part of the furnace to burn coke that is mixed with the furnace charge of metal oxide or secondary material and fluxing agents. Materials are often briquetted before charging. The combustion of a portion of the coke raises the furnace temperature and the remainder produces CO, which, along with hydrogen produced by the water gas reaction, reduces the metal oxides to metal. The reaction produces a gas that is rich in carbon monoxide. This can be collected, cleaned and burnt to preheat the blast air or may be burnt off in a separate afterburner or in an oxygen-rich part of the furnace. In some instances, raw materials such as zinc oxide dusts are fed via the tuyères.

The metal collects on a hearth or crucible at the bottom of the furnace and may be tapped continuously or on a batch basis. When tapped batch-wise, the slag floats on top of the metal and the metal is tapped from a separate taphole. Fume extraction and abatement is used during the tapping process.

The furnace shell is normally water-cooled either over its entire height or in the lower part. The blast furnace can also be called a water jacket furnace. There are two variations of the blast

furnace depending on the feeding method and the operating temperature used to melt the metal. Furnaces can be:

- hot top, where the charge material is fed via a bell or a conveyor via a transfer lock;
- cold top, where the furnace is charged from a hopper and the feedstock provides the top seal itself.

The furnaces are shown in Figure 13.6 and Figure 13.7.

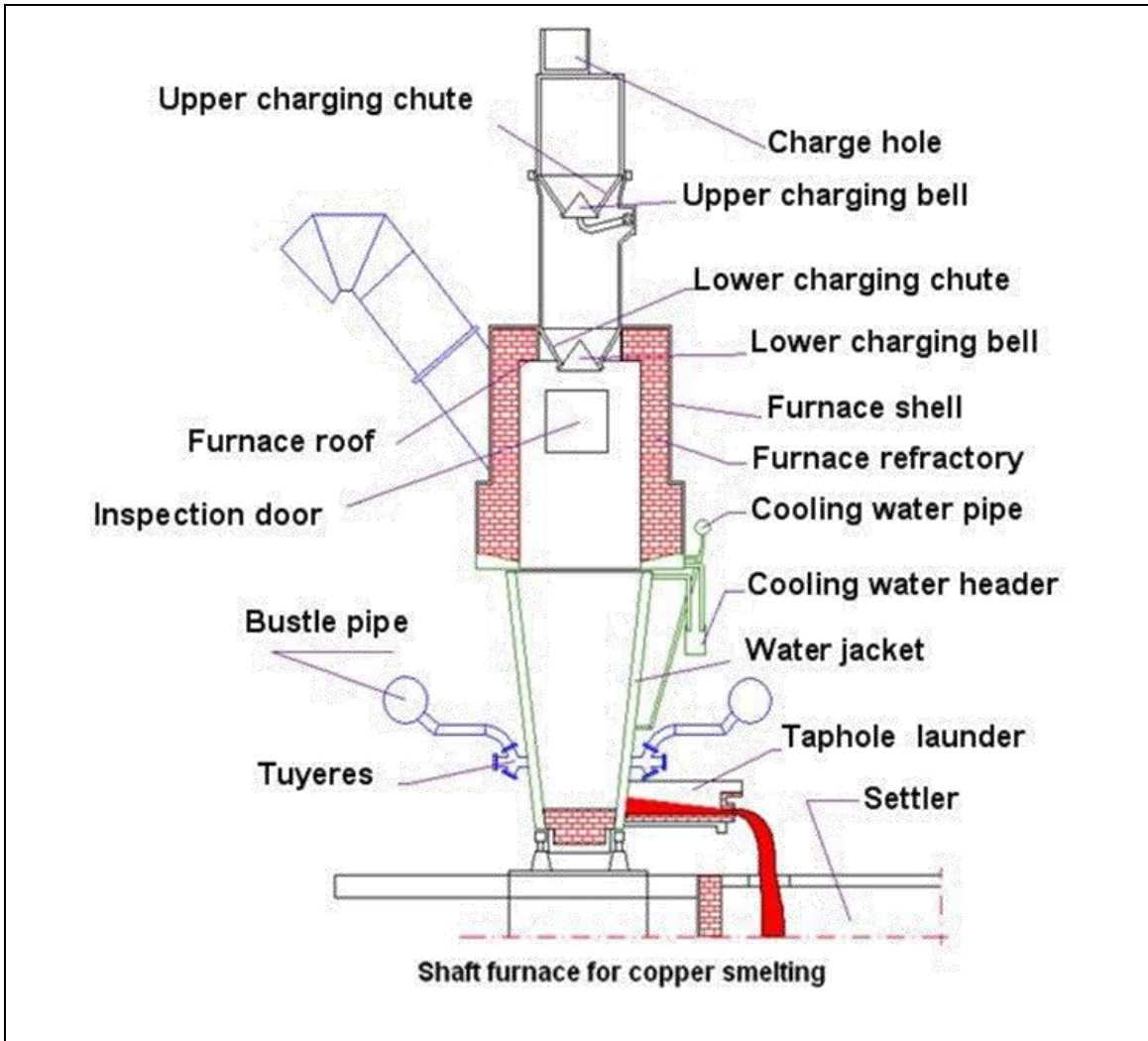


Figure 13.6: Blast furnace for primary copper smelting

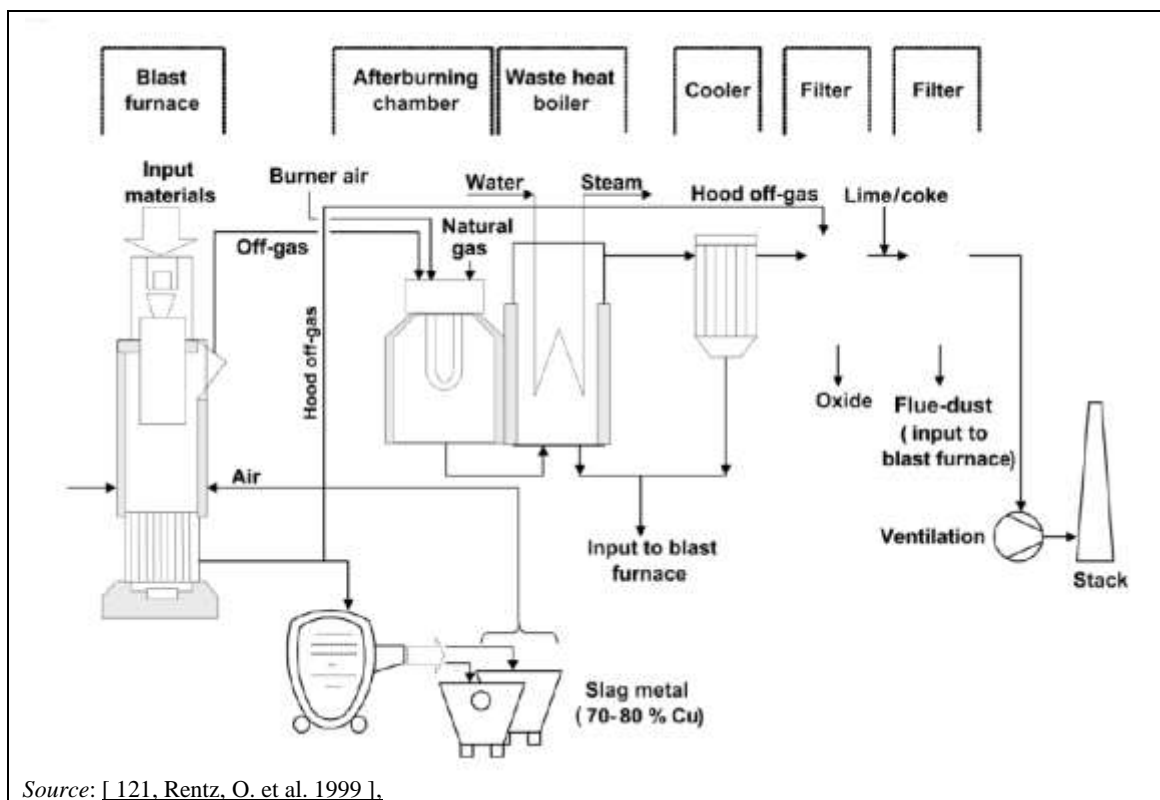


Figure 13.7: Blast furnace for secondary copper production

Blast furnaces are used to smelt and recover a variety of metals including precious metals, copper and lead from primary and secondary raw materials as well as high-carbon ferromanganese. Developments allow the charging of fine materials into the furnace via the tuyères and this can avoid briquetting and reduce the handling of dusty material.

One specific application of the blast furnace is the Imperial Smelting Furnace (ISF) which is used for mixed lead and zinc concentrates. This furnace uses a molten lead splash condenser after the blast furnace section to collect zinc vapour released in the gases while lead collects in the hearth. The zinc and cadmium collected in the condenser is purified in a fractional distillation system (New Jersey distillation column).

13.1.2.3 Electric reduction furnaces

The process in an electric reduction furnace is normally to reduce an element in an oxide state into metallic form. The process normally involves adding the oxide and a reducing agent, often carbon, to the furnace. Metallic components can also be added. To bring the reactants up to the reaction temperature, as well as to support the endothermic reactions, electrical energy is added. This electrical energy is converted to heat energy in a concentrated reaction zone near the electrode in the furnace. The furnaces are shown in Figure 13.8, Figure 13.9 and Figure 13.10.

Some furnaces will use a slag layer to develop the necessary energy. Others are based on resistance in the burden itself or in a coke bed. Some processes keep a plasma arc from the electrode tip to the coke bed or crater. Such electric reduction furnaces are sometimes called submerged arc furnaces. The reason is that the submerged arc is an important part of the conversion from electrical energy to heat energy in the reaction zone of the process. The electrical supply is normally based on a three-phase electrical power supply. The electrical power supply will be transformed from high voltage to low voltage. A DC (direct current) electrical supply can also be used and, in this case, the arc strikes between the electrodes and the carbon furnace lining or the electrodes and the raw materials in the lower part of the furnace.

The electric reduction furnace can be divided into the following main components shown below:

- equipment for adding raw materials, such as ores, concentrates and reducing agents, or a mix of raw materials to the furnace;
- equipment to supply electrical energy to the furnace, consisting of an electrical grid, transformers, busbars and electrodes;
- the furnace body or shaft consisting of a shell, the lining and the furnace hood that protects the equipment from the heat;
- equipment for tapping the metal and slag from the furnace; often the metal should be sized afterwards in a crushing process;
- the off-gas system (off-gas ducts connected to a gas treatment system such as a cyclone, scrubber or filter), here with an energy recovery unit as well as the filter for the gas cleaning.

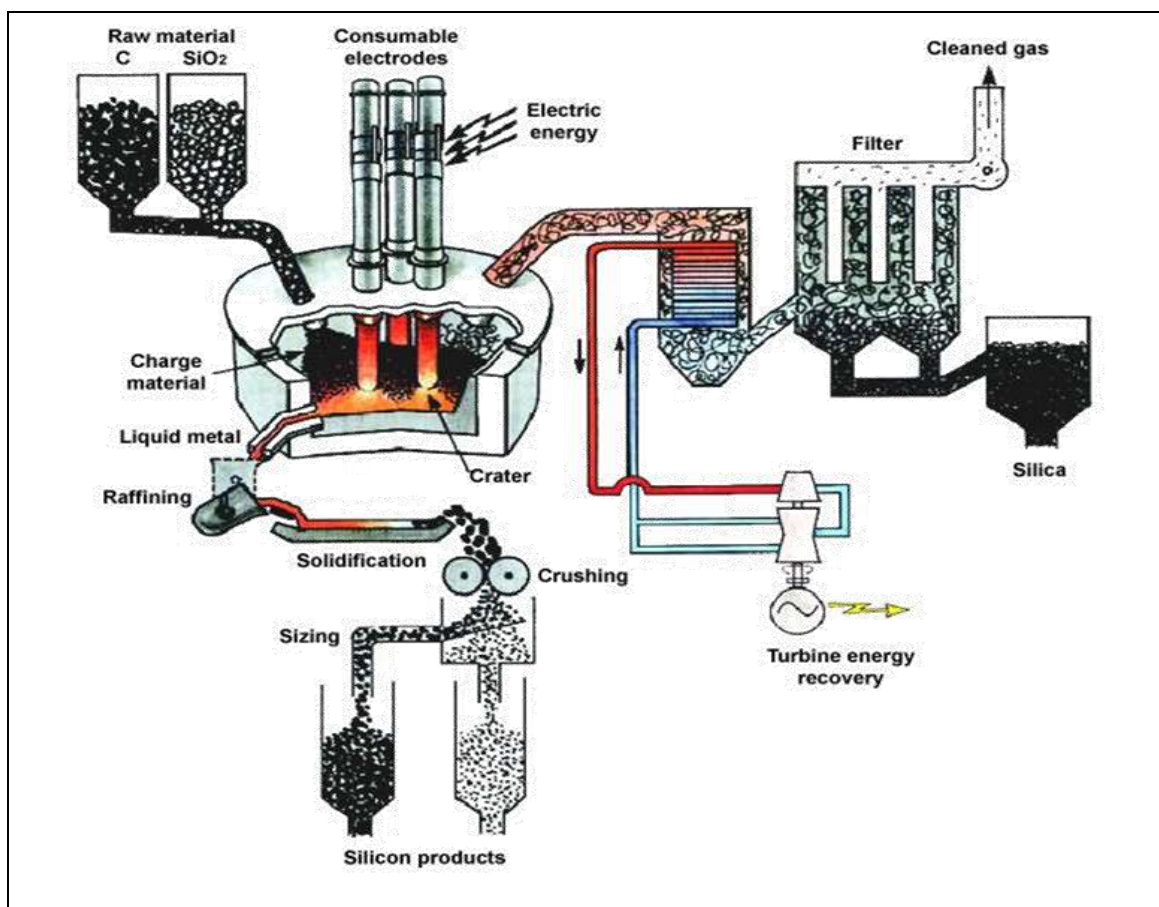


Figure 13.8: Electric reduction furnace process and auxiliary equipment

The raw material may be charged to the furnace in different ways. For smaller furnaces, the raw material can be charged by using a charging car. The charging car may sometimes also be used for the necessary stoking in order to break down crust formation in the upper part of the furnace charge. Large electric arc furnaces are normally charged by charging tubes where the charge flows from the tubes to the furnace charge level.

The electrical supply system will transform the electrical energy that is normally at high voltage down to the low voltage/high current level that is required for the process. The furnace transformers are normally situated symmetrically around the furnace in order to obtain electrical symmetry and short electrical connection lines to avoid unnecessary losses. Smaller, older furnaces sometimes use a single three-phase transformer. The operation of single-phase transformers has some advantages for the furnace control. The electrodes are connected to the

electrical supply system through the busbar. The electrodes can be prebaked or of the Söderberg variety. They are made from graphite or carbon material and are consumed in the process and have to be replaced continuously.

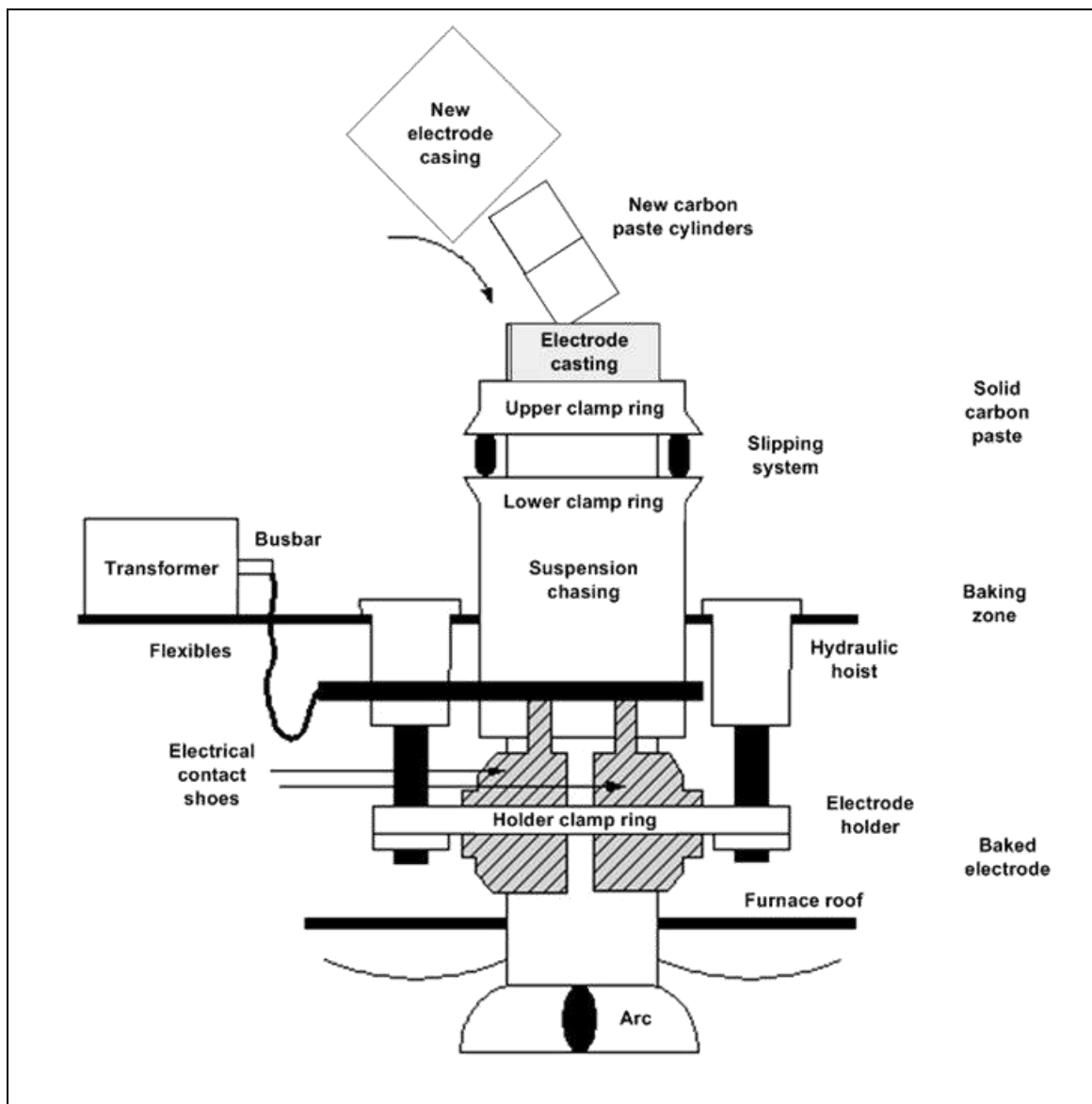


Figure 13.9: Söderberg electrode system in an electric arc furnace

The Söderberg system shown in Figure 13.9 is based on an outer steel electrode casing which acts as a mould for the carbon paste. The carbon paste is baked to a solid electrode inside the steel casing when the electrode is heated, passing the upper contact clamp area. The solid carbon electrode will be consumed in the furnace partly by thermal reaction and partly by oxidation. Significant concentrations of carbon monoxide can be produced. Some installations use hollow electrodes which allow material to be fed into the furnace through the electrode.

The raw material provides part of the resistance in the electrical circuit and promotes the formation of the electric arc, which produces the high temperatures needed. The depth of insertion of the electrodes regulates the resistance. Direct current arc furnaces exist and use anode pins or conducting hearths. The electric arc furnaces can be operated batch-wise or continuously.

The furnaces can be open, semi-closed or totally closed using feed chutes and sealing valves for charging. In the latter case, all of the furnace gases are extracted efficiently, cleaned and can be

used as a source of fuel using the high concentrations of CO or to preheat feed materials using the heat content [112, Outokumpu Oy (SF) 1998]. The hoods and occasionally the furnace body can be water-cooled to control the process and prevent damage.

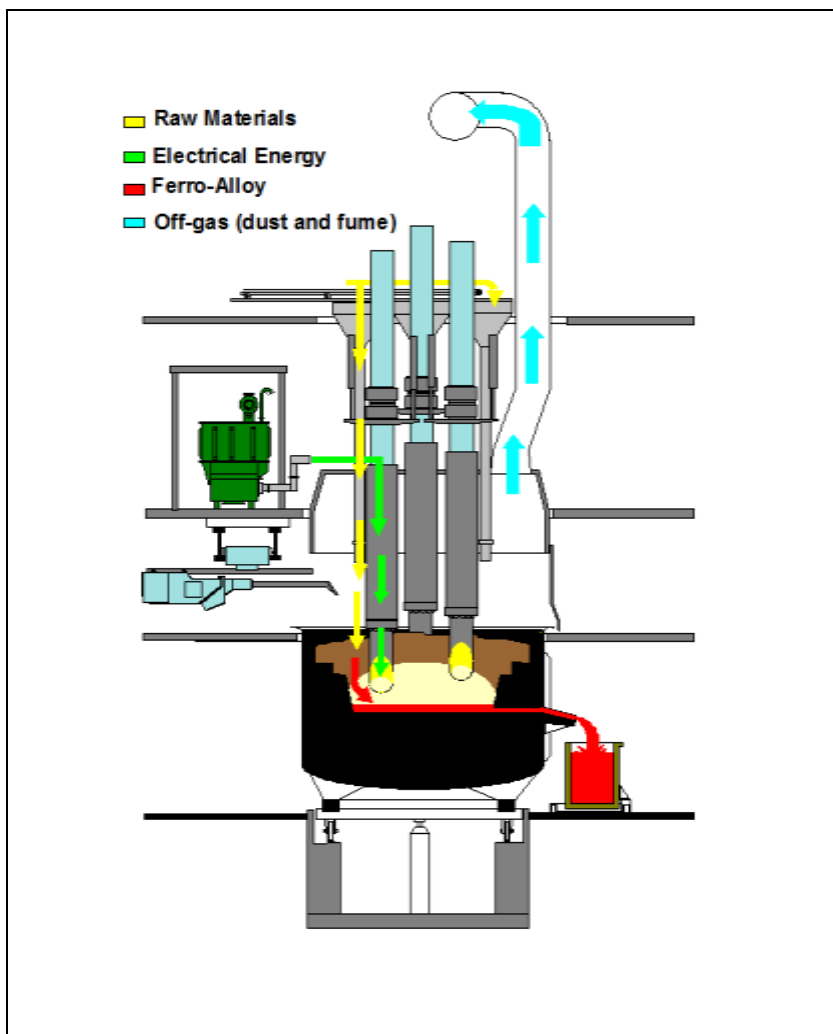


Figure 13.10: Rotary electric reduction furnace

Molten or solid raw materials are fed in a number of ways using launders, feed pipes or through a hollow electrode. Closed or semi-closed conditions are easy to maintain. In smelting processes, the roasted ore concentrates are transferred onto the liquid melt either through the top of the furnace or sideways by individual chargers and the electrodes are immersed in the molten slag layer.

These furnaces are used for smelting a range of ferro-alloys and can be used to preheat or pre-reduce material to exploit the CO content. They are also used for melting and refining refractory metals and high-temperature alloys and, in these cases, they are operated under vacuum.

13.1.2.4 Electric (resistance) furnaces

This type of furnace uses a similar arrangement to the electric reduction furnace. Depending on the size of the furnace, three to six Søderberg or prebaked electrodes are immersed in the liquid layer. The melting temperature is maintained by means of electric resistance heating. The furnace is usually operated continuously. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.11.

Molten or solid raw materials are fed in a number of ways using launders, feed pipes or through a hollow electrode. Sealed or semi-sealed conditions are easy to maintain. In smelting processes, the roasted ore concentrates are transferred onto the liquid melt either through the top of the furnace or sideways by individual chargers and the electrodes are immersed in the molten slag layer.

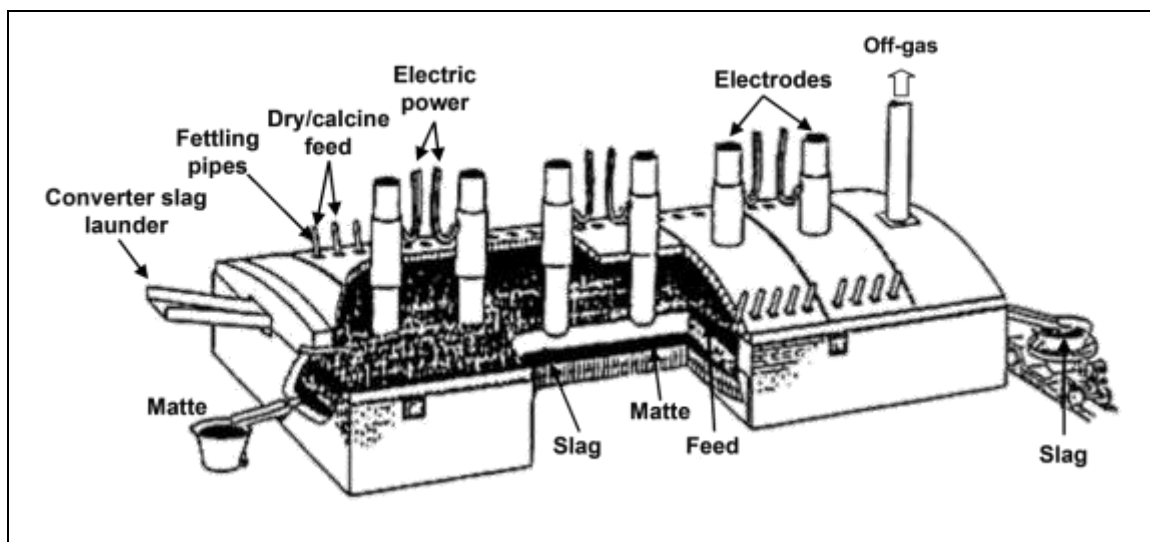


Figure 13.11: Electric furnace for concentrate or calcine smelting

Electric furnaces can be operated in a number of ways using coke (as reducing agents) and slagging agents depending on the application. The carbon electrodes are consumed as oxides and are reduced but the gas volumes produced during operation are kept to a minimum as there are no gases produced by the combustion of a fuel. The heat required for smelting is generated exclusively by electrical energy, which is introduced by electrodes immersed in the molten slag which acts as electrical resistance. These furnaces are usually sealed and the gases are easily collected and treated to remove and, if possible, to reuse dust, CO and sulphur dioxide.

These furnaces are used in the production of a number of metals from primary and secondary raw materials including precious metals, lead and copper and can also be used for slag cleaning [121, Rentz, O. et al. 1999]. Some slags from primary smelting, e.g. copper, are usually cleaned in circular furnaces. They are also used for the recovery of precious metals, particularly silver.

When secondary raw materials are used, the burden is prepared with a composition to suit the specific smelting programme and is fed to the furnace via an enclosed charging system. The molten products are drawn off into buckets or ladles via different tapholes. Reduction smelting results in the volatilisation of mainly zinc, tin and lead which are discharged as oxides with the off-gas and collected in the dust collection system which consists of a dust pot, process gas cooler and a filter.

13.1.2.5 Rotary furnace

The rotary furnace is described in Annex 13.1.1.1.

13.1.2.6 Refractory-lined pits and crucibles

Refractory-lined pits and crucibles are simple pits formed of Al_2O_3 or other refractory material and refractory-lined steel cylinders that are arranged to form crucibles. They are commonly used

for metallothermic reactions. Refractory-lined pits and crucibles are often used in the production of special ferro-alloys such as ferro-vanadium and ferro-molybdenum as well as for refractory metals. Fume collection can be a problem with this type of furnace and well designed and operated gas extraction is needed.

13.1.2.7 Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnaces and the KRS furnace

The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnaces and the KRS furnace are cylindrical bath furnaces that use a steel lance for the injection of natural gas, oil or coal, and oxygen or air into the melt. The lance is submerged into the molten bath and relies on the formation of a coating of slag to prevent rapid deterioration. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.12.

Other raw materials are fed into the furnace by a sealed conveyor where they react at a high rate and are melted. The submerged combustion lance stirs the bath and produces a slag along with the desired metal or matte. The separation of the molten phases requires a separate settling furnace from where the phases are tapped separately. The furnace can be used on a batch basis when conditions in the furnace, such as the gas blown through the lance, are changed at the end of a batch. Examples of a batch operation are:

- the smelting of copper/lead secondary material to a copper lead matte in a first stage followed by conversion of the matte to blister copper by blowing with oxygen;
- the treatment of zinc leach residues.

Continuous operation is possible using two furnaces in series, e.g. as suggested for the ISASMELT lead production process.

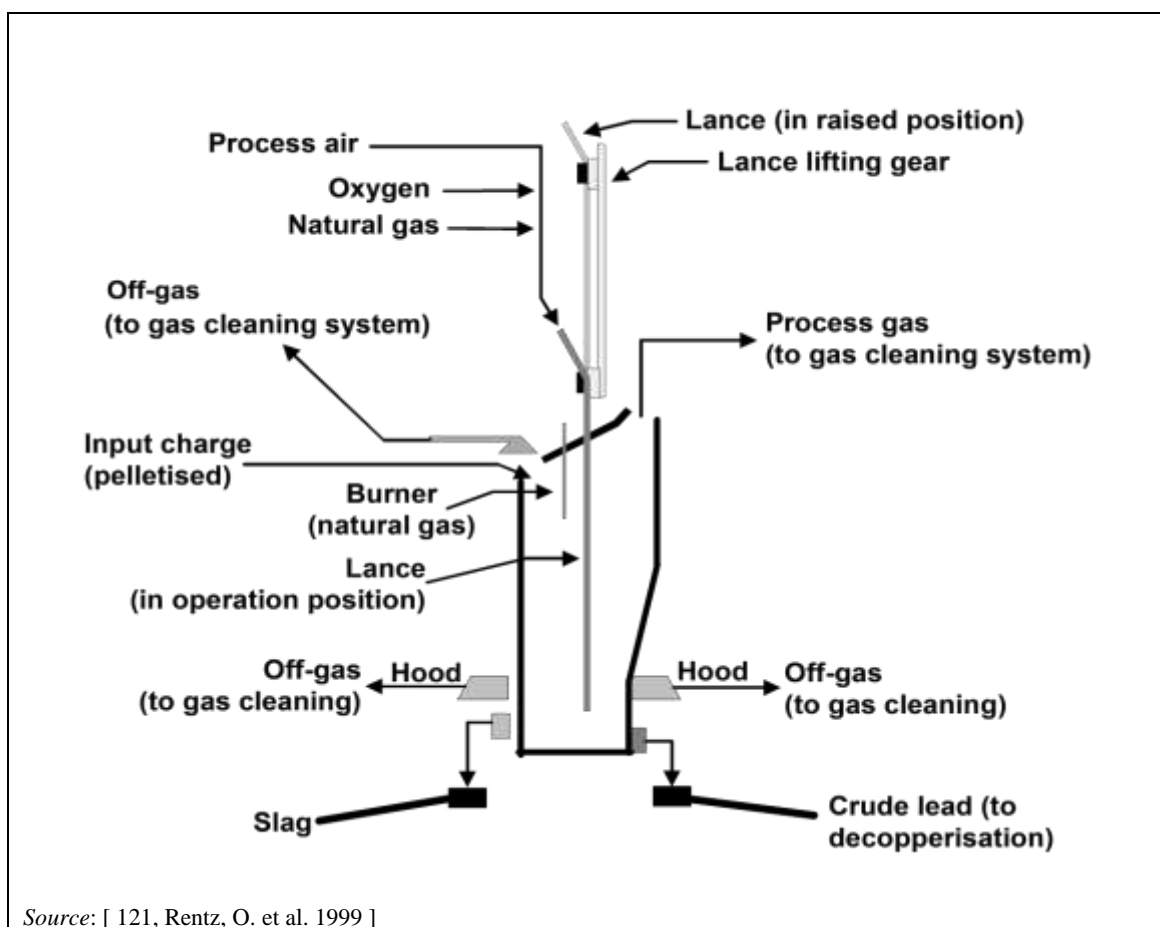


Figure 13.12: The Ausmelt (Sirosmelt)/ISASMELT furnace

The furnace uses a robust hood and an extraction system to collect and treat fumes from the furnace system and tapping operations. When sulphidic concentrates are smelted, the gases are passed to a sulphur removal system.

There are a number of applications for this type of furnace including the production of copper matte from concentrates and converting, production of copper from secondary raw materials (KRS), the production of lead from primary and secondary materials, the treatment of spent pot lining and the fuming of zinc [37, Ausmelt Ltd. 1995].

The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace is used as a continuous direct smelting furnace as well as for batch and stepwise operations. When smelting copper concentrate to matte, the process uses moist feed that is fed continuously with fluxes into the furnace.

Unlike the blast and electric furnace technologies, the KRS currently uses an intermittent two-stage process consisting of a smelting step and a conversion step. There are several furnaces operating this way. In the KRS process for example, the first step produces a metallic phase (black copper) and a slag phase which is drawn off via the slag taphole and granulated with water. The iron silicate sand produced is marketed as a building material. The black copper remains in the furnace. In a second step, the black copper is converted to a metal and a converter slag under oxidising conditions by adding alloy scrap. The converter slag is transferred via a launder to the tin-lead alloy furnace (rotary furnace) for further processing. The KRS converter metal flows to a rotating and tilting furnace designed for temperature-holding service from where it is poured into ladles and transferred to the anode furnace for pyrometallurgical refining. Final refining is accomplished in the copper electrolysis unit. The quality of the refined copper (cathode copper) measures up to that of copper won from primary raw materials [234, UBA (D) 2007].

13.1.2.8 Top-blown rotary converter (TBRC) and tilting rotary oxy-fuel furnace (TROF)

The TBRC and TROF are rotary and tilting furnaces that use lances for heating and blowing purposes. The furnaces are small and are housed in an enclosure to contain secondary emissions, which are treated. Rotation of the furnace promotes good mixing of the charge and complete reaction of the components but can lead to abrasion of the refractory lining. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.13.

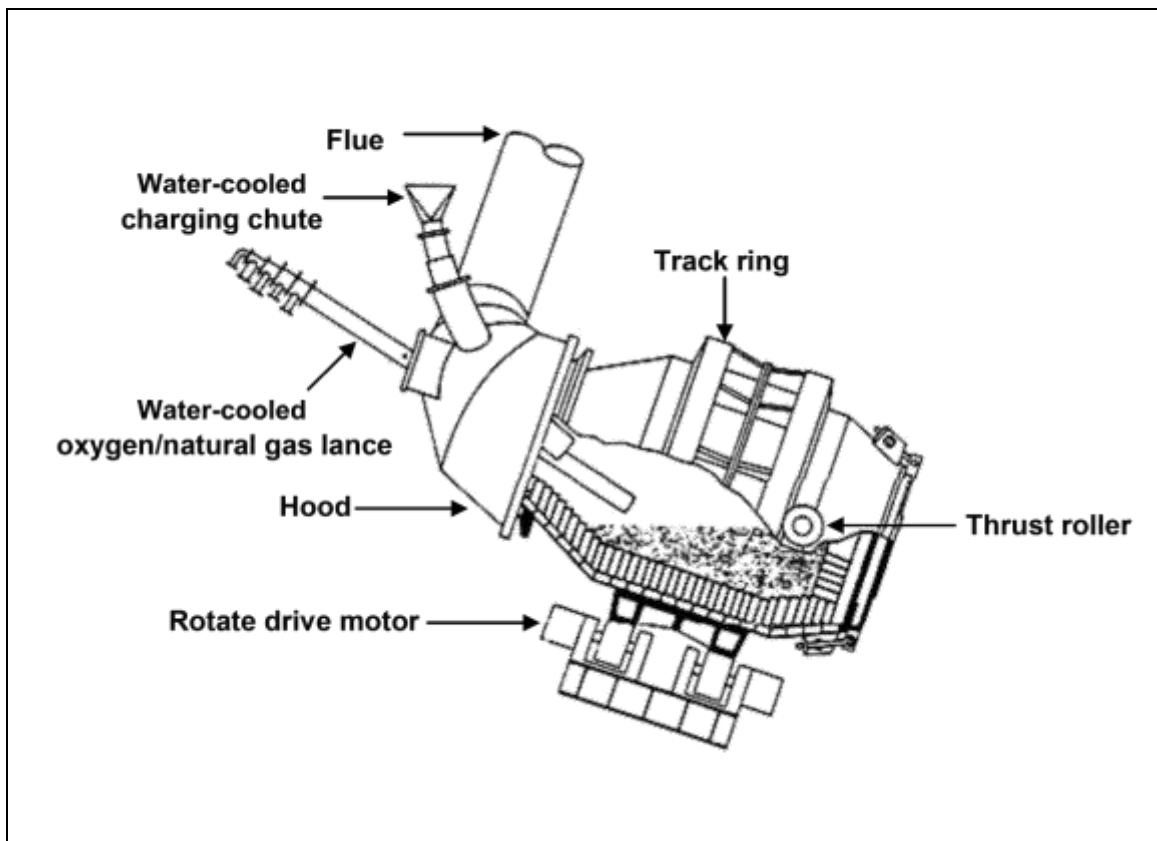


Figure 13.13: TBRC and TROF

Oxygen and fuel are added via the lances, which blow onto the surface of the melt. The use of oxygen results in the production of low off-gas volumes and high sulphur dioxide when sulphides are smelted. The process is normally carried out on a batch basis and it is common to use a number of these furnaces for smelting, converting and slag cleaning. It is used to produce primary and secondary copper and lead, and ferro-nickel and for the recovery of precious metals.

Other commercial designs of tilting rotary furnaces are also used for smelting and examples are the mini smelter.

13.1.2.9 The Noranda, El Teniente, Baiyin and Vanyukov processes

The Noranda reactor uses a cylindrical refractory-lined furnace for smelting. Pelletised concentrate and additives are charged onto the bath of molten slag at the top end of the furnace. Burners fired by natural gas or oil situated at both ends produce the heat necessary for processing. Oxygen-enriched air is blown into the molten bath through tuyères, causing sulphur and iron to oxidise. The Noranda reactor is shown in Figure 13.14.

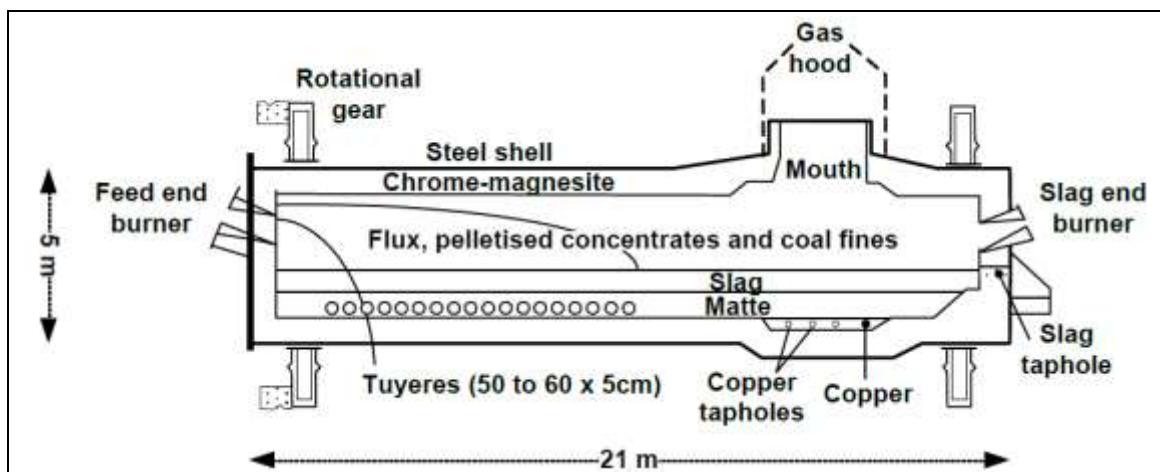


Figure 13.14: The Noranda reactor

During continuous smelting in the furnace, the melt segregates into two liquid phases: slag and matte. Due to their varying densities, they settle to form two layers. Matte is tapped periodically from the bottom of the furnace and the slag flows out continuously opposite the charging end. The furnace is sealed and equipped with an extraction system, and the launders are provided with extraction.

This process is used to smelt copper concentrates and can produce blister copper when using concentrates with low impurity levels or high-grade matte. The normal operating practice is to produce a copper-rich matte to undergo further conversion.

The El Teniente, Baiyin and Vanyukov processes are similar to the Noranda process. In the El Teniente process, wet concentrates are added to the furnace using a Gar gun and dry concentrates are added via the tuyères. Initially matte is seeded into the furnace to help the process and to produce white metal. The El Teniente reactor is shown in Figure 13.15. The Baiyin process uses a rectangular furnace that is divided into smelting and settling zones. In the Vanyukov process, the oxygen-enriched air is blown into the slag layer rather than the matte layer.

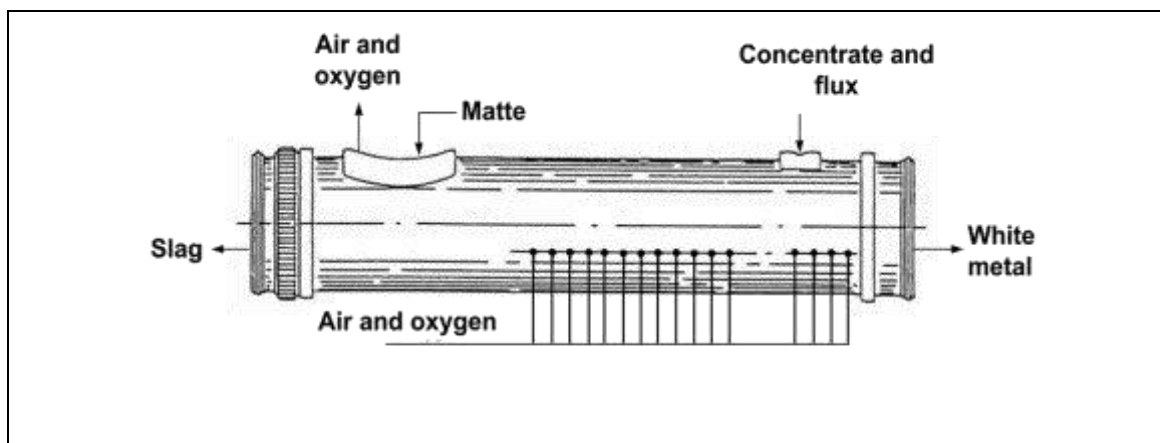


Figure 13.15: The El Teniente reactor

13.1.2.10 The Mitsubishi process

The Mitsubishi process employs three interconnected furnaces; a bath smelting furnace, an electric slag cleaning furnace and a converting furnace. Gravity flow is used between the furnaces and avoids transfer by ladle. All of the furnaces are sealed and equipped with an extraction system, heat from the process gases is recovered and treated to remove dust and sulphur dioxide. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.16.

The dried concentrates, air, oxygen and additives are charged into the bath furnace by means of lances and subsequently melted to form matte (60–65 % copper content) and slag. This mixture flows continuously through a channel into the electric hearth furnace that serves as a settling furnace to separate the slag. Matte is continuously discharged from the settling furnace through a siphon into the converting furnace.

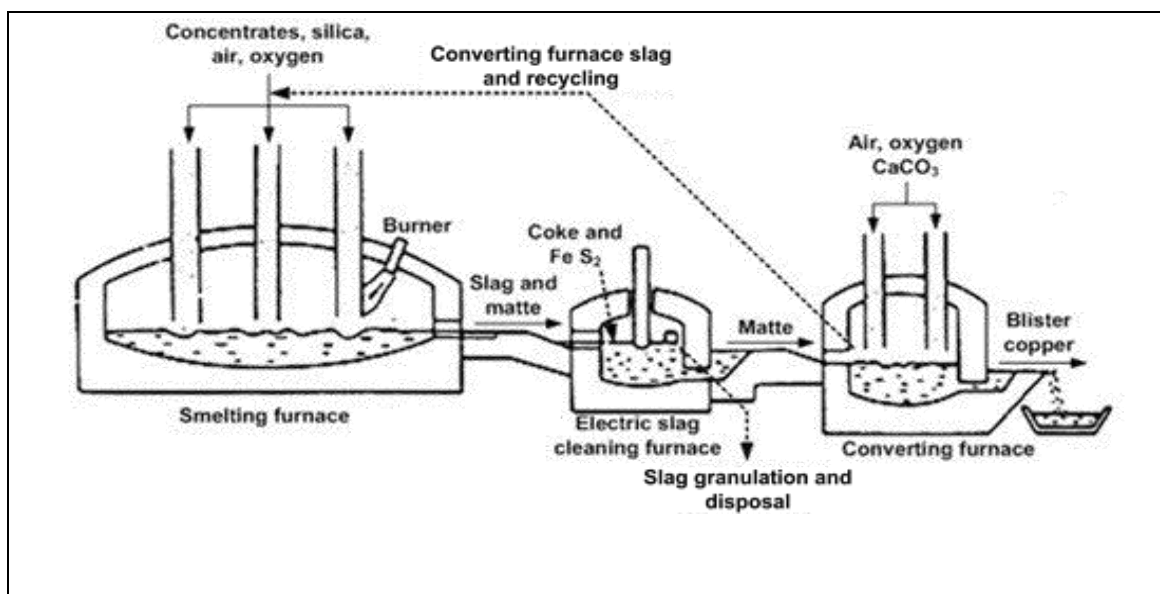


Figure 13.16: The Mitsubishi process

In the converter air, oxygen and additives are blown onto the liquid bath via water-cooled lances to produce blister copper. The converter slags are recycled to the smelting furnace, which can also be fed with anode scrap. It is possible that the converter stage could be used with other smelting furnaces. This process produces blister copper continuously.

13.1.2.11 The QSL furnace

The QSL furnace is a horizontal cylinder divided into an oxidation zone and a reduction zone. The furnace is lined with chrome-magnesite bricks to cope with a temperature of 1250 °C. Tuyères at the furnace bottom supply oxygen to the oxidation zone and a mixture of air and coal dust to the slag reduction zone. Primary and secondary raw materials are used and can be moist and sized from large lumps to fine material. They are fed into the top of the furnace mixed with coal to provide heat and reducing conditions and fluxes to yield a slag with a low melting point which can later be used as a construction material subject to quality control. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.17.

The oxidation zone produces lead bullion, sulphur dioxide and a lead-rich slag. This flows into the reduction zone so that more lead bullion is produced, and this flows in the opposite direction to the lead taphole. Slag is tapped from the reduction end and then granulated. Lead bullion is tapped from the oxidation end and then refined. Hoods and complete enclosures extract gases

from the outlets and launders. The exhaust gases contain 10–13 % SO_2 and are used for heat recovery and then dedusted in an ESP before passing to a sulphuric acid plant. Other process gases are cleaned in fabric filters.

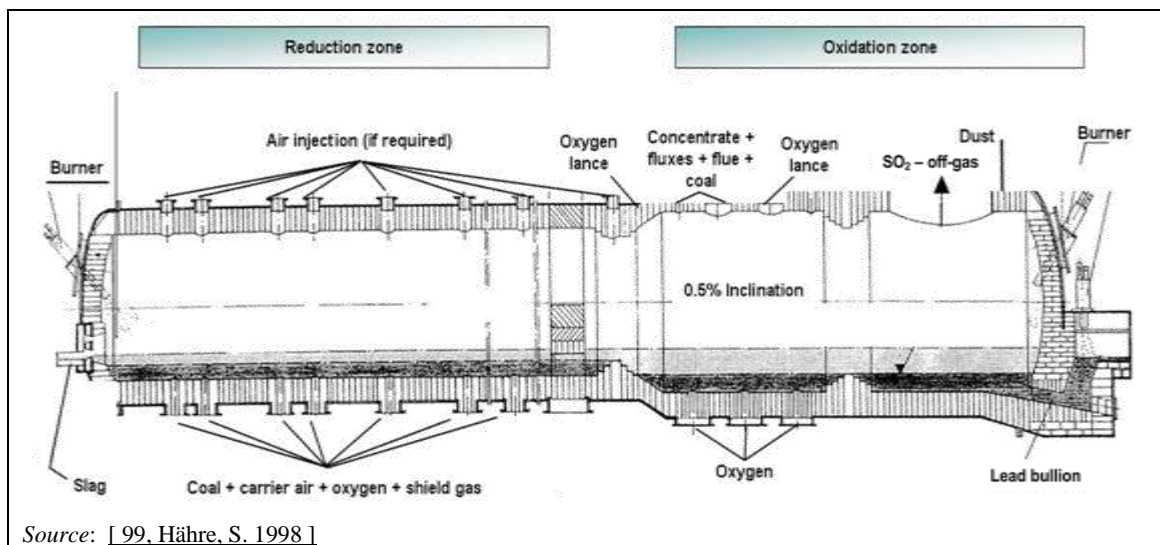


Figure 13.17: The QSL furnace

The QSL furnace was designed to produce lead from concentrates and some secondary materials in a single bath furnace and to maximise energy recovery.

13.1.2.12 Cyclone smelting furnaces

Cyclone smelting furnaces include the flame cyclone reactor (FCR) and the Contop reactor. With these high-intensity flash smelting processes, the copper concentrates and flux are smelted with oxygen in cyclone-type combustion chambers. In the Contop process, the cyclone is positioned vertically and the reacted mixture falls into a settling chamber below the cyclone. In the FCR process, the combustion takes place in a vertical reaction shaft and the separation of the matte and slag occurs in a further horizontal reactor. Slag and white metal or copper-rich matte are separated in the forehearth and tapped off. The white metal or matte is processed in a standard converter. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.18.

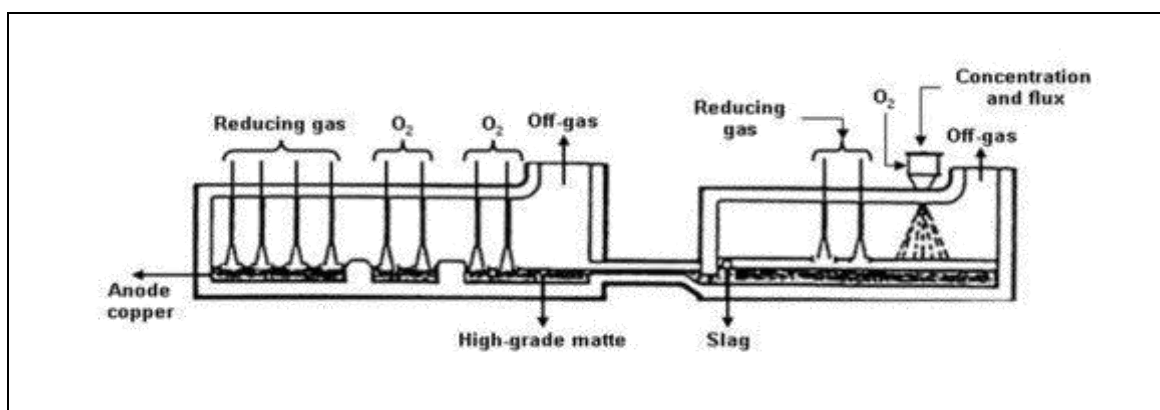


Figure 13.18: The Contop process

These processes are mainly used to smelt copper concentrates.

13.1.2.13 The Outotec flash furnace

The Outotec flash furnace is used for the smelting of dried concentrates by utilising the energy content of the concentrates for the production of the heat needed for the smelting of the concentrates and flux. The concentrate feed mixture is fed continuously with oxygen-enriched air through a concentrate burner into the vertical reaction shaft of a sealed furnace where the reaction between oxygen and concentrate takes place rapidly in suspension. The heat of reaction melts the particles. The fused particles produce matte and slag. Sulphur dioxide is formed at the same time. In older installations, process air preheating to about 200–800 °C was used to achieve autogenous operation, but the majority of installations now achieve autogenous operation by using oxygen enrichment to about 30–90 % oxygen in process air. The degree of oxygen enrichment is determined by the concentrate quality and the heat balance requirements. The continuous off-gas flow leaves the furnace through the uptake shaft for heat recovery and dust removal. It has a high, constant sulphur dioxide concentration and sulphur is recovered from the gas mainly by conversion to sulphuric acid after dust is removed. In some installations, oxygen is added to the uptake shaft for afterburning dusts and sulphatising air is fed into the boiler. It is possible to recycle weak acid into the uptake shaft under certain conditions, to decompose it so that the SO₂ generated can be recovered in the acid plant.

The molten slag and matte particles are settled out of the gas in a horizontal settler part of the furnace, forming a molten bath where the phases separate without an external settler. The matte is tapped out of the furnace to ladles or led via a launder to a granulation stage depending on the method of conversion used. The slag is tapped continuously or semi-continuously out of the furnace and can be further processed in a slag furnace or in a slag flotation circuit for copper recovery. In some installations the low copper content in the slag allows the slag produced in the primary smelter to be discarded or used directly.

The Outotec flash furnace is shown in Figure 13.19.

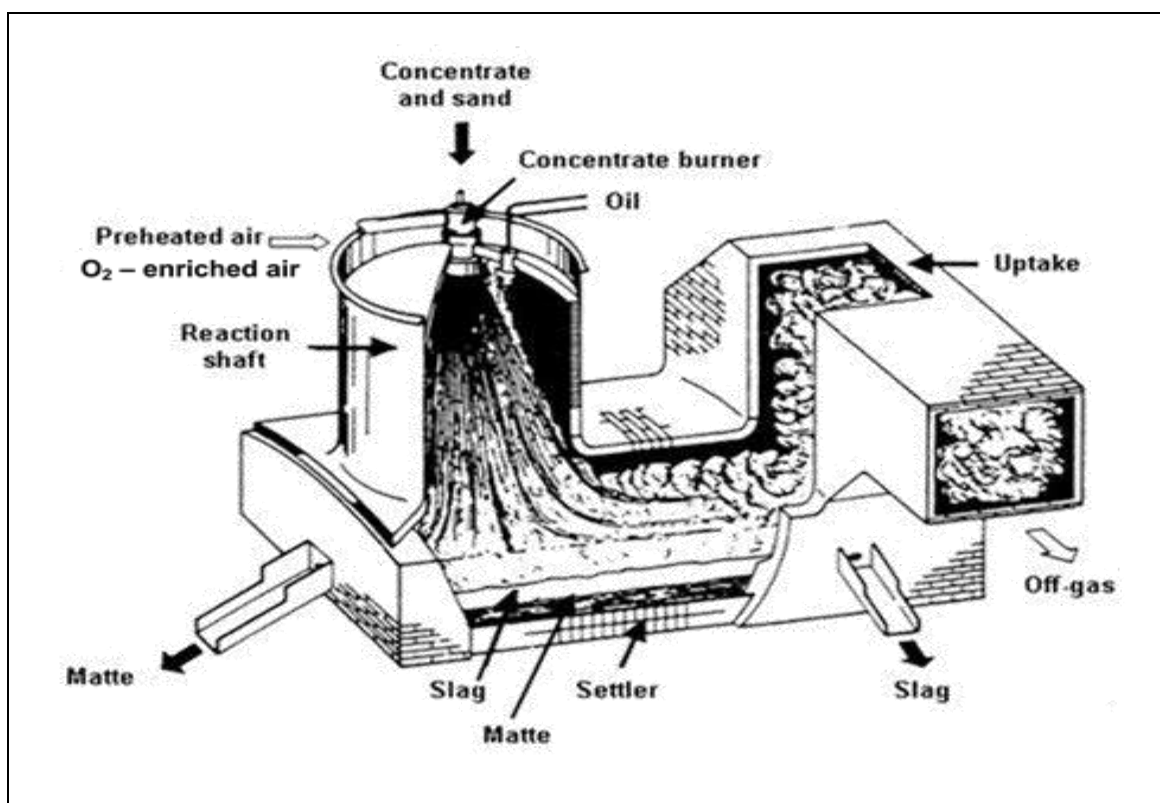


Figure 13.19: The Outotec flash furnace

The flash furnace is established for the production of copper and nickel matte. The furnace produces a high-grade matte and so the main part of the sulphur in the concentrate is released in the smelter gases and enables the conversion process (e.g. the discontinuous Peirce-Smith converter) to eliminate the remaining sulphur more easily.

This process is also used to produce blister copper directly from suitable concentrates which are low in iron, avoiding the need for a conventional converter that would produce additional sulphur dioxide. In this direct-to-blister process, the furnace slag contains a high copper concentration and so slag cleaning to remove this copper is an essential part of the process.

The furnace has been used on a demonstration scale for the production of lead bullion, for pyrite smelting and for fuming jarosite waste.

The same type of furnace is also used in the flash converting process for the conversion of ground, granulated matte into blister copper. The process has similar features to the flash smelting process, i.e. autogenous operation with oxygen-enriched air and a continuous flow of off-gas with a high sulphur dioxide content.

13.1.2.14 The INCO furnace

The INCO is a flash furnace similar to the Outotec flash furnace but it uses pure oxygen to operate autogenously. Copper ore concentrate blended with slagging agents is blown horizontally into the furnace from both ends and the off-gases are collected at the centre of the furnace.

The INCO furnace is shown in Figure 13.20.

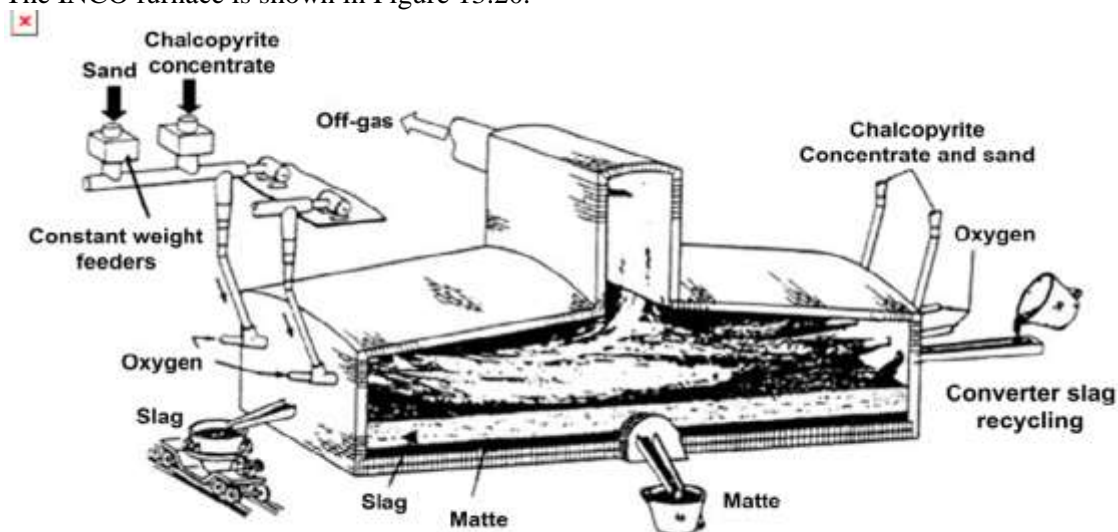


Figure 13.20: The INCO furnace

The concentrates are roasted and melted in suspension in the furnace and fall into the settler in the same manner as in the Outotec flash furnace. The heat produced by roasting is sufficient for an autothermal smelting process. The slag, which has a medium copper content, flows out continuously at one end of the furnace and the matte is tapped periodically at the centre of one side wall. The waste gas contains up to 75 % SO₂.

13.1.2.15 The Kivcet (KSS) furnace

The Kivcet is a flash furnace similar to the Outotec flash furnace. Dry and blended charge components and oxygen are fed continuously through burners at the top into an oxidation shaft. At the same time, coke breeze is added. The furnace is shown in Figure 13.21.

The charge is ignited as it enters the reaction shaft, temperatures of up to 1400 °C are reached and complete desulphurisation takes place immediately. The coke breeze is only heated as it falls down the shaft. The coke floats on the slag bath and reduces lead oxide. Partly reduced slag and bullion flow under a submerged partition wall into the reduction section of the furnace, which is electrically heated and where additional coke or coal is added for final reduction.

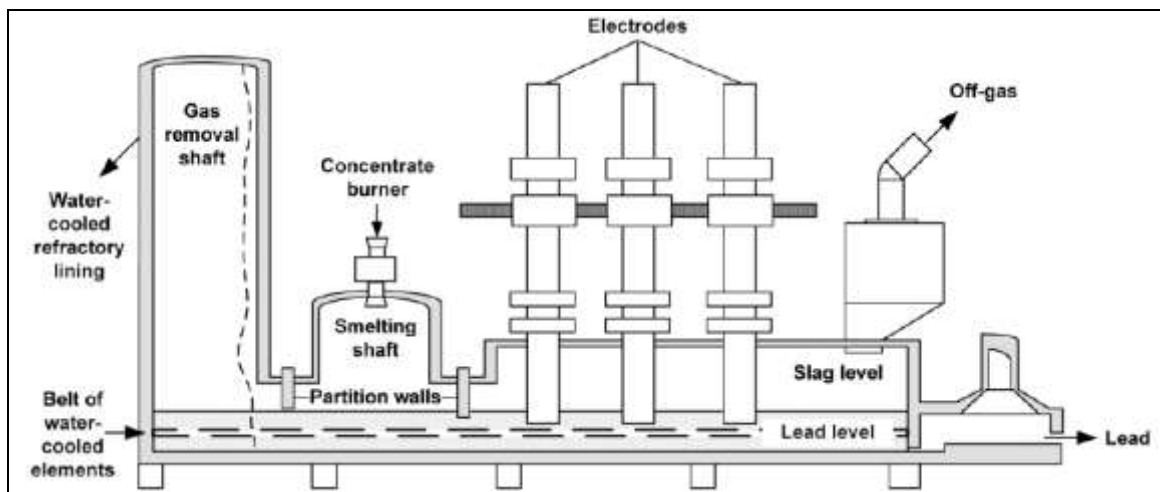


Figure 13.21: The Kivcet furnace

Lead bullion is sent for refining, the slag may be sent to a Waelz kiln, and the flue-dust from the oxidation is sent directly back to the furnace. The process is also used for copper production. The flue-dust from the reduction stage is treated in an ISF.

13.1.3 Converters

13.1.3.1 The Peirce-Smith converter

Peirce-Smith converters (PSC) are run batch-wise and use tuyères to blow air or oxygen into the matte so that it reacts in two stages to produce blister copper or high-grade nickel matte and slag. They are also used for refining ferro-nickel and to produce some metal oxides. Automatic slag quality control can also be used [329, Magnus and Olsson 2007]. This is by far the most common converting vessel and it is shown in Figure 13.22.

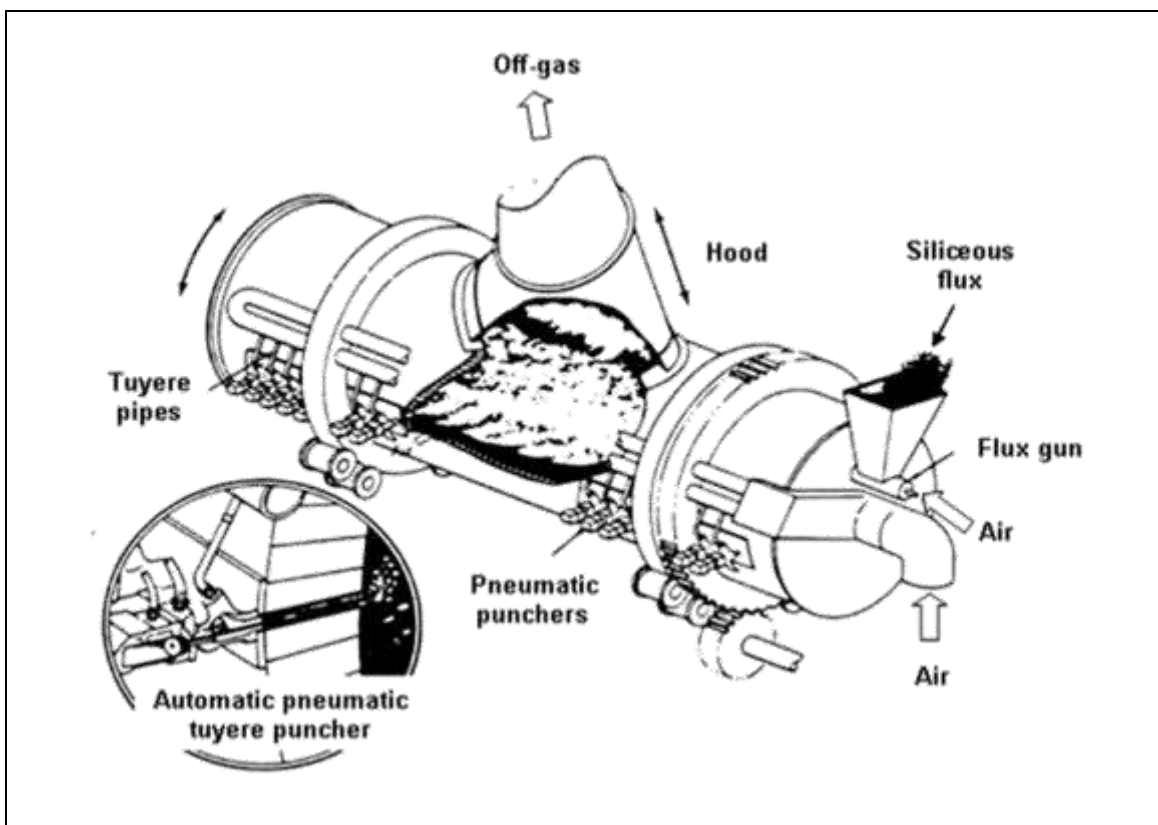


Figure 13.22: The Peirce-Smith converter

The converter can also be used for three different types of converter duties and as an anode furnace:

a) Matte converter

Large volumes of hot gases are produced during the blowing periods and are collected by hoods over the converter opening. The space between the converter housing and the hood allows the access of bypass air, which causes dilution of the SO₂-rich effluent gases. The SO₂ concentration varies depending on the process cycle. During initial blowing, SO₂ concentrations can be considerably higher than 10 %. However, during the subsequent blowing period, and when the converter is turned away from the hood, SO₂ concentrations are much lower and often nil. The varying SO₂ concentration does not provide a satisfactory feed to the acid plant, which requires a relatively steady flow. This is overcome in multi-converter plants by converter scheduling to attain a relatively steady flow. The gases can also be mixed with the much stronger smelter gases. The use of oxygen for enriching the blast air will also increase the SO₂ content; however, the enrichment is limited due to the rapidly increasing refractory wear. Water-cooled hoods are now being used in some plants.

The converter is charged via ladles with liquid matte and the slags produced during the conversion of the matte and the blister copper produced are subsequently poured into ladles from the converter. During these tapping processes, diffuse emissions are released. The use of additional fume extraction facilities (e.g. secondary hoods and air curtains) and the control of converter positioning to prevent blowing during the converter roll-out can reduce these emissions. Through-hood and tuyère charging systems are also used so that it is not always necessary to tilt the converter away from the hood during the charging of metal scrap and fluxes.

b) Scrap converter

In secondary copper melting, (Peirce-Smith) converters are distinguished into scrap converters and matte converters - both operated batch-wise. Scrap converters use coke and iron-rich materials as fuel and reducing agents respectively. In matte converters, the matte-borne sulphur is used as the energy source. Input materials for scrap converters include alloy scrap, suitable Cu-Fe scrap as well as (mostly liquid) black copper. The matte converter processes liquid copper-lead matte and copper-rich return slags, in some cases together with black copper - with the addition of solid copper scrap. Matte converter off-gas contains high SO₂ concentrations and is sent to a contact process unit for sulphuric acid production. This is why matte converters for secondary copper recovery are predominantly installed in primary copper production sites as these are equipped with sulphuric acid production units.

c) Alloy converter

The direct-to-blister flash furnace process produces a slag that is treated in an electric furnace to produce a lead-iron-copper alloy. This alloy is converted using a batch process in which the oxidised iron and lead pass into the slag phase and blister copper is produced.

d) Anode furnace

The PSC is also used as an anode furnace where the blister or black copper produced by the converter are refined. These furnaces use tuyères for further air blowing followed by the addition of a reducing agent (usually natural gas or propane) to remove the final traces of sulphur and then convert copper oxide to copper.

13.1.3.2 The Hoboken converter

The Hoboken converter operates on the same blowing principle as the Peirce-Smith converter but the large escape of gas that usually occurs when the converter is tilted for charging and tapping the slag and crude copper is avoided.

The effluent gas is sucked through the flue at the end of the converter. The siphon minimises gas escape during all phases of operation. The converter is charged through a small opening at the top of the casing and charging is therefore possible during blowing without tilting the converter because of the shorter process duration. Dilution of the effluent gases due to infiltrated air is small, so the steady average concentration of SO₂ is higher than for the Peirce-Smith converter. However, the SO₂ concentration will still vary throughout the cycle. The end result is that there is a smaller loss of SO₂ from the converter. The smaller opening used for charging can create problems due to slag build-up.

The Hoboken converter is shown in Figure 13.23.

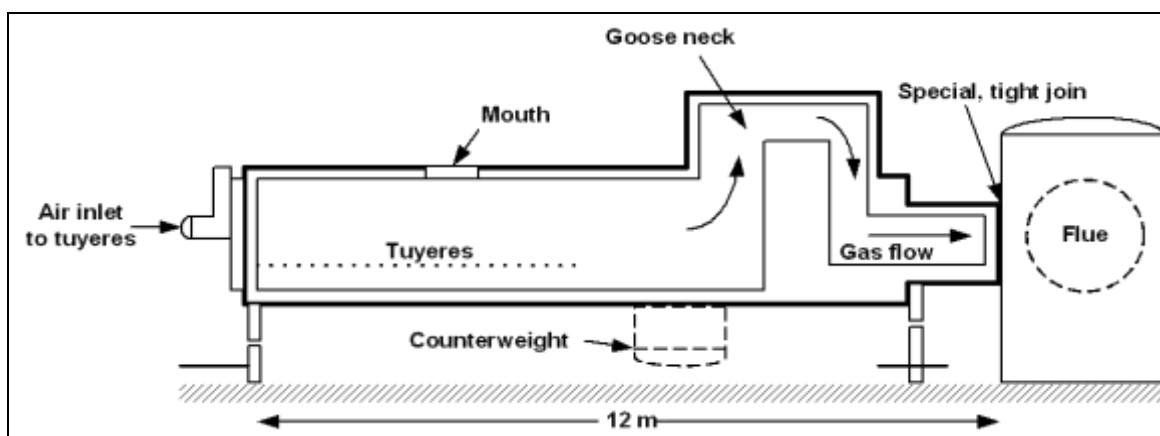


Figure 13.23: The Hoboken converter

13.1.3.3 The Kennecott-Outotec flash converter

The Kennecott-Outotec flash converter is also used and has been developed further since the 2001 NFM BREF was written. One installation is in operation in the USA and two in China (each producing about 400 000 tonnes per year of copper). A fourth installation is under construction in China. In this case, ground matte produced by a flash smelting furnace is used as the feed material. The Mitsubishi converting stage and the flash converter are the only continuous converters in metallurgy.

13.1.3.4 Other converters

The Ausmelt/ISASMELT furnace, the TBRC, the converter stage of the Mitsubishi process and the Noranda reactor are also used as converters. These furnaces use molten matte as the feed material and some may be operated continuously. The OBM converter is used for ferro-nickel.

The AOD converter is used for ferro-manganese production using oxygen for decarburisation and argon for degassing in the same manner as in the steel industry [[243, France 2008](#)]

13.1.4 Melting and refining furnaces

13.1.4.1 Induction furnaces

Induction furnaces are simple crucibles or channels that are heated by an external electrical coil. Channel induction furnaces are mainly used for melting items with large dimensions. In one case, the channel furnace is used to melt aluminium cans.

Two induction furnaces are shown in Figure 13.24.

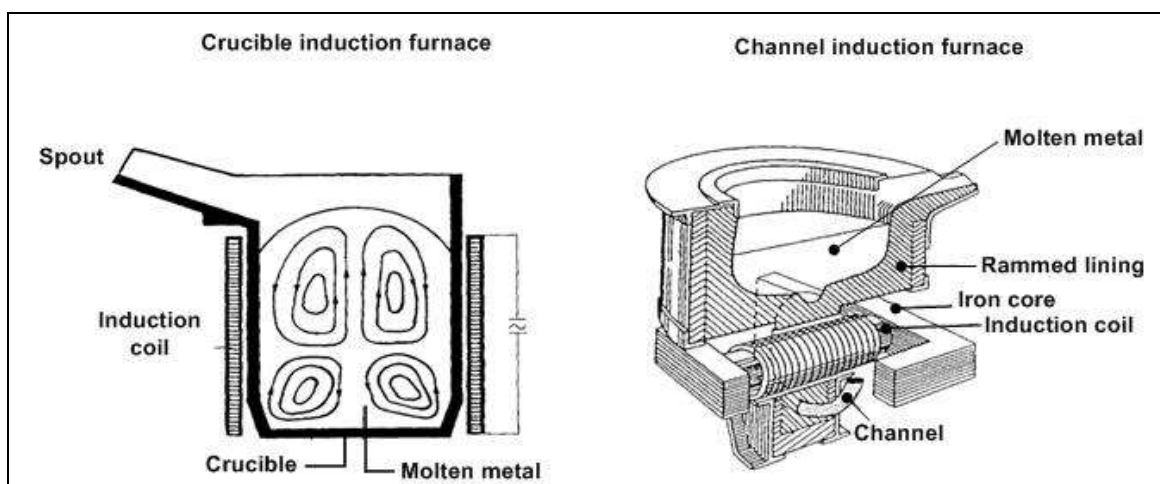


Figure 13.24: Induction furnaces

A current is induced in the metal that has been charged into the furnace and heat is generated. The furnaces are equipped with fume extraction hoods and dust abatement that can be used during drossing and pouring operations. Access to an induction furnace for charging and tapping means that a movable hooding system is often used. The hoods are robust so that they can withstand some mechanical impact. Alternatively, efficient fixed or lip extraction is used.

The efficiency of this furnace can be low for some materials but can be increased, particularly if the feed material is small. Large items can be cut to improve efficiency and also to allow the fume collection hoods to be deployed properly. Some continuous processes also retain a heel of molten metal in the bottom of the furnace between charges if the operation allows it.

These furnaces are used for small melting capacities of up to 30 tonnes, commonly for copper, brass, zinc and aluminium. They may also be operated under vacuum, for example when melting superalloys, high alloyed steel, and pure metals, and, in some cases, for metal distillation. The temperature of the furnace can be automatically controlled to minimise the production of fumes when melting volatile or oxidisable metals such as zinc or alloys that contain zinc.

These furnaces are also used to hold molten metal for alloying and casting. The current induced in these furnaces causes the metal to be stirred electromagnetically, which promotes mixing of the charge and any alloying materials that are added.

13.1.4.2 Indirectly heated kettles

Indirectly heated kettles are simple crucibles that are heated externally by the combustion gases from gas or oil combustion, by electricity or, for lower temperatures, by thermal fluid. Contact with a direct flame is avoided to prevent local hot spots at the base of the crucible and good

temperature control can be maintained in the melt so that oxidation and vaporisation of the metal are prevented.

These kettles are used mainly for melting impure lead and lead alloys and zinc and its alloys which do not contain plastic or other organic materials.

13.1.4.3 Shaft furnaces for melting metal

Shaft furnaces are simple vertical furnaces with a collecting hearth (inside or outside the furnace), and a material charging system at the top. Shaft furnaces can be used both for smelting metals and for producing metals from the reduction of other metallic compounds. If used for metal smelting, a burner system is present at the lower end. The burners are usually gas-fired and are designed to produce either an oxidising or reducing atmosphere. This allows the metal to be melted with or without oxidation. Independent control of the fuel to air ratio is usually provided for each burner. Continuous CO or hydrogen monitoring is also provided for each row of burners and monitors the combustion gases from each burner in turn. Combustion gases are usually extracted and cleaned.

If oily metal is fed into the furnace it passes through the temperature gradient that exists between the charging area and the burners. The low temperature can produce a mist of partially burnt organic material.

If used for the production of metals from the reduction of metallic compounds, the input material will often include materials such as scrap lead-acid batteries. These raw materials are then mixed with coke, fluxes, other metallic scraps and intermediates before being fed to the top of the furnace. At the bottom of the furnace, oxygen-enriched air is blown inside to ignite the coke, and to smelt and reduce the metals in the input material. Off-gases from the furnace are extracted and treated in an afterburner to decompose any carbon monoxide, oil, VOCs or PCDD/F left. The shaft furnace is energy-efficient since it preheats the charge material before reaching the hot smelting/reduction zone.

13.1.4.4 The Contimelt process

The Contimelt process comprises two interconnected furnaces, a hearth shaft furnace and a drum (or poling) furnace. The first is a vertical rectangular furnace with a horizontal collecting chamber which is fed with blister or black copper and other raw materials. Oxy-gas burners supply heat and the feed is melted to produce a fire-refined copper and a small amount of slag which is separated.

The Contimelt process is shown in Figure 13.25.

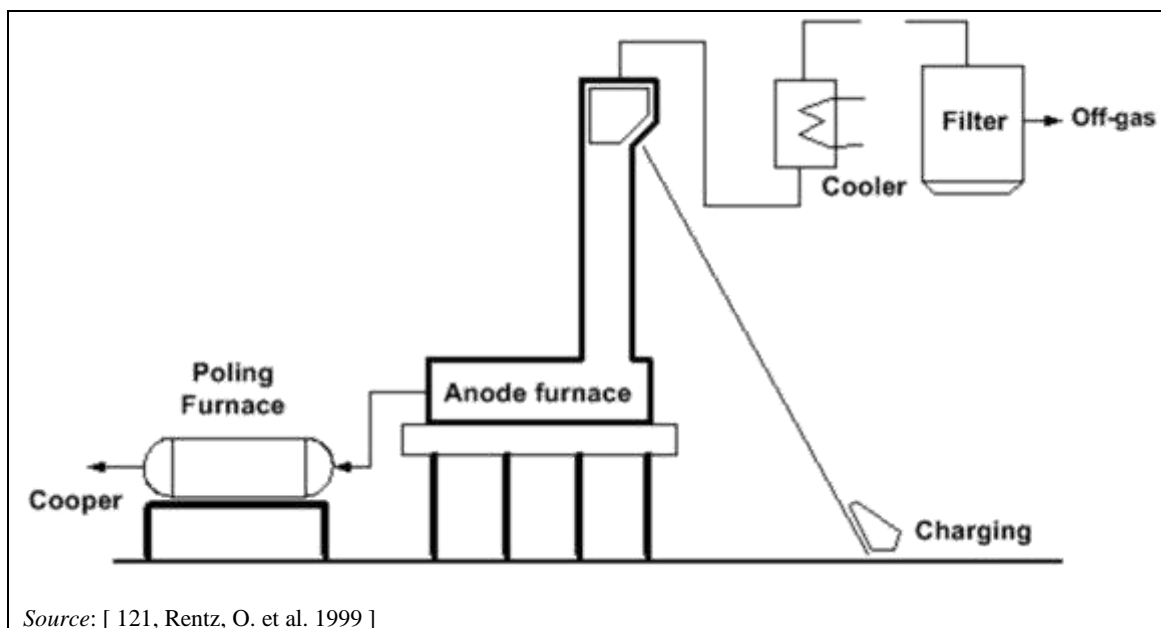


Figure 13.25: The Continelt Process

Molten copper flows via a siphon and a launder to a horizontal cylindrical furnace where it is deoxidised using natural gas. Refined copper is then cast as anodes. Gases from the second furnace are passed to an afterburner. They are then combined with gases extracted from the first furnace and pass to a waste heat boiler, burner air preheater, cooling stage and finally a fabric filter.

The furnace operating conditions can be controlled to minimise oxidation of the metal. The arrangement allows heat recovery by steam generation or charge preheating.

This is a continuous two-stage process to melt and treat black and blister copper, high-grade copper scrap and anode scrap to produce copper anodes. A similar development in the aluminium industry is the Meltower process [113, ALFED 1998]. This process uses a vertical melting tower and incorporates charge preheating using the hot exhaust gases.

13.1.4.5 Electron beam furnaces

The very high melting temperatures of refractory metals like tungsten and molybdenum, tantalum or niobium do not allow melting in a normal melting furnace. For high melting point metals, the electron beam furnace has been developed using accelerated electrons as an energy source to impart their energy into the furnace charge. The electron beam melting furnace is used to produce high-purity metals. The ability to melt high-purity metals is due to the perfectly clean high-temperature heat source (electrons) and the water-cooled copper hearth. The melted metal freezes against the copper so that the melt is only in contact with its own solid. Electron beam melting and refining is a well-established process for the production of ultraclean refractory metals.

13.1.4.6 Rotary furnace

The rotary furnace is a refractory-lined rotating cylinder fitted with a burner at one end. A charging door is provided at one end and the burner can sometimes be housed in this. Oxy-fuel firing can be used. The furnaces can be either long or short and several variants exist:

- short rotary furnace for the smelting of secondary lead, precious metals, etc.;
- long rotary furnace for the melting and recovery of aluminium scrap, etc.;

- Thomas furnace for the melting and refining of copper scrap, etc.;
- rotary furnace with submerged tuyères for the refining of blister or black copper, slag cleaning, etc.;
- tilting rotary furnace: for the melting and recovery of aluminium scrap, lead, dross, etc.;
- rotary/rocking furnace also called the Doerschel furnace used for the smelting of secondary lead.

Furnace rotation can be varied to give a complete reaction of the charged material and high efficiency. Raw materials are usually charged via an end door; this is usually enclosed and extracted to prevent fume emissions. The furnaces use oil or gas fuel and oxy-burners are commonly used. Heat from the burner is transferred to the refractory wall and the charge is heated by the refractory during rotation.

Slags and metal produced during the process can be tapped from a taphole at the door end or at the mid-point of the furnace. The taphole is orientated by partial rotation of the furnace to maintain the separation of the metal and slag. Tapping from the door end allows fumes to be collected from a single enclosure and extraction system. Tilting rotary furnaces are also used, they show improved recovery rates for some feedstocks and are less reliant on fluxes. A variety of metals can be smelted or melted in these furnaces.

13.1.4.7 Reverberatory (closed well) furnaces

The reverberatory furnaces are used for batch melting, refining and holding a variety of metals, particularly aluminium. They are refractory-lined, rectangular or circular bath furnaces fired by wall- or roof-mounted burners. They are often operated in a variety of configurations, sometimes with a sloping hearth where mixed metal objects can be placed and aluminium is separated from other metal components such as iron to prevent the contamination of the batch of aluminium. They can also vary in the number of wells or chambers that are used [234, UBA (D) 2007].

A variety of fuels are used and oxy-fuel burners can be used to increase the melting rate. Extraction and treatment of the combustion gases is used and the furnaces are partially sealed. Hoods and covered launders provide extraction during tapping and charging. Slag or dross can be removed by raking or by tapping.

Many designs have large access doors that allow large objects to be charged. This introduces the problem of sealing and extraction during charging. Water cooling of the doors can reduce this problem by reducing warping of the doors. Sealed charging carriages are used and charging pipes can be used for concentrates. In a similar manner, door sealing can be affected by material being incorrectly charged to the furnace. In some cases, spilt metal or slag can solidify in the opening or in other cases, wire or cable can prevent the doors from closing properly.

The melting efficiency of a reverberatory furnace is not usually high because of the poor heat transfer from the burner. Efficiency has been improved in practice by using oxygen enrichment or by using combinations of gas and solid fuel to extend the flame length. The use of regenerative burners reduces energy consumption significantly. Stirring of the contents using electromagnetic systems or pumps can also improve efficiency. The pumped systems can be operated with a side well to allow the melting of fine metal particles with minimum oxidation. The use of a reverberatory (bath) furnace for smelting is described in Annex 13.1.2.1

13.1.5 Summary of furnaces in common use

The furnaces used in these industries are summarised in Table 13.2, Table 13.3 and Table 13.4

Table 13.2: Drying, roasting, sintering and calcining furnaces

Furnace	Metals used	Material used	Comment
Steam coil dryer Fluidised bed dryer Flash dryer	Copper and some others	Concentrates	
Rotary kiln	Most metals for drying; Fuming ZnO; Calcining alumina, nickel and ferro-alloys; Burning film in precious metals; De-oiling copper and aluminium scrap Mercury removed from gas-cleaning precipitates.	Ores, concentrates and various scrap and residues	Drying, calcining and fuming applications
Shaft	Ferro-alloys (FeCr)	Lumpy furnace charge	Drying, devolatilising and preheating the furnace charge
Fluidised bed reactor	Copper, nickel, cobalt, precious metals, zinc and Al ₂ O ₃	Concentrates and Al(OH) ₃	Calcining and roasting
Updraught sintering machine	Zinc and lead	Concentrates and secondary raw materials	Sintering
Downdraught sintering machine	Zinc and lead	Concentrates and secondary raw materials	Sintering
Steel belt sintering machine	Ferro-alloys, manganese, chromium and niobium	Concentrates and fines	Other applications possible
Travelling grate Sintering machine	Ferro-alloys	Manganese fines	Sintering
Herreshoff	Refractory metals and molybdenum	Ores and concentrates	Roasting, calcining

Table 13.3: Smelting and converting furnaces

Furnace	Metals used	Material used	Comment
Enclosed refractory-lined crucibles	Refractory metals and special ferro-alloys	Metal oxides	
Open pit	Refractory metals and special ferro-alloys	Metal oxides	
Pusher	Refractory metals	Oxides	
Batch	Refractory metals	Metals	
Vacuum	Lead, tin and refractory metals	Secondary raw materials, carbon	
Baiyin	Copper	Concentrates	
Electric arc	Ferro-alloys	Concentrates, ores, secondary materials	
Contop/cyclone	Copper	Concentrates, ores	
Submerged electric arc	Precious metals, copper and ferro-alloys	Slag, secondary materials, concentrates, ores	For the production of ferro-alloys, the open, semi-closed and closed types are used
Rotary	Aluminium, lead and precious metals	Scrap and other secondary raw materials	Oxidation and reaction with substrate
Tilting rotary	Aluminium Lead	Scrap and other secondary raw materials. Flue-dusts that contain lead and secondary material	Minimises salt flux use Flue-dust from primary copper production. Battery recovery
Rotary/rocking	Lead	Smelting of secondary lead	Also called the Doerschel furnace
Reverberatory and hearth/closed well	Aluminium, copper, lead and others	Scrap and other secondary raw materials	Smelting of oxidic copper material, refining
Vanyukov	Copper	Concentrates	
Ausmelt/ISASMELT/KRS	Copper and lead	Intermediates, concentrates and secondary raw materials	
QSL	Lead	Concentrates and secondary raw materials	
Kivcet	Lead and copper	Concentrates and secondary raw materials	
Noranda	Copper	Concentrates	
El Teniente	Copper	Concentrates	
TBRC (KALDO) and TROF	Copper, lead, tin and precious metals	Most secondary raw materials including slimes	
Mini smelter	Copper/lead/tin	Scrap	
Blast and ISF	Lead, lead-zinc, copper, precious metals, HC FeMn	Concentrates, most secondary	
INCO flash	Copper and nickel	Concentrates	
Outotec flash furnace	Copper and nickel	Concentrates	
Mitsubishi process	Copper	Concentrates and anode scrap	
Peirce-Smith	Copper (converter), ferro-alloys, metal oxide production	Matte and anode scrap	
Hoboken	Copper (converter)	Matte and anode scrap	

Outotec flash converter	Copper (converter)	Matte	
Noranda	Copper (converter)	Matte	
Mitsubishi	Copper (converter)	Matte	

Table 13.4: Melting furnaces

Furnace	Metals used	Material used	Comment
Induction	Most	Clean metal and scrap	Induced stirring assists alloying. Vacuum can be applied for some metals
Electron beam	Refractory metals	Clean metal and scrap	
Rotary	Aluminium and lead	Various scrap grades	Fluxes and salts used for complex matrices
Reverberatory (also known as hearth or closed well)	Aluminium (primary and secondary)	Various scrap grades. (An additional side-well can be used for fine metal particles)	Bath or hearth configurations can vary. Melting or holding metal
Contimelt	Copper		Integrated furnace system
Shaft	Copper	Copper cathode and clean scrap	Reducing conditions
Drum (Thomas)	Copper	Clean copper scrap	Melting and fire refining
Heated crucibles (indirectly heated kettles)	Lead and zinc	Clean scrap and raw metal	Melting, refining and alloying
Directly heated crucibles	Precious metals	Clean metal	Melting and alloying
Submerged electric arc	Ferro-alloys (FeCr, FeMn, SiMn)	Lumpy ore, pellets, sinter, slag and secondary materials	

13.1.6 Electrochemical processes

13.1.6.1 Electrowinning

In electrowinning, an electrolytic cell is used consisting of an inert anode of lead or titanium and a cathode, placed in an aqueous electrolyte comprising the metal solution. The cathode is either a thin blank of pure metal (starter sheet) or a former sheet made from stainless steel or aluminium (permanent cathode plate). Metal ions pass from the solution and are deposited onto the cathode, and gases such as chlorine or oxygen are generated at the anode. Chlorine is collected in a sealed anode compartment but oxygen is usually released and may entrain some of the electrolyte and produce an acid mist, which may need to be collected and returned to the process. Cell hoods and gas-cleaning equipment or the use of beads or a foaming agent are needed to prevent mist from entering the workplace or environment. Depleted electrolyte is normally returned to the process.

Copper, cobalt, nickel, tin, zinc and precious metals are produced in this manner. When using permanent cathode plates, the pure metal deposits can be stripped or scraped off, melted and cast into the required shapes.

13.1.6.2 Electrorefining

In electrorefining, an electrolytic cell is used consisting of a cast anode of the metal to be refined and a cathode, placed in an electrolyte comprising the metal solution. The cathode is either a thin blank of pure metal (starter sheet) or a former sheet made from stainless steel (permanent cathode plate). Metal ions are dissolved from the impure anode and pass into the solution from where they are deposited onto the cathode.

Copper, precious metals, lead and tin are refined in this manner. When using permanent cathode plates, the pure metal deposits can be stripped or scraped off, melted and cast into the required shapes.

During electrorefining, other metals contained in the anodes are separated, less noble metals are dissolved in the electrolyte and more noble metals like the precious metals, selenium and tellurium form an anode slime that settles in the electrolytic cells. Anode slimes are periodically removed from the cells and the valuable metals are recovered. In some cases, anode bags are used to contain the slimes.

A portion of the electrolyte is bled from the system and other metals recovered from it.

13.1.6.3 Molten salt electrolysis

In molten salt electrolysis, an electrolytic cell is constructed using inert cathodes and anodes (steel or carbon) so that the high electrolyte temperatures can be withstood. Molten metal is deposited on the cathode and is removed periodically by vacuum or displacement. Gases such as chlorine or oxygen are evolved at the anode; chlorine is collected and recycled or sold. For aluminium, oxygen reacts with the carbon anode, which is continuously consumed.

Molten salt electrolysis can be used to produce aluminium, lithium, sodium and magnesium.

13.1.7 Hydrometallurgical processes

Acids and NaOH, sometimes also Na_2CO_3 , are used to dissolve the metal content of a variety of ores and concentrates before refining and electrowinning. The material to be leached is usually in the form of the oxide, either as an oxidic ore or an oxide produced by roasting [134, Metallurgical Consulting Traulsen GmbH 1998]. Direct leaching of zinc concentrate is also done at both elevated and atmospheric pressure.

Some copper sulphide ores can be leached with sulphuric acid or other media sometimes using natural bacteria to promote oxidation and dissolution, but very long residence times are used. Air or oxygen or chlorine can be added to leaching systems to provide the appropriate conditions, and solutions that contain ferric chloride are also used. The HydroCopper® process and similar processes have been developed to extend the range of ores and concentrates that can be treated by hydrometallurgy [308, Haavanlammi 2007].

The solutions that are produced are treated in a number of ways to refine and win the metals. Common practice is to return the depleted solutions to the leaching stage, where appropriate, to conserve acids and alkaline solutions.

13.1.7.1 Heap leaching

Open heap leaching is usually carried out at the mine. Material is crushed and ground to allow intimate particle-acid contact and is then formed into natural heaps on an impervious liner. Acid is sprayed onto the heaps and percolates through the mass [127, Chadwick, J. 1994]. It is collected on the liner and is recirculated to allow the metal content to build up. The leaching time of a single heap can vary from 100 days for copper oxide ore to 500 days for copper sulphide ore.

Bacteria can be used to enhance the leaching process and improve efficiency and this technique is used for some nickel ores where zinc, cobalt and copper are leached simultaneously and then separated prior to metal recovery [284, Riekkola et al. 2008].

The advantages of bio-heap leaching are that:

- it is based on a naturally occurring process, the bacteria promote leaching of metals from ore to solution;
- irrigation and aeration are the only additional processes;
- the capital and operating costs can be substantially lower than in traditional smelting and refining processes.

13.1.7.2 Atmospheric leaching (open tank)

Atmospheric leaching of oxides and concentrates is carried out in open or partially enclosed tanks by recirculating the mixture to maintain the temperature and acid concentration. The system is usually operated in a number of tanks in series. This is followed by sedimentation to separate the residue and purification and winning of the metal solution. Some leach residues can be leached further when the acid strength and temperature are increased. The use of a number of leaching stages can improve the leaching efficiency but can result in the dissolution of more impurities, particularly iron, which subsequently should be removed. The addition of oxygen and mixing it with the leachate by agitation can enhance the process.

13.1.7.3 Pressure leaching (autoclaving)

Pressure leaching or autoclaving can be carried out as a complete leaching process or as part of a series of leaching stages. Acid- or alkaline-resistant pressure vessels are used and liquor is recirculated to allow the reactions to proceed. Pressure leaching is also used to leach black copper to separate copper from other metals including precious metals.

Oxygen, air or chlorine can be added to increase oxidation. Pressure reduction stages can result in the production of acid mists and they are designed to contain them.

13.1.7.4 Solvent extraction

In solvent extraction, metals can be extracted from aqueous solutions with certain organic solvents that are insoluble in water. The aqueous and organic phases are mixed and by controlling the pH of the mix and the complexing agent used, the target metal is selectively extracted into the organic phase. After phase separation, a pure metal solution is obtained by re-extracting the metal from the organic phase into a secondary aqueous phase (stripping), from which the metal can be won in different ways [309, Pekkala 2007], Figure 13.26 shows the principle for such a process to produce copper. Other metals such as cobalt and zinc can also be produced in this way.

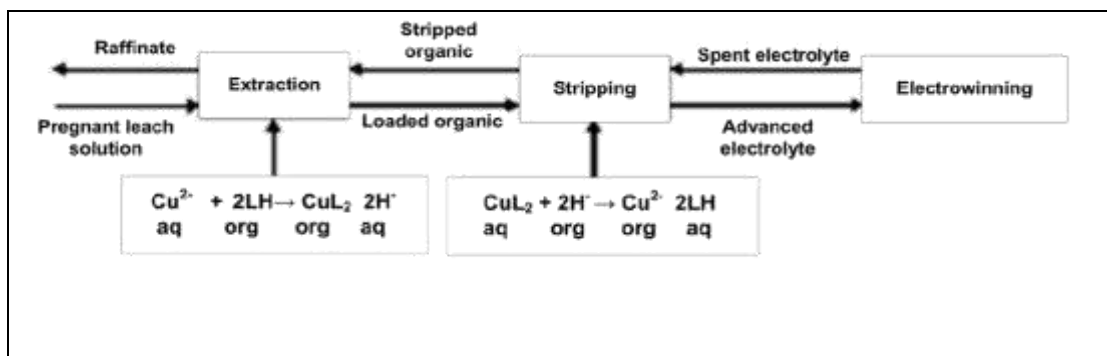


Figure 13.26: Solvent extraction (SX) processing stages

Solvent extraction can be used to selectively concentrate and purify solutions that contain zinc from either primary or secondary raw materials. The result is a pure zinc solution that can be used to produce SHG zinc after electrolysis or pure zinc sulphate, zinc oxide or other zinc chemicals.

The Zincex process originally used two different solvent extraction circuits, the first uses an anionic extractant, a secondary amine (Amberlite LA-2), and the second uses a cationic extractant, di-2-ethylhexyl-phosphoric acid (D2EHPA), to separate zinc from impurities and also increase the zinc concentration to produce a pure zinc sulphate electrolyte. The process has been simplified and enhanced to use only one solvent extraction cycle with D2EHPA and is integrated in the three main stages of leaching, solvent extraction and electrowinning [327, Gnoinski et al. 2008].

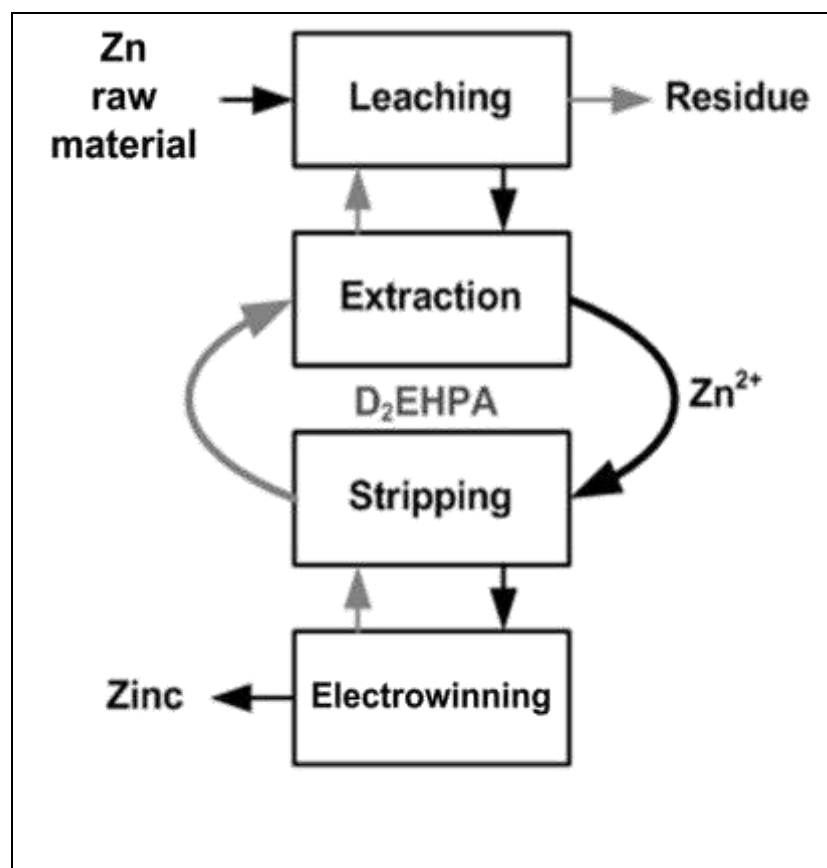


Figure 13.27: Process diagram of the modified Zincex process

When applied to primary zinc ores and concentrates, the process involves atmospheric leaching of the raw material, upgrading and purification of the pregnant leach solution by solvent extraction (SX), and zinc recovery by electrowinning (EW). The SX stage is also used to recover zinc from dirty secondary raw materials such as batteries.

13.2 Environmental monitoring practices

In several countries, production sites have mandatory measurement programmes covering the environmental impact on the surroundings of the production unit [226, Nordic Report 2008] [226, Nordic Report 2008]. In other cases, measurements are carried out by local authorities or by industry as part of larger research studies financed by parties other than the production site [237, UBA (A) 2004]. As discussed in Sections 2.3.5 and 2.4 on diffuse emissions, studies of the environment such as air dispersion modelling, reverse air dispersion modelling, air transportation models or studies of the water flows are commonly used to help identify potential sources of components in the environment from captured or diffuse emissions and differentiate between them [269, Broom 2005]. The fourth Air Quality Daughter Directive requires environmental monitoring of air for certain substances by local authorities and if the location of the monitors is suitable then these results can be used in the assessment of emissions provided that the substances are specific to the industry concerned. A comprehensive monitoring programme is also required to monitor the quality of the receiving waters in response to the EU Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC).

The aims may be to measure certain components such as metals in the surrounding air, water or land or the deposition of dust. Biological or health effect surveys or accident warning systems can also be applicable.

13.2.1 Examples of environmental monitoring practices

13.2.1.1 Examples from the Nordic countries

Air monitoring

The example below [226, Nordic Report 2008] shows a brief summary of some aspects concerning air quality in the surroundings of a zinc smelter. In Table 13.5 the yearly average concentrations of some metals are shown.

Table 13.5: Yearly average metal concentrations in ambient air from a complex industrial area which includes a primary zinc smelter

Substance	Location relative to emission point	2003	2004	2005	2006
PM ₁₀ (µg/Nm ³)	2 km from complex	12	11	12	14
Zinc (ng/Nm ³)	2 km from complex	NA	13.3	NA	NA
Cadmium (ng/Nm ³)	2 km from complex	NA	0.14	NA	NA
Nickel (ng/Nm ³)	2 km from complex	NA	2.2	NA	NA
Arsenic (ng/Nm ³)	2 km from complex	NA	0.57	NA	NA

NB: NA = Not available.
 Source: [226, Nordic Report 2008]

In this case, the local authorities maintain an ambient air quality monitoring system and a cooperation contract exists between the different parties taking part in the air quality monitoring programme. The system includes four measuring stations at distances of 2–4 km from the plant. A TEOM 1400a is used as the PM₁₀ collector and analyser and is working on a fully automatic continuous basis. It is based on a filter-based direct mass measurement method. Every five years, particles for metal analysis are collected with an accessory ACCU system over a two-week period.

At the measurement stations, several other parameters are also measured such as SO₂ and NO_x. All analysers work automatically and continuously. The analysers are calibrated four times a

year by an external expert. Results from monitoring stations are transferred automatically to a computer located in the office of the municipal environmental authority. The authority collects the data, reports to participants and communicates with different interested parties.

The land-sea wind effect may influence the results in spring and autumn significantly. Emissions in spring and autumn from the land and sea are deposited near the site and the measured concentrations here are usually higher than in normal situations.

In some plants, a broad bio-indicator study is performed regularly to assess the effects of emissions on the surroundings. This study also includes a survey of metals in dust and a survey of airborne metal concentrations in the soil. Sample points (about 100) in the bio-indicator and metal study are located at distances of 0.1 km to 30 km from the zinc smelter.

Water monitoring

A comprehensive monitoring programme is also set up for the quality of the receiving waters in response to the EU Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC). The monitoring is based on an authority-approved and cooperative monitoring programme. In one example there are 18 sample points in the sea area. Samples for water quality analyses are taken eight times a year so that samples will be taken both in summer and winter (ice-covered season). The seawater monitoring programme includes many different environmental parameters, e.g. quality of seawater (salinity, pH, O₂, temperature, colour, P-total, N-total), biological survey (phytoplankton, bottom macrofauna, macroalgae, periphyton, fish) and metal survey (metal concentrations in fish, sediment and bottom fauna). The monitoring programme (sample collection, analysis and reporting) is carried out entirely by external experts.

Trends in environmental concentrations over time show the effect that improvements in standards have achieved. Figure 13.28 shows zinc concentrations in seawater near a zinc smelter over a 30-year period. This allows the competent authority to ensure that measures taken result in the reduction of emissions.

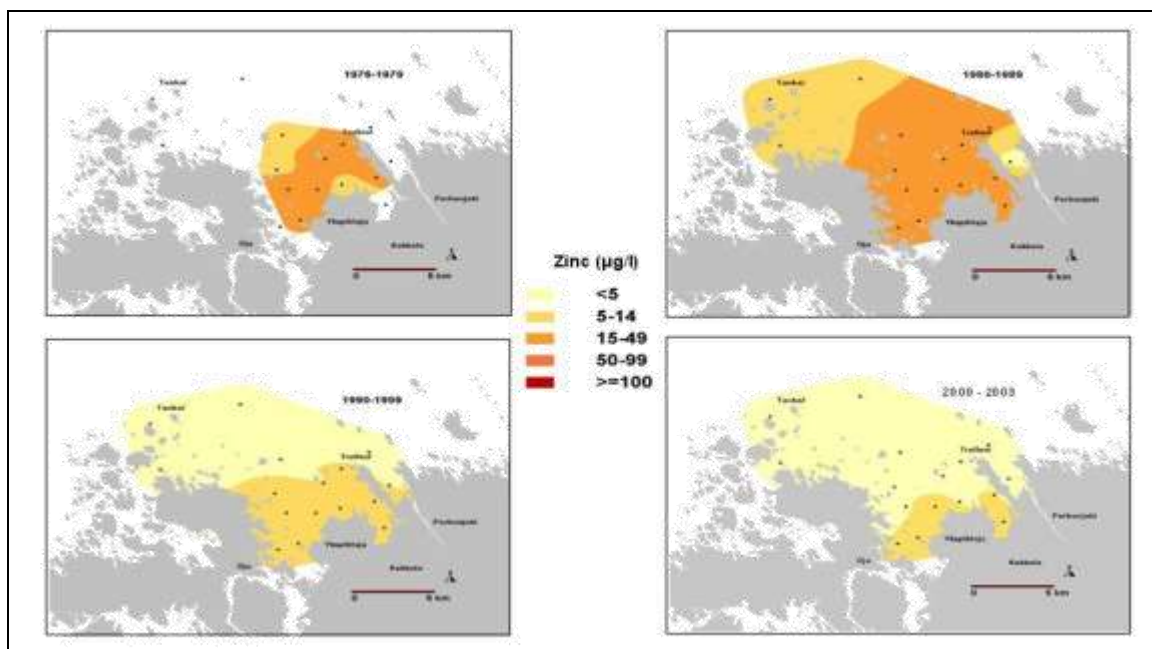


Figure 13.28: Trend of zinc concentrations in seawater over time near a zinc smelter

13.2.1.2 Examples from other countries

Similar practices are used in the UK where environmental samples are taken regularly, depending on the scale of the installation and the substances emitted, to establish the impact. Monitoring sites can be chosen based on the points of maximum environmental impact derived from air dispersion modelling. Samples of air, material deposited from air and from rain, soil and herbage are used to establish environmental levels and trends. Core samples of soil indicate the long-term deposition of pollutants while the analysis of grasses or crops indicate deposition during the growing season.

Potential sources of PM₁₀ near a steelworks were investigated and it was possible to examine the sampled particles microscopically or to use cusum sequential trend analysis to identify possible sources [269, Broom 2005]. In this case, it was possible to show that iron deposits came from ships offloading rather than from the furnaces.

There are a number of metals in air monitors around the emission sources of nickel in the upper Swansea Valley. In general, there is an upwind and a downwind pairing around each major source of nickel. The monitors have been operating for a number of years to give weekly ambient metal concentrations, which can then be used to calculate the annual mean levels of metals in the air around the sites. This work has shown ambient levels of nickel in the air to have dropped as a result of improvements in point source and diffuse controls. Analysis of the weekly data using pollution roses showed two sources of nickel in the area: one from the primary nickel producer and the second, a previously unidentified source of nickel, from a small metal production facility that uses nickel and other metals to produce a range of metal alloys and alloyed products [416, UK 2013].

In Germany, the local authority's air quality data and results from a monitoring point downwind of a smelter where the maximum ground levels of pollutants were predicted are being used to demonstrate the effect of process improvements [274, COM 2008]. Some results derived from environmental monitoring are shown in Figure 13.29 and show the reduction in environmental levels from 1989 to 2007.

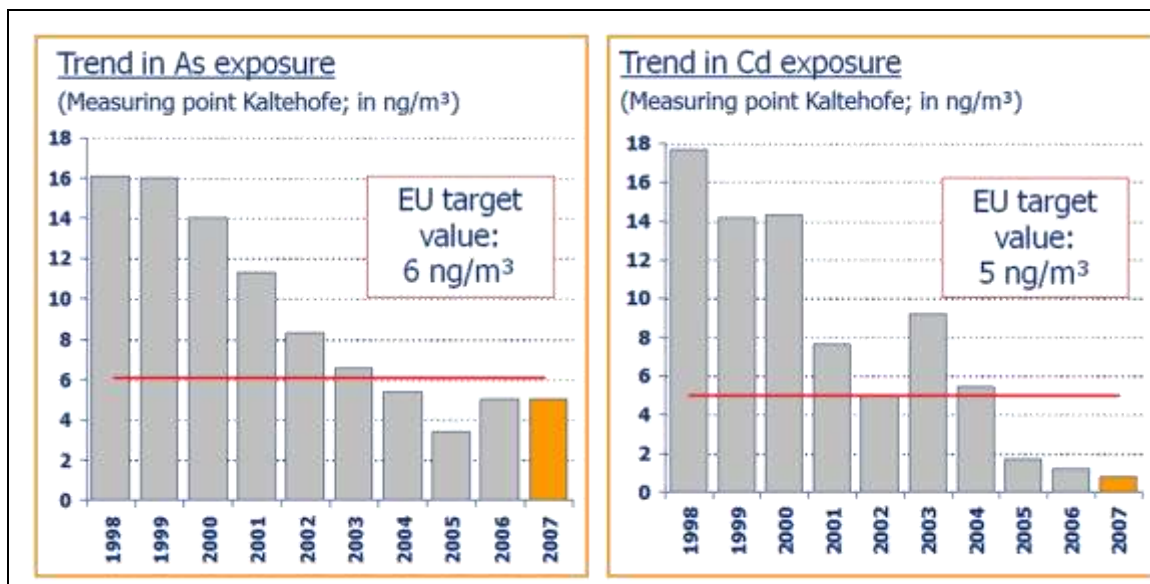


Figure 13.29: Trends of the concentration of As and Cd in the air measured at Elbe island in Hamburg (DE)

13.2.1.3 Studies in Austria

In Austria, emissions and deposition data from the town of Arnoldstein, including the testing of mosses near a smelter, have been analysed and the results show the reduction in impact as the site has been improved and cleaner processes have been adopted. Analyses of vegetables grown in gardens between 320 metres and 4700 metres from a secondary lead smelter have been performed as well as oil samples from cores to a depth of 10 mm [237, UBA (A) 2004], [328, Winter B., et al. 2009].

13.2.1.4 Studies in Belgium

In Flanders, the air quality in the area around the industrial sites near Hoboken has been determined for several years using a network of sampling stations. This allows the trends in emissions to be studied and the results from monitoring stations have also been used to perform reverse air dispersion modelling. The environmental concentrations of some metals are shown in Table 13.6, and the trends for lead in Figure 13.30 [335, VMM 2011].

Table 13.6: Environmental concentrations of some metals in PM₁₀ at sampling stations in Flanders

	Municipality/ district	Station code	Yearly average 2007 (ng/m ³)	Yearly average 2011 (ng/m ³)
Cd - target	Beerse	00BE01	28.5	12
	Beerse	00BE07	14.4	7.2
	Hoboken	00HB17	6.8	4.0
	Genk	00GK04	5.3	-
As - target	Beerse	00BE01	22.6	8.5
	Beerse	00BE07	12.4	5.8
	Hoboken	00HB01	31.1	14
	Hoboken	00HB17	25.3	23
	Hoboken	00HB23	49.0	41
	Hoboken	00HB18	15.2	8.8
	Hoboken	00HB19	12.2	NR
Ni - target	Genk	00GK02	34.9	21
	Genk	00GK03	32.9	17
	Genk	00GK04	81.4	NR
NB: NR=not reported Source: [335, VMM 2011]				



Source: [335, VMM 2011]

Figure 13.30:The trend in lead concentrations in PM₁₀ from 2002 to 2011 for some sampling stations in Flanders

13.2.2 Ecotoxicity and bioavailability

Since the original BREF was finalised, a lot of research and regulatory developments have taken place relating to assessing metals' toxicity and risks to the environment. These concepts and methodologies have been assessed and endorsed by EU competent authorities in the metals risk assessments carried out under the Existing Substances Regulation 793/93/EEC and have also been approved for use in the EU REACH Regulation 1907/2006/EC.

The concepts and methodologies are useful when assessing various site-specific environmental conditions and the effect metal concentrations may have on the environment (i.e. aquatic, sediment and soil). In terms of environmental monitoring, such a metal-specific risk assessment is particularly relevant as it gives details on how to carry out a bioavailability assessment of the various metals, recognising that the toxicity of metals is dependent on a number of parameters and abiotic factors (such as hardness).

The waste water of the non-ferrous metals industries is well characterised by measuring the concentrations of its constituents. The list of metals is relatively short, compared to the organic constituents which can occur in the chemical or other industry sectors. Several research projects have looked into the link between waste water composition and its ecotoxicity for algae. Models and methodologies for evaluating hazards, setting priorities, establishing environmental quality criteria, and monitoring and assessing the risks of chemicals are being developed and used in several jurisdictions. The majority of the compounds assessed are organic substances rather than inorganic metals and so the various methodologies and guidance documents provided for performing these assessments are lacking in detail on how to account for metal-specific attributes.

Questions related to the specific impact of metals on the environment and on human health have been raised. The need to establish ready and accessible metal-specific tools and data sets in order to make informed, science-based decisions has also been raised by representatives of local, regional, national and international administrations, as well as by members of non-governmental organisations, private companies and associations.

The Metals Environmental Risk Assessment Guidance (MERAG) was created by a consortium of researchers, metals associations, scientific panel reviewers and governmental reviewers (UK Government, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA)). MERAG was further adapted into an annex for the specific needs of the EU REACH Regulation 1907/2007 (Technical guidance document, Annex 4 VIII 'Environmental risk assessment and risk characterisation for metals and metal compounds'). This metals annex has been reviewed and legally accepted by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) [301, MERAG 2007].

The guidance is divided into different fact sheets that provide the risk assessors/regulators with methodologies to be used in chemicals management and environmental quality standard setting for metals and to allow consideration of site-specific conditions by the assessor through the introduction of metal-specific concepts described in points 1 to 3 below.

1) Exposure assessment

The main objective of the exposure assessment is the derivation and evaluation of metal concentrations for each environmental medium (water, air, soil, sediment) that is potentially affected by human activities.

Metal concentrations in the environment are the result of the natural composition, historical contamination and the emissions associated with the use pattern and the complete life cycle of the metal (i.e. from mining to maximum separation and recycling of metals and disposal of the remaining waste). Due to the inherent variation of metal concentrations in the natural environment (e.g. different natural concentrations) and the variations of anthropogenic input, large differences in observed metal levels can be found in different locations.

Speciation is of paramount importance; metals can occur in different valences, associated with different anions or cations, and can be associated with adsorptive agents, such as dissolved organic matter (DOM) in water, or bound to minerals in sediment or soil. Therefore, speciation is highly dependent on the environmental conditions and chemistry of the site. The absorption/desorption behaviour of a metal depends greatly on the prevailing environmental conditions. The exposure assessment therefore goes beyond what is achieved by a simple direct toxicity assessment.

2) Effects assessment

The main goal is the long-term protection of the environment. Typical ecosystems that are considered for the inland environment are the aquatic (including the sediments), sewage treatment plants and terrestrial ones. For each of these, a predicted no-effect concentration (PNEC) should be derived. This PNEC is considered the concentration below which an unacceptable effect will most likely not occur.

MERAG provides guidance on the effects data selected for PNEC derivation to comply with the requirements (criteria) for data quality and data relevance. It takes into account the metal-specific considerations in permit setting (methodologies are provided on data quality selection, aggregation, interpretation, and on derivation of the PNEC value) [301, MERAG 2007]

The derivation of the PNEC value can take into consideration the (bio)available fraction of organisms for the specific environmental conditions of the site (toxicity models were developed to predict the bioavailability of metals for conducting risk assessments in the terrestrial, sediment and aquatic ecosystems). This possibility of taking into account the bioavailability of the metals is also provided for in Directive 2008/105/EC on environmental quality standards in the field of water policy and amending Directives 82/176/EEC, 83/513/EEC, 84/156/EEC, 84/491/EEC, 86/280/EEC and 2000/60/EC.

3) Risk characterisation

The guidance sets out a ‘building block’ approach to allow compliance with the permit conditions, and ensures, at the same time, that the best option for managing the potential risks presented by metals/metal compounds is considered. To this end, a tiered approach is advocated since data availability will depend to a large extent on the type of metal/metal compound under investigation, allowing for further refinement of the assessment.

In 2008, the refinement tools presented in the MERAG document were only applicable for metals that had sufficient data (e.g. nickel, copper, zinc). Tools are being explored for additional metals as the science is evolving (e.g. for silver, cobalt, aluminium).

The methodologies developed under MERAG are being implemented at the field level in various EU countries. Bioavailability models are also being further developed for a wider range of environmental conditions (e.g. marine and estuarine conditions).

13.3 Specific cost data for metal production and abatement

The data given in this annex focus on the process plant and main consumption figures. Site-specific cost factors have been eliminated as far as possible. The information gives an order of magnitude of the cost range and allows a limited comparison of costs between techniques.

Data are not available for all of the metal groups and so these data are presented as an annex so that some costs, e.g. for furnaces or abatement, can be referred to for these groups. Costs are mainly presented on the basis of cost per tonne of metal produced per year. Reference is made where possible to the size of the process or of the abatement plant so that the data can be used to provide rough estimates for sectors that may not be represented.

Several sources presented data and all give the specific investment cost per tonne of metal produced per year. The data were supplied in a variety of currencies effective at the time of purchase. For the sake of direct comparisons, these currencies have been converted into euros, using the exchange rate that was effective on 16 June 1999: USD 1.06 = EUR 1. The various exchange rates that operated since 1950 are given below so that the original costs can be derived if required.

Table 13.7: Some currency exchange rates

Year	DEM/GBP	DEM/USD	USD/GBP	DEM/EUR ⁽¹⁾	USD/EUR ⁽¹⁾
1950	11.76	4.20	2.80	-	-
1960	11.71	4.17	2.81	-	-
1970	8.74	3.65	2.40	-	-
1980	4.23	1.82	2.33	2.48	1.36
1990	2.88	1.62	1.79	2.07	1.26
1993	2.48	1.65	1.50	1.90	1.15
1996	2.35	1.50	1.56	1.90	1.27
1998	2.91	1.76	1.66	1.97	1.12
2008	NA	NA	1.992	NA	1.487

⁽¹⁾ Since 1979 only.

The cost data shown in this annex are an order of magnitude indication only.

Some sources also reported financing and operating costs for a particular installation. These may not be applicable to other sites because the costs of individual operations would include a substantial percentage of site- and corporate-specific cost components.

13.3.1 Influences on cost data

Some of the site-specific influences on costs referred to above are as follows:

- transport:
 - o feed material transport costs (effect on treatment and refining charge), transport costs for product(s);
- direct operating costs:
 - o labour legislation, climatic conditions, arrangement of unit operations (in-plant transport costs), energy availability, available infrastructure, special environmental protection requirements;
- sales costs:

- o market access, infrastructure, climatic conditions;
- capital costs:
 - o feed material shipment options, market access and market conditions/product sale, corporate structure;
- investment costs:
 - o climatic conditions, available infrastructure, energy and consumables, specific local environmental protection requirements.

The above factors indicate that it is very difficult to give reliable cost data which could be used in a more general sense without the danger of misleading results. A complete and reliable economic calculation/evaluation can only be done for a site-specific investment. Only on such a basis are definite cost data available. For example, the following factors have an overwhelming influence on the economics of a project and cannot always be estimated in this annex:

- treatment and refining charges for concentrates;
- costs for concentrates, flux, etc. and other purchases;
- purchase price (after deductions) of secondary materials;
- purchase price for refined metal;
- sale of by-products like sulphuric acid or similar;
- the selected country (taxes, labour, disposal and energy costs, inflation);
- the specific site (transport of pure materials and products);
- the infrastructure (availability of energy, water, oxygen, maintenance);
- the plant capacity;
- type and composition of feed;
- time schedule and time of investment;
- financing of the investment;
- costs for construction and erection (inland execution).

Where accurate costs are known for specific installations they have been included but they are provided separately so that site variation can be taken into account. Comments have also been made where possible to illustrate how cost variations, e.g. waste disposal costs, can account for a significant variation in the costs.

The capital cost of emission control measures and equipment varies with the type of plant. While in existing plants retrofit costs can be very high, integrated pollution control measures in new plants may be more cost-effective [234, UBA (D) 2007]. Factors governing the capital cost of a fabric filter system include:

- the off-gas volume to cleaned;
- the off-gas characteristics (dust and moisture content, temperature, presence of aggressive constituents);
- the need for additive dosing or flue-dust recirculation (additional piping, silos, conveying systems);
- available floor area for construction; type of construction (arrangement options, shallow or pile foundation, overall height, filter area, number of compartments, duct routing, etc.);
- the necessary stack height or need for stack lining (depending on off-gas composition);
- the necessary measuring equipment (platform, continuous monitoring equipment, access);
- extended scope of supplies (off-gas cooler, compressors, etc.).

Off-gases with low dust loads (e.g. secondary hood off-gases with fine dust loads < 50 mg/m³) normally require the addition of an additive (e.g. lime) to improve the dust collection efficiency. This not only drastically increases the raw gas dust load, but also the volume of collected dust

that should be disposed of. For moist and/or aggressive off-gases, the filter may have to be heated or provided with a corrosion protection coating.

The capital cost of a fabric filter designed for an off-gas flow rate of approximately 100 000 m³/h, including fan and filter media, was of the order of approximately EUR 650 000 (secondary hood off-gas with low dust load) or approximately EUR 950 000 (process off-gas with an elevated dust load). The total cost of a filter system including steel and concrete structures, ducting, stack and other equipment (see above) may amount to three or four times the capital cost of the filter.

Electricity consumption is the largest single contributor to the operating costs. Depending on the filter area, filter resistance, dust composition and concentration, the specific power consumption of a bag filter ranges from 2 kWh to 3 kWh per 1000 m³ of off-gas. If, due to the specific additive used, the dust collected in the filter system cannot be further processed for metal recovery and should be landfilled, the additional cost will be substantial.

13.3.2 Specific investment costs for copper process plants

As explained above, the investment costs for copper plants are also influenced by a number of site-specific factors and not only by the process technology and abatement techniques selected. Table 13.8 to

Table 13.12 give some technology-related data.

The tables indicate for greenfield plants:

- the year of investment or cost determination;
- the key plant sections covered;
- the production capacity related to the cost indication.

The normal plant-related abatement techniques are included in the cost indication. The investment costs are indicated as specific cost per tonne of copper. The cost data shown are to be understood as an order of magnitude indication. Costs for land, finance, inside and outside plant infrastructure, owner's costs during construction and all other investments which are not directly connected with the plant sections mentioned are not included.

Table 13.8: Primary copper smelter/acid plant complexes

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1977	2250–2450	Anode copper 70 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>partial roasting & electric furnace smelting</u> , PS converter, anode plant, EF slag cleaning, double catalysis acid plant
1980	2450–2650	Anode copper, 150 000–160 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>Outotec flash smelter</u> , PS converter, anode plant, EF slag cleaning, double catalysis acid plant
1981	1700–1850	Anode copper, 280 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>Outotec flash smelter</u> , PS converter, anode plant, EF slag cleaning, double catalysis acid plant
1981	2850–3000	Anode copper 100 000 t/yr	Material handling storage, <u>Mitsubishi continuous smelting</u> , anode plant, double contact/double absorption acid plant
1981	2250–2550	Anode copper 120 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>INCO furnace</u> , PS converter, anode plant, double catalysis acid plant
1992	2150–2250	Anode copper 150 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>ISASMELT furnace</u> , PS converter, anode plant, EF slag cleaning, double catalysis acid plant
1994	2250–2350	Anode copper 285 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>Outotec flash smelter</u> , <u>flash converter</u> , anode plant, double catalysis acid plant. Slag flotation not included
1995	2350–2750	Anode copper 120 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>Outotec flash smelter</u> , PS converter, anode plant, EF slag cleaning, double catalysis acid plant
1997	1950–2150	Anode copper 160 000 t/yr	Material handling storage, <u>Mitsubishi continuous smelting</u> , anode plant, double contact/double absorption acid plant
1998	2550–2650	Anode copper 303 000 t/yr	<u>Outotec flash smelter</u> , <u>flash converter</u> , anode plant, double catalysis acid plant
1998	2950–3150	Anode copper 200 000 t/yr	Material handling storage, <u>Mitsubishi continuous smelting</u> , anode plant, double contact/double absorption acid plant

NB: Original costs were in USD and have been converted using EUR 1 = USD 1.06.
Source: [90, Traulsen, H. 1998], [206, Traulsen, H. 1999]

Table 13.9: Rönnskär Project

Year	Installation cost	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1999	SEK 2 billion (EUR 224 million)	Copper 100 000 t/yr	Extension to quay for raw material unloading; Enclosed conveyors for raw material handling; Mixing plant and conveyors; Outotec flash furnace; Converter aisle with three Peirce-Smith converters with a capacity of 250 tonnes; Ventilation air extraction system and bag filter; Fire refining and anode casting plant - 45 t/h extra capacity; 33 % increase in copper electrorefinery, evaporator to produce copper sulphate; Refurbishment of sulphuric acid plants to handle 280 000 Nm ³ /h; Mercury removal stage; Process instrumentation; Civil engineering costs.
NB: The plant was upgraded in 1999 to allow the production of an additional 100 000 t/yr of copper. The anticipated payback period was 6.5 years.			

Table 13.10: Secondary copper smelters

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1990	1300–1500	Anode copper 50 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>shaft furnace</u> , converter, anode plant
1990	1100–1300	Anode copper 80 000–100 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>electric furnace</u> , converter, anode plant
1991	1250–1400	Anode copper, 60 000 t/yr	Material handling/storage, <u>TBR furnace</u> , anode plant ⁽¹⁾
⁽¹⁾ The technical concept is different from the process now used at Metallo-Chimique and Elmet. NB: Original costs were in USD and have been converted using EUR 1 = USD 1.06. Source: Boliden [90, Traulsen, H. 1998].			

Table 13.11: Electrolytic copper refineries

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1976	470	Cathode copper 380 000 t/yr	Conventional process concept with starter sheets and mechanisation
1987	550–600	Cathode copper 40 000 t/yr	ISASMELT process concept with permanent cathodes
1990	400–450	Cathode copper 180 000 t/yr	ISASMELT process concept with permanent cathodes
1993	450–480	Cathode copper 150 000 t/yr	ISASMELT process concept with permanent cathodes
1994	650	Cathode copper 280 000 t/yr	Retrofit/expansion of an existing refinery based on the Kidd Creek concept with permanent cathodes
1996	400–450	Cathode copper 200 000 t/yr	ISASMELT process concept with permanent cathodes

NB: Original costs were in USD and have been converted using EUR 1 = USD 1.06.
Source: [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]

Table 13.12: Copper wire rod plants

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1992	180–200	Copper wire rod 220 000 t/yr	Continuous <u>Southwire</u> type rod line with shaft furnace for melting
1995	280–320	Copper wire rod 80 000 t/yr	Continuous <u>Southwire</u> type rod line with shaft furnace for melting
1995	290–330	Copper wire rod 80 000 t/yr	Continuous <u>Contirod</u> type rod line with shaft furnace for melting

NB: Original costs were in USD and have been converted using EUR 1 = USD 1.06.
Source: [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]

13.3.3 Specific investment costs for primary and secondary aluminium processes

Primary aluminium smelters

The following ranges are given as investment costs for conversions that are identified as possible options for a new plant or for upgrading existing plants [421, EAA, 2014]:

Side-worked prebaked (SWPB) to point feed prebaked (PFPB): EUR 400–1000 per tonne yearly of production capacity.

Centre-worked prebaked to point feed prebaked: EUR 100–200 per tonne of yearly production capacity.

Vertical stud Söderberg (VSS) to point feed prebaked: EUR 2300–3100 per tonne of yearly production capacity.

Conventional VSS to modernised VSS: EUR 270–400 per tonne of yearly production capacity.

New point feed prebaked (greenfield site): EUR 4500–5500 per tonne of yearly production capacity.

The conversion of SWPB or VSS to point feed prebaked can, in most cases, never be achieved to a standard comparable to a completely new PFPB plant.

The operating cost for a primary smelter depends entirely on the factors given above and will, according to reports from various consultants, be in the range of EUR 1200–1600 per tonne, excluding capital costs.

Investment costs for abatement equipment will again depend on site-specific conditions, since this will determine the extent of the additional equipment and work necessary in addition to the actual equipment installation. The following ranges can be given:

Dry scrubbing unit:	EUR 200–300 per tonne produced per year.
SO ₂ wet scrubber with seawater for pot gases:	EUR 100–200 per tonne produced per year.
SO ₂ alkali scrubber for pot gases:	EUR 150–250 per tonne produced per year.

Secondary aluminium melters

Process equipment costs:

- Rotary furnace: EUR 15–60 per tonne produced per year.

Abatement equipment costs:

- Bag filter system: EUR 30–75 per tonne produced per year.
- Ceramic filter system: EUR < 30 per tonne produced per year.

13.3.4 Specific investment costs for lead-zinc processes

Table 13.13 to Table 13.16 give some data for primary and secondary lead smelters, for electrolytic zinc plants as well as lead-zinc shaft furnaces, for a Waelz kiln, a fuming plant and H₂SO₄ plants. Costs are given in USD per tonne of metal produced per year. Again, the exchange rate USD to local currency is very important, as it is time-dependent.

The data presented include:

1. the year for which the cost figures have been evaluated;
2. the volume of delivery;
3. the size of the smelter;
4. the specific investment costs per tonne of metal.

In the case of lead-zinc shaft furnaces, the investment costs are related to zinc production alone as well as to total Zn + Pb production. The costs only show the order of magnitude for such investments.

Table 13.13: Lead processes

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1980	660	Pb, 100 000 t/yr	Sinter machine, shaft furnace, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, lead refining
1990	400	Pb, 60 000 t/yr	Secondary, plastics separation, smelting, lead refining
1990	635	Pb, 30 000 t/yr	Secondary, plastics separation, smelting, lead refining (same order of magnitude for CX system)
1997	625	Pb, 100 000 t/yr	QSL plant, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, without lead refining (Kivcet and TBRC plant should show similar investment costs)
1997	330	Pb, 30 000 t/yr	Secondary shaft furnace, lead refining
1997	145	Pb, 100 000 t/yr	Lead refining
2009	1080 ⁽¹⁾	Pb, 65 000 t/yr	Ausmelt plant with installation and abatement and acid plant

⁽¹⁾ Total installation cost was EUR 70 million for 65 000 t/yr
Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

Table 13.14: Zinc processes

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1980	1580	Zn, 100 000 t/yr	Roasting, leaching, purification, electrolysis, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, foundry
1996	1530	Zn, 100 000 t/yr	Roasting, leaching, purification, electrolysis, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, foundry
1997	1450	Zn, 100 000 t/yr	Roasting, leaching, purification, electrolysis, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, foundry
2002	533 ⁽¹⁾	Zn, 75 000 t/yr	Roaster, WHB and water treatment, gas cleaning, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, cooling water installation, weak acid treatment

⁽¹⁾ Total installation cost was EUR 40 million for 75 000 t/yr
Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

Table 13.15: Zinc and lead processes

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1980	1550	Zn, 100 000 t/yr; Pb, 40 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining
1996	1380	Zn, 100 000 t/yr; Pb, 40 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining
1996	2080	Zn, 100 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining
1997	1790	Zn, 100 000 t/yr; Pb, 40 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining
1997	2580	Zn, 100 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining
1994	2800	Zn, 85 000 t/yr; Pb, 35 000 t/yr	Sinter-roasting, ISF, H ₂ SO ₄ plant, Zn refining

Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

Table 13.16: Zinc residues

Year	Installation cost (EUR/t production capacity/yr)	Product made and design capacity	Plant sections included
1980	480	Waelz oxide, 21 000 t/yr	Waelz kiln, cooler, filter
1997	415	Slag, 20 000 t/yr	Drying, fuming, waste heat boiler, PSA, filter

Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

13.3.5 Cost data for abatement techniques

13.3.5.1 Air emissions abatement in the copper industry

The techniques applied for cleaning the off-gases and ventilation gases from copper operations are focused on the elimination of dust and gaseous matter including SO₂ and SO₃. Examples of widely applied gas cleaning systems/equipment are electrostatic precipitators (ESPs), bag filters, ceramic filters, etc.

The following data are given for a waste heat boiler, hot and wet ESPs, gas cooling and cleaning.

The data for complete sulphuric acid plants are given later.

Table 13.17: Indirect gas cooling - energy recovery

Application: Smelting furnace waste heat boiler	
Design basis:	
Gas temperature:	
Inlet	1300–1350 °C
Outlet	300–400 °C
Gas flow	100 000 Nm ³ /h
Steam production	35 t/h
Total installation cost	EUR 7.0–8.0 million

Table 13.18: Dry ESP

Smelter SO ₂ gas cleaning		
Application	Flash furnace ESP	Flash furnace ESP
Design basis:		
Operating temperature	300–400 °C	300–400 °C
Gas flow	43 000 Nm ³ /h	61 000 Nm ³ /h
Dust inlet	10–20 g/Nm ³	10–15 g/Nm ³
Dust outlet	150–200 mg/Nm ³	200–300 mg/Nm ³
Efficiency	99.9 %	99.8 %
ESP characteristics:	4 fields, 3000 m ² collection area, single unit	3 fields, 4800 m ² collection area, single unit
Total equipment supply cost	EUR 1.0 million ⁽¹⁾	EUR 2.0 million ⁽¹⁾
Electricity consumption	250 kW installed	400 kW installed

⁽¹⁾ Civil work, erection, etc. excluded; for installation costs, approximately 80–100 % will have to be added.

Source: [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991]

Table 13.19: Bag filter

Application	Shaft furnace, converter & anode furnace	TBRC	Cooler & bag filter
Design basis:			
Operating temperature	~ 100 °C	~ 100 °C	~ 100 °C
Gas flow	750 000 Nm ³ /h	730 000 Nm ³ /h	70 000 Nm ³ /h
Dust outlet	< 10 mg/Nm ³	< 10 mg/Nm ³	< 10 mg/Nm ³
Total installation cost	EUR 20 million ⁽¹⁾	EUR 14 million ⁽²⁾	EUR 2–2.5 million ⁽³⁾
Main consumption:			
Electricity	2.5–3 kWh/1000 Nm ³	2–3 kWh/1000 Nm ³	1.5–4 kWh/1000 Nm ³
Others	1 g/Nm ³ lime ⁽⁴⁾		
⁽¹⁾ Including ductwork and stack. ⁽²⁾ Excluding ductwork and stack. ⁽³⁾ Total installation cost including gas cooler and stack. ⁽⁴⁾ For anode furnace gas stream Source: [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]			

Table 13.20: Wet ESP

SO ₂ gas treatment	
Type	Two wet ESPs in line
Application	Final SO ₂ gas cleaning for further treatment
Design basis:	
Operating temperature	27 °C inlet
Gas flow	88.00 Nm ³ /h
Precipitation efficiency for	
Dust	99 %
Arsenic	99 %
H ₂ SO ₄	99 %
Total equipment supply costs	EUR 2.0 million ⁽¹⁾
Electricity consumption	112 kW
⁽¹⁾ Civil work, erection, etc. excluded; for installation costs, approximately 60–80 % will have to be added. Source: [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991]	

Table 13.21: Wet ESP

Wet gas cooling and cleaning system for smelter SO ₂ gases		
System	Wet gas cleaning for furnace SO ₂ gas	Wet gas cooling and cleaning section for combined SO ₂ in furnace and converter gases
System equipment	1 radial flow scrubber, 1 fan, 2 in-line wet ESPs with a 2000 m ² total collection area, acid cooler and acid circulation pumps, 1 cooling tower, 900 m ³ /h cooling media circulation	2 radial flow scrubbers, 3 lines with 2 in-line wet ESPs with a 7000 m ² total collection area, acid cooler and acid circulation pumps, 2 cooling towers, 2200 m ³ /h cooling media circulation
Design basis:		
Operating temperature	390 °C inlet, 35 °C outlet	370 °C inlet, 27 °C outlet
Gas flow	96 000 Nm ³ /h	250 000 Nm ³ /h
Precipitation efficiency for:		
Dust	96–97 %	96–97 %
Arsenic	99.0 %	99.0 %
Mist	> 99.5 %	> 99.5 %
Equipment supply costs	EUR 7.5–8 million ⁽¹⁾	EUR 16–17 million ⁽²⁾
Electricity consumption	828 kW	1250 kW
⁽¹⁾ Civil work, erection, etc. excluded; for installation costs, approximately 60–80 % will have to be added. ⁽²⁾ Civil work, erection, etc. excluded; for installation costs, approximately 70–100 % will have to be added. Source: [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991]		

The following cost data are given for abatement systems used in secondary copper processes and were provided by Austria. The costs are given in Austrian schillings (ATS) and euros (EUR); site-specific investment, operating and disposal costs are given [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]

Table 13.22: Afterburner, reactor and bag filter

Regenerative afterburner installation with reactor and fabric filter treating off-gases from a shaft furnace		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 20 000 Nm ³ /h	Quantity of metal produced: 18 000 t/yr black copper. Operating hours 6300 h/yr	
Output data: < 0.1 ng I-TEQ/Nm ³ PCDD/F		
Description: Regenerative afterburner installed after a fabric filter treating 20 000 Nm ³ /h of dedusted gas with a reduction of 98 % for PCDD/F		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	12 +/-20 %	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.24	
Proportional investment costs including interest		68.64 (4.99)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs = ATS 0.24 million/yr)	2	13.33 (0.97)
Proportional costs:		
Support fuel (MJ/t)	1342	80.52
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t) at ATS 0.9/kWh	13.5	12.15
Total costs		~ 175 (12.72)
<i>Source:</i> Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]		

Table 13.23: Afterburner

Afterburner placed between a shaft furnace and waste heat boiler		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 20 000 Nm ³ /h	Quantity of metal produced: 18 000 t/yr black copper. Operating hours 6300 h/yr	
Description: 98 % removal of PCDD/F		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)		
Number of years	8 +/-20 %	
Interest rate (%)	15	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	6	
Proportional investment costs including interest	0.82	45.76 (3.33)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	2	8.89 (0.65)
Proportional costs:		
Support fuel (MJ/t)	1304	78.24
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t)	16.0	5.4
Total costs		~ 138 (10.03)
<i>Source: Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]</i>		

Table 13.24: Wet desulphurisation

Wet desulphurisation process to remove sulphur dioxide from scrap converter off-gases		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 35 000 Nm ³ /h. Average input SO ₂ ~ 2300 mg/Nm ³ , peak 4000 mg/Nm ³	Quantity of metal produced: 12 000 t/yr raw copper. Operating hours 1200 h/yr	
Output data: Yearly average SO ₂ < 50 mg/Nm ³ , peak < 200 mg/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	25	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	2.54	
Proportional investment costs including interest		214.51 (15.59)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	2	41.67 (3.03)
Proportional costs:		
Cost of CaO (kg/t Cu) at ATS 1/kg	6.74	6.74
Disposal cost of gypsum (kg/t Cu) at ATS 0.2/kg	22.99	4.6
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t) at ATS 0.9/kWh	16.39	14.75
Total costs		~ 282 (20.49)
<i>Source: Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]</i>		

Table 13.25: Semi-dry scrubber

Semi-dry desulphurisation process to reduce sulphur dioxide from an anode furnace		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 80 000 Nm ³ /h. Pressure drop 20 mbar. SO ₂ ~ 500 mg/Nm ³	Quantity of metal produced: 60 000 t/yr anode copper. Operating hours 7000 h/yr	
Output data: SO ₂ ~ 50 mg/Nm ³ , 95 % reduction of PCDD/F		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	30 +/- 20 %	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	3.09	51.48 (3.74)
Proportional investment costs including interest		
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	3	15 (1.09)
Proportional costs:		
CaO (kg/t Cu)	7.35	7.35
Carbon (kg/t Cu)	1.87	6.53
Combustion air	23.33	3.97
Disposal (kg/t Cu)	13.42	26.83
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t)	14.08	12.67
Total costs		~ 124 (9.01)
<i>Source: Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]</i>		

Table 13.26: Activated carbon filter

Activated carbon filter for black copper production		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas 20 000 Nm ³ /h. Pressure drop 25 mbar	Quantity of metal produced: 18 000 t/yr black copper. Operating hours 6300 h/yr	
Output data: PCDD/F < 0.1 ng I-TEQ/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	12	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.24	68.64 (4.99)
Proportional investment costs including interest		
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	2	13.33 (0.97)
Proportional costs:		
Consumption and disposal of activated carbon (kg/t Cu) at ATS 6.5 /kg	1.4	9.1
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t) at ATS 0.9/kWh	17.51	15.76
Total costs		~ 107 (7.78)
<i>Source: Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]</i>		

Table 13.27: SCR

Selective catalytic reduction to reduce oxides of nitrogen		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 20 000 Nm ³ /h	Quantity of metal produced: 18 000 t/yr black copper. Operating hours 6300 h/yr	
Output data: NO _x < 100 mg/Nm ³ , 98 % reduction of PCDD/F		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	10	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.03	
Proportional investment costs including interest		57.2 (4.16)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	2	11.11 (0.81)
Proportional costs:		
Cost of ammonia (kg/t Cu) at ATS 1.8/kg	2.07	3.73
Replacement catalyst (m ³ /yr) at ATS 200 000 /m ³	0.5	5.56
Energy for reheat (MJ/t) at ATS 60/GJ	284	17.01
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/t) at ATS 0.9/kWh	19.03	17.13
Total costs		~ 112 (8.14)
<i>Source:</i> Austrian cost data in [157, Winter, B. et al. 1999]		

The following data were supplied in 2007 by Germany for the review of the NFM BREF.

The capital cost of emission control measures and equipment varies with the type of plant. While in existing plants, retrofit costs can be very high, integrated pollution control measures in new plants may be more cost-effective. Factors governing the capital cost of a fabric filter system include:

- the off-gas volume to cleaned;
- the off-gas characteristics (dust and moisture content, temperature, presence of aggressive constituents);
- the need for additive dosing or flue-dust recirculation (additional piping, silos, conveying systems);
- available floor area for construction; type of construction (arrangement options, shallow or pile foundation, overall height, filter area, number of compartments, duct routing, etc.);
- the necessary stack height or need for stack lining (depending on off-gas composition);
- the necessary measuring equipment (platform, continuous monitoring equipment, access);
- extended scope of supplies (off-gas cooler, compressors etc.).

Off-gases with low dust loads (e.g. secondary hood off-gases with fine dust loads $< 50 \text{ mg/Nm}^3$) normally require the addition of an additive (e.g. lime) to improve the dust collection efficiency. This not only drastically increases the raw gas dust load, but also the volume of collected dust that has to be disposed of. For moist and/or aggressive off-gases, the filter may have to be heated or provided with a corrosion protection coating.

At the time of publication of the VDI guidelines (2007), the capital cost of a bag filter designed for an off-gas flow rate of approximately $100\,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$, including fan and filter media, was of the order of approximately EUR 650 000 (secondary hood off-gas with low dust load) or approximately EUR 950 000 (process off-gas with elevated dust load). The total cost of a filter system including steel and concrete structures, ducting, stack and other equipment (see above) may amount to three or four times the capital cost of the filter [219, VDI 2007].

Electricity consumption is the largest single contributor to the operating costs. Depending on the filter area, filter resistance, dust composition and concentration, the specific power consumption of a fabric filter ranges between 2 kWh and 3 kWh per 1000 Nm^3 of off-gas. If, due to the specific additive used, the dust collected in the filter system cannot be further processed for metal recovery and has to be landfilled, the additional cost will be substantial.

13.3.5.2 Air emissions abatement - aluminium industry

The following cost data are given for abatement systems used in secondary aluminium processes and were provided by Austria. The costs are given in Austrian schillings (ATS) and euros (EUR); site-specific investment, operating and disposal costs are given [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998].

Table 13.28: Dry scrubber and bag filter

Lime injection with a bag filter		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 40 000 Nm ³ /h that contains ~ 600 mg dust/Nm ³ , 500 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , 300 mg HCl/Nm ³ and 50 mg HF/Nm ³	Quantity of metal produced: 40 000 t/yr Al. Operating hours 5500 h/yr	
Output data: < 5 mg dust/Nm ³ , < 300 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , < 30 mg HCl/Nm ³ and < 5 mg HF/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	15	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.54	
Proportional investment costs including interest		38.61 (2.81)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	3	11.25 (0.82)
Proportional costs:		
Consumption of CaO (kg/t Al)	22	22
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/h)	102	14.03
Technology costs		86 (6.25)
Disposal of filter dust (kg/t Al)	35–60	70–240 (5.09–17.44)
Total costs		~ 156–326 (11.34–23.69)
NB: The range of the total costs is influenced by the variability of the disposal cost for filter dust. This factor varies a lot across the EU. Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

Table 13.29: Semi-dry scrubber and bag filter

Semi-dry lime injection with a bag filter and absorbent recirculation		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 40 000 Nm ³ /h that contains ~ 600 mg dust/Nm ³ , 1000 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , 300 mg HCl/Nm ³ and 50 mg HF/Nm ³	Quantity of metal produced: 40 000 t/yr Al. Operating hours 5500 h/yr	
Output data: < 5 mg dust/Nm ³ , < 200 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , < 10 mg HCl/Nm ³ , < 1 mg HF/Nm ³ and < 0.1 ng PCDD/F/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	20	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	2.06	51.48 (3.74)
Proportional investment costs including interest		15 (1.09)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	3	
Proportional costs:		
Consumption of CaO (kg/t Al)	22	22
Consumption of activated carbon (kg/t Al)	1	3.5
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/h)	110	15.13
Technology costs		107.11 (7.78)
Disposal of filter dust (kg/t Al)	35–60	70–240 (5.09–17.44)
Total costs		~ 180–350 (13.08–25.44)
NB: The range of the total costs is influenced by the variability of the disposal cost for filter dust. This factor varies a lot across the EU. Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

Table 13.30: Semi-dry scrubber and bag filter

Semi-dry sodium bicarbonate injection with bag filter and absorbent recirculation for sulphur-dioxide-free gas		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 40 000 Nm ³ /h that contains ~ 600 mg/Nm ³ dust	Quantity of metal produced: 40 000 t/yr Al. Operating hours 5500 h/yr	
Output data: < 5 mg dust/Nm ³ , < 0.1 ng PCDD/F/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	14	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.44	36.04 (2.62)
Proportional investment costs including interest		10.5 (0.76)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	3	
Proportional costs:		
Consumption of NaHCO ₃ (kg/t Al) at ATS 3/kg	12	36
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/h) at ATS 1/kWh	110	15.13
Technology costs		97.67 (7.1)
Disposal of filter dust (kg/t Al)	15–30	15–30 (1.09–2.18)
Total costs		~ 110–130 (7.99–9.45)
NB: The range of the total costs is influenced by the variability of the disposal cost for filter dust. This factor varies a lot across the EU. In this particular example, the filter dust is based on sodium bicarbonate and sodium chloride and is suitable for processing in a salt recovery process. Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

Table 13.31: Wet scrubber and ESP

Wet scrubber with an electrostatic precipitator		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 40 000 Nm ³ /h that contains ~ 600 mg dust/Nm ³ , 1000 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , 300 mg HCl/Nm ³ and 50 mg HF/Nm ³	Volume of metal produced: 40 000 t/yr Al. Operating hours 5500 h/yr	
Output data: ~ 5–15 mg dust/Nm ³ , < 50 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , < 5 mg HCl/Nm ³ and < 1 mg HF/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	17	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	1.75	43.76 (3.18)
Proportional investment costs including interest		8.5 (0.62)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	2	
Proportional costs:		
Water consumption (m ³ /t Al) and waste water disposal	0.3	1.5–9
Consumption of CaO (kg/t Al)	11	11
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/h)	90	12.38
Technology costs		77.14–84.64 (5.61–6.15)
Disposal of filter dust (kg/t Al)	10–35	20–140 (1.45–10.17)
Disposal of neutralisation sludge (kg/t Al)	15	22.5–45 (1.64–3.28)
Total costs		~ 120–270 (8.72–19.62)
NB: The range of the total costs is influenced by the variability of the disposal cost for filter dust. This factor varies a lot across the EU. Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

Table 13.32: Semi-dry scrubber, activated carbon injection and bag filter

Combination of semi-dry lime and activated carbon injection with a bag filter		
Input data: Volume of exhaust gas of 40 000 Nm ³ /h that contains 600 mg dust/Nm ³ , 1000 SO ₂ /Nm ³ , 300 mg HCl/Nm ³ and 50 mg HF/Nm ³	Quantity of metal produced: 40 000 t/yr Al. Operating hours 5500 h/yr	
Output data: < 5 mg dust/Nm ³ , < 50 mg SO ₂ /Nm ³ , < 5 mg HCl/Nm ³ , < 1 mg HF/Nm ³ and the reduction of PCDD/F to under 0.1 ng I-TEQ/Nm ³		
Description		Costs ATS/t metal (EUR/t metal)
Input factors for annual expenditure:		
Investment costs (million ATS)	22	
Number of years	15	
Interest rate (%)	6	
Annual repayment including interest (million ATS/yr)	2.27	
Proportional investment costs including interest		56.63 (4.16)
Maintenance + wear and tear (% of investment costs)	3	16.5 (1.2)
Proportional costs:		
Consumption of CaO (kg/t Al)	11	11
Consumption of activated carbon (kg/t Al)	1	3.5
Electrical energy consumption (kWh/h)	160	22
Technology costs		109.63 (7.97)
Disposal of filter dust (kg/t Al)	25–50	50–200 (3.63–14.53)
Total costs		~ 160–310 (11.63–22.53)
NB: The range of the total costs is influenced by the variability of the disposal cost for filter dust. This factor varies a lot across the EU. Source: [142, Boin, U. et al. 1998]		

13.3.5.2.1 Costs associated with deSO_x

Cost data have been compiled for a variety of process variations and abatement systems. Some costs are included where available with the examples given earlier in this chapter. The cost data are very site-specific and depend on a number of factors but the ranges given may enable some comparisons to be made.

The Netherlands have made a comparison between the cost-effectiveness of deSO_x abatement techniques of two smelters. The cost-effectiveness method that is used is the method described in Section 4.13 of the Netherlands Emission Guidelines for Air (NeR) and in the BREF cross-media effects and economics as shown in Table 13.33 [241, Infomil 2008]

Table 13.33: Cost-effectiveness according to NeR methodology

Costs, effects and cost-effectiveness	Plant A	Plant B
Costs:		
Total investments (million EUR)	32.4	23.5
Capital costs (thousand EUR)	4975	3839
Fixed operating costs (thousand EUR)	1002	680
Variable operating costs (thousand EUR)	7571	1624
Total gross (or net) yearly costs (thousand EUR)	13548 (A)	6143
Effects:		
Yearly unabated load (thousand tonnes)	2.67	2.0
Yearly remaining emission (thousand tonnes)	0.45	0.3
Avoided SO ₂ (thousand tonnes)	2.2 (B)	1.7
Cost-effectiveness (EUR per kg):		
- with gas reheating (A/(B1000)) (to prevent occurrence of blue mist)	6.2	
- without gas reheating	3.7	3.6
<i>Source: Data from [303, ENVIRONNEMENT CANADA 2008.]</i>		

Other cost data are provided below so that costs for processes and abatement systems over the whole of the non-ferrous metals industry can be compared:

- Wet scrubber with seawater: EUR 1600–2800/t SO₂ (annual basis) [421, EAA, 2014];
- NaOH or soda ash scrubber: EUR 1367–3000/t SO₂ (annual basis); one reference plant in Norway, four in the US;
- double alkali scrubber: EUR 1183–1270/t SO₂ (annual basis);
- calcium (carbonate): EUR 3300–3700/t SO₂ (annual basis) [421, EAA, 2014];
- calcium (lime): EUR 1954/t SO₂ (annual basis).

13.3.5.3 Sulphuric acid plants

Table 13.34: Copper smelter sulphuric acid plants

Gas cooling and cleaning section, double contact/double absorption sulphuric acid plant. Applied to copper smelter		
Gas cooling and cleaning system	Wet gas cooling and cleaning section for combined SO ₂ gas of furnace and converter gases	Wet gas cooling and cleaning section for combined SO ₂ gas of furnace and converter gases
Equipment supplied	2 radial flow scrubbers, 3 lines with 2 in-line wet ESPs, acid cooler and acid circulation pumps, 2 cooling towers, 2200 m ³ /h cooling media circulation	1 reverse jet scrubber, 1 cooling tower, 3-lines first-stage wet ESPs, 2-lines second-stage wet ESPs, acid cooler, SO ₂ stripper, acid circulation pumps, 2 cooling towers, 6–24 m ³ /h weak acid effluent
Contact acid plant	Double catalysis sulphuric acid plant	Double catalysis sulphuric acid plant
Equipment supplied	Single strand, 4-pass converter with inter-pass absorption after the second pass	Single strand, 5-pass converter with inter-pass absorption after the third pass
Design basis gas cleaning: Operating temperature Gas flow Precipitation efficiency for dust	370 °C inlet, 27 °C outlet 91 000–123 000 Nm ³ /h 96.7 %	370 °C inlet, 27 °C outlet 45 000–115 000 Nm ³ /h 96.7 %
Design basis contact plant: Gas flow SO ₂ Conversion SO ₂ /SO ₃ H ₂ SO ₄ production	91 000–123 000 Nm ³ /h 10–15.1 % (avg. 13 %) > 99.5 % 1700 t/d	45 000–115 000 Nm ³ /h 6–11.3 % > 99.5 % 1350 t/d
Installation costs	EUR 44–45 million	EUR 51–52 million
Main consumption:	(¹)	(¹)
Electricity	75–80 kWh/t acid	55–60 kWh/t acid
Fuel oil		2–3 kg/t acid
Natural gas	3–4 Nm ³ /t acid	
Catalyst	0.02–0.04 l/t acid	0.02–0.04 l/t acid
Labour	0.1 h/t acid (¹)	0.1 h/t acid (¹)
(¹) t acid = tonnes of nominal design of sulphuric acid production plant. Source: [90, Traulsen, H. 1998]		

Table 13.35: Sulphuric acid plants

Sulphuric acid plants. Applied to lead/zinc smelters			
Year	Components	Cost (EUR per t/yr of acid)	Acid production
1995	Double contact/double absorption plant	40	800 000 t/yr acid
1996	Double contact/double absorption plant + Hg removal	155 120	100 000 t/yr acid 200 000 t acid
1997	Double contact/double absorption plant + Hg removal	130 100	100 000 t/yr acid 200 000 t acid
2009	Addition of 5 th bed with blower capacity increase	Total cost EUR 8 million	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)
2009	Change of catalyst in 4 th bed to incorporate caesium-promoted catalyst	Total cost EUR 700 000	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)
2009	H ₂ O ₂ scrubber for 100 000 t/yr acid plant	Total cost EUR 25 million	Updated costs provided by Lurgi (Outotec)

Source: [117, Krüger, J. 1999]

13.3.5.4 Effluent treatment systems

Table 13.36: Weak acid neutralisation

Neutralisation of weak acid from a sulphuric acid plant and other acidic process water	
System equipment	Thickeners, tanks, pumps, filter press
Application	Weak acid resulting from a SO ₂ gas flow of 200 000 Nm ³ /h
Design basis:	
Flow	32 m ³ /h weak acid
Installation cost	EUR 2.5 million ⁽¹⁾
Main consumption:	
Electricity	200 kW
Lime milk	15 m ³ /h
(10 %)	0.8 m ³ /h
H ₂ SO ₄ (10 %)	80 kg/h
FeSO ₄ ·7 H ₂ O	
⁽¹⁾ Civil work, erection, etc. excluded; for installation costs, approximately 90–110 % will have to be added.	
Source: [195, Lurgi, A.G. et al. 1991]	

The cost of a waste water treatment plant of 350–400 m³/h for a zinc/lead plant producing 140 000 t/yr metal with lime and FeCl₃ treatment, settlement tanks and sludge filter press was EUR 3 million (in 2005). Local treatment for weak acid is undertaken at an additional cost.

14 GLOSSAR

Dieses Glossar soll das Verständnis der Informationen im vorliegenden Dokument erleichtern. Die Begriffsfestlegungen sind nicht als rechtliche Definitionen zu verstehen (wenn sich auch einige mit denen der europäischen Gesetzgebung decken), sondern sind dazu gedacht, dem Leser einige in dem hier betrachteten spezifischen Sektor gebräuchliche Schlüsselbegriffe näher zu erläutern.

Das Glossar gliedert sich in die folgenden Abschnitte:

- I. ISO-Länderschlüssel
- II. Währungseinheiten
- III. Präfixe vor Maßeinheiten, Dezimaltrennzeichen und Formelzeichen
- IV. Maßeinheiten
- V. Chemische Elemente
- VI. Verwendete chemische Formeln
- VII. Akronyme und Begriffsfestlegungen

I. ISO- Länderschlüssel

ISO-Code	Land
Mitgliedsstaaten (*)	
AT	Österreich
BE	Belgien
BG	Bulgarien
CZ	Tschechische Republik
DE	Deutschland
ES	Spanien
FI	Finnland
FR	Frankreich
IT	Italien
NL	Niederlande
PL	Polen
PT	Portugal
SE	Schweden
UK	Vereinigtes Königreich
Nichtmitgliedstaaten	
CH	Schweiz
NO	Norwegen
US	Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika
(*) Die protokollarische Reihenfolge, in der die Länder aufgeführt sind, beruht auf der alphabetischen Reihenfolge ihrer geographischen Bezeichnung in der/den Landessprache(n).	

II. Währungseinheiten

ISO-Code (¹)	Land / Territorium	Währung
<i>Währungen in EU-Mitgliedstaaten</i>		
EUR	Euro-Zone (²)	Euro
ATS	Österreich	österreichische Schilling
DEM	Deutschland	Deutsche Mark
GBP	Vereinigtes Königreich	Pfund Sterling (Investitionen)
PLN	Polen	Zloty (pl. zlotys)
SEK	Schweden	Krone
<i>Sonstige Währungen</i>		
USD	Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika	US Dollar
⁽¹⁾ ISO 4217 Codes. ⁽²⁾ umfasst Österreich, Belgien, Zypern, Estland, Finnland, Frankreich,, Deutschland, Griechenland, Irland, Italien, Litauen, Luxemburg, Malta, Niederlande, Portugal, Slowakei, Slowenien und Spanien		

III. Präfixe vor Maßeinheiten, Dezimaltrennzeichen und Formelzeichen

Bei den Zahlenangaben im vorliegenden Dokument wird das Komma (bzw. in den nicht übersetzten Kapiteln der Punkt) als Dezimaltrennzeichen und eine Leerstelle als Tausendertrennzeichen verwendet.

Das Symbol ~ (circa) wird zur Angabe eines ungefähren Werts verwendet.

Das Symbol Δ (Delta) wird zur Angabe einer Differenz verwendet.

Häufig vorkommende Präfixe sind in der folgenden Tabelle aufgeführt:

Symbol	Präfix	10 ⁿ	Bezeichnung	Term
T	Terra	10 ¹²	Trillion	1 000 000 000 000
G	Giga	10 ⁹	Billion	1 000 000 000
M	Mega	10 ⁶	Million	1 000 000
k	Kilo	10 ³	Tausend	1 000
h	hecto	10 ²	Hundert	100
da	Deka	10 ¹	Zehn	10
-----	-----	1	Eins	1
d	Dezi	10 ⁻¹	Zehntel	0,1
c	Centi	10 ⁻²	Hundertstel	0,01
m	Milli	10 ⁻³	Tausendstel	0,001
μ	mikro	10 ⁻⁶	Millionstel	0,000 001
n	Nano	10 ⁻⁹	Milliardstel	0,000 000 001

IV. Maßeinheiten

Symbol	Bezeichnung	Measure name (measure symbol)	Umrechnung, Bemerkungen
bar	bar	Druck (P)	1,013 bar = 100 kPa = 1 atm
°C	Grad Celsius	Temperatur (T) Temperaturdifferenz (ΔT)	
d	Tag	Uhrzeit	
g	Gramm	Gewicht	
h	Stunde	Uhrzeit	
J	Joule	Energie-	
K	Kelvin	Temperatur (T) Temperaturdifferenz (ΔT)	0 °C = 273,15 K
kg	Kilogramm	Gewicht	
kJ	Kilojoule	Energie-	
kPa	Kilopascal	Druck	
kWh	Kilowattstunden	Energie-	1 kWh = 3 600 kJ
l	Liter	Volumen	
lb	Pound	Gewicht	
m	Meter	Länge	
m ²	Quadratmeter	Fläche	
m ³	Kubikmeter	Volumen	
mg	Milligramm	Gewicht	1 mg = 10 ⁻³ g
mm	Millimeter		1 mm = 10 ⁻³ m
min	Minute		
MW	Megawatt elektrisch (Energie)	Elektrische Energie	
MW _{th}	Megawatt thermisch (Energie)	Thermische Energie Wärme	
Nm ³	Normkubikmeter	Volumen	bei 101,325 kPa, 273,15 K
Pa	Pascal		1 Pa = 1 N/m ²
ppb	Teile pro Milliarde	Zusammensetzung von Gemischen	1 ppb = 10 ⁻⁹
ppm	Teile pro Million	Zusammensetzung von Gemischen	1 ppm = 10 ⁻⁶
ppmv	Teile pro Million (pro Volumen)	Zusammensetzung von Gemischen	
rpm	Umdrehungen pro Minute	Drehzahl, Frequenz	
t	metrische Tonne	Gewicht	1 t = 1 000 kg oder 10 ⁶ g
t / d	Tonnen pro Tag	Massenstrom Materialverbrauch	
t/a	Tonnen pro Jahr	Massenstrom Materialverbrauch	
Vol.-%	Volumenprozent	Zusammensetzung von Gemischen	
Gew.-%	Gewichtsprozent	Zusammensetzung von Gemischen	
W	Watt	Elektrischer Strom	1 W = 1 J/s
yr	Jahr	Uhrzeit	
µm	Mikrometer	Länge	1 µm = 10 ⁻⁶ m

V. Chemische Elemente

Symbol	Bezeichnung	Symbol	Bezeichnung
Ag	Silber	Mg	Magnesium
Al	Aluminium	Mn	Mangan
As	Arsen	Mo	Molybden
Au	Gold	N	Stickstoff
B	Bor	Na	Natrium
Ba	Barium	Nb	Niobium
Be	Beryllium	Ni	Nickel
Bi	Wismuth	O	Sauerstoff
C	Kohlenstoff	Os	Osmium
Ca	Kalzium	P	Phosphor
Cd	Cadmium	Pb	Blei
Cl	Chlor	Pd	Palladium
Co	Kobalt	Pt	Plating
Cr	Chrom	Re	Rhenium
Cs	Caesium	Rh	Rhodium
Cu	Kupfer	Ru	Ruthenium
F	Fluor	S	Schwefel
Fe	Eisen	Sb	Antimon
Ga	Gallium	Se	Selen
Ge	Germanium	Si	Silizium
H	Wasserstoff	Sn	Zinn
He	Helium	Ta	Tantal
Hg	Amalgam	Te	Tellur
I	Jod	Ti	Titan
In	Indium	Tl	Thallium
Ir	Iridium	V	Vanadium
K	Kalium	W	Wolfram
Li	Lithium	Zn	Zink

VI. Verwendete chemische Formeln

Summenformel	Bezeichnung (Erläuterung)
Al ₂ O ₃	Aluminiumoxid
CaO	Kalziumoxid, Kalk
D2EHPA	Di(2-ethylhexyl) Phosphorsäure
FeO	Eisenoxid
H ₂ O ₂	Wasserstoffperoxid
H ₂ S	Schwefelwasserstoff
H ₂ SO ₄	Schwefelsäure
HCl	Salzsäure
HF	Fluorsäure
HNO ₃	Salpetersäure
K ₂ O	Kaliumoxid
MgO	Magnesiumoxid, Magnesia
MnO	Manganoxid
NaOH	Natriumhydroxid auch als Kaustiksoda bekannt
NO ₂	Stickstoffdioxid
NO _x	Summe von Stickstoffoxid (NO) und Stickstoffdioxid (NO ₂), angegeben als NO ₂
PbO	Bleioxid
SiO ₂	Silika, Siliziumdioxid
SO ₂	Schwefeldioxid
SO ₃	Schwefeltrioxid
SO _x	Schwefeloxide - SO ₂ und SO ₃
ZnO	Zinkoxid

VII. Akronyme und Begriffsfestlegungen

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Accuracy	Genauigkeit	Begriff aus dem Bereich des Messwesens. Die Messgenauigkeit beschreibt, wie weit ein Messwert vom wahren oder richtigen Wert der Messgröße entfernt liegt. Zur Beurteilung der Messgenauigkeit werden chemische Zubereitungen bekannter Reinheit und/oder Konzentration verwendet. Diese sog. Standards werden mit derselben Methode wie die zu analysierenden Proben analysiert. Die Messgenauigkeit ist nicht mit der Präzision zu verwechseln, die die Wiederholgenauigkeit eines Messergebnisses angibt.
Achieved environmental benefits	Ökologischer Nutzen	Hauptumwelteinwirkung(en), die mit der beschriebenen (prozessintegrierten oder nachgeschalteten) Technik vermindert bzw. vermieden werden sollen, einschließlich erreichter Emissionswerte und Wirkungsgrad. Umweltvorteile gegenüber anderen Techniken.
Acid	Säure	Protonendonator – ein Stoff, der mehr oder weniger leicht Wasserstoffionen an eine wässrige Lösung abgibt.
Acid generation	Säurebildung	Erzeugen von Acidität unabhängig von deren Auswirkungen auf das umgebende Porenwasser oder davon, ob der Stoff ein Nettosäurebildner oder Neutralisator ist.
Acidification	Ansäuern	Säurezugabe zu einem Stoff, um saure Eigenschaften zu erhalten.
Acidity	Acidität	Maß für die Fähigkeit einer Lösung, eine starke Base zu neutralisieren.
Acute toxicity	Akute Toxizität	Schädigende Wirkung, die nach Verabreichung einer Chemikalie in einer Einzeldosis oder nach einmaliger Exposition auftritt; jede toxische Wirkung, die innerhalb kurzer Zeit, i.d.R. innerhalb von 96 Stunden, auftritt. Dieser Begriff wird in der Regel zur Beschreibung der Wirkungen auf Versuchstiere verwendet. Die akute Toxizität wird als LD ₅₀ -Wert angegeben.
Acute pollution	Akute Umweltverschmutzung	Umweltverschmutzung, die durch seltene Vorkommnisse, ungeplante Ereignisse oder Störfälle hervorgerufen wird (siehe auch chronische Umweltverschmutzung).
Adsorption	Adsorption	Ein Oberflächenprozess, der die Anlagerung von Gas- oder Flüssigkeitsmolekülen in Form eines Films an einen Feststoff bezeichnet (Oberflächenanlagerung).
Advantages	Vorteile	Siehe Nutzen.
AEL		Assoziierter Emissionswert
Afterburner	Nachbrenner	Eine spezielle Verbrennungseinrichtung mit einem Brennersystem (das nicht notwendigerweise durchgehend in Betrieb sein muss) zur Bereitstellung von Verweilzeit, Temperatur und Turbulenz, um organische Verbindungen bei ausreichendem Sauerstoffangebot zu Kohlenstoffdioxid zu oxidieren. Nachbrenner können so konzipiert werden, dass der Energiegehalt des Rohgases zur weitgehenden Deckung des Wärmebedarfs genutzt und so eine höhere Energieeffizienz erreicht wird.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Agglomerate	Agglomerat	Ein nicht verwachsener Verbund von Aggregaten, die an einzelnen Stellen miteinander verbunden sind.
Aggregate	Aggregat	Eine verwachsener Verbund von flächig aneinander gelagerten Primärteilchen, die miteinander versintert sind.
Air classifier or ACCU	Windsichter oder luftgekühlter Kondensator	Aggregat zur Abtrennung von Staub (< 0,05 mm) und feinen Partikeln aus dem trockenen Einsatzgut (< 10 mm) oder eine Einrichtung zur Abscheidung von Grob- und Feinstaubfraktionen aus einem Luftstrom
Alkali	Base	Protonenakzeptor – ein Stoff, der mehr oder weniger leicht Wasserstoffionen in einer wässrigen Lösung aufnimmt.
Alkalinity	Alkalinität	Maß für die Fähigkeit einer Lösung, eine starke Säure zu neutralisieren.
Alloy	Legierung	Ein Gemenge mit metallischem Charakter bestehend aus zwei oder mehr entweder gelöst oder gebunden vorliegenden chemischen Elementen, von denen mindestens eines ein Metall ist.
Analysis	Analyse	Charakterisierung der Beschaffenheit einer Probe. Analyse in Abgrenzung zu Bewertung: eine formelle, in der Regel quantitative Bestimmung der Auswirkungen einer Maßnahme (wie z.B. bei der Risikoanalyse oder der Wirkungsanalyse).
Angle of repose	Schüttwinkel	Maximale Hangneigung, die ein Haufwerk loser Feststoffe oder Feststoffbrocken toleriert, ohne ins Rutschen zu kommen oder ohne dass das Material beim Aufschütten auf das Haufwerk oder eine Böschung zum Stehen kommt.
Anion	Anion	Ein negativ geladenes Ion, das bei elektrochemischen Reaktionen zur Anode wandert.
Annual capital cost	Jährliche Kapitalkosten	Über die Nutzungsdauer der geplanten Technik (Investition) gleichmäßig verteilte Zahlungen. Die Summe aller Zahlungen hat denselben Barwert wie die Anfangsinvestition. Die jährlichen Kapitalkosten eines Anlagegegenstands stellen die Opportunitätskosten des Investors für dessen Besitz des Anlagegegenstands dar.
Annealing	Glühen	Ein Wärmebehandlungsverfahren, bei dem die Legierung durch langsames Abkühlen des Metalls unter seinen kritischen Temperaturbereich erweicht wird.
Anode	Anode	Eine positiv geladene Elektrode.
Anodising	Anodisieren	Anodische Oxidation – ein elektrolytisches Verfahren, bei dem die Oberflächenschicht eines Metalls, wie z.B. Aluminium, Magnesium oder Zink, in eine Beschichtung, in der Regel eine Oxidschicht mit Schutzfunktion, dekorativen oder funktionellen Eigenschaften, umgewandelt wird.
Applicability	Anwendbarkeit	Berücksichtigung von Faktoren, die bei der Anwendung oder Nachrüstung der Technik eine Rolle spielen, z.B. Platzverhältnisse, verfahrenstechnische Besonderheiten
Approval (of a product, process or service)	Zulassung (eines Produkts, Verfahrens oder einer Dienstleistung)	Genehmigung zur Vermarktung eines Produkts, eines Verfahrens oder einer Dienstleistung oder zu deren Verwendung für die angegebenen Zwecke oder unter den angegebenen Bedingungen.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Approval (of a testing laboratory)	Zulassung (eines Prüfinstituts)	Autorisierung eines Prüfinstituts durch die zuständige Behörde zur Durchführung gesetzlich vorgeschriebener Messungen, Kontrollen oder Inspektionen in einem bestimmten Bereich.
AOD converter	AOD-Konverter	Ein Konverterverfahren, bei dem ein Argon-Sauerstoff-Gemisch in die Metallschmelze eingeblasen wird.
Assessment	Bewertung	Im Zusammenhang mit Entscheidungen die Überprüfung des Maßes an Übereinstimmung zwischen Beobachtungen und entsprechenden Kriterien hinsichtlich festgelegter Ziele. Auch die Analyse von politischen Aktivitäten wie Zielbestimmungen und Kosten-Nutzen-Analysen (wie bei Risikoanalysen oder Folgenabschätzungen).
Assessment method of emissions	Emissions-beurteilungsmethode	Gesamtheit der Beziehungen zwischen Messwerten, physikalischen Eigenschaften, meteorologischen Daten und Auslegungsdaten von Ausrüstungen oder verfahrenstechnischen Parametern, die zur Berechnung oder Beurteilung eines Emissionswerts oder Emissionsfaktors herangezogen werden.
Associated emissions to air	Assoziierte Emissionen in die Luft	Im vorliegenden Dokument erfolgt die Angabe der entsprechenden Werte als Tagesmittelwert aus der kontinuierlichen Emissionsmessung, umgerechnet auf Normbedingungen (273 K, 101,3 kPa), tatsächlichen Sauerstoffgehalt, trockenes Abgas und ohne Abgasverdünnung mit Luft. In Fällen, in denen eine kontinuierliche Emissionsmessung nicht möglich ist, wird der assoziierte Emissionswert als Mittelwert über die Probenahmedauer angegeben.
Associated emissions to water	Assoziierte Emissionen in das Wasser	Diese basieren auf qualifizierten Stichproben oder einer 24 h-Mischprobe.
Automatic measuring system	Automatische Messeinrichtung	System zur Messung des betrachteten Stoffs, das ein Ausgangssignal proportional zur physikalischen Größe des zu messenden Parameters liefert und in der Lage ist, Messergebnisse ohne Einwirkung des Menschen zu liefern.
BaP	B[a]P	Benzo[a]pyren (wird als PAK-Leitkomponente verwendet)
BAT	BVT	Beste verfügbare Technik(en) gemäß Definition in Art. 3(10) der IE-Richtlinie.
BAT-AEL		Mit den Besten Verfügbaren Techniken assoziierter Emissionswert wie in Artikel 3(13) der IE-Richtlinie definiert.
Bath	Bad	Eine Chemikalienlösung für eine spezifische Oberflächenbehandlung, z.B. Beizbad. Gleichzeitig bezeichnet der Begriff auch die entsprechenden Becken/Wannen oder Arbeitsstationen im Prozessablauf.
BBOC	BBOC	Bodenblasender Sauerstoffkonverter
Benefits	Nutzen	Wird im vorliegenden Dokument synonym mit "Vorteilen" verwendet und bezeichnet positive Auswirkungen auf die Umwelt, die sich durch die Umsetzung einer Technik oder sonstigen Umweltschutzmaßnahme ergeben.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
BF	Schachtofen	Ein vertikaler Ofen, in dem der Möller durch Einblasen heißer oder kalter Luft erhitzt wird, um seine Inhaltsstoffe zu schmelzen (auch als Herdschachtofen, Wassermantelofen und Bleischachtofen bezeichnet).
Bioavailability	Bioverfügbarkeit	Eigenschaft eines Stoffs, der ihn biologisch zugänglich macht und die Gesundheit eines Organismus beeinträchtigen kann. Die Bioverfügbarkeit ist abhängig vom Wirkort.
Biodiversity	Biodiversität	Anzahl und Vielfalt unterschiedlicher Organismen in ökologischen Komplexen, in denen diese natürlich vorkommen. Organismen sind auf vielen Ebenen organisiert, von kompletten Ökosystemen bis hin zu biochemischen Strukturen, die die molekulare Basis für die Vererbung darstellen. Der Begriff umfasst somit verschiedene Ökosysteme, Arten und Gene, die für ein gesundes Milieu vorhanden sein müssen. Die Nahrungskette erfordert eine Vielzahl verschiedener Arten, die miteinander in vielfachen Räuber-Beute-Beziehungen stehen.
Bioleaching	Biolaugung	Verfahren, bei dem Erzminerale mit Hilfe von Bakterien gelöst werden.
BOD	BSB	Biochemischer Sauerstoffbedarf – Menge an gelöstem Sauerstoff, der von den Mikroorganismen zum Abbau organischer Substanz benötigt wird. Der biologische Sauerstoffbedarf wird in mg O ₂ /l angegeben. In Europa wird der BSB nach drei (BSB ₃), fünf (BSB ₅) oder sieben (BSB ₇) Tagen bestimmt.
Breathing	Atmung	Gasförmige Emissionen infolge einer Änderung der Umgebungstemperatur, i.d.R. Erwärmung des Lagertankinhalts über Tag.
BREF	BVT-Merkblatt	Merkblatt über beste verfügbare Techniken
BSS		Verstärktes Absaugsystem
Bund	Auffangraum	Ein Auffangraum (oder Aufkantung) dient dazu, große Stofffreisetzungen aufzufangen, wie sie z.B. beim Bersten des Tankmantels oder bei Tanküberfüllung auftreten. Der Auffangraum besteht aus einer Aufkantung um den Tank (oder mehrere Tanks) und dient dazu, Produkt bei einem etwaigen Austritt zurückzuhalten. Er wird i.d.R. aus gut verdichteter Erde oder stahlbewehrtem Beton errichtet. Sein Volumen ist im Allgemeinen so bemessen, dass der Inhalt des größten Lagertanks aufgenommen werden kann.
Calibration	Kalibrierung	Gesamtheit der Tätigkeiten zur Ermittlung der systematischen Abweichung zwischen dem wahren Wert einer zu messenden Größe und dem Wert, den die Messeinrichtung anzeigt bei vorgegebenen Bedingungen (mit zugehörigen Werten eines "Referenzsystems" incl. Referenzmaterial und den dabei zulässigen Abweichungen der Werte). Anmerkung: Das Ergebnis der Kalibrierung ist entweder die Zuordnung der wahren Werte der zu messenden Größe zur Messwertanzeige oder die Festlegung von Korrekturfaktoren für die gemessenen Werte.
Carcinogenic material	Karzinogener Stoff	Ein Stoff, der bekanntlich Krebs bei Menschen verursacht.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Casting (noun)	Gussstück	Allgemeiner Begriff für Produkte in oder kurz vor ihrer endgültigen Form, die durch Erstarren einer Metall- oder Legierungsschmelze in einer Gussform erzeugt werden (ISO 3134-4: 1985).
Cathode	Kathode	Eine negativ geladene Elektrode,
Cation	Kation	Ein positiv geladenes Ion, das bei elektrochemischen Reaktionen zur Kathode wandert.
Caustic soda	Ätznatron	Natriumhydroxid
CEFIC	CEFIC	Conseil Européen des Fédérations de l'Industrie Chimique (Verband der europäischen chemischen Industrie)
CEN	CEN	Comité Européen de Normalisation (Europäischer Normenausschuss)
CFD	CFD	Computerised fluid dynamics – eine numerische Berechnungsmethode zur Simulation von Gasströmungen und Temperaturprofilen in Verbrennungsanlagen und anderen Systemen.
COD	CSB	Chemischer Sauerstoffbedarf – Maß für die im Abwasser vorhandenen, chemisch oxidierbaren Verbindungen (Die Bestimmung erfolgt i.d.R. mit Dichromat als Oxidationsmittel) gemäß ISO 15705:2002.
Combustible material	Brennbarer Stoff	Ein Stoff, der nach der Entflammung in Gegenwart von Luft normaler Zusammensetzung und bei normalem Druck weiterbrennt, auch wenn die Zündquelle entfernt wird.
Compliance assessment	Überprüfung der Grenzwerteinhaltung	Verfahren zum Vergleich der tatsächlichen Schadstoffemissionen einer Anlage (Produktionsanlage) mit den im Genehmigungsbescheid festgelegten Grenzwerten innerhalb eines festgelegten Vertrauensintervalls.
Component	Komponente	Ein in einem Gemisch enthaltener Stoff, z.B. in Abwasser, Abgas oder Luft
Composite sample	Mischprobe	Von Hand oder automatisch entnommene Probe, die durch Mischen mehrerer Stichproben hergestellt wurde.
Concentrate	Konzentrat	Verkaufsfähiges Produkt nach Abtrennung in einer Mineralaufbereitungsanlage, das im Vergleich zum Ausgangsprodukt eine höhere Konzentration an Wertstoffen aufweist.
Content	Gehalt	Anteil eines Stoffes in einem Medium
Cooling water	Kühlwasser	Wasser, das zur Energieübertragung (Kühlen, Heizen) eingesetzt und in einem vom industriellen Abwasser getrennten System geführt wird und so ohne weitere Behandlung zurück in das Oberflächengewässer geleitet werden kann.
Cross-media effects	Medienübergreifende Auswirkungen	Mögliche Verlagerung von Umweltverschmutzung von einem Umweltmedium in ein anderes; mögliche Nebenwirkungen und Nachteile, die durch die Umsetzung der Technik entstehen.
Crushing	Brechen	Zerkleinerung von Erz durch Druckbeanspruchung zwischen starren Flächen oder durch Aufprall auf Flächen in einer vorgegebenen Bewegungsbahn.
CTO	KNV	Katalytische Nachverbrennung
CV		Heizwert oder Brennwert, angegeben in MJ/kg
CWPB	CWPB	Mittenbediente Elektrolysezelle mit vorgebrannten Anoden.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Daily production capacity	Tägliche Produktionskapazität	Produktmenge (in Tonnen, lufttrocken), die eine Anlage an einem Tag erzeugen kann.
DC	GS	Gleichstrom (Stromversorgung)
DCS	PLS	Das Prozessleitsystem dient der Regelung der Materialaufgabemenge, kritischer Prozess- und Verbrennungsbedingungen und der Gaszufuhr.
Decommissioning	Stilllegung	Außerbetriebnahme einer Anlage einschließlich Sanierung bzw. Demontage.
Defrosting	Auftauen	Auftauen von Rohstoffen
Degreasing	Entfetten	Weitgehende Entfernung von Öl- und Fettanhaftungen an einer Komponente.
De novo synthesis	De-novo-Synthese	Mechanismus, über den feine Kohlenstoffpartikel mit anorganischen Chloriden oder organisch gebundenem Chlor im Temperaturbereich 250 °C–500 °C zu PCDD/F reagieren. Die Denovo-Synthese wird durch die Anwesenheit von Metallen, wie z.B. Kupfer oder Eisen, katalysiert.
DeSO _x	DeSO _x	Eine Abgasentschwefelungstechnik.
Destruction	Vernichtung	z.B. bei der Abfallvernichtung – Chemische Umwandlung von im Abfall vorliegenden, vorwiegend organischen Molekülen. Kohlenhydrate werden z.B. in Kohlenstoffoxide und Wasserstoff umgewandelt.
Dewatering	Entwässerung	Das Entfernen von Wasser aus einem Untertage- oder Übertagebergwerk oder aus dem umgebenden Gestein oder nichtlithifizierten Bereich. Des Weiteren bezeichnet der Begriff auch die Herabsetzung des Wassergehalts von Konzentraten, Waschbergen und Schlämmen.
Diffuse emission	Diffuse Emissionen	Emissionen, die durch direkten Kontakt flüchtiger Verbindungen oder leichten partikulären Stoffen mit der Umwelt (Atmosphäre, im Normalbetrieb) entstehen. Diese können resultieren aus: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • der Funktion der Ausrüstungen (z.B. Filter, Trockner) • Betriebsvorgängen (z.B. Materialumschlag von einem Behälter in einen anderen) • der Betriebsart • der allmählichen Freisetzung in andere Medien (z.B. ins Kühlwasser oder Abwasser)
DIN	DIN	Deutsches Institut für Normung
Dioxins (PCDD/F)	Dioxine (PCDD/F)	Polychlorierte Dibenzodioxine (PCDD) und polychlorierte Dibenzofurane (PCDF)
Direct measurements	Direkte Messungen	Spezifische quantitative Bestimmung der emittierten Verbindungen direkt an der Emissionsquelle.
Discharge	Ableitung	Physische Freisetzung eines Schadstoffs über einen definierten Auslass, d.h. gefasstes System, z.B. Abwasserkanal, Kamin, Entlüftung, Auffangraum, Einleitstelle.
Disposal	Beseitigung	Siehe Definition in der EU-Abfallrahmenrichtlinie.
Dolomite	Dolomit	Eine Kalksteinart, deren Karbonatanteil überwiegend aus dem Mineral Dolomit (Kalziummagnesiumkarbonat (CaMg(CO ₃))) besteht.
DON process	DON-Verfahren	Direktes Outotec-Nickel-Verfahren

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Drainage	Entwässerung	Natürliche oder künstliche Ableitung von Oberflächenwasser oder Grundwasser aus einem Gebiet einschließlich Oberflächenabflüsse und Grundwasserleiter-
Driving force for implementation	Treibende Kraft für die Umsetzung	Gründe, die für die Umsetzung einer Technik sprechen, z.B. verschärfte gesetzliche Regelungen, Verbesserung der Produktqualität.
Dross	Krätze	Das sich an der Schmelzbadoberfläche sammelnde Material oder Abfallprodukt, das bei der Erz- oder Metallschmelze von den Metallen abgetrennt wird oder sich von diesen löst. Im Kapitel Aluminium wird der Begriff Skimmings/Krätze verwendet.
Drum	Trommel	Ein geschlossenes zylindrisches Gefäß, das auf einer Achse rotiert.
DSA	DSA	Dimensionsstabile Anoden – metallische Anoden, die bei Einsatz anstelle von Grafitelektroden nicht aufgezehrt werden und deren Abmessungen sich somit nicht verändern.
Dust	Staub	In der Gasphase dispergierte Feststoffpartikel jeglicher Form, Struktur oder Dichte im Submikron- bis hin zum makroskopischen Korngrößenbereich.
EAA	EAA	Europäischer Aluminiumverband
EAF	EAF	Elektrolichtbogenofen
EB	EB	Elektrodenstrahl
ECGA	ECGA	Europäischer Verband der Kohlenstoff und Grafithersteller
ECI	ECI	Europäisches Kupferinstitut
Economics	Wirtschaftlichkeit	Angaben zu Kosten (Investitions- und Betriebskosten) einschließlich Einsparpotenzial (z.B. Rohstoffeinsparungen, Entsorgungsgebühren für Abfallstoffe) bezogen auf die Kapazität der Anlage.
EEA	EEA	European Environment Agency
EEB	EEB	European Environmental Bureau
Efficiency	Effizienz	Ein Maß für die Effektivität einer Maßnahme zur Erreichung eines vorgegebenen Ziels. In einigen Fällen wird die Effizienz als Verhältnis von Input zu Output angegeben.
Effluent	Abgas/Abwasser	Ein physisches Medium (schadstoffbelastete Luft oder Wasser), das eine Emission bildet.
Electrode	Elektrode	In elektrochemischen Verfahren, ein Leiter, über den einem Elektrolyten (oder einem Lichtbogen oder Vakuumrohr) Strom zugeführt oder aus diesem abgeführt wird (siehe auch Anode und Kathode).
Electrolysis	Elektrolyse	Ein Verfahren, bei dem mit Hilfe eines elektrischen Stroms eine chemische Verbindung zerlegt oder eine neue Verbindung erzeugt wird. Der Strom wird durch eine Elektrolysezelle geleitet, wobei Oxidations-/Reduktionsreaktionen an den Elektroden stattfinden. Wasser kann z.B. mittels Elektrolyse in Wasserstoff und Sauerstoff zerlegt werden.
Electrolyte	Elektrolyt	Ein Stoff, der in der Lage ist, in wässriger Lösung oder in schmelzflüssigem Zustand elektrischen Strom zu leiten.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Electrorefining	Elektrolytische Raffination	Eine Elektroraffinationsstufe, in der das Anodenmetall in Lösung geht und sich als reines Metall an der Kathode abscheidet. Verunreinigungen, der sog. Anodenschlamm, setzen sich am Boden der Elektrolysezelle ab.
Electrowinning (EW)	Gewinnungs-elektrolyse	Eine elektrolytische Prozessstufe, in der eine unlösliche Metallanode eingesetzt und das gewünschte Metall im Elektrolyten an der Kathode abgeschieden wird.
EMAS	EMAS	European Eco-Management and Audit Scheme (Verordnung EC 761/2001)
Emerging techniques	Technologien in Entwicklung	Techniken, die das Potenzial zu einer verbesserten Umweltleistung haben, jedoch noch nicht im großtechnischen Einsatz sind oder sich noch im Forschungs- und Entwicklungsstadium befinden. Potenzielle zukünftige BVT.
Emission factor	Emissionsfaktor	Die geschätzte durchschnittliche Emissionsrate eines bestimmten Schadstoffs aus einer gegebenen Quelle bezogen auf die Art der Anlage.
Emission pattern	Emissionsverhalten	Art des zeitlichen Emissionsverlaufs. Der Emissionsverlauf kann z.B. konstant, zyklisch, zufällig variierend oder erratisch sein oder zufällige Spitzen aufweisen.
Emission to air	Emissionen in die Luft	Masse der emittierten Stoffe, angegeben als a) Konzentration: Masse des emittierten Stoffs bezogen auf das Abgasvolumen bei Normbedingungen (273 K, 101,3 kPa), nach Abzug des Wasserdampfgehalts, angegeben in g/Nm ³ , mg/Nm ³ , µg/Nm ³ oder ng/Nm ³ b) Massenstrom: Masse des emittierten Stoffs pro Zeiteinheit, angegeben in kg/h, g/h oder mg/h c) Spezifische Emission: Verhältnis der Masse des emittierten Stoffs zur Masse der erzeugten oder verarbeiteten Produkte (Verbrauchs- oder Emissionsfaktoren), angegeben in kg/t, g/t oder mg/t oder µg/t
Emission to water	Emissionen in das Wasser	Masse der emittierten Stoffe bezogen auf das Abwasservolumen, angegeben in (g/m ³), (g/l), (mg/l) or (µg/l).
EMS	UMS	Umweltmanagementsystem
EN	EN	Europäische Norm oder europäischer Standard
End-of-pipe technique	End-of-Pipe-Technik	Nachgeschaltete Technik zur Reduzierung von Emissionen und Verbräuchen, ohne dass der Kernprozess hierdurch wesentlich beeinflusst wird.
Environment	Umwelt	Wechselseitig miteinander in Beziehung stehende physikalische, chemische, biologische, soziale, spirituelle und kulturelle Komponenten, die das Wachstum und die Entwicklung lebender Organismen beeinflussen.
Environmentally harmful material	Umweltgefährdender Stoff	Ein Stoff, der akute oder chronische Auswirkungen auf Ökosysteme haben kann. Die Klassifizierung umweltgefährdender Stoffe erfolgt gemäß den Vorgaben der Richtlinie 67/548/EEC.
EPA		Environmental Protection Agency
EPMF		Europäischer Verband der Edelmetallhersteller

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Equivalent parameter	Äquivalenter Parameter	Parameter, der in Bezug auf eine Emission die gleiche (ähnliche) Aussagekraft mit gleichem (ähnlichem) Vertrauensniveau hat.
Erosion	Erosion	Ablösen und anschließende Abtragung von Gestein oder Oberflächenmaterial durch Wind, Regen, Wellen, Frost, Tau und sonstige Prozesse.
Error	Messabweichung	Der Betrag, um den ein gemessener oder ungefährender Wert von dem wahren oder genauen Wert abweicht. Messabweichungen resultieren in der Regel aus einem Messfehler oder einer Ungenauigkeit bei der Messung der Parameter.
ESP	EGR	Elektrofilter
EU	EU	Europäische Union
EU-15	EU-15	Mitgliedsstaaten der Europäischen Union vor dem 1. Mai 2014
EU-25	EU-25	Mitgliedsstaaten der Europäischen Union im Zeitraum 1. Mai 2004 bis 31. Dezember 2006
EU-27	EU-27	Mitgliedsstaaten der Europäischen Union im Zeitraum 1. Januar 2007 bis 30. Juni 2013
EU-28	EU-28	Mitgliedsstaaten der Europäischen Union seit 1. Juli 2013
EU ETS	EU ETS	Europäisches Emissionshandelssystem
Euroalliages		Verband der europäischen Ferrolegererzeuger
Eurometaux		Verband der europäischen Nischeisenmetall-Erzeuger
Euromines		Europäischer Verband der Bergbauindustrie, Metallerze und Industriemineralien
Evaporation	Verdampfung	Physikalischer Prozess, bei dem eine Flüssigkeit in den gasförmigen Zustand übergeht.
Example plants	Beispielanlagen	Verweis auf eine Anlage, in der die beschriebene Technik eingesetzt wird.
Exhaust gas (or exhaust air)	Abgas (oder Abluft)	Bezeichnet im <u>englischsprachigen</u> Text einen Gas-/Luftstrom aus einem Verbrennungs- oder Extraktionsprozess, der gasförmige oder partikuläre Luftschadstoffe enthalten kann. Eine Abgasführung über den Kamin ist nicht vorhanden. (Siehe auch Rauchgas).
FGD	REA	Rauchgasentschwefelung
Fines	Feinstoffe/Abrieb	Feinteiliges Material in Partikelgröße
Flue-gas	Rauchgas	Gemisch aus Verbrennungsprodukten und Luft, das aus der Brennkammer austritt und über einen Kamin an die Atmosphäre abgegeben wird.
Flux	Flussmittel	Ein Stoff, der selbst in kleinen Mengen den Schmelzpunkt des Materials in dem er natürlich vorkommt, z.B. Alkalien, oder des Materials, dem es beigemischt wurde, z.B. Boraxzugabe zu Glasuren, herabsetzt.
FSF	SSO	Schwebeschmelzofen
Fugitive emissions	Leckagebedingte Emissionen	Emissionen, die aufgrund von Undichtigkeiten oder fehlender Rückhaltemöglichkeiten von einem Prozess freigesetzt werden.
Furnace	Ofen	Der Teil einer Anlage, in dem der Verbrennungsprozess eingeleitet oder durchgeführt wird. Die zum Einsatz kommenden Schmelzofentypen sind in Anhang 13.1 zu diesem Dokument zusammen mit einer Erklärung der Abkürzungen aufgeführt.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Global warming	Erderwärmung	Treibhauseffekt – Der durch die Erdatmosphäre gelangende kurzwellige Strahlungsanteil führt zu einer Aufheizung der Erdoberfläche, die wiederum Infrarotstrahlung aussendet. Ein Teil dieser Strahlung wird von atmosphärischen Gasen absorbiert und bewirkt so einen Temperaturanstieg (sogenannte Erderwärmung). Man geht davon aus, dass die Absorption von Energie durch CO ₂ für 55 % der Erderwärmung verantwortlich ist. Weitere 45 % sind in erster Linie auf die Absorption von Energie durch Methan und die Beschädigung der Ozonschicht infolge der Verwendung ozonaufzehrender Substanzen zurückzuführen.
Good practice	Gute Praxis	Methode, die einen guten Handlungsrahmen für eine gegebene Aktivität bietet. Dies schließt andere Methoden nicht aus, die für die jeweilige Anforderung geeigneter sein können.
Grade	Güte	Dimensionslose Größe für den Anteil eines Erzinhaltstoffes, oft in Prozent, Gramm pro Tonne (g/t) oder Teile pro Million (ppm) ausgedrückt.
Grinding	Mahlen	Zerkleinerungsverfahren zur Erzeugung eines feinkörnigen Produkts (< 1 mm), dessen Wirkprinzip auf Reibungs- und Schlagbeanspruchung beruht, zum Teil unterstützt durch frei bewegliche Mahlkörper wie Stäbe, Kugeln und Steine.
Groundwater	Grundwasser	Teil des unterirdischen Wassers in der gesättigten Zone, im Unterschied zu Oberflächenwasser.
Harmful material	Gesundheitsschädlicher Stoff	Ein Stoff, der bei Einatmen oder Aufnahme über den Mund oder die Haut bedingt gesundheitliche Störungen verursachen kann.
Hazardous substances	Gefahrstoffe	Stoffe oder Stoffgruppen, die eine oder mehrere gefährliche Eigenschaften, wie Toxizität, Persistenz und Bioakkumulation, aufweisen oder gemäß Verordnung 1272/2008/EC "Einstufung, Kennzeichnung und Verpackung von Stoffen und Gemischen" als für den Menschen und die Umwelt gefährlich eingestuft sind.
HAZOP	HAZOP	Hazard and operability study
HCN	HCN	Cyanwasserstoff (Blausäure)
Hearth	Herd	Teil eines Schmelzofens
HMIP		Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Pollution (UK)
HT	HS	Hochspannung
IF		Induktionsofen
ILA		Internationaler Bleiverband
Immission	Immission	Auftreten und Konzentration von Schadstoffen, Geruchsstoffen oder Lärm in der Umwelt.
Impact crusher	Prallbrecher	In Prallbrechern erfolgt die Materialzerkleinerung primär durch Aufprall auf Schlagleisten, welche die in die Brecherkammer fallenden Gesteinsbrocken mit hoher Geschwindigkeit gegen ein feststehendes Prallwerk schleudern.
IMPEL		EU-Netzwerk zur Umsetzung und Durchsetzung von Umweltrecht

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Inert gas	Inertgas	Ein ungiftiges Gas, das die menschliche Atmung oder Verbrennungsprozesse nicht unterstützt und kaum oder überhaupt nicht mit anderen Stoffen reagiert. Zu den wichtigsten Inertgasen zählen Stickstoff und die Edelgase Helium, Argon, Neon, Xenon und Krypton.
IPPC	IVU	Integrierte Vermeidung und Verminderung von Umweltverschmutzung
IR	IR	Infrarot
Irony material	Eisenhaltiges Material	Ein Material, das nicht verwachsene Eisenkomponenten sowie die gewünschten Metalle (Al, Cu) enthält.
ISF ISP	IS	Imperial Smelting-Ofen oder Imperial Smelting-Verfahren
Isokinetic sampling	Isokinetische Probenahme	Probenahmemethode, bei der die Eintrittsgeschwindigkeit der Probe in die Probenahmesonde gleich der Strömungsgeschwindigkeit im Abgaskanal ist.
I-TEQ	I-TEQ	Internationales Toxizitätsäquivalent
IZA		Internationaler Zinkverband
Jaw crusher	Backenbrecher	Ein Zerkleinerungsaggregat, dessen Wirkprinzip auf Schlag- oder Druckbeanspruchung des Materials zwischen einer feststehenden und einer oszillierenden Brechbacke beruht.
JRC		Joint Research Centre
Launder	Rinne	Vorrichtung zur Förderung von Metallschmelzen oder Schlacken.
LCV	H _u	Heizwert
Leachate	Sickerwasser	Lösung, die durch Laugung entsteht, z.B. Wasser, das durch lösliche Stoffe enthaltendes Erdreich gesickert ist und gewisse Mengen an diesen Stoffen in gelöster Form enthält.
Leaching	Laugung	Durchleiten eines Lösemittels durch poröses oder gebrochenes Material zur Extraktion von Komponenten aus der Flüssigphase. Gold kann z.B. durch Haufenlaugung aus porösem Erz oder gemahlene Waschbergen extrahiert werden. Weitere Verfahren sind die Tanklaugung von Erzen, Konzentraten oder Bergen sowie die in situ-Laugung.
Leakage	Leckage	Gas- oder Flüssigkeitsfreisetzungen aus einem System/einem Anlagenteil aufgrund eines Versagens des Systems/Anlagenteils.
L-SX-EW	L-SX-EW	Laugung - Solventextraktion – Gewinnungselektrolyse (hydrometallurgische Verfahrenskette)
Liquation	Seigerraffination	Ein Raffinationsverfahren, bei dem eine Metallschmelze auf eine Temperatur erhitzt wird, bei der die Löslichkeit der Verunreinigungen sinkt und so deren Abtrennung ermöglicht.
Make-up water	Frischwasser	Wasser, das in einen Prozess eingebracht wird, um eine Reaktion in Gang zu setzen oder aufrechtzuerhalten, eine Lösung herzustellen, Reaktanden zu mischen oder zu verdünnen.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Mass balance	Massenbilanzierung	Ein Überwachungsansatz, bei dem die Einträge, Akkumulation, Austräge und die Erzeugung oder Zerstörung des betrachteten Stoffs berechnet werden. Die Differenz wird als Freisetzung in die Umwelt betrachtet. Das Ergebnis einer Massenbilanz ist in der Regel der kleine Unterschied zwischen einem großen Eintrag und einem großen Austrag, wobei auch die damit verbundenen Unsicherheiten berücksichtigt werden. Daher sind Massenbilanzen in der Praxis nur sinnvoll, wenn sich Eintrag, Austrag und die zugehörigen Unsicherheiten genau bestimmen lassen.
Matte	Stein	Ein Sulfidgemisch, das sich beim Niederschmelzen nickel-, kupfer- und kolbalthaltiger sulfidischer Metallerze bildet.
Measurement	Messung	Gesamtheit der Tätigkeiten zur Ermittlung des Werts einer Größe.
Measuring system	Messeinrichtung	Gesamtheit der Messinstrumente und sonstigen Ausrüstungen nebst allen Verfahrensweisen, die zur Durchführung der vorgeschriebenen Messungen eingesetzt werden.
Melting capacity	Schmelzleistung	Die Gesamtnennleistung der in einer Anlage installierten Schmelzöfen, die, soweit möglich, als stündlicher Durchsatz multipliziert mit 24 angegeben werden sollte.
Metals Environmental Risk Assessment Guidance (MERAG)	Leitfaden für die Risikobewertung von Metallen in der Umwelt	Der MERAG-Leitfaden wurde von einem Konsortium von Forschern, Verbänden der Metallindustrie, wissenschaftlichen und behördlichen Gutachtergremien (UK-Regierung, Ministerium für Umwelt, Ernährung und Landwirtschaft (Defra)) für den Umgang mit Chemikalien, die Festlegung von Umweltqualitätsstandards für Metalle und zur Berücksichtigung standortspezifischer Randbedingungen durch Einführung metallspezifischer Konzepte erarbeitet.
Mineral processing (benefaction, ore dressing, mineral dressing, milling)	Erzaufbereitung (Erzanreicherung, Erzmahlung)	Verfahren zur Erzeugung verkaufsfähiger, mineralischer Produkte (Konzentrate) aus Erz. Bergbau und Mineralaufbereitung liegen in der Regel geographisch nahe beieinander. Die entsprechenden Anlagen werden als Erzaufbereitungsanlagen (Mahl- oder Anreicherungsanlagen) bezeichnet. Hauptzweck ist eine Volumenreduzierung des Erzes, das transportiert und in nachgeschalteten Prozessen, z.B. Verhüttung, durch Abtrennung der werthaltigen (erwünschten) Mineralien von der Gangart weiterverarbeitet werden muss. Das resultierende verkaufsfähige Produkt wird als Konzentrat bezeichnet, das restliche Material als Gangart. Bei der Erzaufbereitung kommen unterschiedliche Verfahren zum Einsatz, die sich jeweils die physikalischen Eigenschaften (z.B. Korngröße, Dichte, magnetische Eigenschaften, Farbe) oder Stoffeigenschaften (z.B. Oberflächenspannung, Hydrophobie, Benetzbarkeit) des vorliegenden Minerals zunutze machen.
Mineral processing plant (mill or concentrator)	Erzaufbereitungsanlage (Mahl- oder Anreicherungsanlage)	Anlage, in der die Erzaufbereitung erfolgt.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Mineral resource	Minerallagerstätte	Konzentration oder Vorkommen natürlicher, organischer oder fossiler organischer Materialien in oder auf der Erdkruste in einer Form, Menge und Qualität, die einen wirtschaftlichen Abbau verspricht. Ort, Menge, Güte, geologische Kennwerte und Durchgängigkeit einer Minerallagerstätte sind bekannt, werden abgeschätzt oder aus geologischen Befunden und vorliegenden Daten abgeleitet.
Mining	Bergbau	Methoden und Techniken zur Förderung von Erzen aus der Erde einschließlich Nebenanlagen, wie z.B. Halden, Werkstätten, Förderanlagen, Belüftungsanlagen und unterstützende Tätigkeiten im Bergwerk selbst oder in dessen Umgebung.
Mining operation	Bergwerksbetrieb	Jeglicher Erzabbau zur Gewinnung mineralischer Stoffe, dessen wirtschaftlicher Zweck die Erwirtschaftung eines Gewinns oder die Entwicklung eines gewinnbringenden Unternehmens ist.
Monitoring	Überwachung	Systematische Überwachung von Änderungen bestimmter chemischer oder physikalischer Kennwerte von Emissionen in die Luft, Abwassereinleitungen, Verbräuchen, Äquivalenzparametern oder technischen Maßnahmen usw.
Mother liquor	Mutterlauge	Abwasserstrom, der direkt bei der Synthese oder chemischen Umsetzung entsteht und i.d.R. hohe Gehalte an Produkten, Einsatzstoffen oder Nebenprodukten aufweist, insbesondere zu Beginn des Prozesses.
MS		Mitgliedsstaaten der Europäischen Union
N	N	Norm – Bezeichnet das Volumen eines Gases unter Normbedingungen bei einer Temperatur 273,15 K und einem Druck von 101,325 kPa.
NA	n.a.	nicht anwendbar (abhängig vom Kontext).
Nominal capacity	Nennleistung	Menge an Produkt, die eine Anlage gemäß Auslegung im Normalbetrieb erzeugen kann.
ND	k.A.	Es liegen keine Angaben vor.
NFM		Nichteisenmetalle (BVT-Merkblatt)
NGO(s)	NGO(s)	Nichtregierungsorganisation(en)
NJ	NJ	New Jersey - eine Art Destillationskolonne
Non-ferrous material	Nichteisenmaterial	Alle Materialien, die kein Eisen enthalten.
NM VOC	NM VOC	Flüchtige organische Verbindungen außer Methan
OBM converter	OBM-Konverter	Ein bodenblasender Konverter, der in der Ferronickelproduktion eingesetzt wird.
Off-gas	Abgas	Allgemeiner Begriff für Gas-/Luftströme aus einem Prozess oder einer Aktivität (siehe Rauchgas).
Operational	Betriebsbedingt	Emissionen, die im Zusammenhang mit dem Normalbetrieb der Anlage auftreten. Die Häufigkeit des Auftretens, Mengen und Frachten sind i.d.R. bekannt oder können abgeschätzt oder geplant werden. Auf Basis dieser Informationen kann das beste Kosten-Nutzen-Verhältnis zur Priorisierung von Investitionen und Auswahl der besten in Frage kommenden Emissionsminderungstechniken ermittelt werden. Fugitive Emissionen und Abblasevorgänge gelten als betriebsbedingt, da sie im Normalbetrieb auftreten.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Operational data	Betriebsdaten	Leistungsdaten betreffend Emissionen/Abfallanfall und Verbräuche, z.B. Rohstoffe, Wasser und Energie. Weitere nützliche Hinweise zum Betrieb sowie zur Wartung und Steuerung einschließlich Sicherheitsaspekte und Betriebseinschränkungen der Technik, Qualität des Austragsstroms, usw.
Ore	Erz	Ein Mineral oder Gemisch unterschiedlicher abgelagerter Mineralien (einschl. Kohle) hinreichender Qualität und Menge, das gewinnbringend abgebaut und weiterverarbeitet werden kann. Bei den meisten Erzen handelt es sich um Gemische aus abbaufähigen Mineralien und Gestein, das als Gangart bezeichnet wird.
Osmosis	Osiose	Diffusion einer schwach konzentrierten Lösung durch eine semipermeable Membran in eine höher konzentrierte Lösung auf der anderen Seite der Membran, wobei die Membran das Lösemittel (Wasser) passieren lässt, jedoch nicht die gelösten Feststoffe.
OSPAR	OSPAR	Übereinkommen von Oslo und Paris zum Schutz der Meeresumwelt im Nordostatlantik
Output	Output	Der Begriff umfasst den "Abfall-Output" (Haupt-Output) und sonstige feste Rückstände, Emissionen, Abwasser, usw., die bei der Abfallbehandlung anfallen.
Oxidant	Oxidationsmittel	Ein Stoff, der bei Kontakt mit anderen Stoffen, insbesondere leichtentzündlichen Stoffen, unter Freisetzung großer Wärmemengen reagieren kann.
PAH	PAK	Polyzyklische aromatische Kohlenwasserstoffe
PAN	PAN	Polyacrylnitril
Parameter	Parameter	Messbare Größe, die für die relevanten Merkmale einer Grundgesamtheit repräsentativ ist.
Particulate matter (PM)	Partikuläre Stoffe (Staub)	Gesamtstaub bezeichnet alle organischen und anorganischen Feststoffe und Flüssigkeiten (Tröpfchen und Aerosole), die im Rauchgas vorliegen können (siehe auch Staub)
PB	PB	Vorgebrannte Anode
PCC	NVK	Nachverbrennungskammer – Bezeichnung der der Hauptbrennkammer nachgeschalteten Zone, in der der Ausbrand der Verbrennungsgase erfolgt. Auch Sekundärbrennkammer genannt.
PCDD/F	PCDD/F	Siehe Dioxine
PFPB	PFPB	Elektrolysezellen mit Punktfütterung und vorgebrannten Anoden, eine Technologie, die in der Primäraluminiumerzeugung eingesetzt wird.
PFC	PFC	Polyfluorierter Kohlenwasserstoff – Organische Verbindung, bei der die meisten Wasserstoffatome in der aliphatischen Kettenstruktur durch Fluor substituiert sind. Einige dieser fluororganischen Verbindungen sind perfluoriert, d.h. alle Wasserstoffatome sind durch Fluor ersetzt.
pH	pH-Wert	Acidität oder Alkalinität einer Lösung. Eine Maßzahl für die Wasserstoffionenkonzentration einer wässrigen Lösung, die als der negative dekadische Logarithmus der Wasserstoffionen-Aktivität definiert ist.
PGMs	PGM	Metalle der Platingruppe: Ir, Os, Pd, Pt, Rh, Ru

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
PLC	SPS	Speicherprogrammierbare Steuerung – Digitaler Rechner zur Automatisierung von Industrieprozessen
PLS		Angereicherte Laugungslösung, die beim Auslaugen von Mineralien aus dem Substrat anfällt.
PM		1) Siehe partikuläre Stoffe. 2) Edelmetalle: Ag, Au und PGM
PM _x		Partikuläre Stoffe mit einem aerodynamischen Durchmesser von $\leq x \mu\text{m}$
PNEC	PNEC	Predicted no effect concentration – Konzentration, bei der keine toxische Wirkung auftritt
Pollutant	Schadstoff	Einzelstoff oder Stoffgruppe, von dem eine Schädigung oder Beeinträchtigung der Umwelt ausgehen kann.
Pollution (from the IED)	Umweltverschmutzung (gemäß IE-Richtlinie)	Die durch menschliche Tätigkeiten direkt oder indirekt bewirkte Freisetzung von Stoffen, Erschütterungen, Wärme oder Lärm in Luft, Wasser oder Boden, die der menschlichen Gesundheit oder der Umweltqualität schaden oder zu einer Schädigung von Sachwerten bzw. zu einer Beeinträchtigung oder Störung von Annehmlichkeiten und anderen legitimen Nutzungen der Umwelt führen können.
Pollution source	Schadstoffquelle	Die Emissionsquelle. Es wird unterschieden zwischen: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Punktquellen oder konzentrierten Quellen • dispersen Quellen • Linienquellen einschließlich mobilen (Transport) und stationären Quellen • Flächenquellen
Post-combustion	Nachverbrennung	Zündung und Verbrennung von Abgasen durch Zugabe von Luft oder Einsatz eines Brenners (zum Zwecke der Reduzierung von CO und (flüchtigen) organischen Verbindungen).
Primary measure/technique	Primärmaßnahme/-technik	Eine Maßnahme/Technik, die eine Änderung in der Führung des Kernprozesses und damit eine Reduzierung der Rohgasemissionen oder des Ressourcenverbrauchs bewirkt (siehe auch End-of-Pipe-Technik).
Production capacity	Produktionsleistung	Ausstoß "spezifikationsgerechter Gussstücke" und Kapazität bezogen auf die theoretische Kapazität der Gießerei bei Betrieb rund um die Uhr, soweit diese auf diese Weise betrieben werden kann.
PRTR	PRTR	Schadstoffemissionsregister
Recovery	Verwertung	Siehe Definition in der EU-Abfallrahmenrichtlinie. Im vorliegenden Dokument bezeichnet der Begriff außerdem die Aufbereitung von Abfällen zur vollständigen oder teilweisen Rückgewinnung von Wertstoffen.
Recuperation	Rekuperation	Wärmerückgewinnung. Im betrachteten Industriesektor kann es sich dabei um die Nutzung von Prozesswärme zur Vorwärmung von Einsatzstoffen, Brennstoffen oder Verbrennungsluft handeln.
Recuperative burners	Rekuperative Brenner	In rekuperativen Brennern werden die heißen Verbrennungsgase zwecks Rückgewinnung ihres Wärmeinhalts im Brennersystem rezirkuliert. Siehe auch regenerative Brenner.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Recycle	Recycling	Dieser Begriff wird im vorliegenden Dokument in zwei verschiedenen Bedeutungen verwendet: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verwertung einer Abfallfraktion in einem anderen Industriesektor • Recyclen im Rahmen der Abfallbehandlung Im vorliegenden Dokument wird der Begriff vorwiegend in der letzteren Bedeutung verwendet.
Reference conditions	Referenzbedingungen	Festgelegte Bedingungen, z.B. für den Betrieb einer Anlage oder die Probenahme.
Release	Freisetzung	Tatsächliche Ableitung (regelmäßig, im Normalbetrieb oder unbeabsichtigt) einer Emission in die Umwelt.
Regenerative burners	Regenerative Brenner	In regenerativen Brennern geben die heißen Verbrennungsgase ihre Wärme an zwei oder mehr mit Wärmespeichermassen bestückte Regeneratoren ab, die abwechselnd aufgeheizt und zur Verbrennungsluftvorwärmung genutzt werden. Siehe auch rekuperative Brenner.
Residue	Rückstand	Ein Material, das nicht absichtlich in einem Produktionsprozess erzeugt wird und das ein Abfallprodukt oder kein Abfallprodukt darstellt.
RF		Drehtrommelofen
RLE		Röstung-Laugung-Gewinnungselektrolyse (hydrometallurgische Verfahrenskette)
Reverse osmosis (RO)	Umkehrosmose (UO)	Siehe Osmose.
Roll crusher	Walzenbrecher	Ein Nachzerkleinerungsaggregat bestehend aus einem schweren Maschinenrahmen, auf dem zwei gegenläufig rotierende Walzen montiert sind. Das Erz wird von oben aufgegeben, in den Walzenspalt eingezogen, zerkleinert und nach unten befördert.
RTO	RNV	Regenerative thermische Nachverbrennungseinrichtung, eine Art Nachbrenner.
Run-off	Oberflächenabfluss	Anteil des Niederschlags- und Schmelzwassers, der nicht versickert und oberirdisch abfließt.
Sampling	Probenahme	Vorgang, bei dem eine Teilmenge eines Stoffes, Materials oder Produkts entnommen wird, um eine repräsentative Probe zur Analyse der betreffenden Substanz, des Materials oder Produkts zu erhalten. Der Probenahmeplan, die Durchführung der Probenahme und die Analyse sind stets gleichzeitig zu berücksichtigen.
SCR	SCR	Selektive katalytische Reduktion
Screening	Sieben	Auftrennen eines Materialstroms in verschiedene Korngrößenfraktionen.
Semis	Halbzeuge	Halbzeuge, wie z.B. Barren, Draht, Extrudate, Blockmetalle usw. dienen als Ausgangsmaterial zur Herstellung von Endprodukten.
Separation	Trennung	Verfahren zur Auftrennung von Erz in Konzentrat und Gangart.
Site	Standort	Geographisches Gebiet, in dem sich mehr als eine Anlage, Teilanlage oder Einrichtung befinden können.
Slag	Schlacke	Ein vitrifizierter oder teilvitrifizierter Schmelzrückstand, hauptsächlich bestehend aus Silikaten und Stoffen, die für die Gewinnung von Stein oder Metall nicht erwünscht sind und ein niedrigeres spezifisches Gewicht als letztere haben.

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Sludge	Schlamm	Eine Suspension mit hohem Feststoffgehalt, wie z.B. Klärschlamm aus der Abwasserreinigung.
SNCR	SNCR	Selektive nichtkatalytische Reduktion – ein Abgasentstickungsverfahren, bei dem Stickstoffoxide bei hoher Temperatur mit Hilfe von Ammoniak als Reduktionsmittel in elementaren Stickstoff und Wasser umgewandelt werden.
Solubility	Löslichkeit	Menge an Solut, das in einem gegebenen Lösemittel und Lösemittelvolumen bei gegebener Temperatur und Druck in Lösung geht und eine gesättigte Lösung bildet. Die Löslichkeit chemischer Verbindungen ist abhängig von deren Fähigkeit sowie der Fähigkeit sonstiger gelöst vorliegender Spezies unter den spezifischen chemischen Bedingungen des Laugungsprozesses Ionen und wässrige Komplexe zu bilden.
Specific emission	Spezifische Emission	Emission bezogen auf eine Maßzahl, wie z.B. die Produktionskapazität oder tatsächliche Produktion.
Specific water consumption	Spezifischer Wasserverbrauch	Die bei der Produktion verbrauchte Menge an Frischwasser (Oberflächenwasser, Grundwasser), das aus externen Quellen bezogen wird. Der Frischwasserbedarf wird auf die Nettoproduktion, lufttrockener Zustand, bezogen und in m ³ /t angegeben. Ausgenommen ist Frischwasser, das ausschließlich zu Kühlzwecken eingesetzt wird, d.h. Wasser, das nicht mit Fasern und Additiven in Berührung kommt und direkt in ein Oberflächengewässer abgeleitet wird. Das Gleiche gilt für Abwasser aus Dampferzeugern und Kraftwerken.
Specification	Spezifikation	Vom Gesetzgeber vorgeschriebene Werte für Stoffeigenschaften bestimmter Zubereitungen, z.B. bei Schmierölen.
SPL		Ofenausbruch – Rückstände des Kathodensystems bei der Primäraluminiumerzeugung
Start-up, shutdown operations	Anfahr- und Abfahrvorgänge	Vorgänge, bei denen eine Aktivität, ein Anlagenteil oder ein Tank in oder außer Betrieb genommen, aus dem Leerlauf hochgefahren oder in den Leerlauf heruntergefahren wird. Zyklische Einschalt- und Ausschaltwechsel gelten nicht als Anfahr- oder Abfahrvorgänge.
SWPB	SWPB	Seitenbediente Elektrolysezelle mit vorgebrannten Anoden
SX	SX	Solventextraktion
Tapping	Abstechen, Abgießen	Der Vorgang des Öffnens des Abstichlochs zum Zwecke des Abzugs von schmelzflüssigem Metall oder Schlacke.
TBRC	TBRC	Treibkonverter (Aufblas-Drehkonverter), der in der Gewinnung von Primärkupfer, Edelmetallen und Bleikonzentraten sowie zum Einschmelzen von Elektronikschrott eingesetzt wird,
TO	TNV	Thermische Nachverbrennung, auch als thermische Oxidation bekannt.
TVOC	TVOC	Gesamtgehalt an flüchtigen organischen Verbindungen, angegeben als C
TROF	TROF	Kippbarer Oxy-Fuel-Drehtrommelofen (mit Einsatzbereichen ähnlich denen des TBRC)
TWG		Technische Arbeitsgruppe

Englischer Begriff/Akronym	Deutscher Begriff/Akronym	Definition
Technical oxygen	Technischer Sauerstoff	Aus Luft gewonnener Sauerstoff, der nach Stickstoffabscheidung eine O ₂ -Konzentration von > 97% aufweist; auch "Tonnage-Sauerstoff" genannt.
VDI	VDI	Verein Deutscher Ingenieure
Vitreous	Glasartig, verglast	Ein Begriff, der keramische Erzeugnisse bezeichnet, die infolge einer weitgehenden Verglasung (im Gegensatz zur Sinterung) eine extrem niedrige Porosität aufweisen.
Vitrification	Vitrifizierung	Die Umwandlung eines Stoffes oder Stoffgemischs in Glas oder eine amorphe Glasmatrix.
Volatile organic compound (VOC)	Flüchtige organische Verbindungen (VOC)	Jede organische Verbindung, die bei 293,15 K einen Dampfdruck von 0,01 kPa oder mehr hat oder unter den jeweiligen Einsatzbedingungen eine entsprechende Flüchtigkeit aufweist.
VSS	VSS	Söderberg-Zelle mit vertikal in die Anodenmasse ragenden Strombolzen.
Waste gas	Abgas/Reingas	Flüchtige organische Verbindungen (VOC) oder sonstige Luftschadstoffe enthaltendes Abgas, das über einen Kamin oder eine Emissionsminderungseinrichtung in die Atmosphäre abgeleitet wird.
Waste treatment	Abfallbehandlung	Jede Anlage, in der Abfälle, die in den Geltungsbereich dieses Dokuments fallen, behandelt werden.
Waste water	Abwasser	Wässriger Abfallstrom aus chemischen Prozessen, der Produktraffination, Rohstoffaufbereitung, Anlagenreinigung, Lagereinrichtungen, Verladevorgängen, Niederschlagswasser und indirektes Kühlwasser sind aufgrund der unterschiedlichen Definition von Abwasser in den Mitgliedsstaaten hiervon ausgenommen. Niederschlagswasser und, soweit erforderlich, dessen Behandlung werden daher separat behandelt. Bezüglich Kühlwasser wird auf das BVT-Merkblatt Industrielle Kühlsysteme verwiesen.
Wet ESP	Nass-EGR	Nasselektrofilter
WT		Abfallbehandlung
WWT		Abwasserreinigung
WWTP	AWA	Abwasserreinigungsanlage
Yield	Ausbringen, Ausbeute	Massenverhältnis von Konzentrat zu Einsatzmaterial, angegeben in Gew.% trocken

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