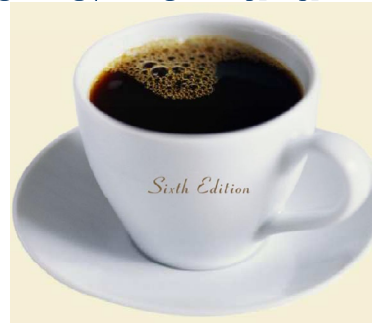




Chapter 1-17

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



Organization of This Text:

Part I – Operations Management

- ◆ Intro. to Operations and Supply Chain Management: Chapter 1 (Slide 5)
- ◆ Quality Management: Chapter 2 (Slide 67)
- ◆ Statistical Quality Control: Chapter 3 (Slide 120)
- ◆ Product Design: Chapter 4 (Slide 186)
- ◆ Service Design: Chapter 5 (Slide 231)
- ◆ Processes and Technology: Chapter 6 (Slide 276)
- ◆ Facilities: Chapter 7 (Slide 321)
- ◆ Human Resources: Chapter 8 (Slide 402)
- ◆ Project Management: Chapter 9 (Slide 450)

Organization of This Text:

Part II – Supply Chain Management

- ◆ Supply Chain
Strategy and Design: Chapter 10 (Slide 507)
- ◆ Global Supply Chain
Procurement and Distribution: Chapter 11 (Slide 534)
- ◆ Forecasting: Chapter 12 (Slide 575)
- ◆ Inventory Management: Chapter 13 (Slide 641)
- ◆ Sales and
Operations Planning: Chapter 14 (Slide 703)
- ◆ Resource Planning: Chapter 15 (Slide 767)
- ◆ Lean Systems: Chapter 16 (Slide 827)
- ◆ Scheduling: Chapter 17 (Slide 878)



Learning Objectives of this Course

- ◆ Gain an appreciation of strategic importance of operations and supply chain management in a global business environment
- ◆ Understand how operations relates to other business functions
- ◆ Develop a working knowledge of concepts and methods related to designing and managing operations and supply chains
- ◆ Develop a skill set for quality and process improvement



Chapter 1

Introduction to Operations and Supply Chain Management

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ What Operations and Supply Chain Managers Do
- ◆ Operations Function
- ◆ Evolution of Operations and Supply Chain Management
- ◆ Globalization and Competitiveness
- ◆ Operations
- ◆ Strategy and Organization of the Text
- ◆ Learning Objectives for This Course

What Operations and Supply Chain Managers Do

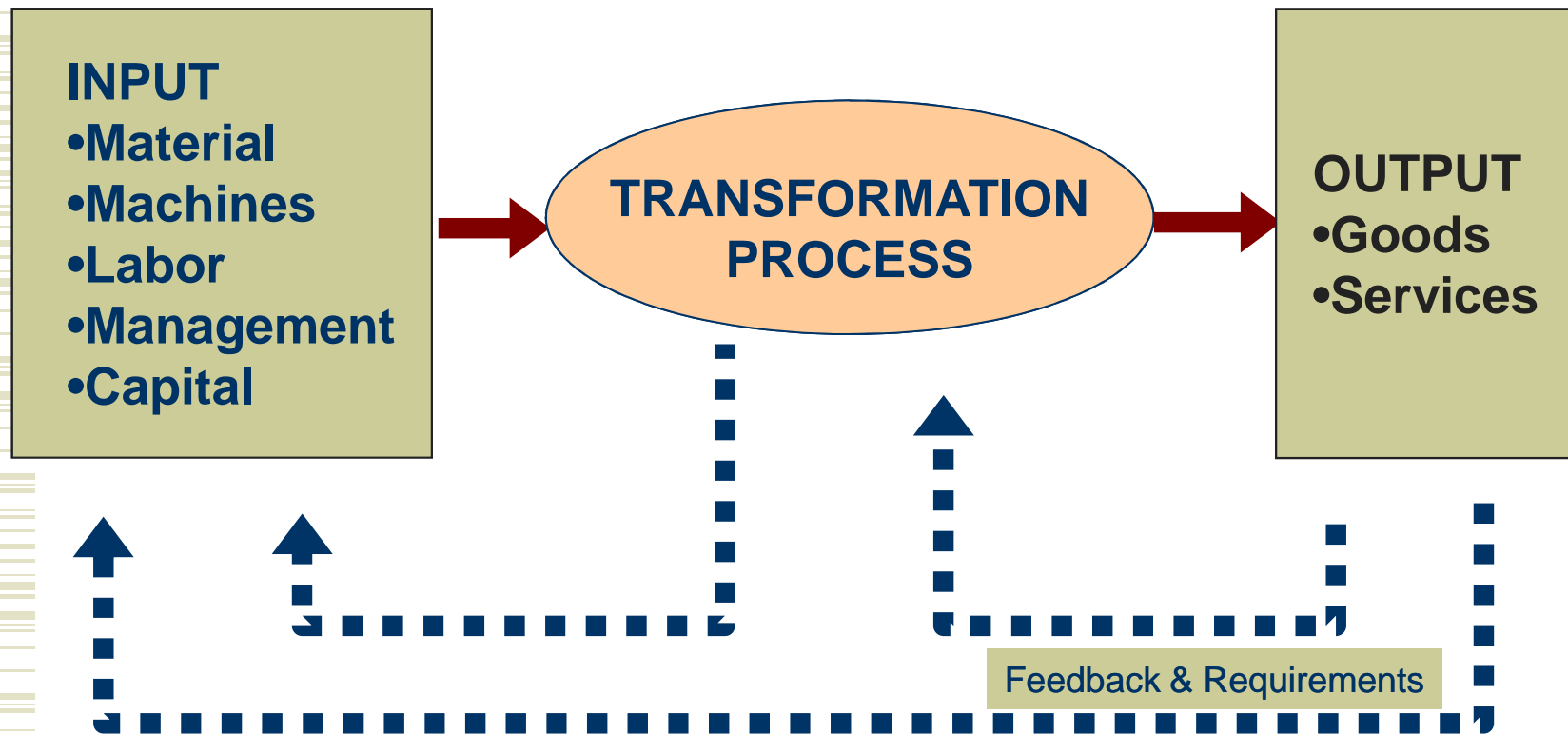
- ◆ What is Operations Management?
 - design, operation, and improvement of productive systems
- ◆ What is Operations?
 - a function or system that transforms inputs into outputs of greater value
- ◆ What is a Transformation Process?
 - a series of activities along a *value chain* extending from supplier to customer
 - activities that do not add value are superfluous and should be eliminated



Transformation Process

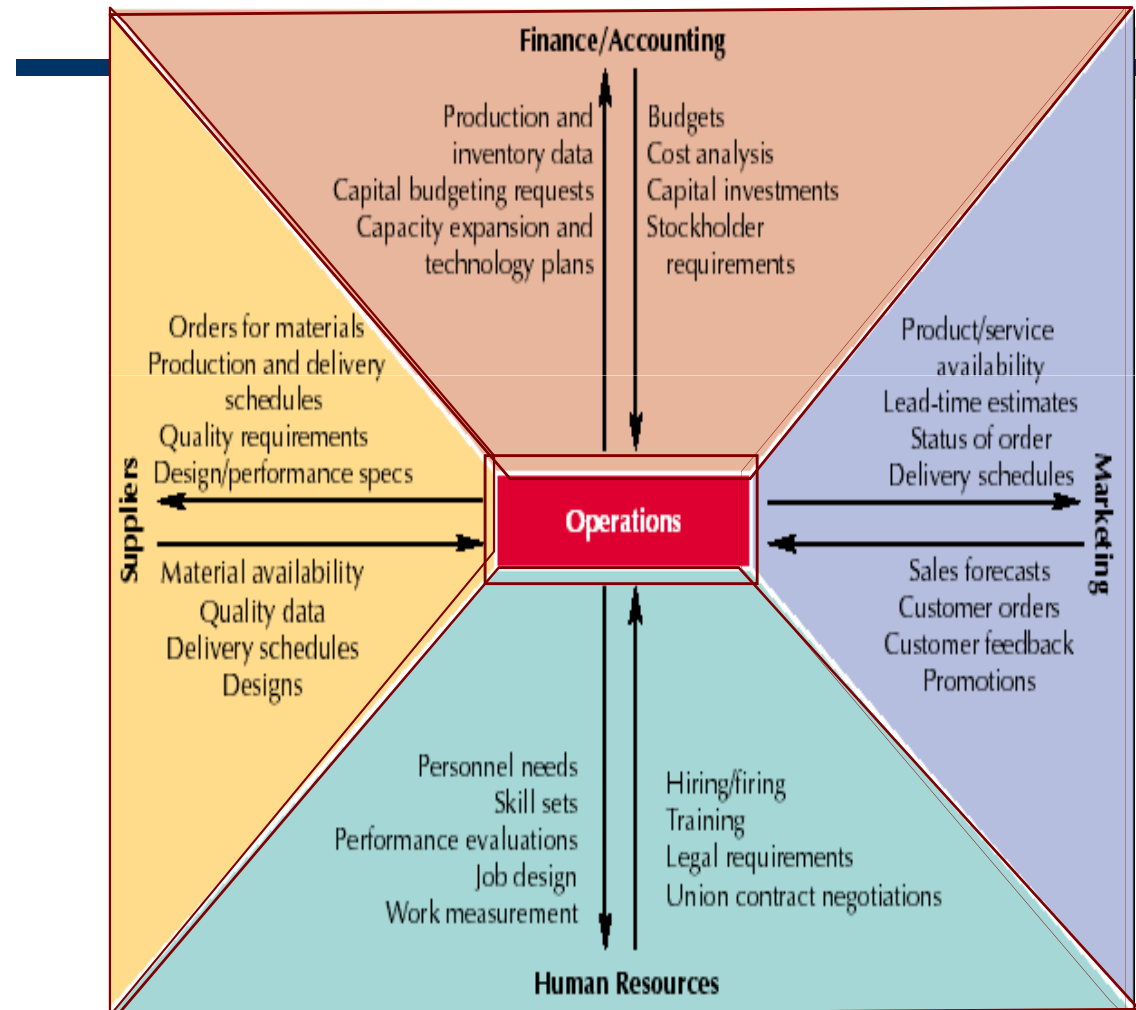
- ◆ *Physical:* as in manufacturing operations
- ◆ *Locational:* as in transportation or warehouse operations
- ◆ *Exchange:* as in retail operations
- ◆ *Physiological:* as in health care
- ◆ *Psychological:* as in entertainment
- ◆ *Informational:* as in communication

Operations as a Transformation Process



Operations Function

- ◆ Operations
- ◆ Marketing
- ◆ Finance and Accounting
- ◆ Human Resources
- ◆ Outside Suppliers



How is Operations Relevant to my Major?

- ◆ **Accounting**
 - ◆ “As an auditor you must understand the fundamentals of operations management.”
- ◆ **Information Technology**
 - ◆ “IT is a tool, and there’s no better place to apply it than in operations.”
- ◆ **Management**
 - ◆ “We use so many things you learn in an operations class— scheduling, lean production, theory of constraints, and tons of quality tools.”

How is Operations Relevant to my Major? (cont.)

- ◆ **Economics**
 - ◆ “It’s all about processes. I live by flowcharts and Pareto analysis.”
- ◆ **Marketing**
 - ◆ “How can you do a good job marketing a product if you’re unsure of its quality or delivery status?”
- ◆ **Finance**
 - ◆ “Most of our capital budgeting requests are from operations, and most of our cost savings, too.”

Evolution of Operations and Supply Chain Management

- ◆ **Craft production**
 - process of handcrafting products or services for individual customers
- ◆ **Division of labor**
 - dividing a job into a series of small tasks each performed by a different worker
- ◆ **Interchangeable parts**
 - standardization of parts initially as replacement parts; enabled mass production

Evolution of Operations and Supply Chain Management (cont.)

- ◆ **Scientific management**
 - systematic analysis of work methods
- ◆ **Mass production**
 - high-volume production of a standardized product for a mass market
- ◆ **Lean production**
 - adaptation of mass production that prizes quality and flexibility

Historical Events in Operations Management

Era	Events/Concepts	Dates	Originator
Industrial Revolution	Steam engine	1769	James Watt
	Division of labor	1776	Adam Smith
	Interchangeable parts	1790	Eli Whitney
Scientific Management	Principles of scientific management	1911	Frederick W. Taylor
	Time and motion studies	1911	Frank and Lillian Gilbreth
	Activity scheduling chart	1912	Henry Gantt
	Moving assembly line	1913	Henry Ford

Historical Events in Operations Management (cont.)

Era	Events/Concepts	Dates	Originator
Human Relations	Hawthorne studies	1930	Elton Mayo
	Motivation theories	1940s	Abraham Maslow
		1950s	Frederick Herzberg
		1960s	Douglas McGregor
Operations Research	Linear programming	1947	George Dantzig
	Digital computer	1951	Remington Rand
	Simulation, waiting line theory, decision theory, PERT/CPM	1950s	Operations research groups
	MRP, EDI, EFT, CIM	1960s, 1970s	Joseph Orlicky, IBM and others

Historical Events in Operations Management (cont.)

Era	Events/Concepts	Dates	Originator
Quality Revolution	JIT (just-in-time)	1970s	Taiichi Ohno (Toyota)
	TQM (total quality management)	1980s	W. Edwards Deming, Joseph Juran
	Strategy and operations	1980s	Wickham Skinner, Robert Hayes
	Business process reengineering	1990s	Michael Hammer, James Champy
	Six Sigma	1990s	GE, Motorola

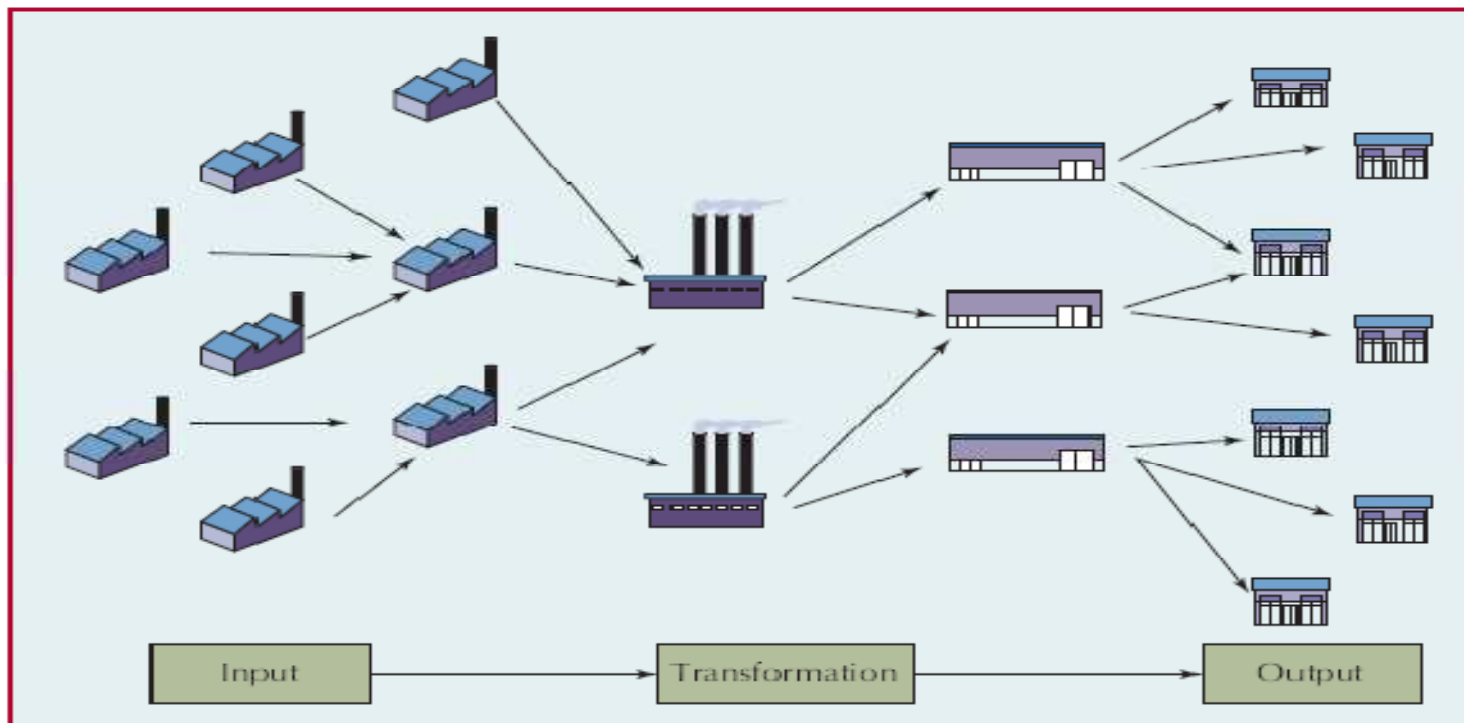
Historical Events in Operations Management (cont.)

Era	Events/Concepts	Dates	Originator
Internet Revolution	Internet, WWW, ERP, supply chain management	1990s	ARPANET, Tim Berners-Lee SAP, i2 Technologies, ORACLE
	E-commerce	2000s	Amazon, Yahoo, eBay, Google, and others
Globalization	WTO, European Union, and other trade agreements, global supply chains, outsourcing, BPO, Services Science	1990s 2000s	Numerous countries and companies

Evolution of Operations and Supply Chain Management (cont.)

- ◆ **Supply chain management**

- **management of the flow of information, products, and services across a network of customers, enterprises, and supply chain partners**



Globalization and Competitiveness

- ◆ Why “go global”?
 - favorable cost
 - access to international markets
 - response to changes in demand
 - reliable sources of supply
 - latest trends and technologies
- ◆ Increased globalization
 - results from the Internet and falling trade barriers

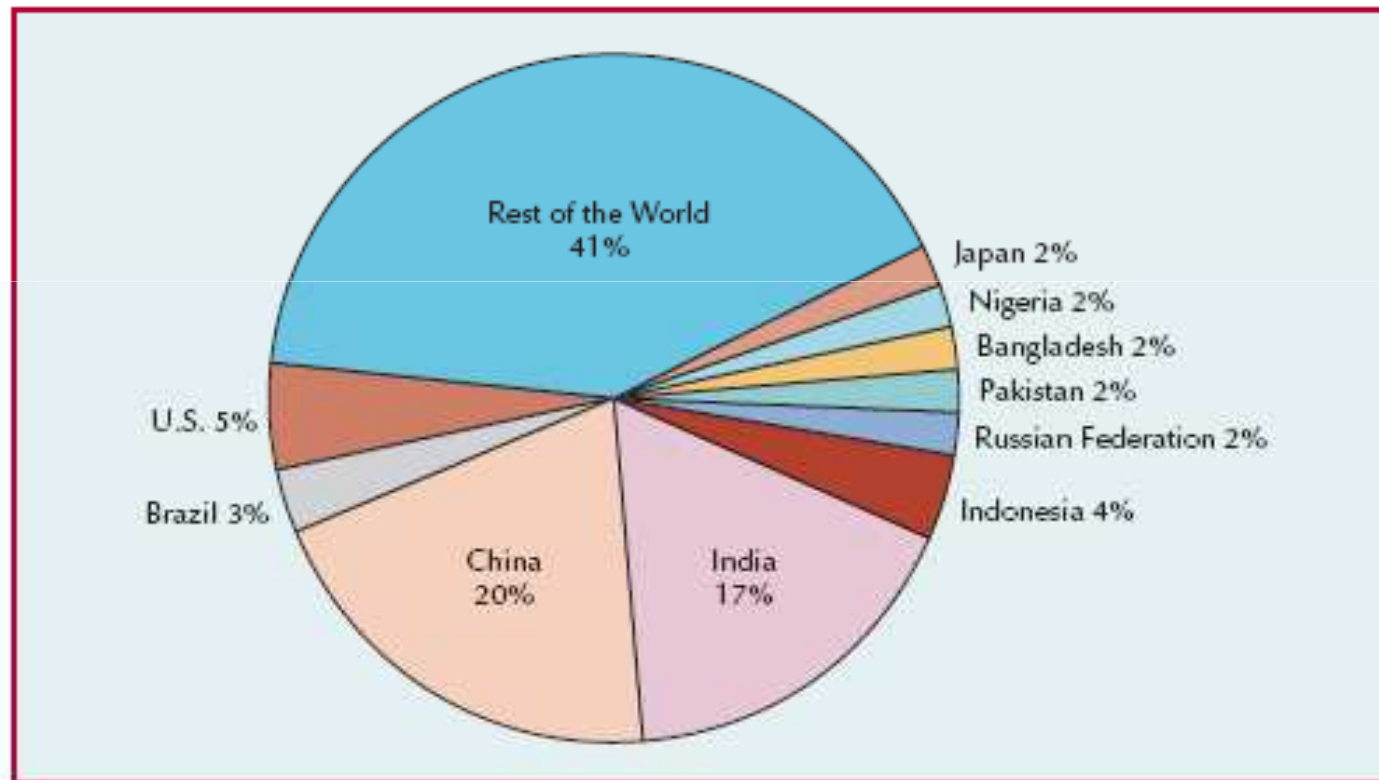
Globalization and Competitiveness (cont.)



Hourly Compensation Costs for Production Workers

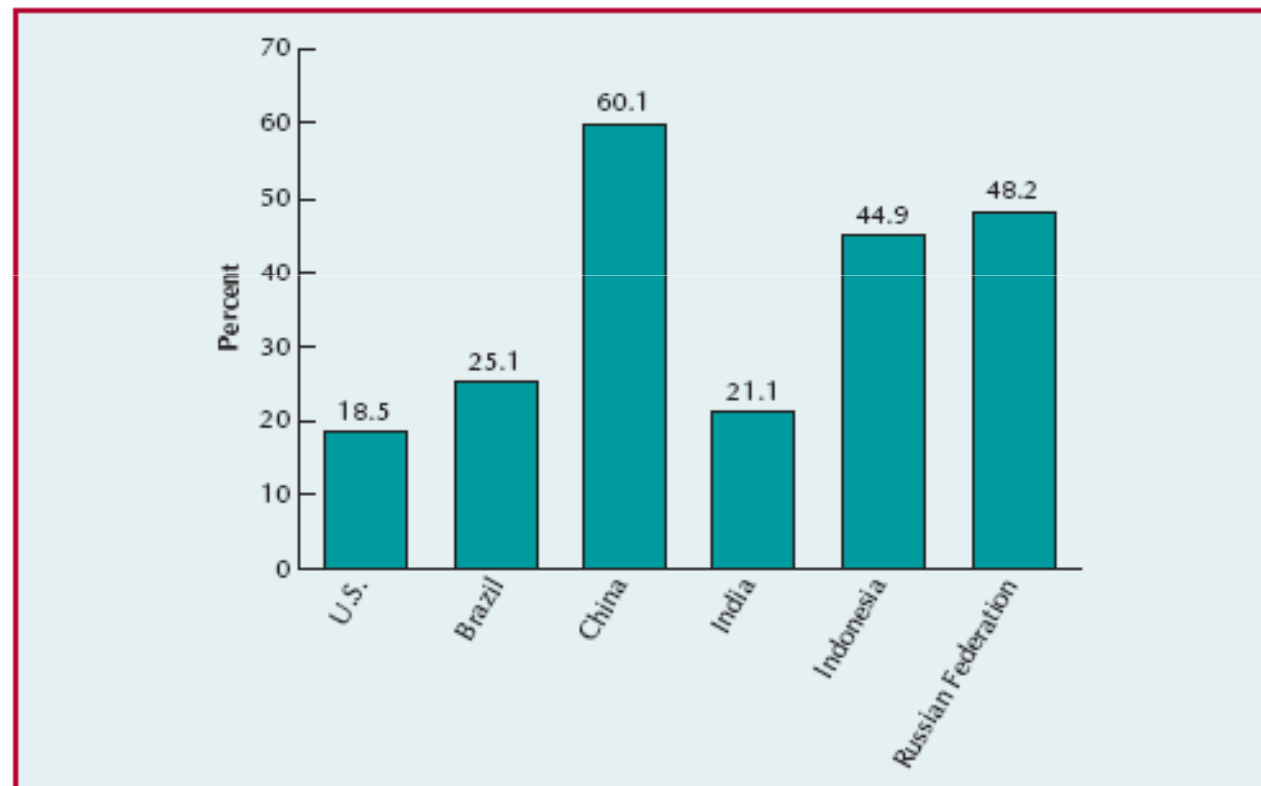
Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005.

Globalization and Competitiveness (cont.)



World Population Distribution
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2006.

Globalization and Competitiveness (cont.)



Trade in Goods as % of GDP

(sum of merchandise exports and imports divided by GDP, valued in U.S. dollars)

Productivity and Competitiveness

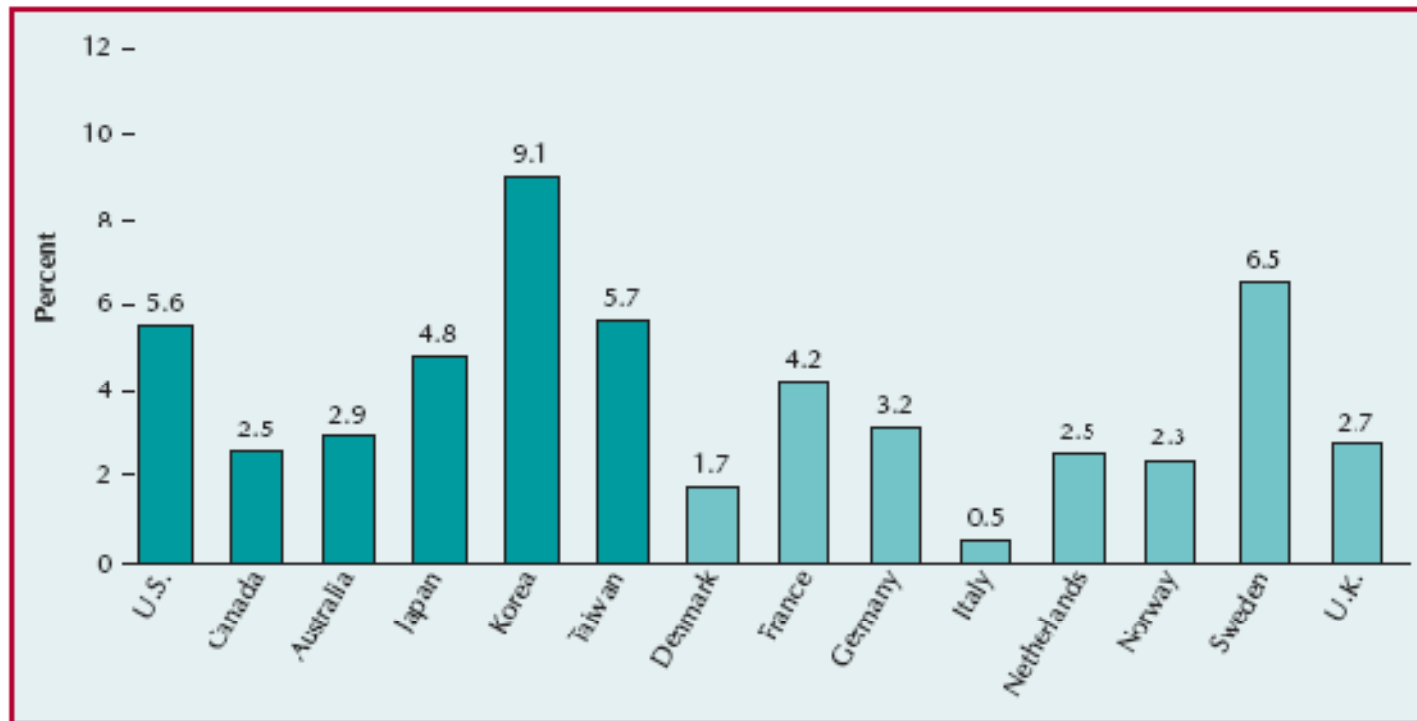
- ◆ **Competitiveness**
 - degree to which a nation can produce goods and services that meet the test of international markets
- ◆ **Productivity**
 - ratio of output to input
- ◆ **Output**
 - sales made, products produced, customers served, meals delivered, or calls answered
- ◆ **Input**
 - labor hours, investment in equipment, material usage, or square footage

Productivity and Competitiveness (cont.)

Single Factor-Productivity		
$\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor}}$	$\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Materials}}$	$\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Capital}}$
Multifactor Productivity		
$\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor} + \text{Materials} + \text{Overhead}}$	$\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor} + \text{Energy} + \text{Capital}}$	
Total Factor Productivity		
$\frac{\text{Goods and services produced}}{\text{All inputs used to produce them}}$		

Measures of Productivity

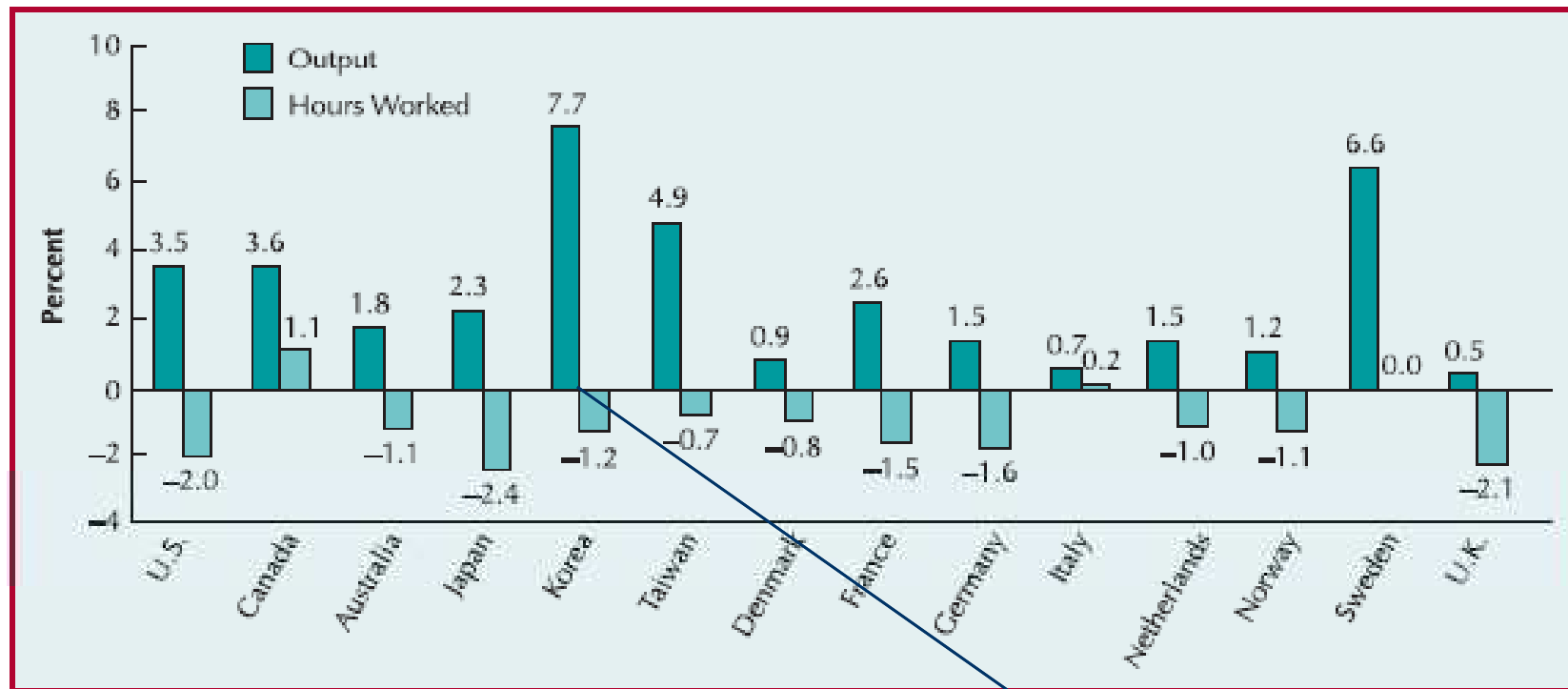
Productivity and Competitiveness (cont.)



Average Annual Growth Rates in Productivity, 1995-2005.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics. A Chartbook of International Labor Comparisons. January 2007, p. 28.

Productivity and Competitiveness (cont.)



Average Annual Growth Rates in Output and Input, 1995-2005

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics. A Chartbook of International Labor Comparisons, January 2007, p. 26.

Dramatic Increase in Output w/ Decrease in Labor Hours

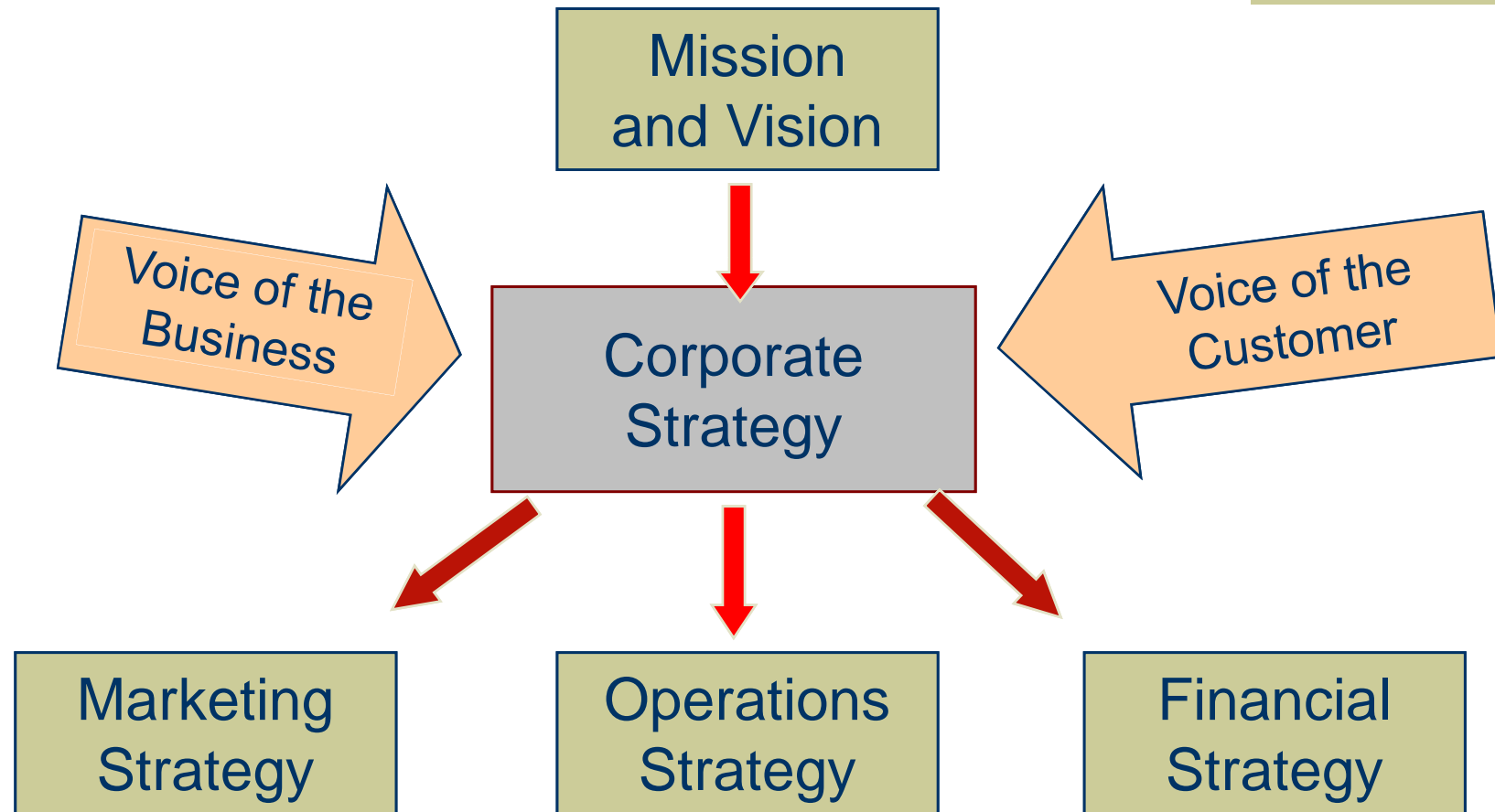
Productivity and Competitiveness (cont.)

- ◆ Retrenching
 - productivity is increasing, but both output and input decrease with input decreasing at a faster rate
- ◆ Assumption that more input would cause output to increase at the same rate
 - certain limits to the amount of output may not be considered
 - *output produced* is emphasized, not *output sold*; increased inventories

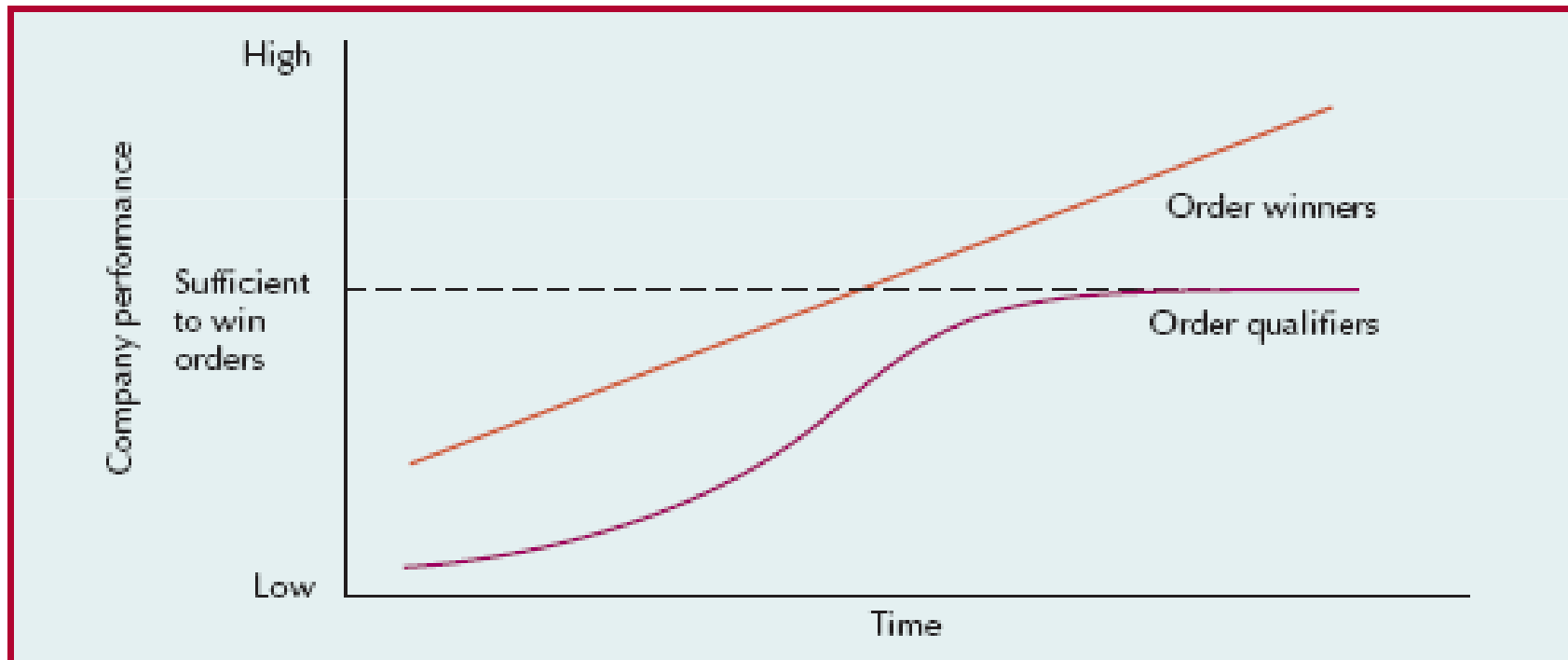
Strategy and Operations

- ◆ Strategy
 - Provides direction for achieving a mission
- ◆ Five Steps for Strategy Formulation
 - Defining a primary task
 - What is the firm in the business of doing?
 - Assessing core competencies
 - What does the firm do better than anyone else?
 - Determining order winners and order qualifiers
 - What qualifies an item to be considered for purchase?
 - What wins the order?
 - Positioning the firm
 - How will the firm compete?
 - Deploying the strategy

Strategic Planning



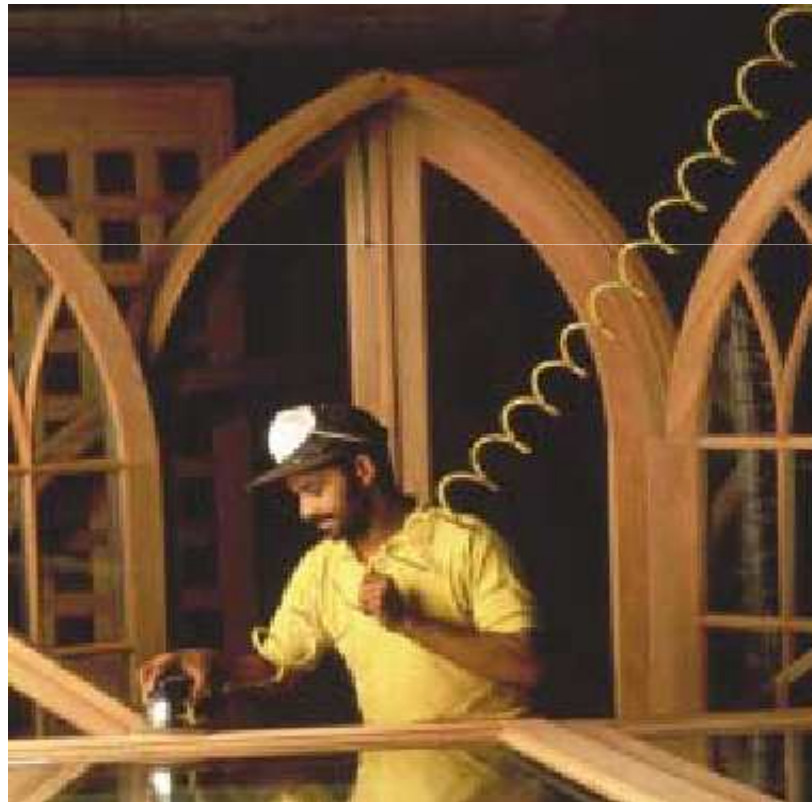
Order Winners and Order Qualifiers



Source: Adapted from Nigel Slack, Stuart Chambers, Robert Johnston, and Alan Betts, *Operations and Process Management*, Prentice Hall, 2006, p. 47

Positioning the Firm

- ◆ Cost
- ◆ Speed
- ◆ Quality
- ◆ Flexibility





Positioning the Firm: Cost

- ◆ Waste elimination
 - relentlessly pursuing the removal of all waste
- ◆ Examination of cost structure
 - looking at the entire cost structure for reduction potential
- ◆ Lean production
 - providing low costs through disciplined operations

Positioning the Firm: Speed

- ◆ fast moves, fast adaptations, tight linkages
- ◆ Internet
 - conditioned customers to expect immediate responses
- ◆ Service organizations
 - always competed on speed (McDonald's, LensCrafters, and Federal Express)
- ◆ Manufacturers
 - time-based competition: build-to-order production and efficient supply chains
- ◆ Fashion industry
 - two-week design-to-rack lead time of Spanish retailer, Zara

Positioning the Firm: Quality

- ◆ Minimizing defect rates or conforming to design specifications; please the customer
- ◆ Ritz-Carlton - one customer at a time
 - Service system is designed to “move heaven and earth” to satisfy customer
 - Every employee is empowered to satisfy a guest’s wish
 - Teams at all levels set objectives and devise quality action plans
 - Each hotel has a quality leader



Positioning the Firm: Flexibility

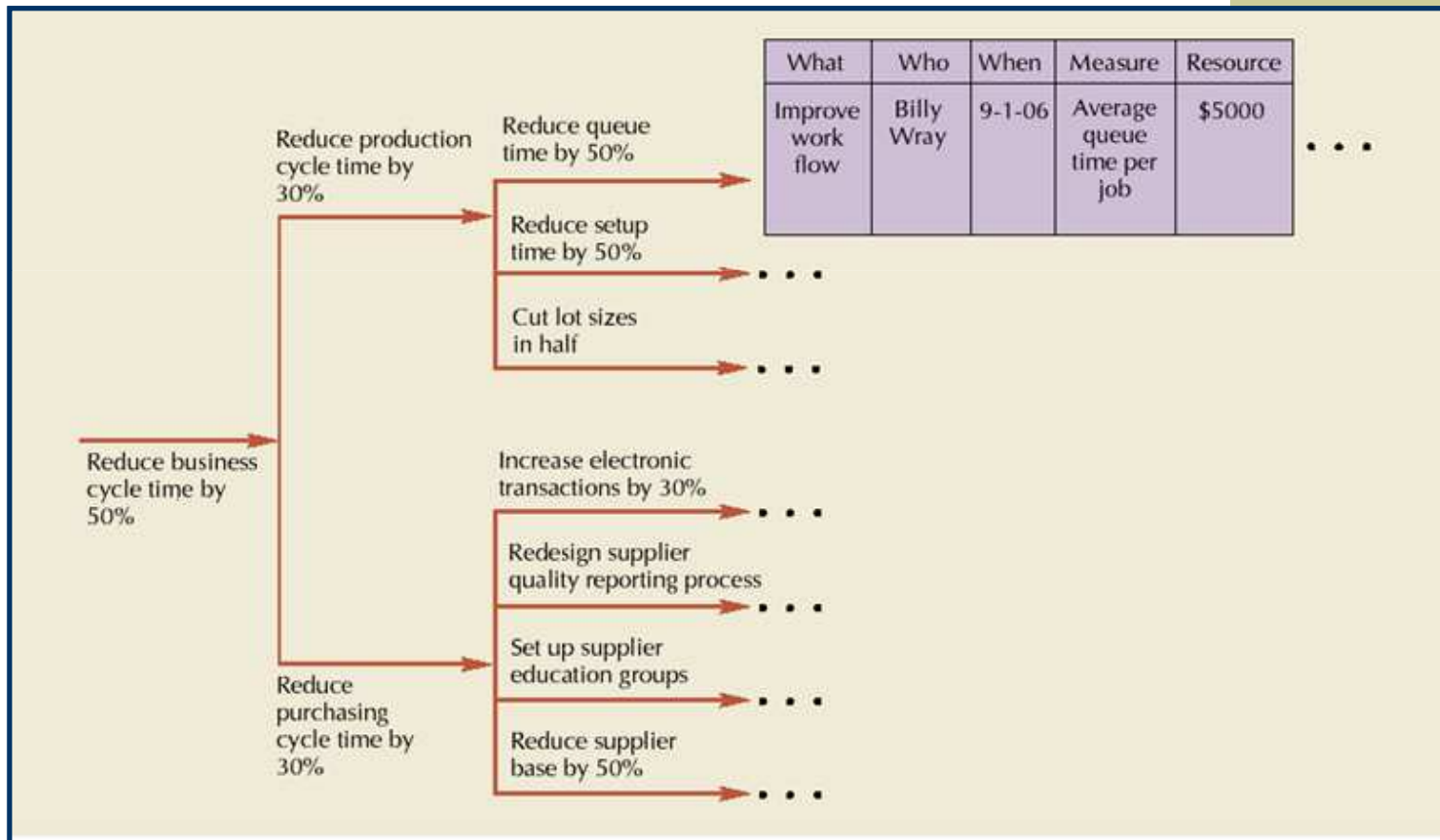
- ◆ ability to adjust to changes in product mix, production volume, or design
- ◆ National Bicycle Industrial Company
 - offers 11,231,862 variations
 - delivers within two weeks at costs only 10% above standard models
 - *mass customization*: the mass production of customized parts



Policy Deployment

- ◆ Policy deployment
 - translates corporate strategy into measurable objectives
- ◆ Hoshins
 - action plans generated from the policy deployment process

Policy Deployment



Derivation of an Action Plan Using Policy Deployment



Balanced Scorecard

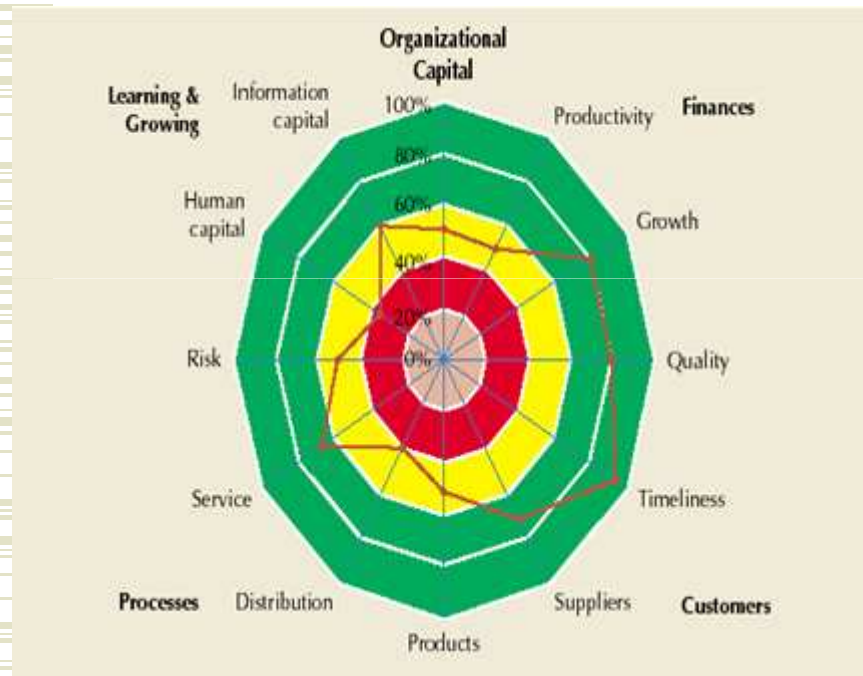
- ◆ **Balanced scorecard**
 - measuring more than financial performance
 - finances
 - customers
 - processes
 - learning and growing
- ◆ **Key performance indicators**
 - a set of measures that help managers evaluate performance in critical areas

Balanced Scorecard

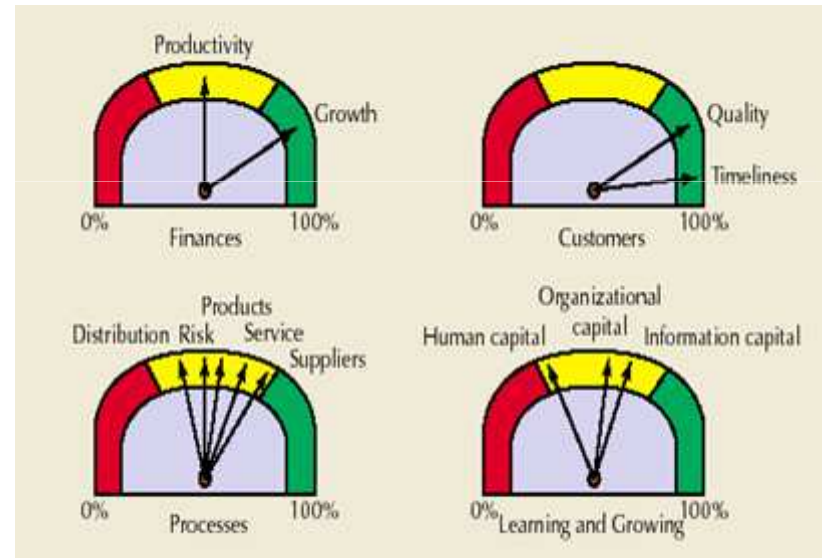
Balanced Scorecard Worksheet

Dimension		Objectives	Key Performance Indicator	Goal for 2008	KPI Results to Date	Score	Mean Performance
Finances	Productivity	Become industry cost leader	% reduction in cost per unit	20%	10%	50%	65%
	Growth	Increase market share	Market share	50%	40%	80%	
Customers	Quality	Zero defects	% good quality first pass	100%	80%	80%	87%
	Timeliness	On-time delivery	% of on-time deliveries	95%	90%	95%	
Processes	Suppliers	Integrate into production	% orders delivered to assembly	50%	40%	80%	73%
		Reduce inspections	% suppliers ISO 9000 certified	90%	60%	67%	
	Products	Reduce time to produce	Cycle time	10 mins.	12 mins.	83%	52%
		Improve quality	# warranty claims	200	1000	20%	
	Distribution	Reduce transportation costs	% FTL shipments	75%	30%	40%	40%
	Post-sales Service	Improve response to customer inquiries	% queries satisfied on first pass	90%	60%	67%	67%
Risk	Reduce Inventory obsolescence	Inventory turnover	12	6	50%	50%	
	Reduce customer backlog	% order backlogged	10%	20%	50%		
Learning & Growing	Human capital	Develop quality improvement skills	# of six sigma Black Belts	25	2	8%	35%
			% trained in SPC	80%	60%	63%	
	Information capital	Provide technology to improve processes	% customers who can track orders	100%	60%	60%	61%
			% suppliers who use EDI	80%	50%	63%	
Organizational capital	Create innovative culture	# of employee suggestions	100	60	60%	55%	
		% of products new this year	20%	10%	50%		

Balanced Scorecard

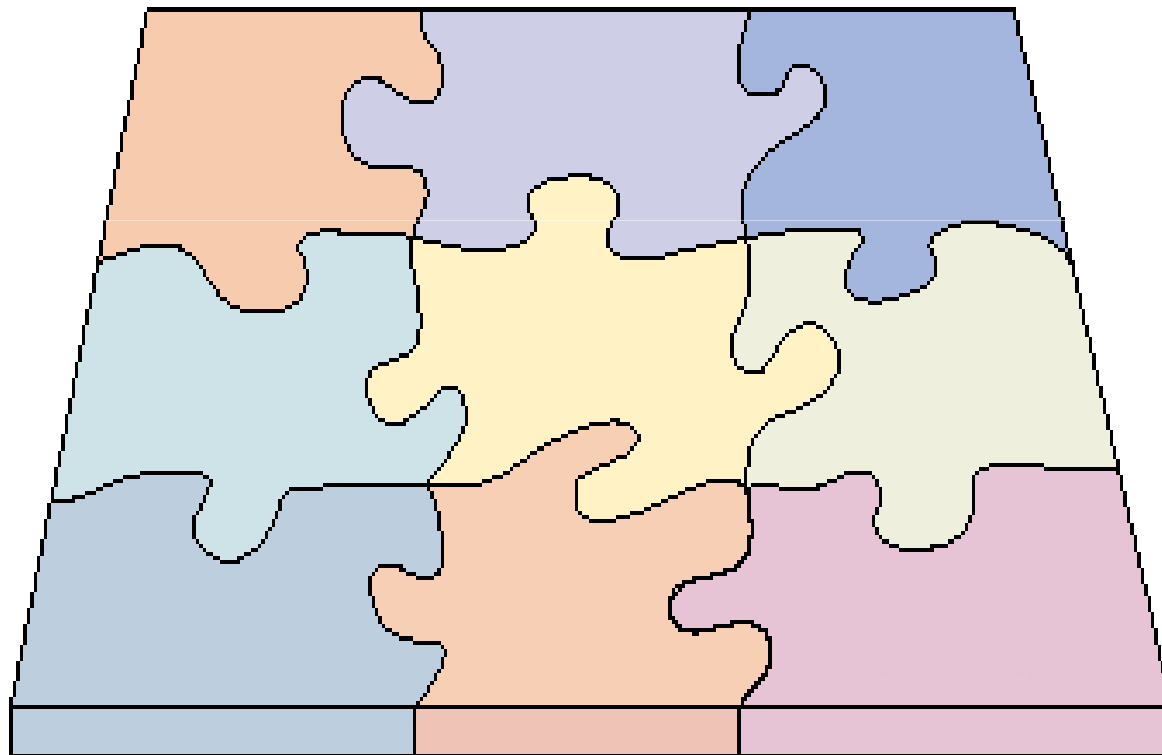


Radar Chart



Dashboard

Operations Strategy





Chapter 1 Supplement

Decision Analysis

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Decision Analysis
- ◆ Decision Making without Probabilities
- ◆ Decision Analysis with Excel
- ◆ Decision Analysis with OM Tools
- ◆ Decision Making with Probabilities
- ◆ Expected Value of Perfect Information
- ◆ Sequential Decision Tree



Decision Analysis

- ◆ Quantitative methods
 - a set of tools for operations manager
- ◆ Decision analysis
 - a set of quantitative decision-making techniques for decision situations in which uncertainty exists
 - Example of an uncertain situation
 - demand for a product may vary between 0 and 200 units, depending on the state of market

Decision Making Without Probabilities

- ◆ *States of nature*
 - Events that may occur in the future
 - Examples of states of nature:
 - high or low demand for a product
 - good or bad economic conditions
- ◆ *Decision making under risk*
 - probabilities can be assigned to the occurrence of states of nature in the future
- ◆ *Decision making under uncertainty*
 - probabilities can NOT be assigned to the occurrence of states of nature in the future

Payoff Table

- ◆ Payoff table
 - method for organizing and illustrating payoffs from different decisions given various states of nature
- ◆ Payoff
 - outcome of a decision

Decision	States Of Nature	
	a	b
1	Payoff 1a	Payoff 1b
2	Payoff 2a	Payoff 2b

Decision Making Criteria Under Uncertainty

- ◆ Maximax
 - choose decision with the maximum of the maximum payoffs
- ◆ Maximin
 - choose decision with the maximum of the minimum payoffs
- ◆ Minimax regret
 - choose decision with the minimum of the maximum regrets for each alternative

Decision Making Criteria Under Uncertainty (cont.)

◆ Hurwicz

- choose decision in which decision payoffs are weighted by a coefficient of optimism, alpha
- coefficient of optimism is a measure of a decision maker's optimism, from 0 (completely pessimistic) to 1 (completely optimistic)

◆ Equal likelihood (La Place)

- choose decision in which each state of nature is weighted equally

Southern Textile Company

STATES OF NATURE

DECISION	<i>Good Foreign</i>	<i>Poor Foreign</i>
	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

Maximax Solution

STATES OF NATURE		
	<i>Good Foreign</i>	<i>Poor Foreign</i>
DECISION	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

<i>Expand:</i>	\$800,000	
<i>Status quo:</i>	1,300,000	← <i>Maximum</i>
<i>Sell:</i>	320,000	

Decision: Maintain status quo

Maximin Solution

DECISION	STATES OF NATURE	
	<i>Good Foreign</i>	<i>Poor Foreign</i>
	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

<i>Expand:</i>	\$500,000	← <i>Maximum</i>
<i>Status quo:</i>	-150,000	
<i>Sell:</i>	320,000	

Decision: Expand

Minimax Regret Solution

Good Foreign Competitive Conditions	Poor Foreign Competitive Conditions
$\$1,300,000 - 800,000 = 500,000$ $1,300,000 - 1,300,000 = 0$ $1,300,000 - 320,000 = 980,000$	$\$500,000 - 500,000 = 0$ $500,000 - (-150,000) = 650,000$ $500,000 - 320,000 = 180,000$
Expand: \$500,000 ← <i>Minimum</i> Status quo: 650,000 Sell: 980,000	<p style="text-align: right;">Decision: Expand</p>

Hurwicz Criteria

DECISION	STATES OF NATURE	
	<i>Good Foreign Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Poor Foreign Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

$\alpha = 0.3$	$1 - \alpha = 0.7$
----------------	--------------------

Expand: $\$800,000(0.3) + 500,000(0.7) = \$590,000$ ← *Maximum*
Status quo: $1,300,000(0.3) - 150,000(0.7) = 285,000$
Sell: $320,000(0.3) + 320,000(0.7) = 320,000$

Decision: Expand

Equal Likelihood Criteria

STATES OF NATURE		
DECISION	<i>Good Foreign</i>	<i>Poor Foreign</i>
	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

Two states of nature each weighted 0.50

Expand: $\$800,000(0.5) + 500,000(0.5) = \$650,000$ ← *Maximum*

Status quo: $1,300,000(0.5) - 150,000(0.5) = 575,000$

Sell: $320,000(0.5) + 320,000(0.5) = 320,000$

Decision: Expand

Decision Analysis with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Table1\$1: Decision Analysis.xls

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Example 51.6: Decision-Making Criteria Under Uncertainty

Decision	States of Nature		Maximum		Regret	
	Good Conditions	Poor Conditions	Maximum	Minimum	Good	Poor
Expand	800,000	600,000	800,000	600,000	900,000	-
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	(100,000)	1,300,000	(200,000)	-	600,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000	320,000	320,000	980,000	180,000

(i) Maximax decision = 1,300,000 Status quo
 (ii) Maximin decision = -600,000 Expand

(iii) Minimax Regret

Expand	900,000	Select
Maintain status quo	600,000	
Sell now	980,000	

(iv) Minimax

Alpha	Value	Select
Alpha = 0.30		
1 - Alpha = 0.70		
Expand	-600,000	
Maintain status quo	285,000	Select
Sell now	320,000	

(v) Equal Likelihood

Expand	680,000	Select
Maintain status quo	-575,000	
Sell now	320,000	

Formulas shown in the image:

- $=\text{MAX}(C6:D6)$
- $=\text{MAX}(D6:D8)-F7$
- $=\text{MIN}(C8:D8)$
- $=\text{MAX}(F6:F8)$
- $=\text{MAX}(G7:H7)$
- $=C19 * E7 + C20 * F7$
- $=.5 * E8 + .5 * F8$

Decision Analysis with OM Tools

Microsoft Excel - Lab1051-2-DecisionAnalysis.xls

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04 6.0.3

Decision Making Under Uncertainty OM Student - Example 51.2

Input:

Alpha =

Input alpha, label the decisions and states of nature, and associate values for each decision given a particular state of nature.

Decision	States of Nature	
	Good Conditions	Poor Conditions
Expand	80000.00	50000.00
Maintain status quo	130000.00	-15000.00
Sell now	32000.00	32000.00

Calculations:

Decision	Maximize	Minimize	Minimum Regret	Equal Likelihood	Minimax
Expand	80000.00	50000.00	50000.00	68000.00	50000.00
Maintain status quo	130000.00	-15000.00	65000.00	57500.00	28000.00
Sell now	32000.00	32000.00	98000.00	32000.00	32000.00

Output:

Maximax decision	130000.00	Maintain status quo
Maximin decision	50000.00	Expand
Minimax Regret	50000.00	Expand
Equal Likelihood	68000.00	Expand
Minimax	50000.00	Expand



Decision Making with Probabilities

- ◆ Risk involves assigning probabilities to states of nature
- ◆ Expected value
 - a weighted average of decision outcomes in which each future state of nature is assigned a probability of occurrence

Expected value

$$EV(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i)x_i$$

where

x_i = *outcome i*

$p(x_i)$ = *probability of outcome i*

Decision Making with Probabilities: Example

STATES OF NATURE		
	<i>Good Foreign</i>	<i>Poor Foreign</i>
DECISION	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>	<i>Competitive Conditions</i>
Expand	\$ 800,000	\$ 500,000
Maintain status quo	1,300,000	-150,000
Sell now	320,000	320,000

$p(\text{good}) = 0.70$ $p(\text{poor}) = 0.30$
 EV(expand): $\$800,000(0.7) + 500,000(0.3) = \$710,000$
 EV(status quo): $1,300,000(0.7) - 150,000(0.3) = 865,000$ ← Maximum
 EV(sell): $320,000(0.7) + 320,000(0.3) = 320,000$

Decision: Status quo

Decision Making with Probabilities: Excel

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS1.3.Decision Analysis.xls

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D6 =B5*B6+C5*C6

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1	Example S1.2: Expected Value										
2											
3		<i>Good</i>	<i>Poor</i>								
4		<i>Conditions</i>	<i>Conditions</i>	<i>Expected</i>							
5	<i>Decision</i>	0.7	0.3	<i>Value</i>							
6	Expand	800,000	500,000	710,000							
7	Status quo	1,300,000	-150,000	865,000							
8	Sell now	320,000	320,000	320,000							
9											

Formula for expected value computed in cell D6

Expected Value of Perfect Information

◆ EVPI

- maximum value of perfect information to the decision maker
- maximum amount that would be paid to gain information that would result in a decision better than the one made without perfect information

EVPI Example

- Good conditions will exist 70% of the time
 - choose maintain status quo with payoff of $\$1,300,000$
- Poor conditions will exist 30% of the time
 - choose expand with payoff of $\$500,000$
- Expected value given perfect information
 - $= \$1,300,000 (0.70) + 500,000 (0.30)$
 - $= \$1,060,000$
- Recall that expected value without perfect information was $\$865,000$ (maintain status quo)
- $EVPI = \$1,060,000 - 865,000 = \$195,000$

Sequential Decision Trees

- A graphical method for analyzing decision situations that require a sequence of decisions over time
- Decision tree consists of
 - Square nodes - indicating decision points
 - Circles nodes - indicating states of nature
 - Arcs - connecting nodes

Evaluations at Nodes

Compute EV at nodes 6 & 7

$$EV(\text{node 6}) = 0.80(\$3,000,000) + 0.20(\$700,000) = \$2,540,000$$

$$EV(\text{node 7}) = 0.30(\$2,300,000) + 0.70(\$1,000,000) = \$1,390,000$$

Decision at node 4 is between

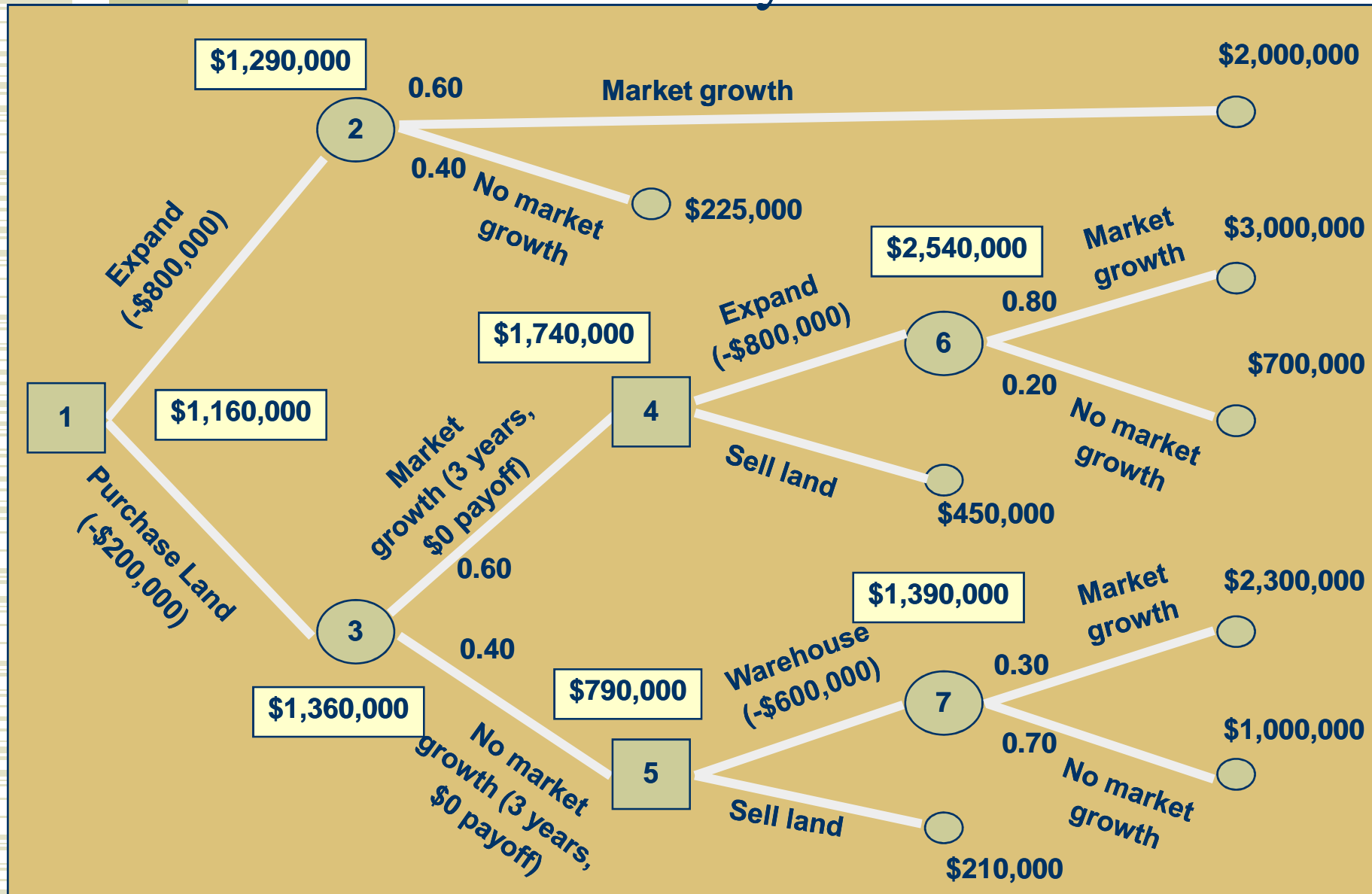
\$2,540,000 for Expand and

\$450,000 for Sell land

Choose Expand

Repeat expected value calculations and decisions at remaining nodes

Decision Tree Analysis





Chapter 2

Quality Management

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



Lecture Outline

- ◆ What Is Quality?
- ◆ Evolution of Quality Management
- ◆ Quality Tools
- ◆ TQM and QMS
- ◆ Focus of Quality Management—
Customers
- ◆ Role of Employees in
Quality Improvement
- ◆ Quality in Service
Companies
- ◆ Six Sigma
- ◆ Cost of Quality
- ◆ Effect of Quality
Management on
Productivity
- ◆ Quality Awards
- ◆ ISO 9000



What Is Quality?

- *Oxford American Dictionary*
 - a degree or level of excellence
- American Society for Quality
 - totality of features and characteristics that satisfy needs without deficiencies
- Consumer's and producer's perspective

What Is Quality: Customer's Perspective

- **Fitness for use**
 - how well product or service does what it is supposed to
- **Quality of design**
 - designing quality characteristics into a product or service
- A Mercedes and a Ford are equally “fit for use,” but with different design dimensions.



Dimensions of Quality: Manufactured Products

- Performance
 - basic operating characteristics of a product; how well a car handles or its gas mileage
- Features
 - “extra” items added to basic features, such as a stereo CD or a leather interior in a car
- Reliability
 - probability that a product will operate properly within an expected time frame; that is, a TV will work without repair for about seven years

Dimensions of Quality: Manufactured Products (cont.)

- **Conformance**
 - degree to which a product meets pre-established standards
- **Durability**
 - how long product lasts before replacement; with care, L.L.Bean boots may last a lifetime
- **Serviceability**
 - ease of getting repairs, speed of repairs, courtesy and competence of repair person

Dimensions of Quality: Manufactured Products (cont.)

- **Aesthetics**
 - how a product looks, feels, sounds, smells, or tastes
- **Safety**
 - assurance that customer will not suffer injury or harm from a product; an especially important consideration for automobiles
- **Perceptions**
 - subjective perceptions based on brand name, advertising, and like



Dimensions of Quality: Services

- Time and timeliness
 - how long must a customer wait for service, and is it completed on time?
 - is an overnight package delivered overnight?
- Completeness:
 - is everything customer asked for provided?
 - is a mail order from a catalogue company complete when delivered?

Dimensions of Quality: Service (cont.)

- **Courtesy:**
 - how are customers treated by employees?
 - are catalogue phone operators nice and are their voices pleasant?
- **Consistency**
 - is same level of service provided to each customer each time?
 - is your newspaper delivered on time every morning?

Dimensions of Quality: Service (cont.)

- **Accessibility and convenience**
 - how easy is it to obtain service?
 - does service representative answer you calls quickly?
- **Accuracy**
 - is service performed right every time?
 - is your bank or credit card statement correct every month?
- **Responsiveness**
 - how well does company react to unusual situations?
 - how well is a telephone operator able to respond to a customer's questions?

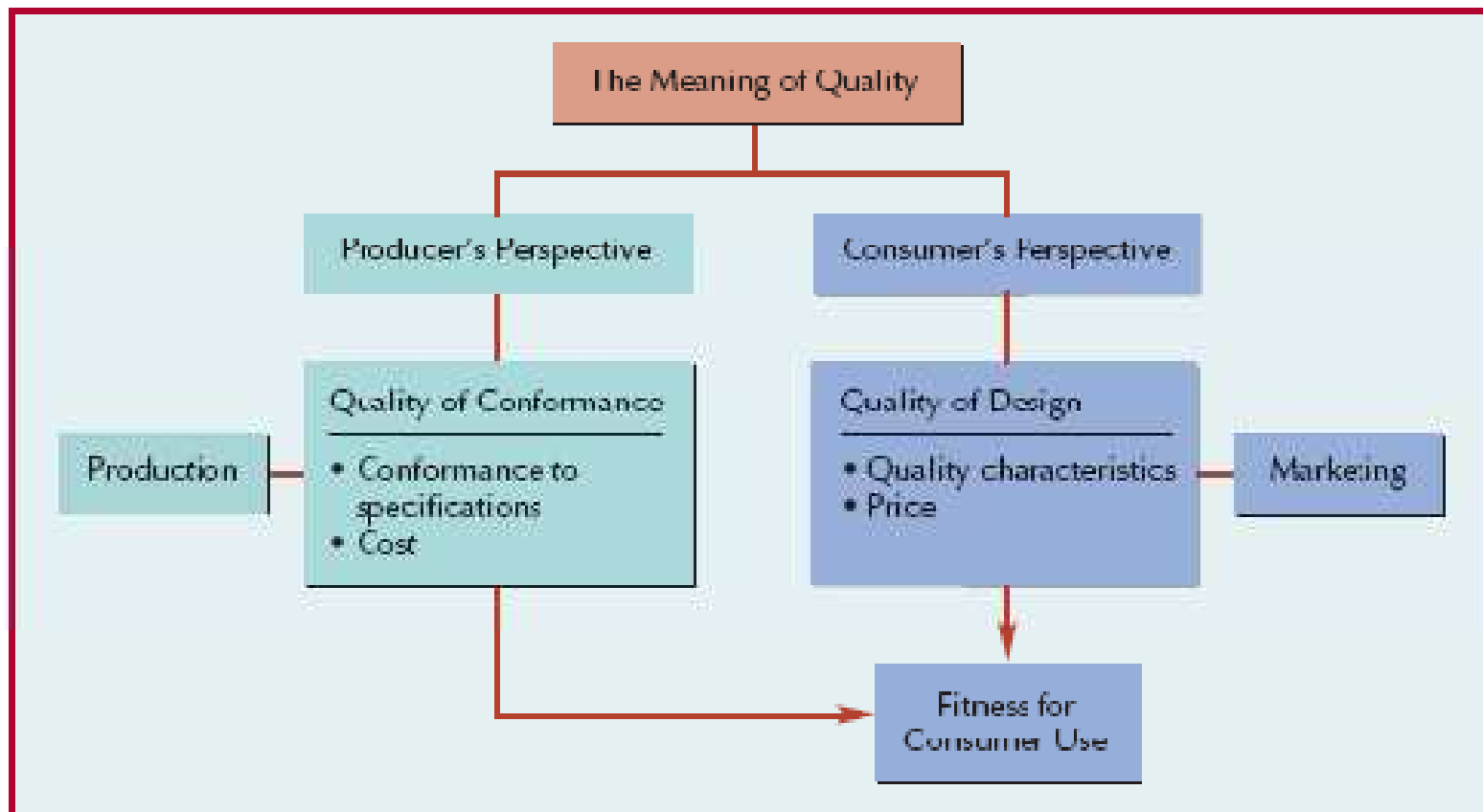


What Is Quality: Producer's Perspective



- Quality of conformance
 - making sure product or service is produced according to design
 - if new tires do not conform to specifications, they wobble
 - if a hotel room is not clean when a guest checks in, hotel is not functioning according to specifications of its design

Meaning of Quality





What Is Quality: A Final Perspective

- Customer's and producer's perspectives depend on each other
- Producer's perspective:
 - production process and COST
- Customer's perspective:
 - fitness for use and PRICE
- Customer's view must dominate

Evolution of Quality Management: Quality Gurus

- ◆ Walter Shewart
 - In 1920s, developed control charts
 - Introduced term “*quality assurance*”
- ◆ W. Edwards Deming
 - Developed courses during World War II to teach statistical quality-control techniques to engineers and executives of companies that were military suppliers
 - After war, began teaching statistical quality control to Japanese companies
- ◆ Joseph M. Juran
 - Followed Deming to Japan in 1954
 - Focused on strategic quality planning
 - Quality improvement achieved by focusing on projects to solve problems and securing breakthrough solutions

Evolution of Quality Management: Quality Gurus (cont.)

- Armand V. Feigenbaum
 - In 1951, introduced concepts of total quality control and continuous quality improvement
- Philip Crosby
 - In 1979, emphasized that costs of poor quality far outweigh cost of preventing poor quality
 - In 1984, defined absolutes of quality management—conformance to requirements, prevention, and “zero defects”
- Kaoru Ishikawa
 - Promoted use of quality circles
 - Developed “fishbone” diagram
 - Emphasized importance of internal customer

Deming's 14 Points

- 1. Create constancy of purpose***
- 2. Adopt philosophy of prevention***
- 3. Cease mass inspection***
- 4. Select a few suppliers based on quality***
- 5. Constantly improve system and workers***

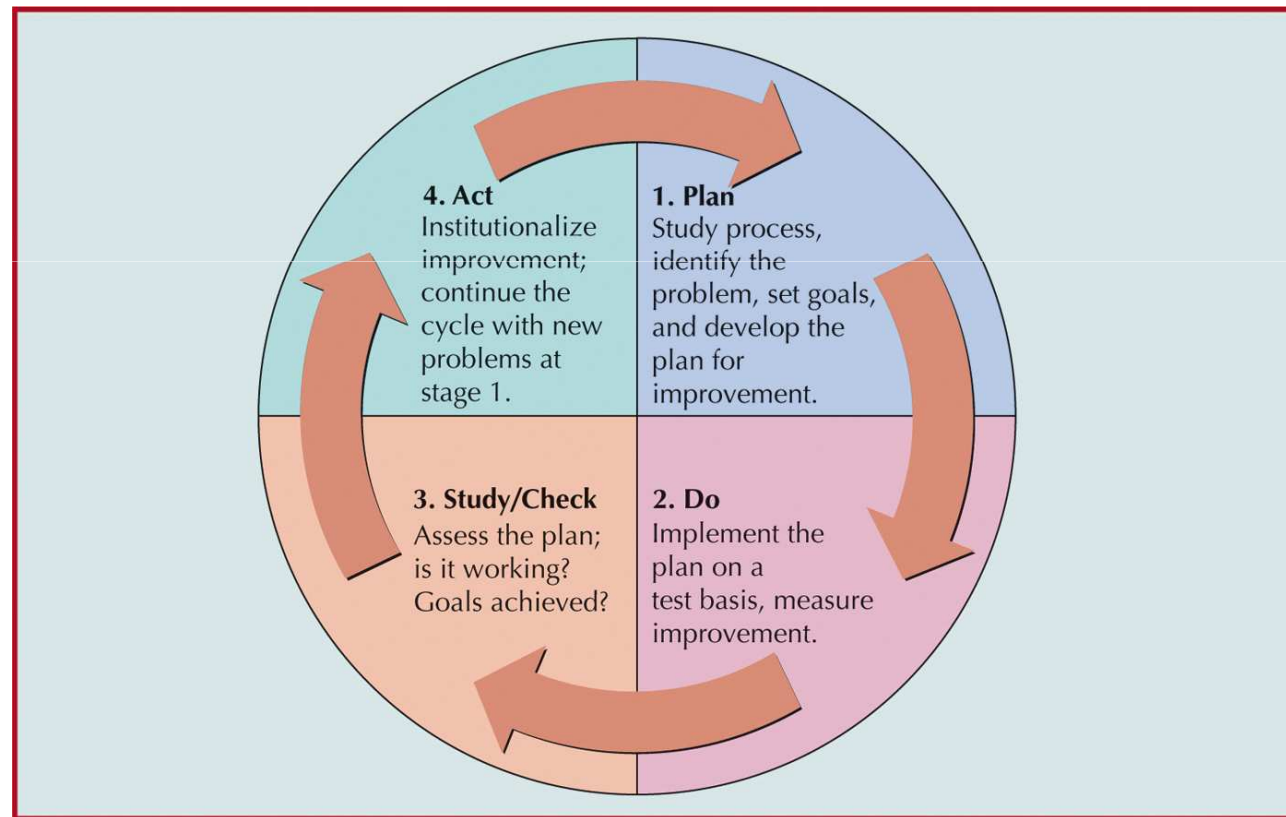
Deming's 14 Points (cont.)

- 6. *Institute worker training***
- 7. *Instill leadership among supervisors***
- 8. *Eliminate fear among employees***
- 9. *Eliminate barriers between departments***
- 10. *Eliminate slogans***

Deming's 14 Points (cont.)

- 11. Remove numerical quotas***
- 12. Enhance worker pride***
- 13. Institute vigorous training and education programs***
- 14. Develop a commitment from top management to implement above 13 points***

Deming Wheel: PDCA Cycle



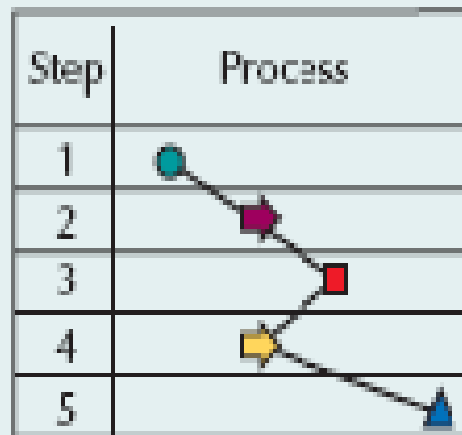


Quality Tools

- ◆ Process Flow Chart
- ◆ Cause-and-Effect Diagram
- ◆ Check Sheet
- ◆ Pareto Analysis
- ◆ Histogram
- ◆ Scatter Diagram
- ◆ Statistical Process Control Chart

Flow Chart

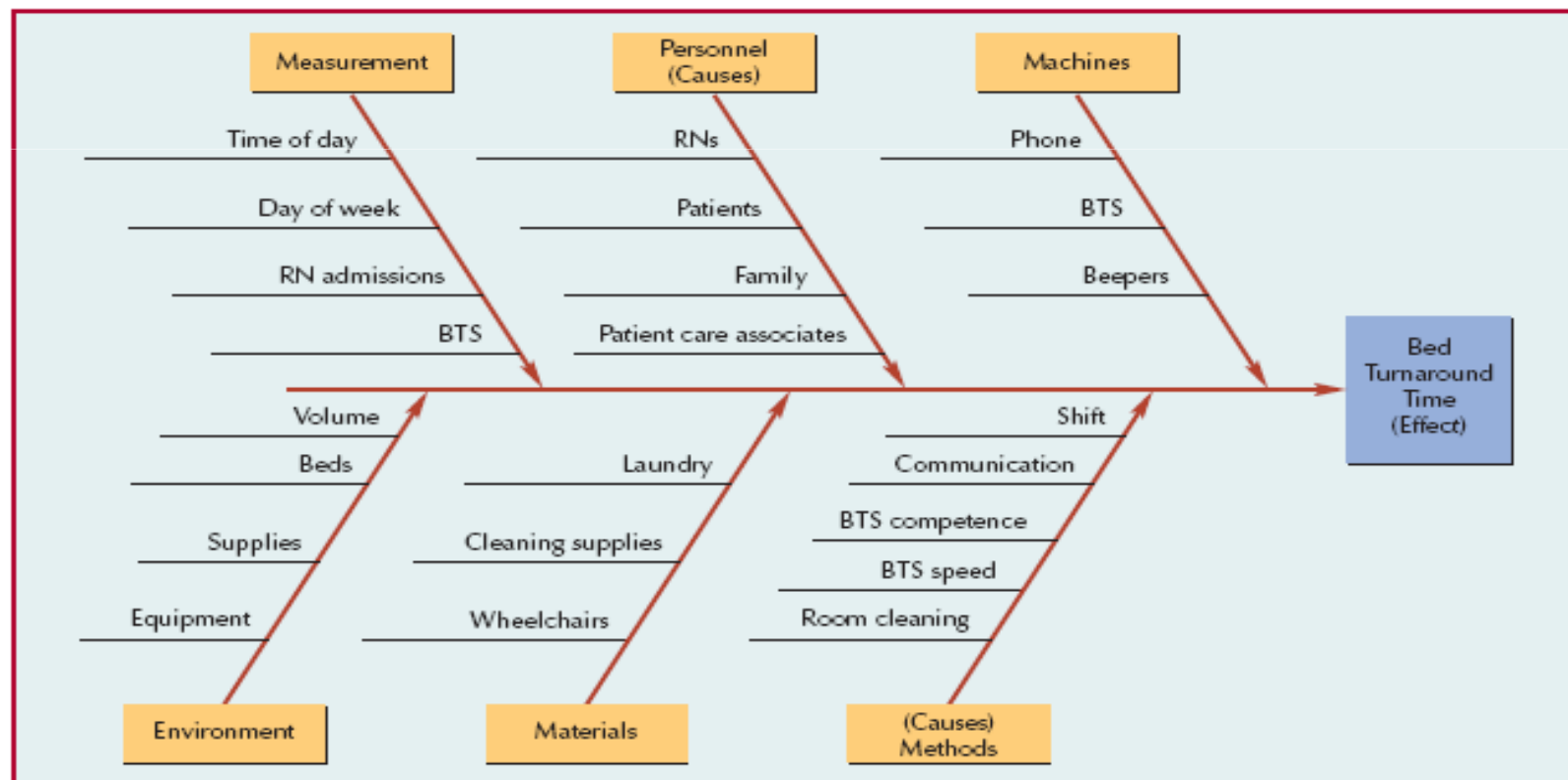
Process Flowchart



A diagram of the steps in a process; helps focus on where in a process a quality problem might exist.

Cause-and-Effect Diagram

- ◆ Cause-and-effect diagram (“fishbone” diagram)
 - chart showing different categories of problem causes



Cause-and-Effect Matrix

- ◆ Cause-and-effect matrix
 - grid used to prioritize causes of quality problems

	Key Input (X) Variables	Customer rank Weight	Key Output (Y) Variables (CTQC's)						Score	Rank of X Variables/ Importance to Customer
			1 Turnaround time	2 Patient flow	3 Physician time	4 Emergency dept.	5 Patient time	6 Operating room		
1	BTS	9	8	10	8		5	348	3	
2	Beepers	7	5	8		5		222	7	
3	Volume	7	10	8	7	5	5	338	4	
4	Beds	4		9				121	10	
5	Time of day	3	4	5	4	10		239	8	
6	Day of week	9	10	8			6	232	5	
7	Communication	9	8	10	8	7	9	429	1	
8	BTS competence	10	9	7		7	7	349	2	
9	Room cleaning	7	5	3		8	4	230	6	
10	Supplies	8	9					151	9	

$(8)(10) + (9)(9) = 161$

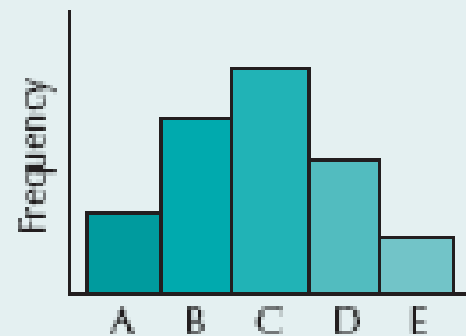
Check Sheets and Histograms

Check Sheet

Items	1	2	3	4
Dirt	✓✓			✓✓
Old		✓		✓
Temp.	✓	✓✓	✓✓	
Fault	✓✓✓		✓✓	

A fact-finding tool for tallying the number of defects for a list of previously identified problem causes.

Histogram



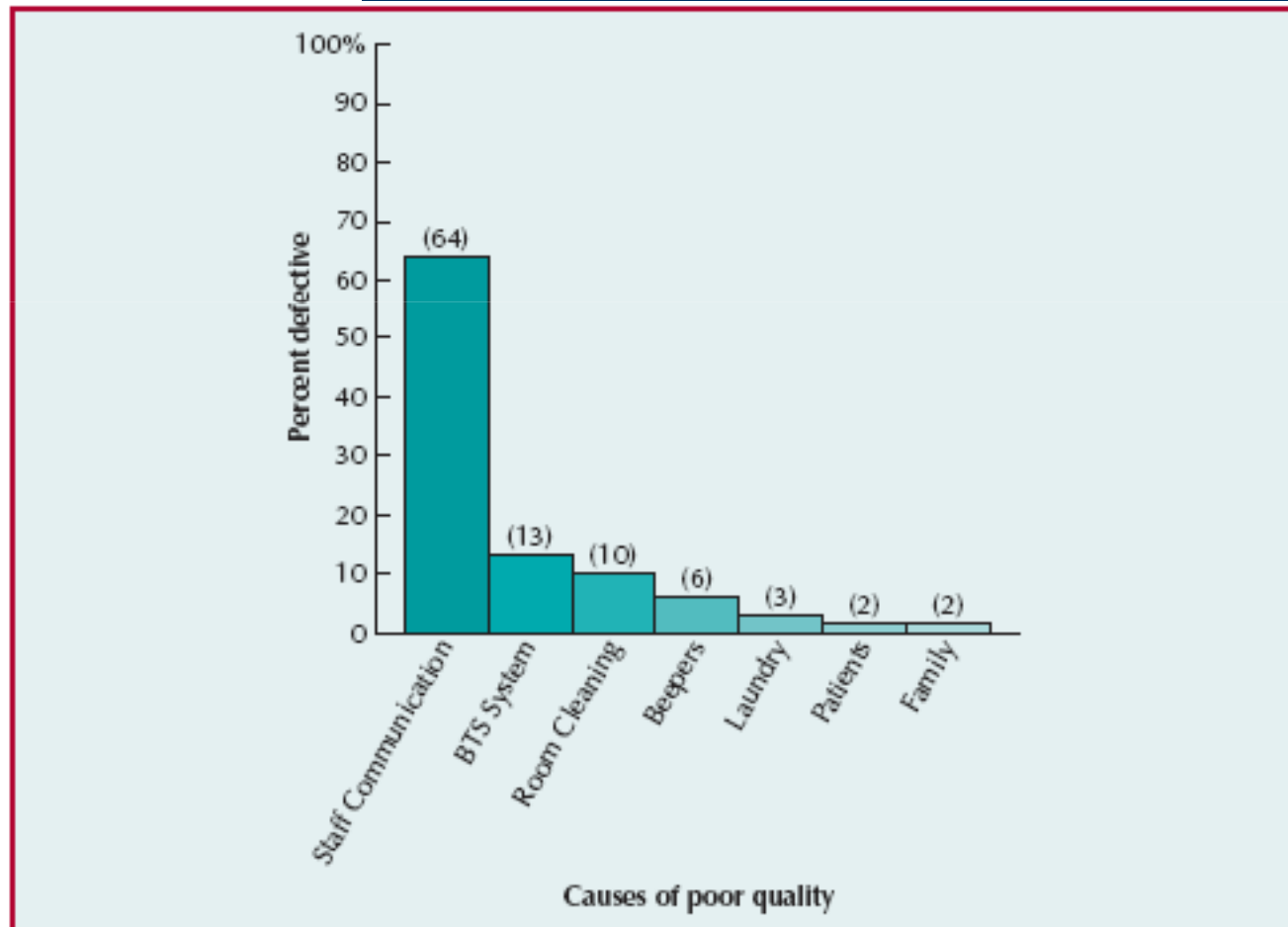
A diagram showing the frequency of data related to a quality problem.

Pareto Analysis

- ◆ Pareto analysis
 - most quality problems result from a few causes

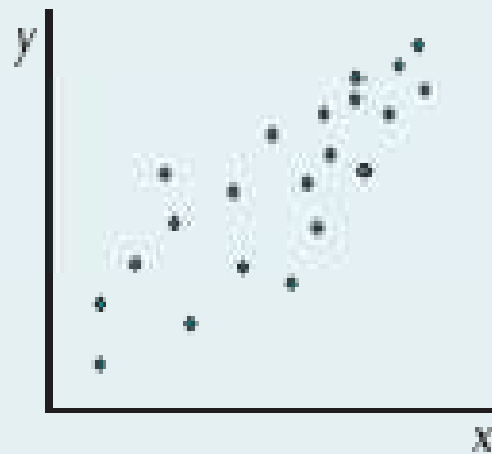
<i>Cause</i>	<i>Number of Defects</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Staff communication	83	64%
BTS system	17	13
Room cleaning	13	10
Beepers	7	6
Laundry	4	3
Patients	3	2
Family	3	2
	<u>130</u>	<u>100%</u>

Pareto Chart



Scatter Diagram

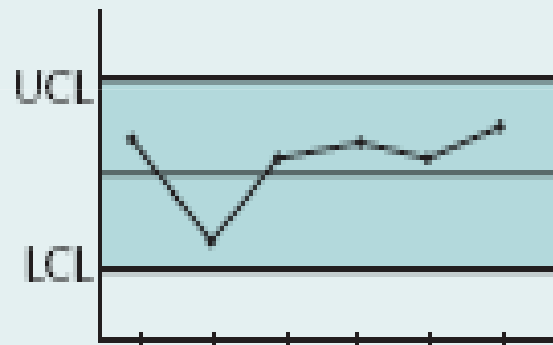
Scatter Diagram



A graph showing the relationship between two variables in a process; identifies a pattern that may cause a quality problem.

Control Chart

Statistical Process Control Chart



A chart with statistical upper and lower limits; if the process stays between these limits over time, it is in control and a problem does not exist.

TQM and QMS

- ◆ **Total Quality Management (TQM)**
 - **customer-oriented, leadership, strategic planning, employee responsibility, continuous improvement, cooperation, statistical methods, and training and education**
- ◆ **Quality Management System (QMS)**
 - **system to achieve customer satisfaction that complements other company systems**

Focus of Quality Management— Customers

- ◆ **TQM and QMSs**
 - serve to achieve customer satisfaction
- ◆ **Partnering**
 - a relationship between a company and its supplier based on mutual quality standards
- ◆ **Measuring customer satisfaction**
 - important component of any QMS
 - customer surveys, telephone interviews

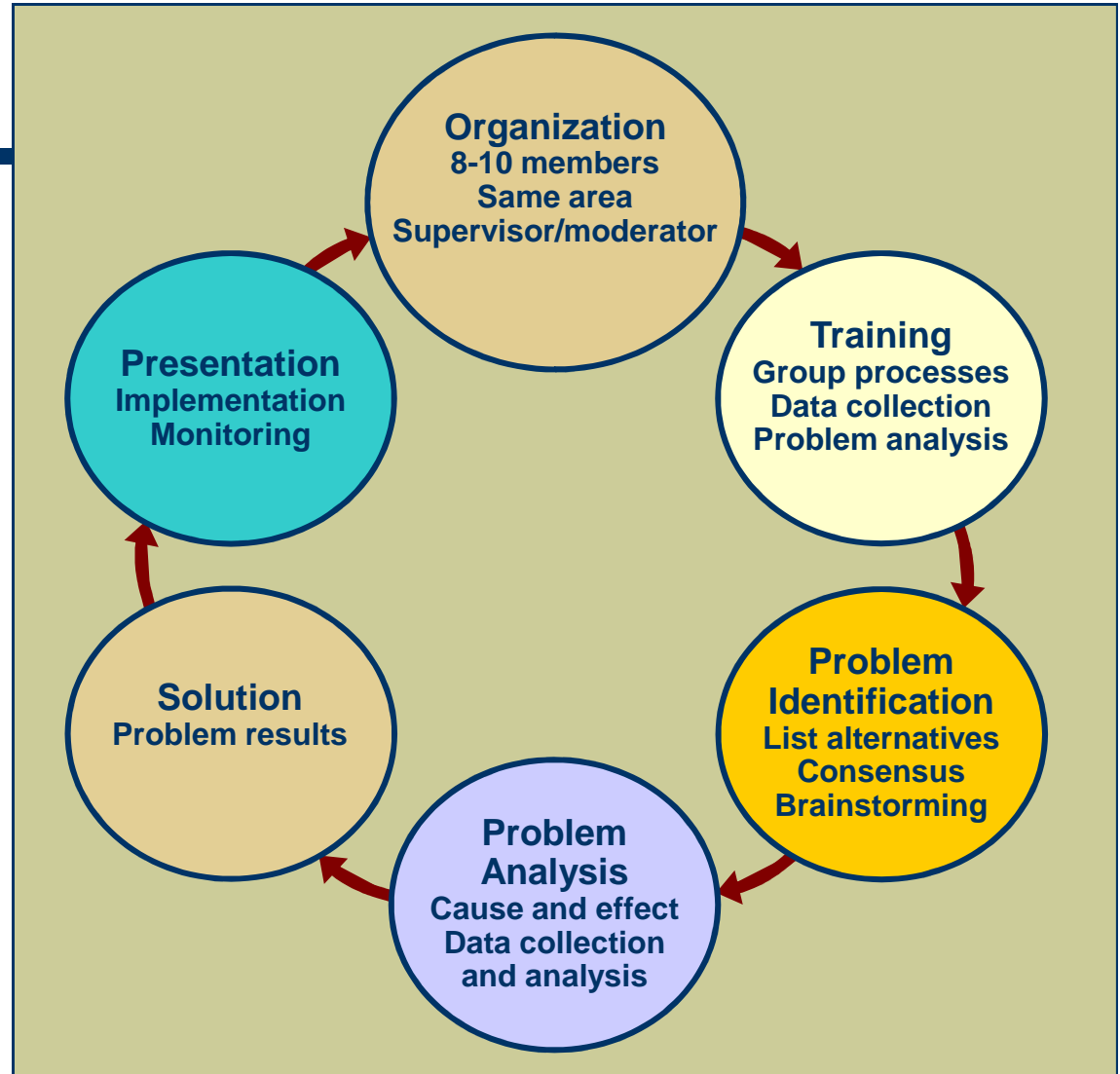
Role of Employees in Quality Improvement

- ◆ **Participative problem solving**
 - employees involved in quality-management
 - every employee has undergone extensive training to provide quality service to Disney's guests
- ◆ **Kaizen**
 - involves everyone in process of continuous improvement



Quality Circles and QITs

- ◆ Quality circle
 - group of workers and supervisors from same area who address quality problems
- ◆ Process/Quality improvement teams (QITs)
 - focus attention on business processes rather than separate company functions





Quality in Services

- ◆ Service defects are not always easy to measure because service output is not usually a tangible item
- ◆ Services tend to be labor intensive
- ◆ Services and manufacturing companies have similar inputs but different processes and outputs

Quality Attributes in Services

- ◆ Principles of TQM apply equally well to services and manufacturing
- ◆ Timeliness
 - how quickly a service is provided?
- ◆ Benchmark
 - “best” level of quality achievement in one company that other companies seek to achieve

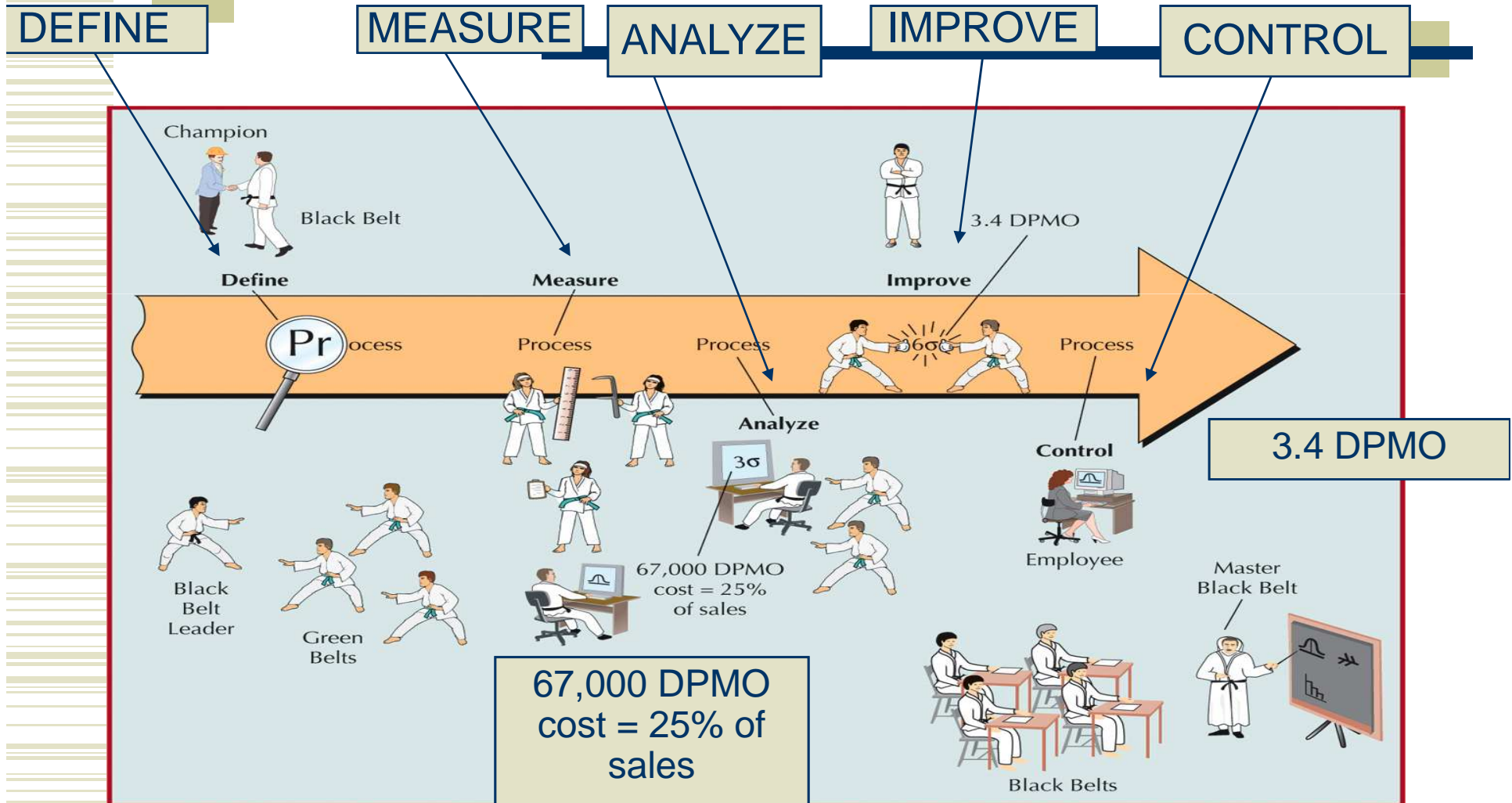


“quickest, friendliest, most accurate service available.”

Six Sigma

- ◆ A process for developing and delivering virtually perfect products and services
- ◆ Measure of how much a process deviates from perfection
- ◆ 3.4 defects per million opportunities
- ◆ Six Sigma Process
 - four basic steps of Six Sigma—align, mobilize, accelerate, and govern
- ◆ Champion
 - an executive responsible for project success

Six Sigma: Breakthrough Strategy—DMAIC

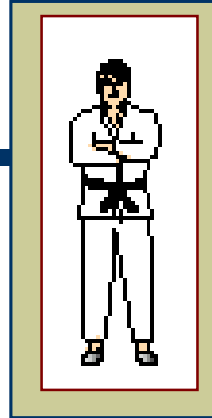


Six Sigma:

Black Belts and Green Belts

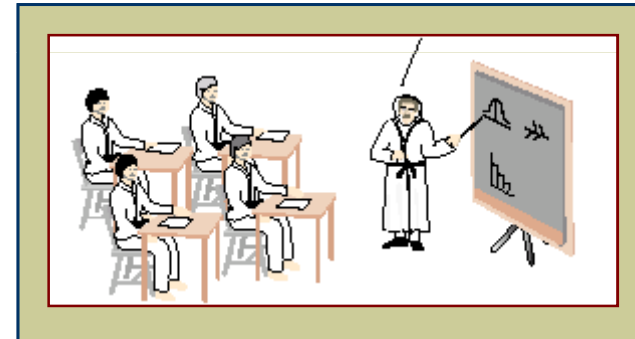
- ◆ **Black Belt**

- project leader



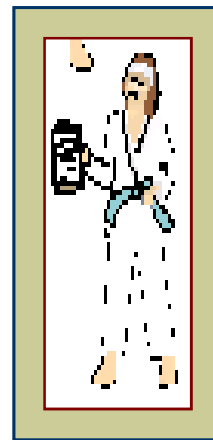
- ◆ **Master Black Belt**

- a teacher and mentor for Black Belts



- ◆ **Green Belts**

- project team members



Six Sigma

- ◆ Design for Six Sigma (DFSS)
 - a systematic approach to designing products and processes that will achieve Six Sigma
- ◆ Profitability
 - typical criterion for selection Six Sigma project
 - one of the factors distinguishing Six Sigma from TQM
 - “Quality is not only free, it is an honest-to-everything profit maker.”



Cost of Quality

- ◆ **Cost of Achieving Good Quality**
 - **Prevention costs**
 - costs incurred during product design
 - **Appraisal costs**
 - costs of measuring, testing, and analyzing
- ◆ **Cost of Poor Quality**
 - **Internal failure costs**
 - include scrap, rework, process failure, downtime, and price reductions
 - **External failure costs**
 - include complaints, returns, warranty claims, liability, and lost sales

Prevention Costs

- ◆ Quality planning costs
 - costs of developing and implementing quality management program
- ◆ Product-design costs
 - costs of designing products with quality characteristics
- ◆ Process costs
 - costs expended to make sure productive process conforms to quality specifications
- ◆ Training costs
 - costs of developing and putting on quality training programs for employees and management
- ◆ Information costs
 - costs of acquiring and maintaining data related to quality, and development and analysis of reports on quality performance

Appraisal Costs

- ◆ Inspection and testing
 - costs of testing and inspecting materials, parts, and product at various stages and at end of process
- ◆ Test equipment costs
 - costs of maintaining equipment used in testing quality characteristics of products
- ◆ Operator costs
 - costs of time spent by operators to gather data for testing product quality, to make equipment adjustments to maintain quality, and to stop work to assess quality

Internal Failure Costs

- ◆ Scrap costs
 - costs of poor-quality products that must be discarded, including labor, material, and indirect costs
- ◆ Rework costs
 - costs of fixing defective products to conform to quality specifications
- ◆ Process failure costs
 - costs of determining why production process is producing poor-quality products
- ◆ Process downtime costs
 - costs of shutting down productive process to fix problem
- ◆ Price-downgrading costs
 - costs of discounting poor-quality products—that is, selling products as “seconds”

External Failure Costs

- ◆ Customer complaint costs
 - costs of investigating and satisfactorily responding to a customer complaint resulting from a poor-quality product
- ◆ Product return costs
 - costs of handling and replacing poor-quality products returned by customer
- ◆ Warranty claims costs
 - costs of complying with product warranties
- ◆ Product liability costs
 - litigation costs resulting from product liability and customer injury
- ◆ Lost sales costs
 - costs incurred because customers are dissatisfied with poor-quality products and do not make additional purchases

Measuring and Reporting Quality Costs

◆ Index numbers

- ratios that measure quality costs against a base value
- **labor index**
 - ratio of quality cost to labor hours
- **cost index**
 - ratio of quality cost to manufacturing cost
- **sales index**
 - ratio of quality cost to sales
- **production index**
 - ratio of quality cost to units of final product

Quality–Cost Relationship

◆ **Cost of quality**

- difference between price of nonconformance and conformance
- cost of doing things wrong
 - 20 to 35% of revenues
- cost of doing things right
 - 3 to 4% of revenues

Effect of Quality Management on Productivity

- ◆ **Productivity**
 - ratio of output to input
- ◆ **Quality impact on productivity**
 - fewer defects increase output, and quality improvement reduces inputs
- ◆ **Yield**
 - a measure of productivity

$$\text{Yield} = (\text{total input})(\% \text{ good units}) + (\text{total input})(1 - \% \text{ good units})(\% \text{ reworked})$$

or

$$Y = (I)(\%G) + (I)(1 - \%G)(\%R)$$

Computing Product Cost per Unit

$$\text{Product Cost} = \frac{(K_d)(I) + (K_r)(R)}{Y}$$

where:

K_d = direct manufacturing cost per unit

I = input

K_r = rework cost per unit

R = reworked units

Y = yield

Computing Product Yield for Multistage Processes

$$Y = (I)(\%g_1)(\%g_2) \dots (\%g_n)$$

where:

I = input of items to the production process that will
result in finished products

g_i = good-quality, work-in-process products at stage i

Quality–Productivity Ratio

QPR

- productivity index that includes productivity and quality costs

$$\text{QPR} = \frac{\text{(good-quality units)}}{\text{(input) (processing cost) + (reworked units) (rework cost)}} (100)$$



Malcolm Baldrige Award



- ◆ Created in 1987 to stimulate growth of quality management in United States
- ◆ Categories
 - Leadership
 - Information and analysis
 - Strategic planning
 - Human resource focus
 - Process management
 - Business results
 - Customer and market focus

Other Awards for Quality

- ◆ National individual awards
 - Armand V. Feigenbaum Medal
 - Deming Medal
 - E. Jack Lancaster Medal
 - Edwards Medal
 - Shewart Medal
 - Ishikawa Medal
- ◆ International awards
 - European Quality Award
 - Canadian Quality Award
 - Australian Business Excellence Award
 - Deming Prize from Japan

ISO 9000

- ◆ A set of procedures and policies for international quality certification of suppliers
- ◆ Standards
 - ISO 9000:2000
 - *Quality Management Systems—Fundamentals and Vocabulary*
 - defines fundamental terms and definitions used in ISO 9000 family
- ◆ ISO 9001:2000
 - *Quality Management Systems—Requirements*
 - standard to assess ability to achieve customer satisfaction
- ◆ ISO 9004:2000
 - *Quality Management Systems—Guidelines for Performance Improvements*
 - guidance to a company for continual improvement of its quality-management system

ISO 9000 Certification, Implications, and Registrars

- ◆ ISO 9001:2000—only standard that carries third-party *certification*
- ◆ Many overseas companies will not do business with a supplier unless it has ISO 9000 certification
- ◆ ISO 9000 accreditation
- ◆ ISO registrars





Chapter 3

Statistical Process Control

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



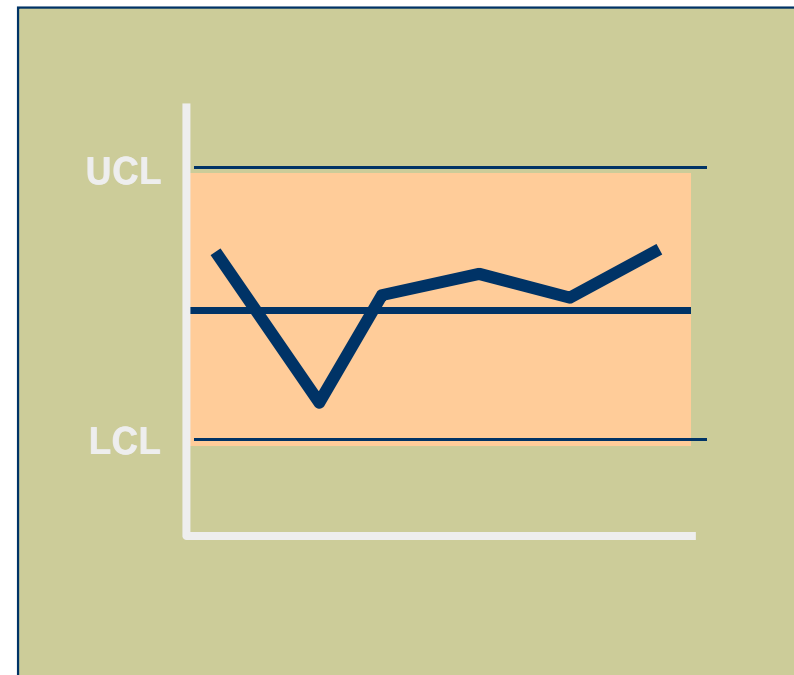


Lecture Outline

- ◆ Basics of Statistical Process Control
- ◆ Control Charts
- ◆ Control Charts for Attributes
- ◆ Control Charts for Variables
- ◆ Control Chart Patterns
- ◆ SPC with Excel and OM Tools
- ◆ Process Capability

Basics of Statistical Process Control

- ◆ Statistical Process Control (SPC)
 - monitoring production process to detect and prevent poor quality
- ◆ Sample
 - subset of items produced to use for inspection
- ◆ Control Charts
 - process is within statistical control limits



Basics of Statistical Process Control (cont.)

◆ Random

- inherent in a process
- depends on equipment and machinery, engineering, operator, and system of measurement
- natural occurrences

◆ Non-Random

- special causes
- identifiable and correctable
- include equipment out of adjustment, defective materials, changes in parts or materials, broken machinery or equipment, operator fatigue or poor work methods, or errors due to lack of training



SPC in Quality Management

◆ SPC

- tool for identifying problems in order to make improvements
- contributes to the TQM goal of continuous improvements

Quality Measures: Attributes and Variables

◆ **Attribute**

- a product characteristic that can be evaluated with a discrete response
- good – bad; yes - no

◆ **Variable measure**

- a product characteristic that is continuous and can be measured
- weight - length



SPC Applied to Services

- ◆ Nature of defect is different in services
- ◆ Service defect is a failure to meet customer requirements
- ◆ Monitor time and customer satisfaction

SPC Applied to Services (cont.)

- ◆ Hospitals
 - timeliness and quickness of care, staff responses to requests, accuracy of lab tests, cleanliness, courtesy, accuracy of paperwork, speed of admittance and checkouts
- ◆ Grocery stores
 - waiting time to check out, frequency of out-of-stock items, quality of food items, cleanliness, customer complaints, checkout register errors
- ◆ Airlines
 - flight delays, lost luggage and luggage handling, waiting time at ticket counters and check-in, agent and flight attendant courtesy, accurate flight information, passenger cabin cleanliness and maintenance



SPC Applied to Services (cont.)

- ◆ Fast-food restaurants
 - waiting time for service, customer complaints, cleanliness, food quality, order accuracy, employee courtesy
- ◆ Catalogue-order companies
 - order accuracy, operator knowledge and courtesy, packaging, delivery time, phone order waiting time
- ◆ Insurance companies
 - billing accuracy, timeliness of claims processing, agent availability and response time

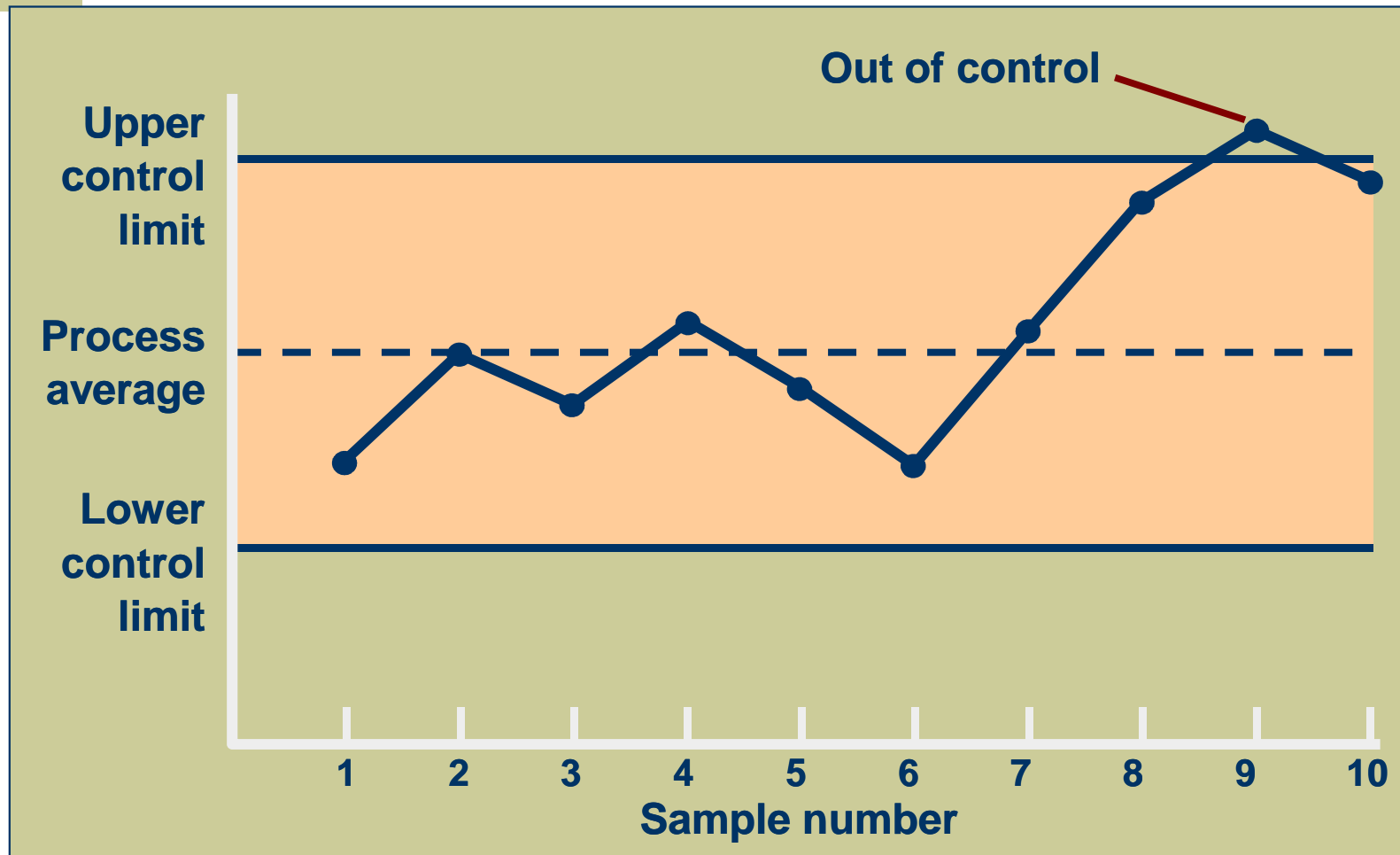
Where to Use Control Charts

- ◆ Process has a tendency to go out of control
- ◆ Process is particularly harmful and costly if it goes out of control
- ◆ Examples
 - at the beginning of a process because it is a waste of time and money to begin production process with bad supplies
 - before a costly or irreversible point, after which product is difficult to rework or correct
 - before and after assembly or painting operations that might cover defects
 - before the outgoing final product or service is delivered

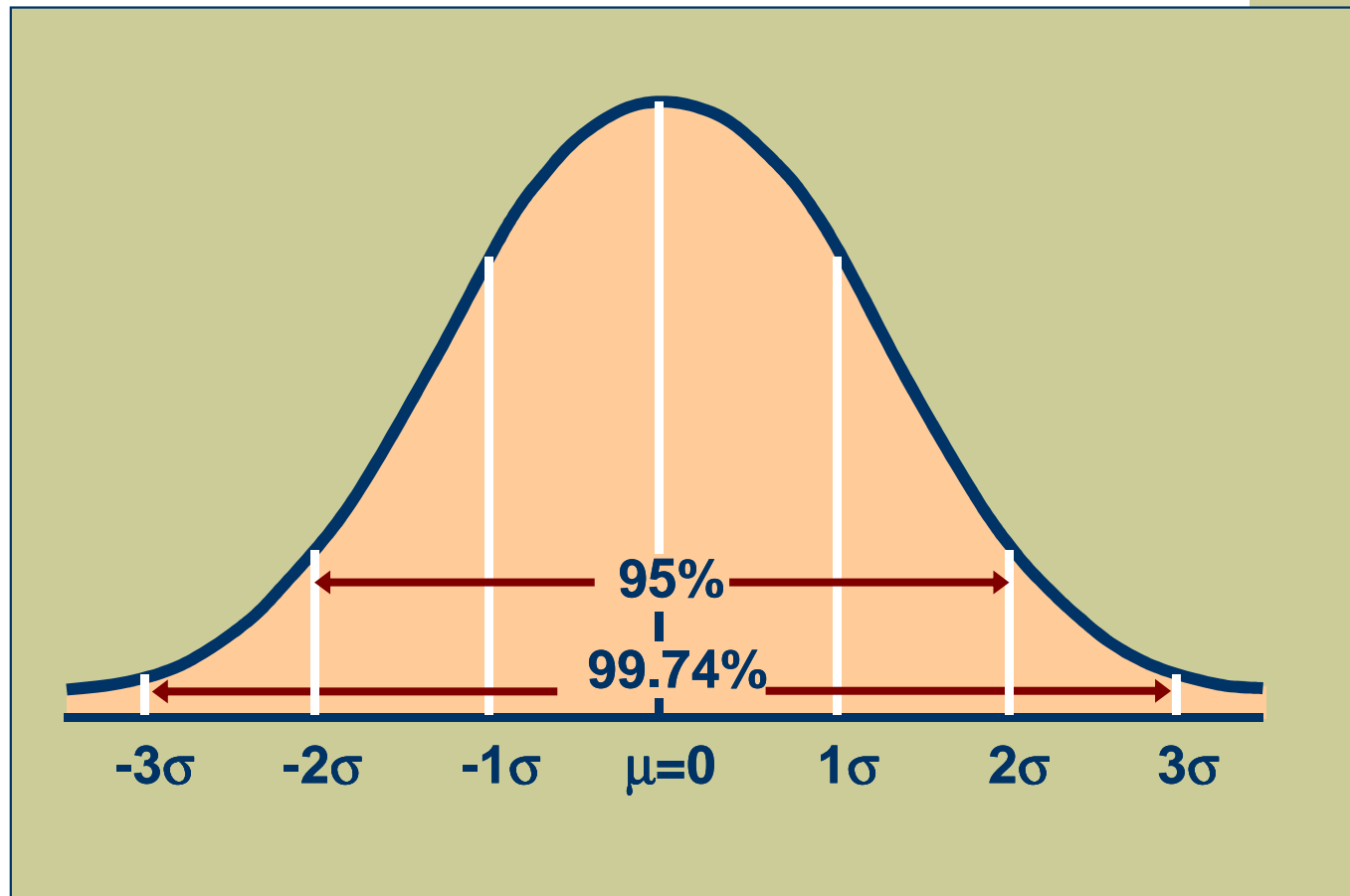
Control Charts

- ◆ A graph that establishes control limits of a process
- ◆ Control limits
 - upper and lower bands of a control chart
- ◆ Types of charts
 - Attributes
 - p-chart
 - c-chart
 - Variables
 - mean (\bar{x} – chart)
 - range (R-chart)

Process Control Chart



Normal Distribution





A Process Is in Control If ...

1. ... no sample points outside limits
2. ... most points near process average
3. ... about equal number of points above and below centerline
4. ... points appear randomly distributed



Control Charts for Attributes

- p-chart
 - uses portion defective in a sample
- c-chart
 - uses number of defective items in a sample

p-Chart

$$UCL = \bar{p} + z\sigma_p$$

$$LCL = \bar{p} - z\sigma_p$$

z = number of standard deviations from process average

\bar{p} = sample proportion defective; an estimate of process average

σ_p = standard deviation of sample proportion

$$\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{\bar{p}(1 - \bar{p})}{n}}$$

Construction of p-Chart

SAMPLE	NUMBER OF DEFECTIVES	PROPORTION DEFECTIVE
1	6	.06
2	0	.00
3	4	.04
:	:	:
:	:	:
20	18	.18
	200	

20 samples of 100 pairs of jeans

Construction of p-Chart (cont.)

$$\bar{p} = \frac{\text{total defectives}}{\text{total sample observations}} = 200 / 20(100) = 0.10$$

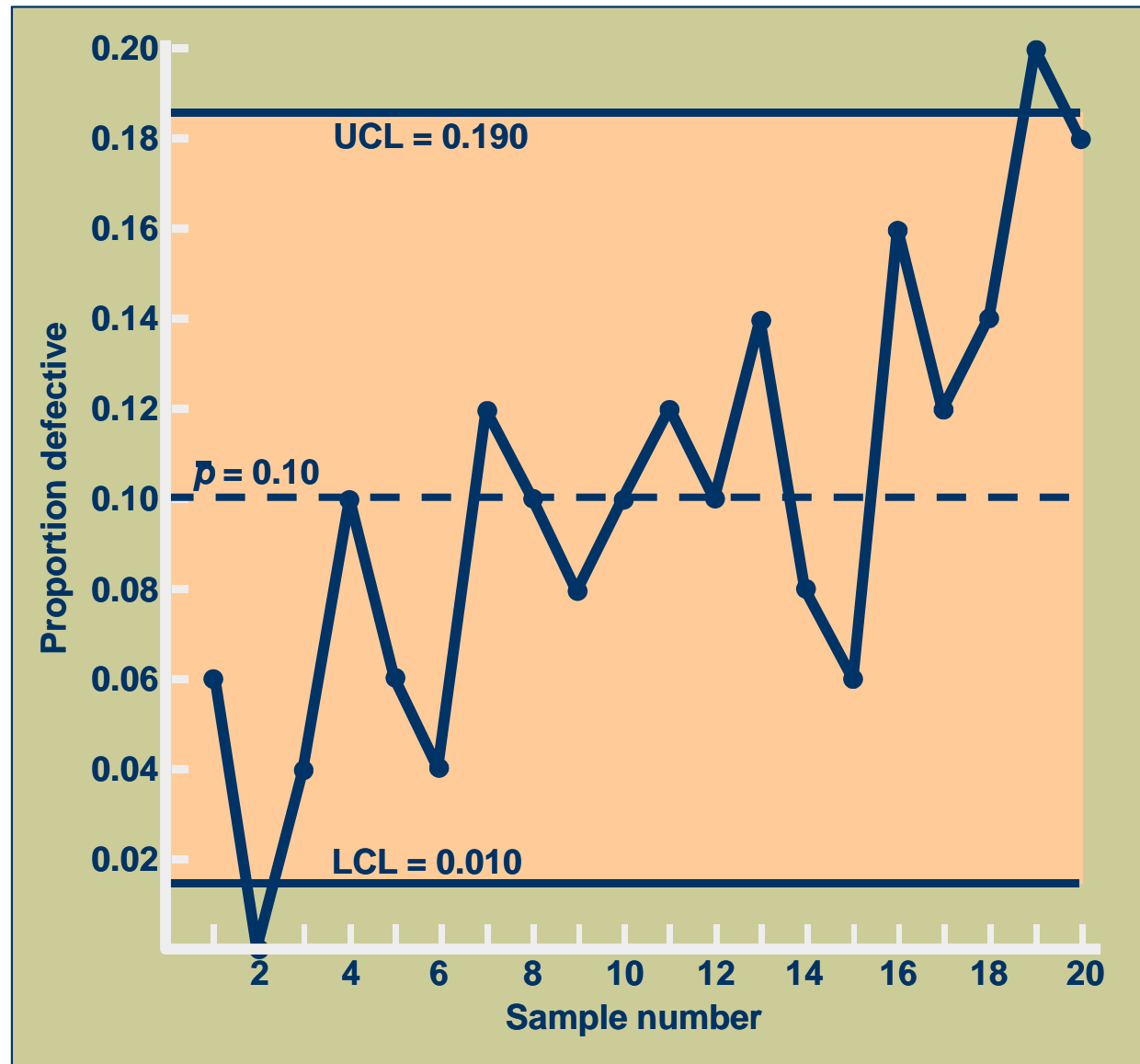
$$\text{UCL} = \bar{p} + z \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} = 0.10 + 3 \sqrt{\frac{0.10(1-0.10)}{100}}$$

$$\text{UCL} = 0.190$$

$$\text{LCL} = \bar{p} - z \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} = 0.10 - 3 \sqrt{\frac{0.10(1-0.10)}{100}}$$

$$\text{LCL} = 0.010$$

Construction of p-Chart (cont.)



c-Chart

$$UCL = \bar{c} + z\sigma_c$$

$$LCL = \bar{c} - z\sigma_c$$

$$\sigma_c = \sqrt{\bar{c}}$$

where

c = number of defects per sample

c-Chart (cont.)

Number of defects in 15 sample rooms

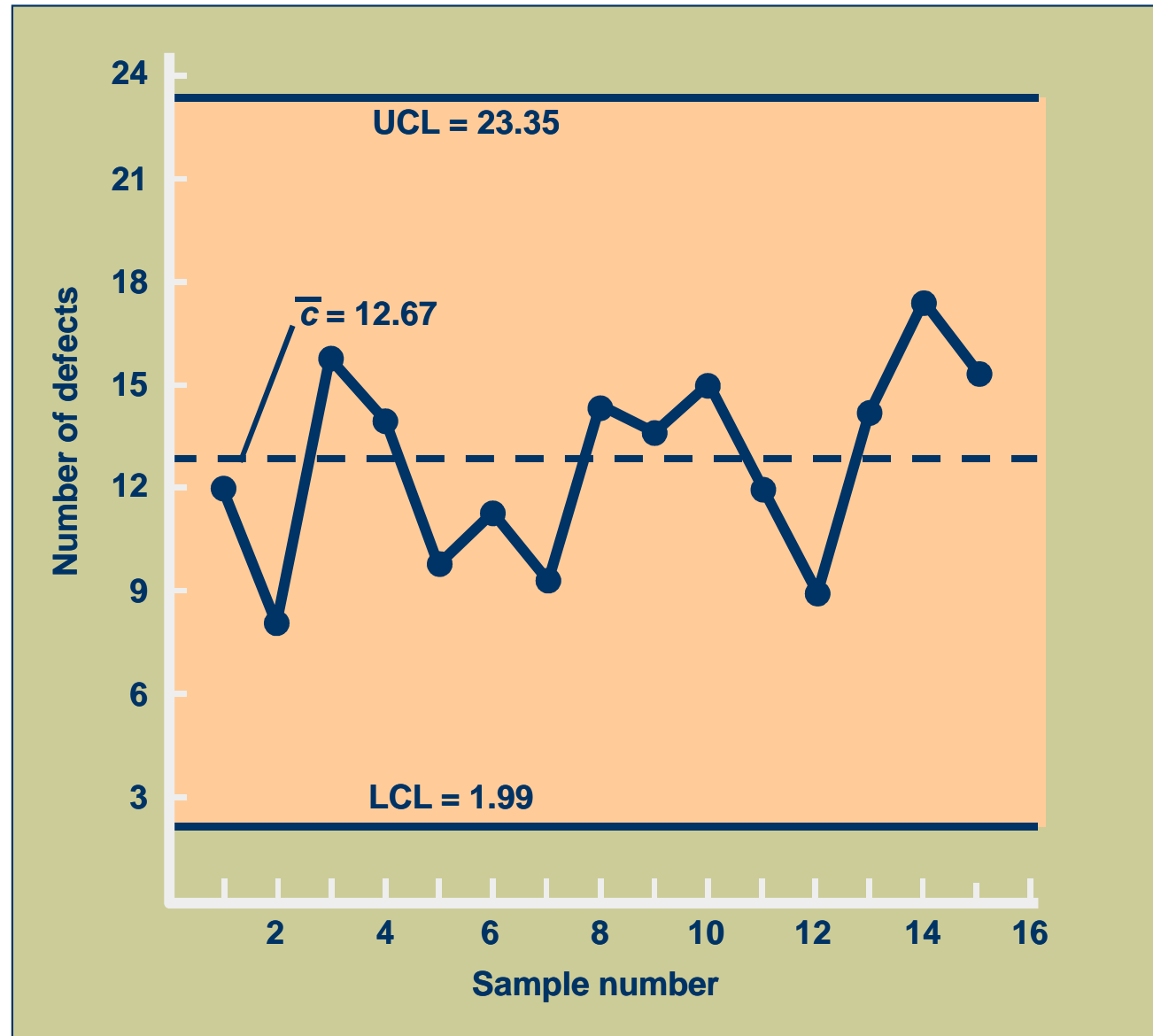
SAMPLE	NUMBER OF DEFECTS
1	12
2	8
3	16
:	:
:	:
15	15
	<u>190</u>

$$\bar{c} = \frac{190}{15} = 12.67$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{UCL} &= \bar{c} + z\sigma_c \\ &= 12.67 + 3 \sqrt{12.67} \\ &= 23.35 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LCL} &= \bar{c} - z\sigma_c \\ &= 12.67 - 3 \sqrt{12.67} \\ &= 1.99 \end{aligned}$$

c-Chart (cont.)





Control Charts for Variables

- Range chart (\bar{R} -Chart)
 - uses amount of dispersion in a sample
- Mean chart (\bar{x} -Chart)
 - uses process average of a sample

x-bar Chart: Standard Deviation Known

$$UCL = \bar{\bar{X}} + z\sigma_x \quad LCL = \bar{\bar{X}} - z\sigma_x$$

$$\bar{\bar{X}} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

where

$\bar{\bar{X}}$ = average of sample means

x-bar Chart Example: Standard Deviation Known (cont.)

Sample k	Observations (Slip-Ring Diameter, cm)					\bar{x}
	1	2	3	4	5	
1	5.02	5.01	4.94	4.99	4.96	4.98
2	5.01	5.03	5.07	4.95	4.96	5.00
3	4.99	5.00	4.93	4.92	4.99	4.97
4	5.03	4.91	5.01	4.98	4.89	4.96
5	4.95	4.92	5.03	5.05	5.01	4.99
6	4.97	5.06	5.06	4.96	5.03	5.01
7	5.05	5.01	5.10	4.96	4.99	5.02
8	5.09	5.10	5.00	4.99	5.08	5.05
9	5.14	5.10	4.99	5.08	5.09	5.08
10	5.01	4.98	5.08	5.07	4.99	5.03
						<u>50.09</u>

x-bar Chart Example: Standard Deviation Known (cont.)

$$\bar{\bar{x}} = \frac{50.09}{10} = 5.01$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{UCL} &= \bar{\bar{x}} + z\sigma_{\bar{x}} \\ &= 5.01 + 3(.08/\sqrt{10}) \\ &= 5.09 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LCL} &= \bar{\bar{x}} - z\sigma_{\bar{x}} \\ &= 5.01 - 3(.08/\sqrt{10}) \\ &= 4.93 \end{aligned}$$

x-bar Chart Example: Standard Deviation Unknown

$$UCL = \bar{\bar{x}} + A_2 \bar{R}$$

$$LCL = \bar{\bar{x}} - A_2 \bar{R}$$

where

\bar{x} = average of sample means

Control Limits

Sample Size n	Factor for \bar{x} -Chart A_2	Factors for R-Chart	
		D_3	D_4
2	1.88	0	3.27
3	1.02	0	2.57
4	0.73	0	2.28
5	0.58	0	2.11
6	0.48	0	2.00
7	0.42	0.08	1.92
8	0.37	0.14	1.86
9	0.34	0.18	1.82
10	0.31	0.22	1.78
11	0.29	0.26	1.74
12	0.27	0.28	1.72
13	0.25	0.31	1.69
14	0.24	0.33	1.67
15	0.22	0.35	1.65
16	0.21	0.36	1.64
17	0.20	0.38	1.62
18	0.19	0.39	1.61
19	0.19	0.40	1.60
20	0.18	0.41	1.59
21	0.17	0.43	1.58
22	0.17	0.43	1.57
23	0.16	0.44	1.56
24	0.16	0.45	1.55
25	0.15	0.46	1.54

x-bar Chart Example: Standard Deviation Unknown

SAMPLE k	OBSERVATIONS (SLIP- RING DIAMETER, CM)					\bar{x}	R
	1	2	3	4	5		
1	5.02	5.01	4.94	4.99	4.96	4.98	0.08
2	5.01	5.03	5.07	4.95	4.96	5.00	0.12
3	4.99	5.00	4.93	4.92	4.99	4.97	0.08
4	5.03	4.91	5.01	4.98	4.89	4.96	0.14
5	4.95	4.92	5.03	5.05	5.01	4.99	0.13
6	4.97	5.06	5.06	4.96	5.03	5.01	0.10
7	5.05	5.01	5.10	4.96	4.99	5.02	0.14
8	5.09	5.10	5.00	4.99	5.08	5.05	0.11
9	5.14	5.10	4.99	5.08	5.09	5.08	0.15
10	5.01	4.98	5.08	5.07	4.99	5.03	0.10
						50.09	1.15

Example 15.4

x-bar Chart Example: Standard Deviation Unknown (cont.)

$$\bar{R} = \frac{\sum R}{k} = \frac{1.15}{10} = 0.115$$

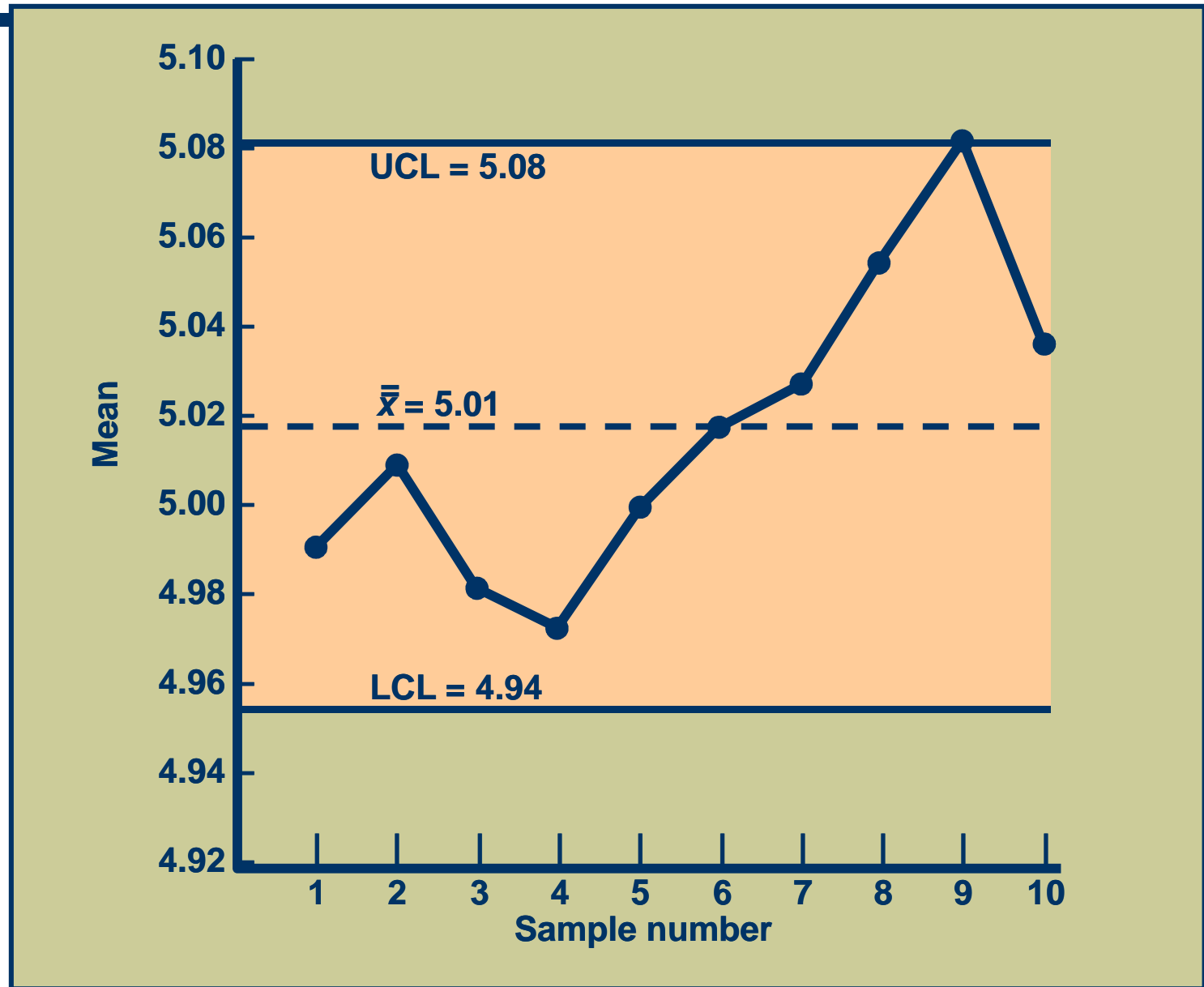
$$\bar{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sum \bar{x}}{k} = \frac{50.09}{10} = 5.01 \text{ cm}$$

$$UCL = \bar{\bar{x}} + A_2 \bar{R} = 5.01 + (0.58)(0.115) = 5.08$$

$$LCL = \bar{\bar{x}} - A_2 \bar{R} = 5.01 - (0.58)(0.115) = 4.94$$

Retrieve Factor Value A_2

x-bar
Chart
Example
(cont.)



R- Chart

$$UCL = D_4 \bar{R}$$

$$LCL = D_3 \bar{R}$$

$$\bar{R} = \frac{\sum R}{k}$$

where

R = range of each sample

k = number of samples

R-Chart Example

SAMPLE k	OBSERVATIONS (SLIP-RING DIAMETER, CM)					\bar{x}	R
	1	2	3	4	5		
1	5.02	5.01	4.94	4.99	4.96	4.98	0.08
2	5.01	5.03	5.07	4.95	4.96	5.00	0.12
3	4.99	5.00	4.93	4.92	4.99	4.97	0.08
4	5.03	4.91	5.01	4.98	4.89	4.96	0.14
5	4.95	4.92	5.03	5.05	5.01	4.99	0.13
6	4.97	5.06	5.06	4.96	5.03	5.01	0.10
7	5.05	5.01	5.10	4.96	4.99	5.02	0.14
8	5.09	5.10	5.00	4.99	5.08	5.05	0.11
9	5.14	5.10	4.99	5.08	5.09	5.08	0.15
10	5.01	4.98	5.08	5.07	4.99	5.03	0.10
						50.09	1.15

Example 15.3

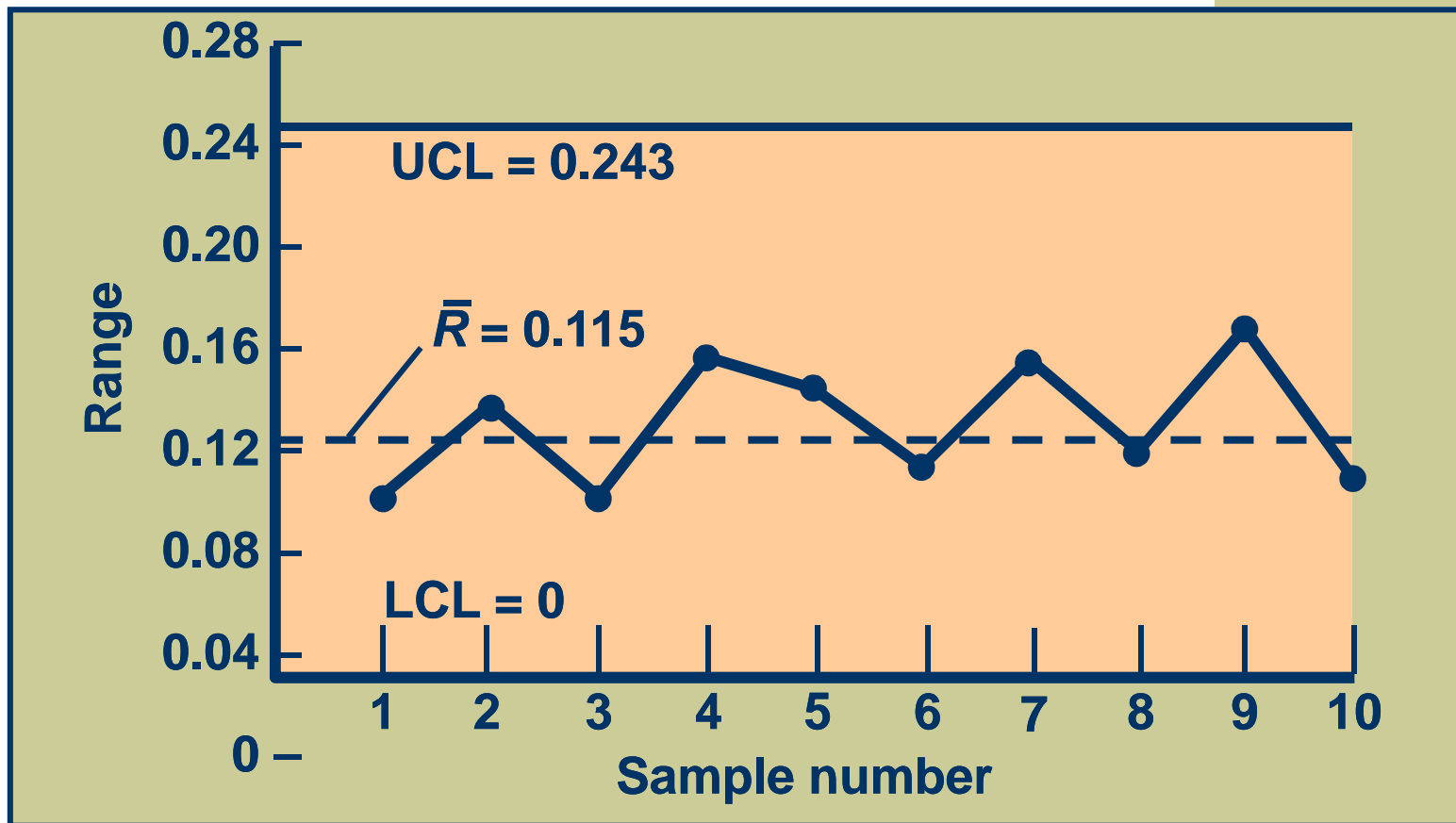
R-Chart Example (cont.)

$$UCL = D_4 \bar{R} = 2.11(0.115) = 0.243$$

$$LCL = D_3 \bar{R} = 0(0.115) = 0$$

Retrieve Factor Values D_3 and D_4

R-Chart Example (cont.)





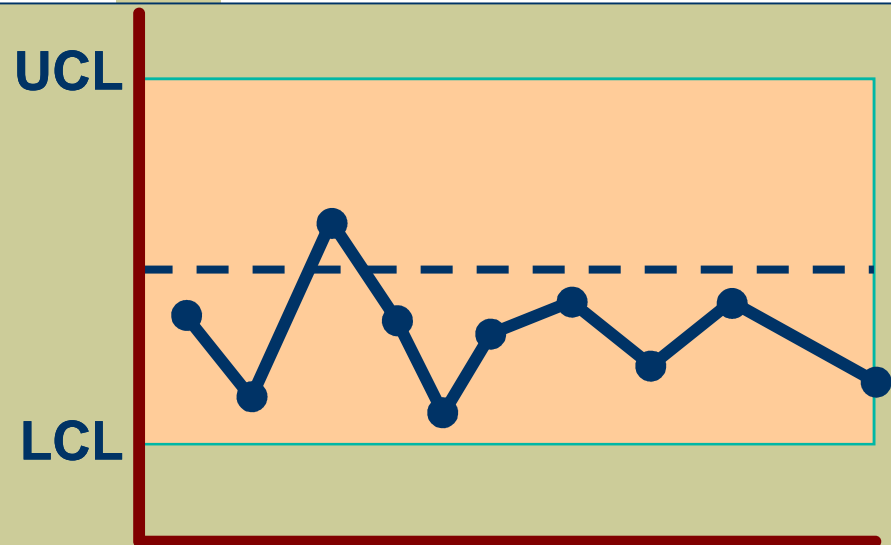
Using \bar{x} and R-Charts Together

- Process average and process variability must be in control
- It is possible for samples to have very narrow ranges, but their averages might be beyond control limits
- It is possible for sample averages to be in control, but ranges might be very large
- It is possible for an R-chart to exhibit a distinct downward trend, suggesting some nonrandom cause is reducing variation

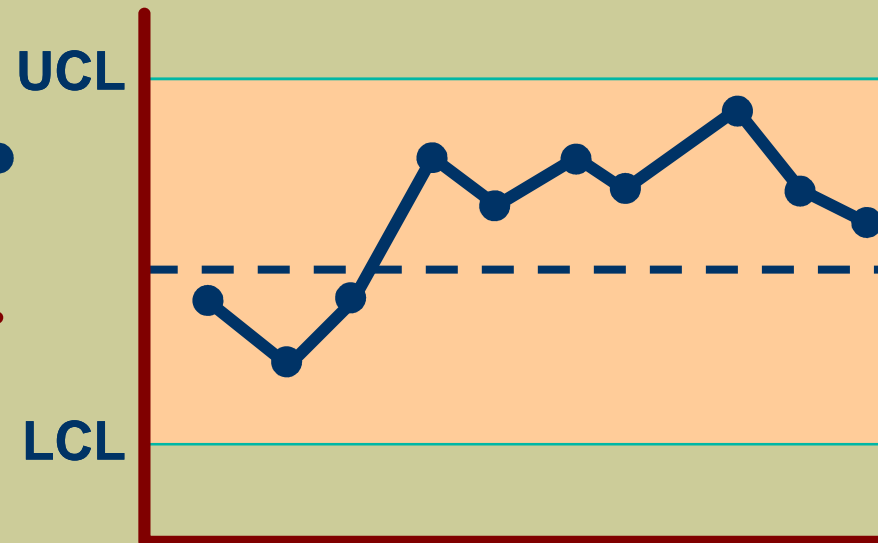
Control Chart Patterns

- Run
 - sequence of sample values that display same characteristic
- Pattern test
 - determines if observations within limits of a control chart display a nonrandom pattern
- To identify a pattern:
 - 8 consecutive points on one side of the center line
 - 8 consecutive points up or down
 - 14 points alternating up or down
 - 2 out of 3 consecutive points in zone A (on one side of center line)
 - 4 out of 5 consecutive points in zone A or B (on one side of center line)

Control Chart Patterns (cont.)

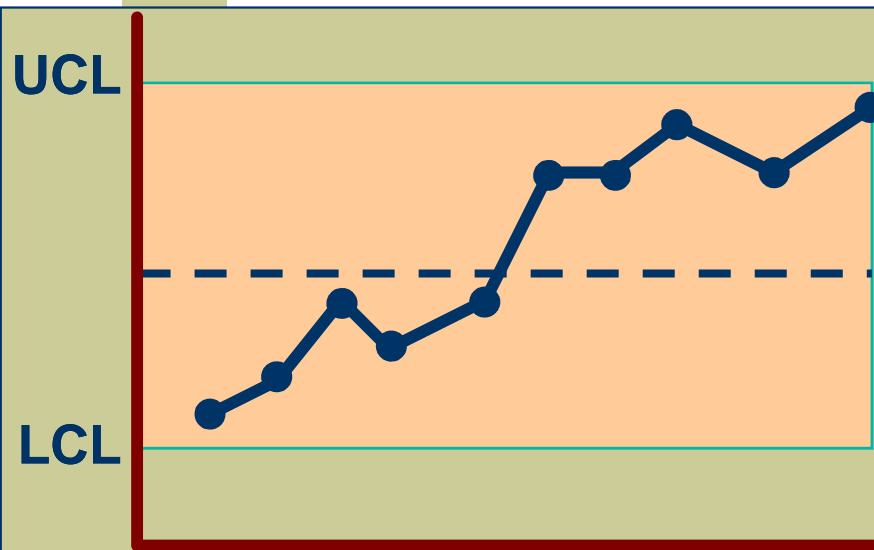


Sample observations consistently below the center line

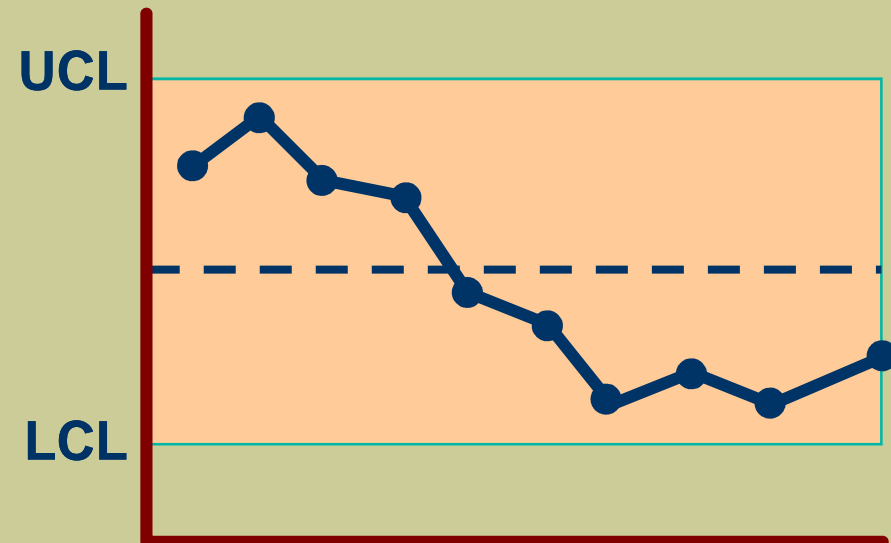


Sample observations consistently above the center line

Control Chart Patterns (cont.)

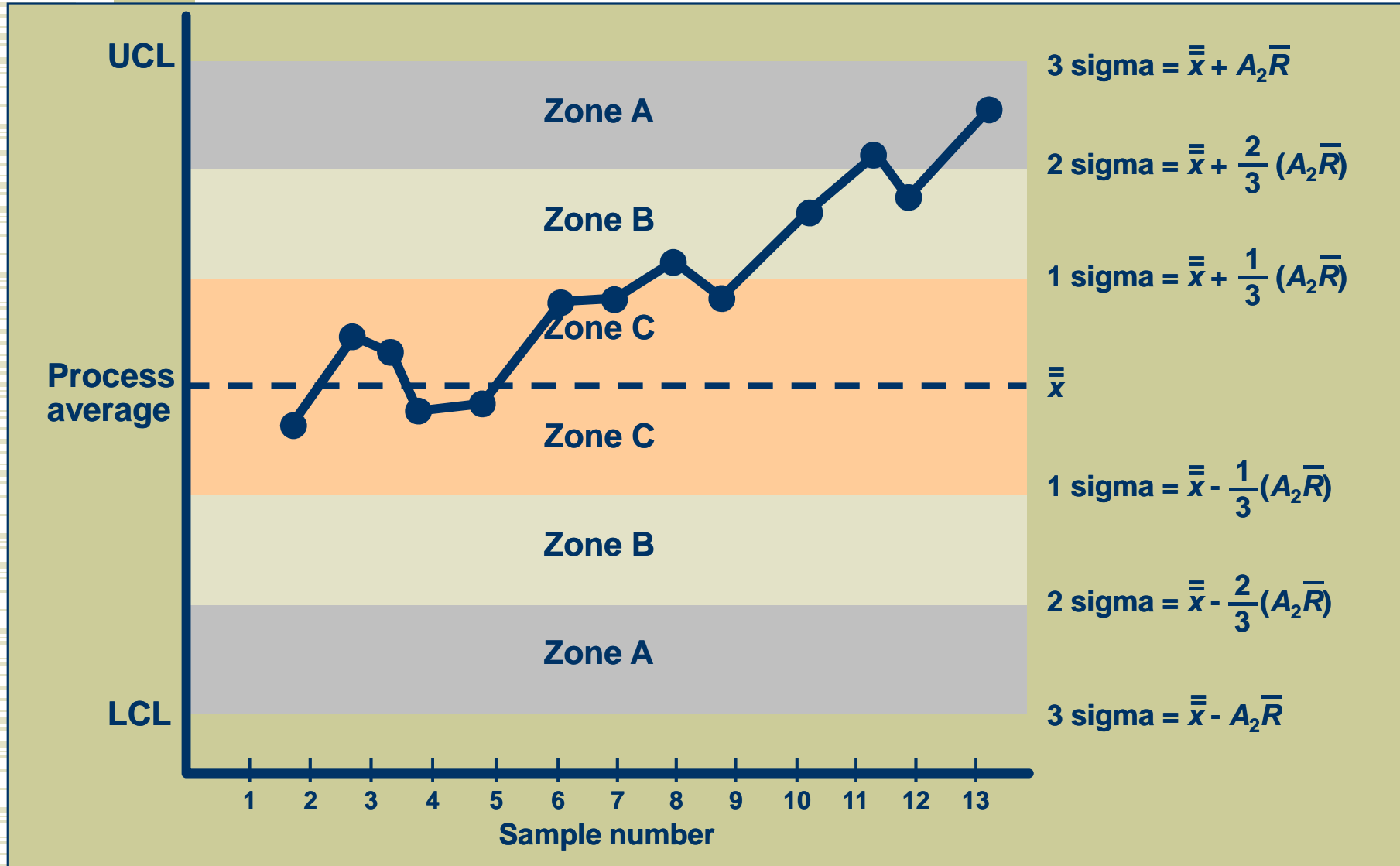


**Sample observations
consistently increasing**



**Sample observations
consistently decreasing**

Zones for Pattern Tests



Performing a Pattern Test

SAMPLE	\bar{x}	ABOVE/BELOW	UP/DOWN	ZONE
1	4.98	B	—	B
2	5.00	B	U	C
3	4.95	B	D	A
4	4.96	B	D	A
5	4.99	B	U	C
6	5.01	—	U	C
7	5.02	A	U	C
8	5.05	A	U	B
9	5.08	A	U	A
10	5.03	A	D	B



Sample Size Determination

- **Attribute charts require larger sample sizes**
 - **50 to 100 parts in a sample**
- **Variable charts require smaller samples**
 - **2 to 10 parts in a sample**

SPC with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit3.1.SPC.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

100% Arial 10

Click on "ChartWizard" to construct control chart

$$I4 + 3 * \text{SQRT}(I4 * (1 - I4) / 100)$$

$$= I4 - 3 * \text{SQRT}(I4 * (1 - I4) / 100)$$

Sample	Proportion Defective	\bar{p}	UCL	LCL	Number of Defectives
0		0.10	0.19	0.01	
1	0.06	0.10	0.19	0.01	6
2	0.00	0.10	0.19	0.01	0
3	0.04	0.10	0.19	0.01	4
4	0.10	0.10	0.19	0.01	10
5	0.06	0.10	0.19	0.01	6
6	0.04	0.10	0.19	0.01	4
7	0.12	0.10	0.19	0.01	12
8	0.10	0.10	0.19	0.01	10
9	0.08	0.10	0.19	0.01	8
10	0.10	0.10	0.19	0.01	10
11	0.12	0.10	0.19	0.01	12
12	0.10	0.10	0.19	0.01	10
13	0.14	0.10	0.19	0.01	14
14	0.08	0.10	0.19	0.01	8
15	0.06	0.10	0.19	0.01	6
16	0.16	0.10	0.19	0.01	16
17	0.12	0.10	0.19	0.01	12
18	0.14	0.10	0.19	0.01	14
19	0.20	0.10	0.19	0.01	20
20	0.18	0.10	0.19	0.01	18
26					200

Column values copied from I5 and I6

Proportion Defective

UCL = 0.19

$\bar{p} = 0.10$

LCL = 0.01

Sample Number

SPC with Excel and OM Tools

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit3.2.SPC.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

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Reply with Changes... End Review...

E2

Xbar and R Charts

OM Student - Examples 3.4 and 3.5

Input:

No. of samples	10
Sample size	5

Output:

X-Bar	5.08	Range	0.24
UCL	5.01	0.12	
Mean	4.94	0.00	
LCL			

Table Values

N	5
A2	0.577
D3	0.00
D4	2.115

Input the observations for each sample in the green shaded cells.

Sample	Observations					Sample Mean	Range	Xbar Chart		R-chart		
	1	2	3	4	5			UCL	LCL	UCL	LCL	
1	5.02	5.01	4.94	4.99	4.96	4.98	0.08	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
2	5.01	5.03	5.07	4.95	4.96	5.00	0.12	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
3	4.99	5.00	4.93	4.92	4.99	4.97	0.08	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
4	5.03	4.91	5.01	4.98	4.89	4.96	0.14	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
5	4.95	4.92	5.03	5.05	5.01	4.99	0.13	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
6	4.97	5.06	5.06	4.96	5.03	5.02	0.10	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
7	5.05	5.01	5.10	4.96	4.99	5.02	0.14	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
8	5.09	5.10	5.00	4.99	5.08	5.05	0.11	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
9	5.14	5.10	4.99	5.08	5.09	5.08	0.15	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
10	5.01	4.98	5.08	5.07	4.99	5.03	0.10	5.08	4.94	0.243	0	
					Mean	5.01	0.115					

Xbar chart formulas

$$LCL = \bar{x} - A_2 \bar{R}$$

$$UCL = \bar{x} + A_2 \bar{R}$$

R-chart formulas

$$LCL = D_3 \bar{R}$$

$$UCL = D_4 \bar{R}$$

Control Chart Factors for Xbar and R Charts

Sample size, n	Mean Factor, A2	Upper Range, D4	Lower Range, D3
2	1.88	3.268	0
3	1.023	2.574	0
4	0.729	2.282	0
5	0.577	2.115	0
6	0.483	2.004	0
7	0.419	1.924	0.076
8	0.373	1.864	0.136
9	0.337	1.816	0.184
10	0.308	1.777	0.223
11	0.285	1.744	0.256
12	0.266	1.716	0.284
13	0.249	1.692	0.308
14	0.235	1.671	0.329
15	0.223	1.652	0.348
16	0.212	1.636	0.364
17	0.203	1.621	0.379
18	0.194	1.608	0.392
19	0.187	1.596	0.404
20	0.180	1.586	0.414
21	0.173	1.575	0.425
22	0.167	1.566	0.434
23	0.162	1.557	0.443
24	0.157	1.548	0.452
25	0.153	1.541	0.459

X-Bar

Range

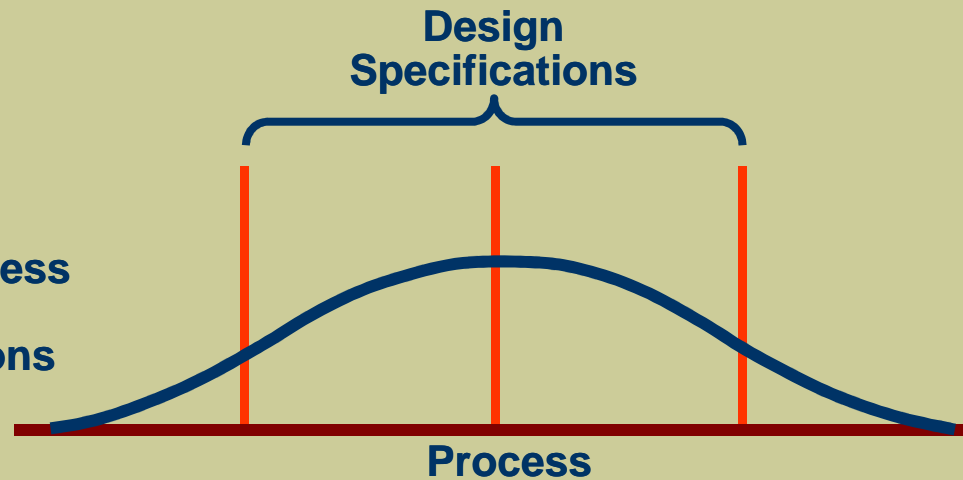


Process Capability

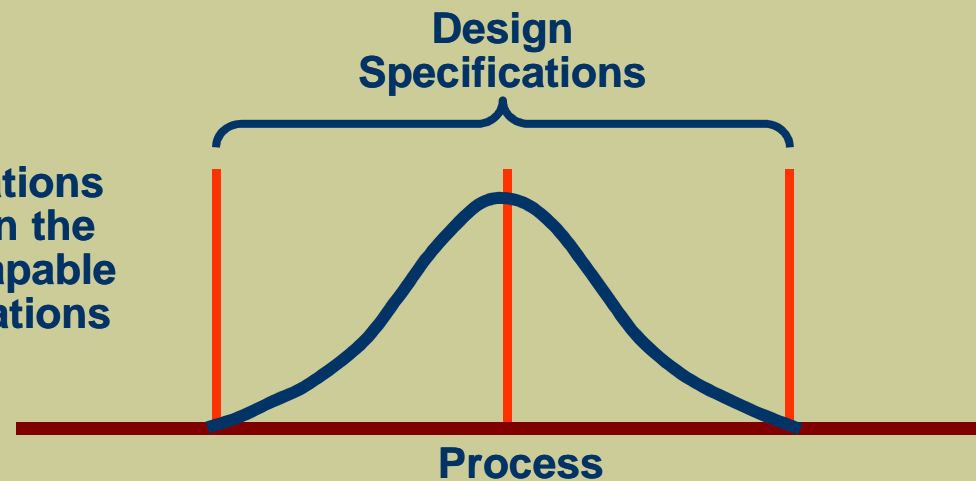
- ◆ Tolerances
 - design specifications reflecting product requirements
- ◆ Process capability
 - range of natural variability in a process—
what we measure with control charts

Process Capability (cont.)

(a) Natural variation exceeds design specifications; process is not capable of meeting specifications all the time.

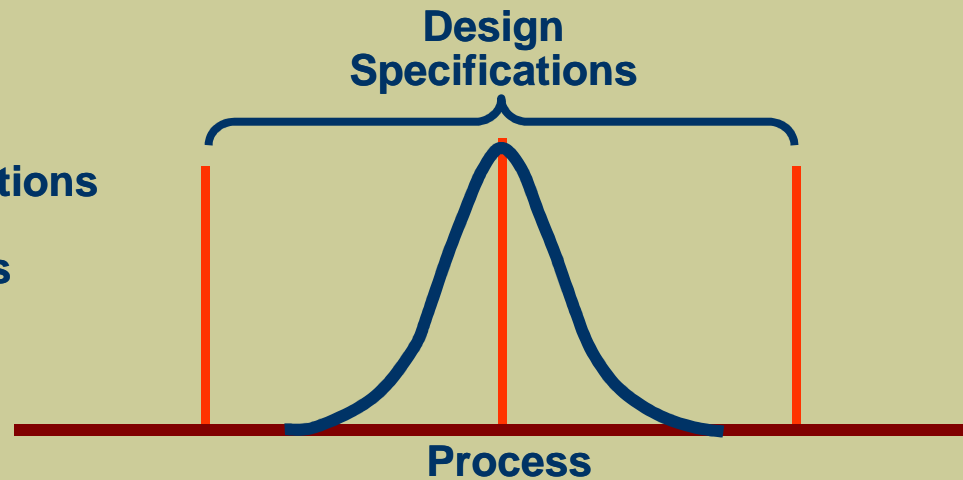


(b) Design specifications and natural variation the same; process is capable of meeting specifications most of the time.

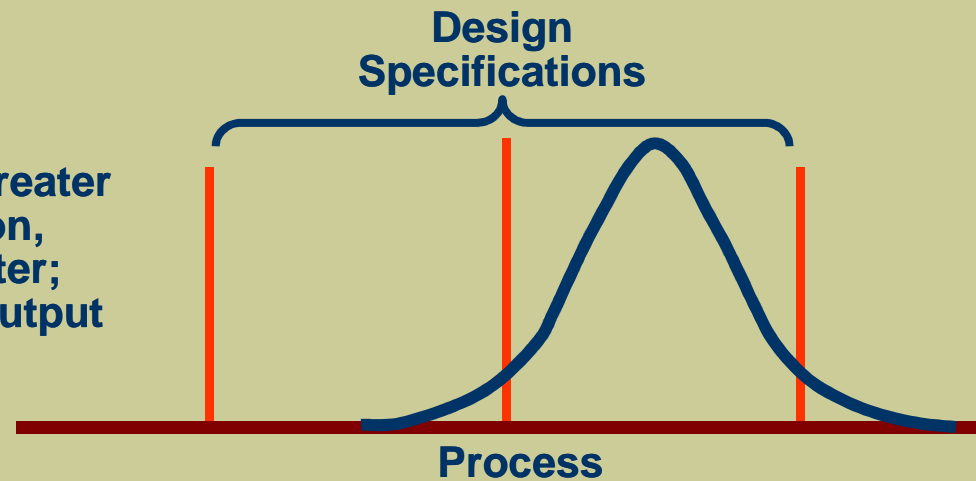


Process Capability (cont.)

(c) Design specifications greater than natural variation; process is capable of always conforming to specifications.



(d) Specifications greater than natural variation, but process off center; capable but some output will not meet upper specification.



Process Capability Measures

Process Capability Ratio

$$C_p = \frac{\text{tolerance range}}{\text{process range}}$$
$$= \frac{\text{upper specification limit} - \text{lower specification limit}}{6\sigma}$$

Computing C_p

Net weight specification = 9.0 oz \pm 0.5 oz

Process mean = 8.80 oz

Process standard deviation = 0.12 oz

$$C_p = \frac{\text{upper specification limit} - \text{lower specification limit}}{6\sigma}$$
$$= \frac{9.5 - 8.5}{6(0.12)} = 1.39$$

Process Capability Measures

Process Capability Index

$$C_{pk} = \text{minimum} \left[\begin{array}{l} \frac{\text{upper specification limit} - \bar{x}}{3\sigma} \\ \frac{\bar{x} - \text{lower specification limit}}{3\sigma} \end{array} \right]$$

Computing C_{pk}

Net weight specification = 9.0 oz \pm 0.5 oz

Process mean = 8.80 oz

Process standard deviation = 0.12 oz

$$C_{pk} = \text{minimum} \left[\frac{\bar{x} - \text{lower specification limit}}{3\sigma}, \frac{\text{upper specification limit} - \bar{x}}{3\sigma} \right]$$

$$= \text{minimum} \left[\frac{8.80 - 8.50}{3(0.12)}, \frac{9.50 - 8.80}{3(0.12)} \right] = 0.83$$

Process Capability with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit3.3.Process Capability.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

100% Arial 10

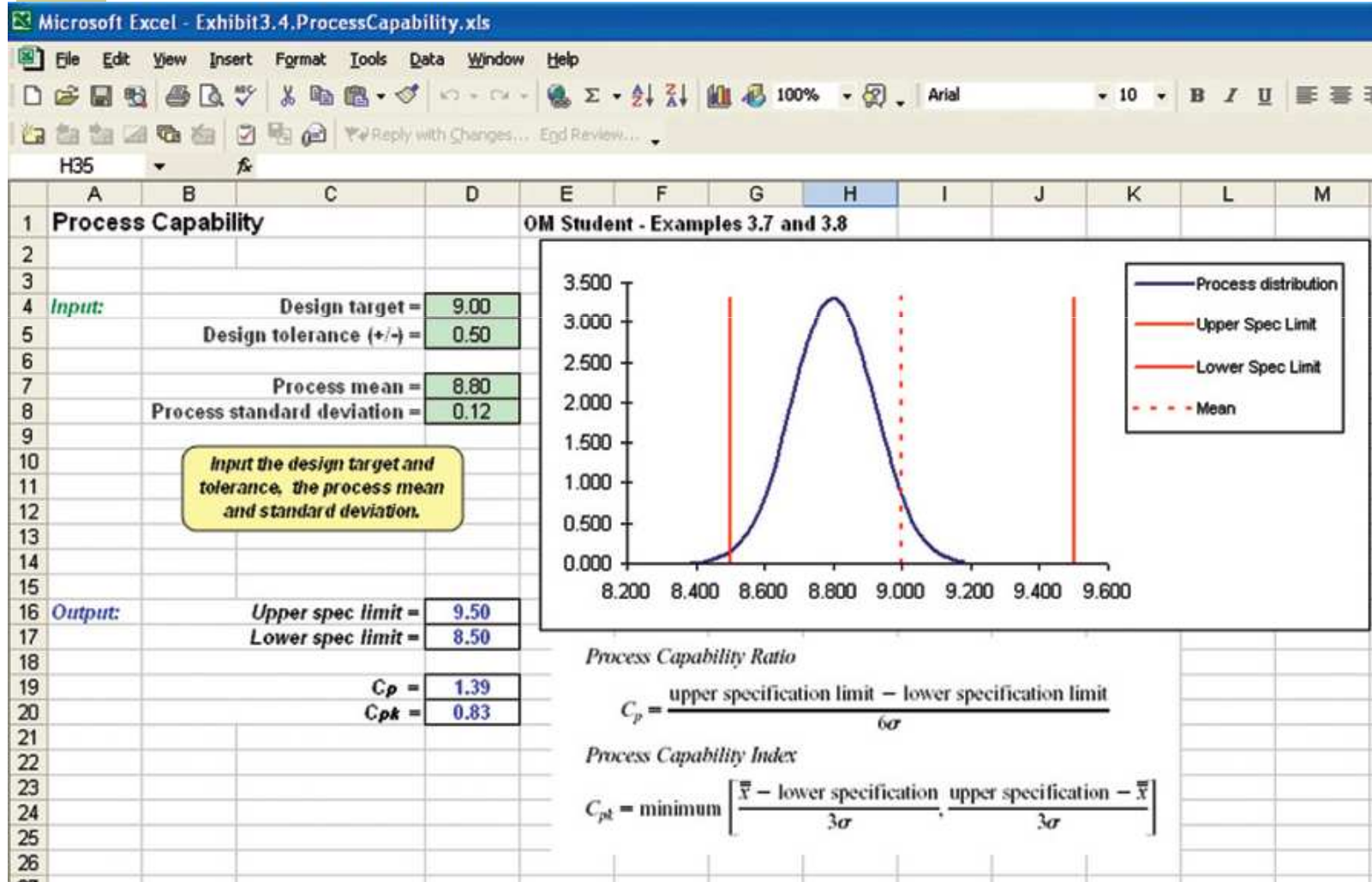
D16 $=\text{MIN}(((D12-(D13-D14))/(3*D15)),((D13+D14)-D12)/(3*D15))$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1	Examples 3.7 and 3.8: Process Capability										
2											
3											
4											
5			<i>Process Capability Ratio:</i>								
6			Upper limit =	9.5							
7			Lower limit =	8.5							
8			Standard deviation =	0.12							
9			C_p =	1.39							
10											
11			<i>Process Capability Index:</i>								
12			Process mean =	8.80							
13			Design target =	9.00							
14			Tolerance range =	0.50							
15			Standard deviation =	0.12							
16			C_{pk} =	0.83							
17											

$=(D6-D7)/(6*D8)$

see formula bar

Process Capability with Excel and OM Tools





Chapter 3 Supplement

Acceptance Sampling

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Single-Sample Attribute Plan
- ◆ Operating Characteristic Curve
- ◆ Developing a Sampling Plan with Excel
- ◆ Average Outgoing Quality
- ◆ Double - and Multiple-Sampling Plans

Acceptance Sampling

- ◆ Accepting or rejecting a production lot based on the number of defects in a sample
- ◆ Not consistent with TQM or Zero Defects philosophy
 - producer and customer agree on the number of acceptable defects
 - a means of identifying not preventing poor quality
 - percent of defective parts versus PPM
- ◆ Sampling plan
 - provides guidelines for accepting a lot

Single-Sample Attribute Plan

- Single sampling plan
 - N = lot size
 - n = sample size (random)
 - c = acceptance number
 - d = number of defective items in sample
- If $d \leq c$, accept lot; else reject

Producer's and Consumer's Risk

- ◆ AQL or acceptable quality level
 - proportion of defects consumer will accept in a given lot
- ◆ α or producer's risk
 - probability of rejecting a good lot
- ◆ LTPD or lot tolerance percent defective
 - limit on the number of defectives the customer will accept
- ◆ β or consumer's risk
 - probability of accepting a bad lot

Producer's and Consumer's Risk (cont.)

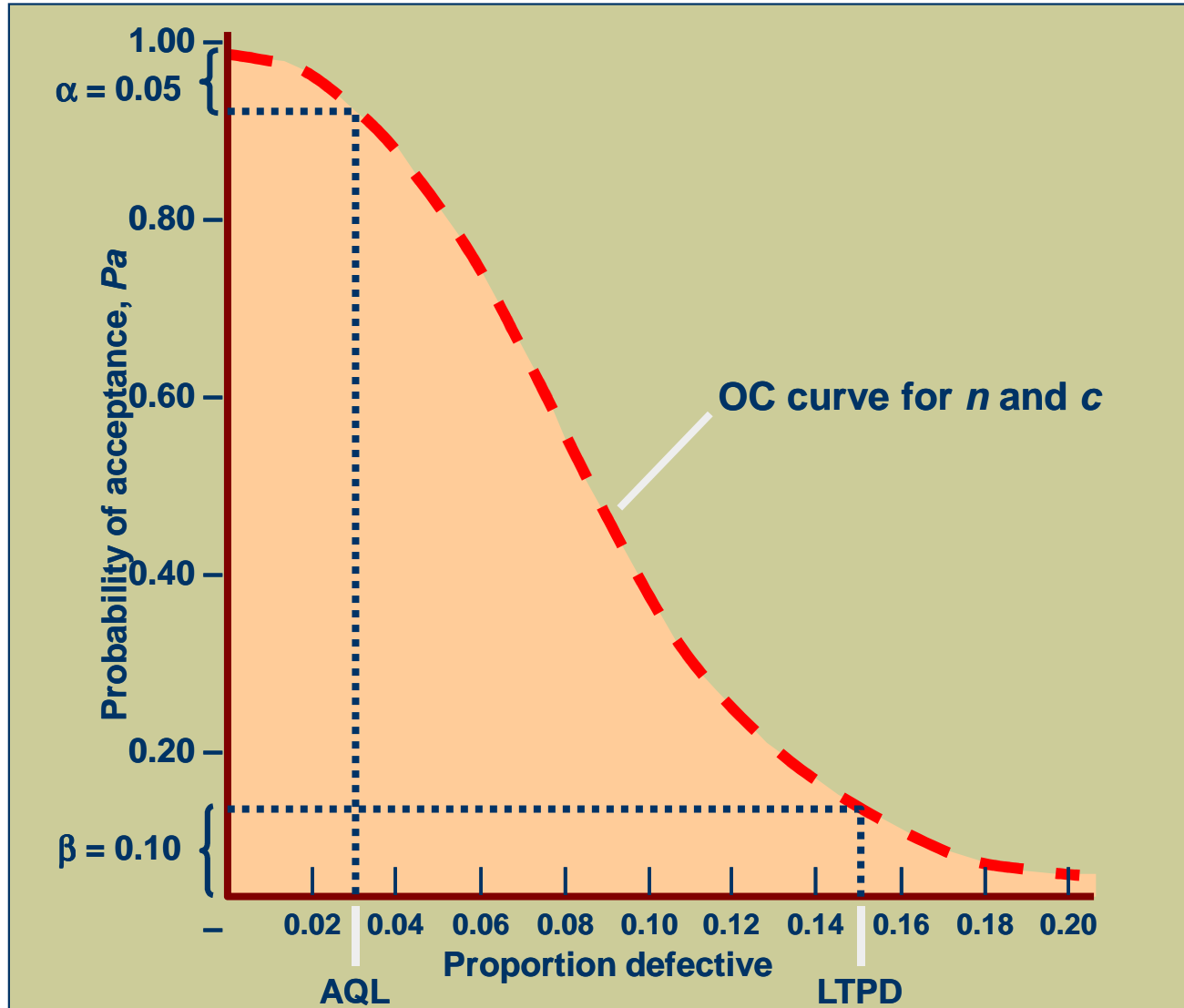
	Accept	Reject
Good Lot	No Error	Type I Error Producer's Risk
Bad Lot	Type II Error Consumer's Risk	No Error

Sampling Errors

Operating Characteristic (OC) Curve

- ◆ shows probability of accepting lots of different quality levels with a specific sampling plan
- ◆ assists management to discriminate between good and bad lots
- ◆ exact shape and location of the curve is defined by the sample size (n) and acceptance level (c) for the sampling plan

OC Curve (cont.)



Developing a Sampling Plan with OM Tools

ABC Company produces mugs in lots of 10,000. Performance measures for quality of mugs sent to stores call for a producer's risk of 0.05 with an AQL of 1% defective and a consumer's risk of 0.10 with a LTPD of 5% defective. What size sample and what acceptance number should ABC use to achieve performance measures called for in the sampling plan?

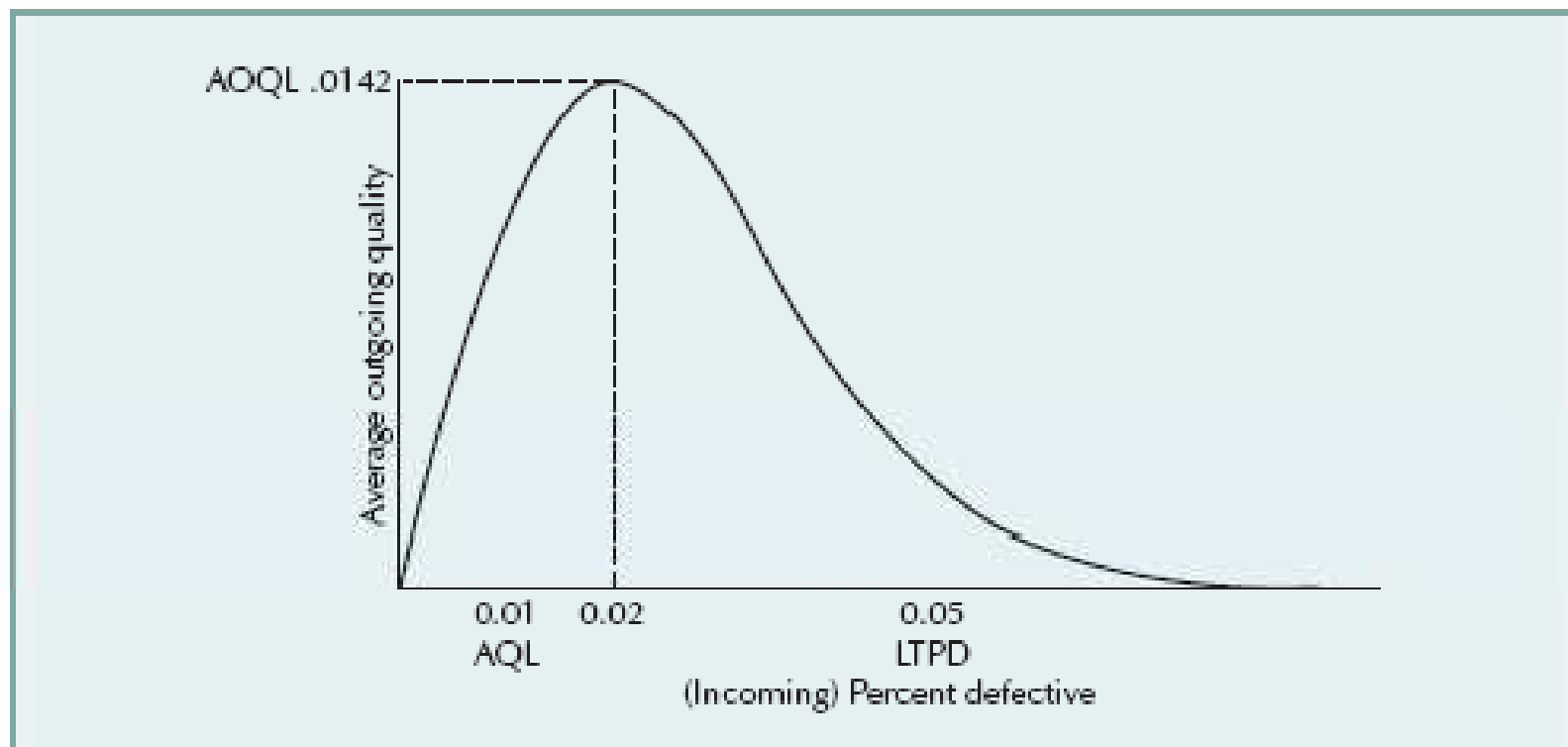


$N = 10,000$	$n = ?$	
$\alpha = 0.05$		$c =$
?		
$\beta = 0.10$		
AQL = 1%		
LTPD = 5%		

Average Outgoing Quality (AOQ)

- ◆ Expected number of defective items that will pass on to customer with a sampling plan
- ◆ Average outgoing quality limit (AOQL)
 - maximum point on the curve
 - worst level of outgoing quality

AOQ Curve



Double-Sampling Plans

- Take small initial sample
 - If # defective \leq lower limit, accept
 - If # defective $>$ upper limit, reject
 - If # defective between limits, take second sample
- Accept or reject based on 2 samples
- Less costly than single-sampling plans

Multiple-Sampling Plans

- Uses smaller sample sizes
- Take initial sample
 - If # defective \leq lower limit, accept
 - If # defective $>$ upper limit, reject
 - If # defective between limits, resample
- Continue sampling until accept or reject lot based on all sample data



Chapter 4

Product Design

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Design Process
- ◆ Concurrent Design
- ◆ Technology in Design
- ◆ Design Reviews
- ◆ Design for Environment
- ◆ Design for Robustness
- ◆ Quality Function Deployment



Design Process

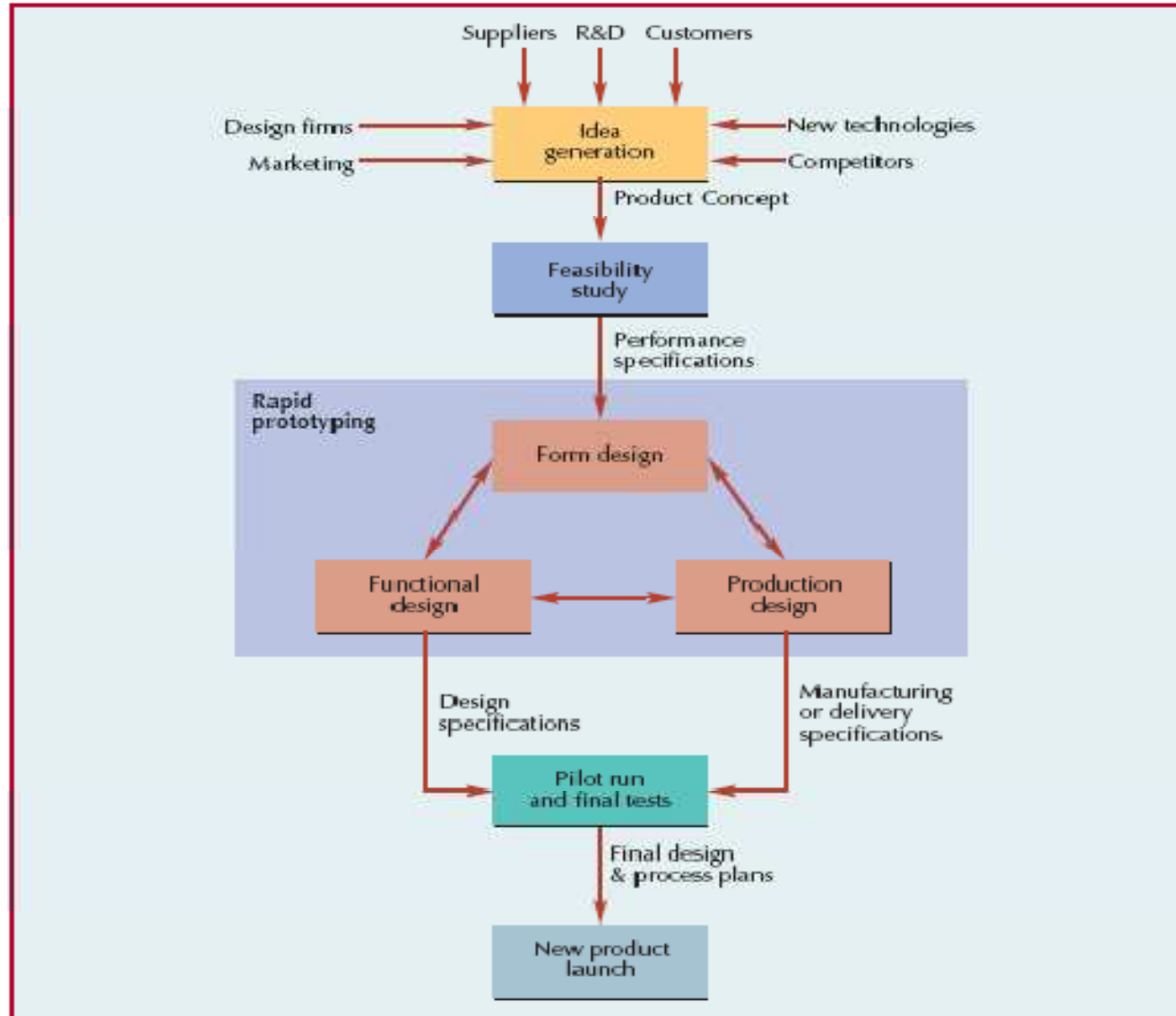
- ◆ Effective design can provide a competitive edge
 - matches product or service characteristics with customer requirements
 - ensures that customer requirements are met in the simplest and least costly manner
 - reduces time required to design a new product or service
 - minimizes revisions necessary to make a design workable



Design Process (cont.)

- ◆ Product design
 - defines appearance of product
 - sets standards for performance
 - specifies which materials are to be used
 - determines dimensions and tolerances

Design Process (cont.)





Idea Generation

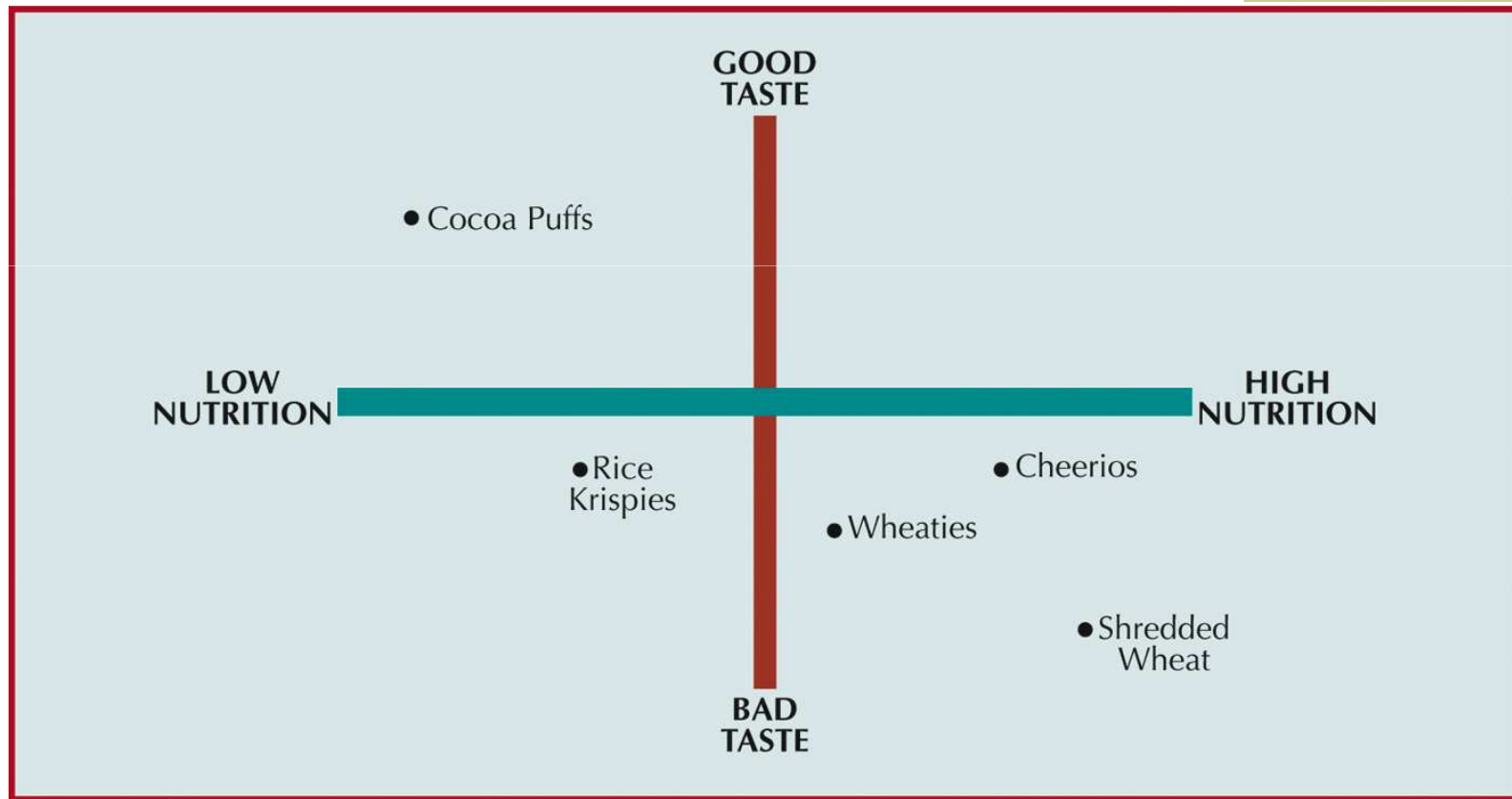
- ◆ Company's own R&D department
- ◆ Customer complaints or suggestions
- ◆ Marketing research
- ◆ Suppliers
- ◆ Salespersons in the field
- ◆ Factory workers
- ◆ New technological developments
- ◆ Competitors



Idea Generation (cont.)

- **Perceptual Maps**
 - Visual comparison of customer perceptions
- **Benchmarking**
 - Comparing product/process against best-in-class
- **Reverse engineering**
 - Dismantling competitor's product to improve your own product

Perceptual Map of Breakfast Cereals





Feasibility Study

- ◆ Market analysis
- ◆ Economic analysis
- ◆ Technical/strategic analyses
- ◆ Performance specifications



Rapid Prototyping

- ◆ testing and revising a preliminary design model
- ◆ Build a prototype
 - form design
 - functional design
 - production design
- ◆ Test prototype
- ◆ Revise design
- ◆ Retest

Form and Functional Design



- ◆ Form Design
 - how product will look?
- ◆ Functional Design
 - how product will perform?
 - reliability
 - maintainability
 - usability

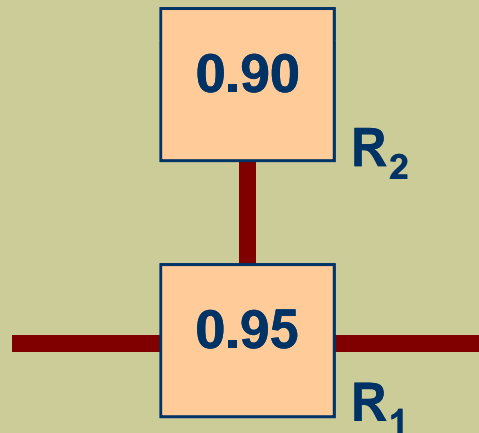
Computing Reliability

Components in series



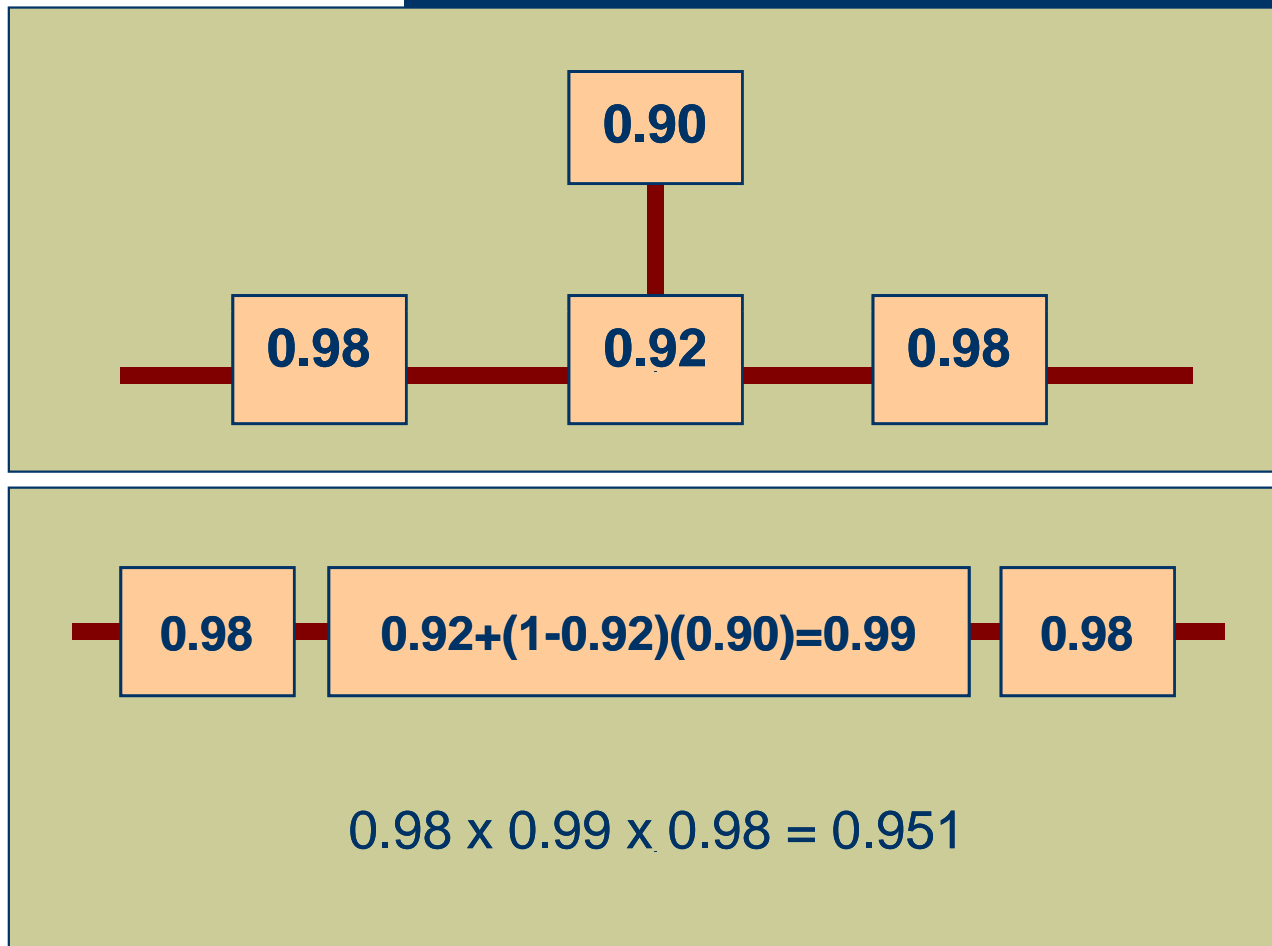
Computing Reliability (cont.)

Components in parallel



$$0.95 + 0.90(1-0.95) = 0.995$$

System Reliability



System Availability (SA)

$$SA = \frac{MTBF}{MTBF + MTTR}$$

where:

MTBF = mean time between failures

MTTR = mean time to repair

System Availability (cont.)

PROVIDER	MTBF (HR)	MTTR (HR)
A	60	4.0
B	36	2.0
C	24	1.0

$$SA_A = 60 / (60 + 4) = .9375 \text{ or } 94\%$$

$$SA_B = 36 / (36 + 2) = .9473 \text{ or } 95\%$$

$$SA_C = 24 / (24 + 1) = .96 \text{ or } 96\%$$



Usability

- ◆ Ease of use of a product or service
 - ease of learning
 - ease of use
 - ease of remembering how to use
 - frequency and severity of errors
 - user satisfaction with experience



Production Design

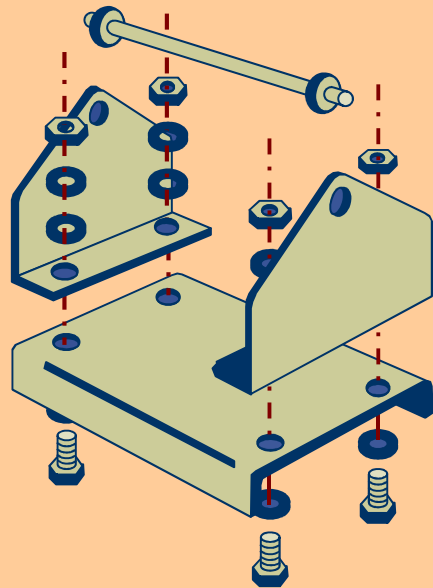


- How the product will be made
 - Simplification
 - reducing number of parts, assemblies, or options in a product
 - Standardization
 - using commonly available and interchangeable parts
 - Modular Design
 - combining standardized building blocks, or modules, to create unique finished products
 - Design for Manufacture (DFM)
 - Designing a product so that it can be produced easily and economically

Design Simplification

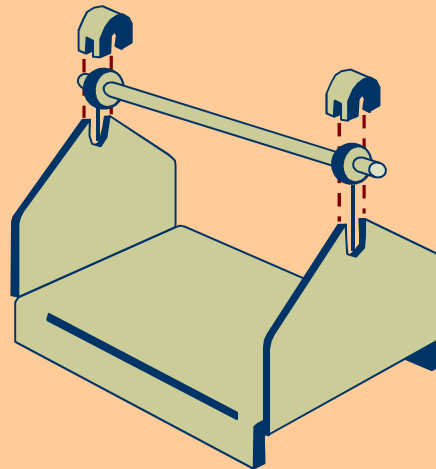
Source: Adapted from G. Boothroyd and P. Dewhurst, "Product Design.... Key to Successful Robotic Assembly." *Assembly Engineering* (September 1986), pp. 90-93.

(a) Original design



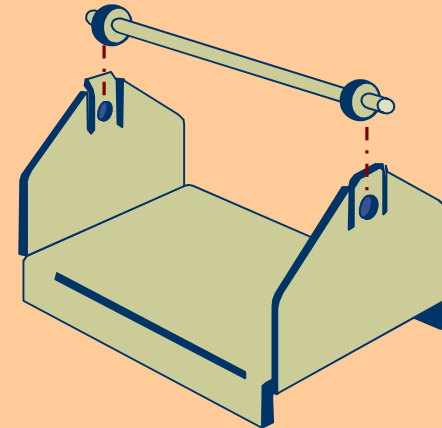
Assembly using
common fasteners

(b) Revised design



One-piece base &
elimination of
fasteners

(c) Final design



Design for
push-and-snap
assembly

Final Design and Process Plans

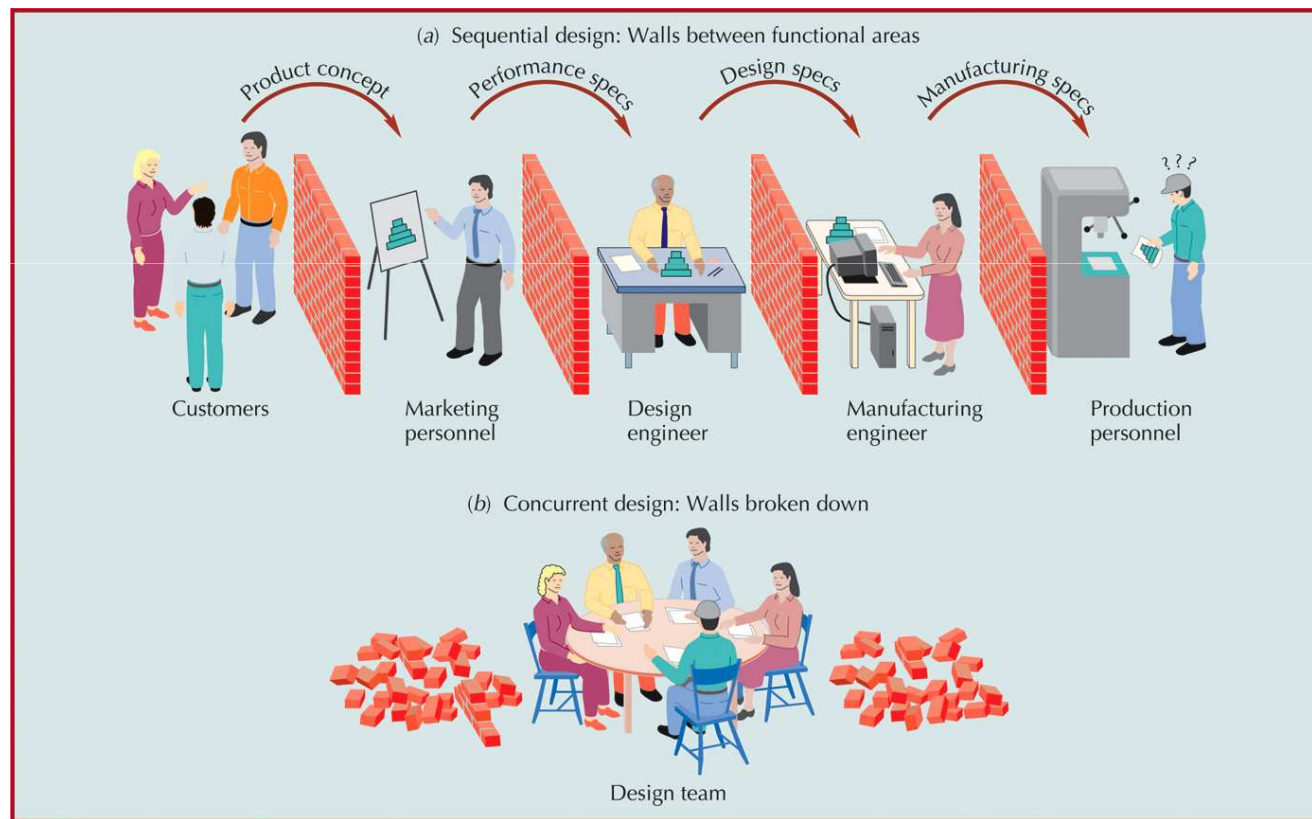
◆ Final design

- detailed drawings and specifications for new product or service

◆ Process plans

- workable instructions
 - necessary equipment and tooling
 - component sourcing recommendations
 - job descriptions and procedures
 - computer programs for automated machines

Design Team



Concurrent Design

- ◆ A new approach to design that involves simultaneous design of products and processes by design teams
- ◆ Improves quality of early design decisions
- ◆ Involves suppliers
- ◆ Incorporates production process
- ◆ Uses a price-minus system
- ◆ Scheduling and management can be complex as tasks are done in parallel
- ◆ Uses technology to aid design

Technology in Design

- ◆ Computer Aided Design (CAD)
 - assists in creation, modification, and analysis of a design
 - computer-aided engineering (CAE)
 - tests and analyzes designs on computer screen
 - computer-aided manufacturing (CAD/CAM)
 - ultimate design-to-manufacture connection
 - product life cycle management (PLM)
 - managing entire lifecycle of a product
 - collaborative product design (CPD)

Collaborative Product Design (CPD)

- ◆ A software system for collaborative design and development among trading partners
- ◆ With PML, manages product data, sets up project workspaces, and follows life cycle of the product
- ◆ Accelerates product development, helps to resolve product launch issues, and improves quality of design
- ◆ Designers can
 - conduct virtual review sessions
 - test “what if” scenarios
 - assign and track design issues
 - communicate with multiple tiers of suppliers
 - create, store, and manage project documents

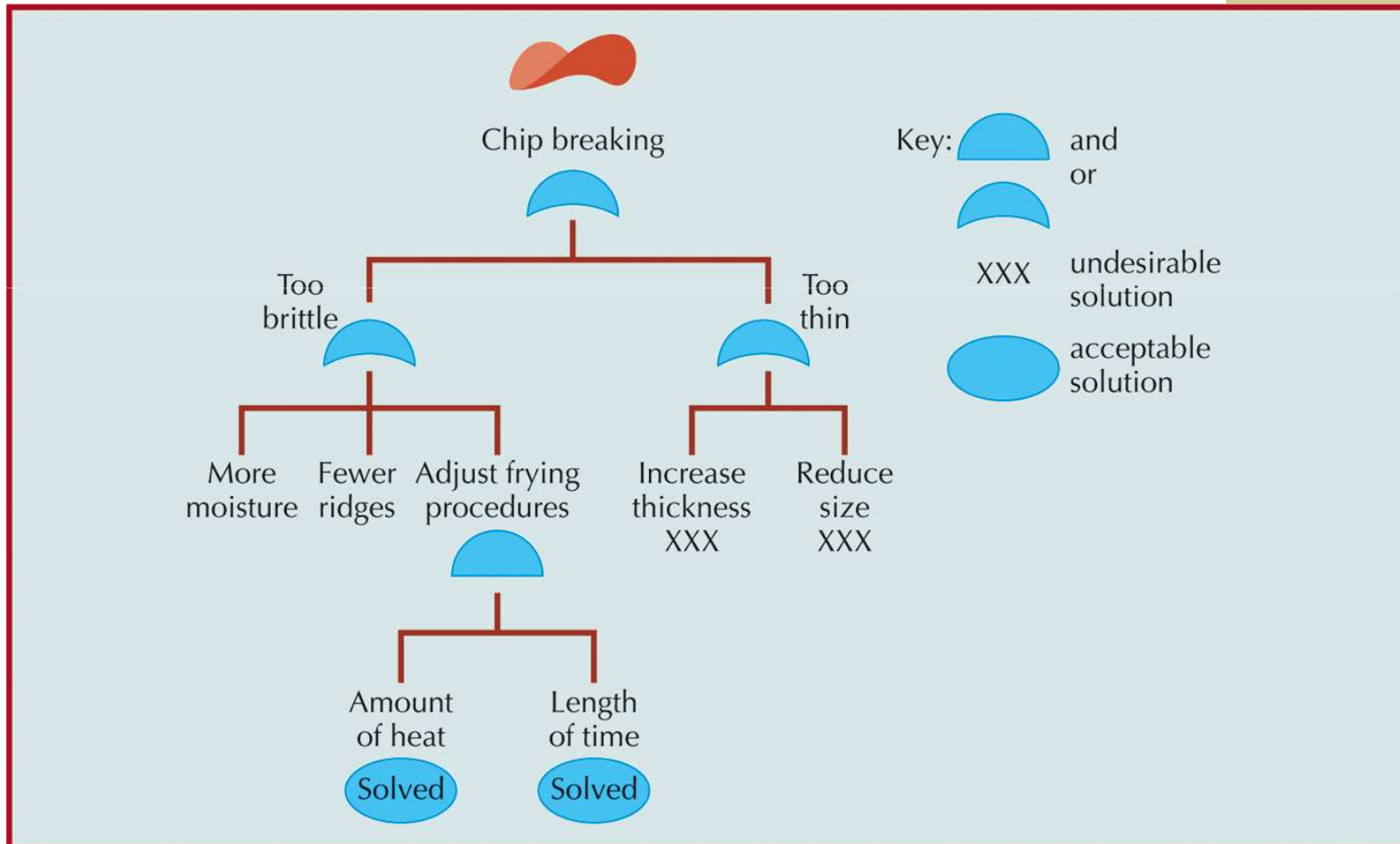
Design Review

- ◆ Review designs to prevent *failures* and ensure *value*
 - Failure mode and effects analysis (FMEA)
 - a systematic method of analyzing product failures
 - Fault tree analysis (FTA)
 - a visual method for analyzing interrelationships among failures
 - Value analysis (VA)
 - helps eliminate unnecessary features and functions

FMEA for Potato Chips

Failure Mode	Cause of Failure	Effect of Failure	Corrective Action
Stale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ low moisture content ◆ expired shelf life ◆ poor packaging 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ tastes bad ◆ won't crunch ◆ thrown out ◆ lost sales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ add moisture ◆ cure longer ◆ better package seal ◆ shorter shelf life
Broken	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ too thin ◆ too brittle ◆ rough handling ◆ rough use ◆ poor packaging 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ can't dip ◆ poor display ◆ injures mouth ◆ choking ◆ perceived as old ◆ lost sales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ change recipe ◆ change process ◆ change packaging
Too Salty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ outdated receipt ◆ process not in control ◆ uneven distribution of salt 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ eat less ◆ drink more ◆ health hazard ◆ lost sales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ experiment with recipe ◆ experiment with process ◆ introduce low salt version

Fault tree analysis (FTA)





Value analysis (VA)



- ◆ Can we do without it?
- ◆ Does it do more than is required?
- ◆ Does it cost more than it is worth?
- ◆ Can something else do a better job?
- ◆ Can it be made by
 - a less costly method?
 - with less costly tooling?
 - with less costly material?
- ◆ Can it be made cheaper, better, or faster by someone else?



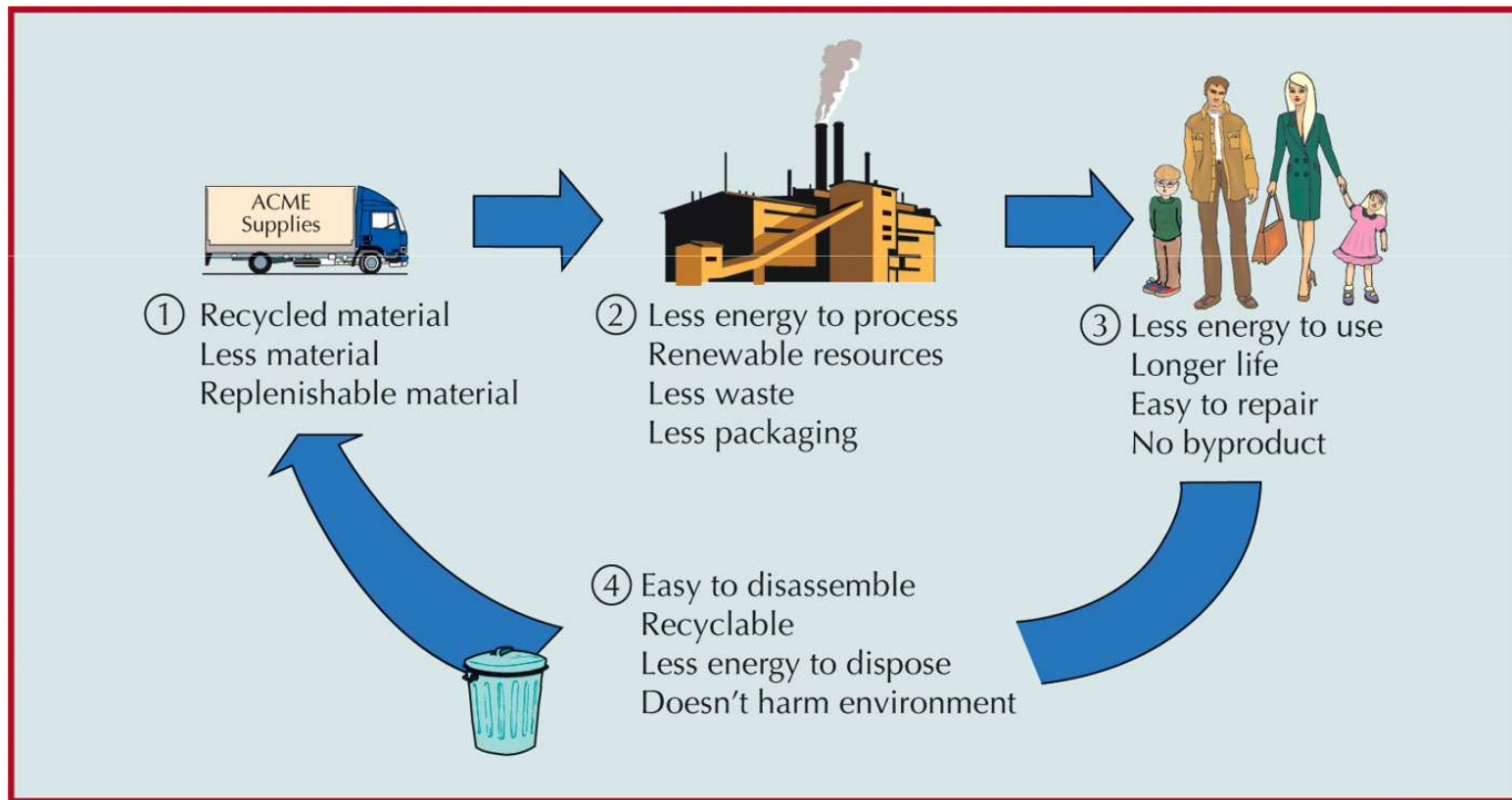
Value analysis (VA) (cont.)

- ◆ Updated versions also include:
 - Is it recyclable or biodegradable?
 - Is the process sustainable?
 - Will it use more energy than it is worth?
 - Does the item or its by-product harm the environment?

Design for Environment and Extended Producer Responsibility

- ◆ Design for environment
 - designing a product from material that can be recycled
 - design from recycled material
 - design for ease of repair
 - minimize packaging
 - minimize material and energy used during manufacture, consumption and disposal
- ◆ Extended producer responsibility
 - holds companies responsible for their product even after its useful life

Design for Environment



Sustainability

- ◆ Ability to meet present needs without compromising those of future generations
- ◆ Green product design
 - Use fewer materials
 - Use recycled materials or recovered components
 - Don't assume natural materials are always better
 - Don't forget energy consumption
 - Extend useful life of product
 - Involve entire supply chain
 - Change paradigm of design

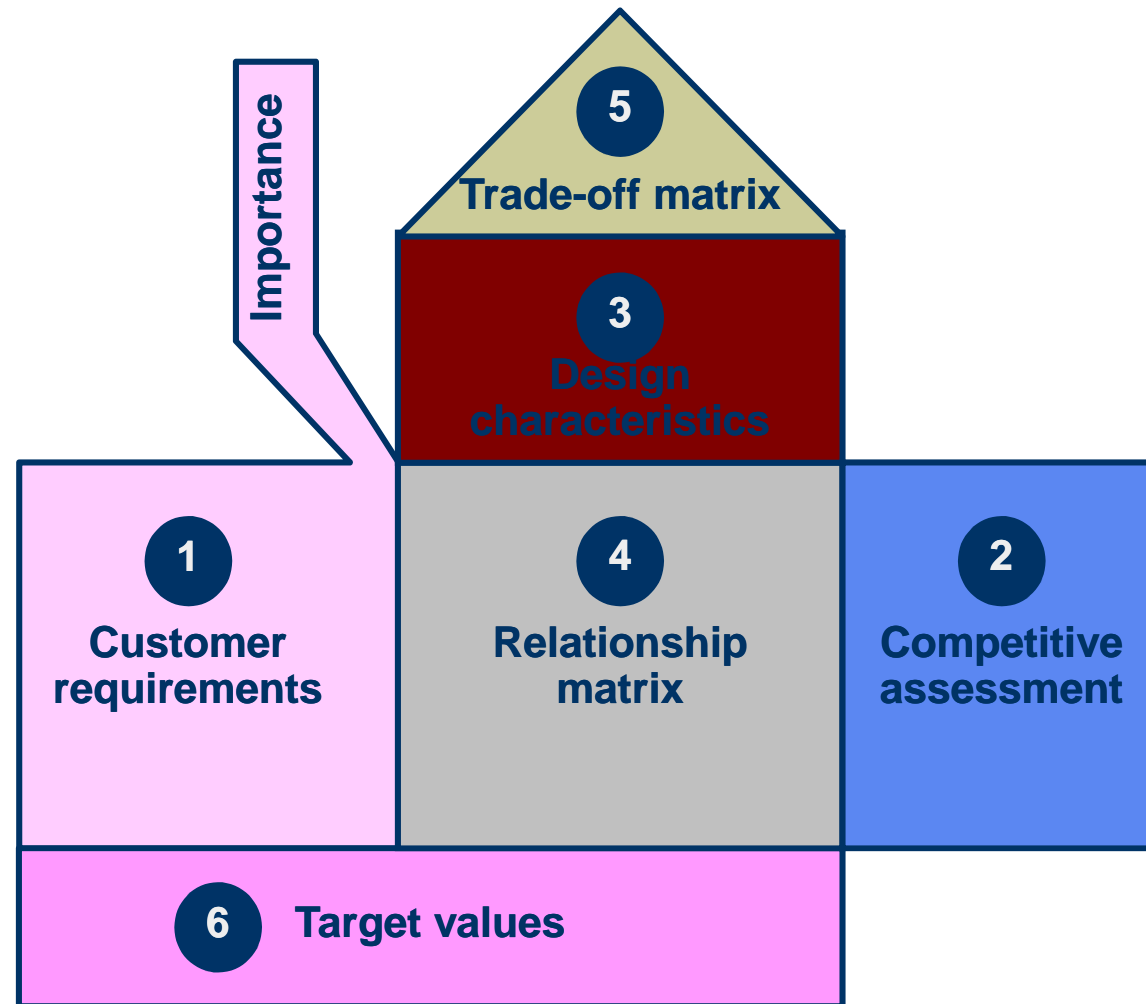
Source: Adapted from the Business Social Responsibility Web site, www.bsr.org, accessed April 1, 2007.



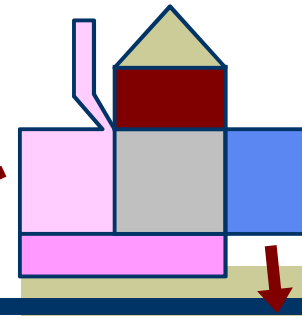
Quality Function Deployment (QFD)

- ◆ Translates voice of customer into technical design requirements
- ◆ Displays requirements in matrix diagrams
 - first matrix called “house of quality”
 - series of connected houses

House of Quality

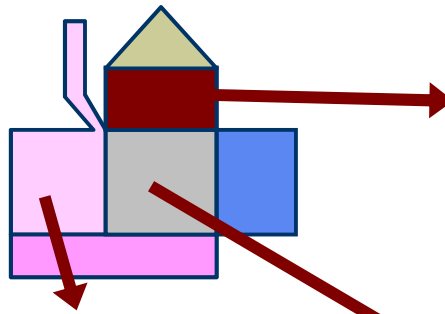


Competitive Assessment of Customer Requirements



Customer Requirements			Competitive Assessment				
			1	2	3	4	5
Irons well	Presses quickly	9	B	A		X	
	Removes wrinkles	8		AB			X
	Doesn't stick to fabric	6		X		BA	
	Provides enough steam	8			AB		X
	Doesn't spot fabric	6		X	AB		
	Doesn't scorch fabric	9		A	XB		
Easy and safe to use	Heats quickly	6		X	B	A	
	Automatic shut-off	3					ABX
	Quick cool-down	3		X	A	B	
	Doesn't break when dropped	5		AB			X
	Doesn't burn when touched	5		AB	X		
	Not too heavy	8					

From Customer Requirements to Design Characteristics



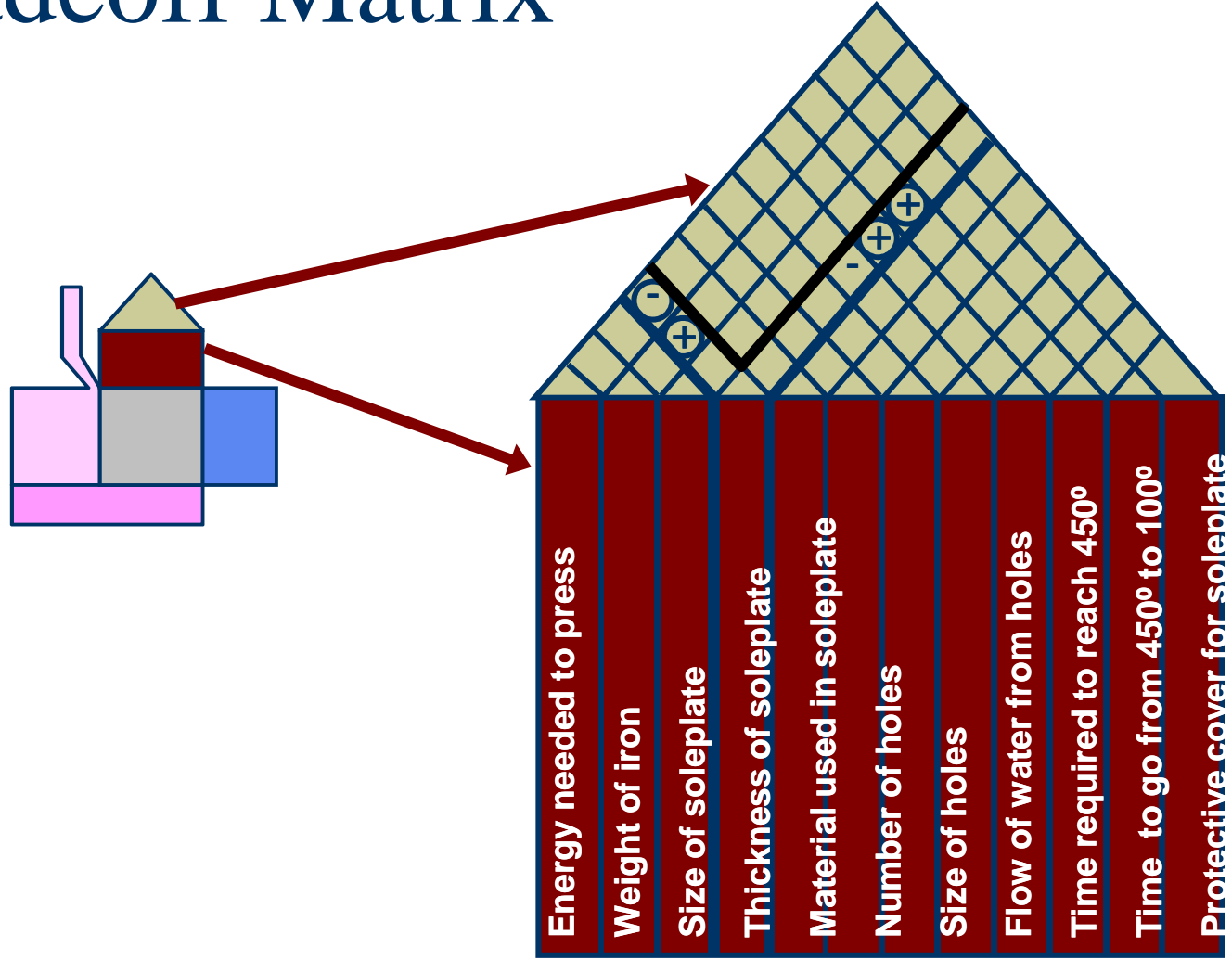
Customer Requirements

		Energy needed to press	Weight of iron	Size of soleplate	Thickness of soleplate	Material used in soleplate	Number of holes	Size of holes	Flow of water from holes	Time required to reach 450° F	Time to go from 450° to 100°	Protective cover for soleplate
Irons well	Presses quickly	-	⊖	+	+	+						
	Removes wrinkles		⊕		+		+	+	+			
	Doesn't stick to fabric		-			⊕		+		⊕	+	
	Provides enough steam			+			+	+	⊕			
	Doesn't spot fabric					⊕	-	-	-		⊕	
Easy and safe to use	Doesn't scorch fabric				+	+		+	⊖	+		
	Heats quickly			-	-				+		-	⊕
	Automatic shut-off				⊕					⊕		+
	Quick cool-down			-	⊕	+				+		
	Doesn't break when dropped		⊕	-	-						⊕	
	Doesn't burn when touched		⊕		+	⊕					+	+

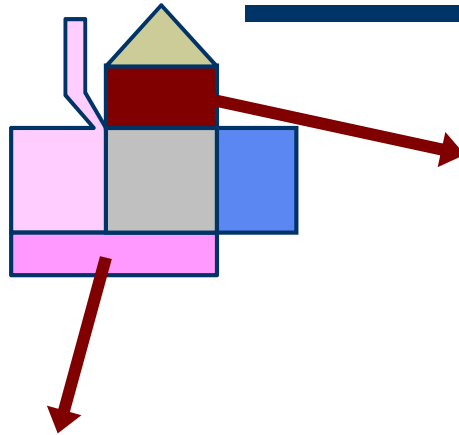
Not too heavy

+ - - - +

Tradeoff Matrix



Targeted Changes in Design

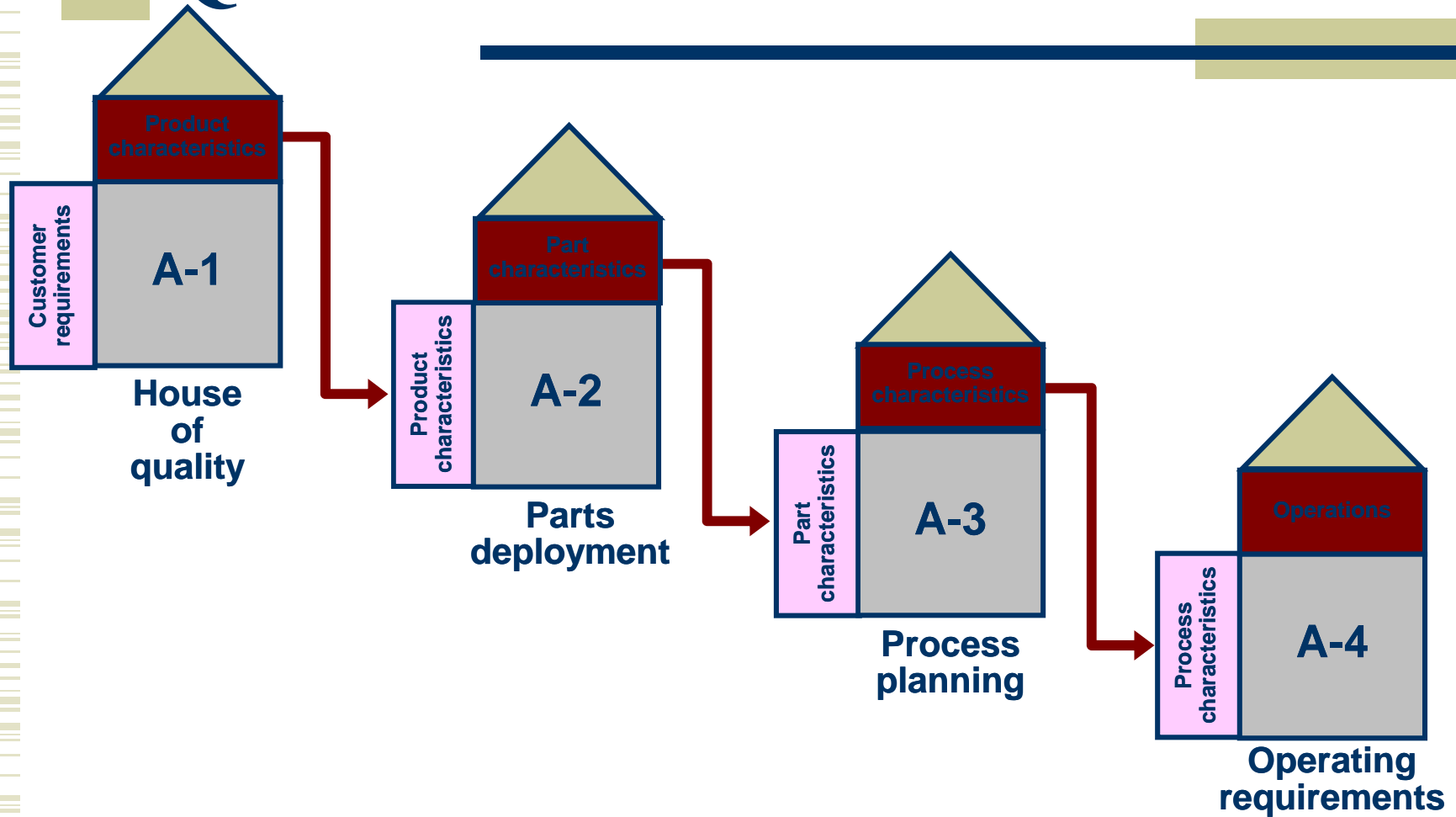


		Energy needed to press	Weight of iron	Size of soleplate	Thickness of soleplate	Material used in soleplate	Number of holes	Size of holes	Flow of water from holes	Time required to reach 450°	Time to go from 450° to 100°	Protective cover for soleplate	
Objective measures	Units of measure	ft-lb	lb	in.	cm	ty	ea	mm	oz/s	sec	sec	Y/N	Y/N
	Iron A	3	1.4	8x4	2	SS	27	15	0.5	45	500	N	Y
	Iron B	4	1.2	8x4	1	MG	27	15	0.3	35	350	N	Y
	Our Iron (X)	2	1.7	9x5	4	T	35	15	0.7	50	600	N	Y
Estimated impact		3	4	4	4	5	4	3	2	5	5	3	0
Estimated cost		3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	5	2
Targets			1.2	8x5	3	SS	30			30	500		

Design changes

* * * * * * * *

A Series of Connected QFD Houses





Benefits of QFD

- Promotes better understanding of customer demands
- Promotes better understanding of design interactions
- Involves manufacturing in design process
- Provides documentation of design process



Design for Robustness



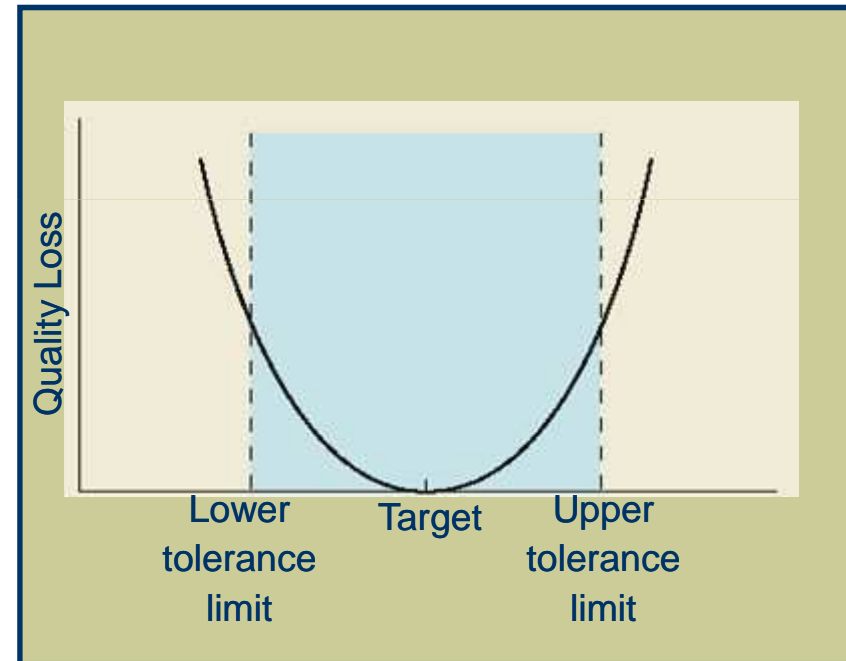
- ◆ Robust product
 - designed to withstand variations in environmental and operating conditions
- ◆ Robust design
 - yields a product or service designed to withstand variations
- ◆ Controllable factors
 - design parameters such as material used, dimensions, and form of processing
- ◆ Uncontrollable factors
 - user's control (length of use, maintenance, settings, etc.)

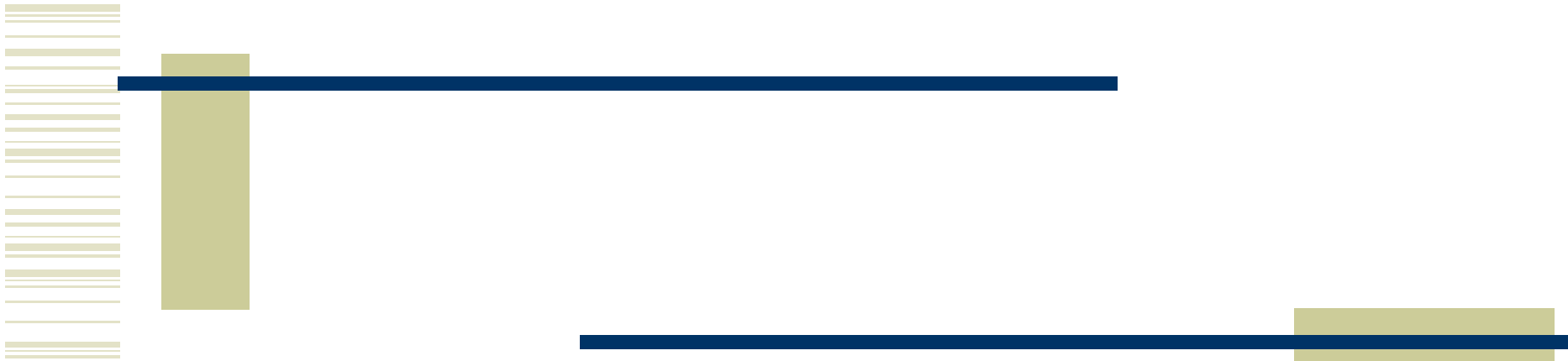
Design for Robustness (cont.)

- ◆ Tolerance
 - allowable ranges of variation in the dimension of a part
- ◆ Consistency
 - consistent errors are easier to correct than random errors
 - *parts* within tolerances may yield *assemblies* that are not within limits
 - consumers prefer product characteristics near their ideal values

Taguchi's Quality Loss Function

- ◆ Quantifies customer preferences toward quality
- ◆ Emphasizes that customer preferences are strongly oriented toward consistency
- ◆ Design for Six Sigma (DFSS)





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Chapter 5

Service Design

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III

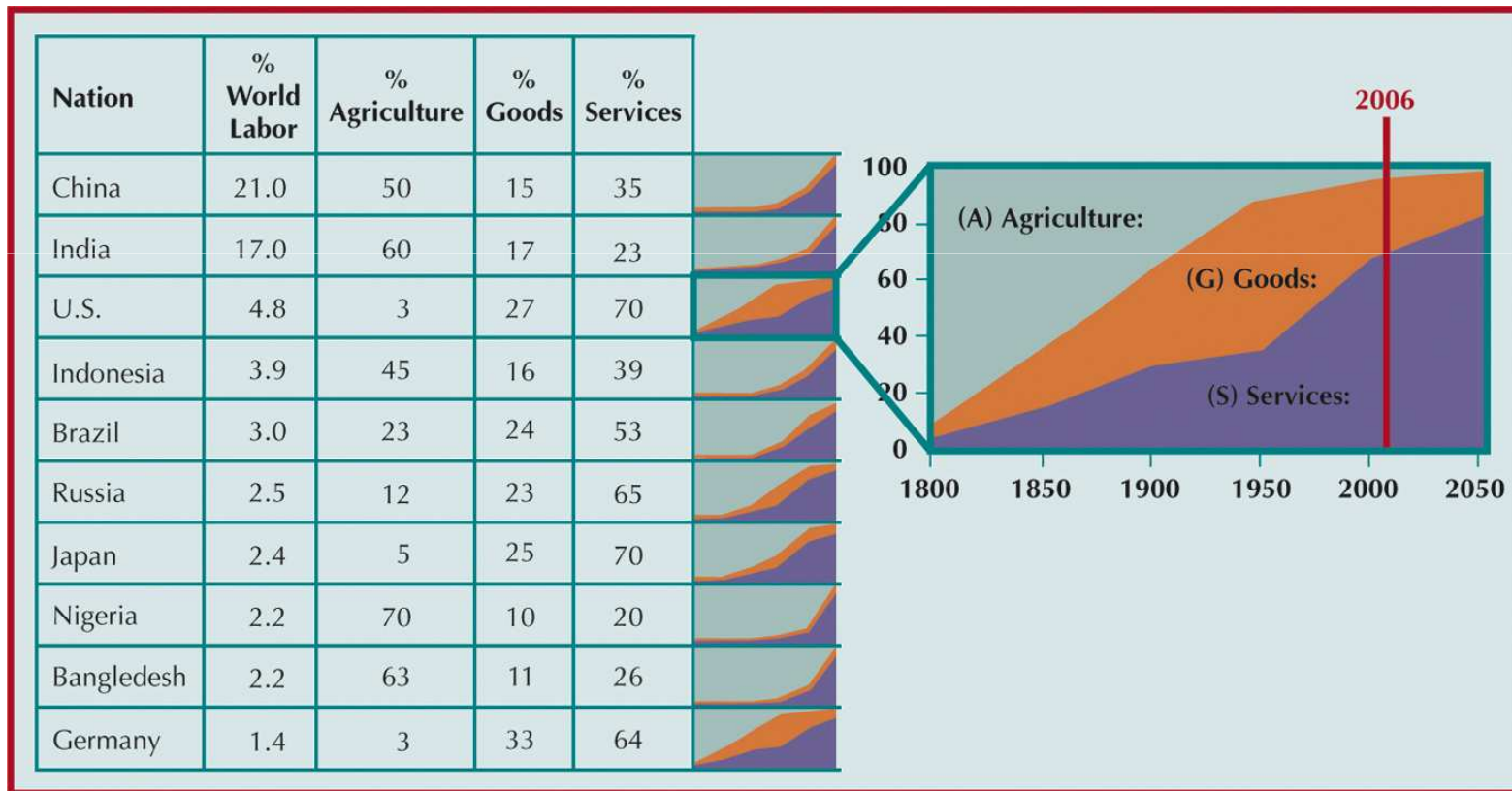




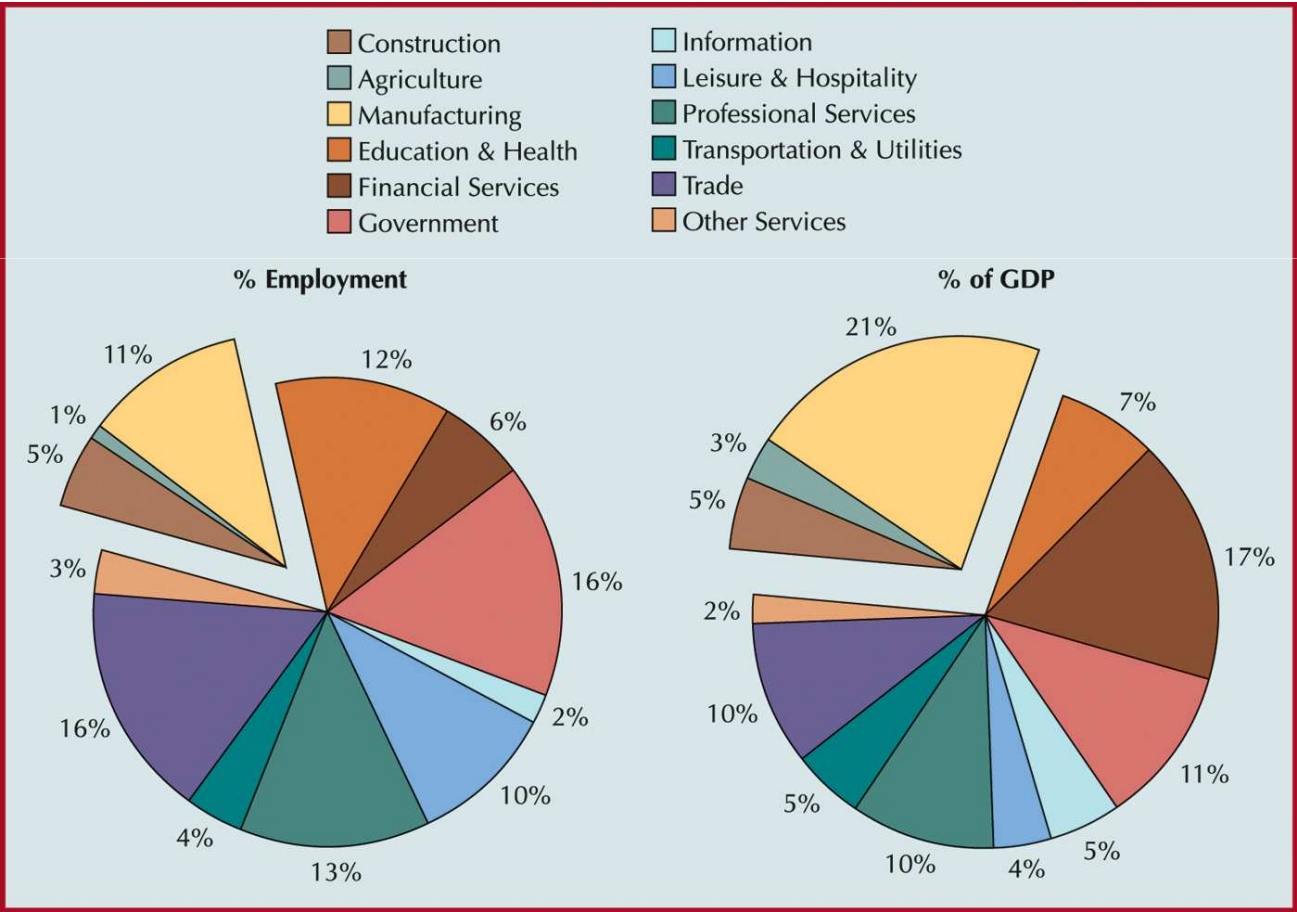
Lecture Outline

- ◆ Service Economy
- ◆ Characteristics of Services
- ◆ Service Design Process
- ◆ Tools for Service Design
- ◆ Waiting Line Analysis for Service Improvement

Service Economy



Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, IBM Almaden Research Center

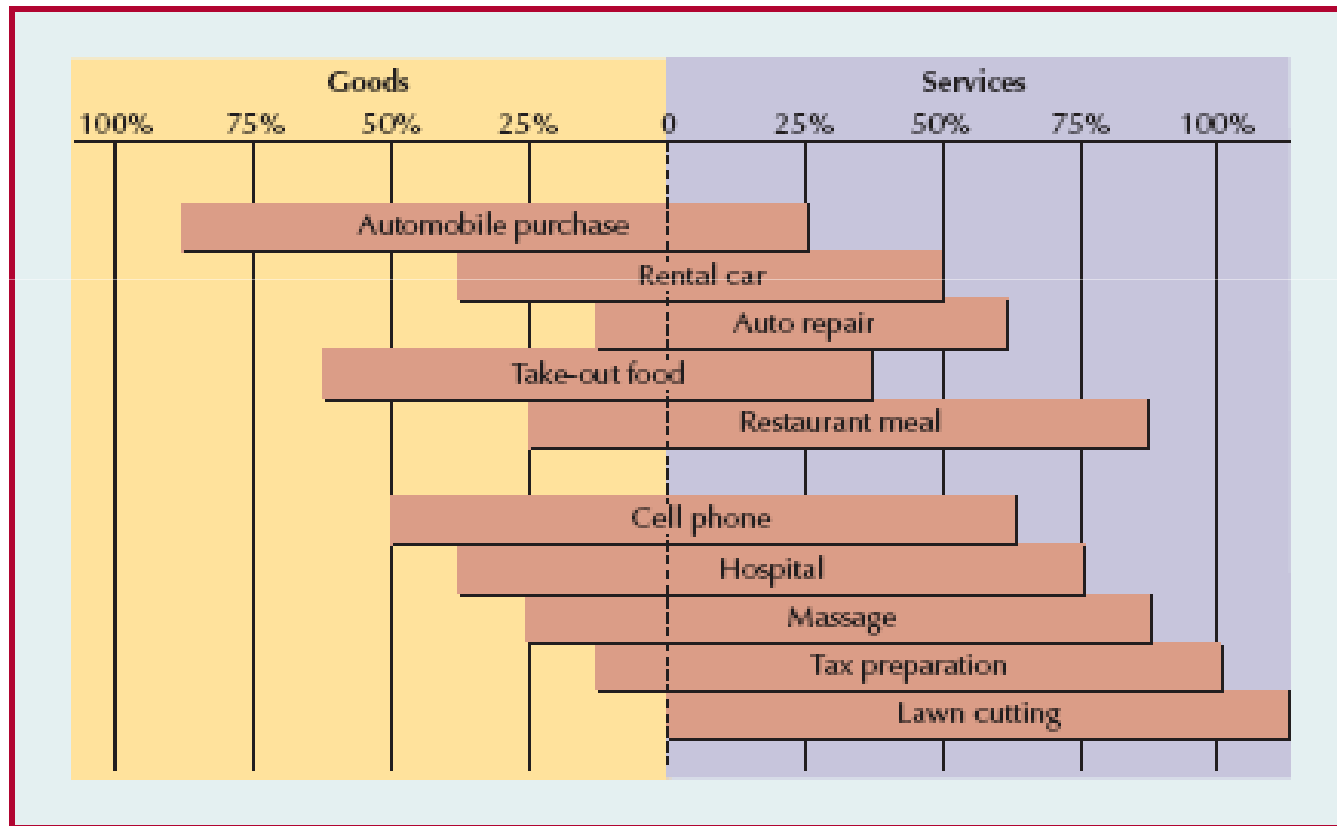




Characteristics of Services

- ◆ Services
 - acts, deeds, or performances
- ◆ Goods
 - tangible objects
- ◆ Facilitating services
 - accompany almost all purchases of goods
- ◆ Facilitating goods
 - accompany almost all service purchases

Continuum from Goods to Services

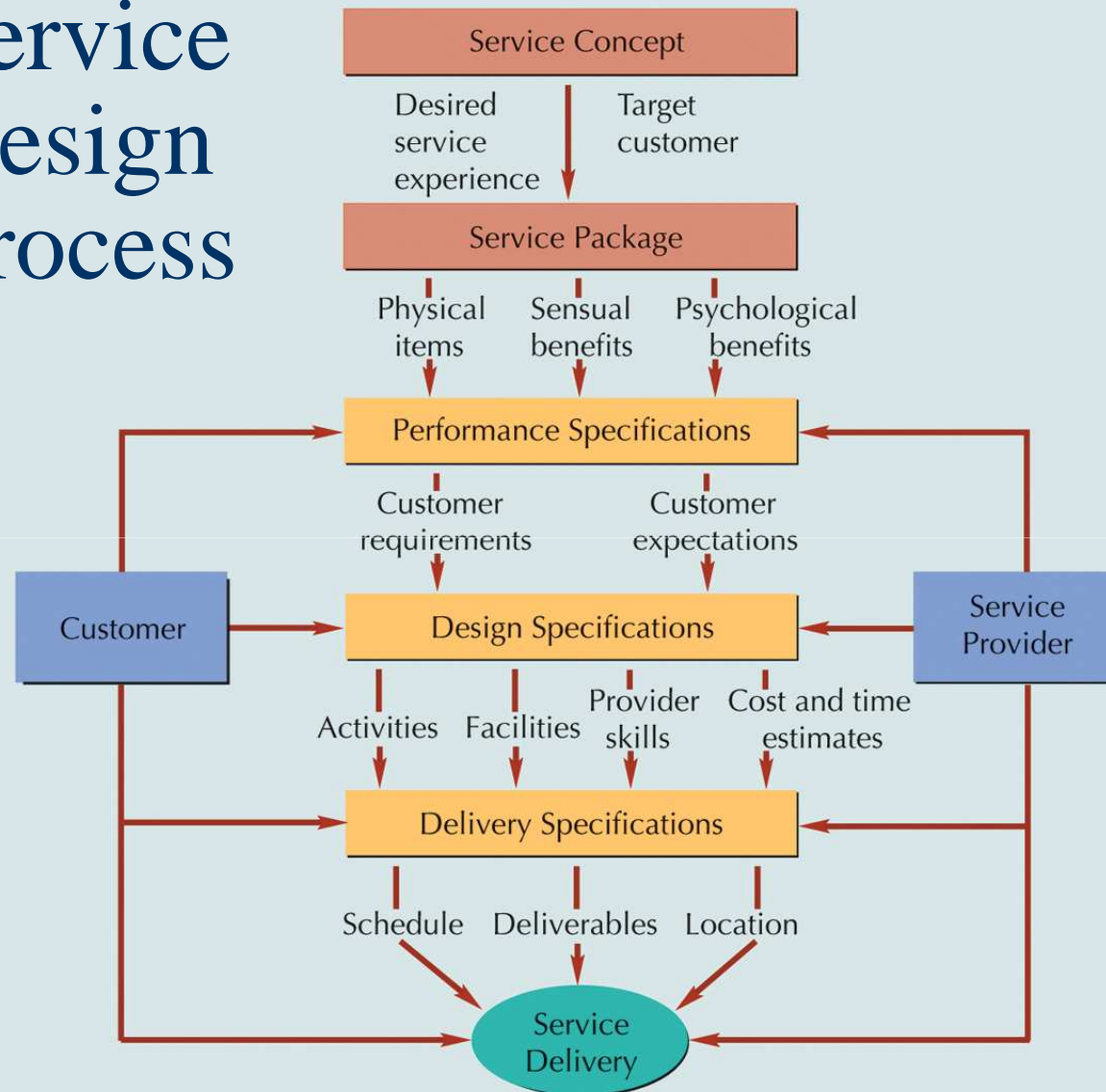


Source: Adapted from Earl W. Sasser, R.P. Olsen, and D. Daryl Wyckoff, *Management of Service Operations* (Boston: Allyn Bacon, 1978), p.11.

Characteristics of Services (cont.)

- ◆ Services are intangible
- ◆ Service output is variable
- ◆ Services have higher customer contact
- ◆ Services are perishable
- ◆ Service inseparable from delivery
- ◆ Services tend to be decentralized and dispersed
- ◆ Services are consumed more often than products
- ◆ Services can be easily emulated

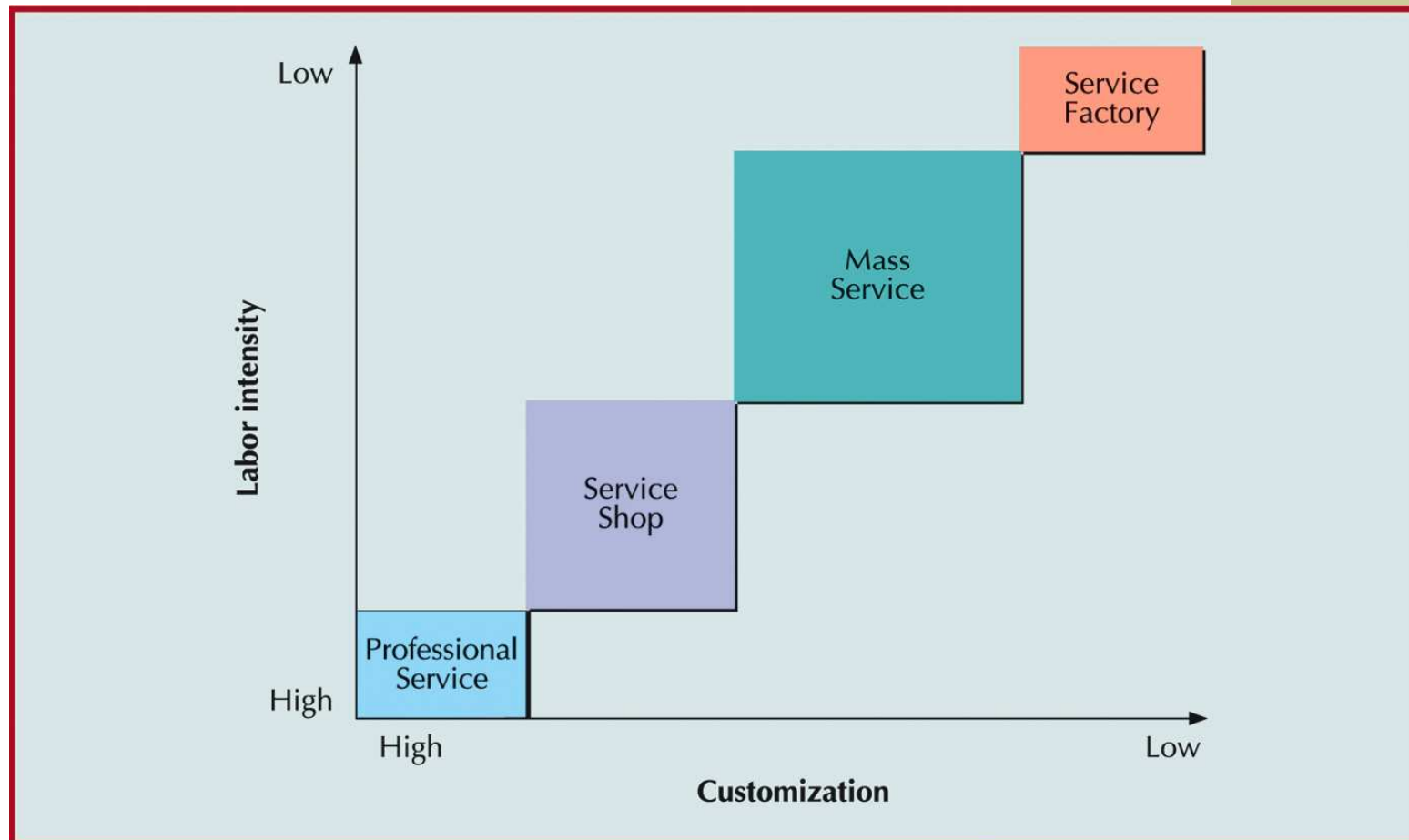
Service Design Process



Service Design Process (cont.)

- ◆ Service concept
 - purpose of a service; it defines target market and customer experience
- ◆ Service package
 - mixture of physical items, sensual benefits, and psychological benefits
- ◆ Service specifications
 - performance specifications
 - design specifications
 - delivery specifications

Service Process Matrix



High v. Low Contact Services

Design Decision	High-Contact Service	Low-Contact Service
◆ Facility location	◆ Convenient to customer	Near labor or transportation source
Facility layout	Must look presentable, accommodate customer needs, and facilitate interaction with customer	Designed for efficiency

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

High v. Low Contact Services (cont.)

Design Decision	High-Contact Service	Low-Contact Service
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Quality control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ More variable since customer is involved in process; customer expectations and perceptions of quality may differ; customer present when defects occur 	<p>Measured against established standards; testing and rework possible to correct defects</p>
<p>Capacity</p>	<p>Excess capacity required to handle peaks in demand</p>	<p>Planned for average demand</p>

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

High v. Low Contact Services (cont.)

Design Decision	High-Contact Service	Low-Contact Service
♦ Worker skills	♦ Must be able to interact well with customers and use judgment in decision making	Technical skills
Scheduling	Must accommodate customer schedule	Customer concerned only with completion date

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

High v. Low Contact Services (cont.)

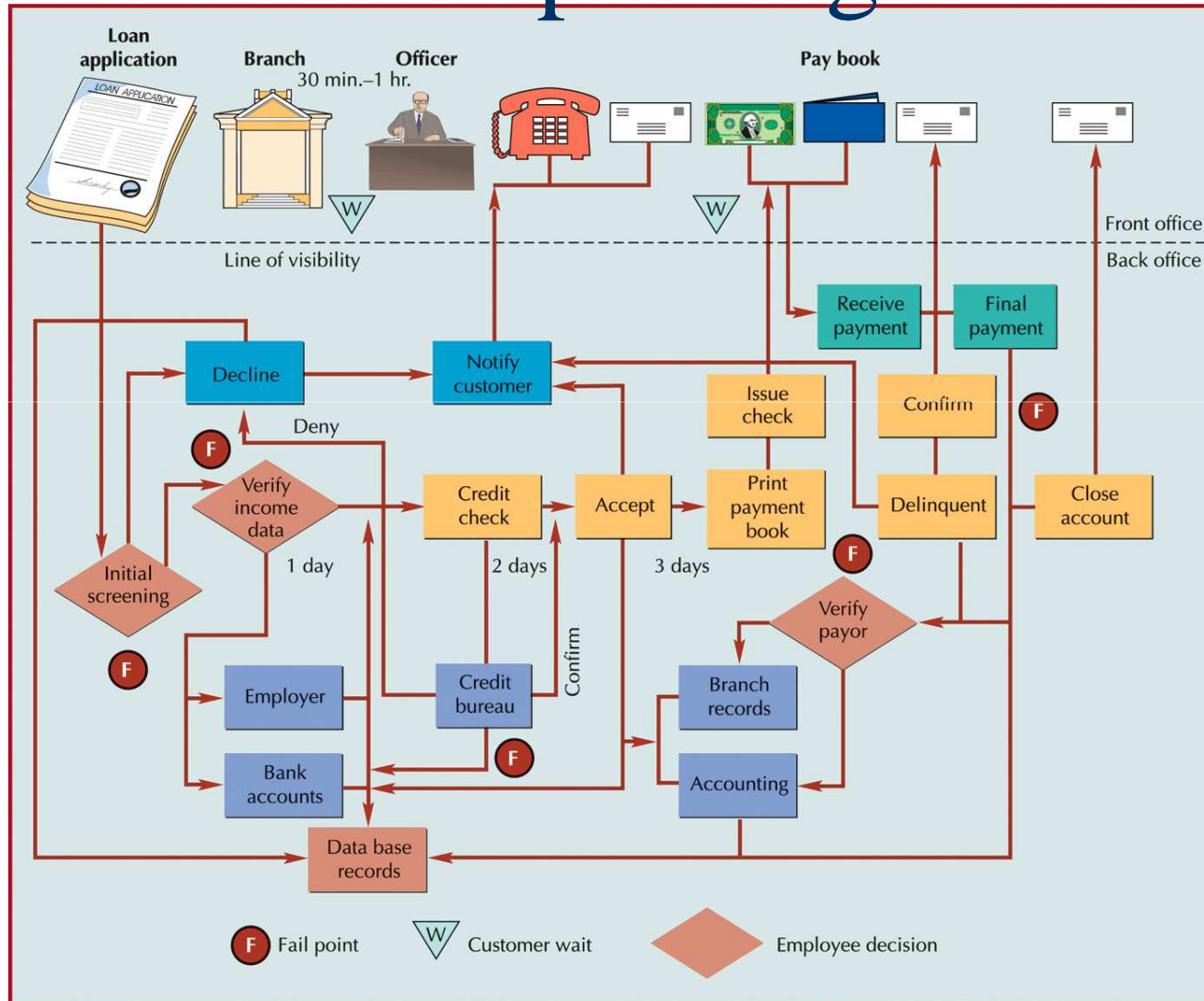
Design Decision	High-Contact Service	Low-Contact Service
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Service process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mostly front-room activities; service may change during delivery in response to customer 	Mostly back-room activities; planned and executed with minimal interference
Service package	Varies with customer; includes environment as well as actual service	Fixed, less extensive

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

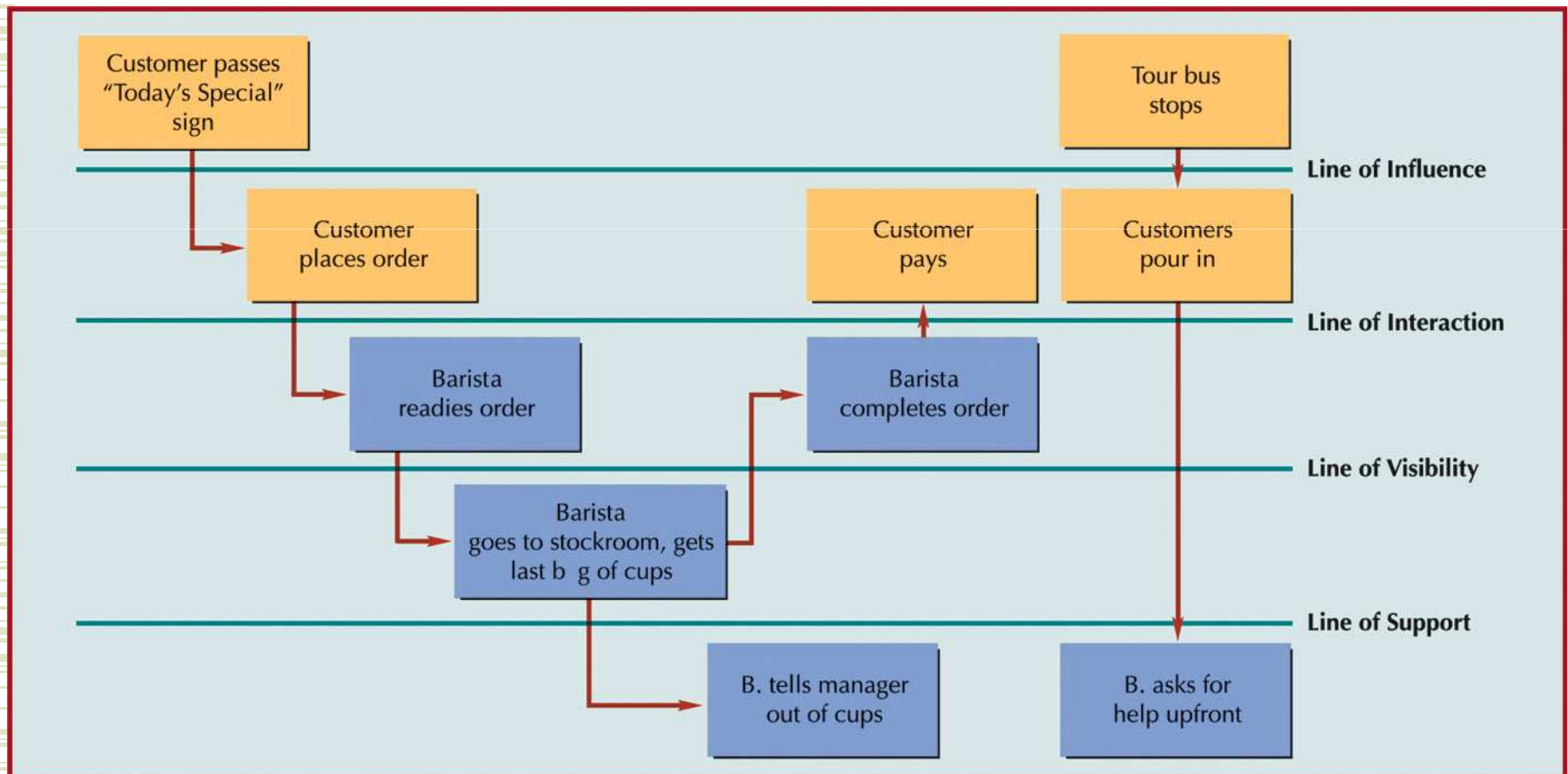
Tools for Service Design

- ◆ Service blueprinting
 - line of influence
 - line of interaction
 - line of visibility
 - line of support
- ◆ Front-office/Back-office activities
- ◆ Servicescapes
 - space and function
 - ambient conditions
 - signs, symbols, and artifacts
- ◆ Quantitative techniques

Service Blueprinting



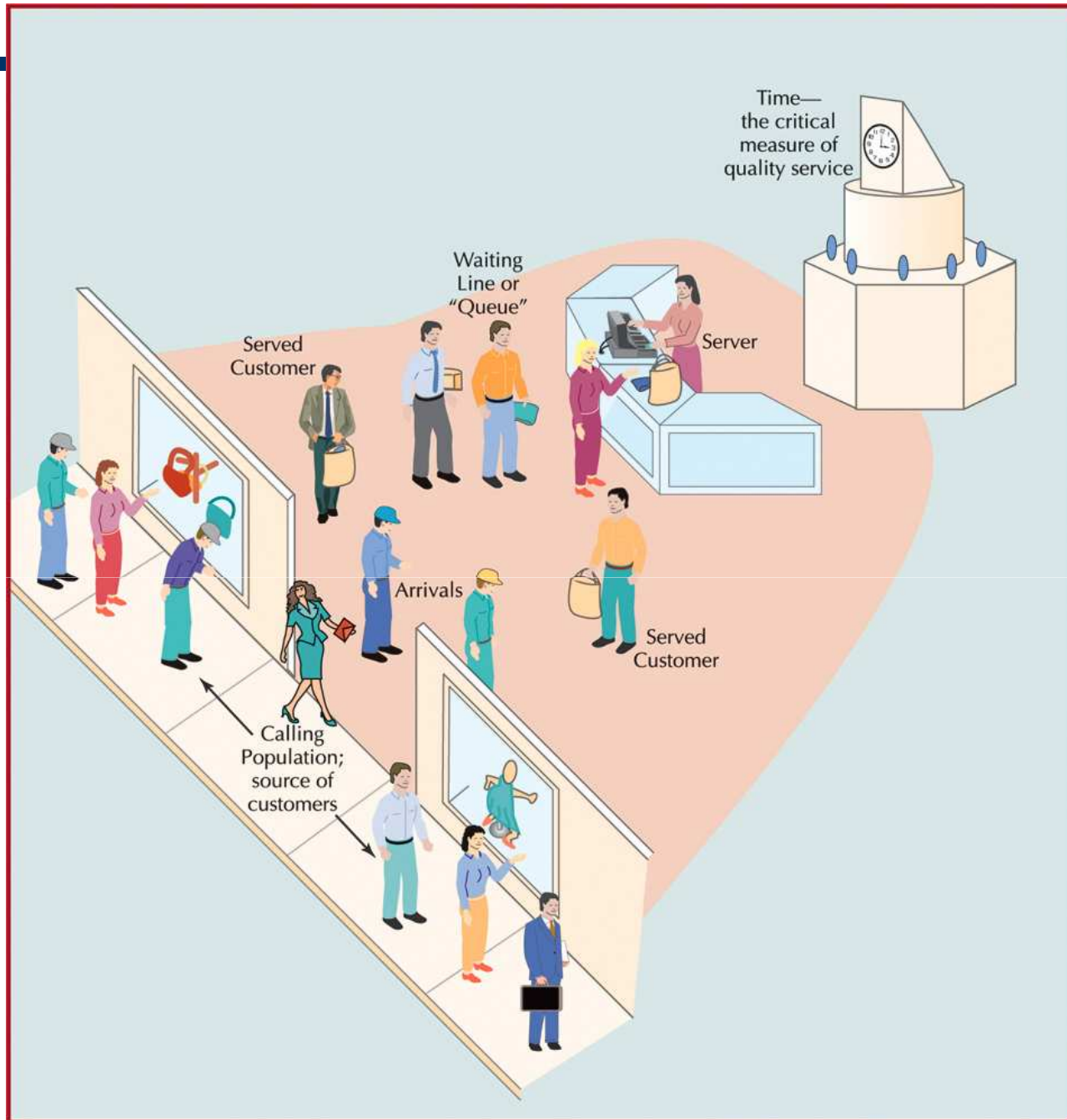
Service Blueprinting (Con't)





Elements of Waiting Line Analysis

- ◆ Operating characteristics
 - average values for characteristics that describe performance of waiting line system
- ◆ Queue
 - a single waiting line
- ◆ Waiting line system
 - consists of arrivals, servers, and waiting line structure
- ◆ Calling population
 - source of customers; infinite or finite



Elements of Waiting Line Analysis (cont.)

- ◆ Arrival rate (λ)
 - frequency at which customers arrive at a waiting line according to a probability distribution, usually Poisson
- ◆ Service time (μ)
 - time required to serve a customer, usually described by negative exponential distribution
- ◆ Service rate must be shorter than arrival rate ($\lambda < \mu$)
- ◆ Queue discipline
 - order in which customers are served
- ◆ Infinite queue
 - can be of any length; length of a **finite** queue is limited

Elements of Waiting Line Analysis (cont.)



(b) Multiple-server waiting line



(a) Single-server waiting line

- ◆ Channels
 - number of parallel servers for servicing customers
- ◆ Phases
 - number of servers in sequence a customer must go through

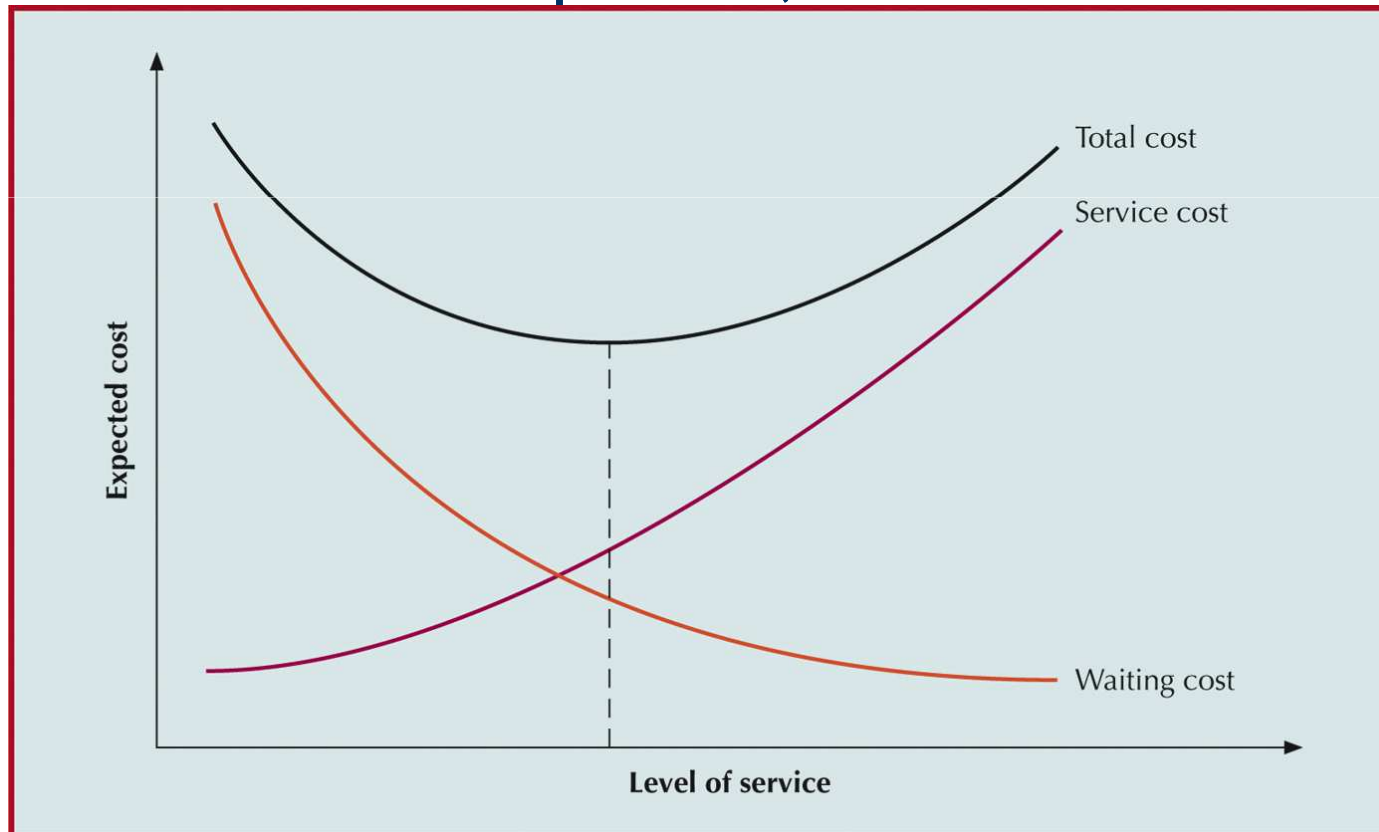
Operating Characteristics

- ◆ *Operating characteristics* are assumed to approach a *steady state*

Notation	Operating Characteristic
L	Average number of customers in the system (waiting and being served)
L_q	Average number of customers in the waiting line
W	Average time a customer spends in the system (waiting and being served)
W_q	Average time a customer spends waiting in line
P_0	Probability of no (i.e., zero) customers in the system
P_n	Probability of n customers in the system
ρ	Utilization rate; the proportion of time the system is in use

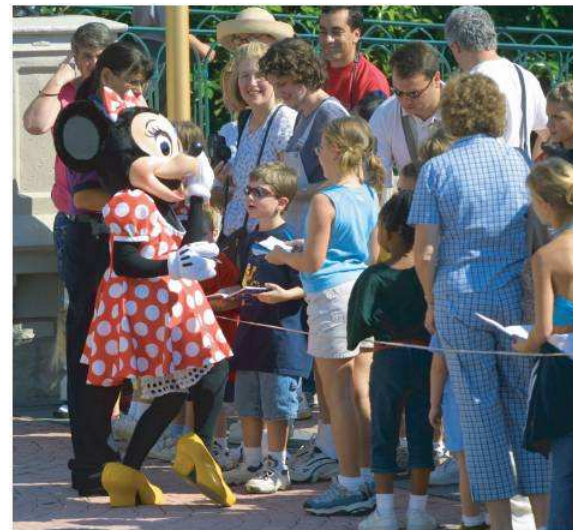
Traditional Cost Relationships

- ◆ as service improves, cost increases



Psychology of Waiting

- ◆ Waiting rooms
 - magazines and newspapers
 - televisions
- ◆ Bank of America
 - mirrors
- ◆ Supermarkets
 - magazines
 - “impulse purchases”
- ◆ Disney
 - costumed characters
 - mobile vendors
 - accurate wait times
 - special passes



Psychology of Waiting (cont.)

- ◆ Preferential treatment
 - Grocery stores: express lanes for customers with few purchases
 - Airlines/Car rental agencies: special cards available to frequent-users or for an additional fee
 - Phone retailers: route calls to more or less experienced salespeople based on customer's sales history
- ◆ Critical service providers
 - services of police department, fire department, etc.
 - waiting is unacceptable; cost is not important

Waiting Line Models

- ◆ *Single-server* model
 - simplest, most basic waiting line structure
- ◆ Frequent variations (all with Poisson arrival rate)
 - exponential service times
 - general (unknown) distribution of service times
 - constant service times
 - exponential service times with finite queue
 - exponential service times with finite calling population

Basic Single-Server Model

◆ Assumptions

- Poisson arrival rate
- exponential service times
- first-come, first-served queue discipline
- infinite queue length
- infinite calling population

◆ Computations

- λ = mean arrival rate
- μ = mean service rate
- n = number of customers in line

Basic Single-Server Model (cont.)

- probability that no customers are in queuing system

$$P_0 = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)$$

- average number of customers in queuing system

$$L = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - \lambda}$$

- probability of n customers in queuing system

$$P_n = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n \cdot P_0 = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)$$

- average number of customers in waiting line

$$L_q = \frac{\lambda^2}{\mu (\mu - \lambda)}$$

Basic Single-Server Model (cont.)

- ♦ average time customer spends in queuing system

$$W = \frac{1}{\mu - \lambda} = \frac{L}{\lambda}$$

- ♦ average time customer spends waiting in line

$$\frac{W_q}{\mu} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)}$$

- ♦ probability that server is busy and a customer has to wait (utilization factor)

$$\rho = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$$

- ♦ probability that server is idle and customer can be served

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 1 - \rho \\ &= 1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu} = P_0 \end{aligned}$$

Basic Single-Server Model Example

$$P_0 = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{24}{30}\right)$$

= 0.20 probability of no customers in the system

$$L = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - \lambda} = \frac{24}{30 - 24}$$

= 4 customers on the average in the queuing system

$$L_q = \frac{\lambda^2}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)} = \frac{(24)^2}{30(30 - 24)}$$

= 3.2 customers on the average in the waiting line

Basic Single-Server Model Example (cont.)

$$W = \frac{1}{\mu - \lambda} = \frac{1}{30 - 24}$$

= 0.167 hour (10 minutes) average time in the system per customer

$$W_q = \frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)} = \frac{24}{30(30 - 24)}$$

= 0.133 hour (8 minutes) average time in the waiting line per customer

$$\rho = \frac{\lambda}{\mu} = \frac{24}{30}$$

= 0.80 probability that the server will be busy and the customer must wait

$$I = 1 - \rho = 1 - 0.80$$

= 0.20 probability that the server will be idle and a customer can be served

Service Improvement Analysis

- ◆ waiting time (8 min.) is too long
 - hire assistant for cashier?
 - increased service rate
 - hire another cashier?
 - reduced arrival rate
- ◆ Is improved service worth the cost?

Basic Single-Server Model

Example: Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 5.1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

D9 $=D4^2/(D5*(D5-D4))$

	A	B	C	D	E
1	A Single-Server Model				
2	Example 5.1				
3	<i>Input:</i>				
4	Arrival rate =			24	per hour
5	Service rate =			30	per hour
6					
7	<i>Output:</i>				
8	Average number in the system (L) =			4.00	
9	Average number in the queue (L_q) =			3.20	
10	Average time in the system (W) =			10.00	minutes
11	Average time in the queue (W_q) =			8.00	minutes
12	Utilization factor (U) =			0.800	
13	P(0) =			0.200	
14					
15	No. in the system, n =			5	
16	P(n) =			0.066	

Formula for L_q

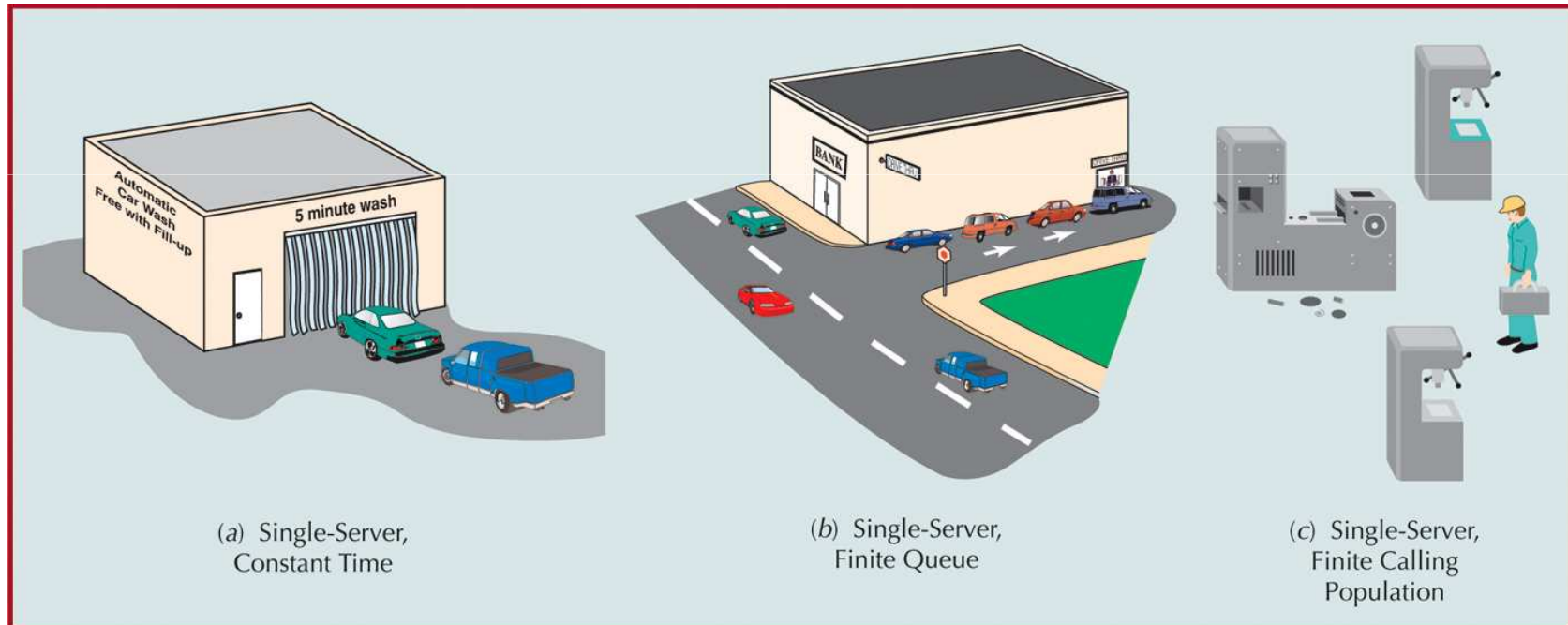
$= (1 / (D4 - D3)) * 60$

$= (D3 / (D4 * (D4 - D3))) * 60$

Advanced Single-Server Models

- ◆ Constant service times
 - occur most often when automated equipment or machinery performs service
- ◆ Finite queue lengths
 - occur when there is a physical limitation to length of waiting line
- ◆ Finite calling population
 - number of “customers” that can arrive is limited

Advanced Single-Server Models (cont.)



Basic Multiple-Server Model

- ◆ single waiting line and service facility with several independent servers in parallel
- ◆ same assumptions as single-server model
- ◆ $s\mu > \lambda$
 - s = number of servers
 - servers must be able to serve customers faster than they arrive

Basic Multiple-Server Model (cont.)

- probability that there are n customers in system

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{s-1} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} + \frac{\lambda^s}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{s\mu - \lambda} \right)}$$

- probability of n customers in system

$$P_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{s! s^{n-s}} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n P_0, & \text{for } n > s \\ \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n P_0, & \text{for } n \leq s \end{cases}$$

Basic Multiple-Server Model (cont.)

- probability that customer must wait

$$P_w = \frac{1}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \frac{s\mu}{s\mu - \lambda} P_0$$

$$L_q = L - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$$

$$L = \frac{\lambda\mu (\lambda/\mu)^s}{(s-1)! (s\mu - \lambda)^2} P_0 + \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$$

$$W_q = W - \frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{L_q}{\lambda}$$

$$\frac{L}{\lambda} = W$$

$$\frac{\lambda}{s\mu} \rho = P_w$$

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example

$\lambda = 10$ students per hour

$\mu = 4$ students per hour per service representative

$s = 3$ service representatives

$s\mu = (3)(4) = 12$ ($> \lambda = 10$)

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} P_0 &= \frac{1}{\left[\sum_{n=0}^{n-s-1} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n \right] + \frac{1}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \left(\frac{s\mu}{s\mu - \lambda} \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\left[\frac{0!}{0!} \left(\frac{10}{4} \right)^0 + \frac{1}{1!} \left(\frac{10}{4} \right)^1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(\frac{10}{4} \right)^2 \right] + \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{10}{4} \right)^3 \frac{3(4)}{3(4) - 10}} \\ &= 0.045 \text{ probability that no customers are in the health service.} \end{aligned}$$

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}L &= \frac{\lambda\mu(\lambda/\mu)^s}{(s-1)!(s\mu-\lambda)^2}P_0 + \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \\ &= \frac{(10)(4)(10/4)^3}{(3-1)![3(4)-10]^2}(0.045) + \frac{10}{4} \\ &= 6 \text{ students in the health service} \\ W &= \frac{L}{\lambda} \\ &= \frac{6}{10} \\ &= 0.60 \text{ hour or 36 minutes in the health service}\end{aligned}$$

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}L_e &= L - \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \\ &= 6 - \frac{10}{4} \\ &= 3.5 \text{ students waiting to be served}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}W_q &= \frac{L_q}{\lambda} \\ &= \frac{3.5}{10} \\ &= 0.35 \text{ hour or 21 minutes waiting in line}\end{aligned}$$

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example (cont.)

$$P_w = \frac{1}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \frac{s\mu}{s\mu - \lambda} P_0$$
$$= \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{10}{4} \right)^3 \frac{3(4)}{3(4) - (10)} (0.045)$$

= 0.703 probability that a student must wait for service
(i.e., that there are three or more students in the system)

Basic Multiple-Server Model Example (cont.)

- ◆ To cut wait time, add another service representative
 - now, $s = 4$
- ◆ Therefore:

$P_0 = 0.073$ probability that no students are in the health service

$L = 3.0$ students in the health service

$W = 0.30$ hour, or 18 minutes, in the health service

$L_q = 0.5$ students waiting to be served

$W_q = 0.05$ hour, or 3 minutes, waiting in line

$P_w = 0.31$ probability that a student must wait for service

Multiple-Server Waiting Line in Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 5.3

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help Adobe PDF

D9 $f_x = (1)/(VLOOKUP(D6,G18:H36,2)+((1/FACT(D6))*((D4/D5)^D6))*((D6)*(D5))/(((D6)*(D5))-(D4)))$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1	A Multiple-Server Waiting Line System										
2											
3	<i>Input:</i>										
4		Arrival rate =	10	per hour	Input the arrival rate, service rate, and number of servers.						
5		Service rate =	4	per hour							
6		No. of servers, s =	3								
7											
8	<i>Output:</i>										
9		P_0 =	0.045								
10		P_w =	0.702								
11		Average number in the system (L) =	6.01								
12		Average number in the queue (Lq) =	3.51								
13		Average time in the system (W) =	36.07	minutes							
14		Average time in the queue (Wq) =	21.07	minutes							
15											
16											
17	<i>Multiple-Server Model</i>										
18											
19	$P_0 = \frac{1}{\left[\sum_{n=0}^{s-1} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n \right] + \frac{1}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \left(\frac{s\mu}{s\mu - \lambda} \right)}$										
20											
21											
22											
23											
24	$P_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{s!n^{s-n}} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n P_0, & \text{for } n > s \\ \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n P_0, & \text{for } n \leq s \end{cases}$										
25											
26											
27											
28											
29	$P_w = \frac{1}{s!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \frac{s\mu}{s\mu - \lambda} P_0$										
30											
31	$L = \frac{\lambda\mu(\lambda/\mu)^s}{(s-1)!(s\mu - \lambda)^2} P_0 + \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$										
32											
33											
34	$W = \frac{L}{\lambda}$										
35											
36	$L_q = L - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$										
37											

n	Summation
1	1.0000
2	3.5000
3	6.6250
4	9.2292
5	10.8568
6	11.6706
7	12.0097
8	12.1308
9	12.1686
10	12.1791
11	12.1817
12	12.1823
13	12.1825
14	12.1825
15	12.1825
16	12.1825
17	12.1825
18	12.1825
19	12.1825
20	12.1825



Chapter 6

Processes and Technology

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Process Planning
- ◆ Process Analysis
- ◆ Process Innovation
- ◆ Technology Decisions



Process Planning

- ◆ Process
 - a group of related tasks with specific inputs and outputs
- ◆ Process design
 - what tasks need to be done and how they are coordinated among functions, people, and organizations
- ◆ Process strategy
 - an organization's overall approach for physically producing goods and services
- ◆ Process planning
 - converts designs into workable instructions for manufacture or delivery

Process Strategy

- ◆ Vertical integration
 - extent to which firm will produce inputs and control outputs of each stage of production process
- ◆ Capital intensity
 - mix of capital (i.e., equipment, automation) and labor resources used in production process
- ◆ Process flexibility
 - ease with which resources can be adjusted in response to changes in demand, technology, products or services, and resource availability
- ◆ Customer involvement
 - role of customer in production process



Outsourcing

- ◆ Cost
- ◆ Capacity
- ◆ Quality
- ◆ Speed
- ◆ Reliability
- ◆ Expertise



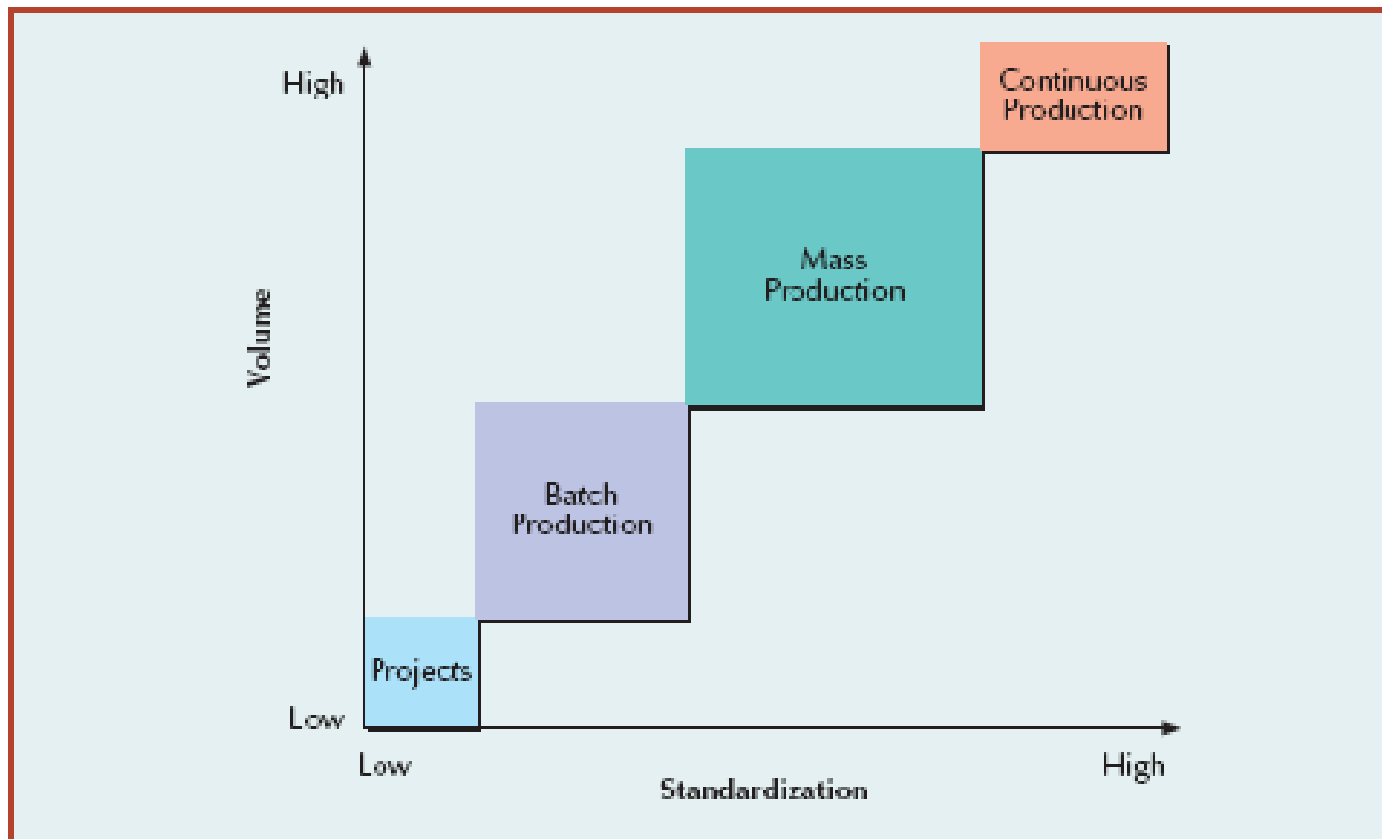
Process Selection

- ◆ Projects
 - one-of-a-kind production of a product to customer order
- ◆ Batch production
 - processes many different jobs at the same time in groups or batches
- ◆ Mass production
 - produces large volumes of a standard product for a mass market
- ◆ Continuous production
 - used for very-high volume commodity products

Sourcing Continuum



Product-Process Matrix



Source: Adapted from Robert Hayes and Steven Wheelwright, *Restoring the Competitive Edge Competing through Manufacturing* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1984), p. 209.

Types of Processes

	PROJECT	BATCH	MASS	CONT.
Type of product	Unique	Made-to-order (customized)	Made-to-stock (standardized)	Commodity
Type of customer	One-at-a-time	Few individual customers	Mass market	Mass market
Product demand	Infrequent	Fluctuates	Stable	Very stable

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

Types of Processes (cont.)

	PROJECT	BATCH	MASS	CONT.
Demand volume	Very low	Low to medium	High	Very high
No. of different products	Infinite variety	Many, varied	Few	Very few
Production system	Long-term project	Discrete, job shops	Repetitive, assembly lines	Continuous, process industries

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

Types of Processes (cont.)

	PROJECT	BATCH	MASS	CONT.
Equipment	Varied	General-purpose	Special-purpose	Highly automated
Primary type of work	Specialized contracts	Fabrication	Assembly	Mixing, treating, refining
Worker skills	Experts, crafts-persons	Wide range of skills	Limited range of skills	Equipment monitors

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

Types of Processes (cont.)

	PROJECT	BATCH	MASS	CONT.
Advantages	Custom work, latest technology	Flexibility, quality	Efficiency, speed, low cost	Highly efficient, large capacity, ease of control
Dis-advantages	Non-repetitive, small customer base, expensive	Costly, slow, difficult to manage	Capital investment; lack of responsiveness	Difficult to change, far-reaching errors, limited variety
Examples	Construction, shipbuilding, spacecraft	Machine shops, print shops, bakeries, education	Automobiles, televisions, computers, fast food	Paint, chemicals, foodstuffs

Source: Adapted from R. Chase, N. Aquilano, and R. Jacobs, *Operations Management for Competitive Advantage* (New York:McGraw-Hill, 2001), p. 210

Process Selection with Break-Even Analysis

- ◆ examines cost trade-offs associated with demand volume
- ◆ Cost
 - Fixed costs
 - constant regardless of the number of units produced
 - Variable costs
 - vary with the volume of units produced
- ◆ Revenue
 - price at which an item is sold
- ◆ Total revenue
 - is price times volume sold
- ◆ Profit
 - difference between total revenue and total cost

Process Selection with Break-Even Analysis (cont.)

Total cost = fixed cost + total variable cost

$$TC = c_f + vc_v$$

Total revenue = volume x price

$$TR = vp$$

Profit = total revenue - total cost

$$Z = TR - TC = vp - (c_f + vc_v)$$

Process Selection with Break-Even Analysis (cont.)

$$TR = TC$$

$$vp = C_f + vC_v$$

$$vp - vC_v = C_f$$

$$v(p - c_v) = C_f$$

$$v = \frac{C_f}{p - c_v}$$

Solving for Break-Even Point (Volume)

Break-Even Analysis: Example

Fixed cost = $c_f = \$2,000$

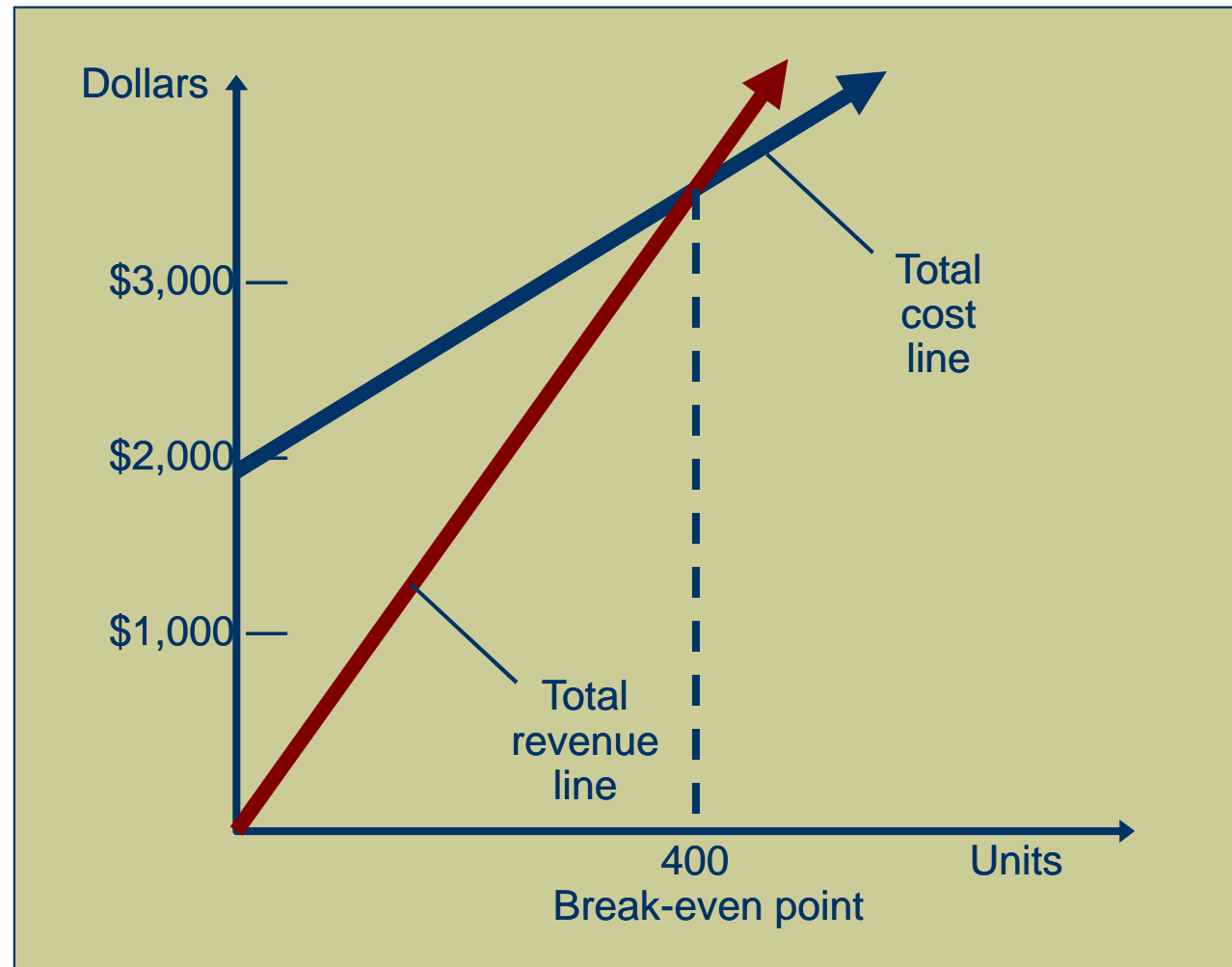
Variable cost = $c_v = \$5$ per raft

Price = $p = \$10$ per raft

Break-even point is

$$V = \frac{c_f}{p - c_v} = \frac{2000}{10 - 5} = 400 \text{ rafts}$$

Break-Even Analysis: Graph





Process Plans

- ◆ Set of documents that detail manufacturing and service delivery specifications
 - assembly charts
 - operations sheets
 - quality-control check-sheets

Process Selection

Process A *Process B*

$$\$2,000 + \$5v = \$10,000 + \$3v$$

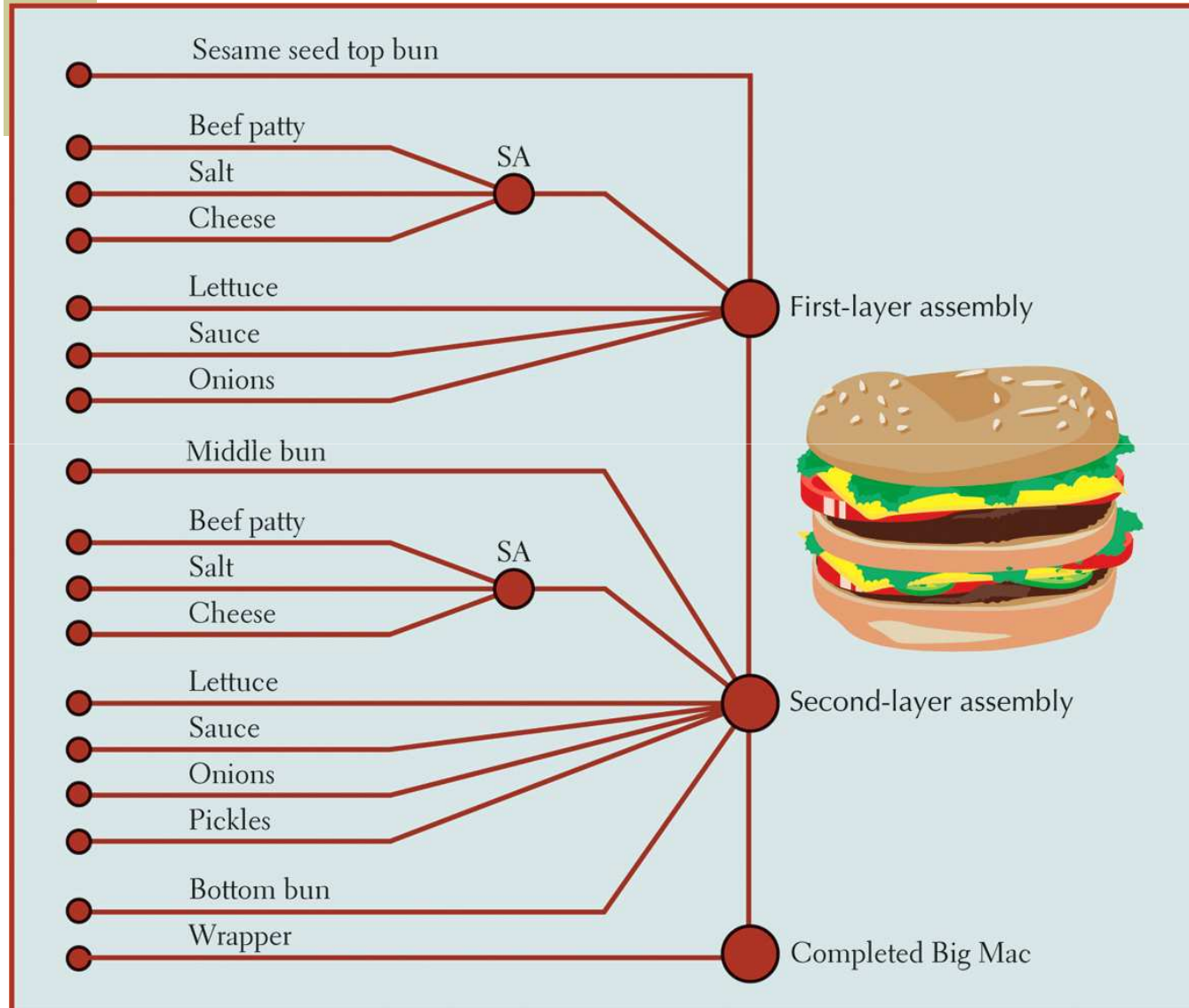
$$\$2v = \$8,000$$

$$v = 4,000 \text{ rafts}$$

Below or equal to 4,000, choose A

Above or equal to 4,000, choose B

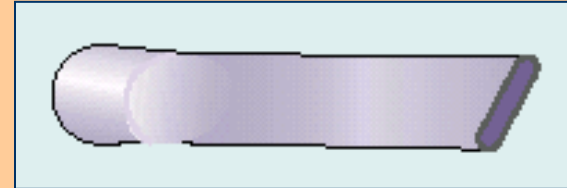
Process Analysis



- systematic examination of all aspects of process to improve operation

An Operations Sheet for a Plastic Part

Part name Crevice Tool
 Part No. 52074
 Usage Hand-Vac
 Assembly No. 520



<i>Oper. No.</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Dept.</i>	<i>Machine/Tools</i>	<i>Time</i>
10	Pour in plastic bits	041	Injection molding	2 min
20	Insert mold	041	#076	2 min
30	Check settings & start machine	041	113, 67, 650	20 min
40	Collect parts & lay flat	051	Plastics finishing	10 min
50	Remove & clean mold	042	Parts washer	15 min
60	Break off rough edges	051	Plastics finishing	10 min

Process Analysis

- ◆ Building a flowchart
 - Determine objectives
 - Define process boundaries
 - Define units of flow
 - Choose type of chart
 - Observe process and collect data
 - Map out process
 - Validate chart



Process Flowcharts

- ◆ look at manufacture of product or delivery of service from broad perspective
- ◆ Incorporate
 - nonproductive activities (inspection, transportation, delay, storage)
 - productive activities (operations)

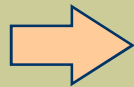
Process Flowchart Symbols



Operations



Inspection



Transportation



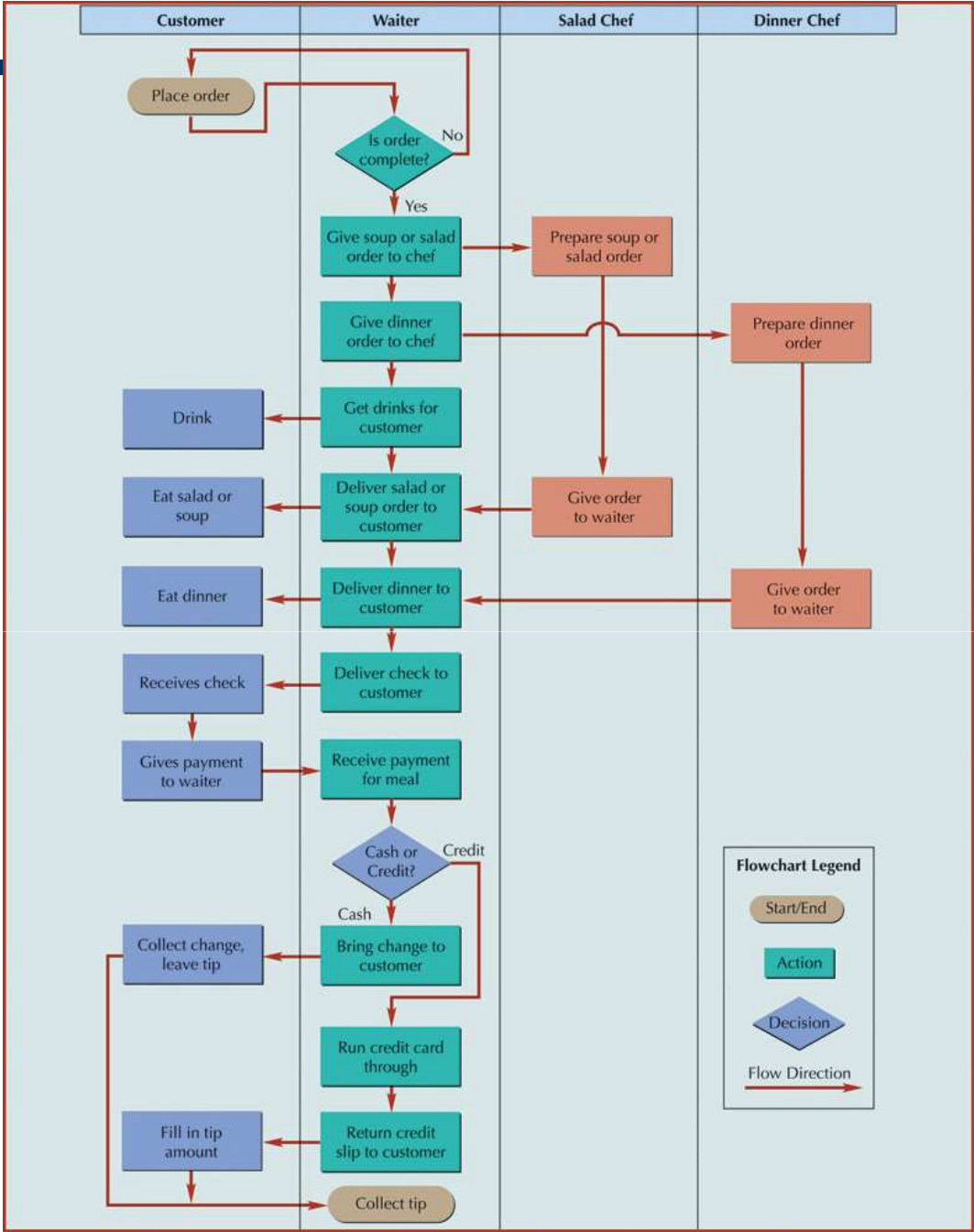
Delay



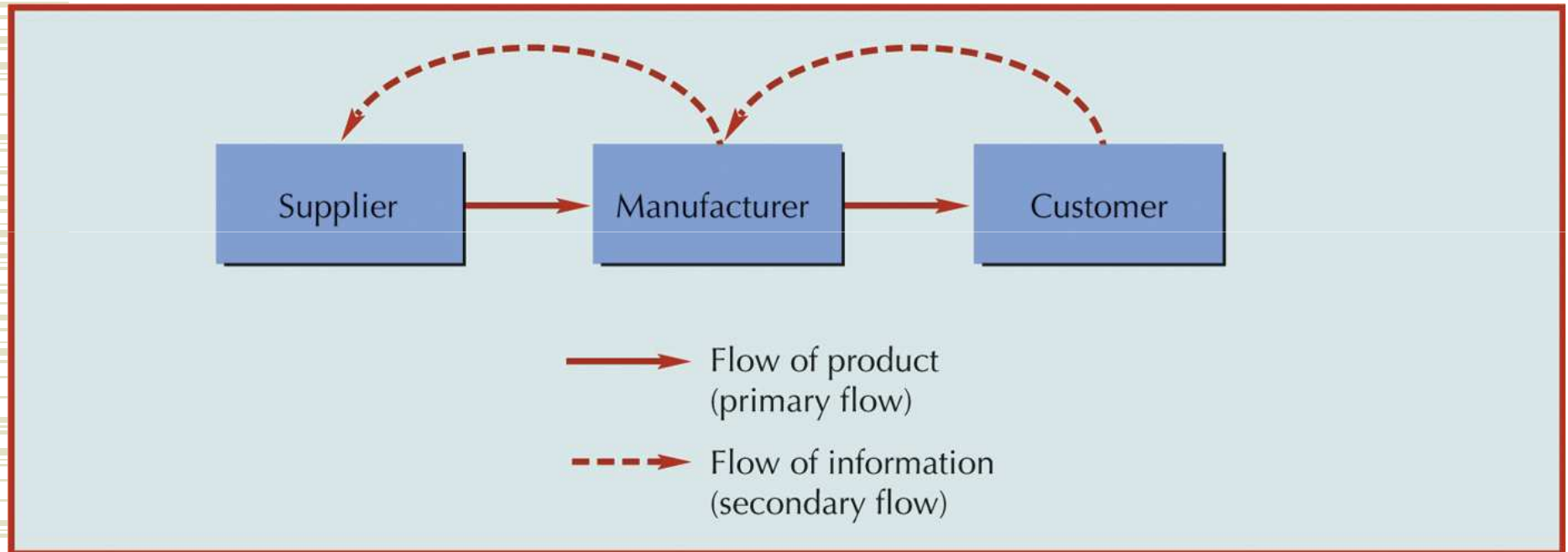
Storage

Process Flowchart of Apple Processing

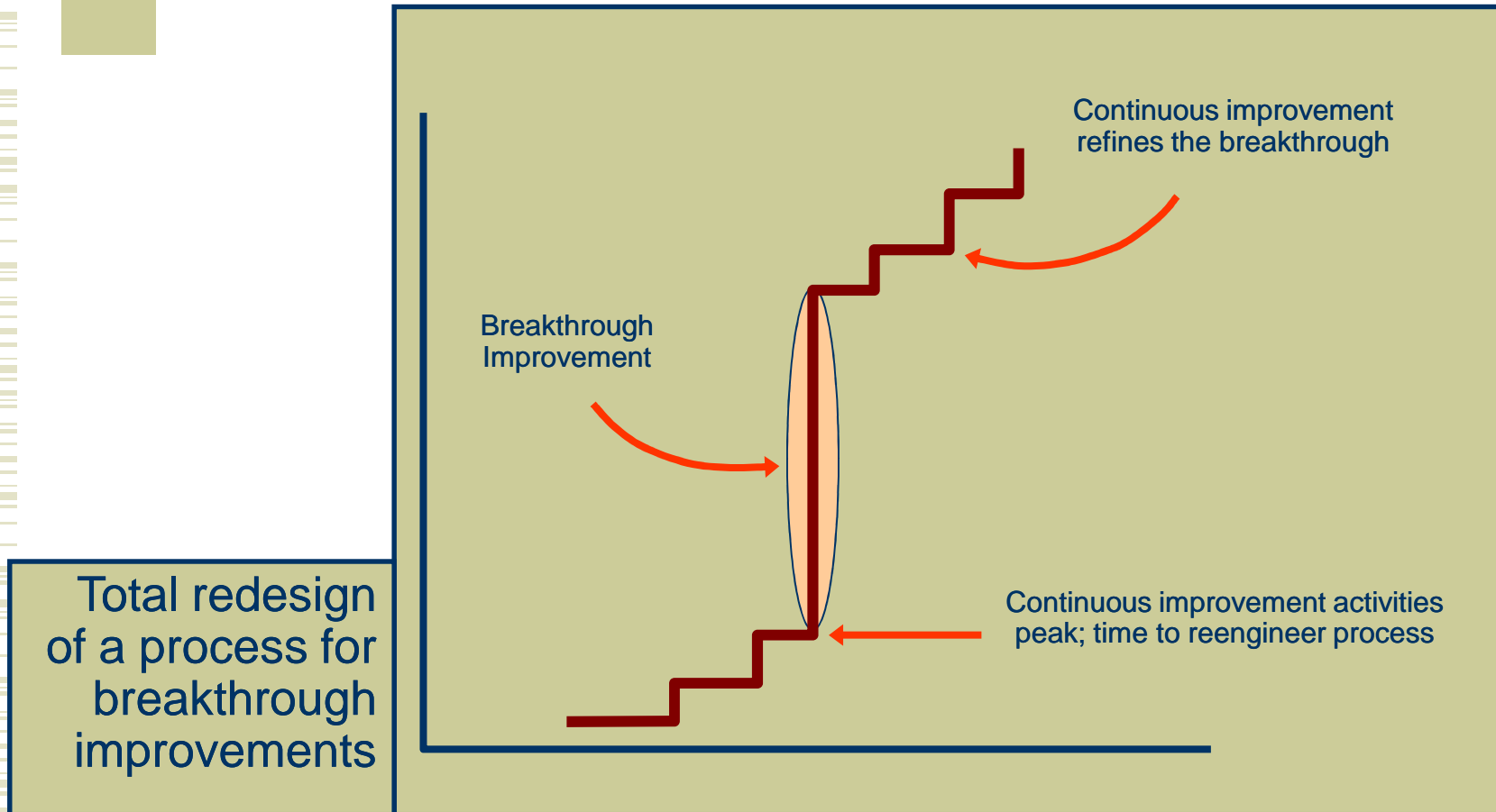
Date: 9-30-06		Location: Graves Mountain		
Analyst: TLR		Process: Applesauce		
Step	Operation Transport Inspect Delay Storage	Description of process	Time (min)	Distance (feet)
1	● → □ D ▽	Unload apples from truck	20	
2	○ → □ D ▽	Move to inspection station		100 ft
3	○ → ■ D ▽	Weigh, inspect, sort	30	
4	○ → □ D ▽	Move to storage		50 ft
5	○ → □ D ▽	Wait until needed	360	
6	○ → □ D ▽	Move to peeler		20 ft
7	● → □ D ▽	Peel and core apples	15	
8	○ → □ D ▽	Soak in water until needed	20	
9	● → □ D ▽	Place on conveyor	5	
10	○ → □ D ▽	Move to mixing area		20 ft
Page 1 of 3		Total	450	190 ft



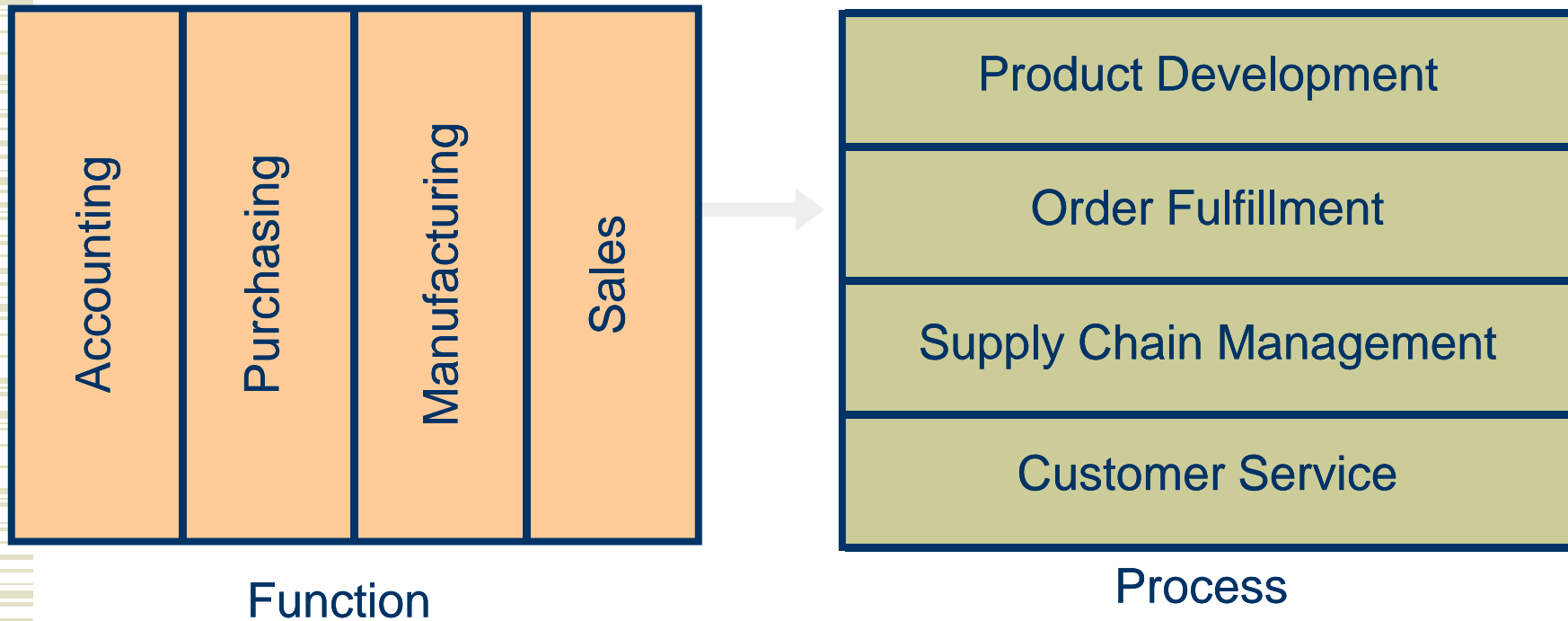
Simple Value Chain Flowchart



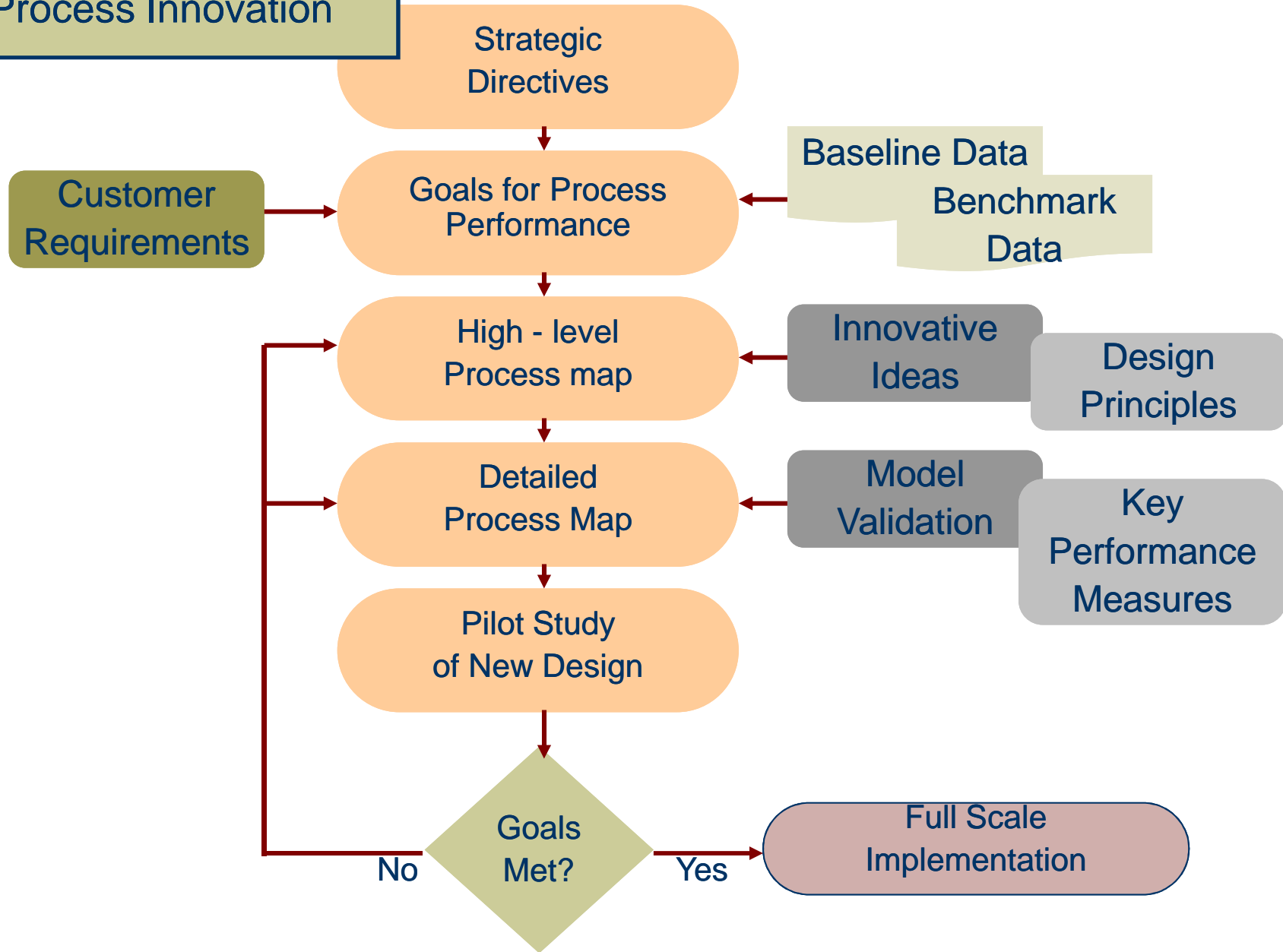
Process Innovation



From Function to Process

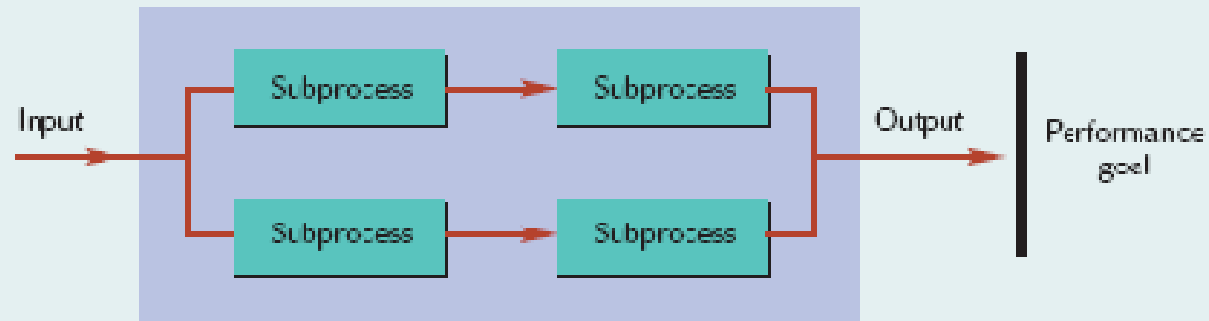


Process Innovation

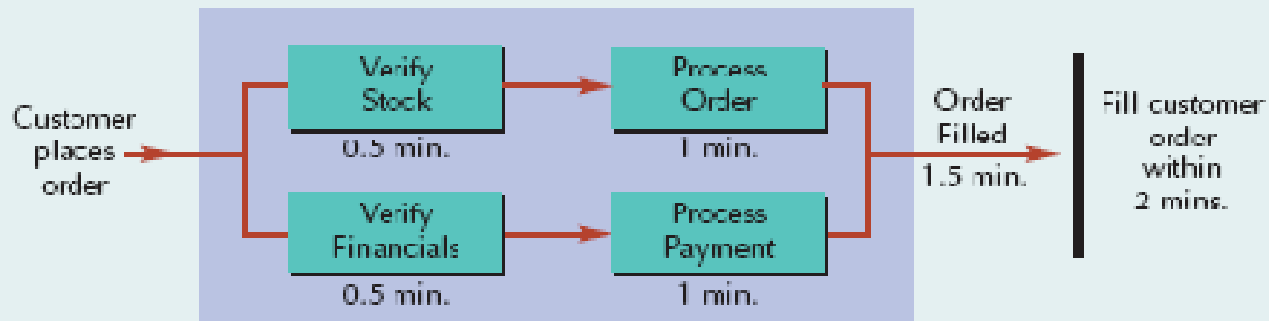


High-Level Process Map

(a) Generic



(b) Online Order Processing





Principles for Redesigning Processes

- ◆ Remove waste, simplify, and consolidate similar activities
- ◆ Link processes to create value
- ◆ Let the swiftest and most capable enterprise execute the process
- ◆ Flex process for any time, any place, any way
- ◆ Capture information digitally at the source and propagate it through process

Principles for Redesigning Processes (cont.)

- ◆ Provide visibility through fresher and richer information about process status
- ◆ Fit process with sensors and feedback loops that can prompt action
- ◆ Add analytic capabilities to process
- ◆ Connect, collect, and create knowledge around process through all who touch it
- ◆ Personalize process with preferences and habits of participants



Techniques for Generating Innovative Ideas



- ◆ Vary the entry point to a problem
 - in trying to untangle fishing lines, it's best to start from the fish, not the poles
- ◆ Draw analogies
 - a previous solution to an old problem might work
- ◆ Change your perspective
 - think like a customer
 - bring in persons who have no knowledge of process

Techniques for Generating Innovative Ideas (cont.)

- ◆ Try inverse brainstorming
 - what would *increase* cost
 - what would *displease* the customer
- ◆ Chain forward as far as possible
 - if I solve this problem, what is the next problem
- ◆ Use attribute brainstorming
 - how would this process operate if. . .
 - our workers were mobile and flexible
 - there were no monetary constraints
 - we had perfect knowledge

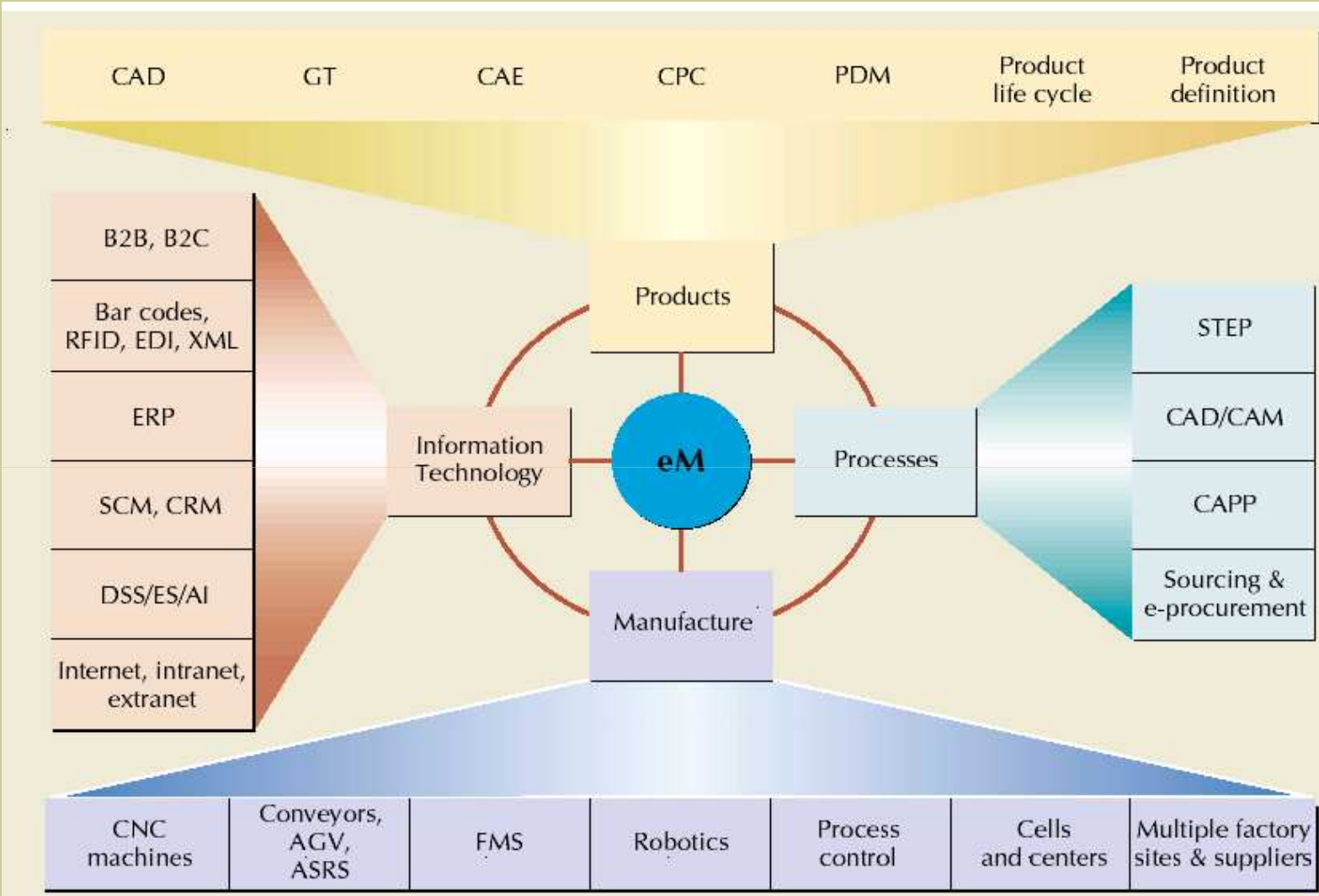


Technology Decisions



- ◆ Financial justification of technology
 - Purchase cost
 - Operating Costs
 - Annual Savings
 - Revenue Enhancement
 - Replacement Analysis
 - Risk and Uncertainty
 - Piecemeal Analysis

Components of e-Manufacturing



A Technology Primer

Product Technology

- ◆ Computer-aided design (CAD)
- ◆ Group technology (GT)
- ◆ Computer-aided engineering (CAE)
- ◆ Collaborative product commerce (CPC)
- ◆ Creates and communicates designs electronically
- ◆ Classifies designs into families for easy retrieval and modification
- ◆ Tests functionality of CAD designs electronically
- ◆ Facilitates electronic communication and exchange of information among designers and suppliers

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Product Technology

- ◆ Product data management (PDM)
- ◆ Product life cycle management (PLM)
- ◆ Product configuration
- ◆ Keeps track of design specs and revisions for the life of the product
- ◆ Integrates decisions of those involved in product development, manufacturing, sales, customer service, recycling, and disposal
- ◆ Defines products “configured” by customers who have selected among various options, usually from a Web site

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Process Technology

- ◆ Standard for exchange of product model data (STEP)
- ◆ Computer-aided design and manufacture (CAD/CAM)
- ◆ Computer aided process (CAPP)
- ◆ E-procurement
- ◆ Set standards for communication among different CAD vendors; translates CAD data into requirements for automated inspection and manufacture
- ◆ Electronic link between automated design (CAD) and automated manufacture (CAM)
- ◆ Generates process plans based on database of similar requirements
- ◆ Electronic purchasing of items from e-marketplaces, auctions, or company websites

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Manufacturing Technology

- ◆ Computer numerically control (CNC)
- ◆ Flexible manufacturing system (FMS)
- ◆ Robots
- ◆ Conveyors
- ◆ Machines controlled by software code to perform a variety of operations with the help of automated tool changers; also collects processing information and quality data
- ◆ A collection of CNC machines connected by an automated material handling system to produce a wide variety of parts
- ◆ Manipulators that can be programmed to perform repetitive tasks; more consistent than workers but less flexible
- ◆ Fixed-path material handling; moves items along a belt or overhead chain; “reads” packages and diverts them to different directions; can be very fast

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Manufacturing Technology

- ◆ Automatic guided vehicle (AGV)
- ◆ Automated storage and retrieval system (ASRS)
- ◆ Process Control
- ◆ Computer-integrated manufacturing (CIM)
- ◆ A driverless truck that moves material along a specified path; directed by wire or tape embedded in floor or by radio frequencies; very flexible
- ◆ An automated warehouse—some 26 stories high—in which items are placed in a carousel-type storage system and retrieved by fast-moving stacker cranes; controlled by computer
- ◆ Continuous monitoring of automated equipment; makes real-time decisions on ongoing operation, maintenance, and quality
- ◆ Automated manufacturing systems integrated through computer technology; also called e-manufacturing

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Information Technology

- ◆ Business – to – Business (B2B)
- ◆ Business – to – Consumer (B2C)
- ◆ Internet
- ◆ Intranet
- ◆ Extranet
- ◆ Electronic transactions between businesses usually over the Internet
- ◆ Electronic transactions between businesses and their customers usually over the Internet
- ◆ A global information system of computer networks that facilitates communication and data transfer
- ◆ Communication networks internal to an organization; can be password (i.e., firewall) protected sites on the Internet
- ◆ Intranets connected to the Internet for shared access with select suppliers, customers, and trading partners

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Information Technology

- ◆ Bar Codes
 - ◆ A series of vertical lines printed on most packages that identifies item and other information when read by a scanner
- ◆ Radio Frequency Identification tags (RFID)
 - ◆ An integrated circuit embedded in a tag that can send and receive information; a twenty-first century bar code with read/write capabilities
- ◆ Electronic data interchange (EDI)
 - ◆ A computer-to-computer exchange of business documents over a proprietary network; very expensive and inflexible
- ◆ Extensive markup language (XML)
 - ◆ A programming language that enables computer – to - computer communication over the Internet by tagging data before its is sent
- ◆ Enterprise resource planning (ERP)
 - ◆ Software for managing basic requirements of an enterprise, including sales & marketing, finance and accounting, production & materials management, and human resources

A Technology Primer (cont.)

Information Technology

- ◆ Supply chain management (SCM)
 - ◆ Customer relationship management (CRM)
 - ◆ Decision support systems (DSS)
 - ◆ Expert systems (ES)
 - ◆ Artificial intelligence (AI)
- ◆ Software for managing flow of goods and information among a network of suppliers, manufacturers and distributors
 - ◆ Software for managing interactions with customers and compiling and analyzing customer data
 - ◆ An information system that helps managers make decisions; includes a quantitative modeling component and an interactive component for what-if analysis
 - ◆ A computer system that uses an expert knowledge base to diagnose or solve a problem
 - ◆ A field of study that attempts to replicate elements of human thought in computer processes; includes expert systems, genetic algorithms, neural networks, and fuzzy logic



Chapter 7

Capacity and Facilities

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline



- ◆ Capacity Planning
- ◆ Basic Layouts
- ◆ Designing Process Layouts
- ◆ Designing Service Layouts
- ◆ Designing Product Layouts
- ◆ Hybrid Layouts

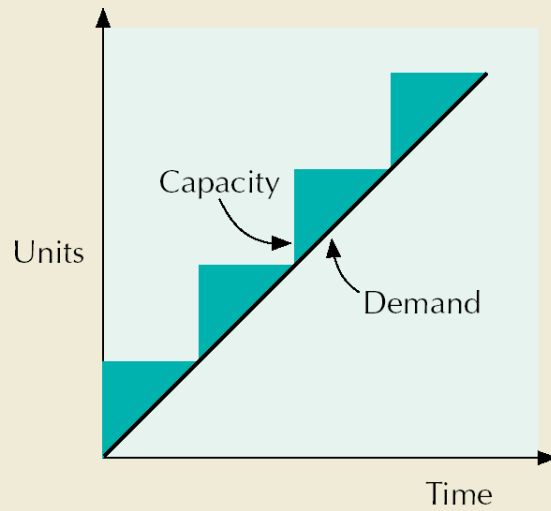


Capacity

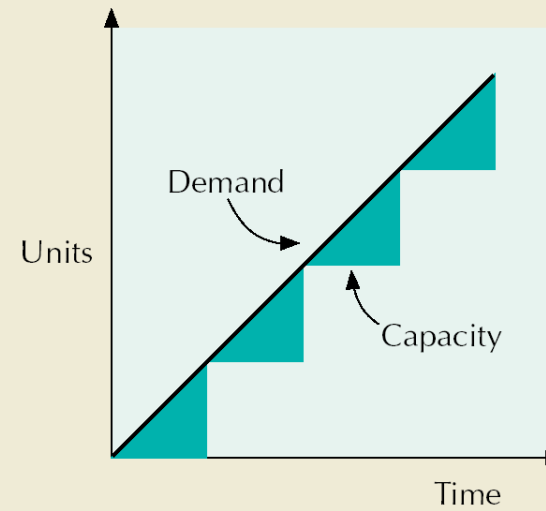
- ◆ Maximum capability to produce
- ◆ Capacity planning
 - establishes overall level of productive resources for a firm
- ◆ 3 basic strategies for timing of capacity expansion in relation to steady growth in demand (lead, lag, and average)

Capacity Expansion Strategies

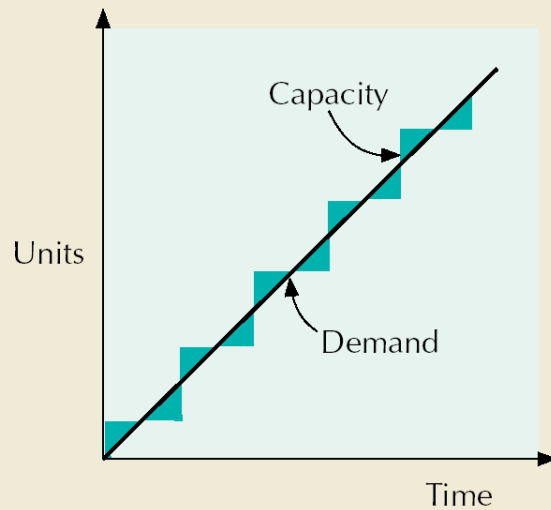
(a) Capacity lead strategy



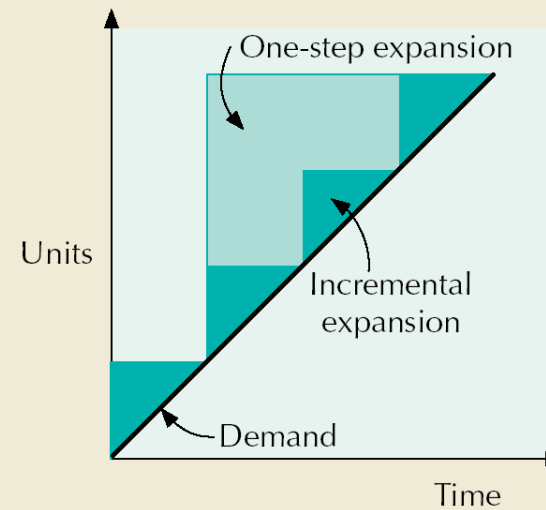
(b) Capacity lag strategy



(c) Average capacity strategy



(d) Incremental versus one-step expansion





Capacity (cont.)

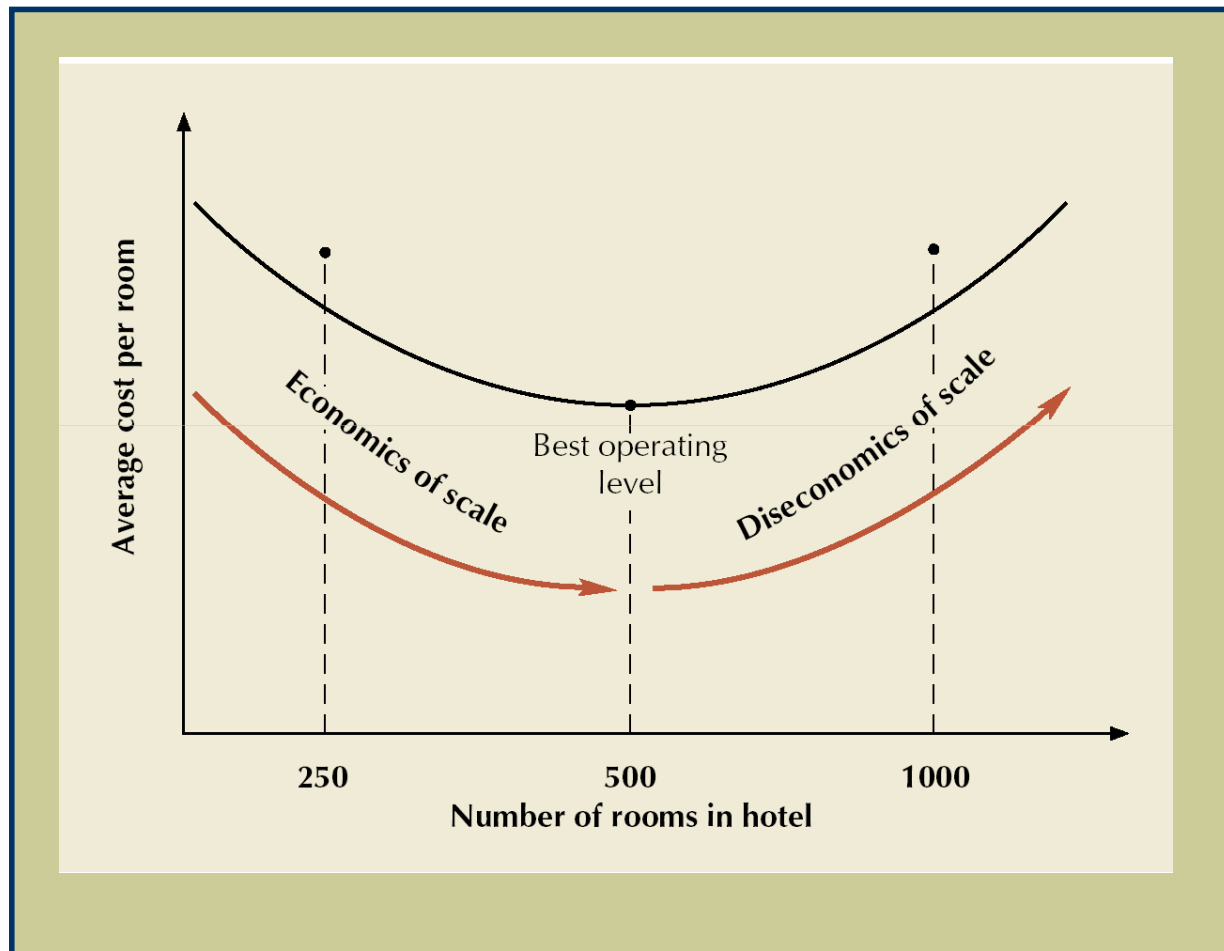
- ◆ Capacity increase depends on
 - volume and certainty of anticipated demand
 - strategic objectives
 - costs of expansion and operation
- ◆ Best operating level
 - % of capacity utilization that minimizes unit costs
- ◆ Capacity cushion
 - % of capacity held in reserve for unexpected occurrences



Economies of Scale

- ◆ it costs less per unit to produce high levels of output
 - fixed costs can be spread over a larger number of units
 - production or operating costs do not increase linearly with output levels
 - quantity discounts are available for material purchases
 - operating efficiency increases as workers gain experience

Best Operating Level for a Hotel



Machine Objectives of Facility Layout

Arrangement of areas within a facility to:

- ◆ Minimize material-handling costs
- ◆ Utilize space efficiently
- ◆ Utilize labor efficiently
- ◆ Eliminate bottlenecks
- ◆ Facilitate communication and interaction
- ◆ Reduce manufacturing cycle time
- ◆ Reduce customer service time
- ◆ Eliminate wasted or redundant movement
- ◆ Increase capacity
- ◆ Facilitate entry, exit, and placement of material, products, and people
- ◆ Incorporate safety and security measures
- ◆ Promote product and service quality
- ◆ Encourage proper maintenance activities
- ◆ Provide a visual control of activities
- ◆ Provide flexibility to adapt to changing conditions



BASIC LAYOUTS

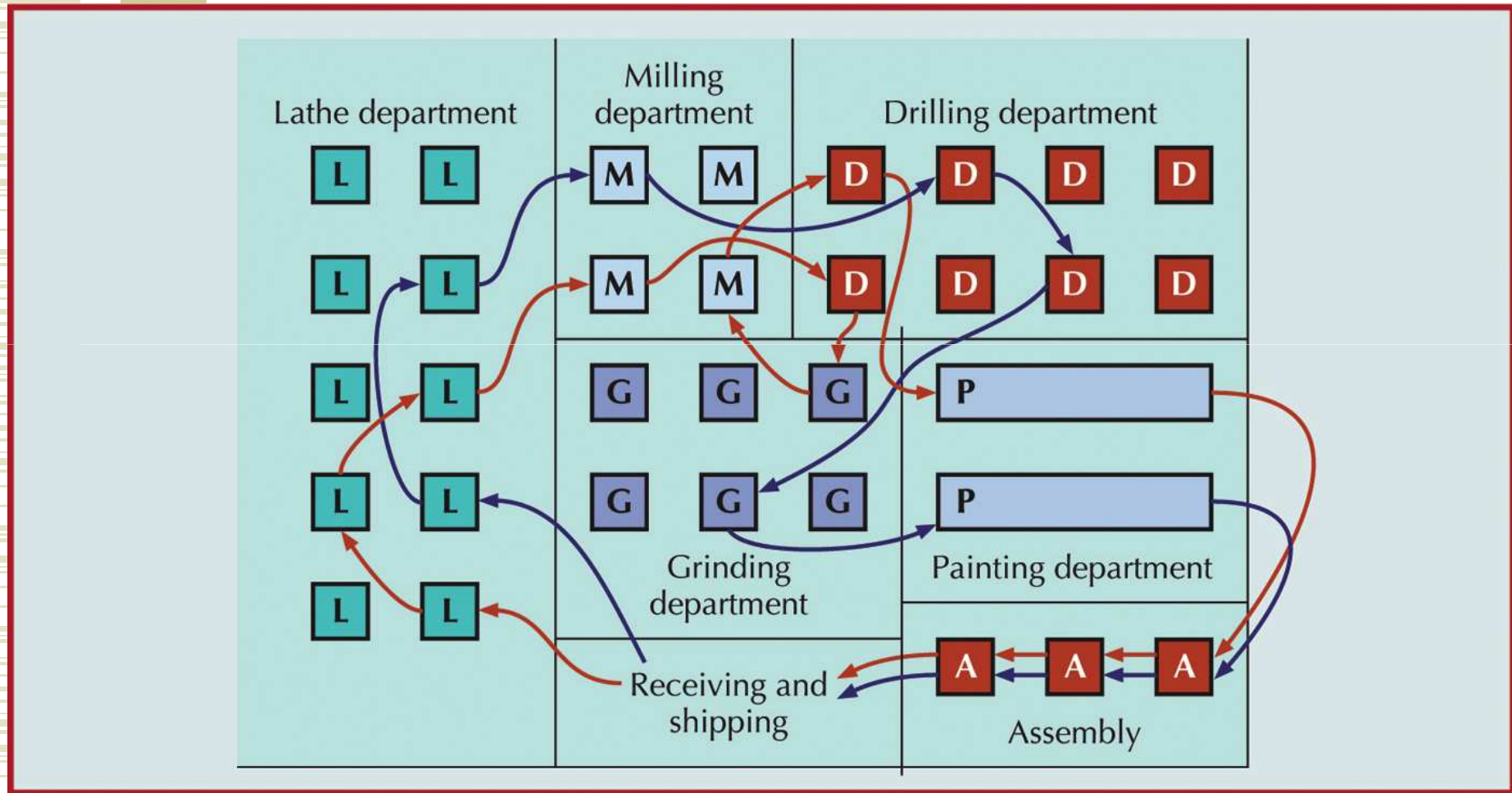


- ◆ Process layouts
 - group similar activities together according to process or function they perform
- ◆ Product layouts
 - arrange activities in line according to sequence of operations for a particular product or service
- ◆ Fixed-position layouts
 - are used for projects in which product cannot be moved

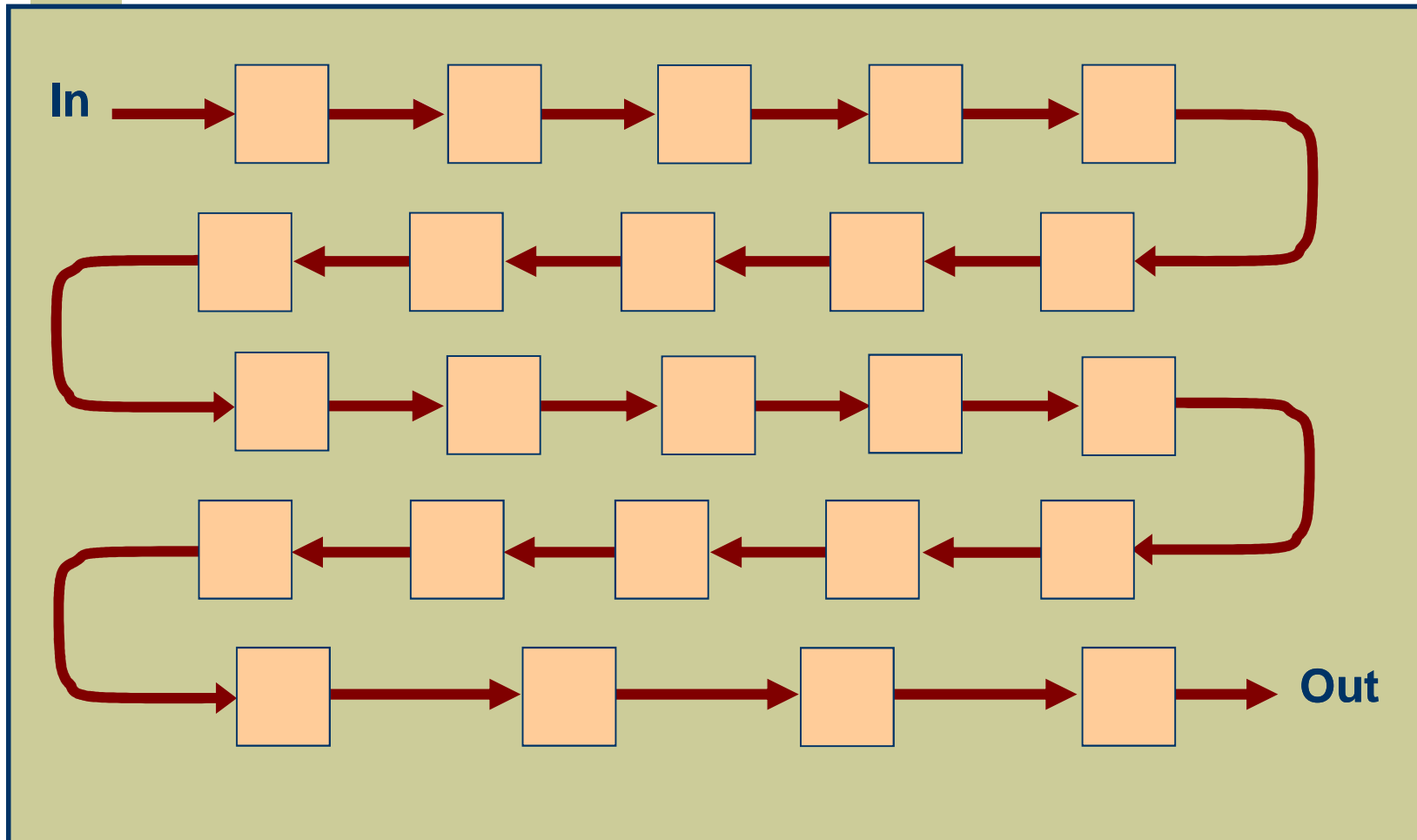
Process Layout in Services

Women's lingerie	Shoes	Housewares
Women's dresses	Cosmetics and jewelry	Children's department
Women's sportswear	Entry and display area	Men's department

Manufacturing Process Layout



A Product Layout



Comparison of Product and Process Layouts

	Product	Process
◆ Description	◆ Sequential arrangement of activities	◆ Functional grouping of activities
◆ Type of process	◆ Continuous, mass production, mainly assembly	◆ Intermittent, job shop, batch production, mainly fabrication
◆ Product	◆ Standardized, made to stock	◆ Varied, made to order
◆ Demand	◆ Stable	◆ Fluctuating
◆ Volume	◆ High	◆ Low
◆ Equipment	◆ Special purpose	◆ General purpose

Comparison of Product and Process Layouts

	Product	Process
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Workers ◆ Inventory ◆ Storage space ◆ Material handling ◆ Aisles ◆ Scheduling ◆ Layout decision ◆ Goal ◆ Advantage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Limited skills ◆ Low in-process, high finished goods ◆ Small ◆ Fixed path (conveyor) ◆ Narrow ◆ Part of balancing ◆ Line balancing ◆ Equalize work at each station ◆ Efficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Varied skills ◆ High in-process, low finished goods ◆ Large ◆ Variable path (forklift) ◆ Wide ◆ Dynamic ◆ Machine location ◆ Minimize material handling cost ◆ Flexibility

Fixed-Position Layouts

- Typical of projects in which product produced is too fragile, bulky, or heavy to move
- Equipment, workers, materials, other resources brought to the site
- Low equipment utilization
- Highly skilled labor
- Typically low fixed cost
- Often high variable costs





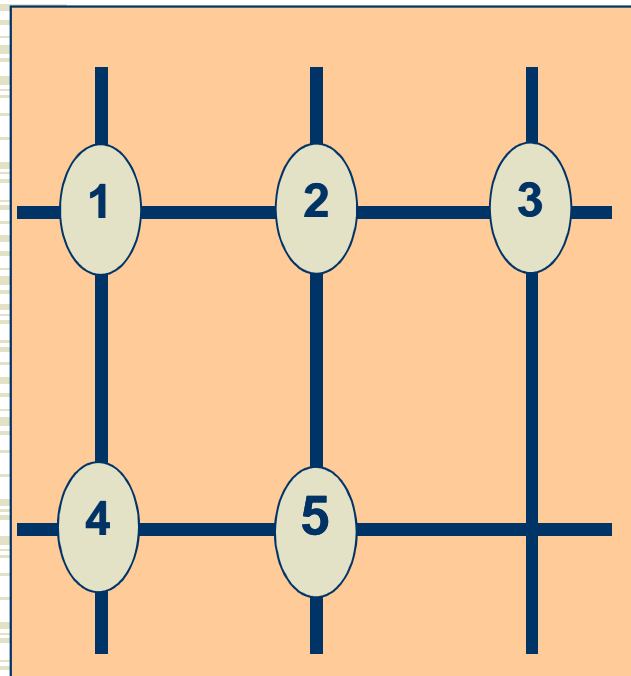
Designing Process Layouts

- Goal: minimize material handling costs
- Block Diagramming
 - minimize nonadjacent loads
 - use when quantitative data is available
- Relationship Diagramming
 - based on location preference between areas
 - use when quantitative data is not available

Block Diagramming

- ◆ Unit load
 - quantity in which material is normally moved
- ◆ Nonadjacent load
 - distance farther than the next block
- STEPS
 - create load summary chart
 - calculate composite (two way) movements
 - develop trial layouts minimizing number of nonadjacent loads

Block Diagramming: Example



Load Summary Chart

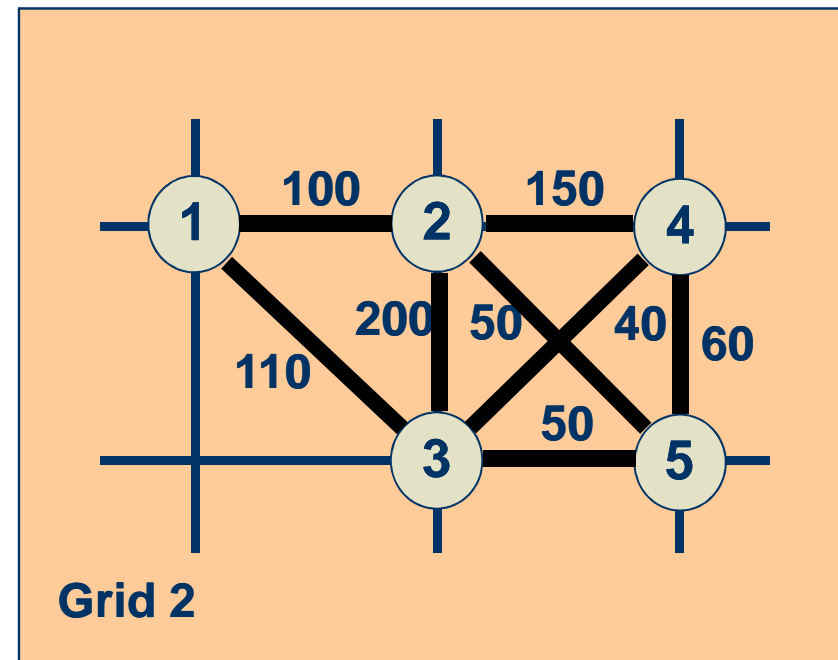
FROM/TO	DEPARTMENT				
<i>Department</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
1	—	100	50		
2		—	200	50	
3	60		—	40	50
4		100		—	60
5			50		—

Block Diagramming: Example (cont.)

2	↔	3	200 loads
2	↔	4	150 loads
1	↔	3	110 loads
1	↔	2	100 loads
4	↔	5	60 loads
3	↔	5	50 loads
2	↔	5	50 loads
3	↔	4	40 loads
1	↔	4	0 loads
1	↔	5	0 loads
	↔		

Nonadjacent Loads:

0

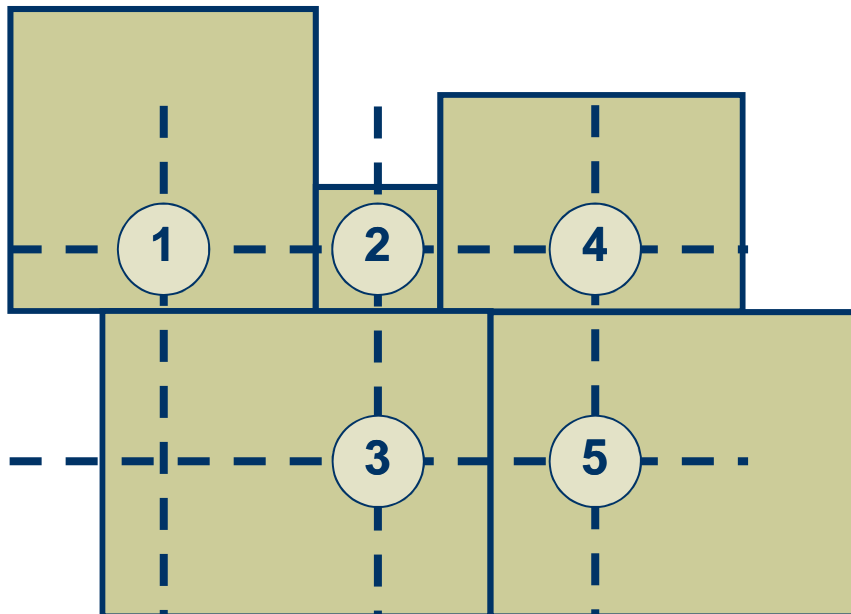


Block Diagramming: Example (cont.)

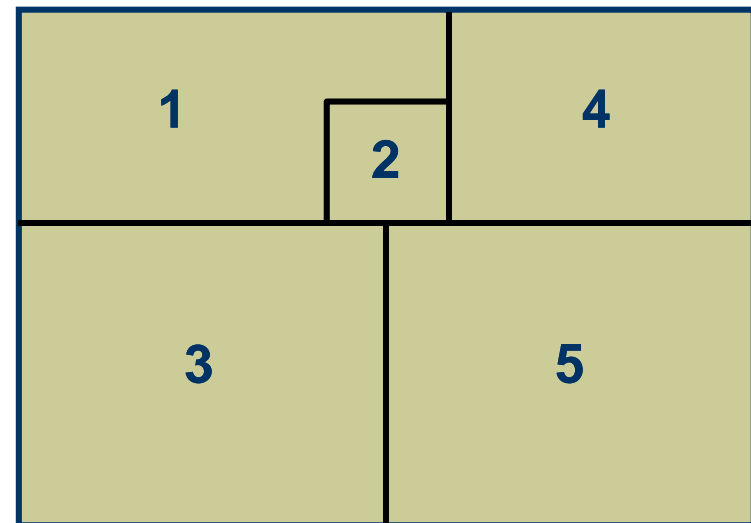
- ◆ Block Diagram

- type of schematic layout diagram; includes space requirements

(a) Initial block diagram

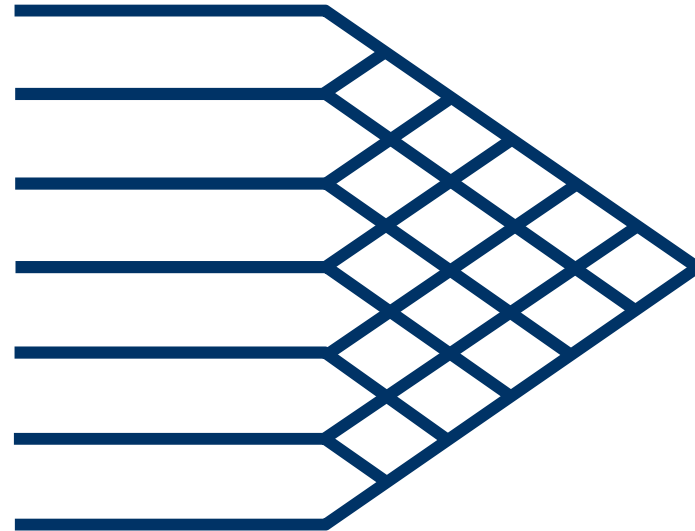


(b) Final block diagram



Relationship Diagramming

- ◆ Schematic diagram that uses weighted lines to denote location preference
- ◆ Muther's grid
 - format for displaying manager preferences for department locations



Relationship Diagramming: Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 7.1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data OM Tools Window Help Adobe PDF

O22 $\text{=SUMPRODUCT}(C7:K15,C21:K29)$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	L	M	N	O
1	Process Layout		Example - 7.1								
2											
3	<i>Input:</i>										
4	Load Summary Chart										
5		<i>From \ To</i>	Department								
6	Location Assigned	<i>Department</i>	1	2	3	4	5				
7	1	1		100	50						
8	2	2			200	50					
9	3	3	60			40	50				
10	4	4		100						60	
11	5	5		50							
12											
15											
16											
17	<i>Calculations:</i>										
18			Distance Matrix								
19		Distance	Department								
20		<i>From \ To</i>	1	2	3	4	5				
21		1	0	0	1	0	0				
22		2	0	0	0	0	0				
23		3	1	0	0	1	0				
24		4	0	0	1	0	0				
25		5	0	0	0	0	0				
26											

Input load summary and trial layout.
Excel will calculate the non-adjacent loads. To improve the solution, try pair wise exchanges. Select the layout with the fewest nonadjacent loads.

Enter departments here:

1	2	3
4	5	

Exchange

Dept1 and Dept2 ▾

Output:
Nonadjacent loads = 150

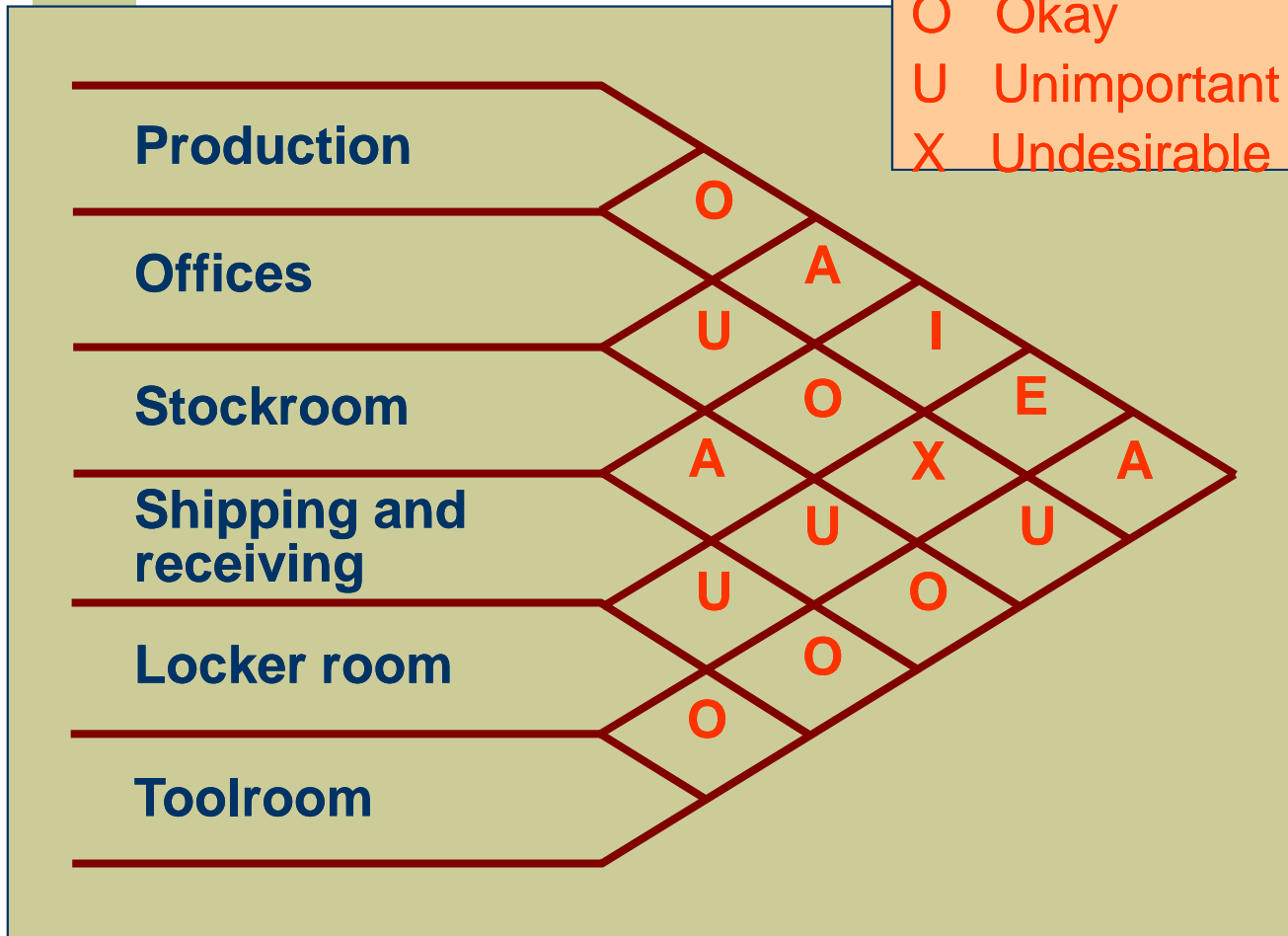
Input load summary chart and trial layout

Try different layout configurations

Excel will calculate composite movements and nonadjacent loads

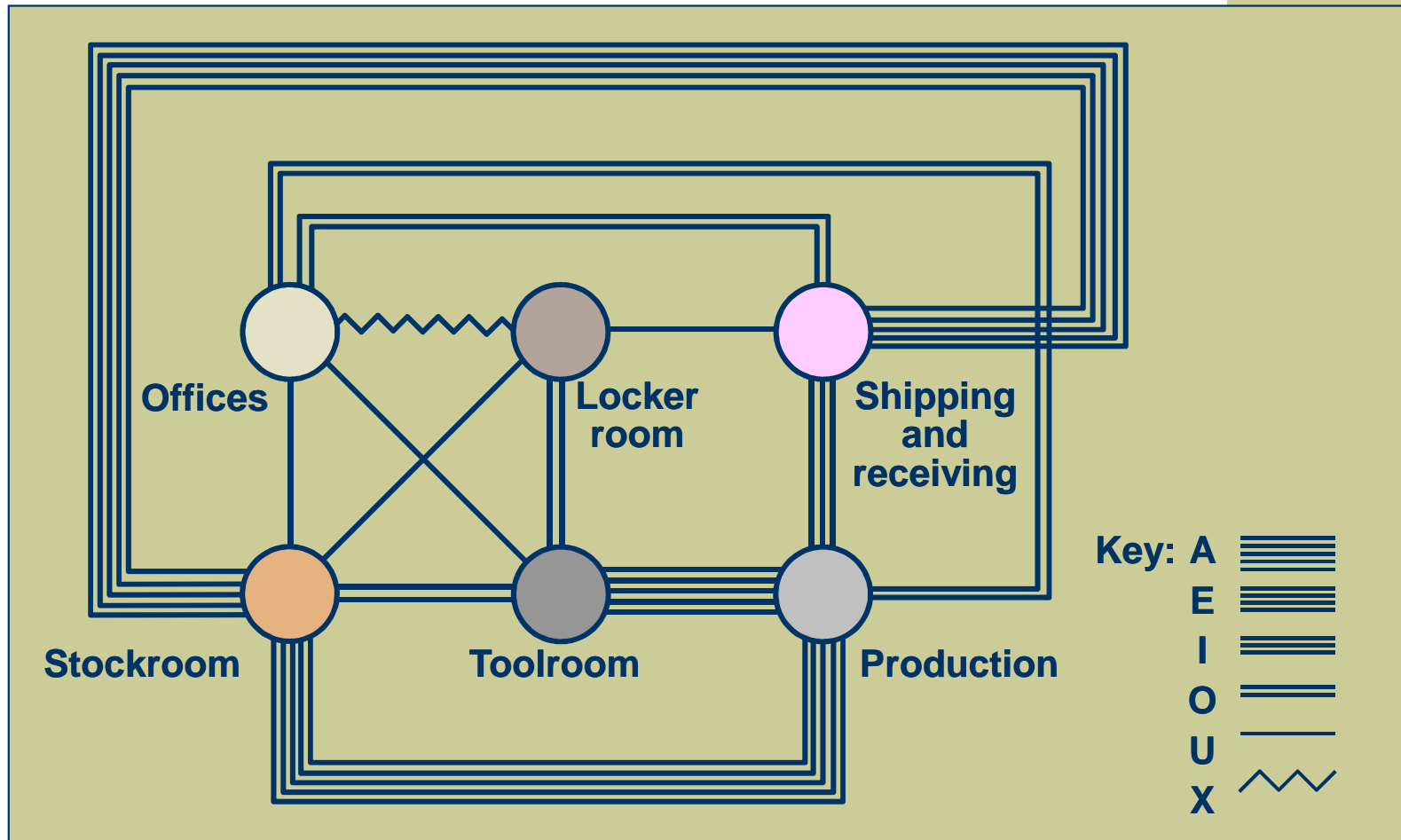
Relationship Diagramming:

- A Absolutely necessary
- E Especially important
- I Important
- O Okay
- U Unimportant
- X Undesirable



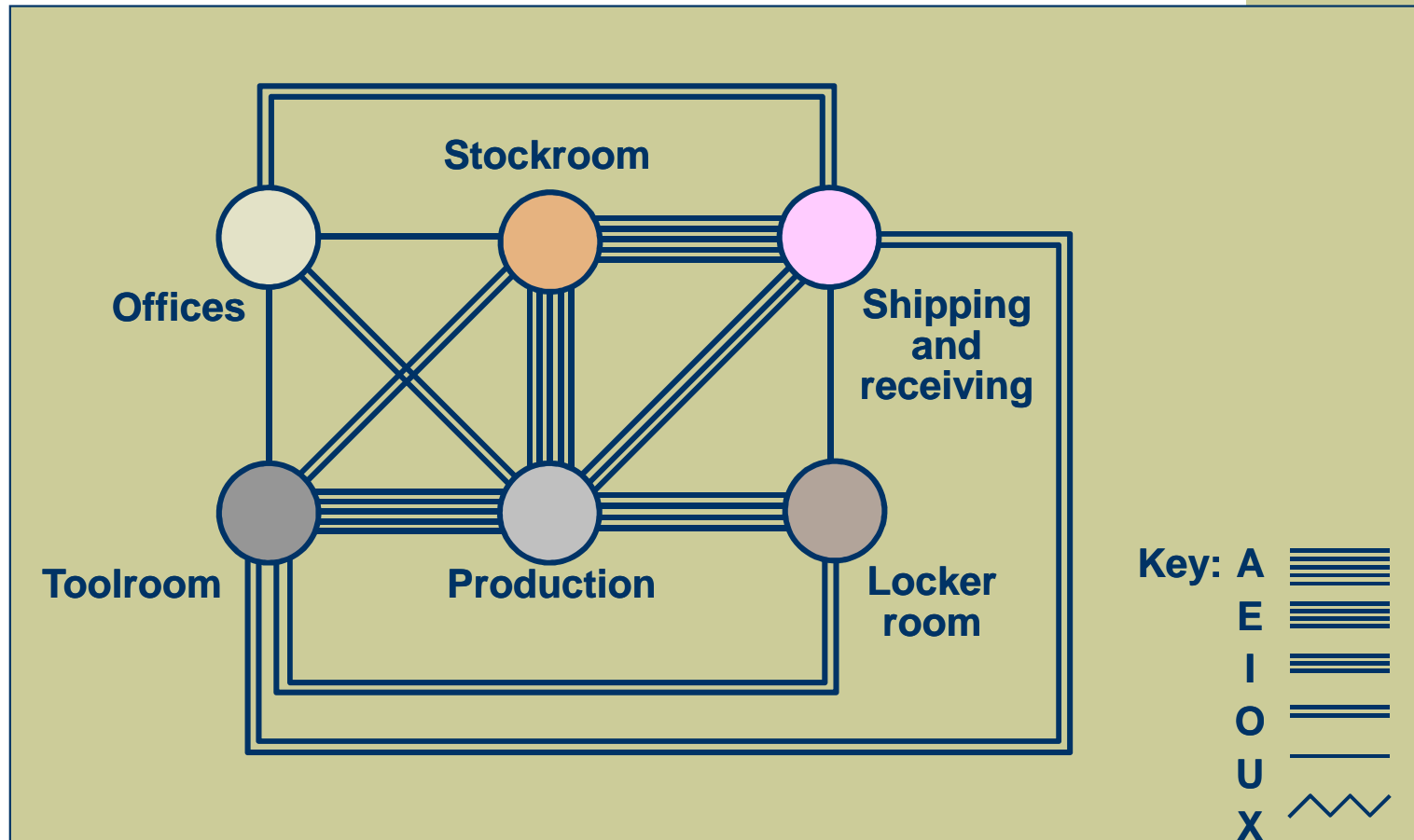
Relationship Diagrams: Example (cont.)

(a) Relationship diagram of original layout



Relationship Diagrams: Example (cont.)

(b) Relationship diagram of revised layout





Computerized layout Solutions

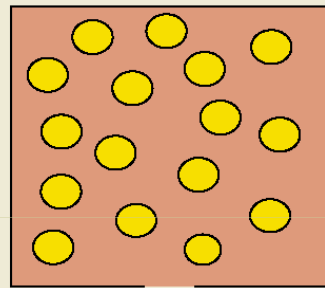
- ◆ CRAFT
 - Computerized Relative Allocation of Facilities Technique
- ◆ CORELAP
 - Computerized Relationship Layout Planning
- ◆ PROMODEL and EXTEND
 - visual feedback
 - allow user to quickly test a variety of scenarios
- ◆ Three-D modeling and CAD
 - integrated layout analysis
 - available in VisFactory and similar software



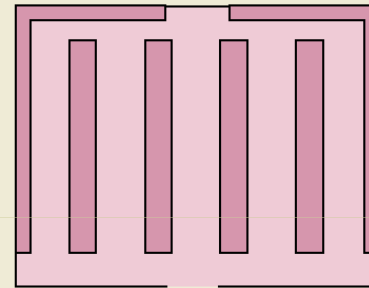
Designing Service Layouts

- ◆ Must be both attractive and functional
- ◆ Types
 - Free flow layouts
 - encourage browsing, increase impulse purchasing, are flexible and visually appealing
 - Grid layouts
 - encourage customer familiarity, are low cost, easy to clean and secure, and good for repeat customers
 - Loop and Spine layouts
 - both increase customer sightlines and exposure to products, while encouraging customer to circulate through the entire store

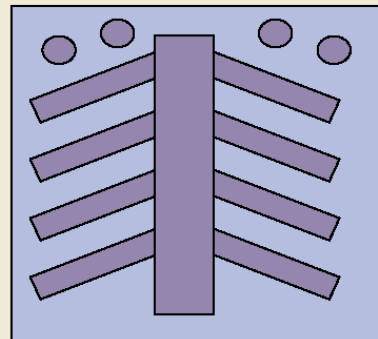
Types of Store Layouts



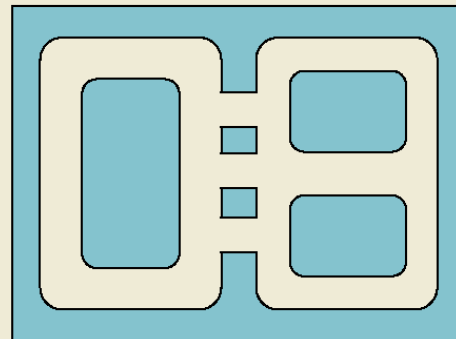
Freeflow Layout



Grid Layout



Spine Layout



Loop Layout



Designing Product Layouts

- ◆ Objective
 - Balance the assembly line
- ◆ Line balancing
 - tries to equalize the amount of work at each workstation
- ◆ Precedence requirements
 - physical restrictions on the order in which operations are performed
- ◆ Cycle time
 - maximum amount of time a product is allowed to spend at each workstation

Cycle Time Example

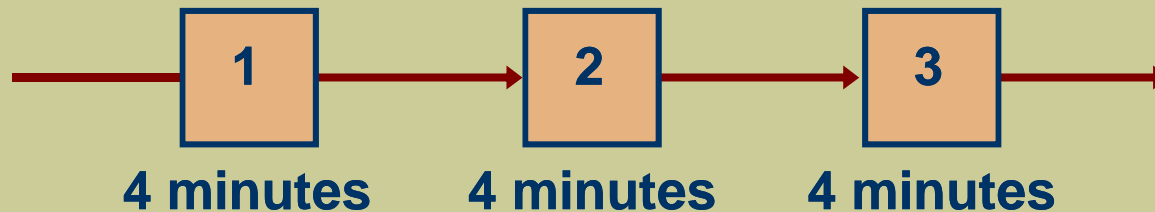
$$C_d = \frac{\text{production time available}}{\text{desired units of output}}$$

$$C_d = \frac{(8 \text{ hours} \times 60 \text{ minutes / hour})}{(120 \text{ units})}$$

$$C_d = \frac{480}{120} = 4 \text{ minutes}$$

Flow Time vs Cycle Time

- ◆ Cycle time = max time spent at any station
- ◆ Flow time = time to complete all stations



Flow time = 4 + 4 + 4 = 12 minutes

Cycle time = max (4, 4, 4) = 4 minutes

Efficiency of Line and Balance Delay

Efficiency

$$E = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^j t_i}{nC_a}$$

where

t_i = completion time for element i

j = number of work elements

n = actual number of workstations

C_a = actual cycle time

C_d = desired cycle time

Minimum number of workstations

$$N = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^j t_i}{C_d}$$

Balance delay

- total idle time of line
- calculated as (1 - efficiency)

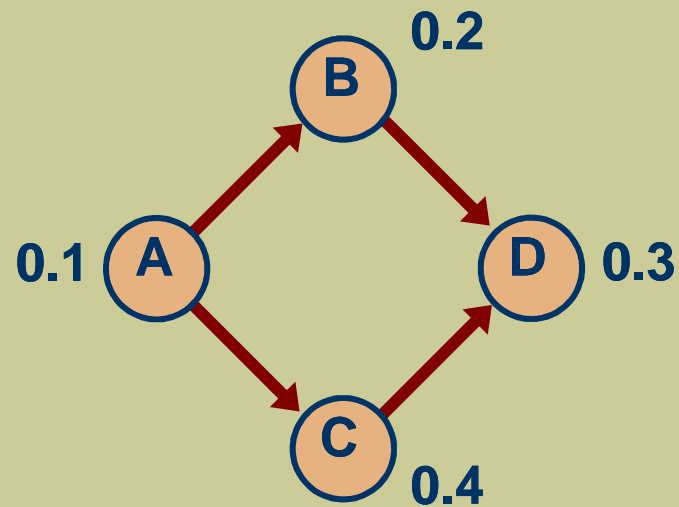


Line Balancing Procedure

1. Draw and label a precedence diagram
2. Calculate desired cycle time required for line
3. Calculate theoretical minimum number of workstations
4. Group elements into workstations, recognizing cycle time and precedence constraints
5. Calculate efficiency of line
6. Determine if theoretical minimum number of workstations or an acceptable efficiency level has been reached. If not, go back to step 4.

Line Balancing: Example

	WORK ELEMENT	PRECEDENCE	TIME (MIN)
A	Press out sheet of fruit	—	0.1
B	Cut into strips	A	0.2
C	Outline fun shapes	A	0.4
D	Roll up and package	B, C	0.3



Line Balancing: Example (cont.)

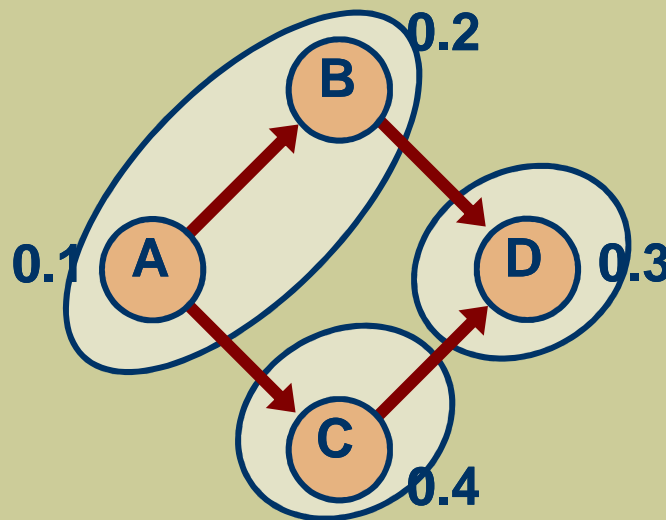
	WORK ELEMENT	PRECEDENCE	TIME (MIN)
A	Press out sheet of fruit	—	0.1
B	Cut into strips	A	0.2
C	Outline fun shapes	A	0.4
D	Roll up and package	B, C	0.3

$$C_d = \frac{40 \text{ hours} \times 60 \text{ minutes / hour}}{6,000 \text{ units}} = \frac{2400}{6000} = 0.4 \text{ minute}$$

$$N = \frac{0.1 + 0.2 + 0.3 + 0.4}{0.4} = \frac{1.0}{0.4} = 2.5 \rightarrow 3 \text{ workstations}$$

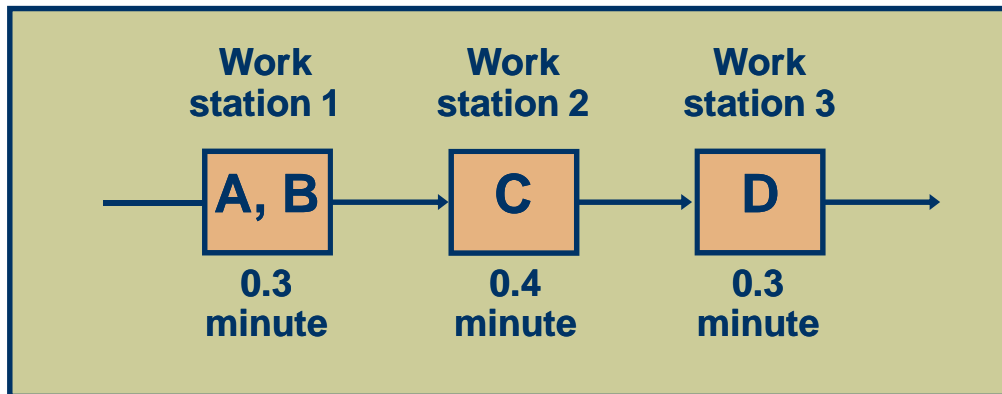
Line Balancing: Example (cont.)

<u>WORKSTATION</u>	<u>ELEMENT</u>	<u>REMAINING TIME</u>	<u>REMAINING ELEMENTS</u>
1	A	0.3	B, C
	B	0.1	C, D
2	C	0.0	D
3	D	0.1	none



$$C_d = 0.4$$
$$N = 2.5$$

Line Balancing: Example (cont.)



$$C_d = 0.4$$
$$N = 2.5$$

$$E = \frac{0.1 + 0.2 + 0.3 + 0.4}{3(0.4)} = \frac{1.0}{1.2} = 0.833 = 83.3\%$$



Computerized Line Balancing

- Use heuristics to assign tasks to workstations
 - Longest operation time
 - Shortest operation time
 - Most number of following tasks
 - Least number of following tasks
 - Ranked positional weight



Hybrid Layouts

- ◆ Cellular layouts
 - group dissimilar machines into work centers (called cells) that process families of parts with similar shapes or processing requirements
- ◆ Production flow analysis (PFA)
 - reorders part routing matrices to identify families of parts with similar processing requirements
- ◆ Flexible manufacturing system
 - automated machining and material handling systems which can produce an enormous variety of items
- ◆ Mixed-model assembly line
 - processes more than one product model in one line

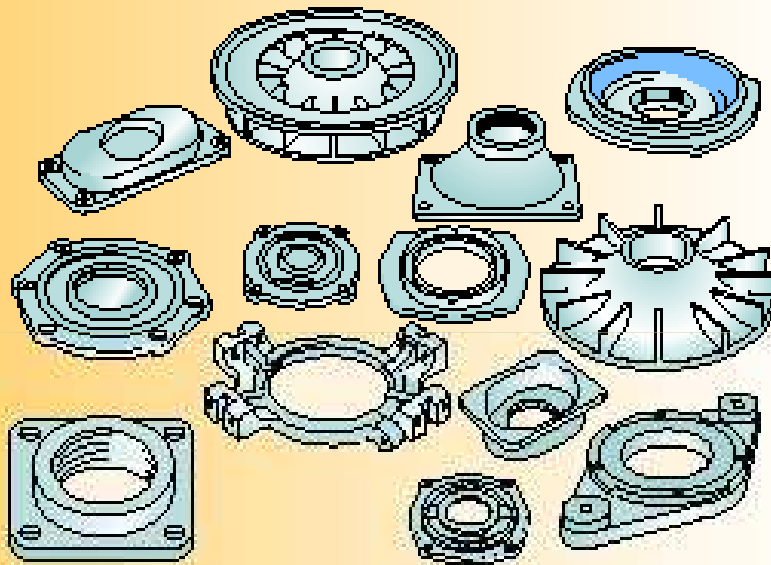


Cellular Layouts



1. Identify families of parts with similar flow paths
2. Group machines into cells based on part families
3. Arrange cells so material movement is minimized
4. Locate large shared machines at point of use

Parts Families



(a)

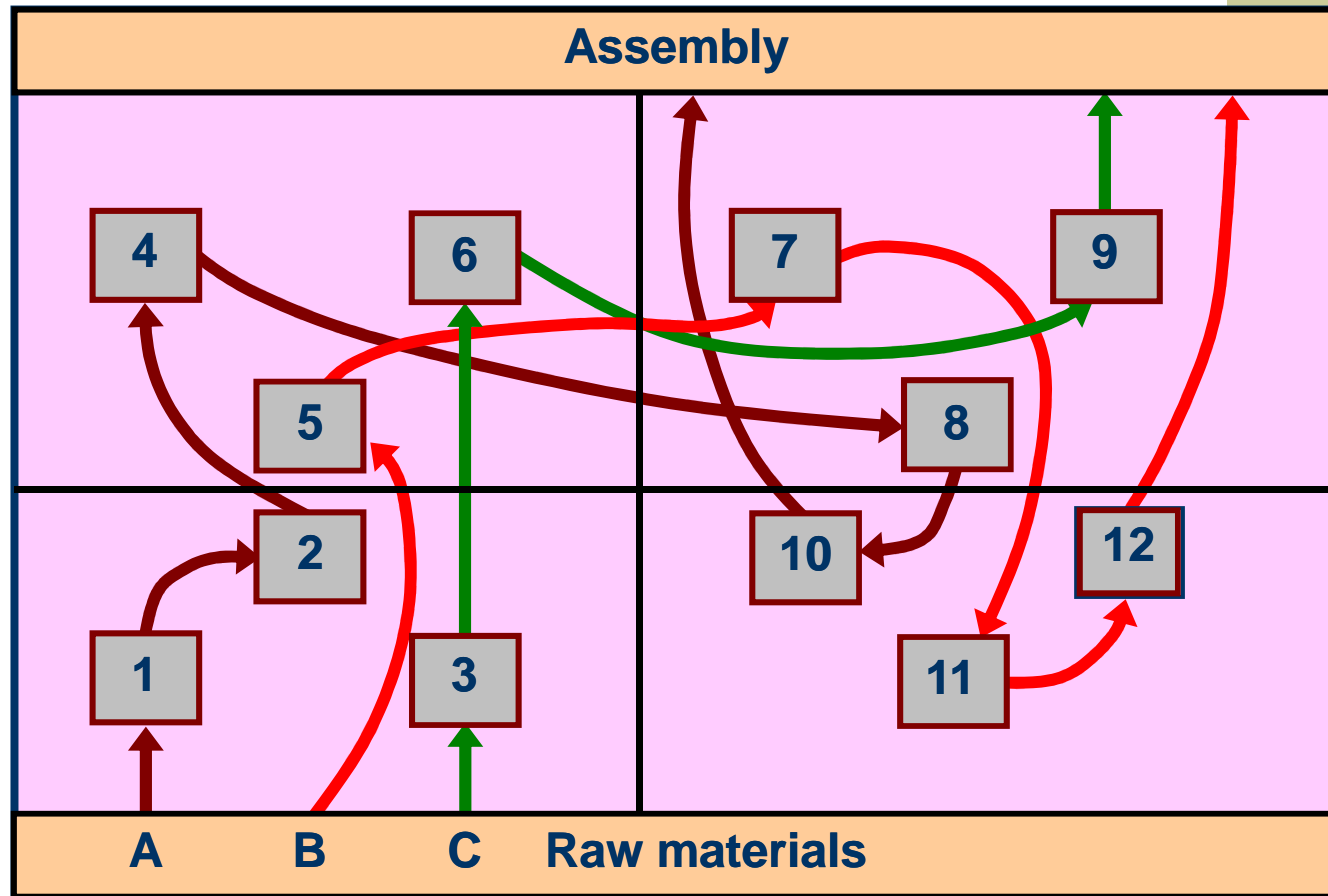
A family of similar parts



(b)

A family of related grocery items

Original Process Layout

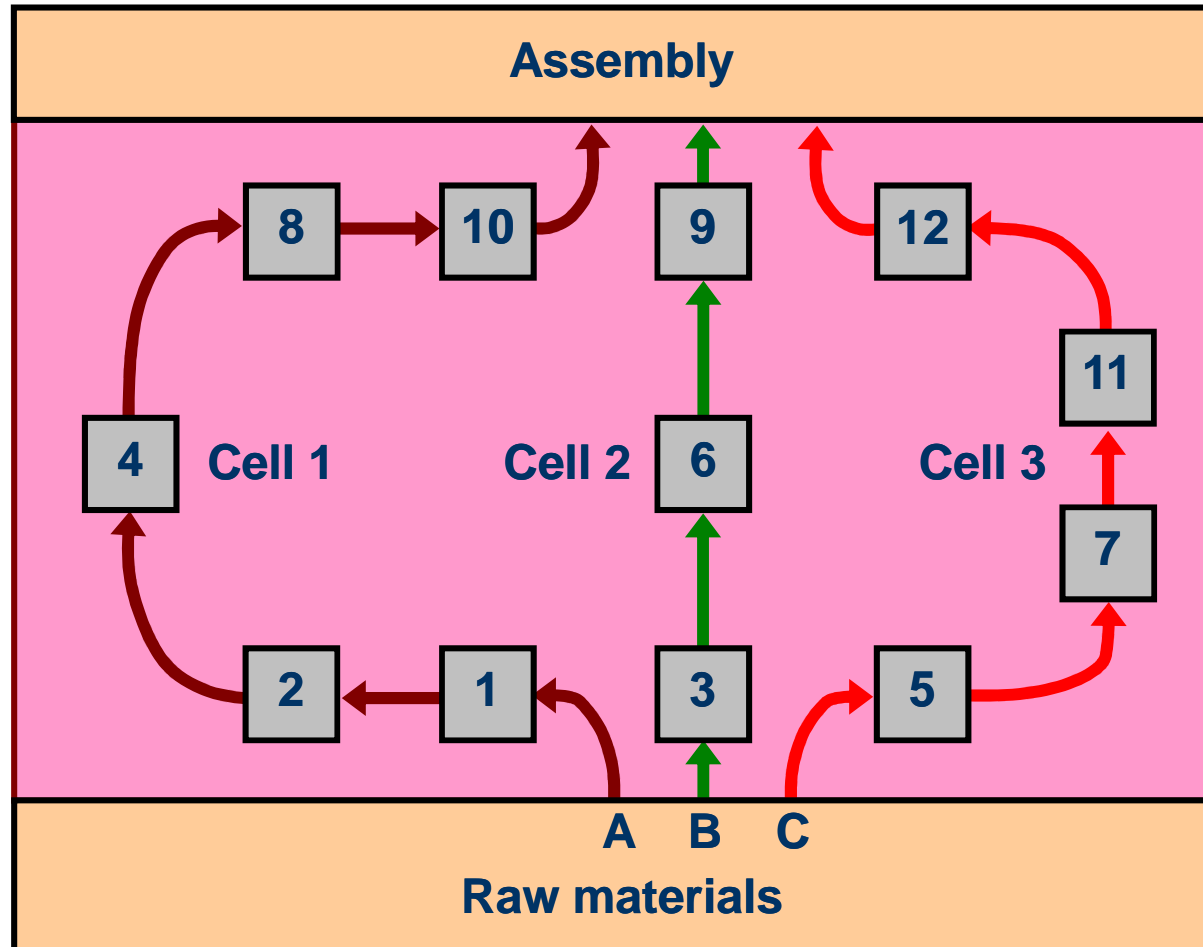


Part Routing Matrix

Parts	Machines											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	x	x		x				x		x		
B					x		x				x	x
C			x			x			x			
D	x	x		x				x		x		
E				x	x							x
F	x			x				x				
G			x			x			x			x
H							x				x	x

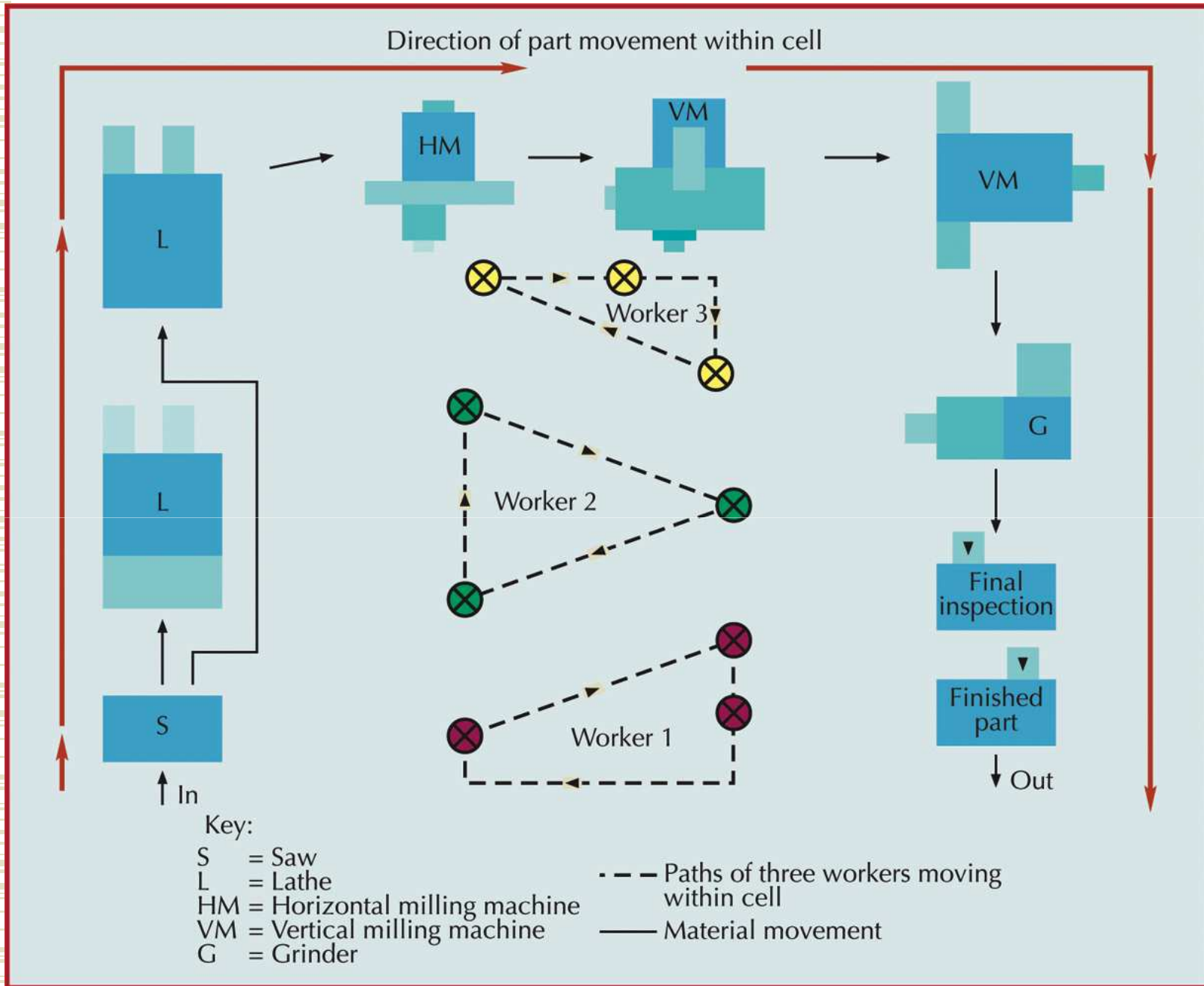
Figure 5.8

Revised Cellular Layout



Reordered Routing Matrix

Parts	Machines											
	1	2	4	8	10	3	6	9	5	7	11	12
A	x	x	x	x	x							
D	x	x	x	x	x							
F	x		x	x								
C						x	x	x				
G						x	x	x				x
B									x	x	x	x
H										x	x	x
E							x		x			x



Advantages and Disadvantages of Cellular Layouts

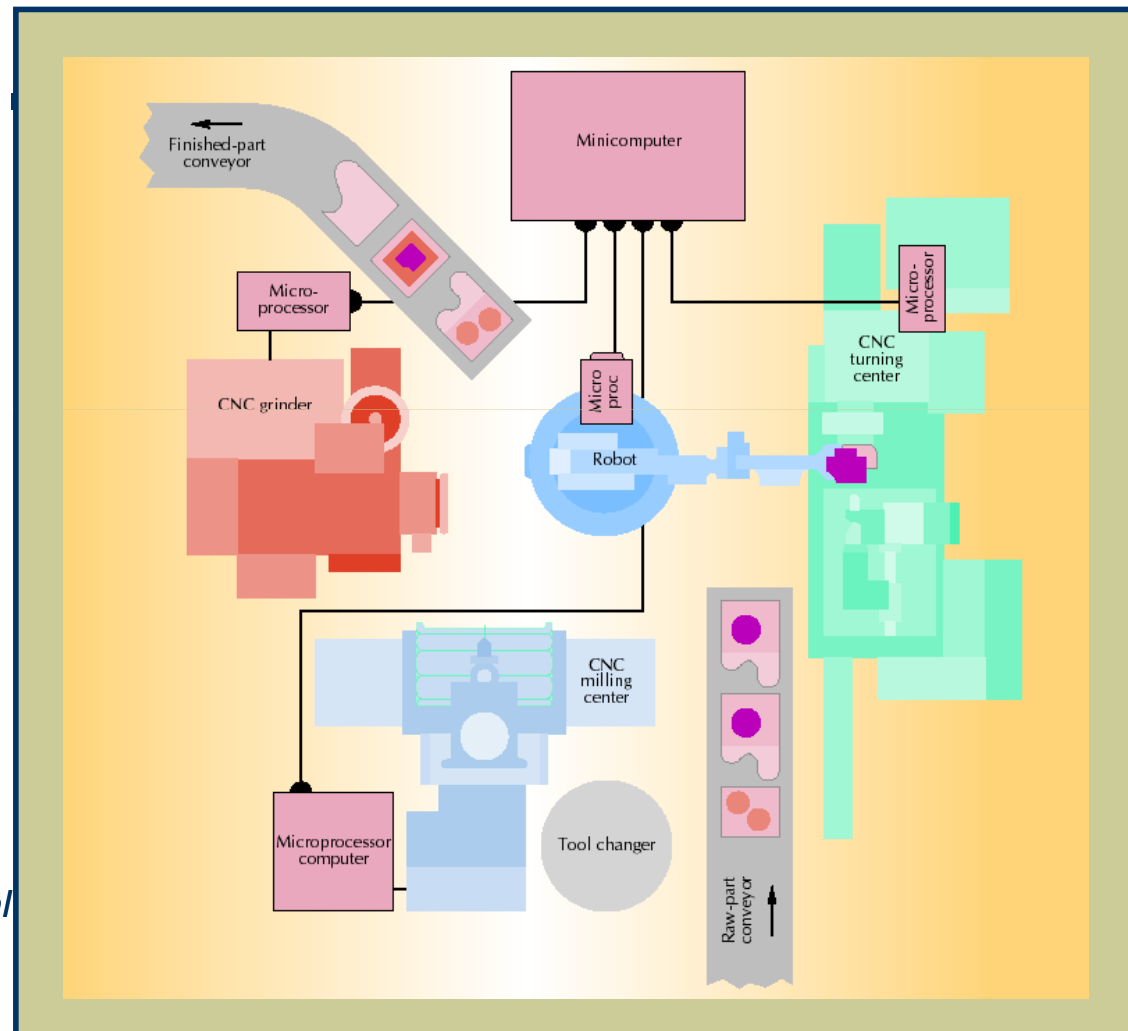
◆ *Advantages*

- *Reduced material handling and transit time*
- *Reduced setup time*
- *Reduced work-in-process inventory*
- *Better use of human resources*
- *Easier to control*
- *Easier to automate*

◆ *Disadvantages*

- *Inadequate part families*
- *Poorly balanced cells*
- *Expanded training and scheduling of workers*
- *Increased capital investment*

Automated Manufacturing Cell



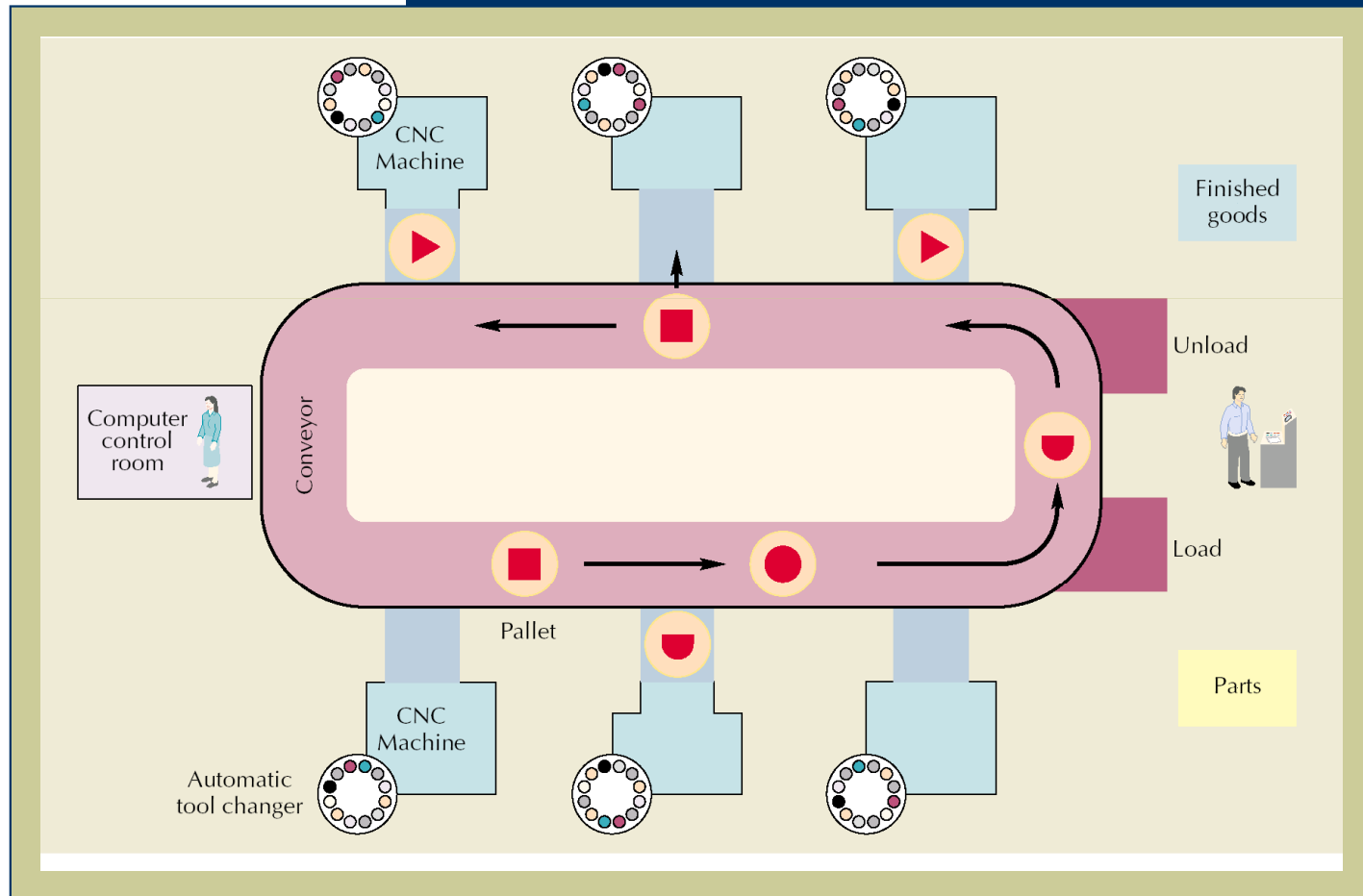
Source: J. T. Black, "Cellular Manufacturing Systems Reduce Setup Time, Make Small Lot Production Economical." *Industrial Engineering* (November 1983)



Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS)

- ◆ FMS consists of numerous programmable machine tools connected by an automated material handling system and controlled by a common computer network
- ◆ FMS combines flexibility with efficiency
- ◆ FMS layouts differ based on
 - variety of parts that the system can process
 - size of parts processed
 - average processing time required for part completion

Full-Blown FMS



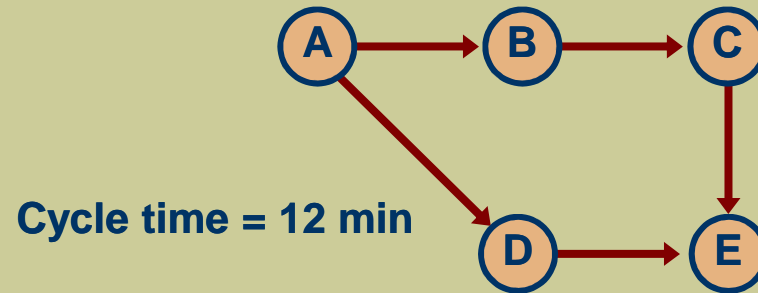


Mixed Model Assembly Lines

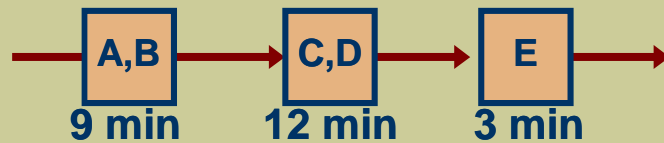
- Produce multiple models in any order on one assembly line
- Issues in mixed model lines
 - Line balancing
 - U-shaped lines
 - Flexible workforce
 - Model sequencing

Balancing U-Shaped Lines

Precedence diagram:

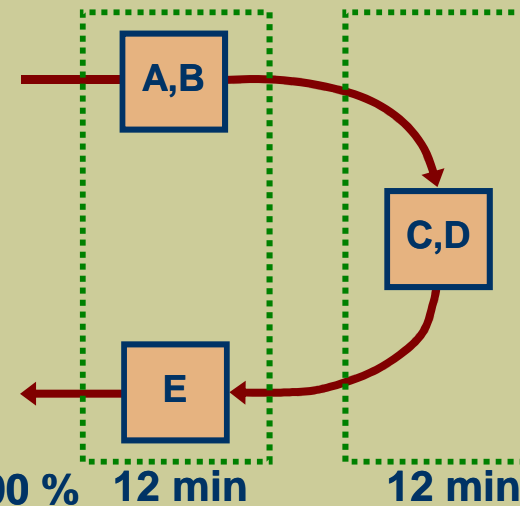


(a) Balanced for a straight line



$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{24}{3(12)} = \frac{24}{36} = .6666 = 66.7 \%$$

(b) Balanced for a U-shaped line



$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{24}{2(12)} = \frac{24}{24} = 100 \%$$



Chapter 7 Supplement

Facility Location Models

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline



- ◆ Types of Facilities
- ◆ Site Selection: Where to Locate
- ◆ Location Analysis Techniques

Types of Facilities

- ◆ Heavy-manufacturing facilities
 - large, require a lot of space, and are expensive
- ◆ Light-industry facilities
 - smaller, cleaner plants and usually less costly
- ◆ Retail and service facilities
 - smallest and least costly



Factors in Heavy Manufacturing Location

- Construction costs
- Land costs
- Raw material and finished goods shipment modes
- Proximity to raw materials
- Utilities
- Means of waste disposal
- Labor availability



Factors in Light Industry Location

- ◆ Land costs
- ◆ Transportation costs
- ◆ Proximity to markets
 - depending on delivery requirements including frequency of delivery required by customer



Factors in Retail Location



- Proximity to customers
- Location is everything

Site Selection: Where to Locate

- ◆ Infrequent but important
 - being “in the right place at the right time”
- ◆ Must consider other factors, especially financial considerations
- ◆ Location decisions made more often for service operations than manufacturing facilities
- ◆ Location criteria for service
 - access to customers
- ◆ Location criteria for manufacturing facility
 - nature of labor force
 - labor costs
 - proximity to suppliers and markets
 - distribution and transportation costs
 - energy availability and cost
 - community infrastructure
 - quality of life in community
 - government regulations and taxes

Global Location Factors

- Government stability
- Government regulations
- Political and economic systems
- Economic stability and growth
- Exchange rates
- Culture
- Climate
- Export/import regulations, duties and tariffs
- Raw material availability
- Number and proximity of suppliers
- Transportation and distribution system
- Labor cost and education
- Available technology
- Commercial travel
- Technical expertise
- Cross-border trade regulations
- Group trade agreements

Regional and Community Location Factors in U.S.

- ◆ Labor (availability, education, cost, and unions)
- ◆ Proximity of customers
- ◆ Number of customers
- ◆ Construction/leasing costs
- ◆ Land cost
- ◆ Modes and quality of transportation
- ◆ Transportation costs
- ◆ Community government
Local business regulations
- ◆ Government services (e.g., Chamber of Commerce)

Regional and Community Location Factors in U.S. (cont.)

- ◆ Business climate
- ◆ Community services
- ◆ Incentive packages
- ◆ Government regulations
- ◆ Environmental regulations
- ◆ Raw material availability
- ◆ Commercial travel
- ◆ Climate
- ◆ Infrastructure (e.g., roads, water, sewers)
- ◆ Quality of life
- ◆ Taxes
- ◆ Availability of sites
- ◆ Financial services
- ◆ Community inducements
- ◆ Proximity of suppliers
- ◆ Education system



Location Incentives

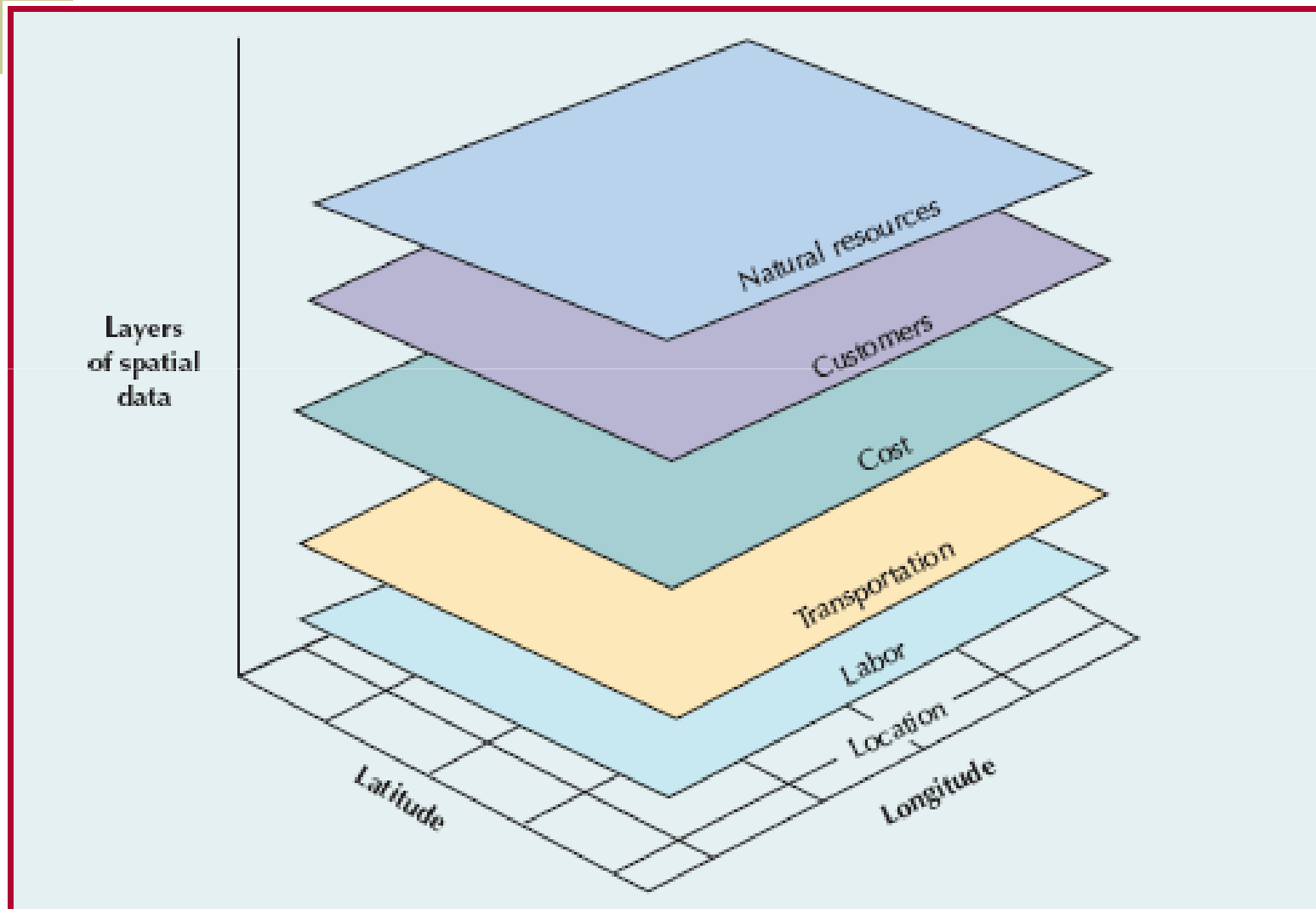
- Tax credits
- Relaxed government regulation
- Job training
- Infrastructure improvement
- Money



Geographic Information Systems (GIS)

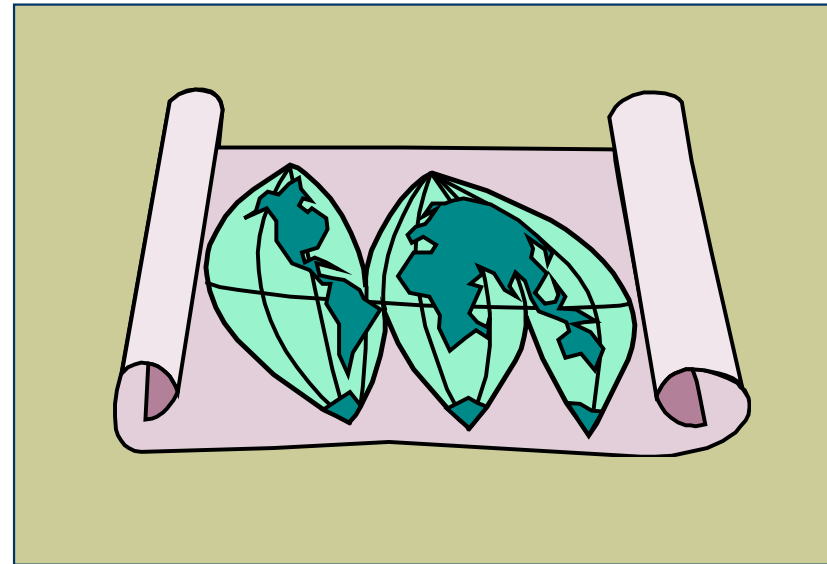
- ◆ Computerized system for storing, managing, creating, analyzing, integrating, and digitally displaying geographic, i.e., spatial, data
- ◆ Specifically used for site selection
- ◆ enables users to integrate large quantities of information about potential sites and analyze these data with many different, powerful analytical tools

GIS Diagram



Location Analysis Techniques

- Location factor rating
- Center-of-gravity
- Load-distance





Location Factor Rating



- Identify important factors
- Weight factors (0.00 - 1.00)
- Subjectively score each factor (0 - 100)
- Sum weighted scores

Location Factor Rating: Example

LOCATION FACTOR	SCORES (0 TO 100)			
	WEIGHT	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3
Labor pool and climate	.30	80	65	90
Proximity to suppliers	.20	100	91	75
Wage rates	.15	60	95	72
Community environment	.15	75	80	80
Proximity to customers	.10	65	90	95
Shipping modes	.05	85	92	65
Air service	.05	50	65	90

Weighted Score for “Labor pool and climate” for Site 1 = $(0.30)(80) = 24$

Location Factor Rating: Example (cont.)

WEIGHTED SCORES		
<i>Site 1</i>	<i>Site 2</i>	<i>Site 3</i>
24.00	19.50	27.00
20.00	18.20	15.00
9.00	14.25	10.80
11.25	12.00	12.00
6.50	9.00	9.50
4.25	4.60	3.25
2.50	3.25	4.50
77.50	80.80	82.05

Site 3 has the highest factor rating

Location Factor Rating with Excel and OM Tools

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS7.2.LocationFactorRating.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data OM Tools Window Help

100% Arial

A23

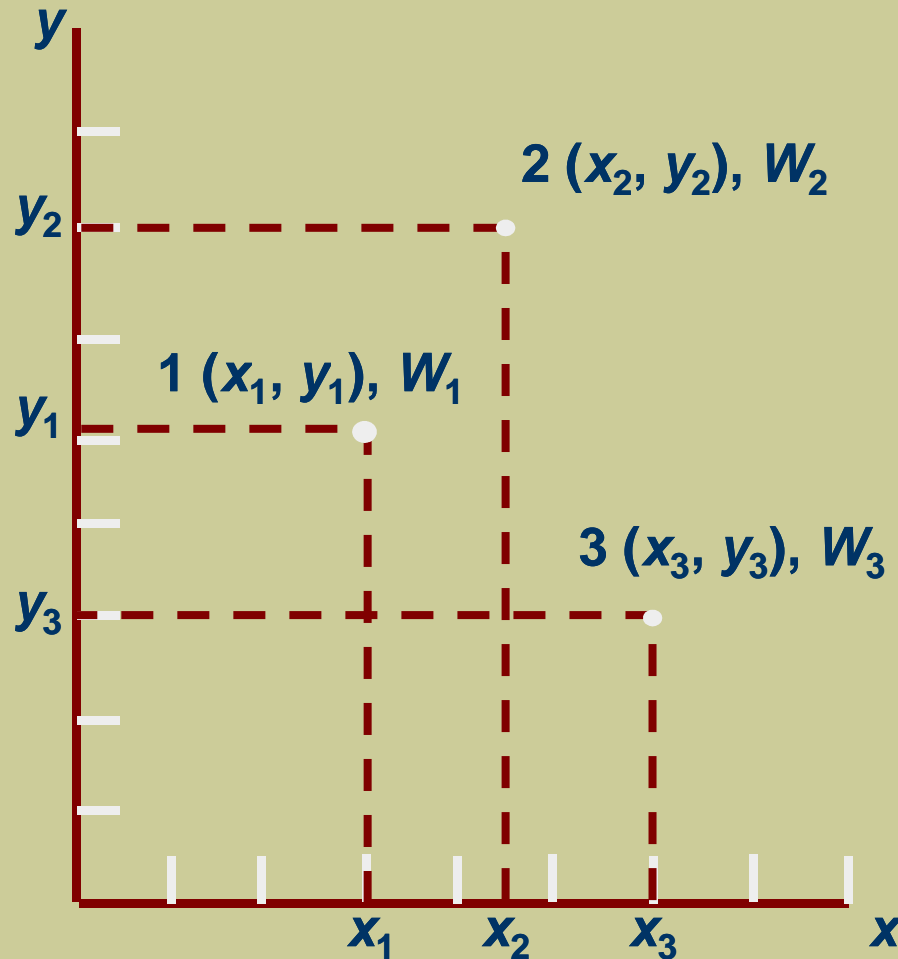
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1	Location Factor Rating			OM Student - Example S7.1				
2		<i>Label the location factors, and input their weight and score for each site.</i>						
3								
4	<i>Input:</i>							
5			SCORES (0 to 100)					
6	LOCATION FACTORS	Weight	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3			
7	Labor pool and climate	0.30	80	65	90			
8	Proximity to suppliers	0.20	100	91	75			
9	Wage rates	0.15	60	95	72			
10	Community environment	0.15	75	80	80			
11	Proximity to customers	0.10	65	90	95			
12	Shipping modes	0.05	85	92	65			
13	Air service	0.05	50	65	90			
14		1.00						
15								
16	<i>Output:</i>		Site 1	Site 2	Site 3			
17	Total location score		77.50	80.80	82.05			
18								



Center-of-Gravity Technique

- Locate facility at center of movement in geographic area
- Based on weight and distance traveled; establishes grid-map of area
- Identify coordinates and weights shipped for each location

Grid-Map Coordinates



$$x = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i} \quad y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i}$$

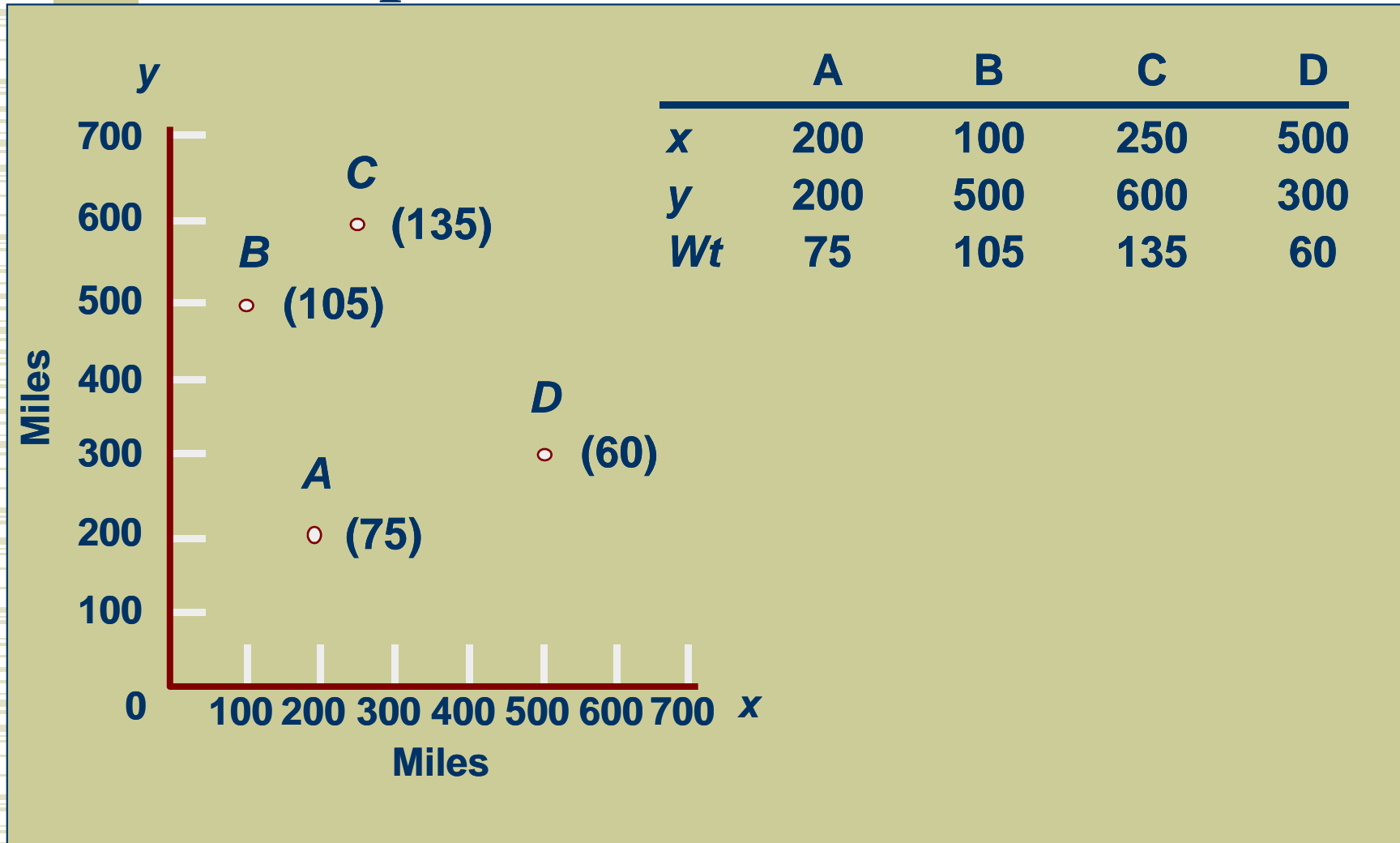
where,

x, y = coordinates of new facility at center of gravity

x_i, y_i = coordinates of existing facility i

W_i = annual weight shipped from facility i

Center-of-Gravity Technique: Example

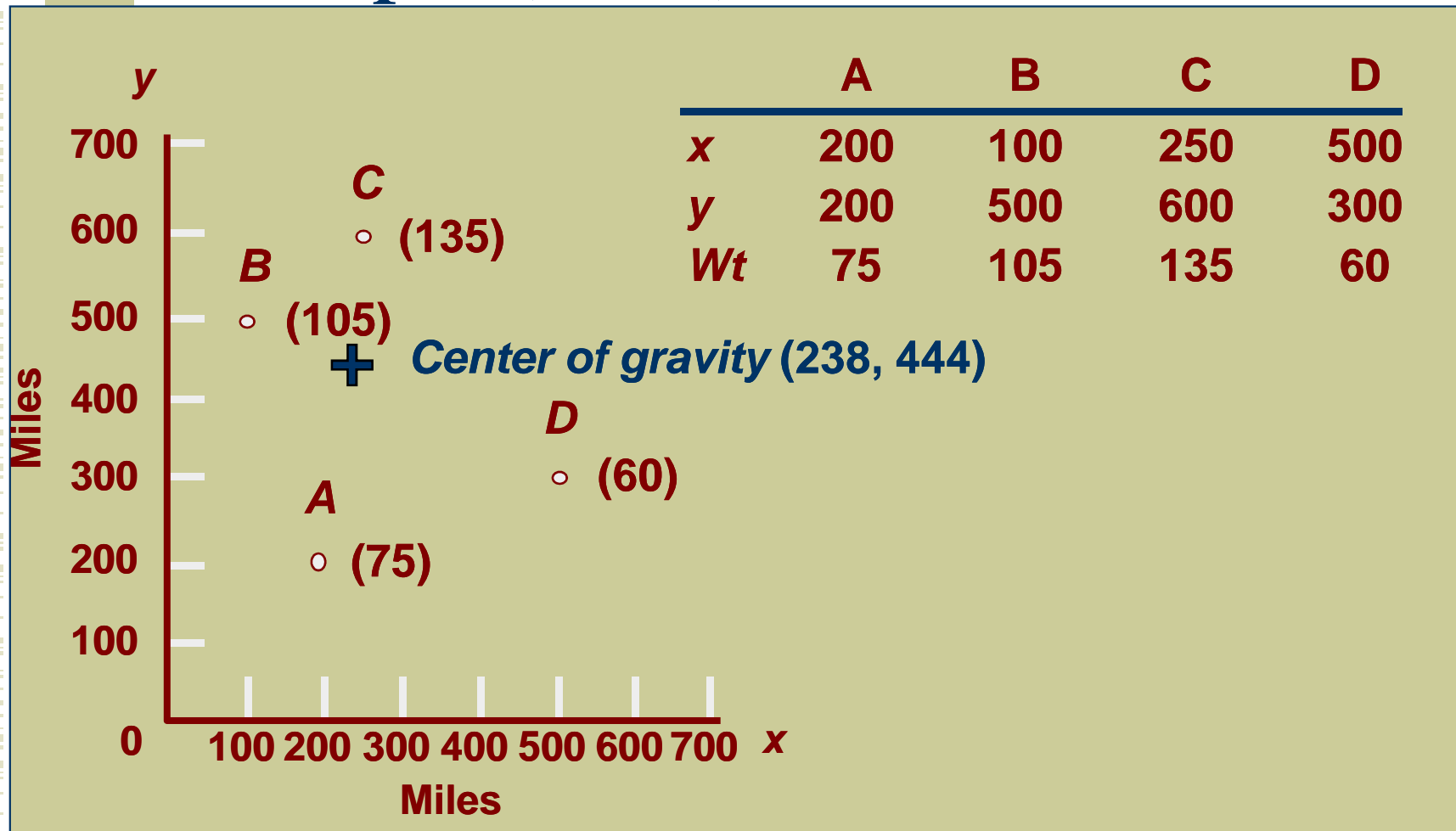


Center-of-Gravity Technique: Example (cont.)

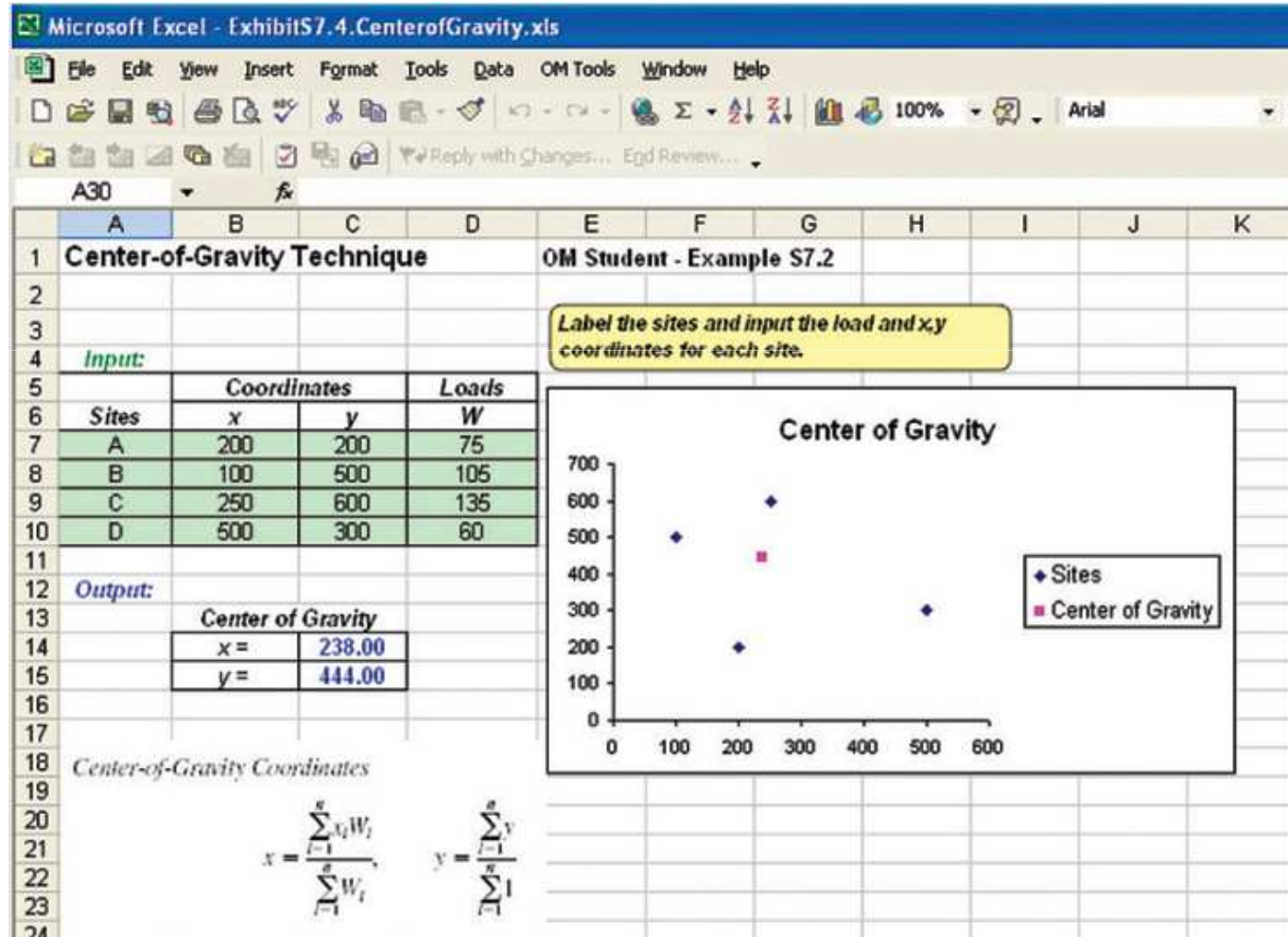
$$x = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i} = \frac{(200)(75) + (100)(105) + (250)(135) + (500)(60)}{75 + 105 + 135 + 60} = 238$$

$$y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i} = \frac{(200)(75) + (500)(105) + (600)(135) + (300)(60)}{75 + 105 + 135 + 60} = 444$$

Center-of-Gravity Technique: Example (cont.)



Center-of-Gravity Technique with Excel and OM Tools





Load-Distance Technique

- ◆ Compute (Load x Distance) for each site
- ◆ Choose site with lowest (Load x Distance)
- ◆ Distance can be actual or straight-line

Load-Distance Calculations

$$LD = \sum_{i=1}^n l_i d_i$$

where,

LD = load-distance value

l_i = load expressed as a weight, number of trips or units being shipped from proposed site and location i

d_i = distance between proposed site and location i

$$d_i = \sqrt{(x_i - x)^2 + (y_i - y)^2}$$

where,

(x,y) = coordinates of proposed site

(x_i, y_i) = coordinates of existing facility

Load-Distance: Example

<u>Potential Sites</u>			<u>Suppliers</u>				
<u>Site</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>Y</u>		<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>
1	360	180	X	200	100	250	500
2	420	450	Y	200	500	600	300
3	250	400	Wt	75	105	135	60

Compute distance from each site to each supplier

$$\text{Site 1 } d_A = \sqrt{(x_A - x_1)^2 + (y_A - y_1)^2} = \sqrt{(200-360)^2 + (200-180)^2} = 161.2$$

$$d_B = \sqrt{(x_B - x_1)^2 + (y_B - y_1)^2} = \sqrt{(100-360)^2 + (500-180)^2} = 412.3$$

$$d_C = 434.2$$

$$d_D = 184.4$$

Load-Distance: Example (cont.)

Site 2 $d_A = 333$ $d_B = 323.9$ $d_C = 226.7$ $d_D = 170$

Site 3 $d_A = 206.2$ $d_B = 180.3$ $d_C = 200$ $d_D = 269.3$

Compute load-distance

$$LD = \sum_{i=1}^n l_i d_i$$

Site 1 = $(75)(161.2) + (105)(412.3) + (135)(434.2) + (60)(434.4) = 125,063$

Site 2 = $(75)(333) + (105)(323.9) + (135)(226.7) + (60)(170) = 99,789$

Site 3 = $(75)(206.2) + (105)(180.3) + (135)(200) + (60)(269.3) = 77,555^*$

*** Choose site 3**

Load-Distance Technique with Excel and OM Tools

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS7.6.LoadDistance.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data OM Tools Window Help

B42

1 **Load-Distance Technique** **OM Student - Example S7.3**

2 **Input:** *Input the x,y coordinates for each destination and site. Enter the destination weights.*

3

4

Map Coordinates	Destination				Map Coordinates	Sites		
	A	B	C	D		1	2	3
x	200	100	250	500	x	360	420	250
y	200	500	600	300	y	180	450	400
Weight	75	105	135	60				

11 **Calculations:**

	Site 1 Distances	Site 2 Distances	Site 3 Distances
A	161.25	A 333.02	A 206.16
B	412.31	B 323.88	B 180.28
C	434.17	C 226.72	C 200.00
D	184.39	D 170.00	D 269.26

21 **Load-Distance Formulas**

$$LD = \sum_{i=1}^n l_i d_i$$

$$d_i = \sqrt{(x_i - x)^2 + (y_i - y)^2}$$

28 **Output:**

LD (Site 1) =	125,061.8
LD (Site 2) =	99,790.5
LD (Site 3) =	77,546.3

22

23

24

25

26

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34

35

Map of Sites and Destinations



Chapter 8

Human Resources

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline



- ◆ Human Resources and Quality Management
- ◆ Changing Nature of Human Resources Management
- ◆ Contemporary Trends in Human Resources Management
- ◆ Employee Compensation
- ◆ Managing Diversity in Workplace
- ◆ Job Design
- ◆ Job Analysis
- ◆ Learning Curves

Human Resources and Quality Management

- ◆ Employees play important role in quality management
- ◆ Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award winners have a pervasive human resource focus
- ◆ Employee training and education are recognized as necessary long-term investments
- ◆ Employees have power to make decisions that will improve quality and customer service
- ◆ Strategic goals for quality and customer satisfaction require teamwork and group participation

Changing Nature of Human Resources Management

- ◆ Scientific management
 - Breaking down jobs into elemental activities and simplifying job design
- ◆ Jobs
 - Comprise a set of tasks, elements, and job motions (basic physical movements)
- ◆ In a *piece-rate wage system*, pay is based on output
- ◆ Assembly-line
 - Production meshed with principles of scientific management
- ◆ Advantages of task specialization
 - High output, low costs, and minimal training
- ◆ Disadvantages of task specialization
 - Boredom, lack of motivation, and physical and mental fatigue

Employee Motivation

◆ Motivation

- willingness to work hard because that effort satisfies an employee need

◆ Improving Motivation

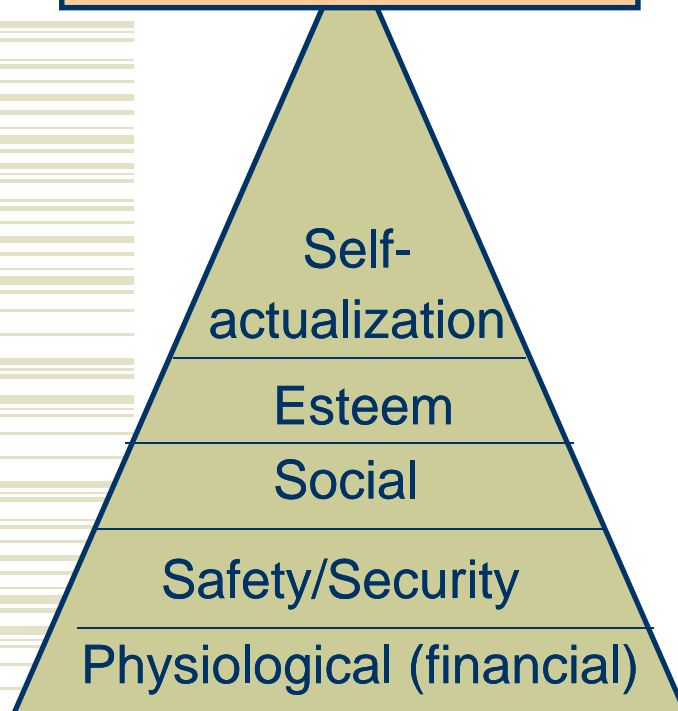
- positive reinforcement and feedback
- effective organization and discipline
- fair treatment of people
- satisfaction of employee needs
- setting of work-related goals

◆ Improving Motivation (cont.)

- design of jobs to fit employee
- work responsibility
- empowerment
- restructuring of jobs when necessary
- rewards based on company as well as individual performance
- achievement of company goals

Evolution of Theories of Employee Motivation

Abraham Maslow's Pyramid of Human Needs



Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

- Theory X Employee
 - Dislikes work
 - Must be coerced
 - Shirks responsibility
 - Little ambition
 - Security top motivator
- Theory Y Employee
 - Work is natural
 - Self-directed
 - Controlled
 - Accepts responsibility
 - Makes good decisions

Frederick Herzberg's Hygiene/Motivation Theories

- Hygiene Factors
 - Company policies
 - Supervision
 - Working conditions
 - Interpersonal relations
 - Salary, status, security
- Motivation Factors
 - Achievement
 - Recognition
 - Job interest
 - Responsibility
 - Growth
 - Advancement

Contemporary Trends in Human Resources Management

- ◆ Job training
 - extensive and varied
 - two of Deming's 14 points refer to employee education and training
- ◆ Cross Training
 - an employee learns more than one job
- ◆ Job rotation
 - horizontal movement between two or more jobs according to a plan
- ◆ Empowerment
 - giving employees authority to make decisions
- ◆ Teams
 - group of employees work on problems in their immediate work area

Contemporary Trends in Human Resources Management (cont.)

- ◆ Job enrichment
 - vertical enlargement
 - allows employees control over their work
 - horizontal enlargement
 - an employee is assigned a complete unit of work with defined start and end
- ◆ Flexible time
 - part of a daily work schedule in which employees can choose time of arrival and departure
- ◆ Alternative workplace
 - nontraditional work location
- ◆ Telecommuting
 - employees work electronically from a location they choose
- ◆ Temporary and part-time employees
 - mostly in fast-food and restaurant chains, retail companies, package delivery services, and financial firms

Employee Compensation

- ◆ Types of pay
 - hourly wage
 - the longer someone works, the more s/he is paid
 - individual incentive or piece rate
 - employees are paid for the number of units they produce during the workday
 - straight salary
 - common form of payment for management
 - commissions
 - usually applied to sales and salespeople



Employee Compensation (cont.)

- ◆ Gainsharing
 - an incentive plan joins employees in a common effort to achieve company goals in which they share in the gains
- ◆ Profit sharing
 - sets aside a portion of profits for employees at year's end



Managing Diversity in Workplace

- ◆ Workforce has become more diverse
 - 4 out of every 10 people entering workforce during the decade from 1998 to 2008 will be members of minority groups
 - In 2000 U.S. Census showed that some minorities, primarily Hispanic and Asian, are becoming majorities
- ◆ Companies must develop a strategic approach to managing diversity

Affirmative Actions vs. Managing Diversity

- ◆ Affirmative action
 - an outgrowth of laws and regulations
 - government initiated and mandated
 - contains goals and timetables designed to increase level of participation by women and minorities to attain parity levels in a company's workforce
 - not directly concerned with increasing company success or increasing profits
- ◆ Managing diversity
 - process of creating a work environment in which all employees can contribute to their full potential in order to achieve a company's goals
 - voluntary in nature, not mandated
 - seeks to improve internal communications and interpersonal relationships, resolve conflict, and increase product quality, productivity, and efficiency

Diversity Management Programs

- ◆ Education
- ◆ Awareness
- ◆ Communication
- ◆ Fairness
- ◆ Commitment



Global Diversity Issues

- ◆ Cultural, language, geography
 - significant barriers to managing a globally diverse workforce
- ◆ E-mails, faxes, Internet, phones, air travel
 - make managing a global workforce possible but not necessarily effective
- ◆ How to deal with diversity?
 - identify critical cultural elements
 - learn informal rules of communication
 - use a third party who is better able to bridge cultural gap
 - become culturally aware and learn foreign language
 - teach employees cultural norm of organization

Attributes of Good Job Design

- ◆ An appropriate degree of repetitiveness
- ◆ An appropriate degree of attention and mental absorption
- ◆ Some employee responsibility for decisions and discretion
- ◆ Employee control over their own job
- ◆ Goals and achievement feedback
- ◆ A perceived contribution to a useful product or service
- ◆ Opportunities for personal relationships and friendships
- ◆ Some influence over the way work is carried out in groups
- ◆ Use of skills



Factors in Job Design

- ◆ Task analysis
 - how tasks fit together to form a job
- ◆ Worker analysis
 - determining worker capabilities and responsibilities for a job
- ◆ Environment analysis
 - physical characteristics and location of a job
- ◆ Ergonomics
 - fitting task to person in a work environment
- ◆ Technology and automation
 - broadened scope of job design

Elements of Job Design

Task Analysis	Worker Analysis	Environmental Analysis
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Description of tasks to be performed	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Capability requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Workplace location
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Task sequence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Performance requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Process location
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Function of tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Temperature and humidity
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Frequency of tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Skill level	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lighting
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Criticality of tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Job training	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ventilation
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Relationship with other jobs/tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Physical requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Safety
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Performance requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mental stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Logistics
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Information requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Boredom	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Space requirements
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Control requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Noise
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Error possibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Number of workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Vibration
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Task duration(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Level of responsibility	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Equipment requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Monitoring level	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Quality responsibility	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Empowerment level	



Job Analysis

- ◆ Method Analysis (work methods)
 - Study methods used in the work included in the job to see how it should be done
 - Primary tools are a variety of charts that illustrate in different ways how a job or work process is done

Process Flowchart Symbols



Operation:

An activity directly contributing to product or service



Transportation:

Moving the product or service from one location to another



Inspection:

Examining the product or service for completeness, irregularities, or quality



Delay:

Process having to wait



Storage:

Store of the product or service

Process Flowchart

Process Flowchart					
Job	Copying Job	Date	10/14		
		Analyst	Calvin		
		Page	1		
Process Description	Start	Process	Decision	Delay	End
Desk operator fills out work order	●	◻	□	D	▽
Work order placed in "waiting job" box	○	◻	□	●	▽
Job picked up by operator and read	○	◻	■	D	▽
Job carried to appropriate copy machine	○	■	□	D	▽
Operator waits for machine to vacate	○	◻	□	●	▽
Operator loads paper	●	◻	□	D	▽
Operator sets machine	●	◻	□	D	▽
Operator performs and completes job	●	◻	□	D	▽
Operator inspects job for irregularities	○	◻	■	D	▽
Job filed alphabetically in completed work shelves	○	■	□	D	▽
Job waits for pickup	○	◻	□	●	▽
Job moved by cashier for pickup	○	■	□	D	▽
Cashier completes transaction	●	◻	□	D	▽
Cashier packages job (bag, wrap, or box)	●	◻	□	D	▽
	○	◻	□	D	▽
	○	◻	□	D	▽

Worker-Machine Chart

Job Photo-Id Cards		Date 10/14	
Time (min)	Operator	Time (min)	Photo Machine
- 1	<i>Key in customer data on card</i>	2.6	<i>Idle</i>
- 2	<i>Feed data card in</i>	0.4	<i>Accept card</i>
- 3	<i>Position customer for photo</i>	1.0	<i>Idle</i>
- 4	<i>Take picture</i>	0.6	<i>Begin photo process</i>
- 5	<i>Idle</i>	3.4	<i>Photo/card processed</i>
- 6			
- 7	<i>Inspect card & trim edges</i>	1.2	<i>Idle</i>
- 8			

Worker-Machine Chart: Summary

Summary				
	Operator Time	%	Photo Machine Time	%
Work	5.8	63	4.8	52
Idle	3.4	37	4.4	48
Total	9.2 min	100%	9.2 Min	100%




Motion Study

- Used to ensure efficiency of motion in a job
- Frank & Lillian Gilbreth
- Find one “best way” to do task
- Use videotape to study motions

General Guidelines for Motion Study

- Efficient Use Of Human Body
 - Work
 - simplified, rhythmic and symmetric
 - Hand/arm motions
 - coordinated and simultaneous
 - Employ full extent of physical capabilities
 - Conserve energy
 - use machines, minimize distances, use momentum
 - Tasks
 - simple, minimal eye contact and muscular effort, no unnecessary motions, delays or idleness

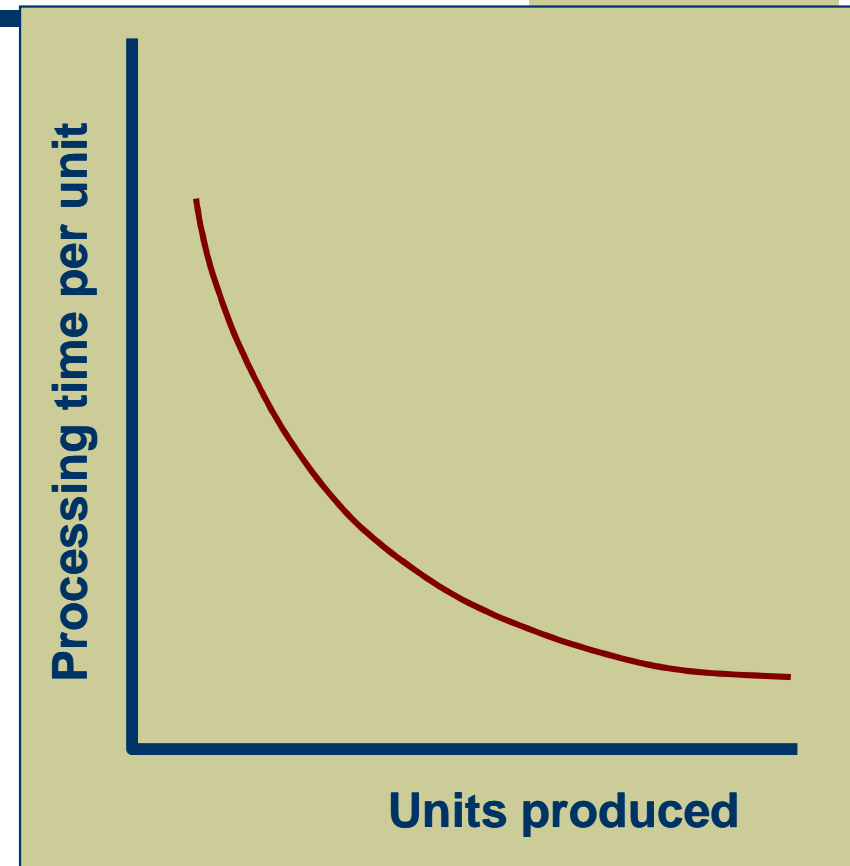


General Guidelines for Motion Study

- **Efficient Arrangement of Workplace**
 - Tools, material, equipment - designated, easily accessible location
 - Comfortable and healthy seating and work area
- **Efficient Use of Equipment**
 - Equipment and mechanized tools enhance worker abilities
 - Use foot-operated equipment to relieve hand/arm stress
 - Construct and arrange equipment to fit worker use

Learning Curves

- ◆ Illustrates improvement rate of workers as a job is repeated
- ◆ Processing time per unit decreases by a constant percentage each time output doubles



Learning Curves (cont.)

Time required for the n^{th} unit =

$$t_n = t_1 n^b$$

where:

t_n = time required for n^{th} unit produced

t_1 = time required for first unit produced

n = cumulative number of units produced

$b = \frac{\ln r}{\ln 2}$ where r is the learning curve percentage
(decimal coefficient)

Learning Curve Effect

Contract to produce 36 computers.

$t_1 = 18$ hours, learning rate = 80%

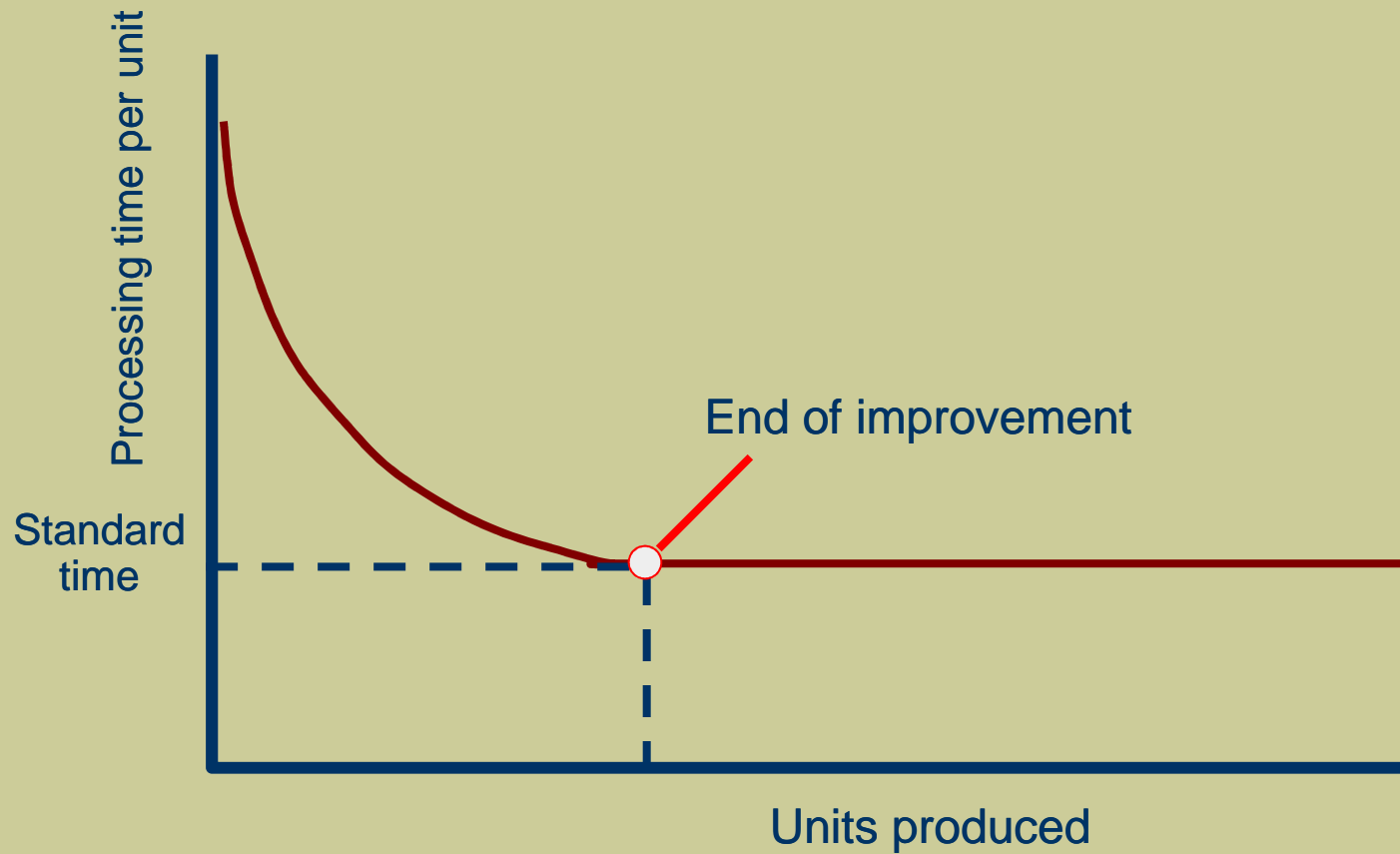
What is time for 9th, 18th, 36th units?

$$\begin{aligned}t_9 &= (18)(9)^{\ln(0.8)/\ln 2} = (18)(9)^{-0.322} \\ &= (18)/(9)^{0.322} = (18)(0.493) = 8.874\text{hrs}\end{aligned}$$

$$t_{18} = (18)(18)^{\ln(0.8)/\ln 2} = (18)(0.394) = 7.092\text{hrs}$$

$$t_{36} = (18)(36)^{\ln(0.8)/\ln 2} = (18)(0.315) = 5.674\text{hrs}$$

Learning Curve for Mass Production Job



Learning Curves (cont.)

◆ Advantages

- planning labor
- planning budget
- determining scheduling requirements

◆ Limitations

- product modifications negate learning curve effect
- improvement can derive from sources besides learning
- industry-derived learning curve rates may be inappropriate



Chapter 8 Supplement

Work Measurement

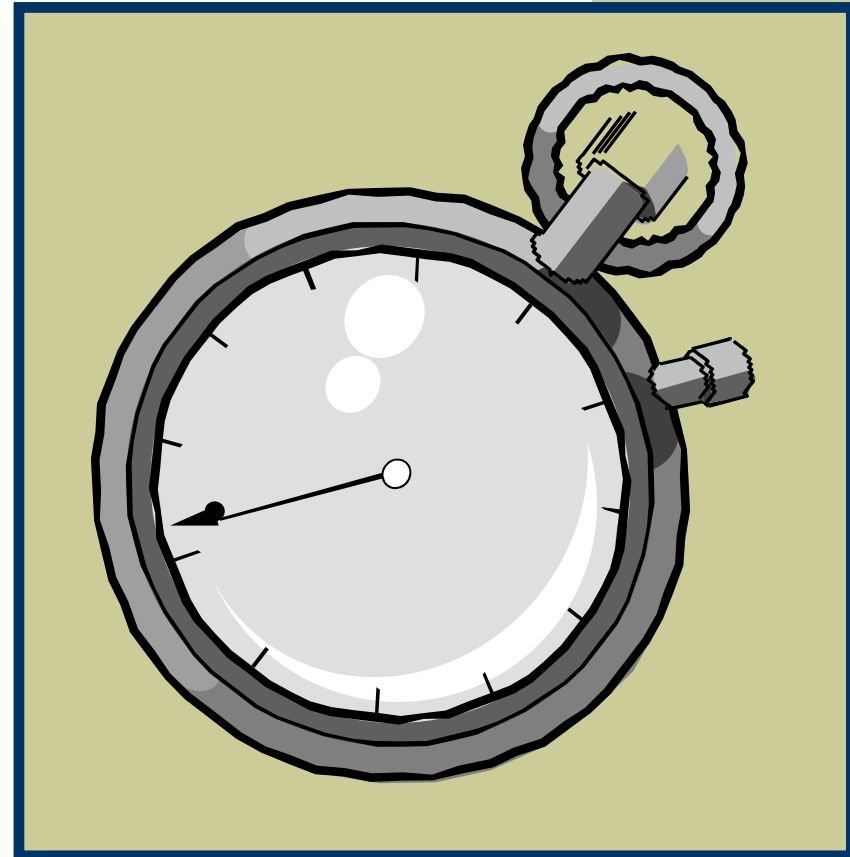
Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



Lecture Outline

- ◆ Time Studies
- ◆ Work Sampling



Work Measurement

- ◆ Determining how long it takes to do a job
- ◆ Growing importance in service sector
 - Services tend to be labor-intensive
 - Service jobs are often repetitive
- ◆ Time studies
 - Standard time
 - is time required by an average worker to perform a job once
 - Incentive piece-rate wage system based on time study



Stopwatch Time Study Basic Steps

1. Establish standard job method
2. Break down job into elements
3. Study job
4. Rate worker's performance (RF)
5. Compute average time (t)

Stopwatch Time Study

Basic Steps (cont.)

6. Compute normal time

Normal Time = (Elemental average) x (rating factor)

$$Nt = (\bar{t})(RF)$$

$$\text{Normal Cycle Time} = NT = \sum Nt$$

7. Compute standard time

Standard Time = (normal cycle time) x (1 + allowance factor)

$$ST = (NT)(1 + AF)$$

Performing a Time Study

Time Study Observation Sheet																									
Identification of operation											Date														
<i>Sandwich Assembly</i>											5/17														
				Operator			Approval			Observer															
				<i>Smith</i>			<i>Jones</i>			<i>Russell</i>															
												Cycles				Summary									
												1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Σt	\bar{t}	RF	Nt
1	<i>Grasp and lay out bread slices</i>	t	.04	.05	.05	.04	.06	.05	.06	.06	.07	.05	.53	.053	1.05	.056									
		R	.04	.38	.72	1.05	1.40	1.76	2.13	2.50	2.89	3.29													
2	<i>Spread mayonnaise on both slices</i>	t	.07	.06	.07	.08	.07	.07	.08	.10	.09	.08	.77	.077	1.00	.077									
		R	.11	.44	.79	1.13	1.47	1.83	2.21	2.60	2.98	3.37													
3	<i>Place ham, cheese, and lettuce on bread</i>	t	.12	.11	.14	.12	.13	.13	.13	.12	.14	.14	1.28	1.28	1.10	.141									
		R	.23	.55	.93	1.25	1.60	1.96	2.34	2.72	3.12	3.51													
4	<i>Place top on sandwich, Slice, and stack</i>	t	.10	.12	.08	.09	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.10	1.03	1.03	1.10	.113									
		R	.33	.67	1.01	1.34	1.71	2.07	2.44	2.82	3.24	3.61													

Performing a Time Study (cont.)

$$\text{Average element time} = \bar{t} = \frac{\Sigma t}{10} = \frac{0.53}{10} = 0.053$$

Normal time = (Elemental average)(rating factor)

$$Nt = (t)(RF) = (0.053)(1.05) = 0.056$$

$$\text{Normal Cycle Time} = NT = \Sigma Nt = 0.387$$

$$ST = (NT) (1 + AF) = (0.387)(1+0.15) = 0.445 \text{ min}$$

Performing a Time Study (cont.)

How many sandwiches can be made in 2 hours?

$$\frac{120 \text{ min}}{0.445 \text{ min/sandwich}} = 269.7 \text{ or } 270 \text{ sandwiches}$$

Number of Cycles

To determine sample size:

$$n = \left(\frac{zs}{e\bar{T}} \right)^2$$

where

z = number of standard deviations from the mean in a normal distribution reflecting a level of statistical confidence

$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$ = sample standard deviation from sample time study

\bar{T} = average job cycle time from the sample time study

e = degree of error from true mean of distribution

Number of Cycles: Example

- Average cycle time = 0.361
- Computed standard deviation = 0.03
- Company wants to be 95% confident that computed time is within 5% of true average time

$$n = \left(\frac{zS}{eT} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{(1.96)(0.03)}{(0.05)(0.361)} \right)^2 = 10.61 \text{ or } 11$$

Number of Cycles: Example (cont.)

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS8.2.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data OM Tools Window Help

Type a question for help

B27 $= (B26*B25/(F4*M21))^2$

Stopwatch Time Study **OM Student - Example S8.1 and S8.3**

Input:

No. of work elements	4	Precision	0.05
No. of cycles	10	Confidence level	0.95
Allowance factor	0.15	Standard deviation	0.03

Input work elements, element times, rating factors, an allowance factor, and other model parameters. Excel will calculate normal time, standard time, and sample size.

Calculations:

Work Element	Element Cycle Times										Rating Factor	Average element time	Normal element time	Standard element time
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
Grasp and lay out bread slices	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.05	1.05	0.053	0.056	0.064
Spread mayonnaise	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.1	0.09	0.08	1.00	0.077	0.077	0.089
Place ham, cheese and lettuce	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.14	1.10	0.128	0.141	0.162
Place top, slice and stack	0.10	0.12	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.10	1.10	0.103	0.113	0.130
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.000	0.000	0.000
												0.361	0.387	0.445

Output:

Normal cycle time	0.387	Normal Elemental Time	$Nt = (\sum t) (RF)$
Standard job time	0.445	Normal Cycle Time	$NT = Nt$
Standard deviation	0.030	Standard Job Time	$ST = (NT)(1 + AF)$
Z-value	1.960	Time Study Sample Size	$n = \left(\frac{zs}{eT}\right)^2$
Sample size	10.612		

Developing Time Standards without a Time Study

- ◆ Elemental standard time files
 - predetermined job element times
- ◆ Predetermined motion times
 - predetermined times for basic micro-motions
- ◆ Time measurement units
 - TMUs = 0.0006 minute
 - 100,000 TMU = 1 hour
- ◆ Advantages
 - worker cooperation unnecessary
 - workplace uninterrupted
 - performance ratings unnecessary
 - consistent
- ◆ Disadvantages
 - ignores job context
 - may not reflect skills and abilities of local workers

MTM Table for MOVE

TIME (TMU) WEIGHT ALLOWANCE

DISTANCE MOVED (INCHES)	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Hand in motion B</i>	<i>Weight (lb) up to:</i>	<i>Dynamic factor</i>	<i>Static constant TMU</i>
3/4 or less	2.0	2.0	2.0				
1	2.5	2.9	3.4	2.3	2.5	1.00	0
2	3.6	4.6	5.2	2.9			
3	4.9	5.7	6.7	3.6	7.5	1.06	2.2
4	6.1	6.9	8.0	4.3			
...							
20	19.2	18.2	22.1	15.6	37.5	1.39	12.5

A. Move object to other hand or against stop

B. Move object to approximate or indefinite location

C. Move object to exact location

Source: MTM Association for Standards and Research.

Work Sampling

- ◆ Determines the proportion of time a worker spends on activities
- ◆ Primary uses of work sampling are to determine
 - ratio delay
 - percentage of time a worker or machine is delayed or idle
 - analyze jobs that have non-repetitive tasks
- ◆ Cheaper, easier approach to work measurement

Steps of Work Sampling

1. Define job activities
2. Determine number of observations in work sample

$$n = \left(\frac{z}{e} \right)^2 p(1 - p)$$

where

n = sample size (number of sample observations)

z = number of standard deviations from mean for desired level of confidence

e = degree of allowable error in sample estimate

p = proportion of time spent on a work activity estimated prior to calculating work sample



Steps of Work Sampling (cont.)

3. Determine length of sampling period
4. Conduct work sampling study; record observations
5. Periodically re-compute number of observations

Work Sampling: Example

What percent of time is spent looking up information? Current estimate is $p = 30\%$
Estimate within $\pm 2\%$, with 95% confidence

$$n = \left(\frac{z}{e} \right)^2 p(1 - p) = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.02} \right)^2 (0.3)(0.7) = 2016.84 \text{ or } 2017$$

After 280 observations, $p = 38\%$

$$n = \left(\frac{z}{e} \right)^2 p(1 - p) = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.02} \right)^2 (0.38)(0.62) = 2263$$

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS8.3.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data OM Tools Window Help

Σ 100% Arial 10 B I U

C11 * =((C10/C5)^2)*C9*(1-C9)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Work Sampling				OM Student - Example S8.4							
2												
3	Input:	No. of resources	28		Observation	No. Idle	% Idle					
4		No. of observations	2		1		0.00					
5		Precision	0.02		2		0.00					
6		Confidence level	0.95									
7												
8												
9	Output:	p-bar	0.3800									
10		Z-value	1.96									
11		Sample size	2263									
12												
13												
14												
15		<i>Work Sampling Sample Size</i>										
16		$n = \left(\frac{z}{e}\right)^2 \bar{p}(1 - \bar{p})$										
17												
18												
19												
20												

Input no. of resources, no. of times a resource was observed idle, and the precision and confidence level required.

Excel will calculate the average percent busy and the sample size.



Chapter 9

Project Management

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



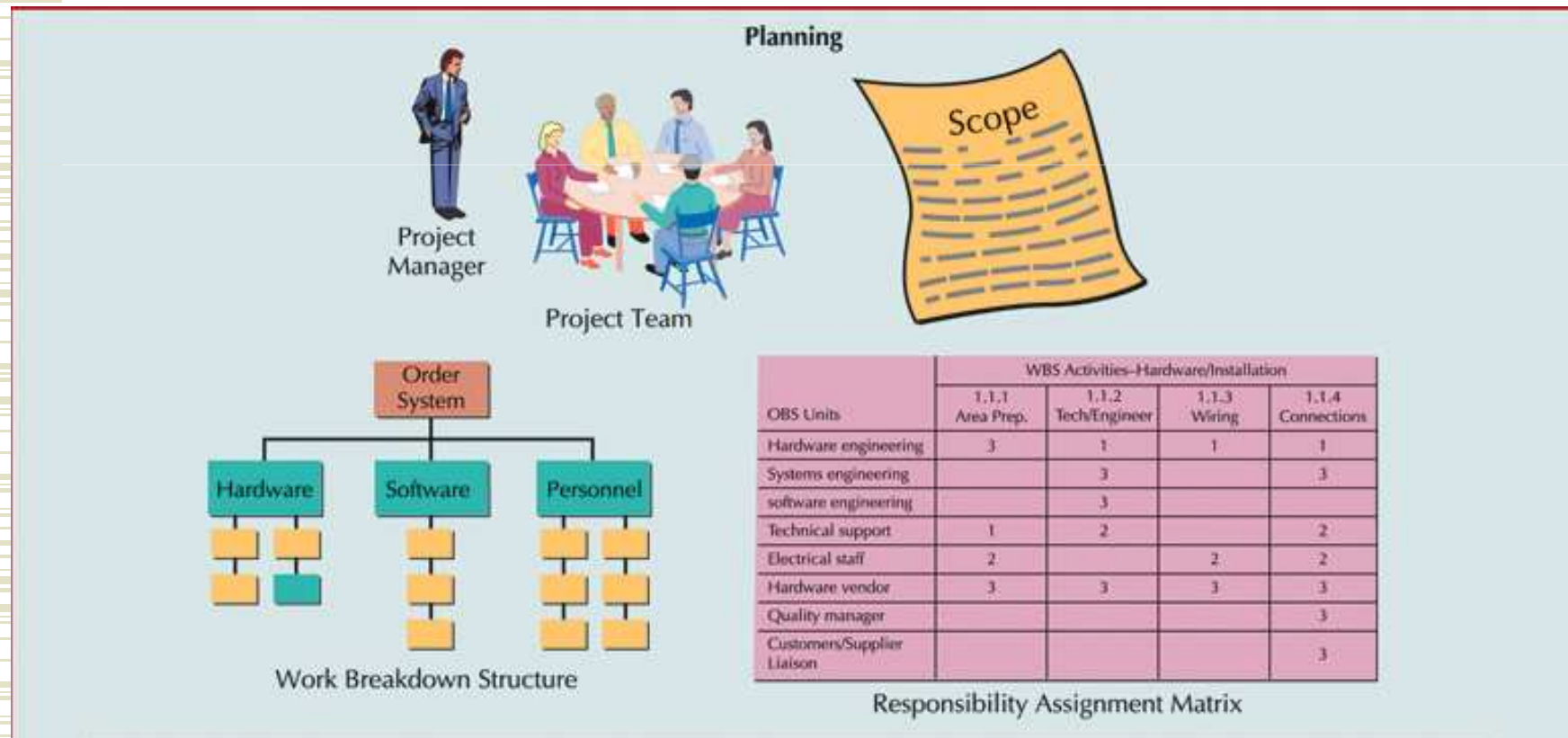


Lecture Outline

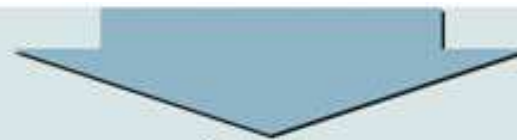
- ◆ Project Planning
- ◆ Project Scheduling
- ◆ Project Control
- ◆ CPM/PERT
- ◆ Probabilistic Activity Times
- ◆ Microsoft Project
- ◆ Project Crashing and Time-Cost Trade-off

Project Management Process

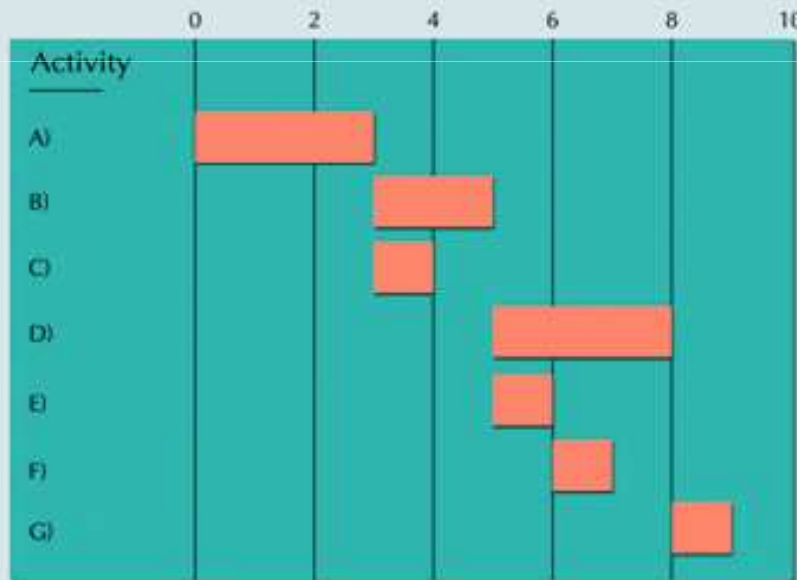
- ◆ Project
 - unique, one-time operational activity or effort



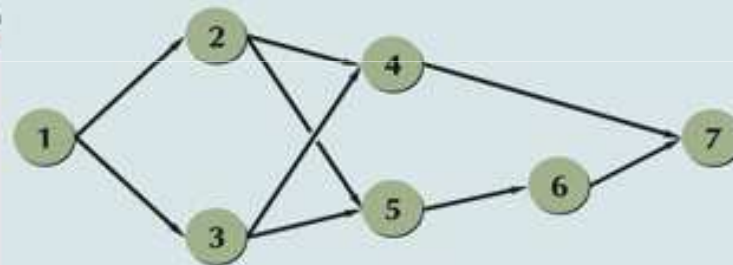
Project Management Process (cont.)



Scheduling



Gantt Chart



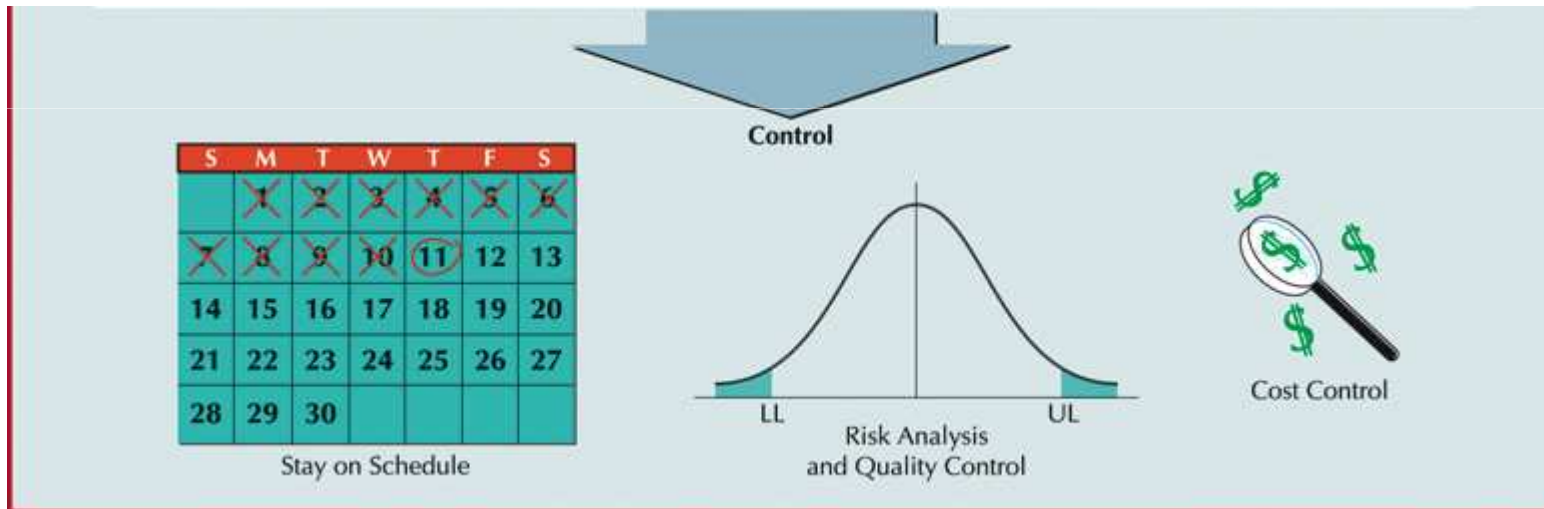
CPM/PERT



Resources



Project Management Process (cont.)





Project Elements

- ◆ Objective
- ◆ Scope
- ◆ Contract requirements
- ◆ Schedules
- ◆ Resources
- ◆ Personnel
- ◆ Control
- ◆ Risk and problem analysis

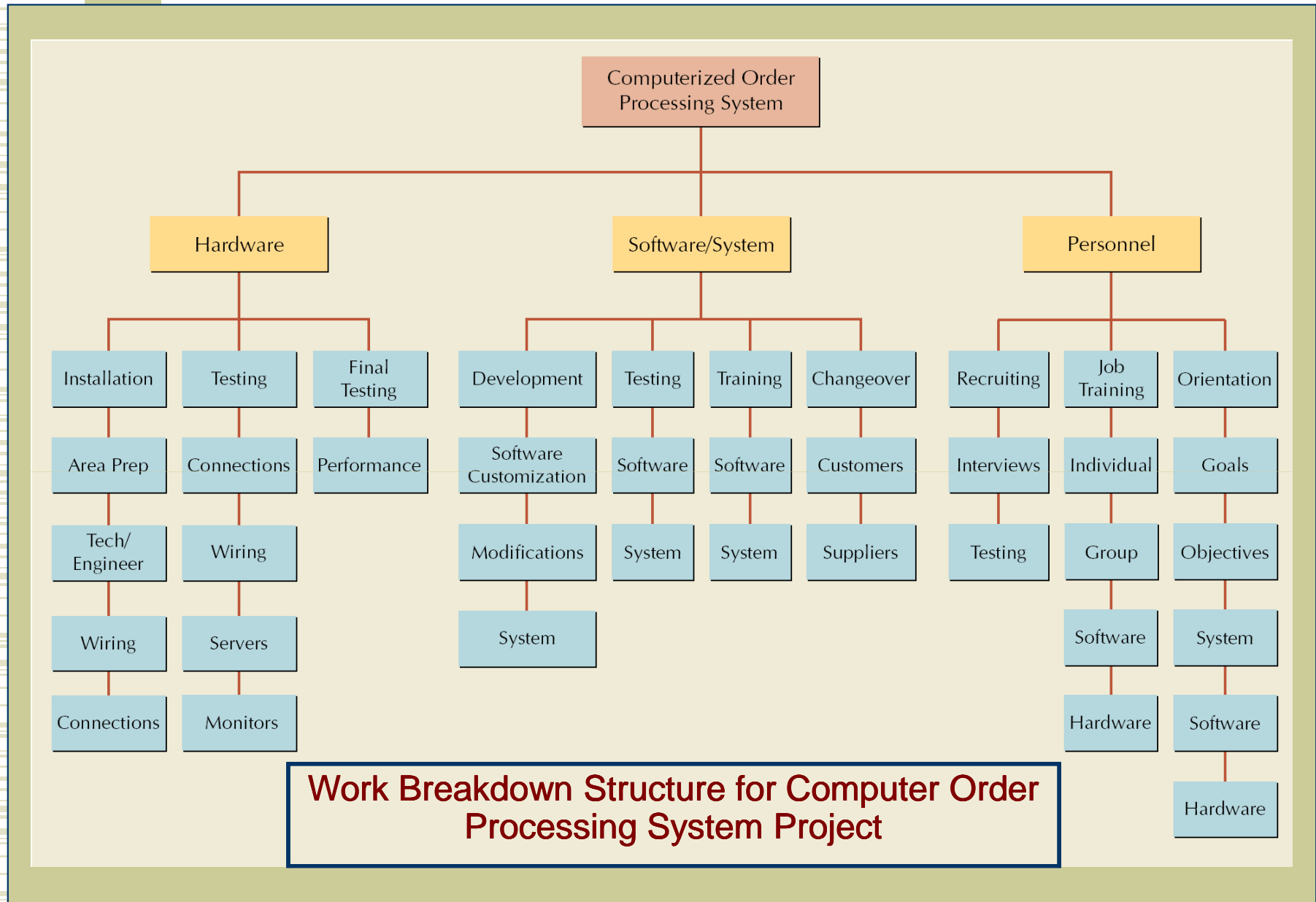


Project Team and Project Manager

- ◆ Project team
 - made up of individuals from various areas and departments within a company
- ◆ Matrix organization
 - a team structure with members from functional areas, depending on skills required
- ◆ Project manager
 - most important member of project team

Scope Statement and Work Breakdown Structure

- ◆ Scope statement
 - a document that provides an understanding, justification, and expected result of a project
- ◆ Statement of work
 - written description of objectives of a project
- ◆ Work breakdown structure (WBS)
 - breaks down a project into components, subcomponents, activities, and tasks



Responsibility Assignment Matrix

OBS Units	WBS Activities–Hardware/Installation			
	1.1.1 Area Prep	1.1.2 Tech/Engineer	1.1.3 Wiring	1.1.4 Connections
Hardware engineering	3	1	1	1
Systems engineering		3		3
Software engineering		3		
Technical support	1	2		2
Electrical staff	2		2	2
Hardware vendor	3	3	3	3
Quality manager				3
Customer/supplier liaison				3

Level of responsibility: 1 = overall responsibility
 2 = performance responsibility
 3 = support

- ◆ Organizational Breakdown Structure (OBS)

- a chart that shows which organizational units are responsible for work items

- ◆ Responsibility Assignment Matrix (RAM)

- shows who is responsible for work in a project



Global and Diversity Issues in Project Management

- ◆ In existing global business environment, project teams are formed from different genders, cultures, ethnicities, etc.
- ◆ In global projects diversity among team members can add an extra dimension to project planning
- ◆ Cultural research and communication are important elements in planning process

Project Scheduling

◆ Steps

- Define activities
- Sequence activities
- Estimate time
- Develop schedule

◆ Techniques

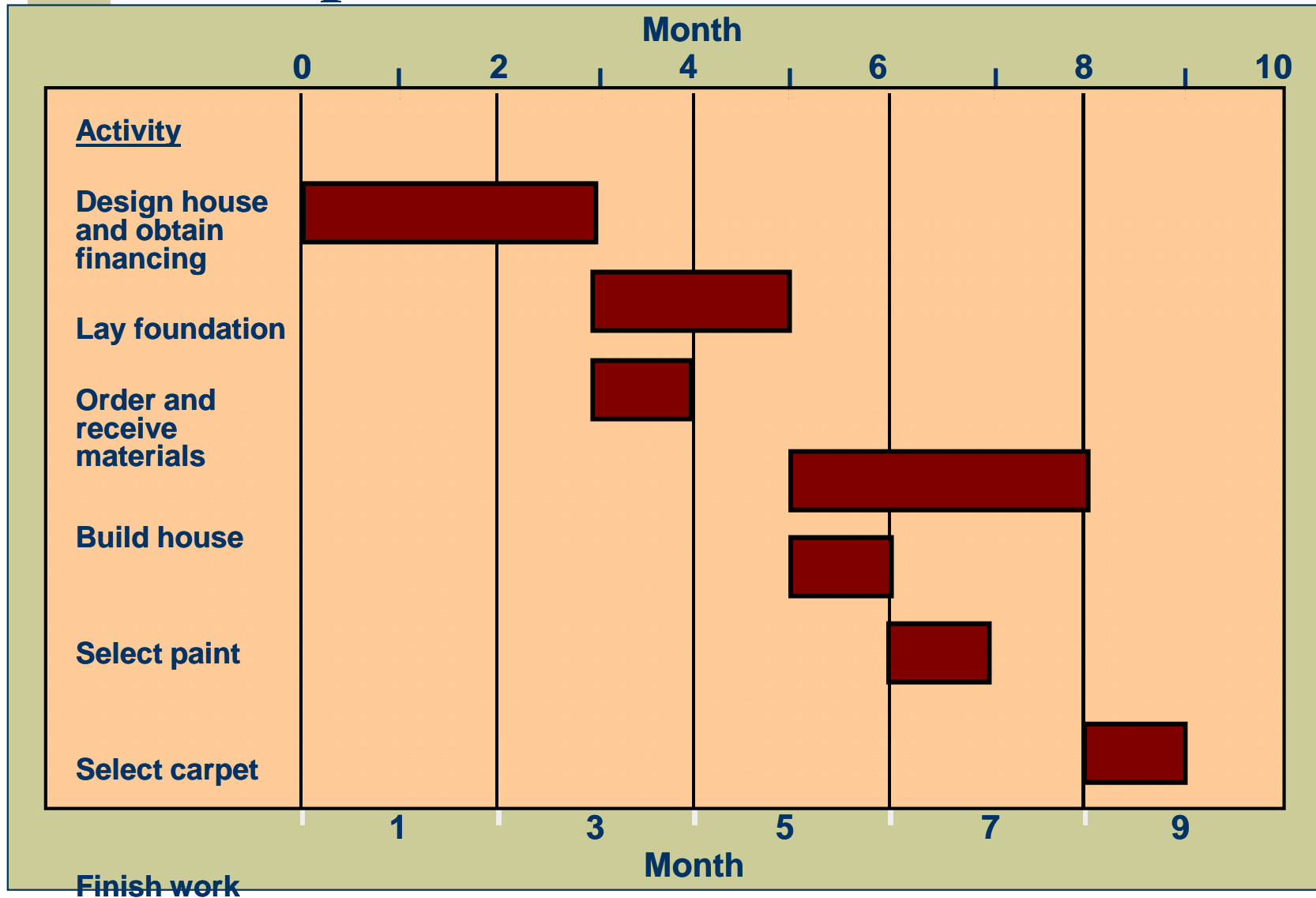
- Gantt chart
- CPM/PERT
- Microsoft Project



Gantt Chart

- ◆ Graph or bar chart with a bar for each project activity that shows passage of time
- ◆ Provides visual display of project schedule
- ◆ Slack
 - amount of time an activity can be delayed without delaying the project

Example of Gantt Chart





Project Control



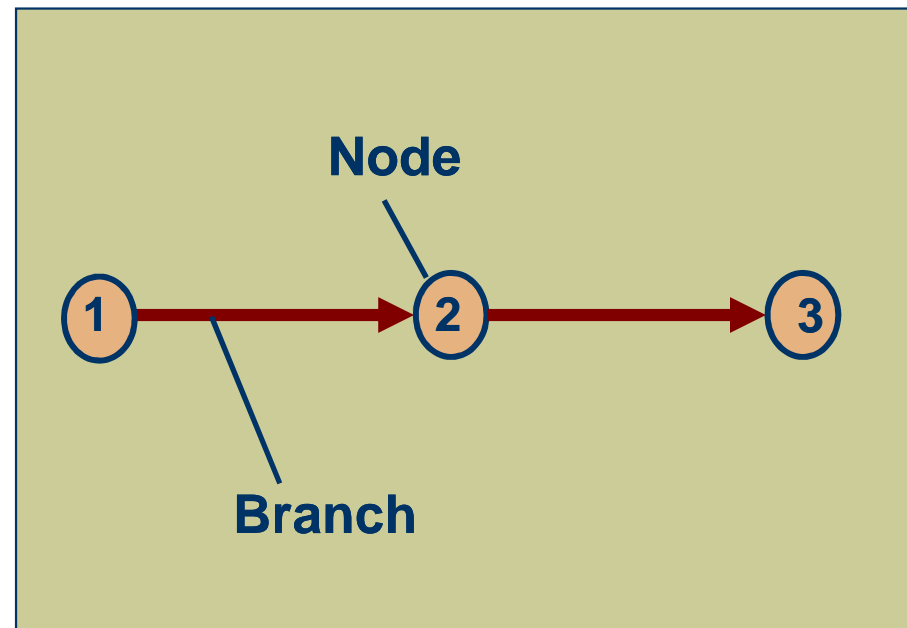
- ◆ Time management
- ◆ Cost management
- ◆ Quality management
- ◆ Performance management
 - Earned Value Analysis
 - a standard procedure for numerically measuring a project's progress, forecasting its completion date and cost and measuring schedule and budget variation
- ◆ Communication
- ◆ Enterprise project management

CPM/PERT

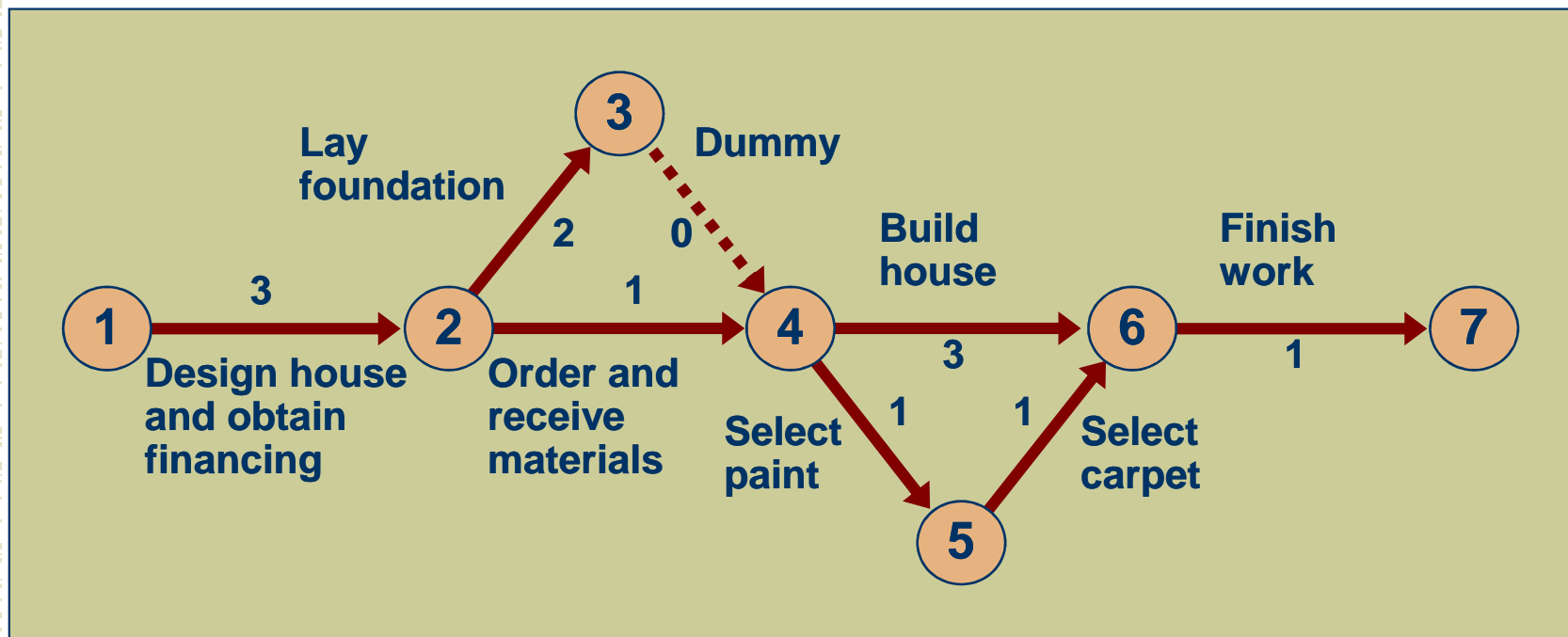
- ◆ Critical Path Method (CPM)
 - DuPont & Remington-Rand (1956)
 - Deterministic task times
 - Activity-on-node network construction
- ◆ Project Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)
 - US Navy, Booz, Allen & Hamilton
 - Multiple task time estimates; probabilistic
 - Activity-on-arrow network construction

Project Network

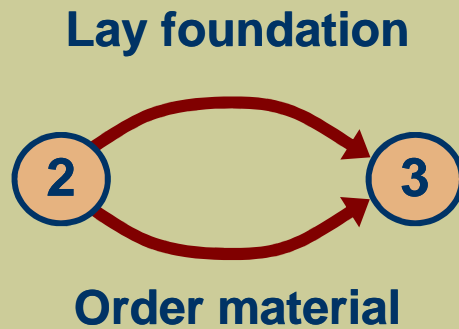
- ◆ Activity-on-node (AON)
 - nodes represent activities, and arrows show precedence relationships
- ◆ Activity-on-arrow (AOA)
 - arrows represent activities and nodes are events for points in time
- ◆ Event
 - completion or beginning of an activity in a project
- ◆ Dummy
 - two or more activities cannot share same start and end nodes



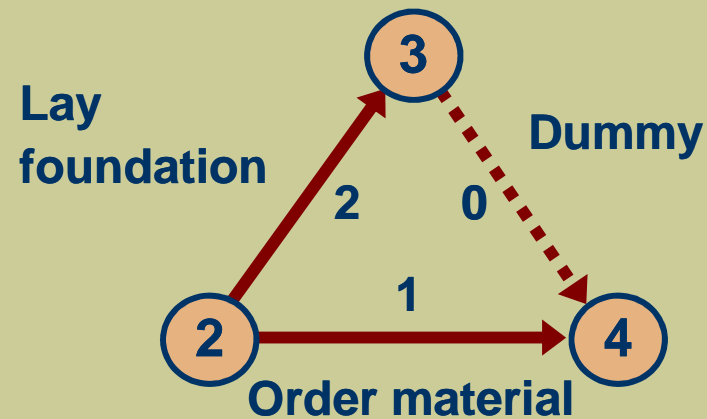
AOA Project Network for a House



Concurrent Activities

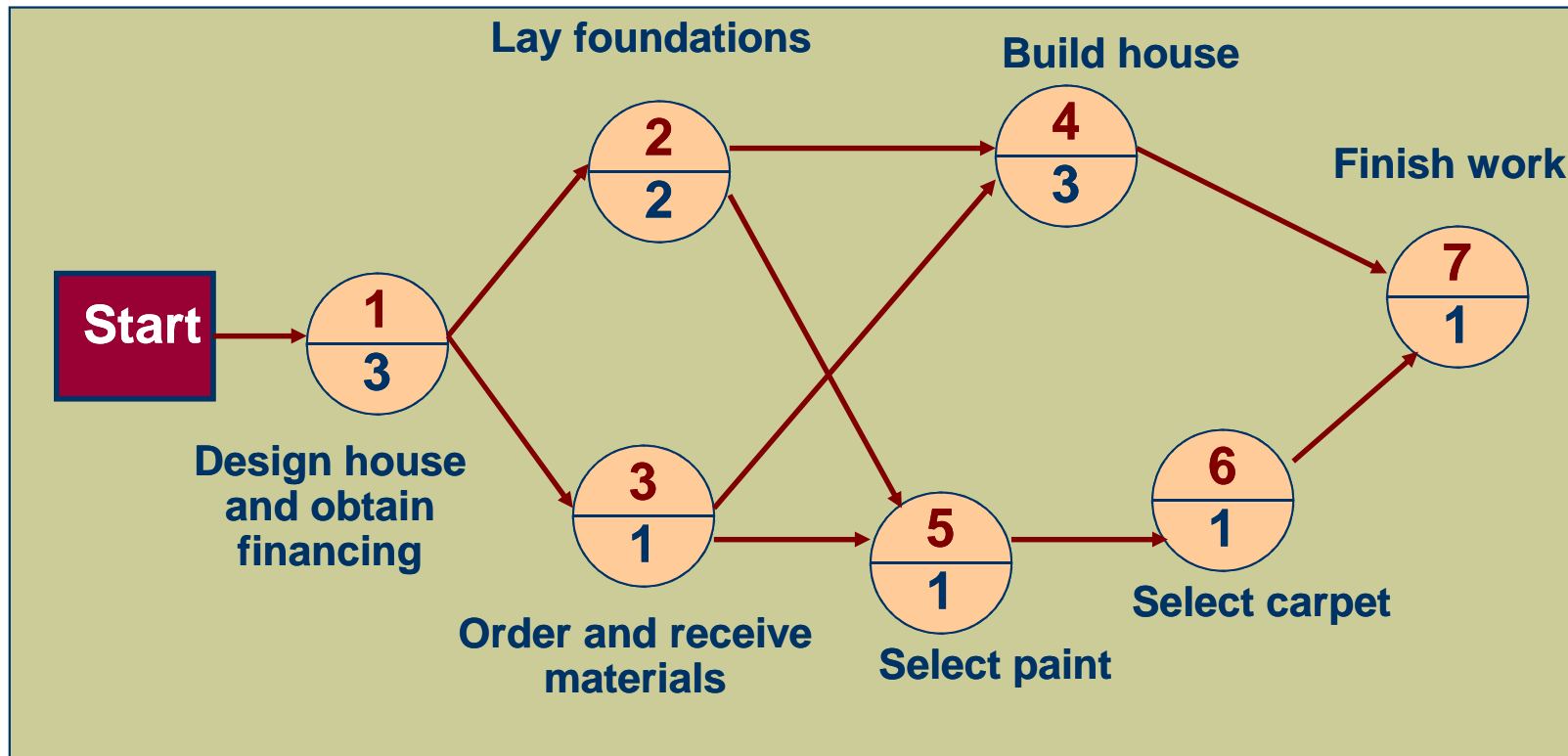


(a) Incorrect precedence relationship

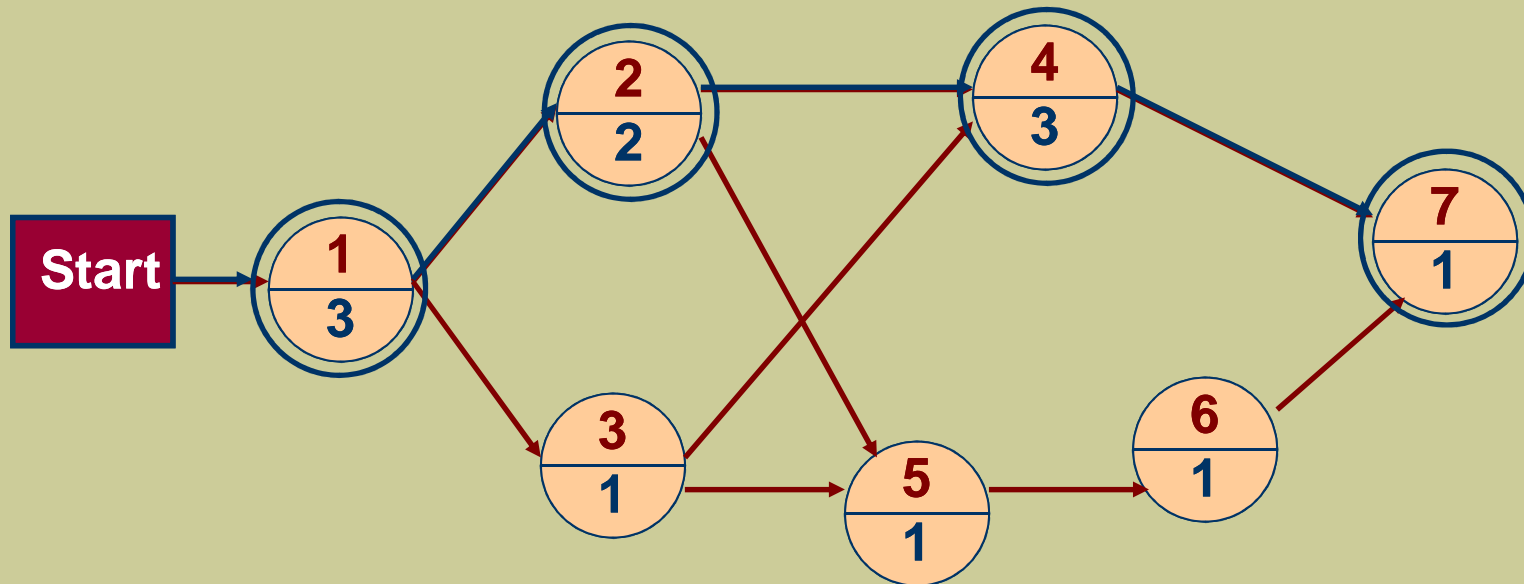


(b) Correct precedence relationship

AON Network for House Building Project



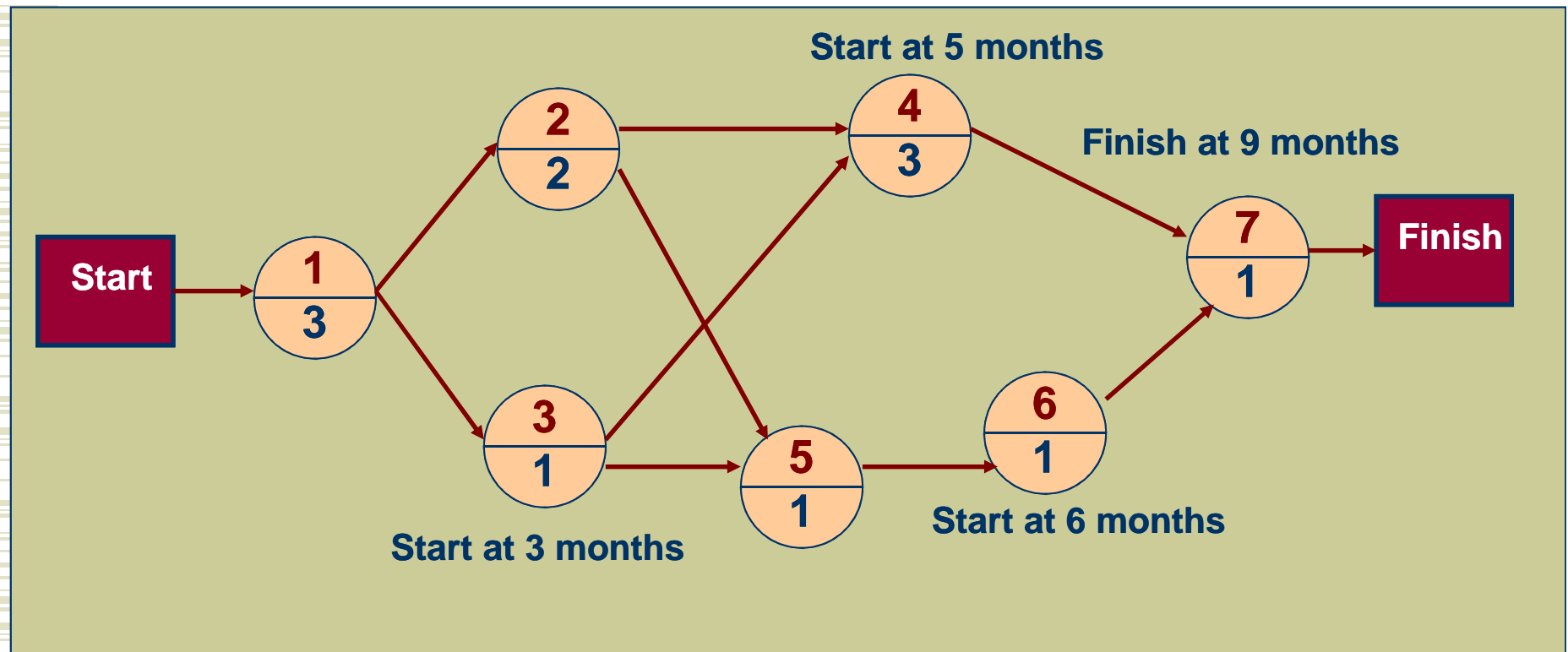
Critical Path



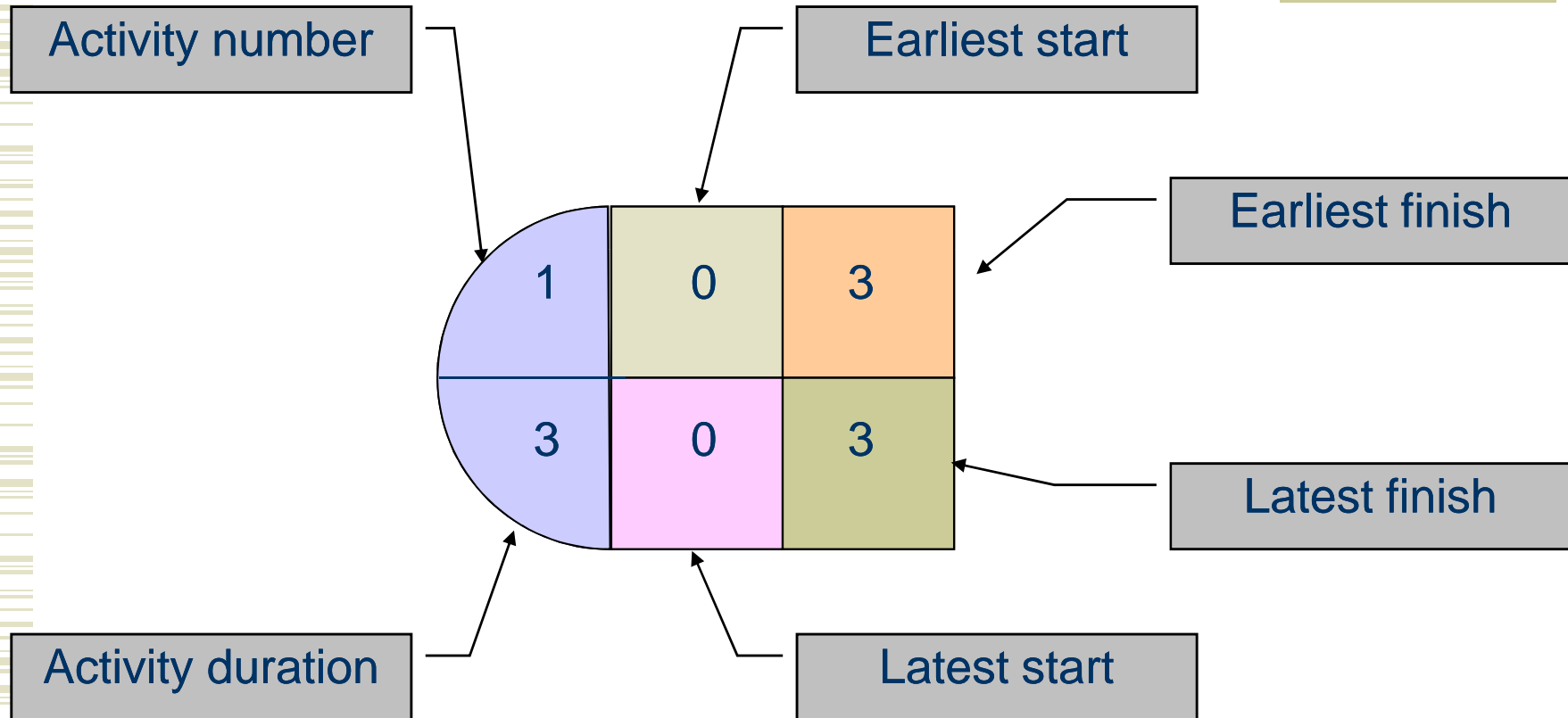
- A: 1-2-4-7
 $3 + 2 + 3 + 1 = 9$ months
- B: 1-2-5-6-7
 $3 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 8$ months
- C: 1-3-4-7
 $3 + 1 + 3 + 1 = 8$ months
- D: 1-3-5-6-7
 $3 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 7$ months

- ◆ Critical path
 - Longest path through a network
 - Minimum project completion time

Activity Start Times



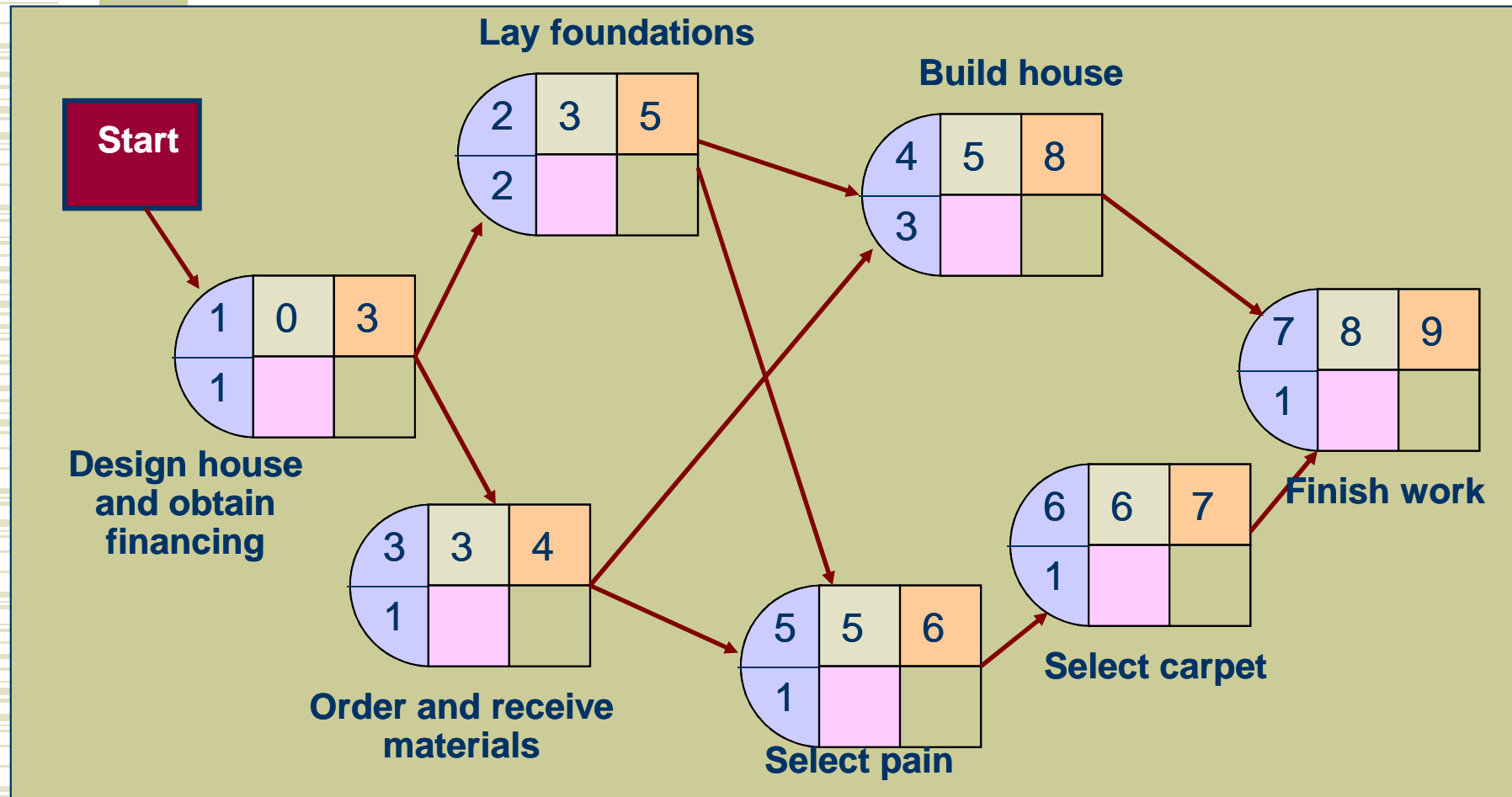
Node Configuration



Activity Scheduling

- ◆ Earliest start time (ES)
 - earliest time an activity can start
 - $ES = \text{maximum EF of immediate predecessors}$
- ◆ Forward pass
 - starts at beginning of CPM/PERT network to determine earliest activity times
- ◆ Earliest finish time (EF)
 - earliest time an activity can finish
 - earliest start time plus activity time
 - $EF = ES + t$

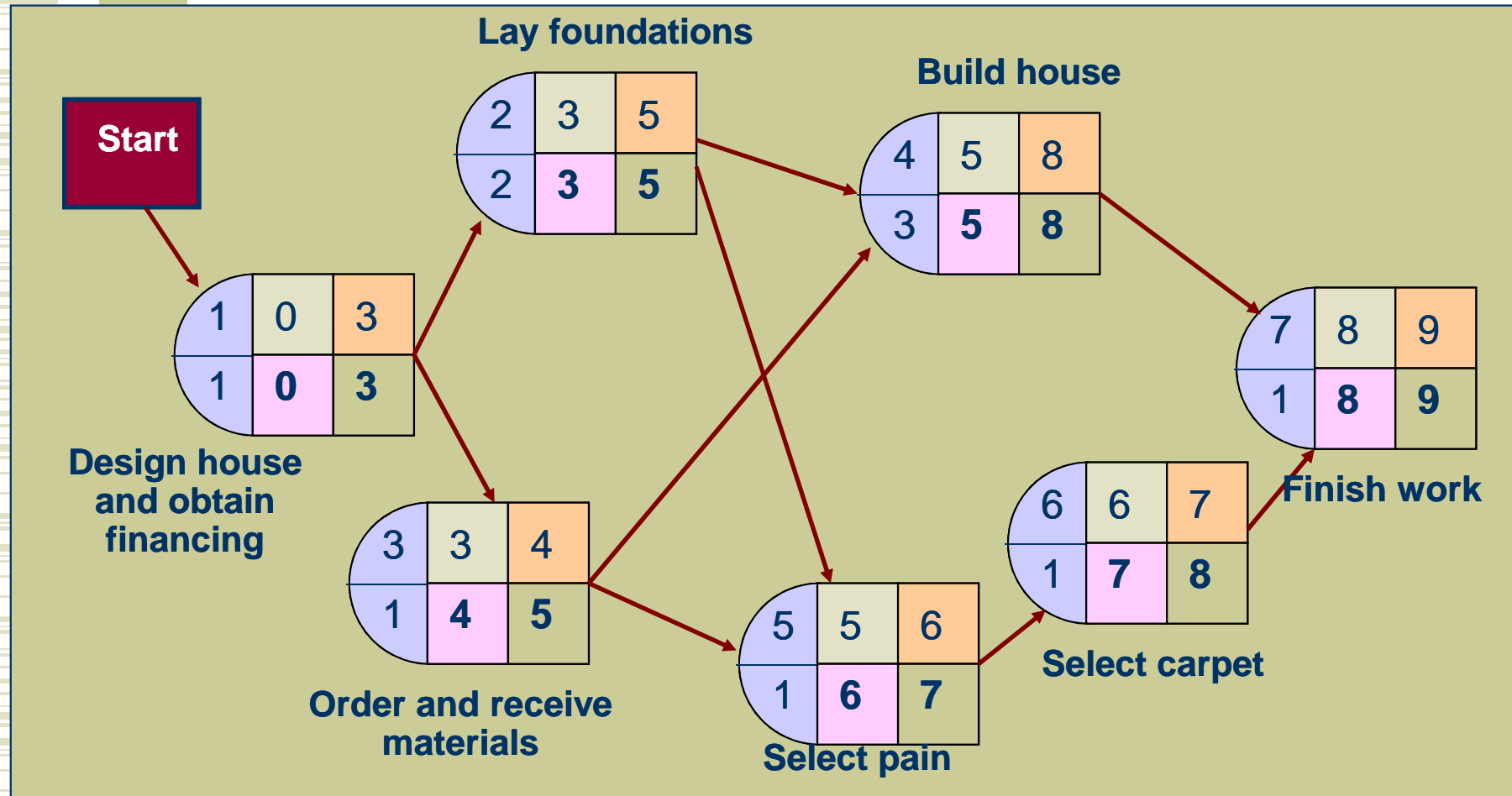
Earliest Activity Start and Finish Times



Activity Scheduling (cont.)

- ◆ Latest start time (LS)
 - Latest time an activity can start without delaying critical path time
 - $LS = LF - t$
- ◆ Latest finish time (LF)
 - latest time an activity can be completed without delaying critical path time
 - $LF = \text{minimum LS of immediate predecessors}$
- ◆ Backward pass
 - Determines latest activity times by starting at the end of CPM/PERT network and working forward

Latest Activity Start and Finish Times



Activity Slack

Activity	LS	ES	LF	EF	Slack S
*1	0	0	3	3	0
*2	3	3	5	5	0
3	4	3	5	4	1
*4	5	5	8	8	0
5	6	5	7	6	1
6	7	6	8	7	1
*7	8	8	9	9	0
* Critical Path					

Probabilistic Time Estimates

- ◆ Beta distribution
 - a probability distribution traditionally used in CPM/PERT

Mean (expected time): $t = \frac{a + 4m + b}{6}$

Variance: $\sigma^2 = \left(\frac{b - a}{6} \right)^2$

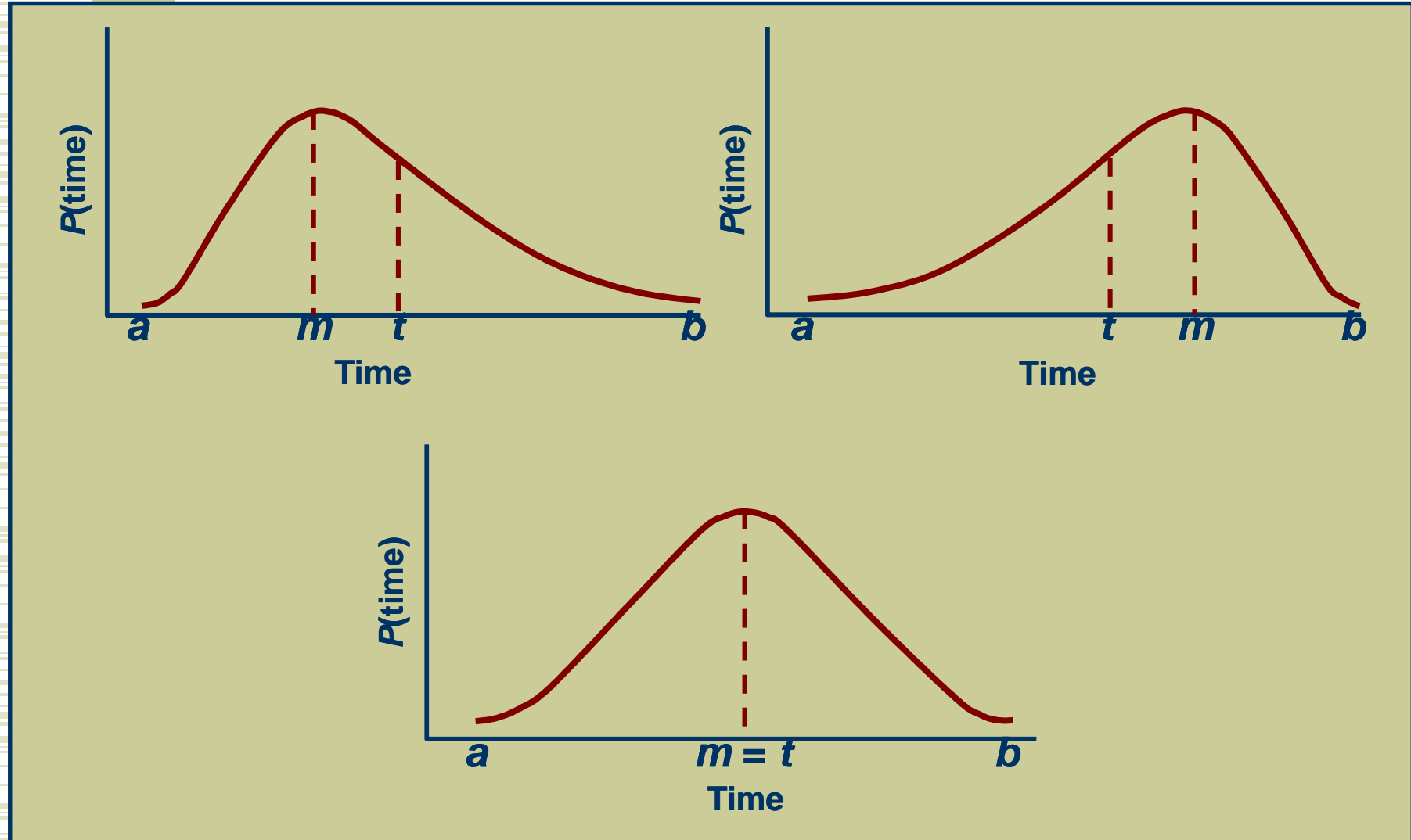
where

a = optimistic estimate

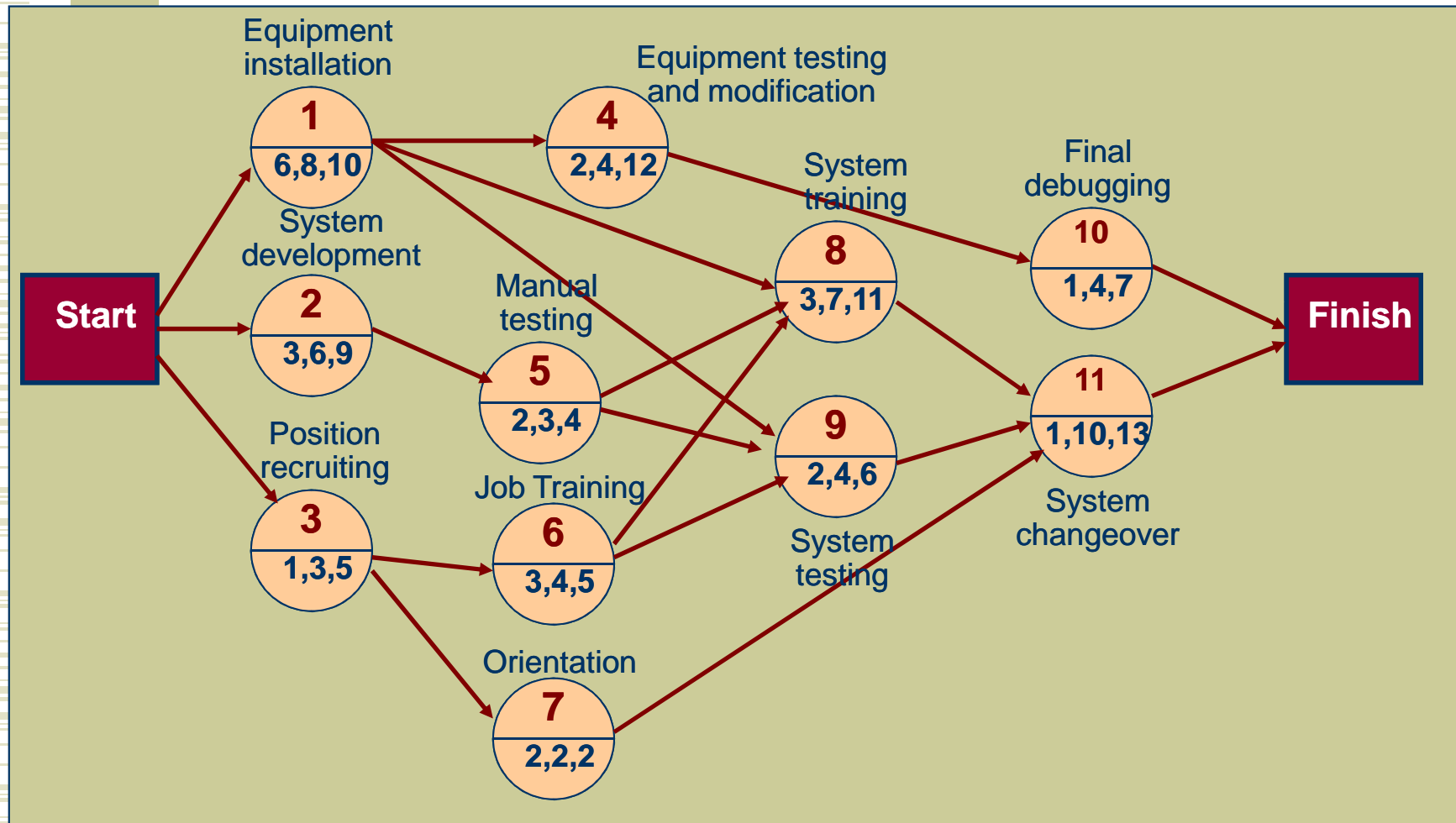
m = most likely time estimate

b = pessimistic time estimate

Examples of Beta Distributions



Project Network with Probabilistic Time Estimates: Example



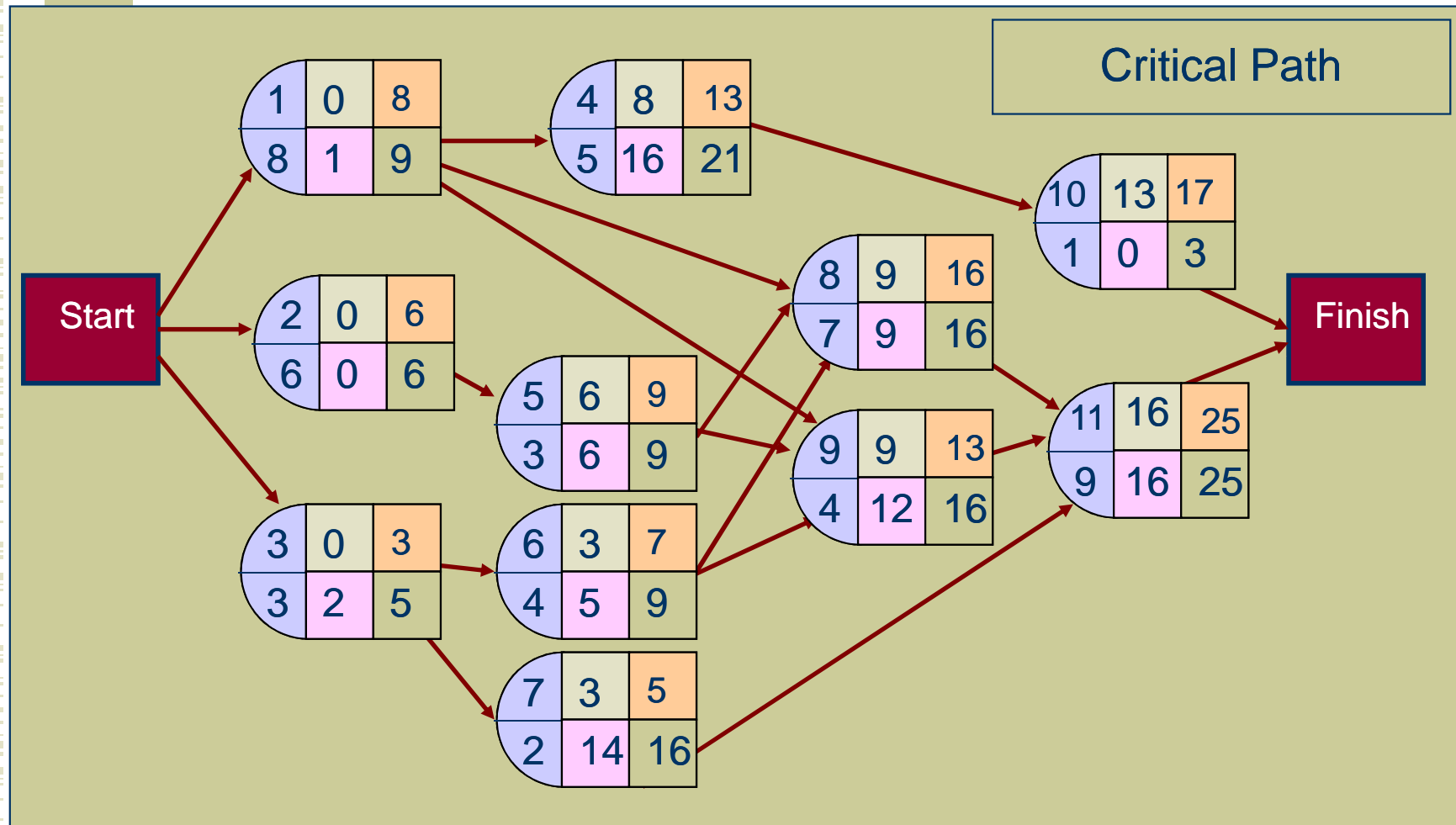
Activity Time Estimates

ACTIVITY	TIME ESTIMATES (WKS)			MEAN TIME	VARIANCE
	<i>a</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	σ^2
1	6	8	10	8	0.44
2	3	6	9	6	1.00
3	1	3	5	3	0.44
4	2	4	12	5	2.78
5	2	3	4	3	0.11
6	3	4	5	4	0.11
7	2	2	2	2	0.00
8	3	7	11	7	1.78
9	2	4	6	4	0.44
10	1	4	7	4	1.00
11	1	10	13	9	4.00

Activity Early, Late Times, and Slack

ACTIVITY	t	σ^2	ES	EF	LS	LF	S
1	8	0.44	0	8	1	9	1
2	6	1.00	0	6	0	6	0
3	3	0.44	0	3	2	5	2
4	5	2.78	8	13	16	21	8
5	3	0.11	6	9	6	9	0
6	4	0.11	3	7	5	9	2
7	2	0.00	3	5	14	16	11
8	7	1.78	9	16	9	16	0
9	4	0.44	9	13	12	16	3
10	4	1.00	13	17	21	25	8
11	9	4.00	16	25	16	25	0

Earliest, Latest, and Slack



Total project variance

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_5^2 + \sigma_8^2 + \sigma_{11}^2$$

$$\sigma = 1.00 + 0.11 + 1.78 + 4.00$$

$$= 6.89 \text{ weeks}$$

1 **Project Management** OM Student - Example 9.1

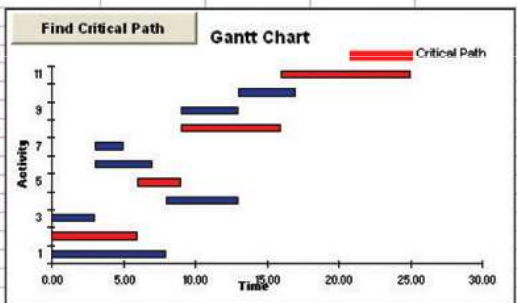
2

3 **Input:** *Input activities, time estimates and activity predecessors. Click on "Find Critical Path" to display the critical path on the Gantt*

4

		Time estimates			Calculations		
Activity	Label	Optimistic	Most Likely	Pessimistic	Mean	Std dev	Variance
1	Equip. install.	6.00	8.00	10.00	8.00	0.67	0.44
2	System dev.	3.00	6.00	9.00	6.00	1.00	1.00
3	Position recruit.	1.00	3.00	5.00	3.00	0.67	0.44
4	Equip. testing	2.00	4.00	12.00	5.00	1.87	2.78
5	Manual testing	2.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	0.33	0.11
6	Job training	3.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	0.33	0.11
7	Orientation	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00
8	System training	3.00	7.00	11.00	7.00	1.33	1.78
9	System testing	2.00	4.00	6.00	4.00	0.67	0.44
10	Final debugging	1.00	4.00	7.00	4.00	1.00	1.00
11	System Change	1.00	10.00	13.00	9.00	2.00	4.00

Activity	Time	Activity Predecessor		
1	8.00			
2	6.00			
3	3.00			
4	5.00	1		
5	3.00	2		
6	4.00	3		
7	2.00	3		
8	7.00	1	5	6
9	4.00	2	4	6
10	4.00	4		
11	9.00	8	9	7



32 **Output:**

34

35 **Project Schedule**

Task	Earliest Start	Earliest Finish	Latest Start	Latest Finish	Activity Slack	Critical Path	Variance
1	0.000	8.000	1.000	8.000	1.000		
2	0.000	6.000	0.000	6.000	0.000	1.000	
3	0.000	3.000	2.000	5.000	2.000		
4	8.000	13.000	16.000	21.000	8.000		
5	6.000	9.000	6.000	9.000	0.000	0.111	
6	3.000	7.000	5.000	9.000	2.000		
7	3.000	5.000	14.000	16.000	11.000		
8	9.000	16.000	9.000	16.000	0.000	1.778	
9	9.000	13.000	12.000	16.000	3.000		
10	13.000	17.000	21.000	25.000	8.000		
11	16.000	25.000	16.000	25.000	0.000	4.000	

48 **Project Completion Time** 25 **Project variance** 6.889

49 **Project std.dev** 2.625

50

Probabilistic Network Analysis

Determine probability that project is completed within specified time

$$Z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

where

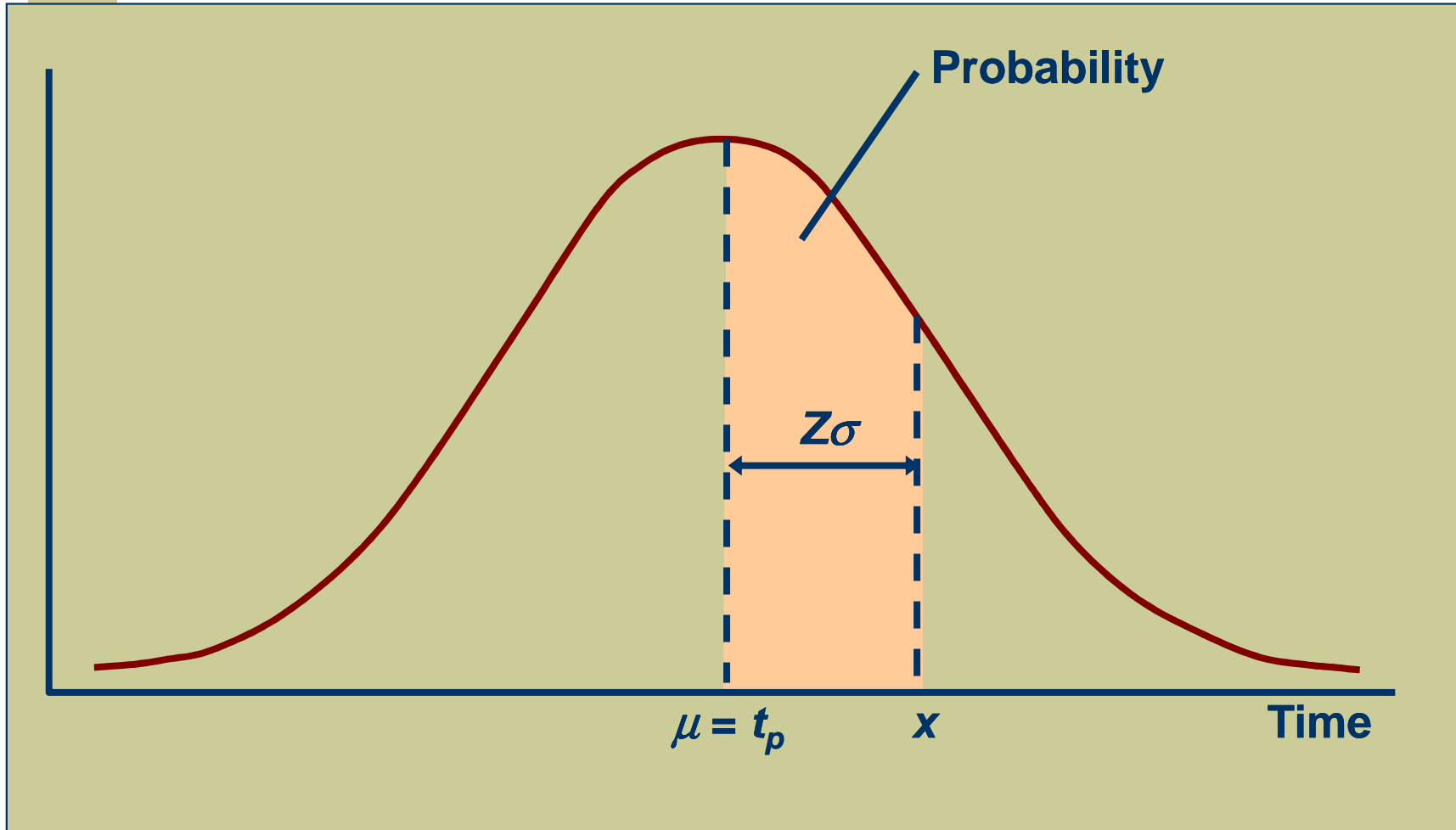
$\mu = t_p =$ project mean time

$\sigma =$ project standard deviation

$x =$ proposed project time

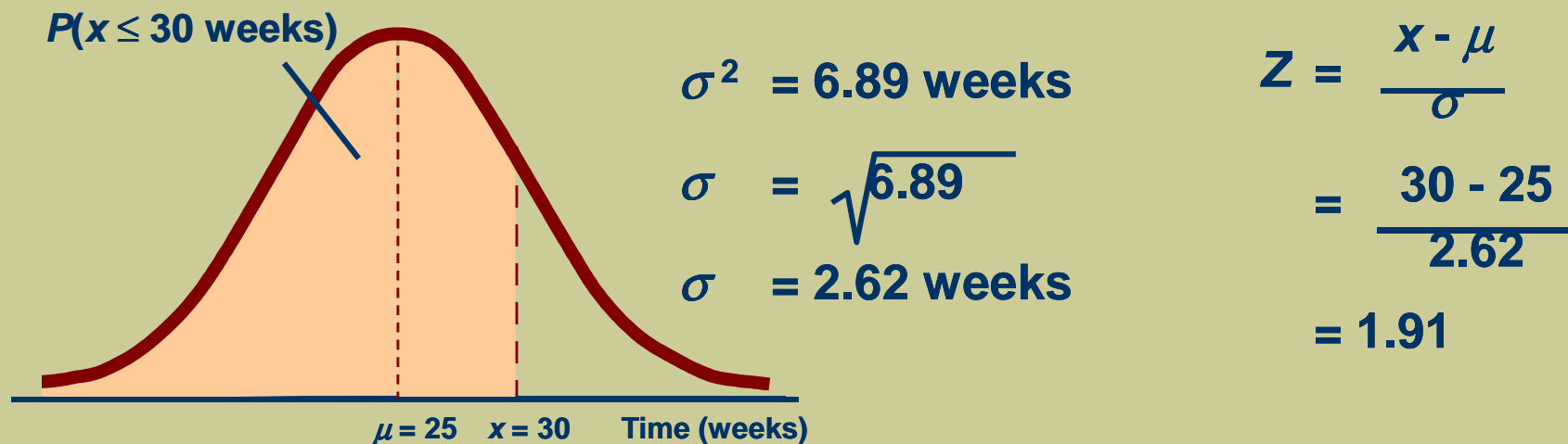
$Z =$ number of standard deviations x is from mean

Normal Distribution of Project Time



Southern Textile Example

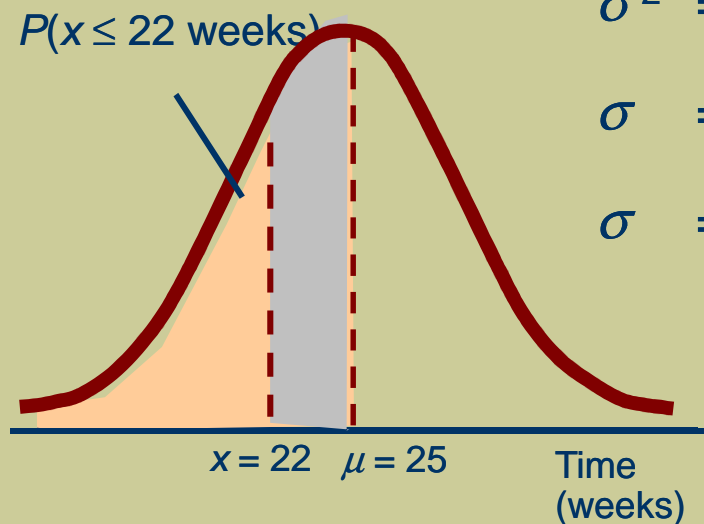
What is the probability that the project is completed within 30 weeks?



From Table A.1, (appendix A) a Z score of 1.91 corresponds to a probability of 0.4719. Thus $P(30) = 0.4719 + 0.5000 = 0.9719$

Southern Textile Example

What is the probability that the project is completed within 22 weeks?



$$\sigma^2 = 6.89 \text{ weeks}$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{6.89}$$

$$\sigma = 2.62 \text{ weeks}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{22 - 25}{2.62} \\ &= -1.14 \end{aligned}$$

From Table A.1 (appendix A) a Z score of -1.14 corresponds to a probability of 0.3729. Thus $P(22) = 0.5000 - 0.3729 = 0.1271$



Microsoft Project

- ◆ Popular software package for project management and CPM/PERT analysis
- ◆ Relatively easy to use

Microsoft Project (cont.)

The screenshot shows the Microsoft Project application window titled "House Building Project.mpp". The interface includes a menu bar (File, Edit, View, Insert, Format, Tools, Project, Window, Help), a toolbar, and a task list table. The task list table has columns for Task Name, Duration, Start, Finish, and Predecessors, followed by a Gantt chart area with monthly columns for 2008 and 2009. A task is listed in the table with a start date of 3/1/2008. A task pane on the left contains instructions for planning tasks. Two callout boxes are present: one pointing to the task list table with the text "Click on tasks", and another pointing to the task name cell with the text "First step; start date".

Click on tasks

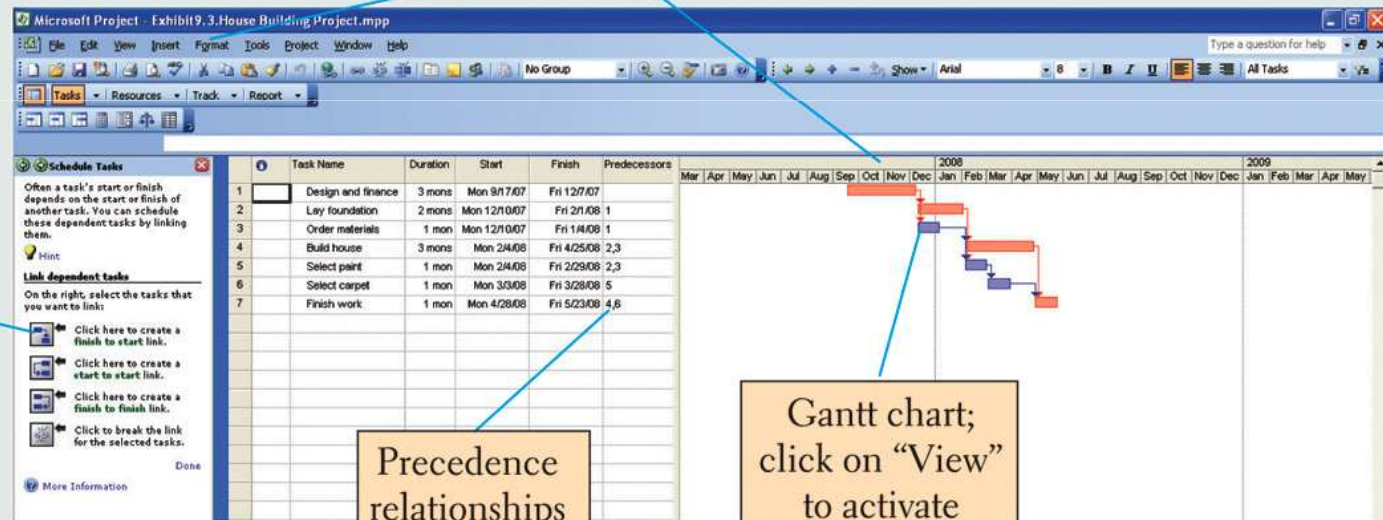
First step; start date

Task Name	Duration	Start	Finish	Predecessors
		3/1/2008		

Microsoft Project (cont.)

Click on "Format" then "Timescale" to scale Gantt chart.

Create precedence relationships; click on predecessor activity, then holding "Ctrl" key, click on successor activity.

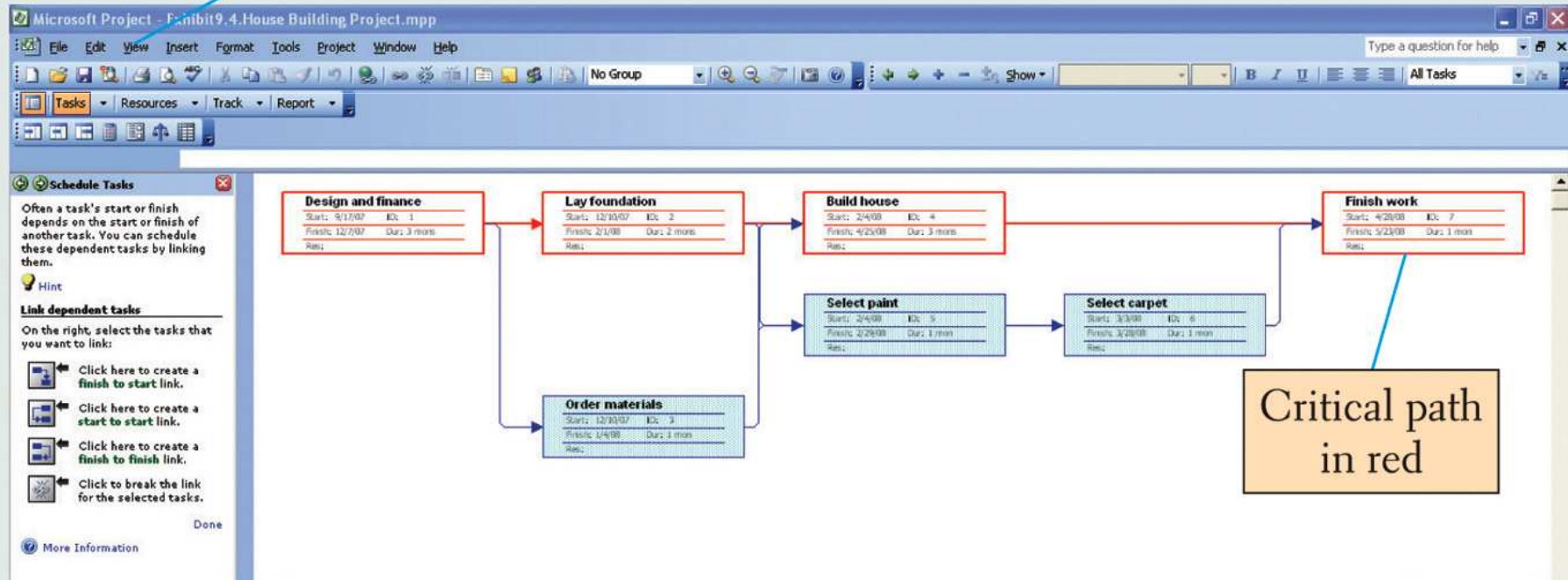


Precedence relationships

Gantt chart; click on "View" to activate

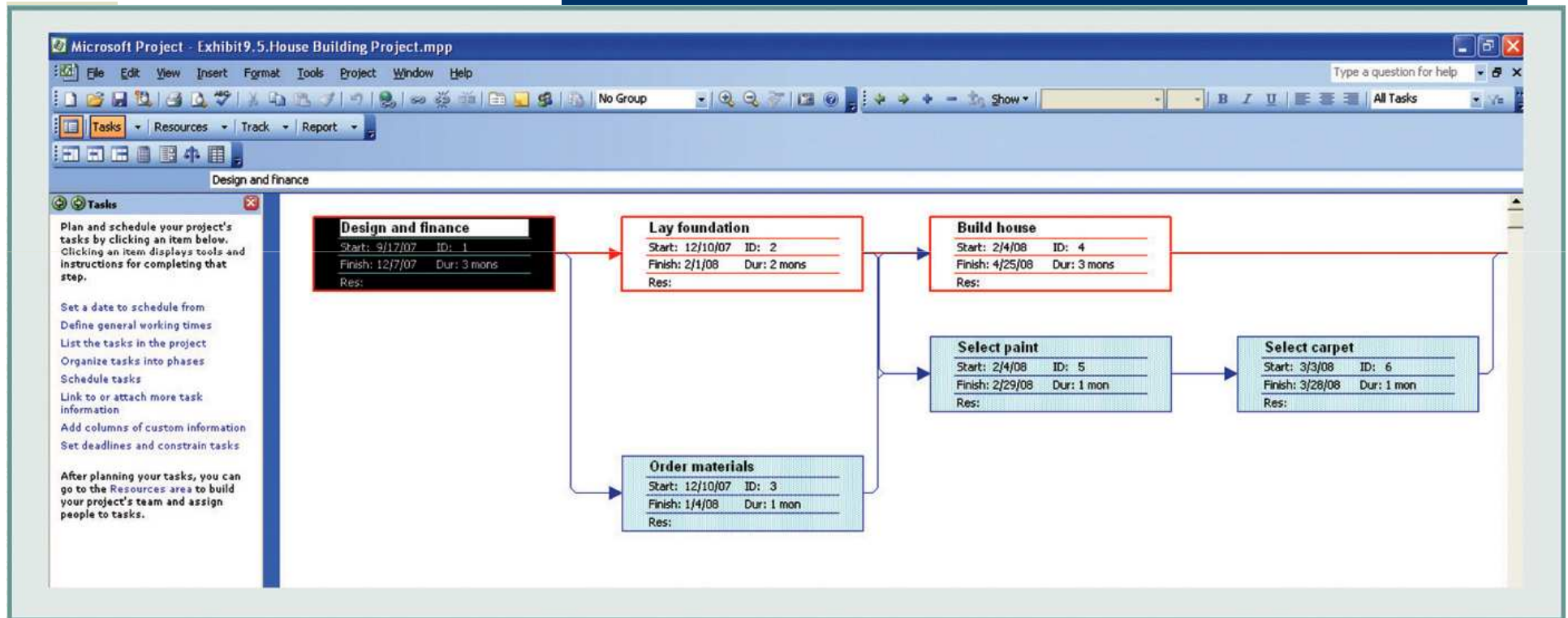
Microsoft Project (cont.)

Click on "View"
then Network Diagram



Critical path
in red

Microsoft Project (cont.)



Microsoft Project (cont.)

Enter % completion

Task Information

General | Predecessors | Resources | Advanced | Notes | Custom Fields

Name: Design and finance Duration: 3mo Estimated

Percent complete: 100% Priority: 500

Dates

Start: Mon 9/17/07 Finish: Fri 12/7/07

Hide task bar
 Roll up Gantt bar to summary

Help OK Cancel

Microsoft Project (cont.)

Microsoft Project - Exhibit9.7.House Building Project.mpp

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Project Window Help

Tasks Resources Track Report

Tasks

Plan and schedule your project's tasks by clicking an item below. Clicking an item displays tools and instructions for completing that step.

Set a date to schedule from
Define general working times
List the tasks in the project
Organize tasks into phases
Schedule tasks
Link to or attach more task information
Add columns of custom information
Set deadlines and constrain tasks

After planning your tasks, you can go to the Resources area to build your project's team and assign people to tasks.

ID	Task Name	Duration	Start	Finish	Predecessors
1	Design and finance	3 mons	Mon 9/17/07	Fri 12/7/07	
2	Lay foundation	2 mons	Mon 12/10/07	Fri 2/1/08	1
3	Order materials	1 mon	Mon 12/10/07	Fri 1/4/08	1
4	Build house	3 mons	Mon 2/4/08	Fri 4/25/08	2,3
5	Select paint	1 mon	Mon 2/4/08	Fri 2/29/08	2,3
6	Select carpet	1 mon	Mon 3/3/08	Fri 3/28/08	5
7	Finish work	1 mon	Mon 4/28/08	Fri 5/23/08	4,6

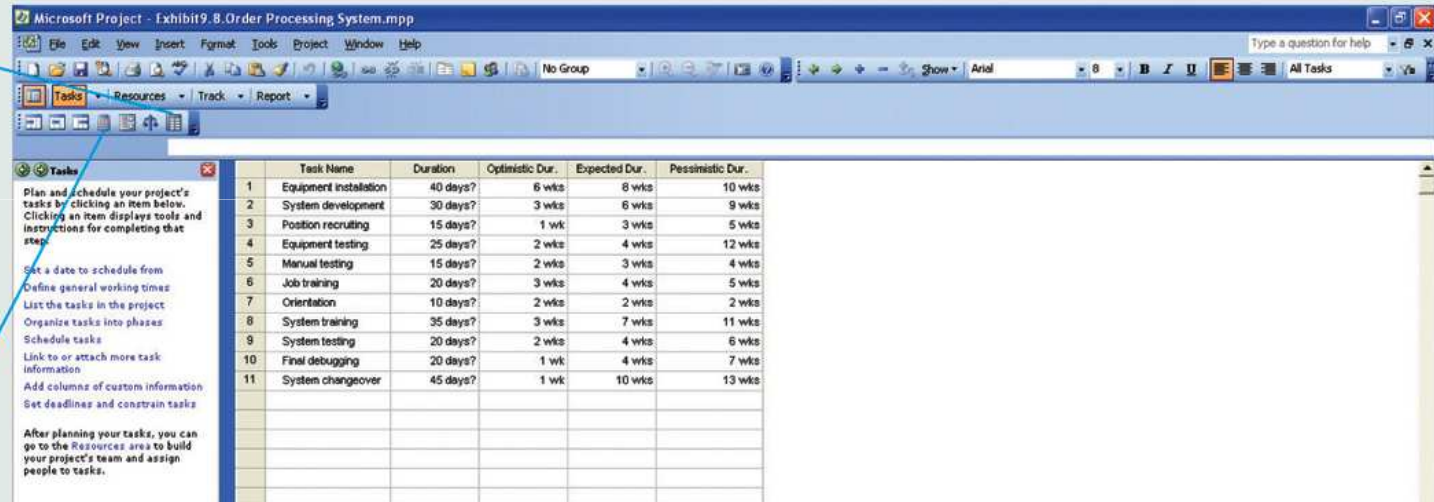
Activities 1, 2 and 3
100% complete

Black bars show
degree of completion

PERT Analysis with Microsoft Project

Click on PERT Entry Sheet to enter 3 time estimates

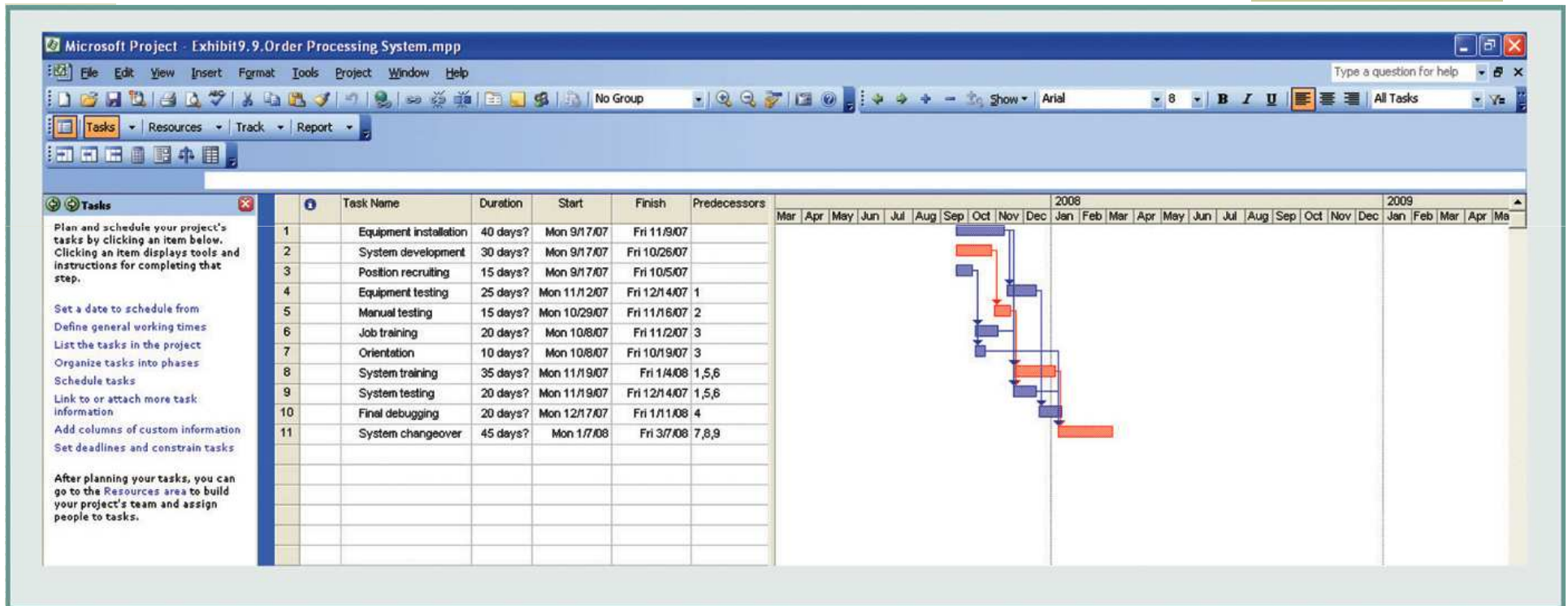
Click on PERT calculator to compute activity duration



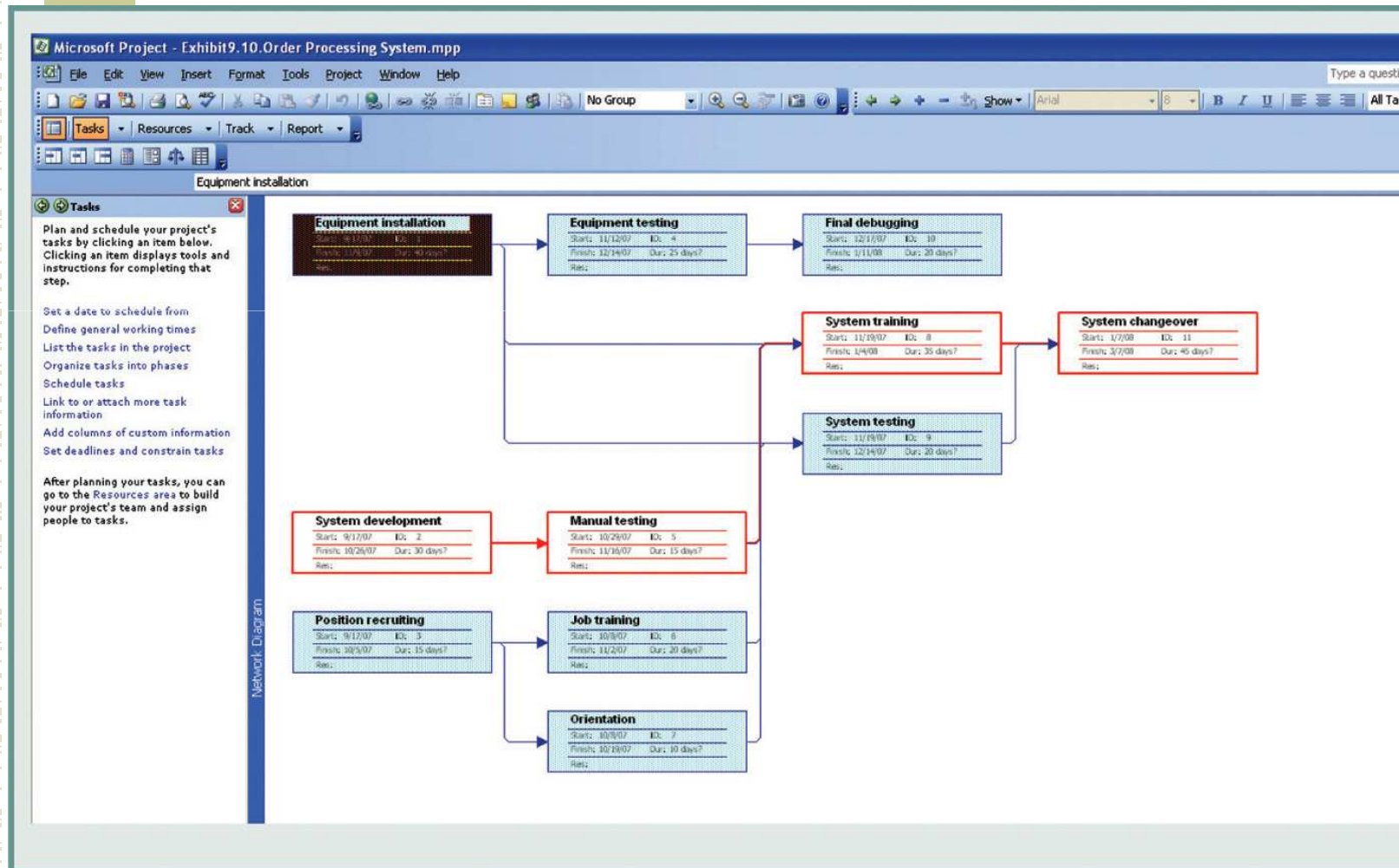
The screenshot shows the Microsoft Project interface with a PERT analysis table. The table has five columns: Task Name, Duration, Optimistic Dur., Expected Dur., and Pessimistic Dur. The tasks listed are:

Task ID	Task Name	Duration	Optimistic Dur.	Expected Dur.	Pessimistic Dur.
1	Equipment installation	40 days?	6 wks	8 wks	10 wks
2	System development	30 days?	3 wks	6 wks	9 wks
3	Position recruiting	15 days?	1 wk	3 wks	5 wks
4	Equipment testing	25 days?	2 wks	4 wks	12 wks
5	Manual testing	15 days?	2 wks	3 wks	4 wks
6	Job training	20 days?	3 wks	4 wks	5 wks
7	Orientation	10 days?	2 wks	2 wks	2 wks
8	System training	35 days?	3 wks	7 wks	11 wks
9	System testing	20 days?	2 wks	4 wks	6 wks
10	Final debugging	20 days?	1 wk	4 wks	7 wks
11	System changeover	45 days?	1 wk	10 wks	13 wks

PERT Analysis with Microsoft Project (cont.)



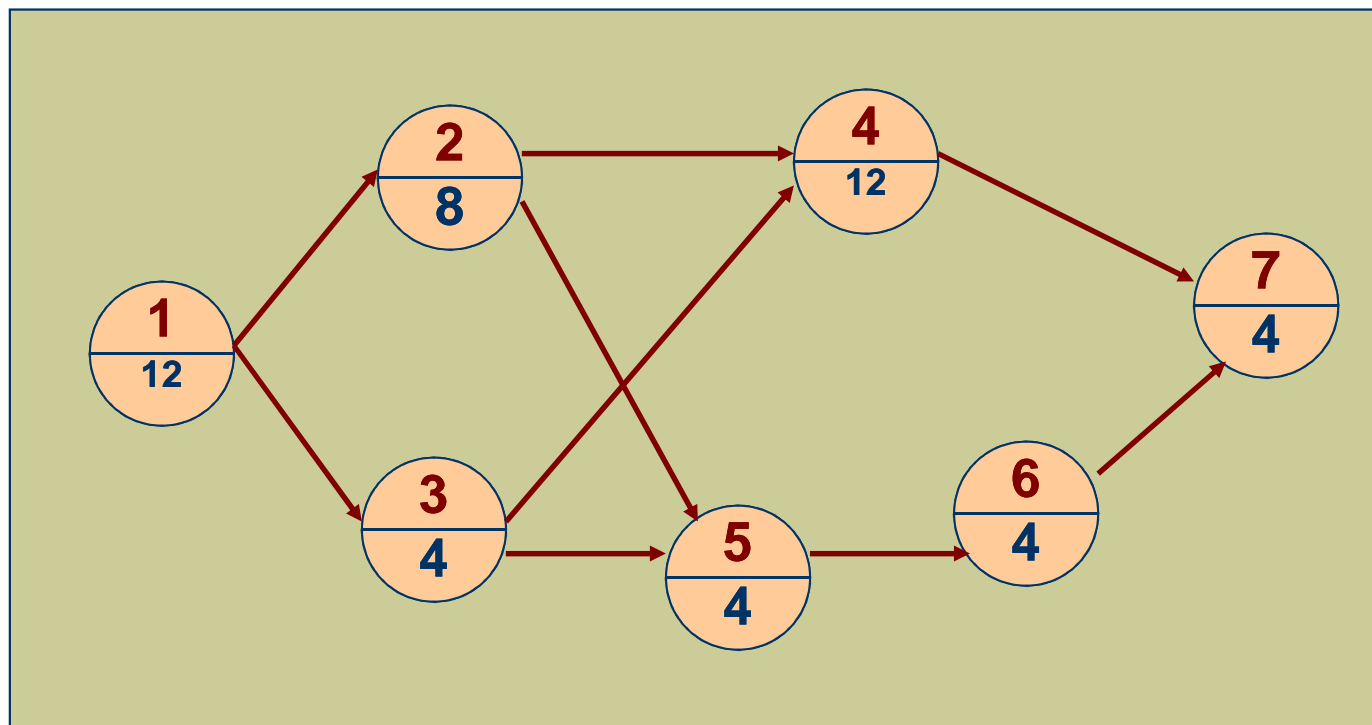
PERT Analysis with Microsoft Project (cont.)



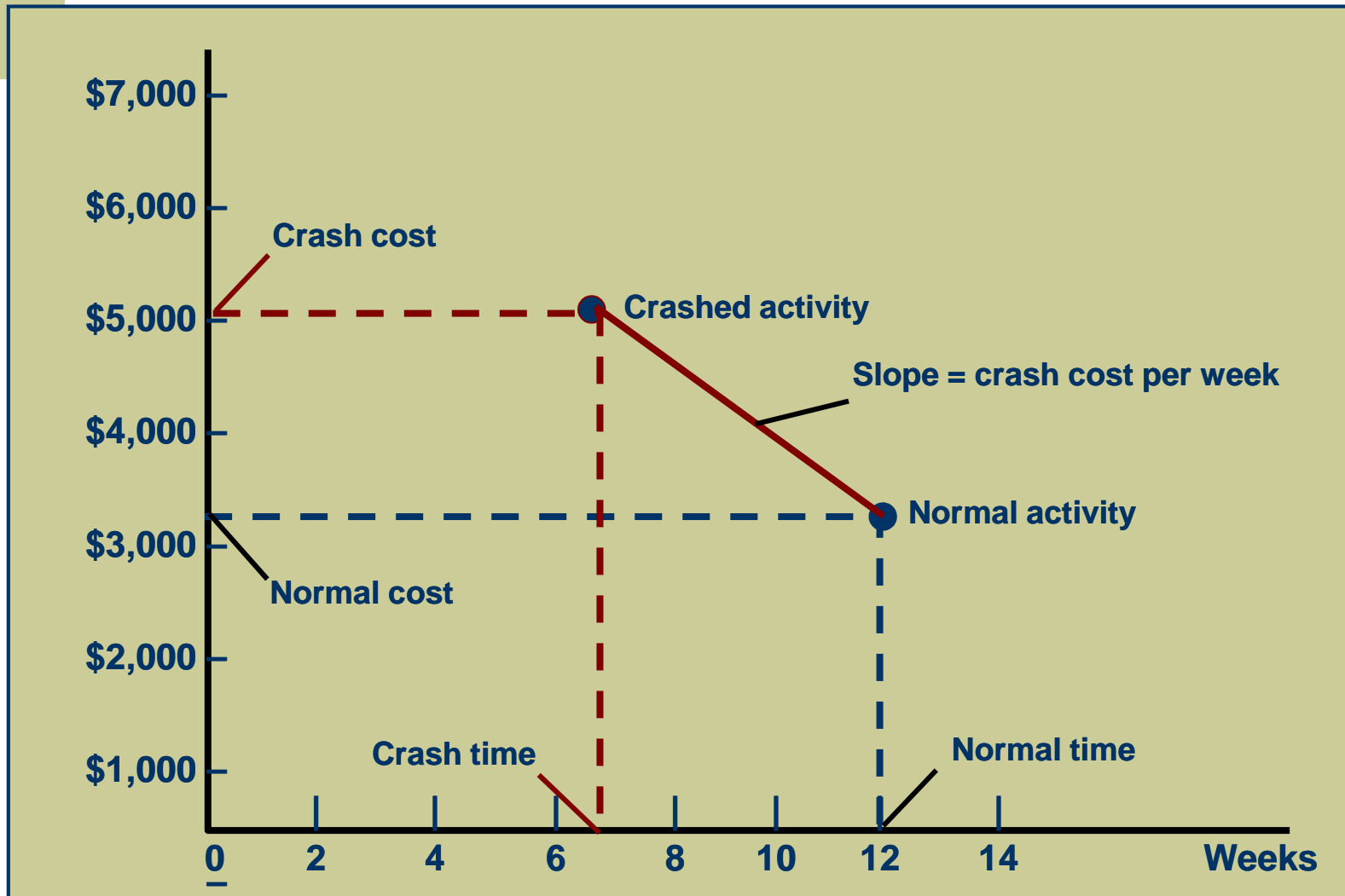
Project Crashing

- ◆ Crashing
 - reducing project time by expending additional resources
- ◆ Crash time
 - an amount of time an activity is reduced
- ◆ Crash cost
 - cost of reducing activity time
- ◆ Goal
 - reduce project duration at minimum cost

Project Network for Building a House

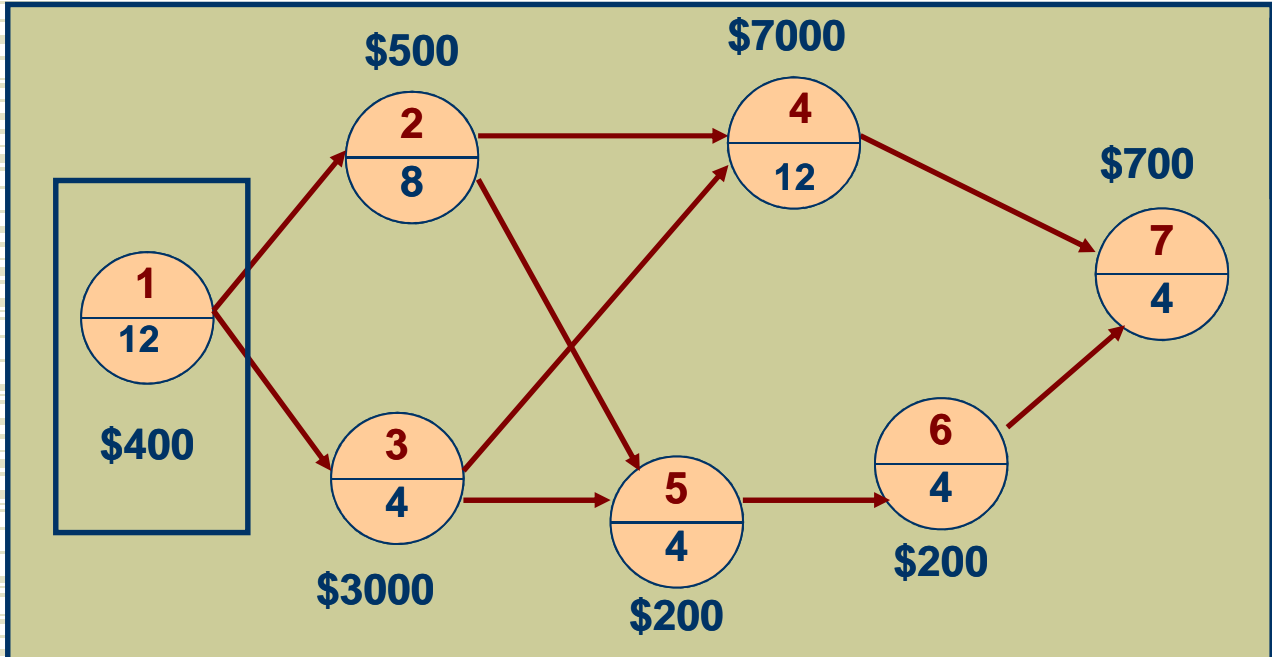


Normal Time and Cost vs. Crash Time and Cost



Project Crashing: Example

ACTIVITY	NORMAL TIME (WEEKS)	CRASH TIME (WEEKS)	NORMAL COST	CRASH COST	TOTAL ALLOWABLE CRASH TIME (WEEKS)	CRASH COST PER WEEK
1	12	7	\$3,000	\$5,000	5	\$400
2	8	5	2,000	3,500	3	500
3	4	3	4,000	7,000	1	3,000
4	12	9	50,000	71,000	3	7,000
5	4	1	500	1,100	3	200
6	4	1	500	1,100	3	200
7	4	3	<u>15,000</u>	<u>22,000</u>	1	7,000
			\$75,000	\$110,700		

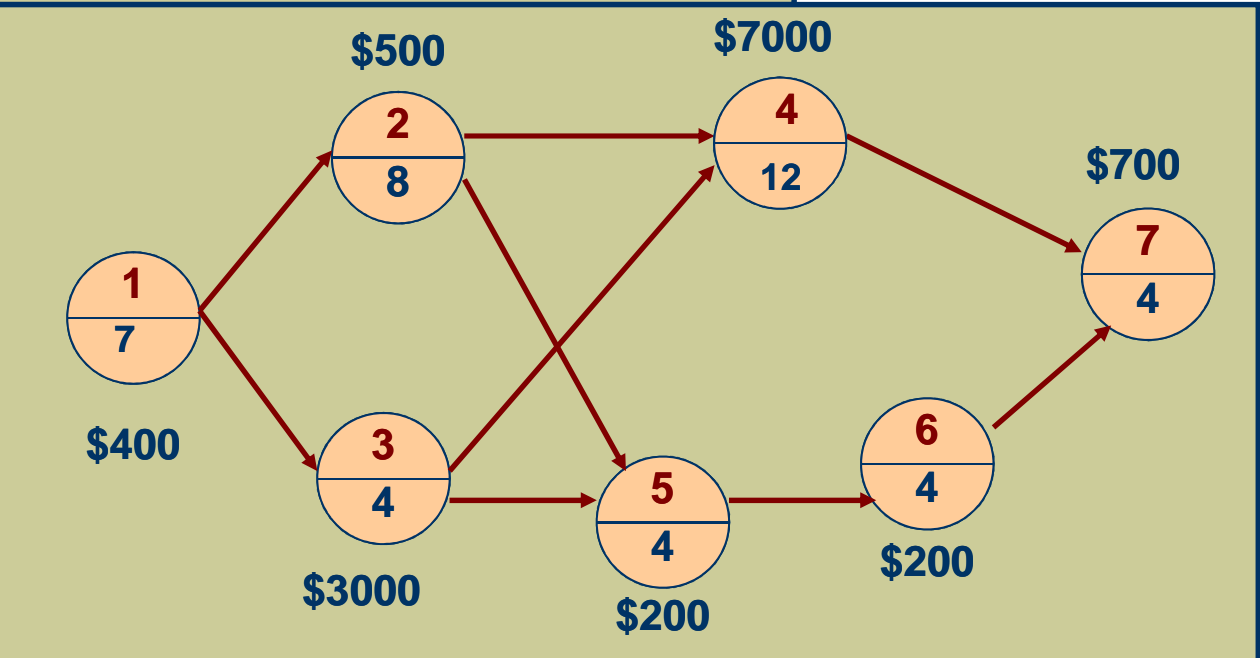


**Project Duration:
36 weeks**

FROM ...

TO...

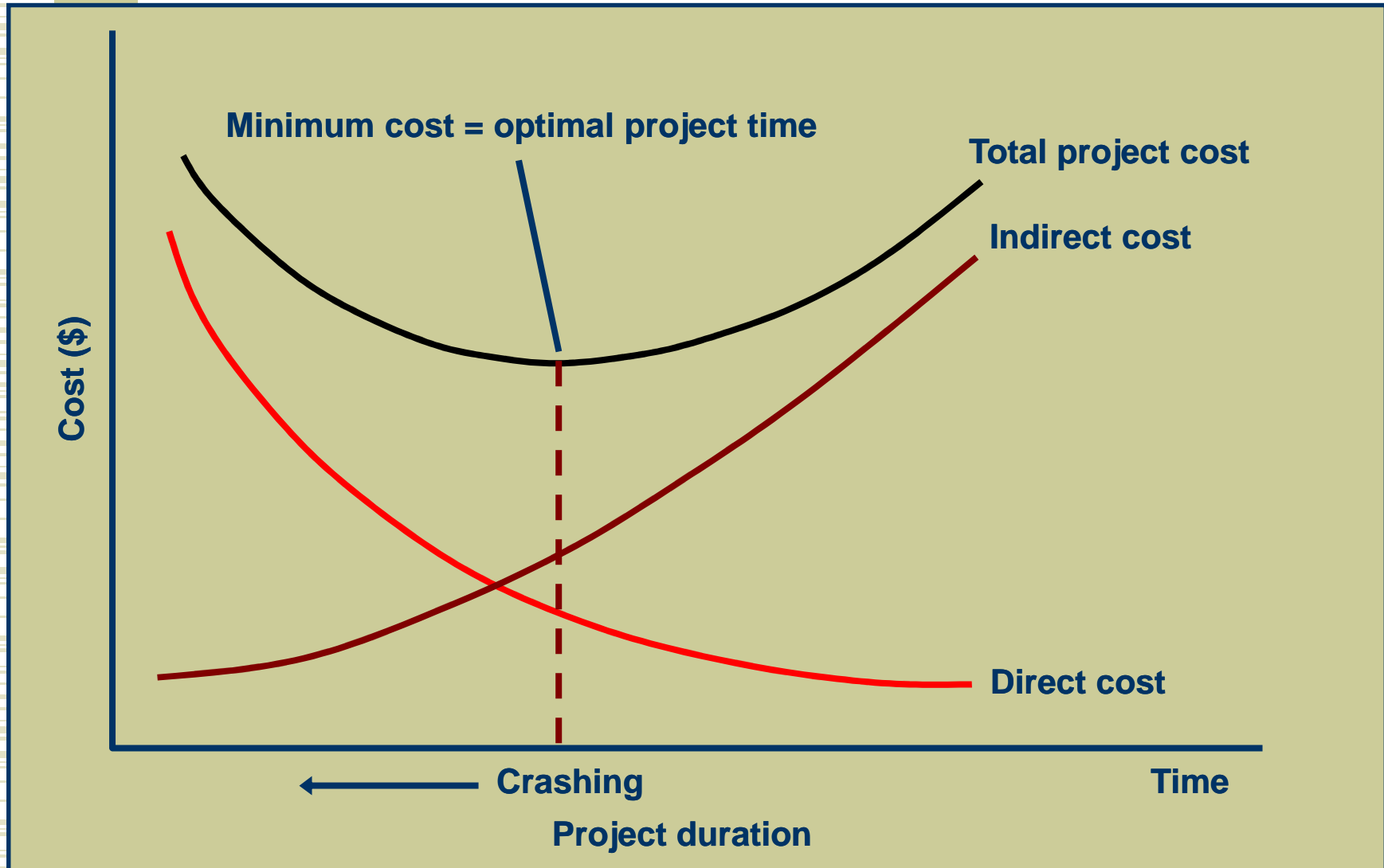
**Project Duration:
31 weeks
Additional Cost:
\$2000**



Time-Cost Relationship

- Crashing costs increase as project duration decreases
- Indirect costs increase as project duration increases
- Reduce project length as long as crashing costs are less than indirect costs

Time-Cost Tradeoff





Chapter 10

Supply Chain Management Strategy and Design

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

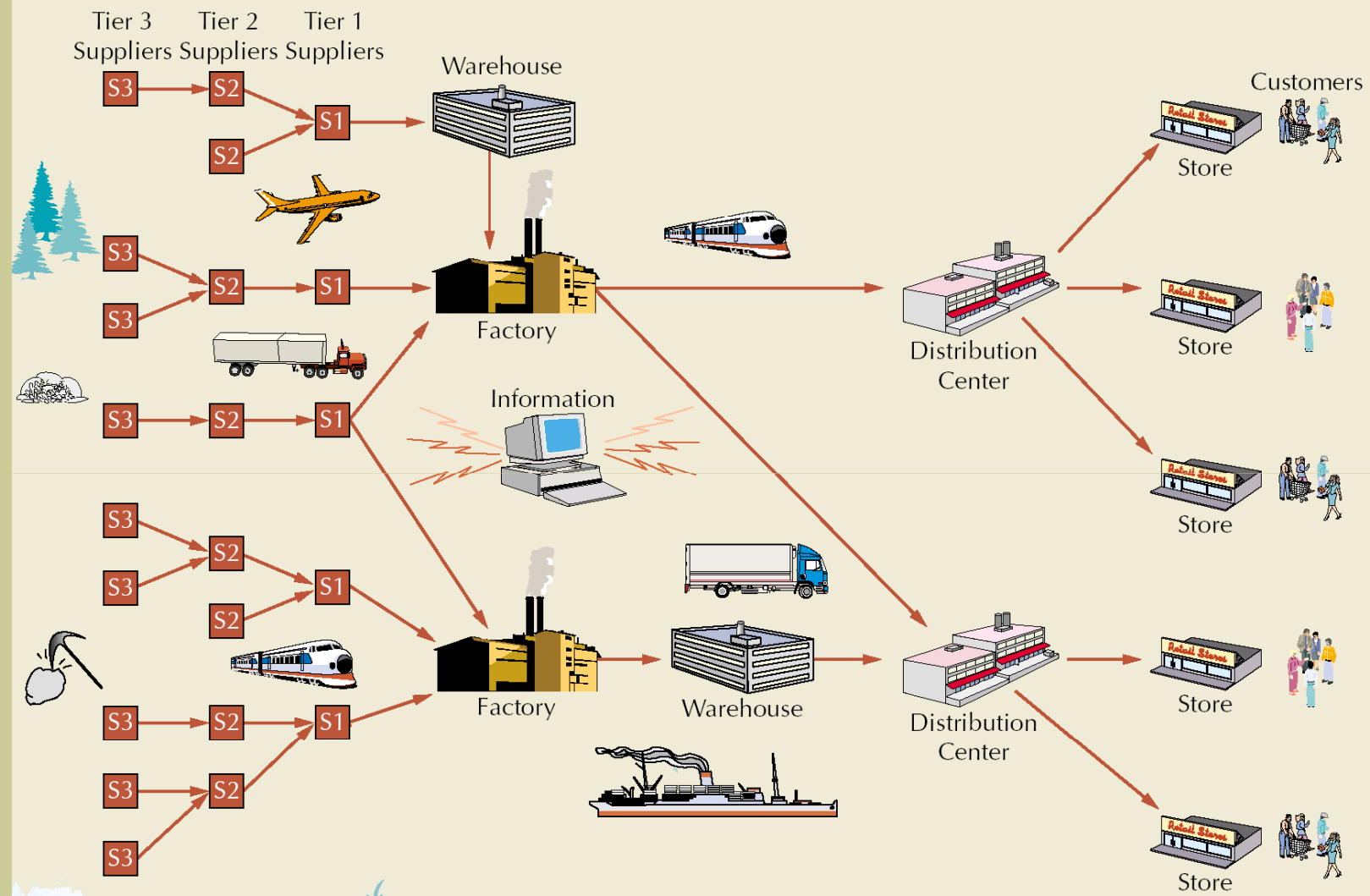
- ◆ The Management of Supply Chains
- ◆ Information Technology: A Supply Chain Enabler
- ◆ Supply Chain Integration
- ◆ Supply Chain Management (SCM) Software
- ◆ Measuring Supply Chain Performance



Supply Chains

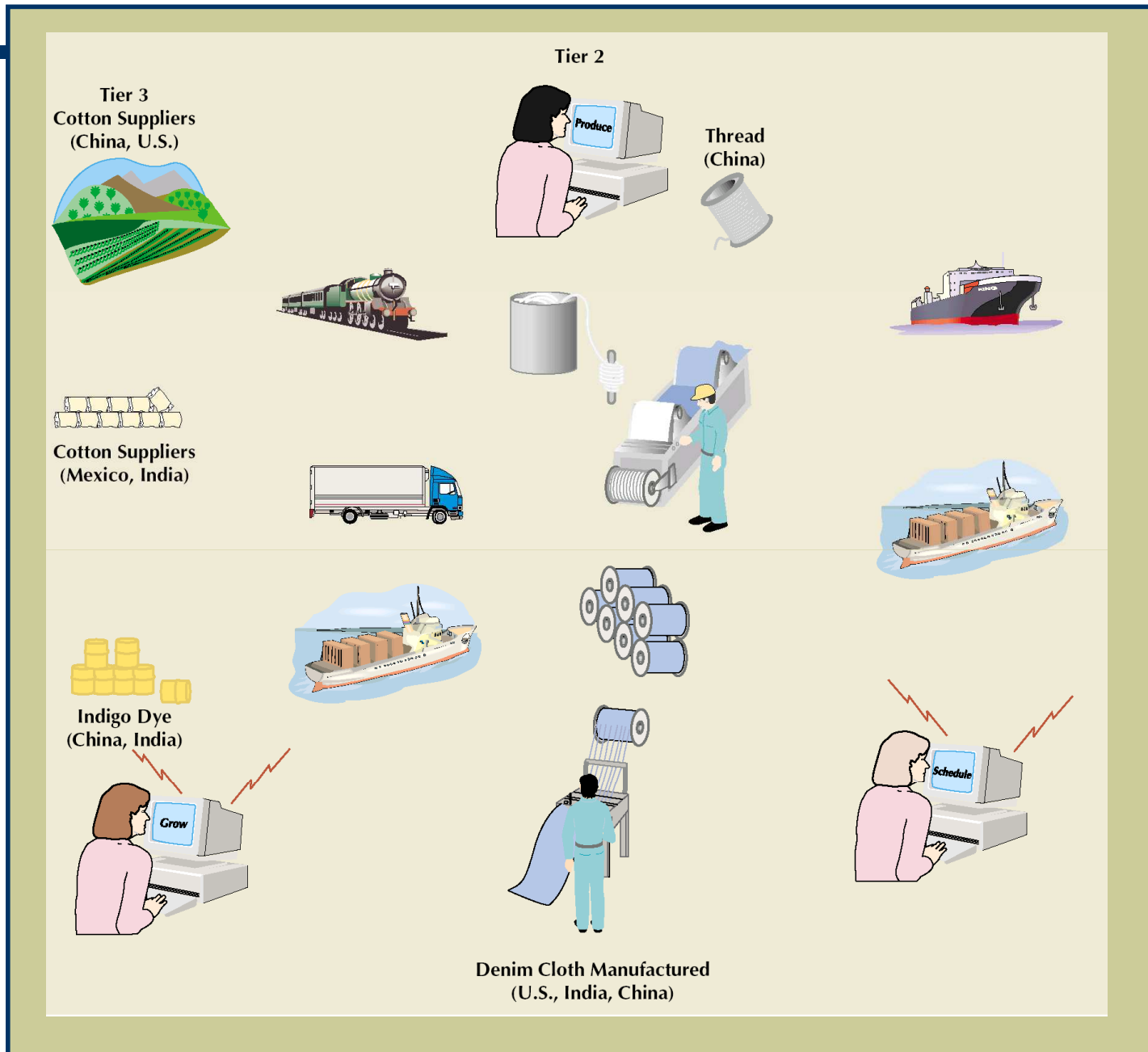
All facilities, functions, and activities associated with flow and transformation of goods and services from raw materials to customer, as well as the associated information flows

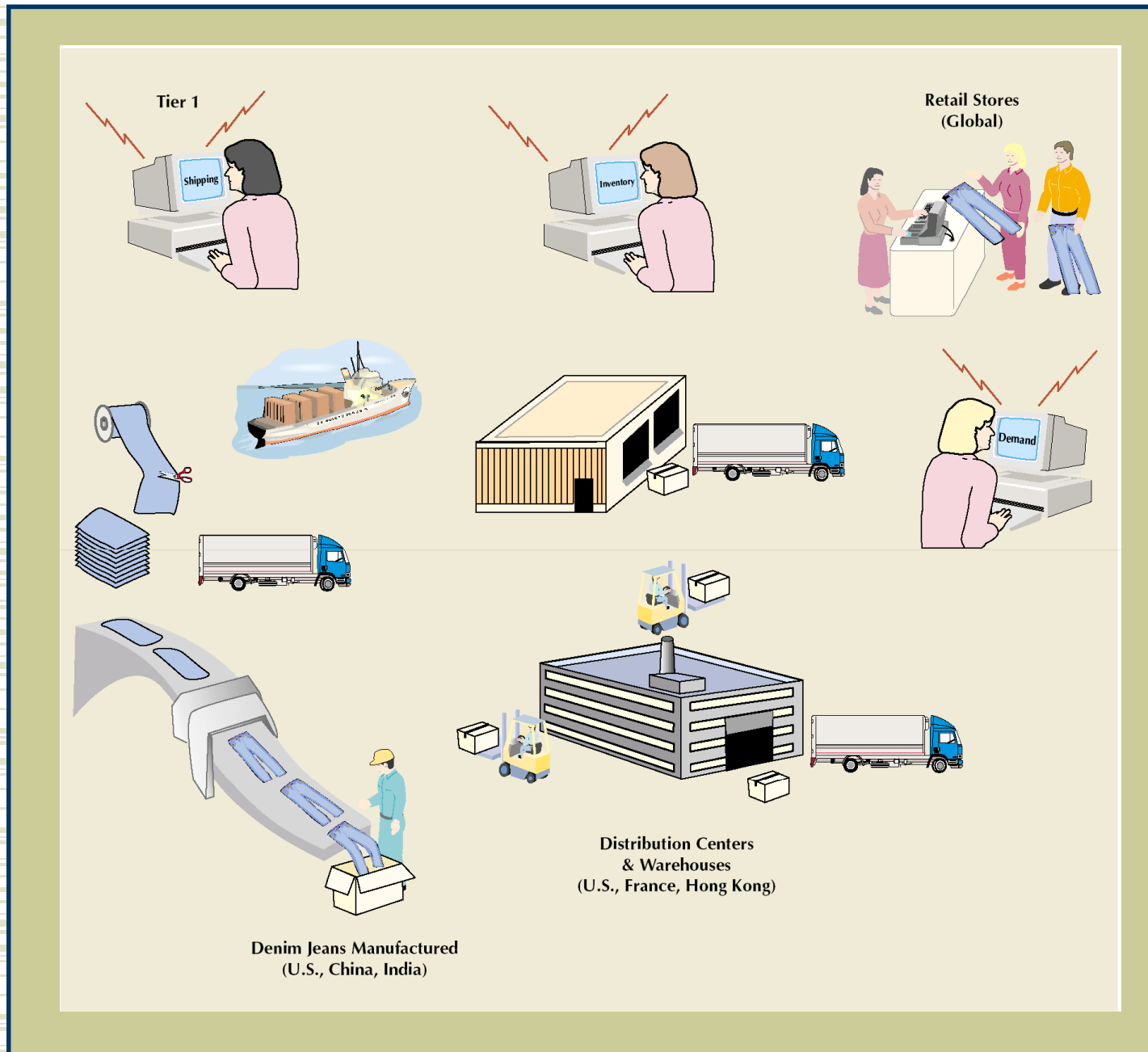
An integrated group of processes to “source,” “make,” and “deliver” products



Supply Chain Illustration

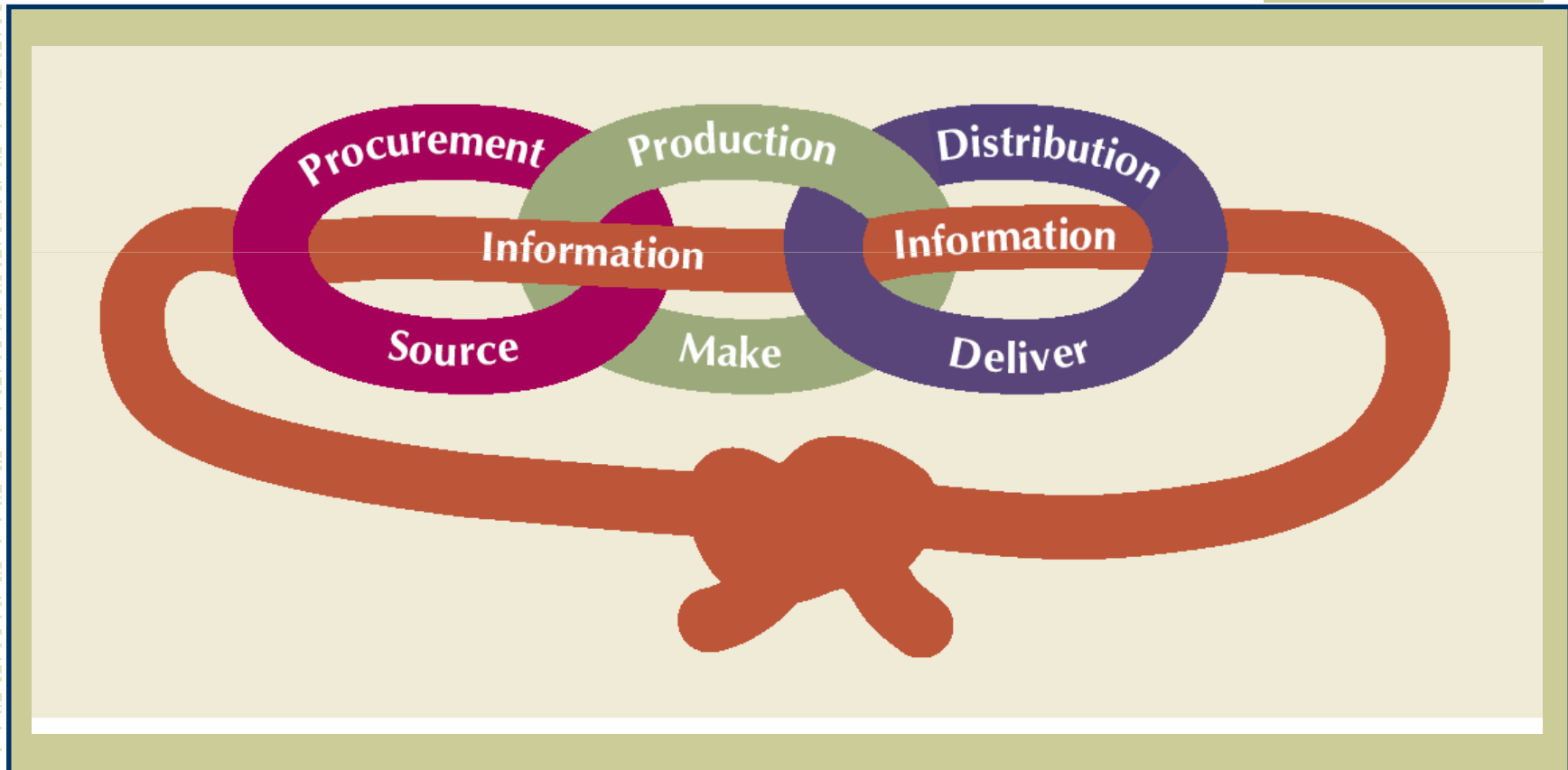
Supply Chain for Denim Jeans





Supply Chain for Denim Jeans (cont.)

Supply Chain Processes





Supply Chain for Service Providers

- ◆ More difficult than manufacturing
- ◆ Does not focus on the flow of physical goods
- ◆ Focuses on human resources and support services
- ◆ More compact and less extended

Value Chains

- ◆ Value chain
 - every step from raw materials to the eventual end user
 - ultimate goal is delivery of maximum value to the end user
- ◆ Supply chain
 - activities that get raw materials and subassemblies into manufacturing operation
 - ultimate goal is same as that of value chain
- ◆ Demand chain
 - increase value for any part or all of chain
- ◆ Terms are used interchangeably
- ◆ Value
 - creation of value for customer is important aspect of supply chain management



Supply Chain Management (SCM)

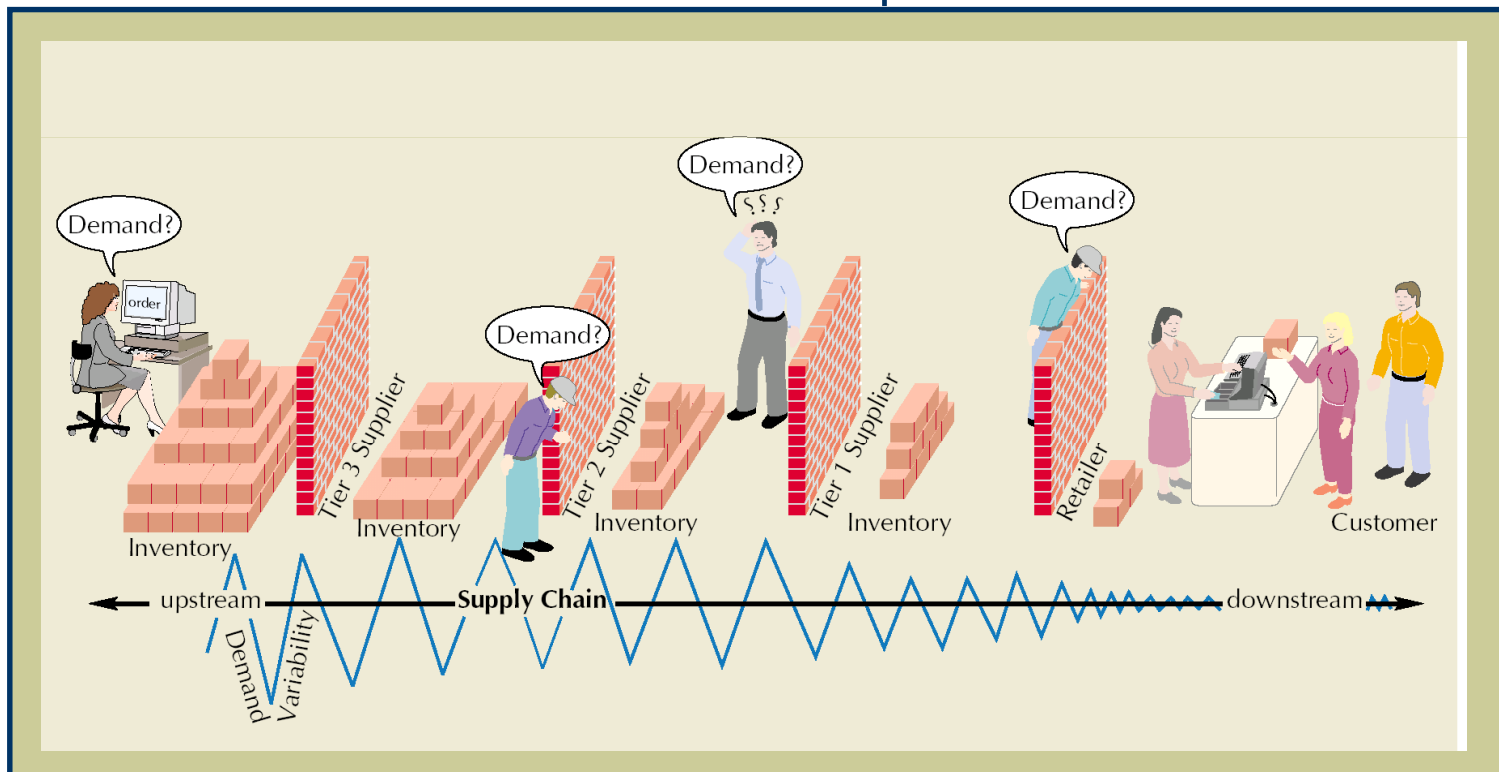
- ◆ Managing flow of information through supply chain in order to attain the level of synchronization that will make it more responsive to customer needs while lowering costs
- ◆ Keys to effective SCM
 - information
 - communication
 - cooperation
 - trust

Supply Chain Uncertainty and Inventory

- ◆ One goal in SCM:
 - respond to uncertainty in customer demand without creating costly excess inventory
- ◆ Negative effects of uncertainty
 - lateness
 - incomplete orders
- ◆ Inventory
 - insurance against supply chain uncertainty
- ◆ Factors that contribute to uncertainty
 - inaccurate demand forecasting
 - long variable lead times
 - late deliveries
 - incomplete shipments
 - product changes
 - batch ordering
 - price fluctuations and discounts
 - inflated orders

Bullwhip Effect

Occurs when slight demand variability is magnified as information moves back upstream





Risk Pooling

- ◆ Risks are aggregated to reduce the impact of individual risks
 - Combine inventories from multiple locations into one
 - Reduce parts and product variability, thereby reducing the number of product components
 - Create flexible capacity



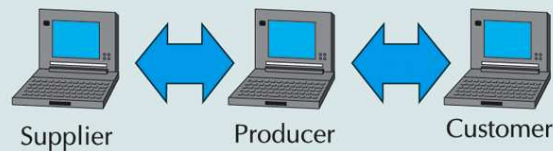
Information Technology: A Supply Chain Enabler

- ◆ Information links all aspects of supply chain
- ◆ E-business
 - replacement of physical business processes with electronic ones
- ◆ Electronic data interchange (EDI)
 - a computer-to-computer exchange of business documents
- ◆ Bar code and point-of-sale
 - data creates an instantaneous computer record of a sale

Information Technology: A Supply Chain Enabler (cont.)

- ◆ Radio frequency identification (RFID)
 - technology can send product data from an item to a reader via radio waves
- ◆ Internet
 - allows companies to communicate with suppliers, customers, shippers and other businesses around the world instantaneously
- ◆ Build-to-order (BTO)
 - direct-sell-to-customers model via the Internet; extensive communication with suppliers and customer

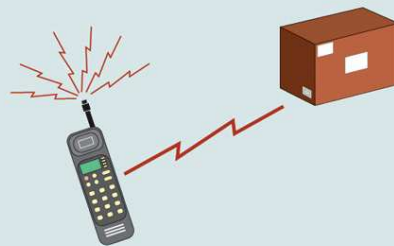
Supply Chain Enablers



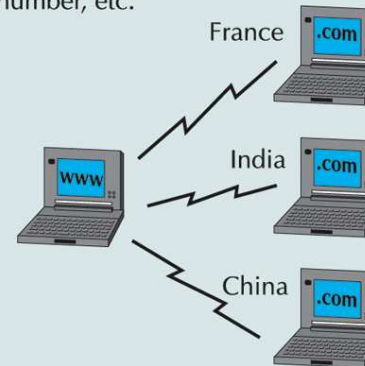
EDI—links supply chain members for order processing, accounting, production, inventory control and distribution



Bar codes—contains identifying information about products as they flow through the supply chain including product description, item number, source and destination, handling procedures, cost, order number, etc.

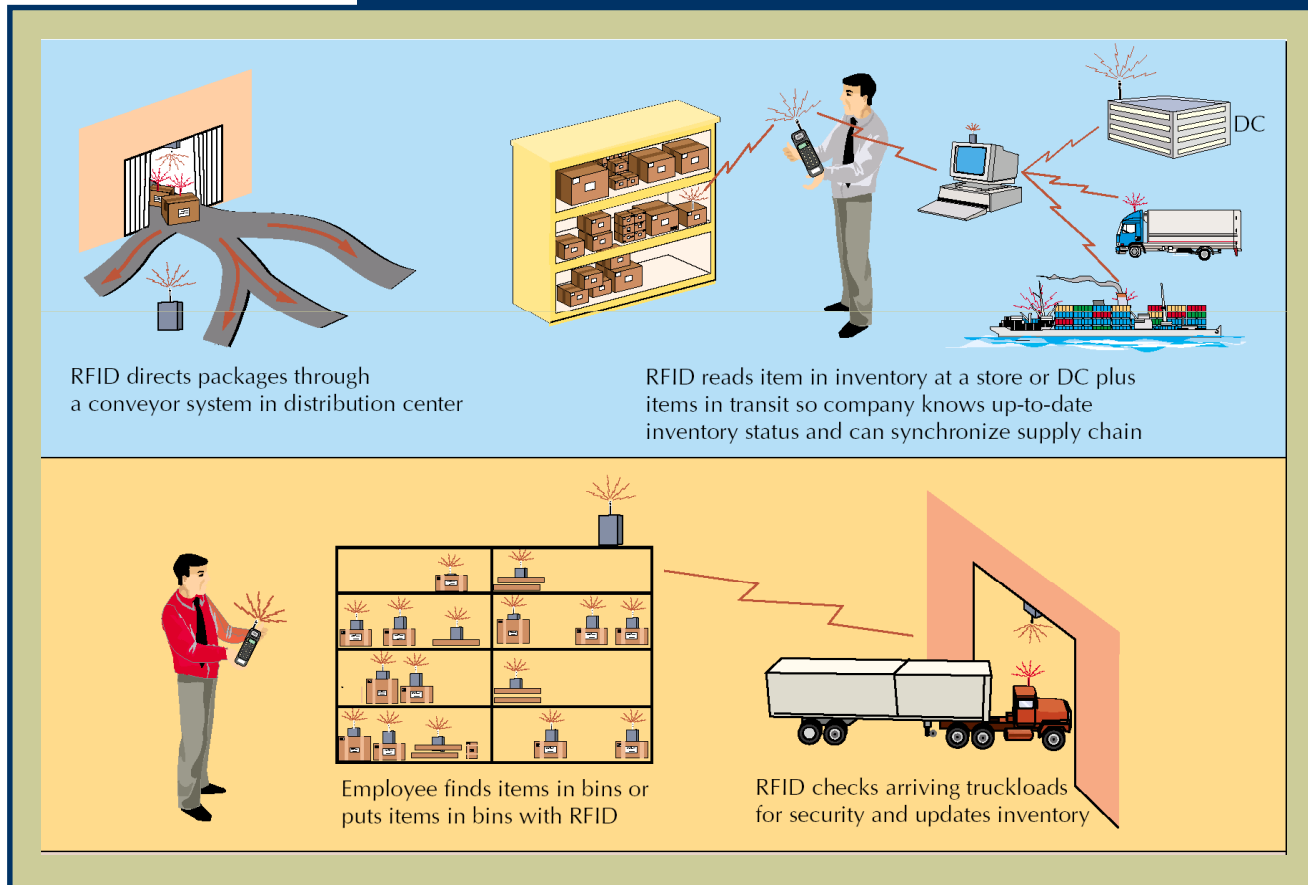


Radio Frequency Identification (RFID)—uses radio waves to transfer data between a scanner and an item such as a package or shipping container



Internet—allows companies to communicate with suppliers, customers, shippers and other businesses around the world, instantaneously

RFID Capabilities



RFID directs packages through a conveyor system in distribution center

RFID reads item in inventory at a store or DC plus items in transit so company knows up-to-date inventory status and can synchronize supply chain

Employee finds items in bins or puts items in bins with RFID

RFID checks arriving truckloads for security and updates inventory

RFID Capabilities (cont.)

The diagram is divided into two horizontal panels. The top panel shows a man in a white shirt and tie holding a handheld RFID scanner. Red lightning-bolt-like lines represent the scanner's signal reaching a cargo ship and an airplane. The bottom panel shows a man in a red jacket holding a similar scanner, with red lines connecting it to a computer terminal and a display of folded jeans on a store shelf.

RFID keeps track of items on ships and planes leaving global ports or coming into U.S. for security

Customer finds pair of jeans with her size (with chip sewn into label) on store shelf with radio wand provided by store; pays with cell phone RFID technology

Supply Chain Integration

- ◆ Information sharing among supply chain members
 - Reduced bullwhip effect
 - Early problem detection
 - Faster response
 - Builds trust and confidence
- ◆ Collaborative planning, forecasting, replenishment, and design
 - Reduced bullwhip effect
 - Lower costs (material, logistics, operating, etc.)
 - Higher capacity utilization
 - Improved customer service levels



Supply Chain Integration (cont.)

- ◆ Coordinated workflow, production and operations, procurement
 - Production efficiencies
 - Fast response
 - Improved service
 - Quicker to market
- ◆ Adopt new business models and technologies
 - Penetration of new markets
 - Creation of new products
 - Improved efficiency
 - Mass customization

Collaborative Planning, Forecasting, and Replenishment (CPFR)

- ◆ Process for two or more companies in a supply chain to synchronize their demand forecasts into a single plan to meet customer demand
- ◆ Parties electronically exchange
 - past sales trends
 - point-of-sale data
 - on-hand inventory
 - scheduled promotions
 - forecasts



Supply Chain Management (SCM) Software

- ◆ Enterprise resource planning (ERP)
 - software that integrates the components of a company by sharing and organizing information and data

Key Performance Indicators

- ◆ Metrics used to measure supply chain performance

- Inventory turnover

$$\text{Inventory turns} = \frac{\text{Cost of goods sold}}{\text{Average aggregate value of inventory}}$$

- Total value (at cost) of inventory

$$\text{Average aggregate value of inventory} = \sum (\text{average inventory for item } i) \times (\text{unit value item } i)$$

- Days of supply

$$\text{Days of supply} = \frac{\text{Average aggregate value of inventory}}{(\text{Cost of goods sold}) / (365 \text{ days})}$$

- Fill rate: fraction of orders filled by a distribution center within a specific time period

Computing Key Performance Indicators

The Tomahawk Motorcycle Company manufactures motorcycles. Last year the cost of goods sold was \$425 million. The company had the following average value of production materials and parts, work-in-process, and finished goods inventory:

Production materials and parts	\$ 4,629,000
Work-in-process	17,465,000
Finished goods	12,322,000
Total average aggregate value of inventory	<u>\$34,416,000</u>

The company wants to know the number of inventory turns and days of supply being held in inventory.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Inventory turns} &= \frac{\text{Cost of goods sold}}{\text{Average aggregate value of inventory}} \\ &= \frac{\$425,000,000}{34,416,000}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Inventory turns} = 12.3$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Days of supply} &= \frac{\text{Average aggregate value of inventory}}{(\text{Cost of goods sold})/(365 \text{ days})} \\ &= \frac{\$34,416,000}{(425,000,000)/(365)}\end{aligned}$$

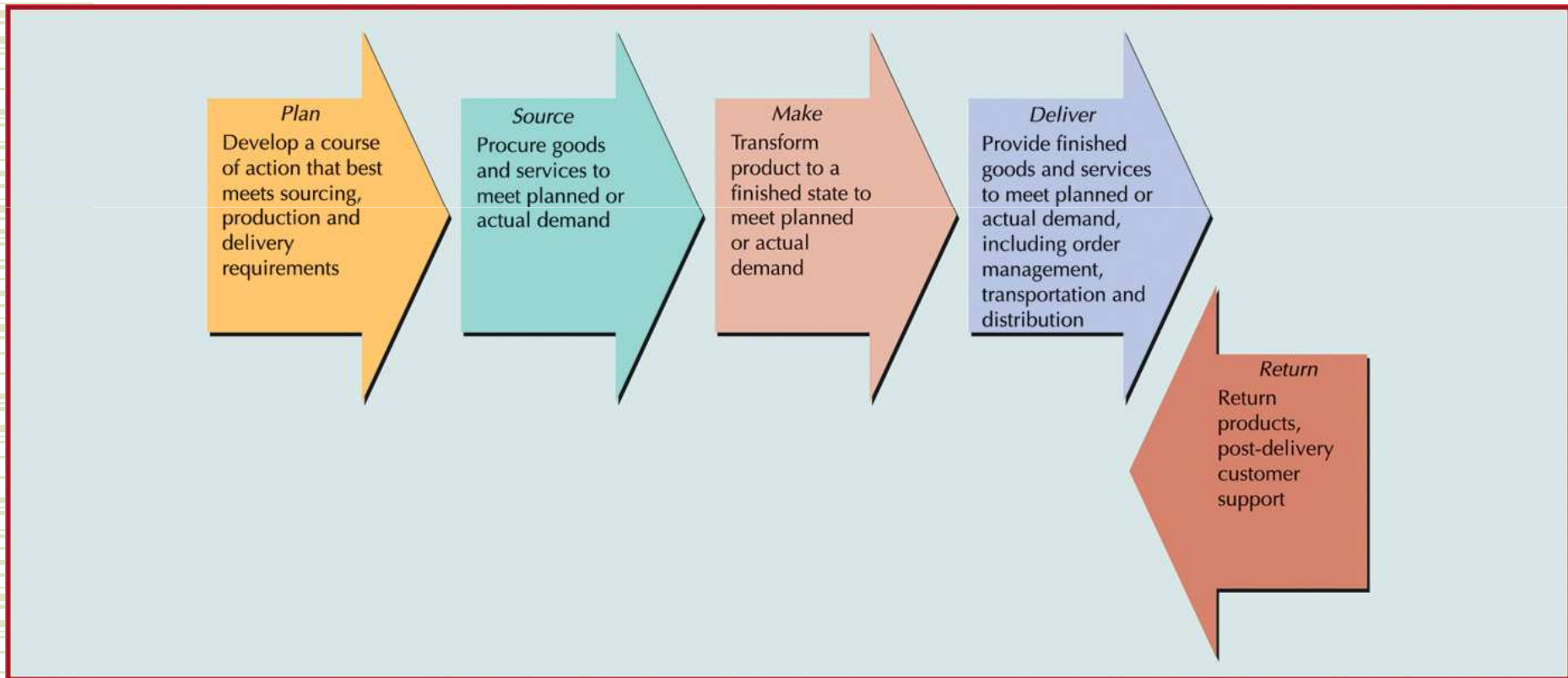
$$\text{Days of supply} = 29.6$$



Process Control and SCOR

- ◆ Process Control
 - not only for manufacturing operations
 - can be used in any processes of supply chain
- ◆ Supply Chain Operations Reference (SCOR)
 - a cross industry supply chain diagnostic tool maintained by the Supply Chain Council

SCOR



SCOR (cont.)

	Performance Attribute	Performance Metric	Definition
Customer Facing	Supply chain delivery reliability	Delivery performance	Percentage of orders delivered on time and in full to the customer
		Fill rate	Percentage of orders shipped within 24 hours of order receipt
		Perfect order fulfillment	Percentage of orders delivered on time and in full, perfectly matched with order with no errors
	Supply chain responsiveness	Order fulfillment lead time	Number of days from order receipt to customer delivery
	Supply chain flexibility	Supply chain response time	Number of days for the supply chain to respond to an unplanned significant change in demand without a cost penalty
Production flexibility		Number of days to achieve an unplanned 20% change in orders without a cost penalty	
Internal Facing	Supply chain cost	Supply chain management cost	The direct and indirect cost to plan, source and deliver products and services
		Cost of goods sold	The direct cost of material and labor to produce a product or service
		Value-added productivity	Direct material cost subtracted from revenue and divided by the number of employees, similar to sales per employee
		Warranty/returns processing cost	Direct and indirect costs associated with returns including defective, planned maintenance and excess inventory
	Supply Chain Asset Management Efficiency	Cash-to-cash cycle time	The number of days that cash is tied up as working capital
		Inventory days of supply	The number of days that cash is tied up as inventory
		Asset turns	Revenue divided by total assets including working capital and fixed assets



Chapter 11

Global Supply Chain Procurement and Distribution

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Procurement
- ◆ E-Procurement
- ◆ Distribution
- ◆ Transportation
- ◆ The Global Supply Chain



Procurement

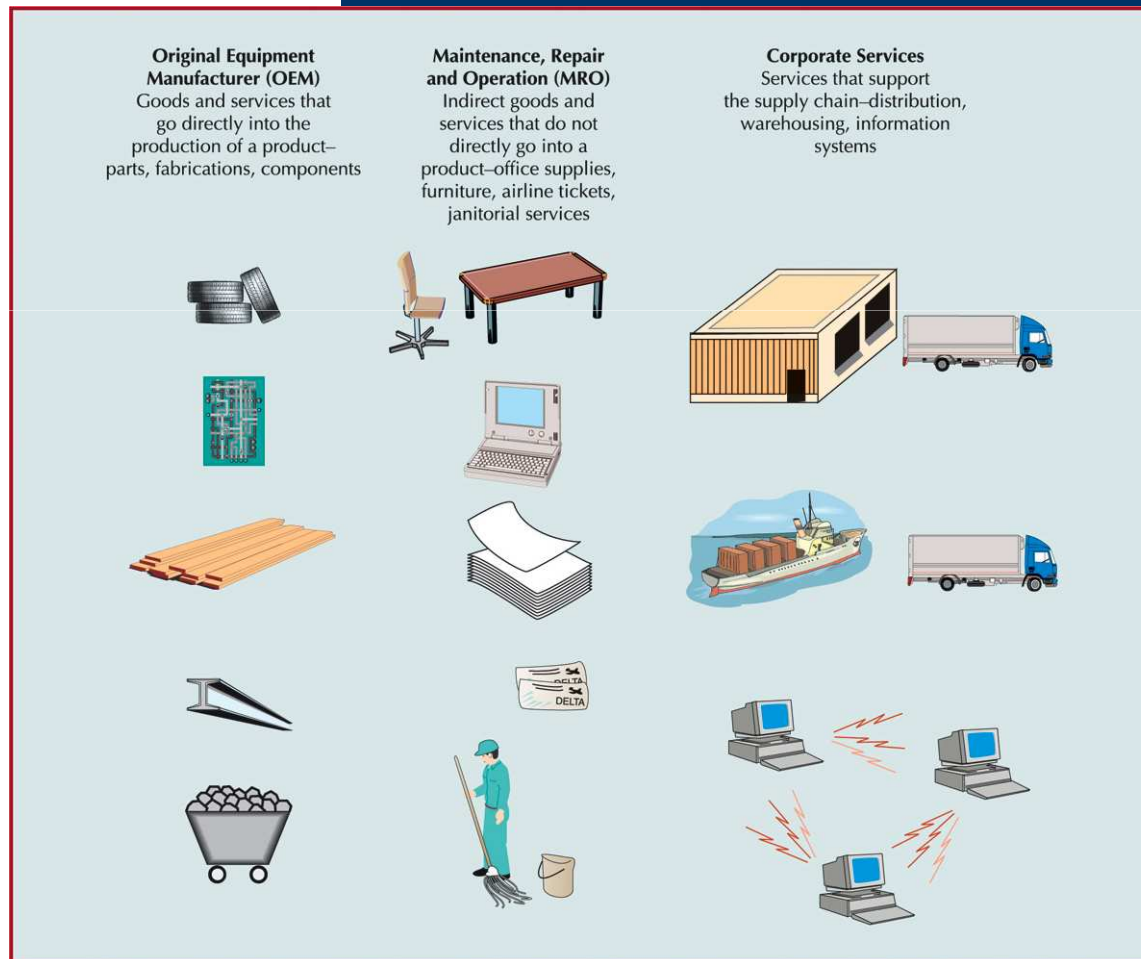
- ◆ The purchase of goods and services from suppliers
- ◆ Cross enterprise teams
 - coordinate processes between a company and its supplier
- ◆ On-demand (direct-response) delivery
 - requires the supplier to deliver goods when demanded by the customer
- ◆ Continuous replenishment
 - supplying orders in a short period of time according to a predetermined schedule



Outsourcing

- ◆ Sourcing
 - selection of suppliers
- ◆ Outsourcing
 - purchase of goods and services from an outside supplier
- ◆ Core competencies
 - what a company does best
- ◆ Single sourcing
 - a company purchases goods and services from only a few (or one) suppliers

Categories of Goods and Services...





E-Procurement

- ◆ Direct purchase from suppliers over the Internet, by using software packages or through e-marketplaces, e-hubs, and trading exchanges
- ◆ Can streamline and speed up the purchase order and transaction process



E-Procurement (cont.)

- ◆ What can companies buy over the Internet?
 - Manufacturing inputs
 - the raw materials and components that go directly into the production process of the product
 - Operating inputs
 - maintenance, repair, and operation goods and services



E-Procurement (cont.)

- ◆ E-marketplaces (e-hubs)
 - Websites where companies and suppliers conduct business-to-business activities
- ◆ Reverse auction
 - process used by e-marketplaces for buyers to purchase items; company posts orders on the internet for suppliers to bid on



Distribution

Encompasses all channels, processes, and functions, including warehousing and transportation, that a product passes on its way to final customer

Order fulfillment

process of ensuring on-time delivery of an order

Logistics

transportation and distribution of goods and services

Driving force today is speed

Particularly important for Internet dot-coms



Distribution Centers (DC) and Warehousing

DCs are some of the largest business facilities in the United States

Trend is for more frequent orders in smaller quantities

Flow-through facilities and automated material handling

Postponement
final assembly and product configuration may be done at the DC



Warehouse Management Systems

Highly automated system that runs day-to-day operations of a DC

Controls item putaway, picking, packing, and shipping

Features

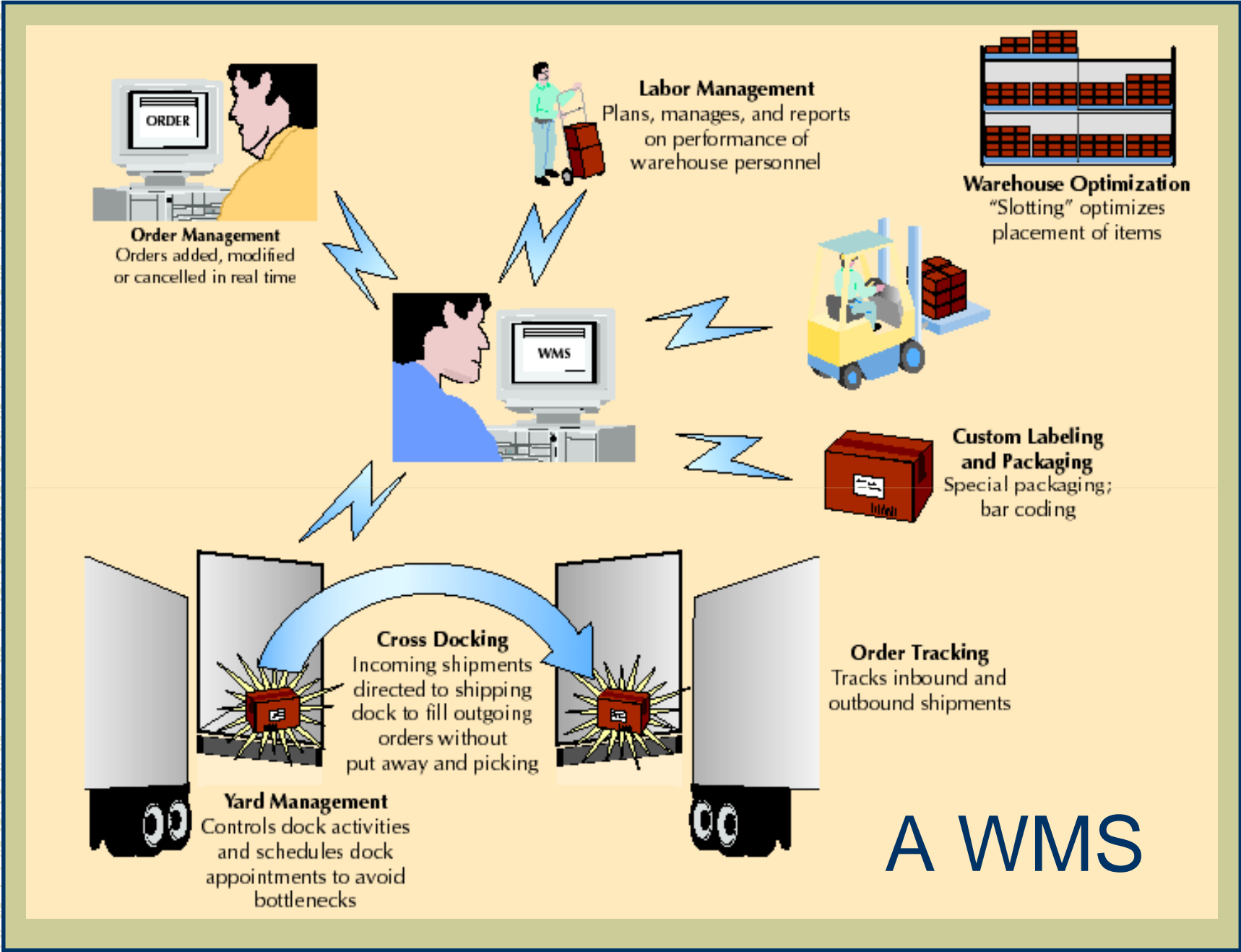
transportation management

order management

yard management

labor management

warehouse optimization





Vendor-Managed Inventory



Manufacturers generate orders, not distributors or
retailers

Stocking information is accessed using EDI

A first step towards supply chain collaboration

Increased speed, reduced errors, and improved
service



Collaborative Logistics and Distribution Outsourcing



Collaborative planning, forecasting, and
replenishment create greater economies of
scale

Internet-based exchange of data and
information

Significant decrease in inventory levels and
costs and more efficient logistics

Companies focus on core competencies

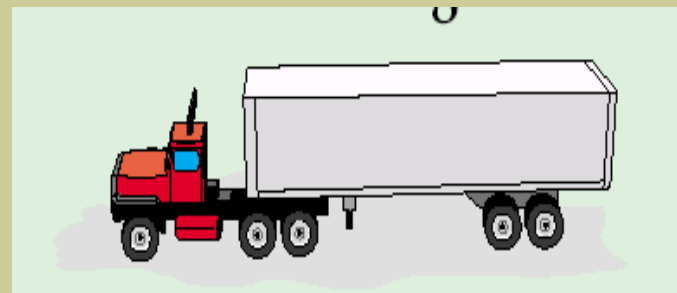
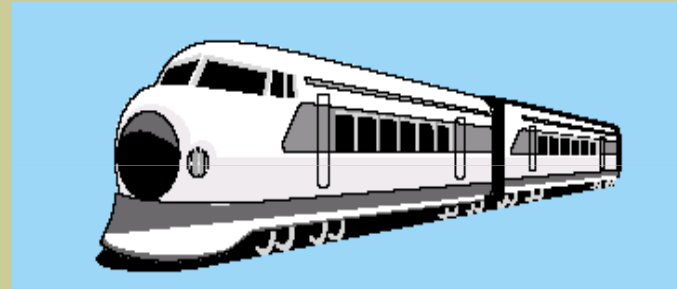
Transportation

◆ Rail

- low-value, high-density, bulk products, raw materials, intermodal containers
- not as economical for small loads, slower, less flexible than trucking

◆ Trucking

- main mode of freight transport in U.S.
- small loads, point-to-point service, flexible
- More reliable, less damage than rails; more expensive than rails for long distance



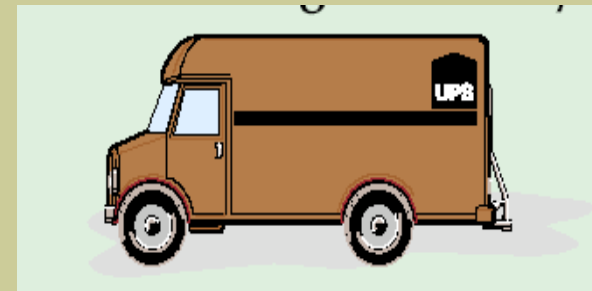
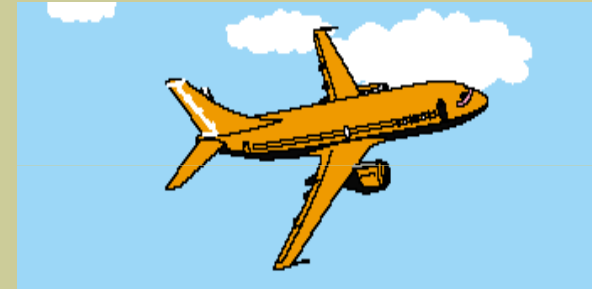
Transportation (cont.)

◆ Air

- most expensive and fastest, mode of freight transport
- lightweight, small packages <500 lbs
- high-value, perishable and critical goods
- less theft

◆ Package Delivery

- small packages
- fast and reliable
- increased with e-Business
- primary shipping mode for Internet companies



Transportation (cont.)

◆ Water

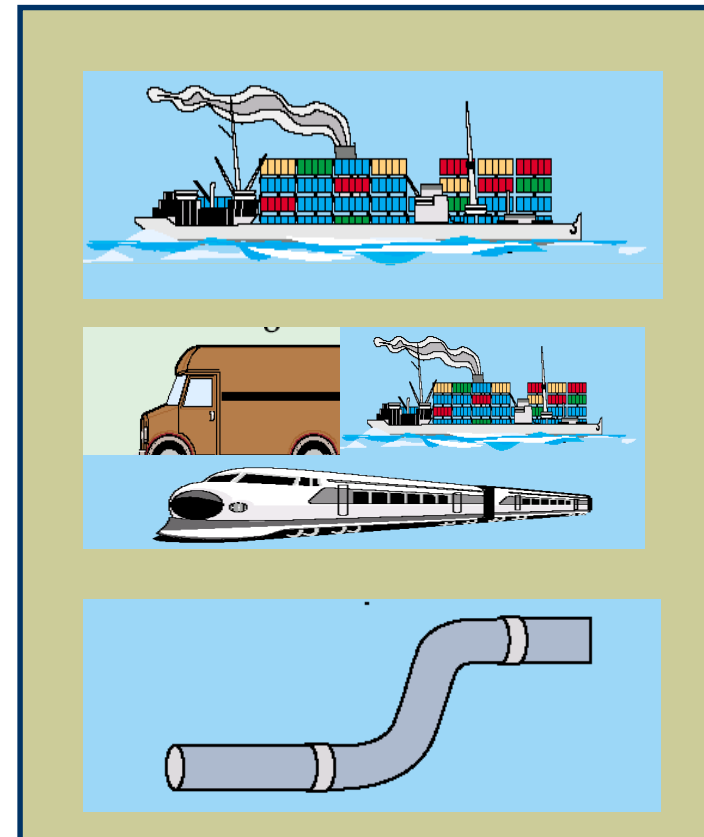
- low-cost shipping mode
- primary means of international shipping
- U.S. waterways
- slowest shipping mode

◆ Intermodal

- combines several modes of shipping-truck, water and rail
- key component is containers

◆ Pipeline

- transport oil and products in liquid form
- high capital cost, economical use
- long life and low operating cost





Internet Transportation Exchanges

Bring together shippers and carriers
Initial contact, negotiations, auctions

Examples

www.nte.com

www.freightquote.com



Global Supply Chain



International trade barriers have fallen

New trade agreements

To compete globally requires an effective supply chain

Information technology is an “enabler” of global trade



Obstacles to Global Chain Transactions

- ◆ Increased documentation for invoices, cargo insurance, letters of credit, ocean bills of lading or air waybills, and inspections
- ◆ Ever changing regulations that vary from country to country that govern the import and export of goods
- ◆ Trade groups, tariffs, duties, and landing costs
- ◆ Limited shipping modes
- ◆ Differences in communication technology and availability



Obstacles to Global Chain Transactions (cont.)

- ◆ Different business practices as well as language barriers
- ◆ Government codes and reporting requirements that vary from country to country
- ◆ Numerous players, including forwarding agents, custom house brokers, financial institutions, insurance providers, multiple transportation carriers, and government agencies
- ◆ Since 9/11, numerous security regulations and requirements



Duties and Tariffs

Proliferation of trade agreements

Nations form trading groups

no tariffs or duties within group

charge uniform tariffs to nonmembers

Member nations have a competitive advantage
within the group

Trade specialists

include freight forwarders, customs house brokers,
export packers, and export management and trading
companies

Duties and Tariffs (cont.)



Landed Cost

- ◆ Total cost of producing, storing, and transporting a product to the site of consumption or another port
- ◆ Value added tax (VAT)
 - an indirect tax assessed on the increase in value of a good at any stage of production process from raw material to final product
- ◆ Clicker shock
 - occurs when an order is placed with a company that does not have the capability to calculate landed cost

Web-based International Trade Logistic Systems

- ◆ International trade logistics web-based software systems reduce obstacles to global trade
 - convert language and currency
 - provide information on tariffs, duties, and customs processes
 - attach appropriate weights, measurements, and unit prices to individual products ordered over the Web
 - incorporate transportation costs and conversion rates
 - calculate shipping costs online while a company enters an order
 - track global shipments



Recent Trends in Globalization for U.S. Companies



- ◆ Two significant changes
 - passage of NAFTA
 - admission of China in WTO
- ◆ Mexico
 - cheap labor and relatively short shipping time
- ◆ China
 - cheaper labor and longer work week, but lengthy shipping time
 - Major supply chains have moved to China



China's Increasing Role in the Global Supply Chain

- ◆ World's premier sources of supply
- ◆ Abundance of low-wage labor
- ◆ World's fastest growing market
- ◆ Regulatory changes have liberalized its market
- ◆ Increased exporting of higher technology products



Models in Doing Business in China

- ◆ Employ local third-party trading agents
- ◆ Wholly-owned foreign enterprise
- ◆ Develop your own international procurement offices



Challenges Sourcing from China

- ◆ Getting reliable information in more difficult than in the U.S.
- ◆ Information technology is much less advanced and sophisticated than in the U.S.
- ◆ Work turnover rates among low-skilled workers is extremely high

Effects of 9/11 on Global Chains

- ◆ Increase security measures
 - added time to supply chain schedules
 - Increased supply chain costs
- ◆ 24 hours rules for “risk screening”
 - extended documentation
 - extend time by 3-4 days
- ◆ Inventory levels have increased 5%
- ◆ Other costs include:
 - new people, technologies, equipment, surveillance, communication, and security systems, and training necessary for screening at airports and seaports around the world



Chapter 11 Supplement

Transportation and Transshipment Models

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Transportation Model
- ◆ Transshipment Model

Transportation Model

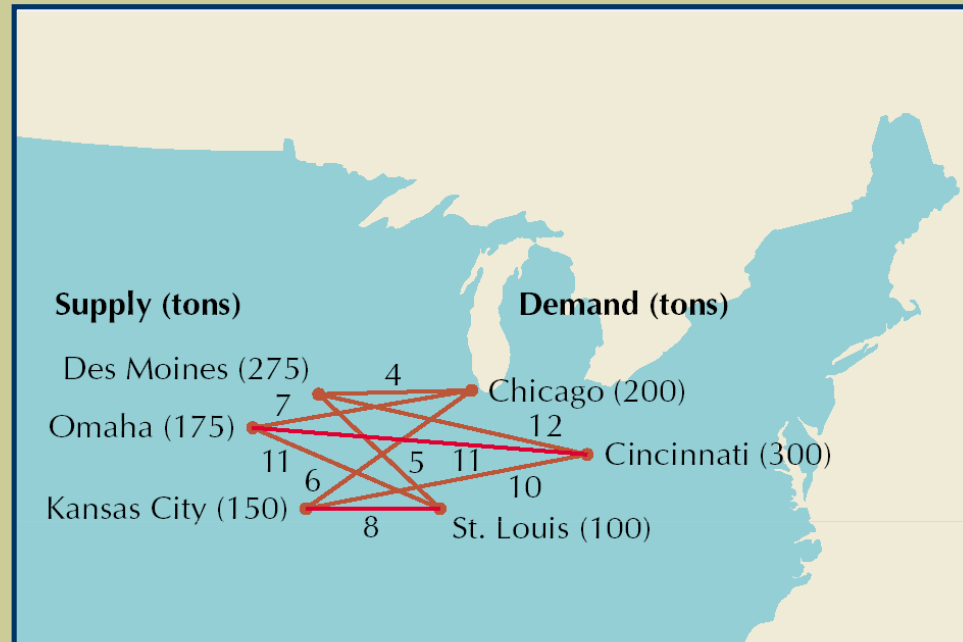
- ◆ A transportation model is formulated for a class of problems with the following characteristics
 - a product is transported from a number of sources to a number of destinations at the minimum possible cost
 - each source is able to supply a fixed number of units of product
 - each destination has a fixed demand for product
- ◆ Solution Methods
 - stepping-stone
 - modified distribution
 - Excel's Solver

Transportation Method: Example

Distribution Center	Supply
1. Kansas City	150
2. Omaha	175
3. Des Moines	<u>275</u>
	600 tons

Plant	Demand
A. Chicago	200
B. St. Louis	100
C. Cincinnati	<u>300</u>
	600 tons

Transportation Method: Example



Distribution Center	Plant		
	<i>Chicago</i>	<i>St. Louis</i>	<i>Cincinnati</i>
Kansas City	\$6	\$8	\$10
Omaha	7	11	11
Des Moines	4	5	12

Problem Formulation Using Excel

Total Cost Formula

Microsoft Excel - Book1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

B10 $=B5*6+B6*7+B7*4+C5*8+C6*11+C7*5+D5*10+D6*11+D7*12$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
1								
2		Potatoes Shipping Example						
3		Receiving Plants				Distributed		
4	Distribution Centers	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply	Supply		
5	Kansas City				150	0		
6	Omaha				175	0		
7	Des Moines				275	0		
8	Demand	200	100	300	600			
9	Met Demand	0	0	0				
10	Total Cost	0						

Microsoft Excel - Book1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

B10 $=B5*6+B6*7+B7*4+C5*8+C6*11+C7*5+D5*10+D6*11+D7*12$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	
1							
2		Potatoes Shipping Example					
3		Receiving Plants					
4	Distribution	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply	Distributed Sup	
5	Kansas City				150	=SUM(B5:D5)	
6	Omaha				175	=SUM(B6:D6)	
7	Des Moines				275	=SUM(B7:D7)	
8	Demand	200	100	300	=SUM(E5:E7)		
9	Met Demand	=SUM(B5:B7)	=SUM(C5:C7)	=SUM(D5:D7)			
10	Total Cost	=B5*6+B6*7+					
11							

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1							
2	Potatoes Shipping Example						
3		Receiving Plants				Distributed	
4	Distribution Center	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply	Supply	
5	Kansas City				150	0	
6	Omaha				175	0	
7	Des Moines				275	0	
8	Demand	200	100	300	600		
9	Met Demand	0	0	0			
10	Total Cost	0					

Using Solver
from Tools
Menu

Solver Parameters [?] [X]

Set Target Cell:

Equal To: Max Min Value of:

By Changing Cells:

Subject to the Constraints:

Solver Options [?] [X]

Max Time: seconds

Iterations:

Precision:

Tolerance: %

Convergence:

Assume Linear Model Use Automatic Scaling

Assume Non-Negative Show Iteration Results

Estimates: Tangent Quadratic

Derivatives: Forward Central

Search: Newton Conjugate

Solution

Microsoft Excel - Book1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

A2 Potatoes Shipping Example

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
1								
2	Potatoes Shipping Example							
3		Receiving Plants				Distributed		
4	Distribution Center	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply	Supply		
5	Kansas City	0	0	150	150	150		
6	Omaha	25	0	150	175	175		
7	Des Moines	175	100	0	275	275		
8	Demand	200	100	300	600			
9	Met Demand	200	100	300				
10	Total Cost	4525						
11								

Modified Problem Solution

Microsoft Excel - Book1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

B10 $=B5*100+B6*7+B7*4+C5*8+C6*11+C7*5+D5*10+D6*11+D7*12$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1								
2	Potatoes Shipping Example							
3		Receiving Plants				Distributed	Excess	
4	Distribution Center	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply	Supply	Supply	Supply
5	Kansas City	0	0	150	150	150	0	
6	Omaha	0	0	150	175	175	25	
7	Des Moines	200	100	0	375	375	75	
8	Demand	200	100	300	700			
9	Met Demand	200	100	300				
10	Total Cost	4450						

Solver Parameters

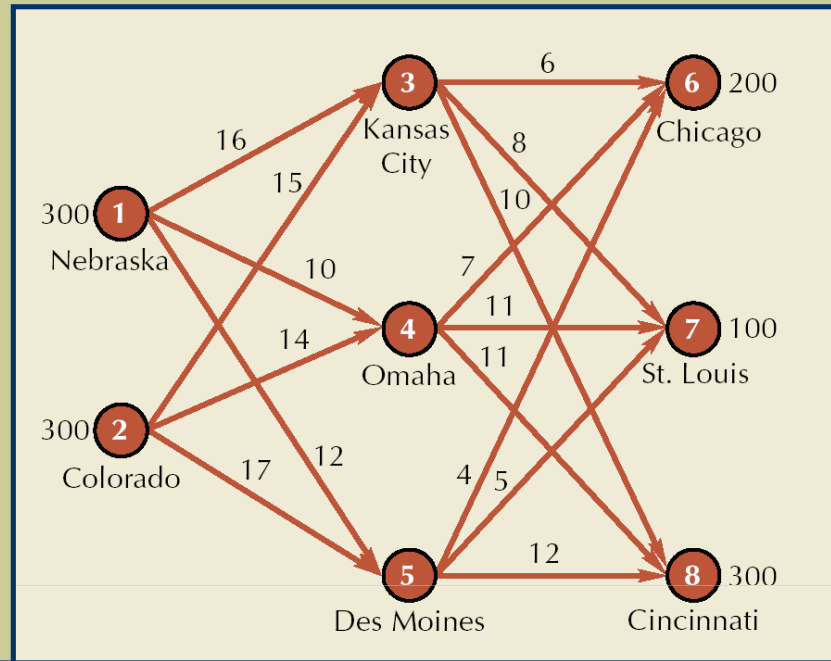
Set Target Cell:

Equal To: Max Min Value of:

By Changing Variable Cells:

Subject to the Constraints:

Transshipment Model



Farm	Distribution Centers		
	3. Kansas City	4. Omaha	5. Des Moines
1. Nebraska	\$16	10	12
2. Colorado	15	14	17

Transshipment Model: Solution

K11		=SUM(K3:K4,K6:K8)											
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
2	From	Kansas City	Omaha	Des Moi	Supply								
3	Nebraska	0	0	300	300	300		0	0	3600	3600		
4	Colorado	0	300	0	300	300		0	4200	0	4200		
5	Total	0	300	300	600			0	0	0	0		
6								0	0	0	0		
7	Unit Cost Table							0	0	3300	3300		
8	From	KC	Omaha	Des Moines				800	500	0	1300		
9	Nebraska	16	10	12									
10	Colorado	15	14	17									
11											TOTAL COST	12400	
12		To											
13	From	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Supply								
14	Kansas City	0	0	0	0								
15	Omaha	0	0	300	300								
16	Des Moines	200	100	0	300								
17	Demand	200	100	300	600								
18	Met Demand	200	100	300									
19													
20	Unit Cost Table												
21	From	Chicago	St. Louis	Cincinnati									
22	Kansas City	6	8	10									
23	Omaha	7	11	11									
24	Des Moines	4	5	12									
25													

Solver Parameters

Set Target Cell:

Equal To: Max Min Value of:

By Changing Variable Cells:

Subject to the Constraints:

-
-
-



Chapter 12

Forecasting

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



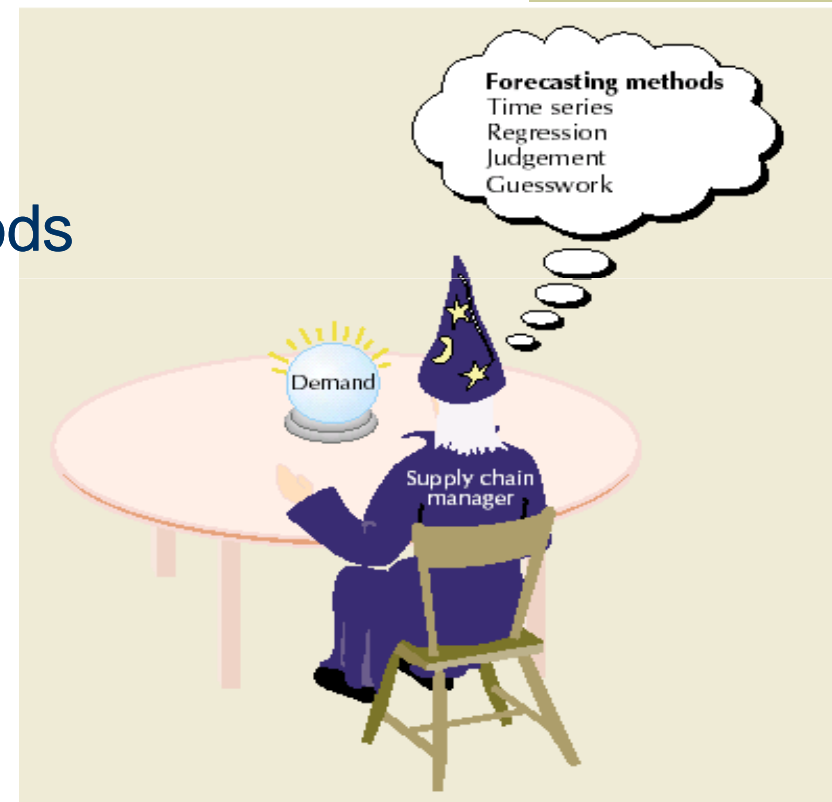


Lecture Outline

- ◆ Strategic Role of Forecasting in Supply Chain Management
- ◆ Components of Forecasting Demand
- ◆ Time Series Methods
- ◆ Forecast Accuracy
- ◆ Time Series Forecasting Using Excel
- ◆ Regression Methods

Forecasting

- ◆ Predicting the future
- ◆ Qualitative forecast methods
 - subjective
- ◆ Quantitative forecast methods
 - based on mathematical formulas



Forecasting and Supply Chain Management

- ◆ Accurate forecasting determines how much inventory a company must keep at various points along its supply chain
- ◆ Continuous replenishment
 - supplier and customer share continuously updated data
 - typically managed by the supplier
 - reduces inventory for the company
 - speeds customer delivery
- ◆ Variations of continuous replenishment
 - quick response
 - JIT (just-in-time)
 - VMI (vendor-managed inventory)
 - stockless inventory



Forecasting

- ◆ Quality Management
 - Accurately forecasting customer demand is a key to providing good quality service
- ◆ Strategic Planning
 - Successful strategic planning requires accurate forecasts of future products and markets



Types of Forecasting Methods

- ◆ Depend on
 - time frame
 - demand behavior
 - causes of behavior



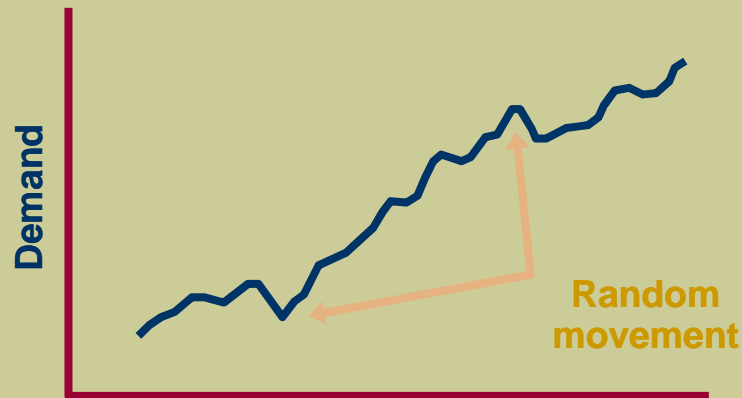
Time Frame

- ◆ Indicates how far into the future is forecast
 - Short- to mid-range forecast
 - typically encompasses the immediate future
 - daily up to two years
 - Long-range forecast
 - usually encompasses a period of time longer than two years

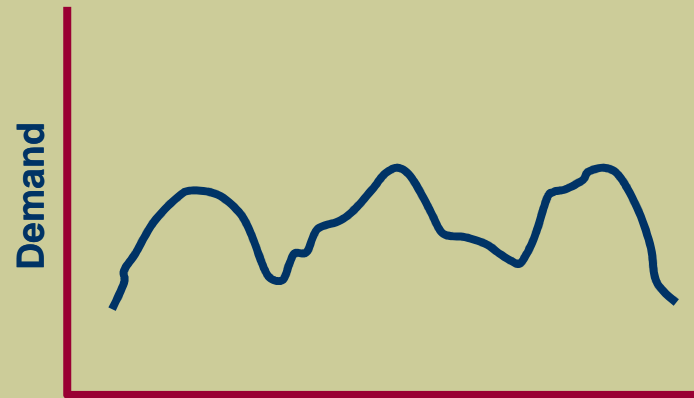
Demand Behavior

- ◆ Trend
 - a gradual, long-term up or down movement of demand
- ◆ Random variations
 - movements in demand that do not follow a pattern
- ◆ Cycle
 - an up-and-down repetitive movement in demand
- ◆ Seasonal pattern
 - an up-and-down repetitive movement in demand occurring periodically

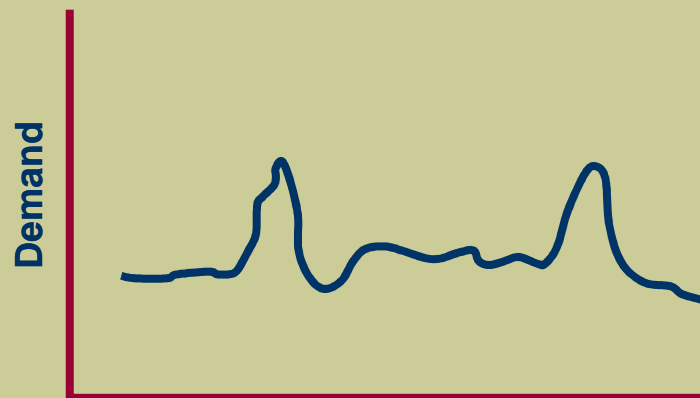
Forms of Forecast Movement



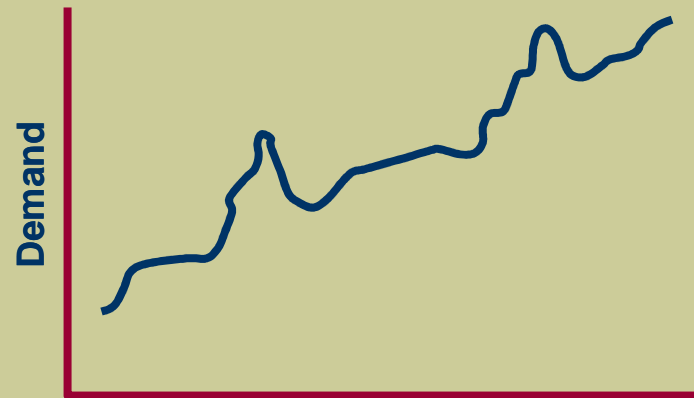
Time
(a) Trend



Time
(b) Cycle



Time
(c) Seasonal pattern



Time
(d) Trend with seasonal pattern

Forecasting Methods

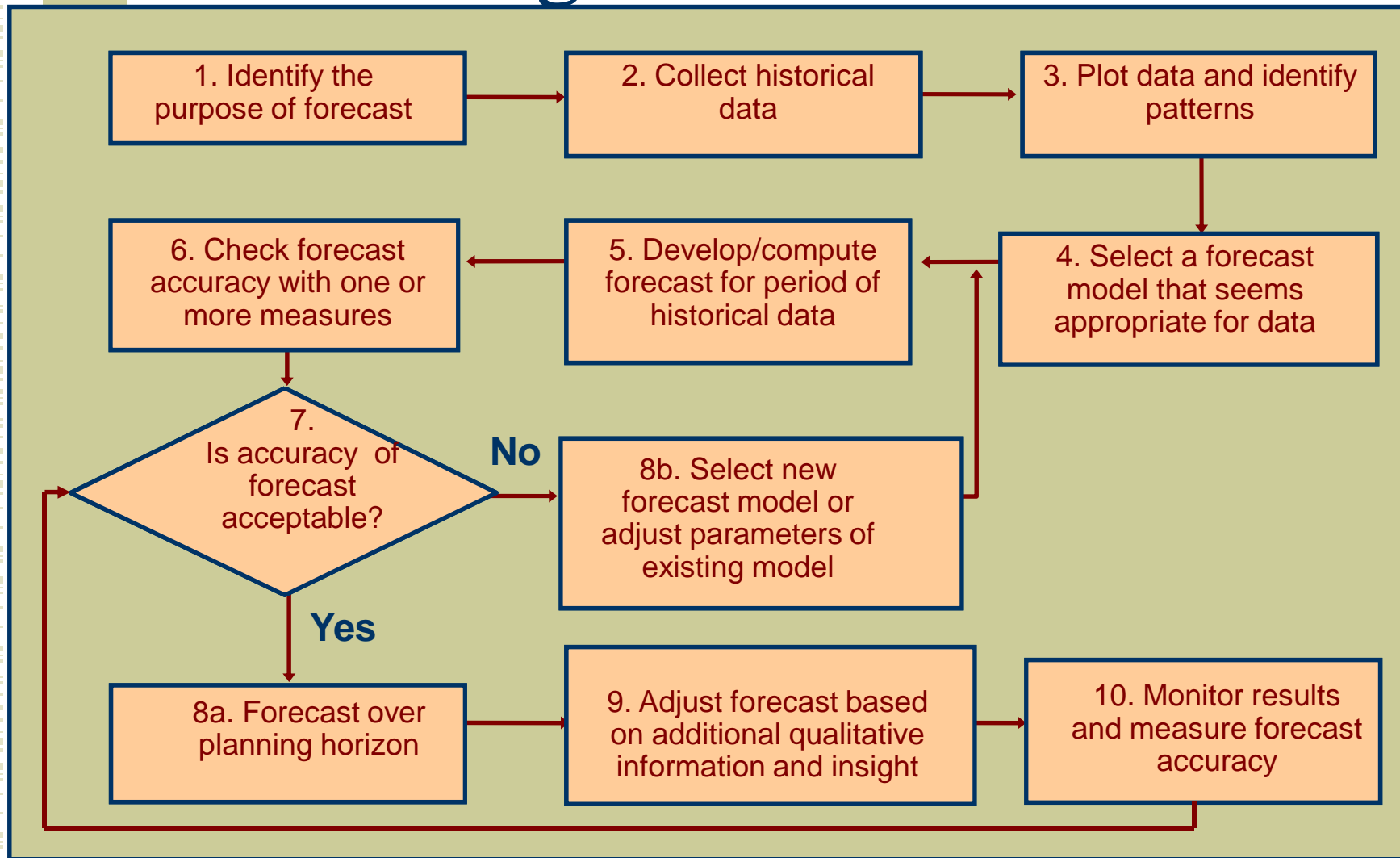
- ◆ Time series
 - statistical techniques that use historical demand data to predict future demand
- ◆ Regression methods
 - attempt to develop a mathematical relationship between demand and factors that cause its behavior
- ◆ Qualitative
 - use management judgment, expertise, and opinion to predict future demand



Qualitative Methods

- ◆ Management, marketing, purchasing, and engineering are sources for internal qualitative forecasts
- ◆ Delphi method
 - involves soliciting forecasts about technological advances from experts

Forecasting Process





Time Series

- ◆ Assume that what has occurred in the past will continue to occur in the future
- ◆ Relate the forecast to only one factor - time
- ◆ Include
 - moving average
 - exponential smoothing
 - linear trend line

Moving Average

- ◆ *Naive* forecast
 - demand in current period is used as next period's forecast
- ◆ Simple moving average
 - uses average demand for a fixed sequence of periods
 - stable demand with no pronounced behavioral patterns
- ◆ Weighted moving average
 - weights are assigned to most recent data

Moving Average: Naïve Approach

MONTH	ORDERS PER MONTH	FORECAST
	Jan	120 -
	Feb	900
	Mar	1000
	Apr	750
	May	1105
	June	500
	July	750
	Aug	1305
	Sept	1100
	Oct	900
		90
Nov	-	

Simple Moving Average

$$MA_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n D_i}{n}$$

where

n = number of periods in
the moving average

D_i = demand in period i

3-month Simple Moving Average

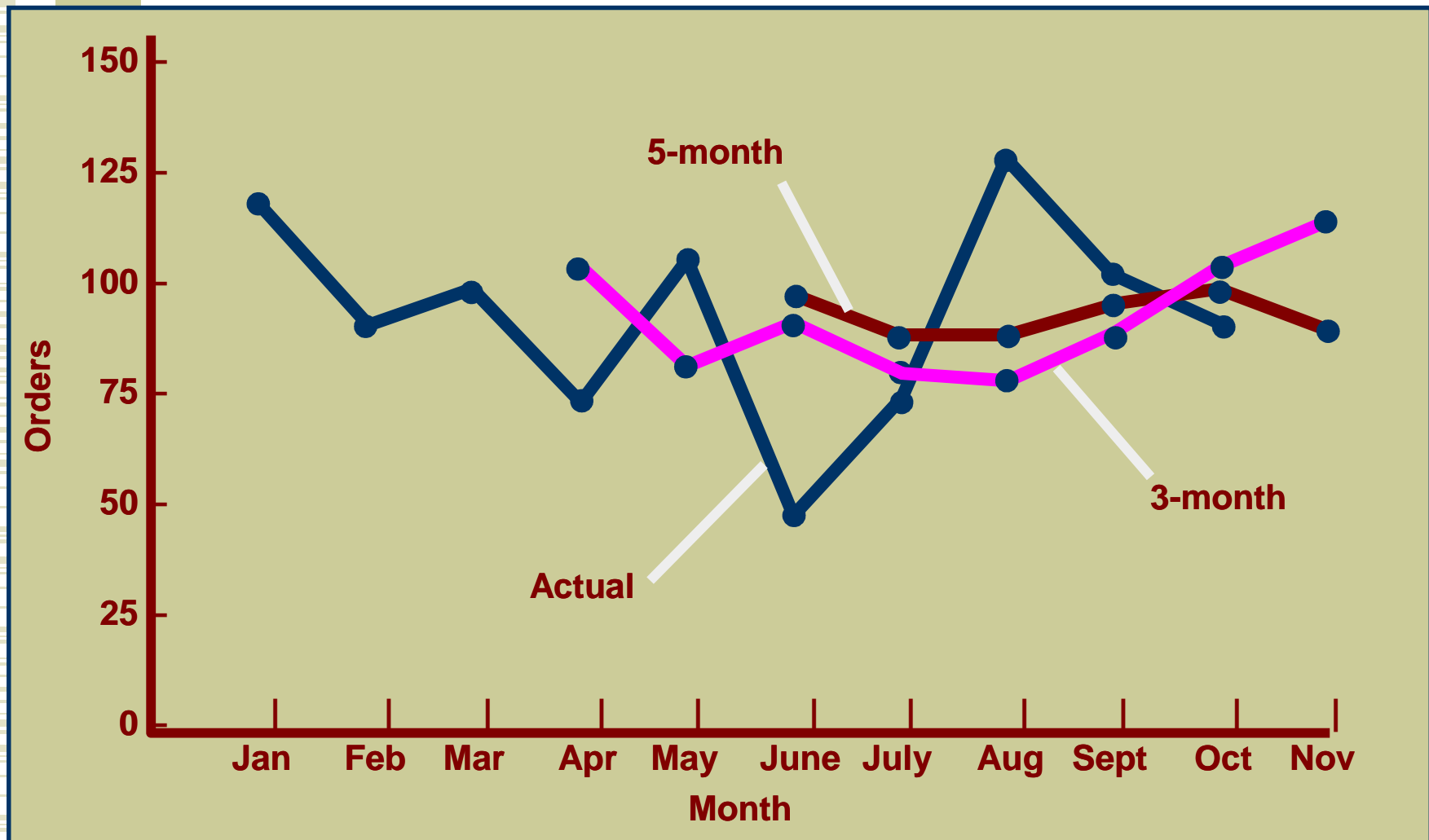
MONTH	ORDERS PER MONTH	MOVING AVERAGE	
Jan	120	-	$MA_3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 D_i}{3}$
Feb	90	-	
Mar	100	-	
Apr	75	103.3	= $\frac{90 + 110 + 130}{3}$
May	110	88.3	
June	50	95.0	
July	75	78.3	= 110 orders
Aug	130	78.3	for Nov
Sept	110	85.0	
Oct	90	105.0	
Nov	-	110.0	

5-month Simple Moving Average

MONTH	ORDERS PER MONTH	MOVING AVERAGE
Jan	120	-
Feb	90	-
Mar	100	-
Apr	75	-
May	110	-
June	50	99.0
July	75	85.0
Aug	130	82.0
Sept	110	88.0
Oct	90	95.0
Nov	-	91.0

$$\begin{aligned}
 MA_5 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 D_i}{5} \\
 &= \frac{90 + 110 + 130 + 75 + 50}{5} \\
 &= 91 \text{ orders} \\
 &\quad \text{for Nov}
 \end{aligned}$$

Smoothing Effects



Weighted Moving Average

Adjusts moving average method to more closely reflect data fluctuations

$$WMA_n = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i D_i$$

where

W_i = the weight for period i ,
between 0 and 100
percent

$$\sum W_i = 1.00$$

Weighted Moving Average Example

<i>MONTH</i>	<i>WEIGHT</i>	<i>DATA</i>
<i>August</i>	17%	130
<i>September</i>	33%	110
<i>October</i>	50%	90

November Forecast $WMA_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 W_i D_i$

$$= (0.50)(90) + (0.33)(110) + (0.17)(130)$$

$$= 103.4 \text{ orders}$$



Exponential Smoothing

Averaging method

Weights most recent data more strongly

Reacts more to recent changes

Widely used, accurate method

Exponential Smoothing (cont.)

$$F_{t+1} = \alpha D_t + (1 - \alpha)F_t$$

where:

F_{t+1} = forecast for next period

D_t = actual demand for present period

F_t = previously determined forecast for present period

α = weighting factor, smoothing constant

Effect of Smoothing Constant

$$0.0 \leq \alpha \leq 1.0$$

If $\alpha = 0.20$, then $F_{t+1} = 0.20 D_t + 0.80 F_t$

If $\alpha = 0$, then $F_{t+1} = 0 D_t + 1 F_t = F_t$

Forecast does not reflect recent data

If $\alpha = 1$, then $F_{t+1} = 1 D_t + 0 F_t = D_t$

Forecast based only on most recent data

Exponential Smoothing ($\alpha=0.30$)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND
1	Jan	37
2	Feb	40
3	Mar	41
4	Apr	37
5	May	45
6	Jun	50
7	Jul	43
8	Aug	47
9	Sep	56
10	Oct	52
11	Nov	55
12	Dec	54

$$\begin{aligned}F_2 &= \alpha D_1 + (1 - \alpha)F_1 \\ &= (0.30)(37) + (0.70)(37) \\ &= 37\end{aligned}$$

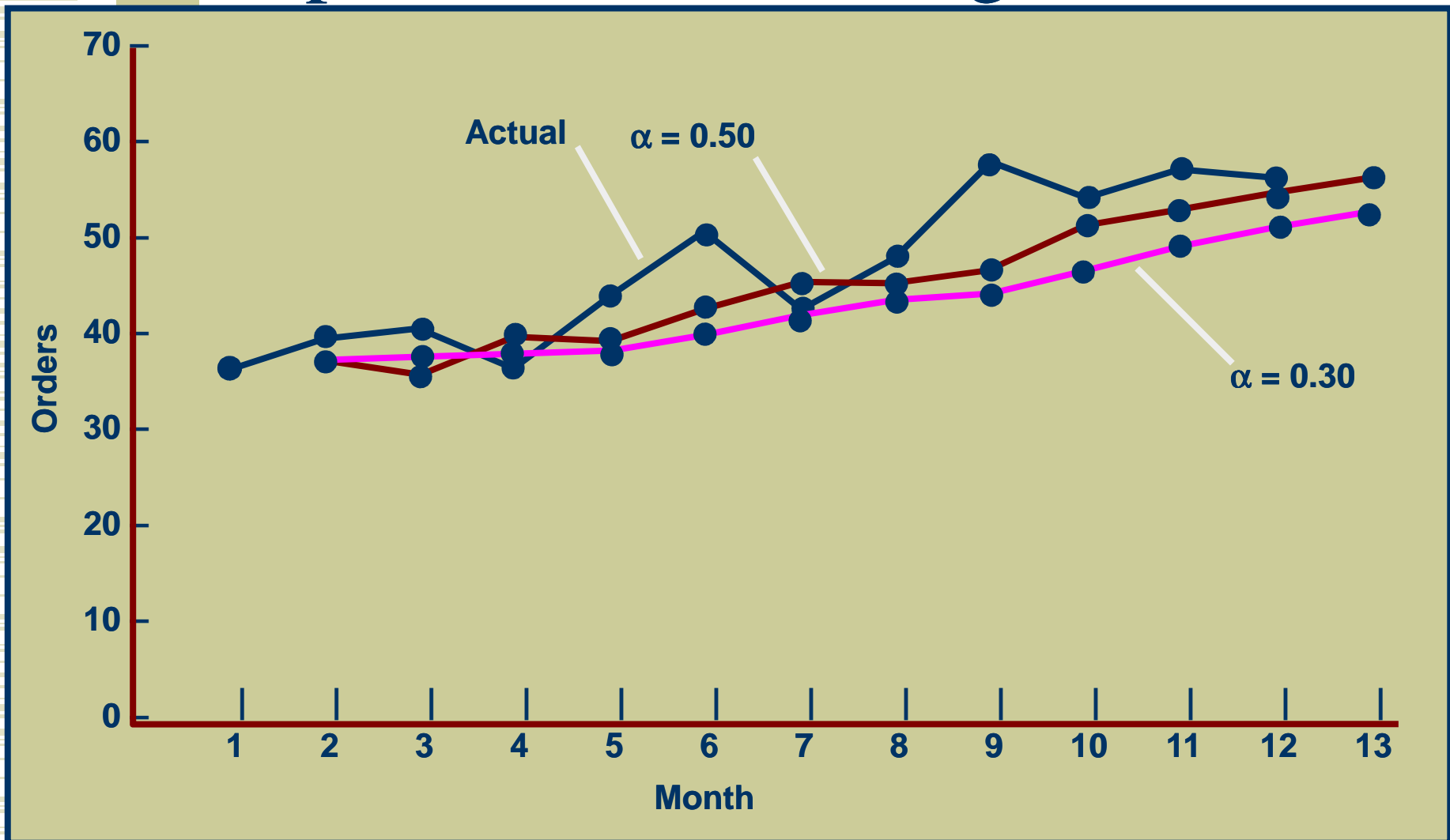
$$\begin{aligned}F_3 &= \alpha D_2 + (1 - \alpha)F_2 \\ &= (0.30)(40) + (0.70)(37) \\ &= 37.9\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}F_{13} &= \alpha D_{12} + (1 - \alpha)F_{12} \\ &= (0.30)(54) + (0.70)(50.84) \\ &= 51.79\end{aligned}$$

Exponential Smoothing (cont.)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	FORECAST, F_{t+1}	
			($\alpha = 0.3$)	($\alpha = 0.5$)
1	Jan	37	—	—
2	Feb	40	37.00	37.00
3	Mar	41	37.90	38.50
4	Apr	37	38.83	39.75
5	May	45	38.28	38.37
6	Jun	50	40.29	41.68
7	Jul	43	43.20	45.84
8	Aug	47	43.14	44.42
9	Sep	56	44.30	45.71
10	Oct	52	47.81	50.85
11	Nov	55	49.06	51.42
12	Dec	54	50.84	53.21
13	Jan	—	51.79	53.61

Exponential Smoothing (cont.)



Adjusted Exponential Smoothing

$$AF_{t+1} = F_{t+1} + T_{t+1}$$

where

T = an exponentially smoothed trend factor

$$T_{t+1} = \beta(F_{t+1} - F_t) + (1 - \beta) T_t$$

where

T_t = the last period trend factor
 β = a smoothing constant for trend

Adjusted Exponential Smoothing ($\beta=0.30$)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND
1	Jan	37
2	Feb	40
3	Mar	41
4	Apr	37
5	May	45
6	Jun	50
7	Jul	43
8	Aug	47
9	Sep	56
10	Oct	52
11	Nov	55
12	Dec	54

$$\begin{aligned}T_3 &= \beta(F_3 - F_2) + (1 - \beta) T_2 \\ &= (0.30)(38.5 - 37.0) + (0.70)(0) \\ &= 0.45\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}AF_3 &= F_3 + T_3 = 38.5 + 0.45 \\ &= 38.95\end{aligned}$$

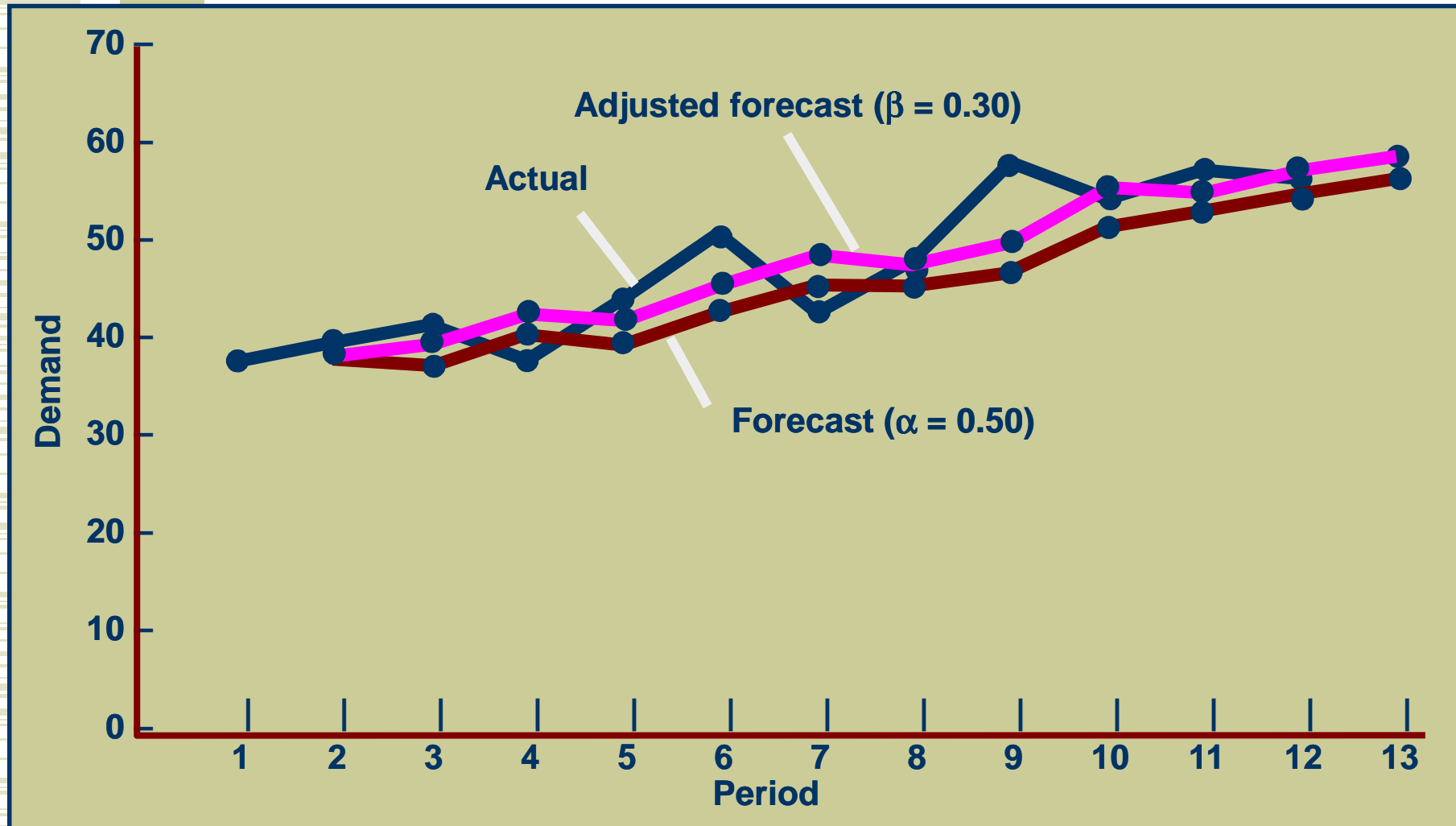
$$\begin{aligned}T_{13} &= \beta(F_{13} - F_{12}) + (1 - \beta) T_{12} \\ &= (0.30)(53.61 - 53.21) + (0.70)(1.77) \\ &= 1.36\end{aligned}$$

$$AF_{13} = F_{13} + T_{13} = 53.61 + 1.36 = 54.97$$

Adjusted Exponential Smoothing: Example

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	FORECAST F_{t+1}	TREND T_{t+1}	ADJUSTED FORECAST AF_{t+1}
1	Jan	37	37.00	—	—
2	Feb	40	37.00	0.00	37.00
3	Mar	41	38.50	0.45	38.95
4	Apr	37	39.75	0.69	40.44
5	May	45	38.37	0.07	38.44
6	Jun	50	38.37	0.07	38.44
7	Jul	43	45.84	1.97	47.82
8	Aug	47	44.42	0.95	45.37
9	Sep	56	45.71	1.05	46.76
10	Oct	52	50.85	2.28	58.13
11	Nov	55	51.42	1.76	53.19
12	Dec	54	53.21	1.77	54.98
13	Jan	—	53.61	1.36	54.96

Adjusted Exponential Smoothing Forecasts



Linear Trend Line

$$y = a + bx$$

where

a = intercept

b = slope of the line

x = time period

y = forecast for demand for period x

$$\frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} b =$$

$$- \quad - \quad a = y - b x$$

where

n = number of periods

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} = \text{mean of the } x \text{ values}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{n} = \text{mean of the } y \text{ values}$$

Least Squares Example

$x(\text{PERIOD})$	$y(\text{DEMAND})$	xy	x^2
1	73	37	1
2	40	80	4
3	41	123	9
4	37	148	16
5	45	225	25
6	50	300	36
7	43	301	49
8	47	376	64
9	56	504	81
10	52	520	100
11	55	605	121
12	54	648	144
<u>78</u>	<u>557</u>	<u>3867</u>	<u>650</u>

Least Squares Example (cont.)

$$- \frac{78}{12}$$

$$x = 6.5$$

$$- \frac{557}{12}$$

$$y = 46.42$$

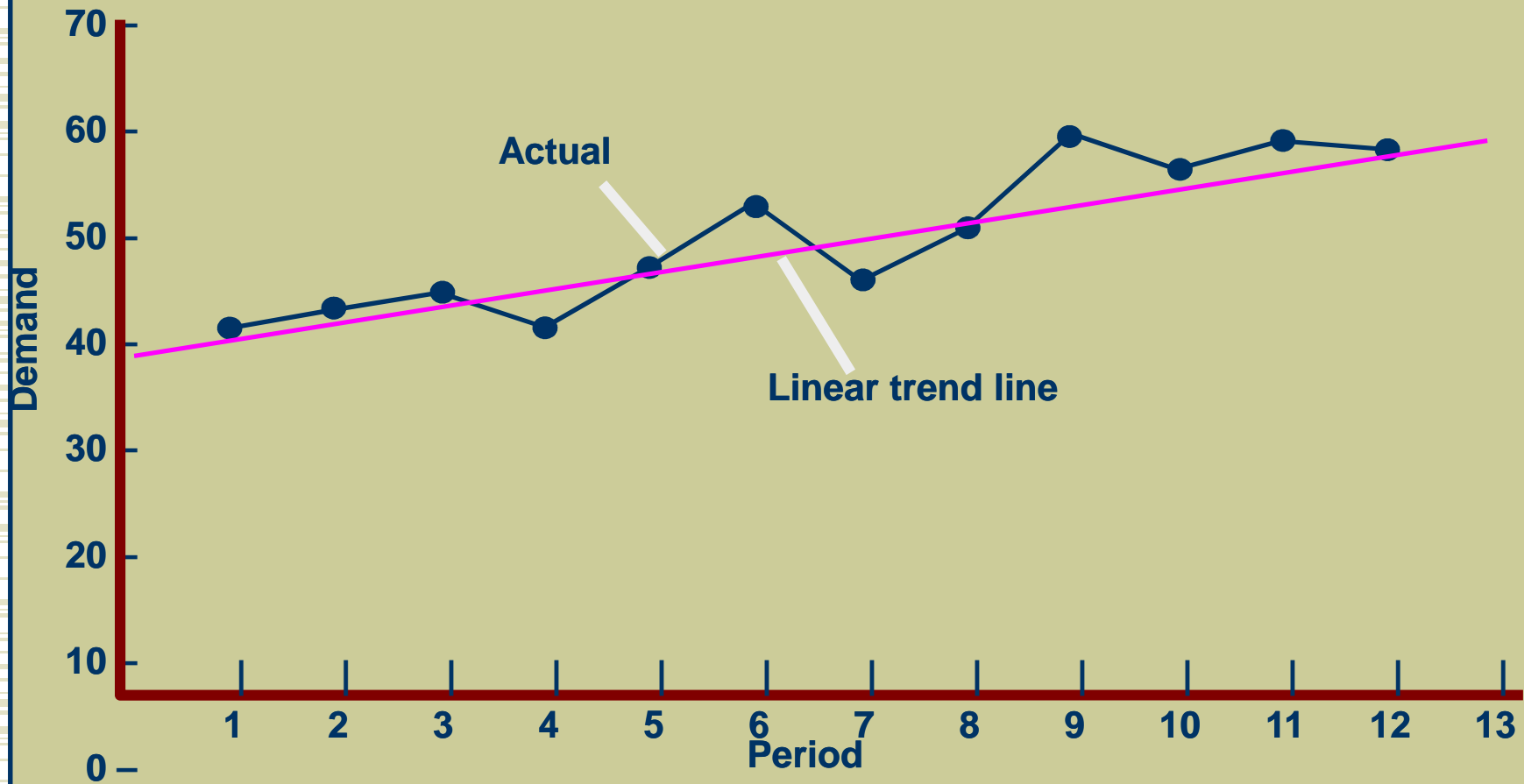
$$b \frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} = \frac{3867 - (12)(6.5)(46.42)}{650 - 12(6.5)^2} = 1.72$$

- -

$$a = y - bx \\ = 46.42 - (1.72)(6.5) = 35.2$$

Linear trend line $y = 35.2 + 1.72x$

Forecast for period 13 $y = 35.2 + 1.72(13) = 57.56$ units



Seasonal Adjustments

Repetitive increase/ decrease in demand
Use seasonal factor to adjust forecast

$$\text{Seasonal factor} = S_i = \frac{D_i}{\sum D}$$

Seasonal Adjustment (cont.)

YEAR	DEMAND (1000'S PER QUARTER)				Total
	1	2	3	4	
2002	12.6	8.6	6.3	17.5	45.0
2003	14.1	10.3	7.5	18.2	50.1
2004	15.3	10.6	8.1	19.6	53.6
Total	42.0	29.5	21.9	55.3	148.7

$$S_1 = \frac{D_1}{\sum D} = \frac{42.0}{148.7} = 0.28$$

$$S_3 = \frac{D_3}{\sum D} = \frac{21.9}{148.7} = 0.15$$

$$S_2 = \frac{D_2}{\sum D} = \frac{29.5}{148.7} = 0.20$$

$$S_4 = \frac{D_4}{\sum D} = \frac{55.3}{148.7} = 0.37$$

Seasonal Adjustment (cont.)

For 2005

$$y = 40.97 + 4.30x = 40.97 + 4.30(4) = 58.17$$

$$SF_1 = (S_1) (F_5) = (0.28)(58.17) = 16.28$$

$$SF_2 = (S_2) (F_5) = (0.20)(58.17) = 11.63$$

$$SF_3 = (S_3) (F_5) = (0.15)(58.17) = 8.73$$

$$SF_4 = (S_4) (F_5) = (0.37)(58.17) = 21.53$$

Forecast Accuracy

- ◆ Forecast error
 - difference between forecast and actual demand
 - MAD
 - mean absolute deviation
 - MAPD
 - mean absolute percent deviation
 - Cumulative error
 - Average error or bias

Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD)

$$\text{MAD} = \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{n}$$

where

t = period number

D_t = demand in period t

F_t = forecast for period t

n = total number of periods

$| |$ = absolute value

Other Accuracy Measures

Mean absolute percent deviation (MAPD)

$$MAPD = \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{\sum D_t}$$

Cumulative error

$$E = \sum e_t$$

Average error

$$E = \frac{\sum e_t}{n}$$

Comparison of Forecasts

FORECAST	MAD	MAPD	<i>E</i>	(<i>E</i>)
Exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.30$)	4.85	9.6%	49.31	4.48
Exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.50$)	4.04	8.5%	33.21	3.02
Adjusted exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.50, \beta = 0.30$)	3.81	7.5%	21.14	1.92
Linear trend line	2.29	4.9%	—	—

Forecast Control

- ◆ Tracking signal

- monitors the forecast to see if it is biased high or low

$$\text{Tracking signal} = \frac{\sum(D_t - F_t)}{\text{MAD}} = \frac{E}{\text{MAD}}$$

- 1 MAD \approx 0.8 σ
- Control limits of 2 to 5 MADs are used most frequently

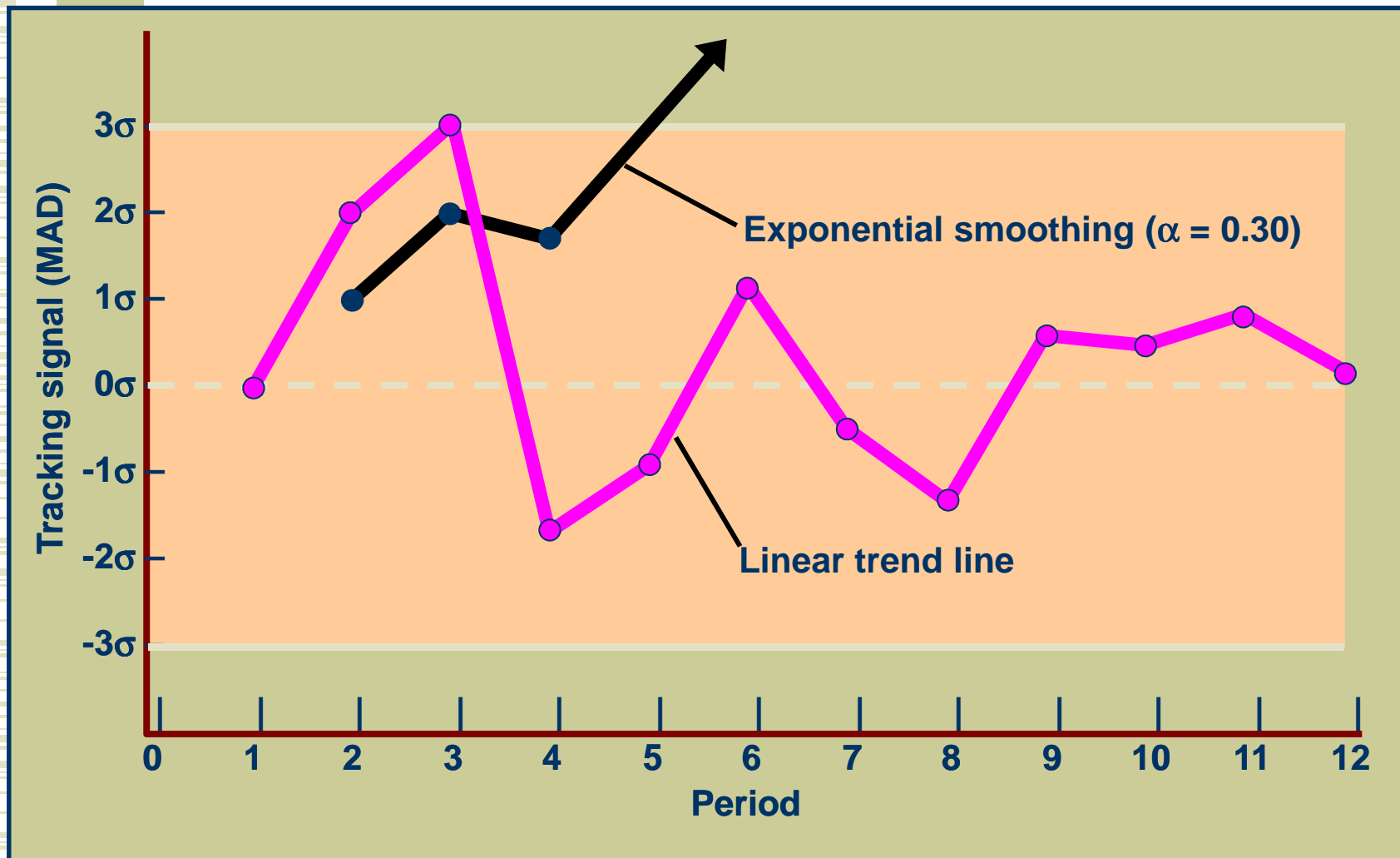
Tracking Signal Values

PERIOD	DEMAND D_t	FORECAST, F_t	ERROR $D_t - F_t$	$\Sigma E =$ $\Sigma(D_t - F_t)$	MAD	TRACKING SIGNAL
1	37	37.00	—	—	—	—
2	40	37.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	1.00
3	41	37.90	3.10	6.10	3.05	2.00
4	37				2.64	1.62
5	45				3.66	3.00
6	50				4.87	4.25
7	43				4.09	5.01
8	47				4.06	6.00
9	56				5.01	7.19
10	52				4.92	8.18
11	55	49.00	3.94	40.17	5.02	9.20
12	54	50.84	3.15	49.32	4.85	10.17

Tracking signal for period 3

$$TS_3 = \frac{6.10}{3.05} = 2.00$$

Tracking Signal Plot



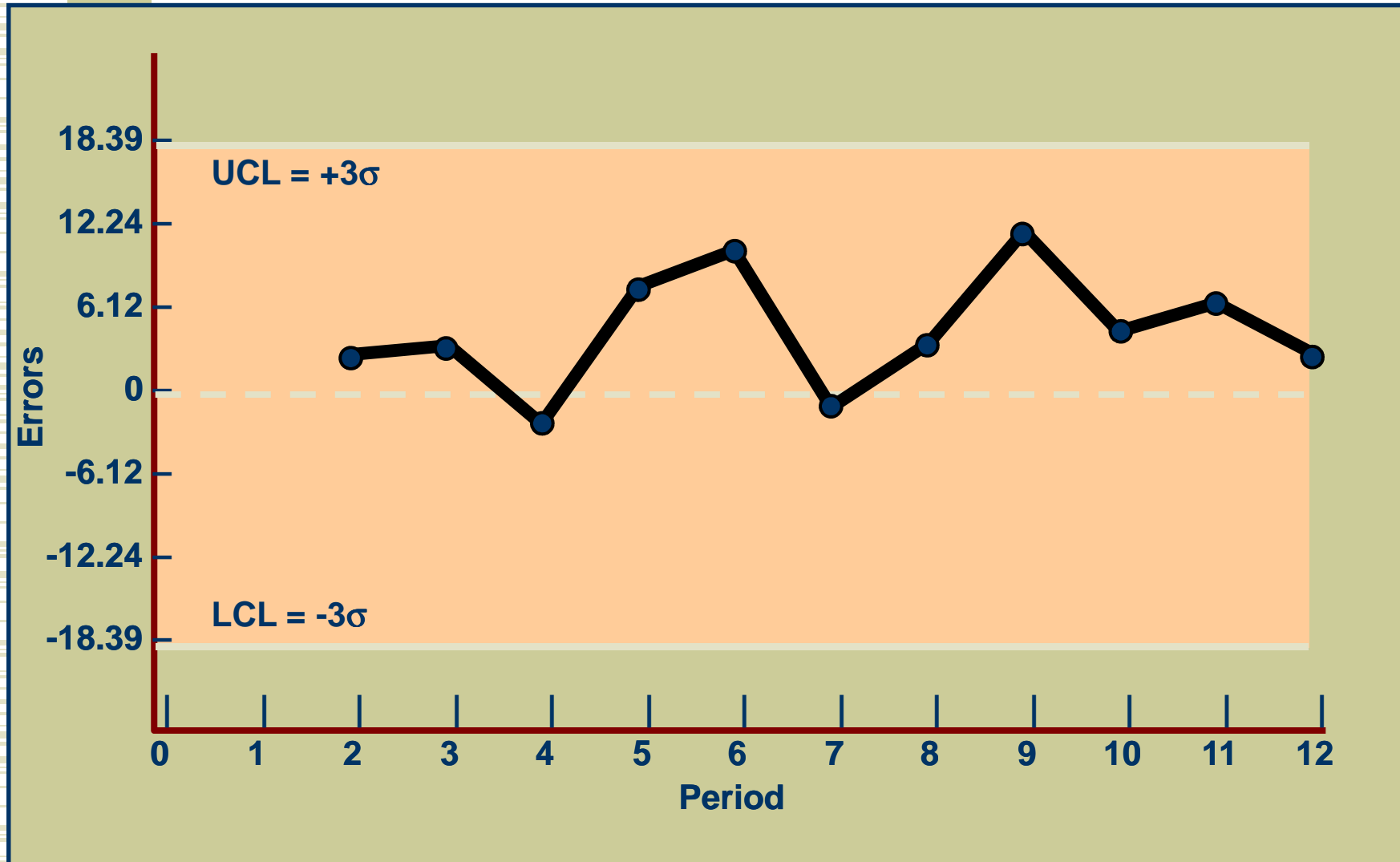
Statistical Control Charts

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(D_t - F_t)^2}{n - 1}}$$

Using σ we can calculate statistical control limits for the forecast error

Control limits are typically set at $\pm 3\sigma$

Statistical Control Charts



Time Series Forecasting using Excel

- ◆ Excel can be used to develop forecasts:
 - Moving average
 - Exponential smoothing
 - Adjusted exponential smoothing
 - Linear trend line

Exponentially Smoothed and Adjusted Exponentially Smoothed Forecasts

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.1.Forecasting.XLS

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

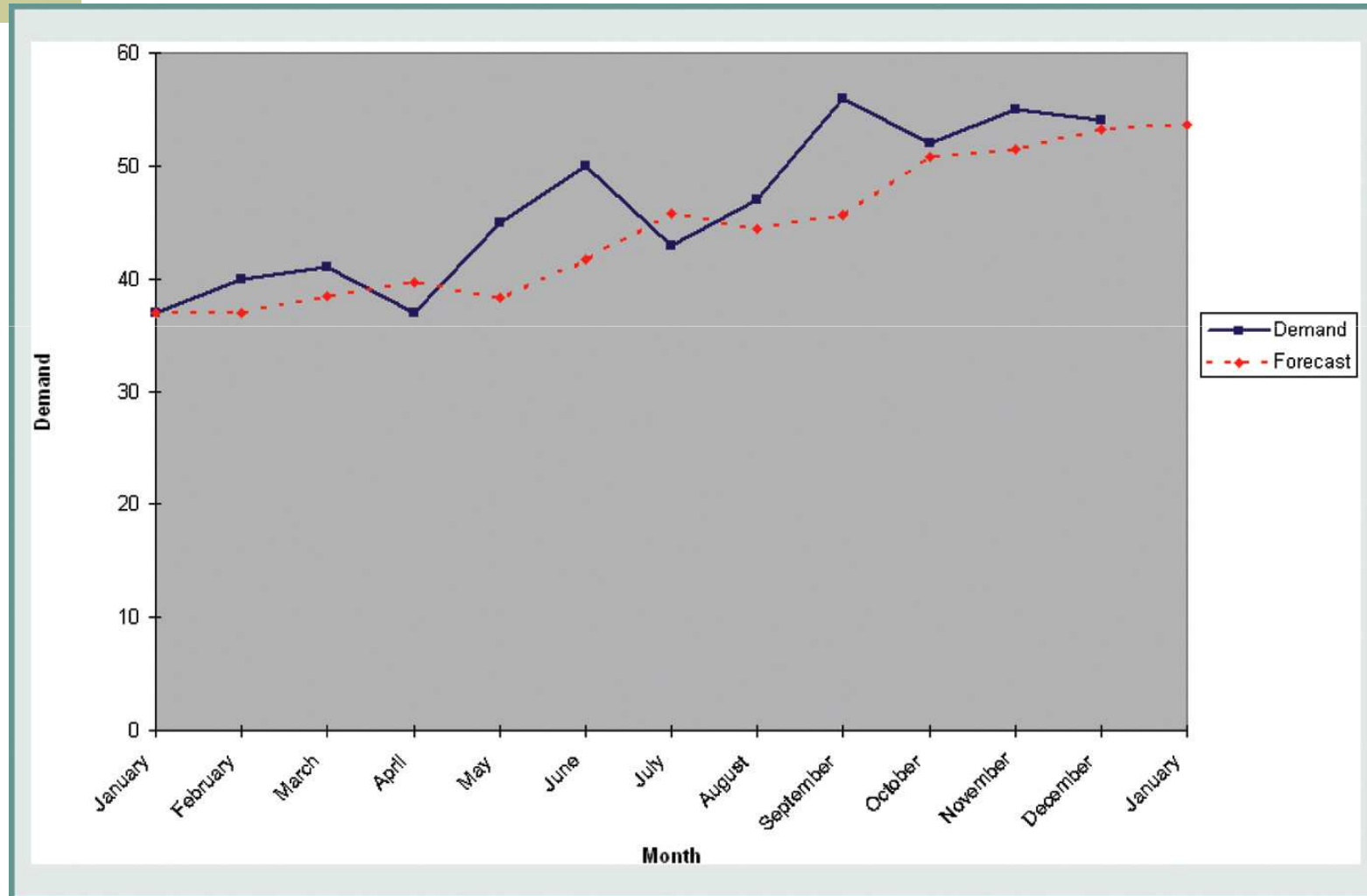
C11 =B4*B10+(1-B4)*C10

1	Example 12.4: Exponentially Smoothed and Adjusted Exponentially Smoothed Forecasts						
2	Smoothed Forecasts						
3							
4	Alpha =	0.5					
5	Beta =	0.3					
6							
7	Month	Demand	Forecast	Trend	Adjusted Forecast	Error	Absolute Error
9	January	37	37.00				
10	February	40	37.00	0.00	37.00	3.00	3.00
11	March	41	38.50	0.45	38.95	2.05	2.05
12	April	37	39.75	0.69	40.44	-3.44	3.44
13	May	45	38.38	0.07	38.45	6.55	6.55
14	June	50	41.69	1.04	42.73	7.27	7.27
15	July	43	45.84	1.98	47.82	-4.82	4.82
16	August	47	44.42	0.96	45.38	1.62	1.62
17	September	56	45.71	1.06	46.77	9.23	9.23
18	October	52	50.86	2.28	53.14	-1.14	1.14
19	November	55	51.43	1.77	53.20	1.80	1.80
20	December	54	53.21	1.77	54.99	-0.99	0.97
21	January		53.61	1.36	54.97		
22						21.14	41.90
23							
24							
25	MAD =	3.81					
26	MAPD =	8.1	percent				
27	E =	21.14					
28							

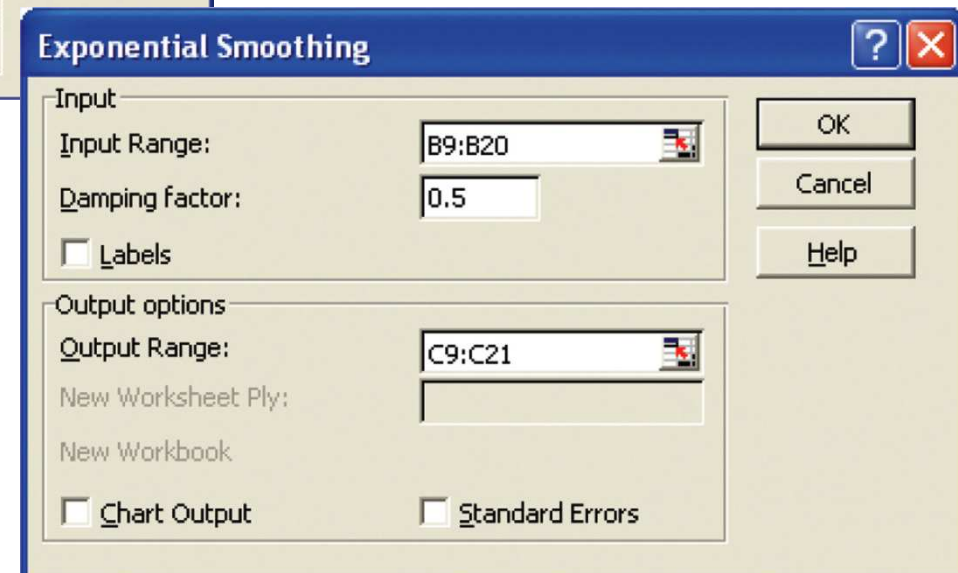
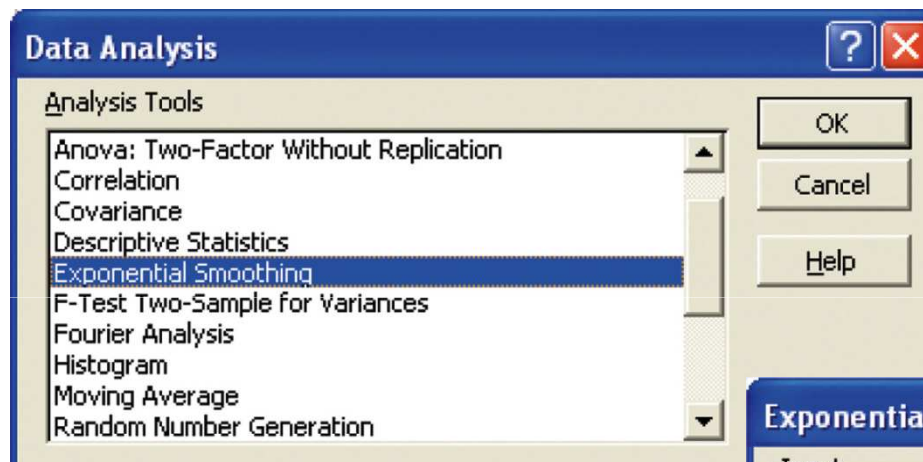
Formulas shown in callouts:

- $=B5*(C11 - C10) + (1 - B5)*D10$
- $=C10 + D10$
- $=ABS(B10 - E10)$
- $=SUM(F10:F20)$
- $=G22/11$

Demand and exponentially smoothed forecast



Data Analysis option



Computing a Forecast with Seasonal Adjustment

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.5.Forecasting.XLS

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Σ 120%

B12 $= (B8/F8)*E10$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
1	Example 12.6: Computing a Forecast with Seasonal Adjustments							
2								
3		<i>Demand (1,000s) per Quarter</i>						
4	Year	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	Total		
5	2002	12.6	8.6	6.3	17.5	45.0		
6	2003	14.1	10.3	7.5	18.2	50.1		
7	2004	15.3	10.6	8.1	19.6	53.6		
8	Total	42.0	29.5	21.9	55.3	148.7		
9								
10	Linear trend line forecast for 2005 =				58.17			
11								
12	<i>SF1</i> =	16.43						
13	<i>SF2</i> =	11.54						
14	<i>SF3</i> =	8.57						
15	<i>SF4</i> =	21.63						
16								

OM Tools

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.6. ExponentialSmoothing.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

C24 =E21/(D3-1)

Exponentially Smoothed Forecasts OM Student - Example 12.3

Input: No. of demand periods 12
Alpha 0.30

Label periods, input demand data and smoothing constant, alpha. Scroll down for output values.

Exponential Smoothing

$$F_{t+1} = \alpha D_t + (1 - \alpha)F_t$$

Period	Demand	Forecast	Error	Absolute Error	Squared Error
January	37	37.00			
February	40	37.00	3.00	3.00	9.00
March	41	37.90	3.10	3.10	9.61
April	37	38.83	-1.83	1.83	3.35
May	45	38.28	6.72	6.72	45.14
June	50	40.30	9.70	9.70	94.15
July	43	43.21	-0.21	0.21	0.04
August	47	43.15	3.85	3.85	14.86
September	56	44.30	11.70	11.70	136.85
October	52	47.81	4.19	4.19	17.55
November	55	49.07	5.93	5.93	35.19
December	54	50.85	3.15	3.15	9.94
Total	557.00		49.31	53.39	375.68

Output:

MAD	4.85
MAPD	0.10
E	49.31
E	4.48
MSE	37.57

Exponential Smoothing

Formulas:

$$MAD = \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{n}$$

$$MAPD = \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{D_t}$$

$$\bar{E} = \frac{\sum e_t}{n}$$

$$MSE = \frac{\sum (D_t - F_t)^2}{n - 1}$$



Regression Methods

- ◆ Linear regression
 - a mathematical technique that relates a dependent variable to an independent variable in the form of a linear equation
- ◆ Correlation
 - a measure of the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables

Linear Regression

$$y = a + bx$$

$$a = y - bx$$

$$\frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} b =$$

where

a = intercept

b = slope of the line

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} \quad = \text{mean of the } x \text{ data}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{n} \quad = \text{mean of the } y \text{ data}$$

Linear Regression Example

(WINS)	x (ATTENDANCE)	y xy	x^2
4	36.3	145.2	16
6	40.1	240.6	36
6	41.2	247.2	36
8	53.0	424.0	64
6	44.0	264.0	36
7	45.6	319.2	49
5	39.0	195.0	25
7	47.5	332.5	49
<hr/> 49	<hr/> 346.7	<hr/> 2167.7	<hr/> 311

Linear Regression Example (cont.)

$$- \frac{49}{8} x = = 6.125$$

$$- \frac{346.9}{8} y = = 43.36$$

$$\frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} b =$$

$$\frac{(2,167.7) - (8)(6.125)(43.36)}{(311) - (8)(6.125)^2} = 4.06$$

$$a = y - bx$$

$$- = 43.36 - (4.06)(6.125) = 18.46$$

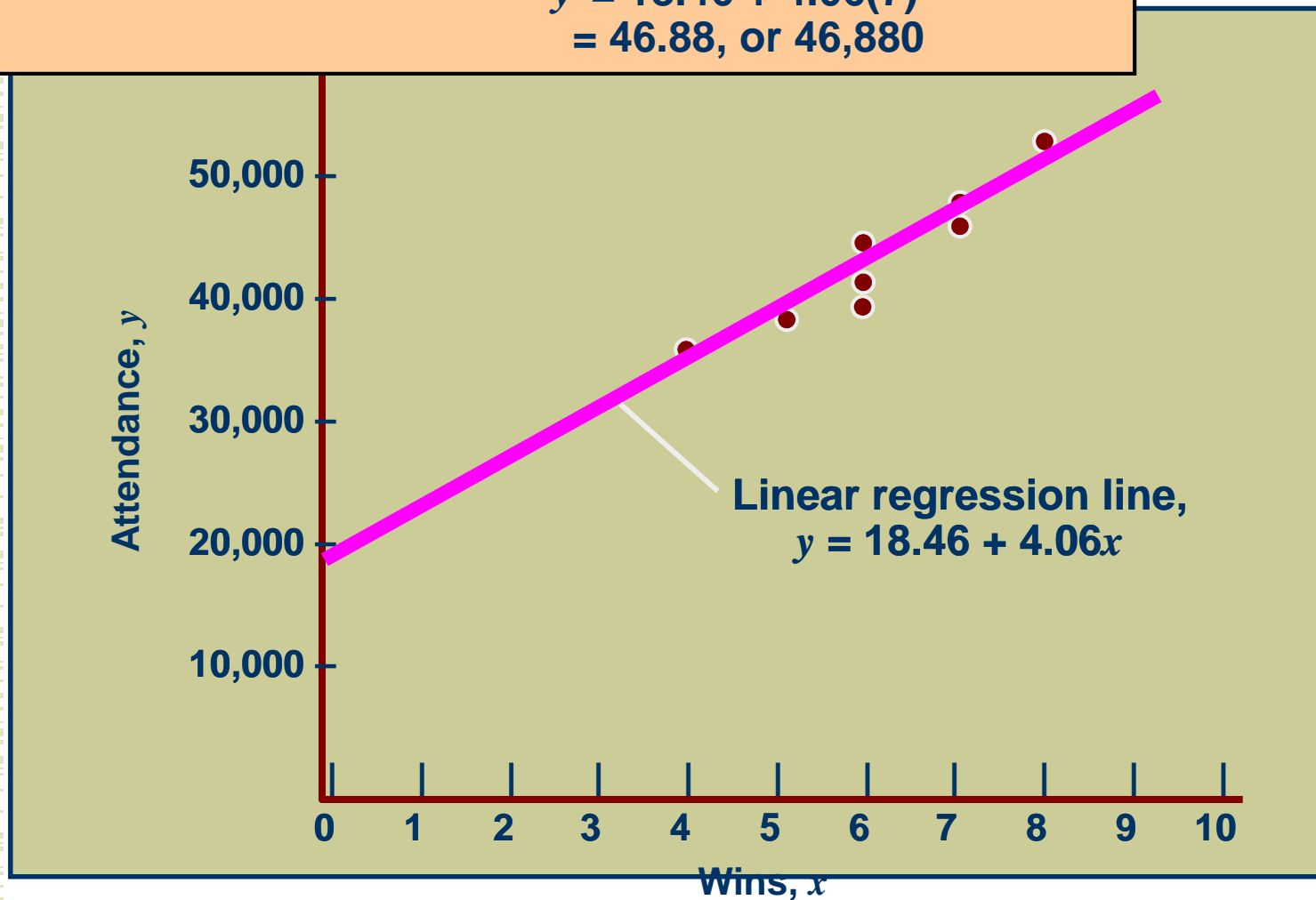
Linear Regression Example (cont.)

Regression equation

$$y = 18.46 + 4.06x$$

Attendance forecast for 7 wins

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 18.46 + 4.06(7) \\ &= 46.88, \text{ or } 46,880 \end{aligned}$$



Correlation and Coefficient of Determination

Correlation, r

Measure of strength of relationship

Varies between -1.00 and +1.00

Coefficient of determination, r^2

Percentage of variation in dependent variable resulting from changes in the independent variable

Computing Correlation

$$r = \frac{n\sum xy - \sum x\sum y}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

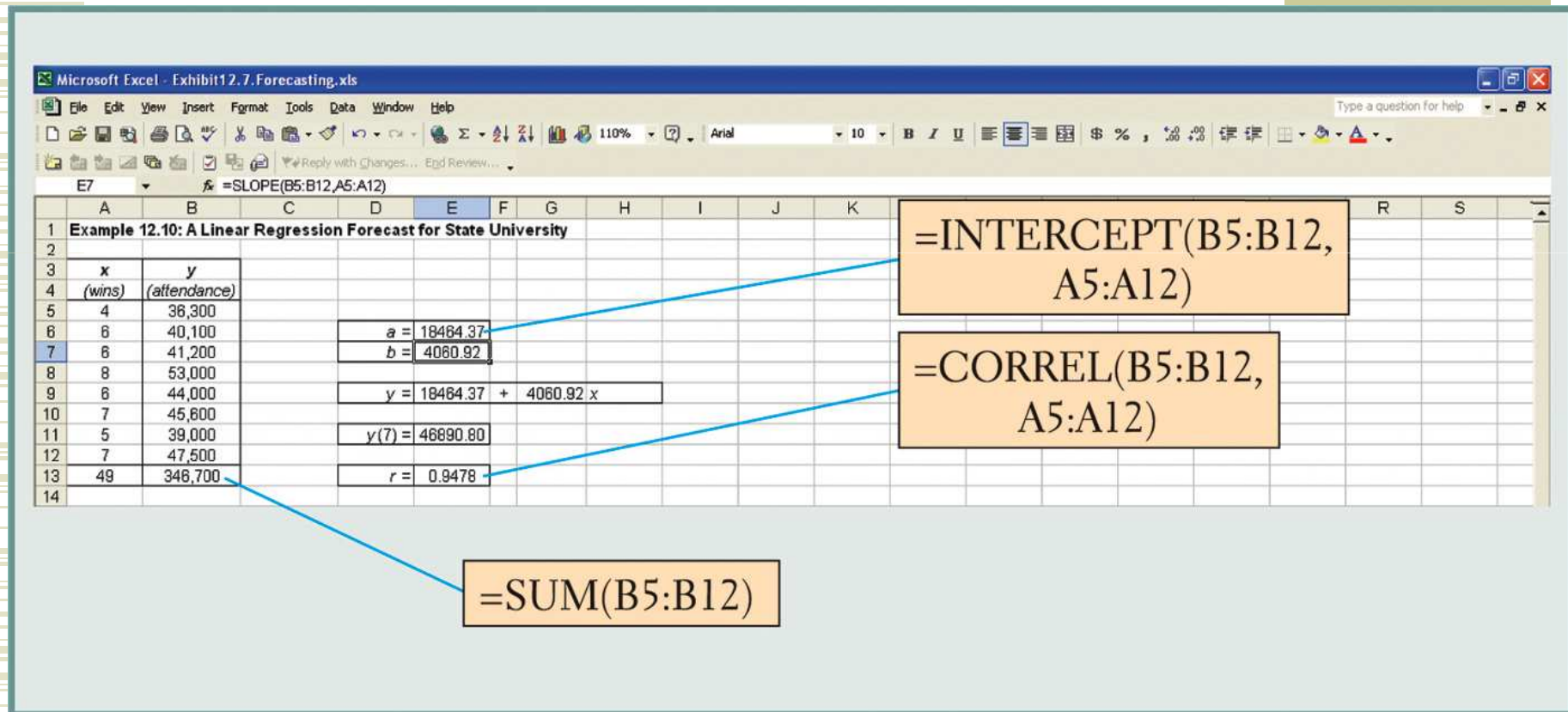
$$r = \frac{(8)(2,167.7) - (49)(346.9)}{\sqrt{[(8)(311) - (49)^2][(8)(15,224.7) - (346.9)^2]}}$$

$$r = 0.947$$

Coefficient of determination

$$r^2 = (0.947)^2 = 0.897$$

Regression Analysis with Excel



Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.7.Forecasting.xls

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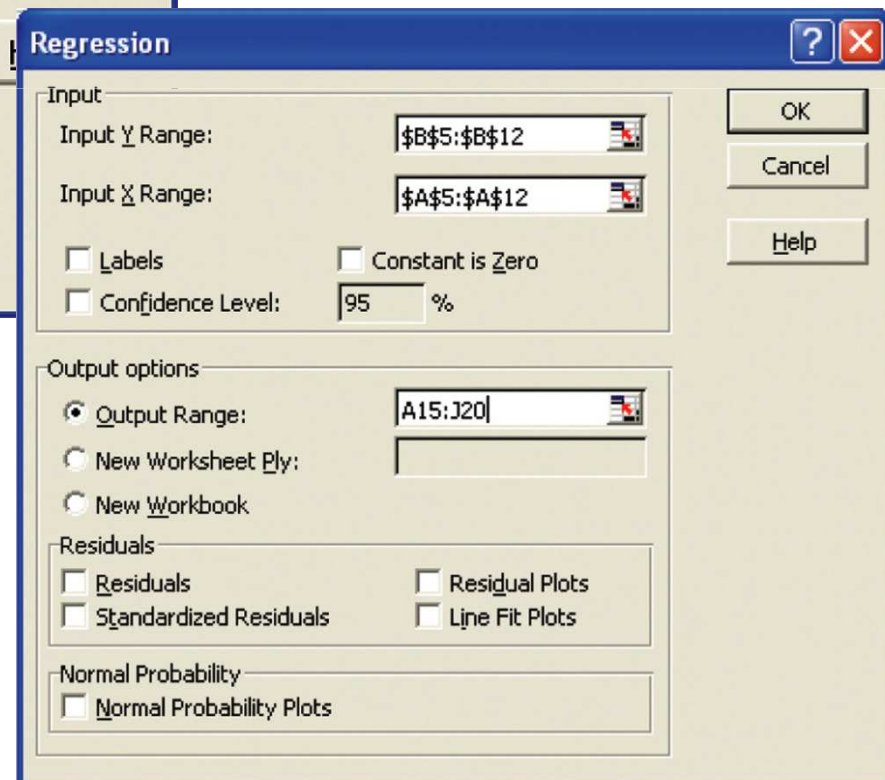
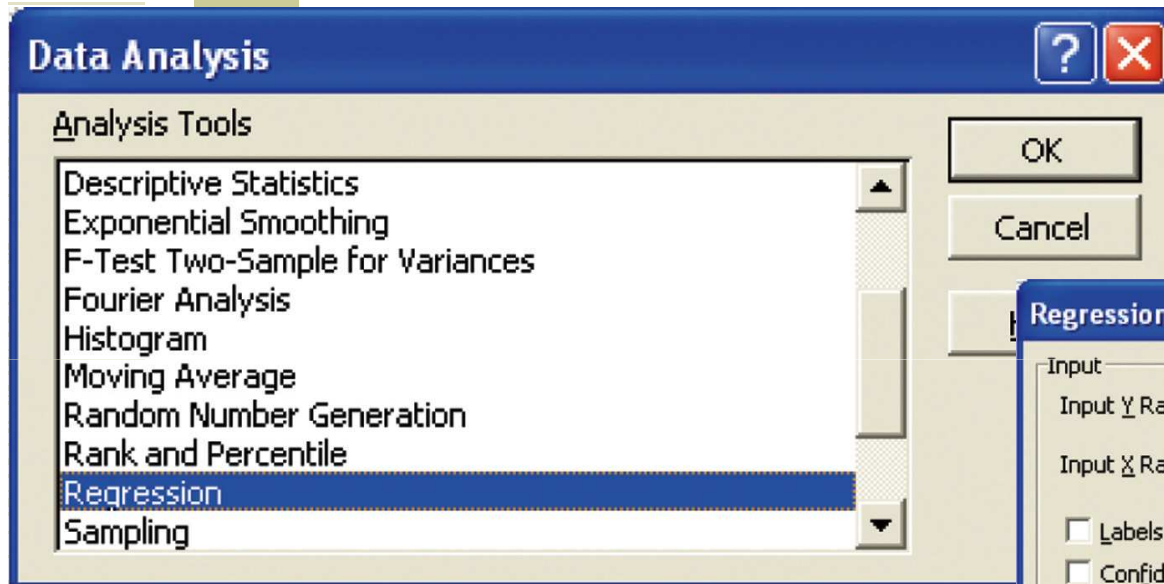
Type a question for help

E7 =SLOPE(B5:B12,A5:A12)

Example 12.10: A Linear Regression Forecast for State University			
x (wins)	y (attendance)		
4	36,300		
6	40,100	a = 18464.37	=INTERCEPT(B5:B12, A5:A12)
8	41,200	b = 4060.92	=CORREL(B5:B12, A5:A12)
8	53,000		
8	44,000	y = 18464.37 + 4060.92 x	
7	45,600		
5	39,000	y(7) = 46690.80	
7	47,500		
49	346,700	r = 0.9478	

=SUM(B5:B12)

Regression Analysis with Excel (cont.)



Regression Analysis with Excel (cont.)

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.10.Forecasting.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

100% Arial 10

Reply with Changes... Egd Review...

A36

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1	Example 12.10: State University Athletic Department															
2																
3	x	y														
4	(wins)	(attendance)														
5	4	36,300														
6	6	40,100														
7	6	41,200														
8	8	53,000														
9	6	44,000														
10	7	45,600														
11	5	39,000														
12	7	47,500														
13	49	346,700														
14																
15	SUMMARY OUTPUT															
16																
17	Regression Statistics		ANOVA													
18	Multiple R	0.948														
19	R Square	0.898														
20	Adjusted R Square	0.881														
21	Standard Error	1839.311														
22	Observations	8														
23																
24																
25		Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%							
26	Intercept	18464.37	3477.57	5.31	0.00	9955.06	26973.68	9955.06	26973.68							
27	X Variable 1	4060.92	557.75	7.28	0.00	2696.15	5425.69	2696.15	5425.69							
28																

Multiple Regression

Study the relationship of demand to two or more independent variables

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

where

β_0 = the intercept

β_1, \dots, β_k = parameters for the independent variables

x_1, \dots, x_k = independent variables

Multiple Regression with Excel

Regression

Input
 Input Y Range: C4:C12
 Input X Range: A4:B12
 Labels Constant is Zero
 Confidence Level: 95 %

Output options
 Output Range: \$F\$36:\$I27
 New Worksheet Ply:
 New Workbook

Residuals
 Residuals Residual Plots
 Standardized Residuals Line Fit Plots

Normal Probability
 Normal Probability Plots

OK Cancel Help

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit12.11.Forecasting.xls

x1 (wins)	x2 (\$ - promotion)	y (attendance)
4	29,500	36,300
6	55,700	40,100
6	71,300	41,200
8	87,000	53,000
6	75,000	44,000
7	72,000	45,600
5	55,300	39,000
7	81,600	47,500
49	527,400	346,700

Regression Statistics		ANOVA					
Multiple R	0.949						
R Square	0.901	Regression	2	179864362.6	89932181.3	22.7	0.0
Adjusted R Square	0.861	Residual	5	19774387.4	3954877.5		
Standard Error	1988.687	Total	7	199638750.0			
Observations	8						

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	19084.424	4139.282	4.613	0.006	8454.078	29734.769	8454.078	29734.769
(wins)	3560.996	1499.981	2.374	0.064	-294.822	7416.815	-294.822	7416.815
(\$ - promotion)	0.037	0.101	0.364	0.731	-0.224	0.297	-0.224	0.297

r^2 , the coefficient of determination

Regression equation coefficients for x_1 and x_2



Chapter 13

Inventory Management

Operations Management - 6th Edition

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



Beni Asllani
University of Tennessee at Chattanooga



Lecture Outline

- ◆ Elements of Inventory Management
- ◆ Inventory Control Systems
- ◆ Economic Order Quantity Models
- ◆ Quantity Discounts
- ◆ Reorder Point
- ◆ Order Quantity for a Periodic Inventory System



What Is Inventory?

- ◆ Stock of items kept to meet future demand
- ◆ Purpose of inventory management
 - how many units to order
 - when to order

Inventory and Supply Chain Management

- ◆ Bullwhip effect
 - demand information is distorted as it moves away from the end-use customer
 - higher safety stock inventories to are stored to compensate
- ◆ Seasonal or cyclical demand
- ◆ Inventory provides independence from vendors
- ◆ Take advantage of price discounts
- ◆ Inventory provides independence between stages and avoids work stoppages



Inventory and Quality Management in the Supply Chain

- ◆ Customers usually perceive quality service as availability of goods they want when they want them
- ◆ Inventory must be sufficient to provide high-quality customer service in QM



Types of Inventory

- ◆ Raw materials
- ◆ Purchased parts and supplies
- ◆ Work-in-process (partially completed) products (WIP)
- ◆ Items being transported
- ◆ Tools and equipment

Two Forms of Demand

Dependent

Demand for items used to produce final products

Tires stored at a Goodyear plant are an example of a dependent demand item

Independent

Demand for items used by external customers

Cars, appliances, computers, and houses are examples of independent demand inventory





Inventory Costs

Carrying cost

cost of holding an item in inventory

Ordering cost

cost of replenishing inventory

Shortage cost

temporary or permanent loss of sales
when demand cannot be met

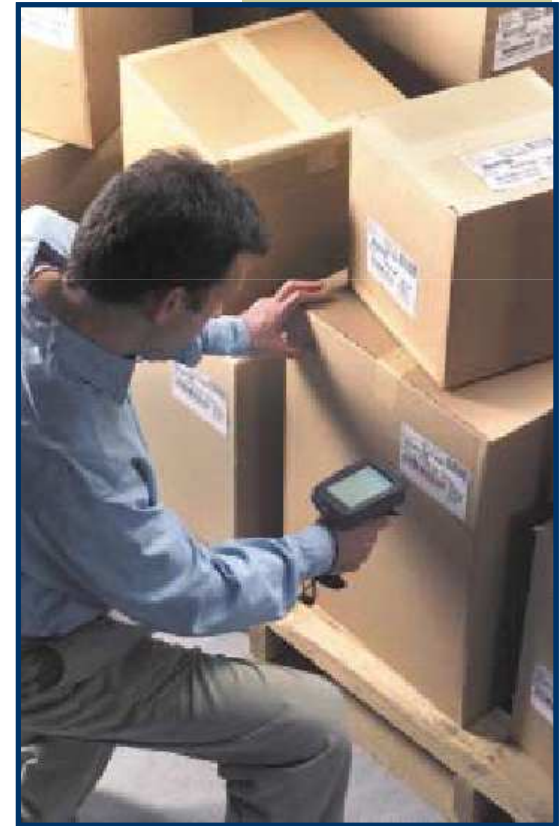
Inventory Control Systems

Continuous system (fixed-order-quantity)

constant amount ordered when
inventory declines to
predetermined level

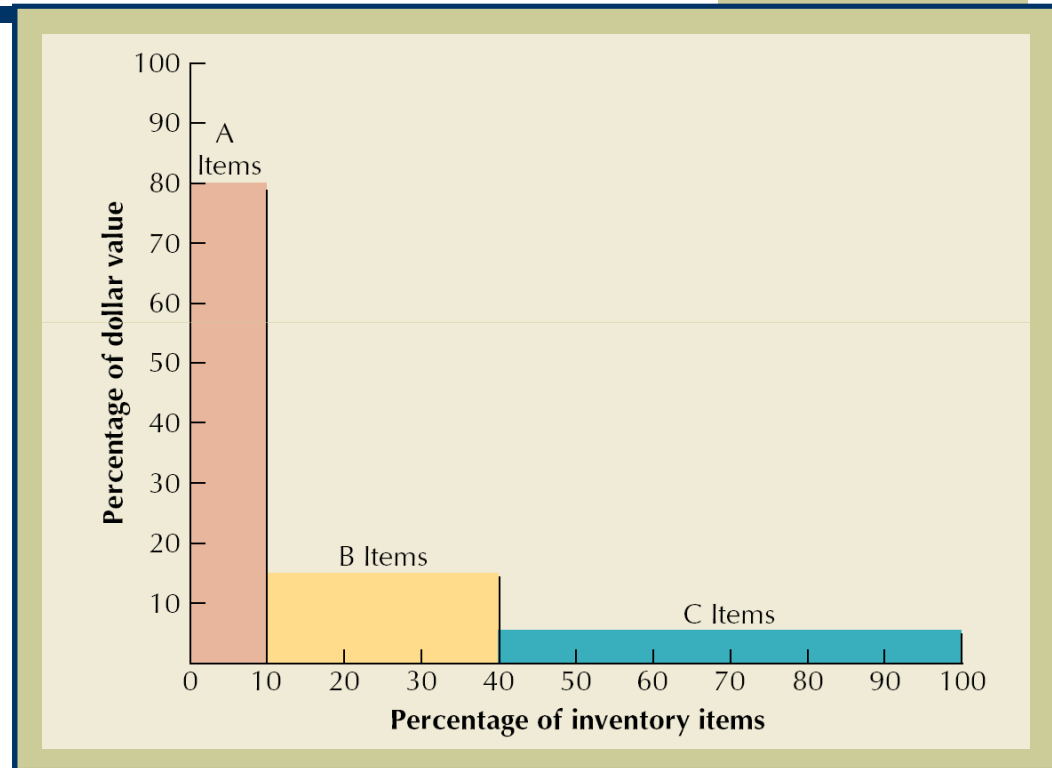
Periodic system (fixed-time-period)

order placed for variable amount
after fixed passage of time



ABC Classification

- ◆ Class A
 - 5 – 15 % of units
 - 70 – 80 % of value
- ◆ Class B
 - 30 % of units
 - 15 % of value
- ◆ Class C
 - 50 – 60 % of units
 - 5 – 10 % of value



ABC Classification: Example

PART	UNIT COST	ANNUAL USAGE
1	\$ 60	90
2	350	40
3	30	130
4	80	60
5	30	100
6	20	180
7	10	170
8	320	50
9	510	60
10	20	120

ABC Classification: Example (cont.)


PART	VALUE	TOTAL VALUE	% OF TOTAL QUANTITY	% OF TOTAL % CUMMULATIVE
9	\$30,600	35.9	6.0	6.0
8	16,000	18.7	5.0	11.0
2	14,000	16.4	4.0	15.0
1	5,400	6.3	9.0	24.0
4	4,800	5.6	6.0	30.0

CLASS	ITEMS	% OF TOTAL VALUE	% OF TOTAL QUANTITY
A	9, 8, 2	71.0	15.0
B	1, 4, 3	16.5	25.0
C	6, 5, 10, 7	12.5	60.0



Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) Models

- ◆ EOQ
 - optimal order quantity that will minimize total inventory costs
- ◆ Basic EOQ model
- ◆ Production quantity model



Assumptions of Basic EOQ Model

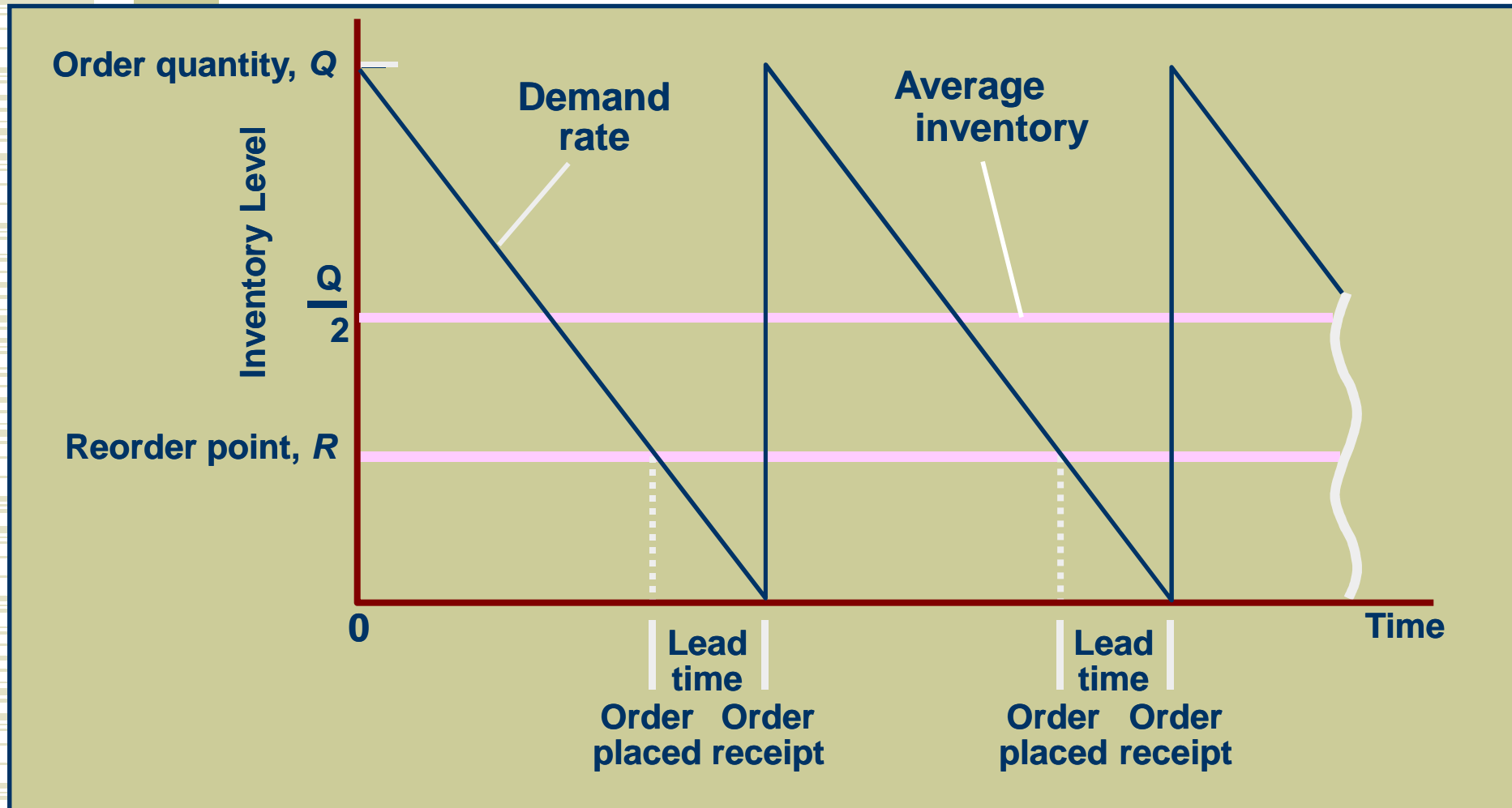
Demand is known with certainty and is constant over time

No shortages are allowed

Lead time for the receipt of orders is constant

Order quantity is received all at once

Inventory Order Cycle



EOQ Cost Model

C_o - cost of placing order

C_c - annual per-unit carrying cost

D - annual demand

Q - order quantity

$$\text{Annual ordering cost} = \frac{C_o D}{Q}$$

$$\text{Annual carrying cost} = \frac{C_c Q}{2}$$

$$\text{Total cost} = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2}$$

EOQ Cost Model

Deriving Q_{opt}

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial TC}{\partial Q} = -\frac{C_o D}{Q^2} + \frac{C_c}{2}$$

$$0 = -\frac{C_o D}{Q^2} + \frac{C_c}{2}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c}}$$

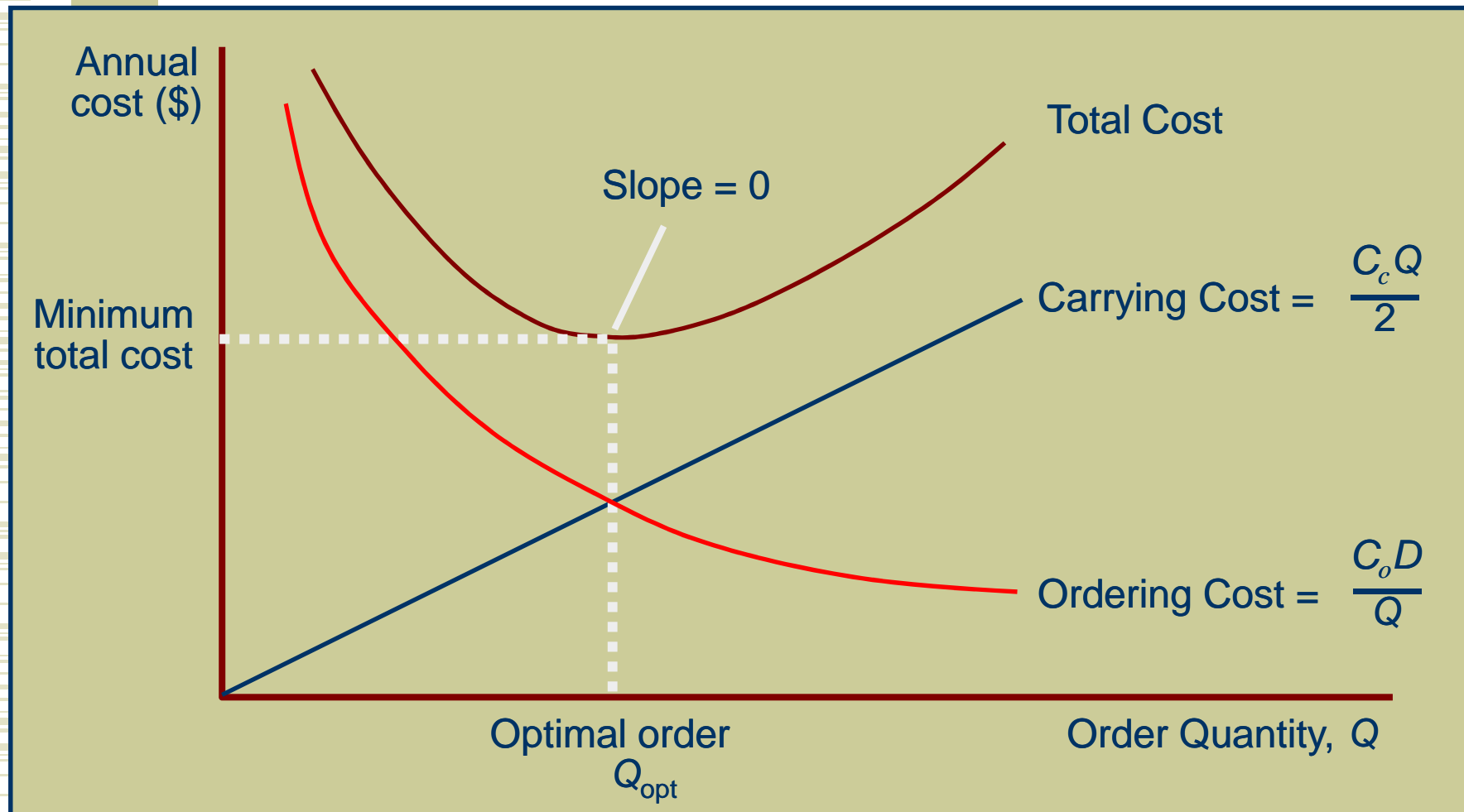
Proving equality of costs at optimal point

$$\frac{C_o D}{Q} = \frac{C_c Q}{2}$$

$$Q^2 = \frac{2C_o D}{C_c}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c}}$$

EOQ Cost Model (cont.)



EOQ Example

$$C_c = \$0.75 \text{ per gallon} \quad C_o = \$150 \quad D = 10,000 \text{ gallons}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c}}$$

$$TC_{\text{min}} = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(150)(10,000)}{(0.75)}}$$

$$TC_{\text{min}} = \frac{(150)(10,000)}{2,000} + \frac{(0.75)(2,000)}{2}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = 2,000 \text{ gallons}$$

$$TC_{\text{min}} = \$750 + \$750 = \$1,500$$

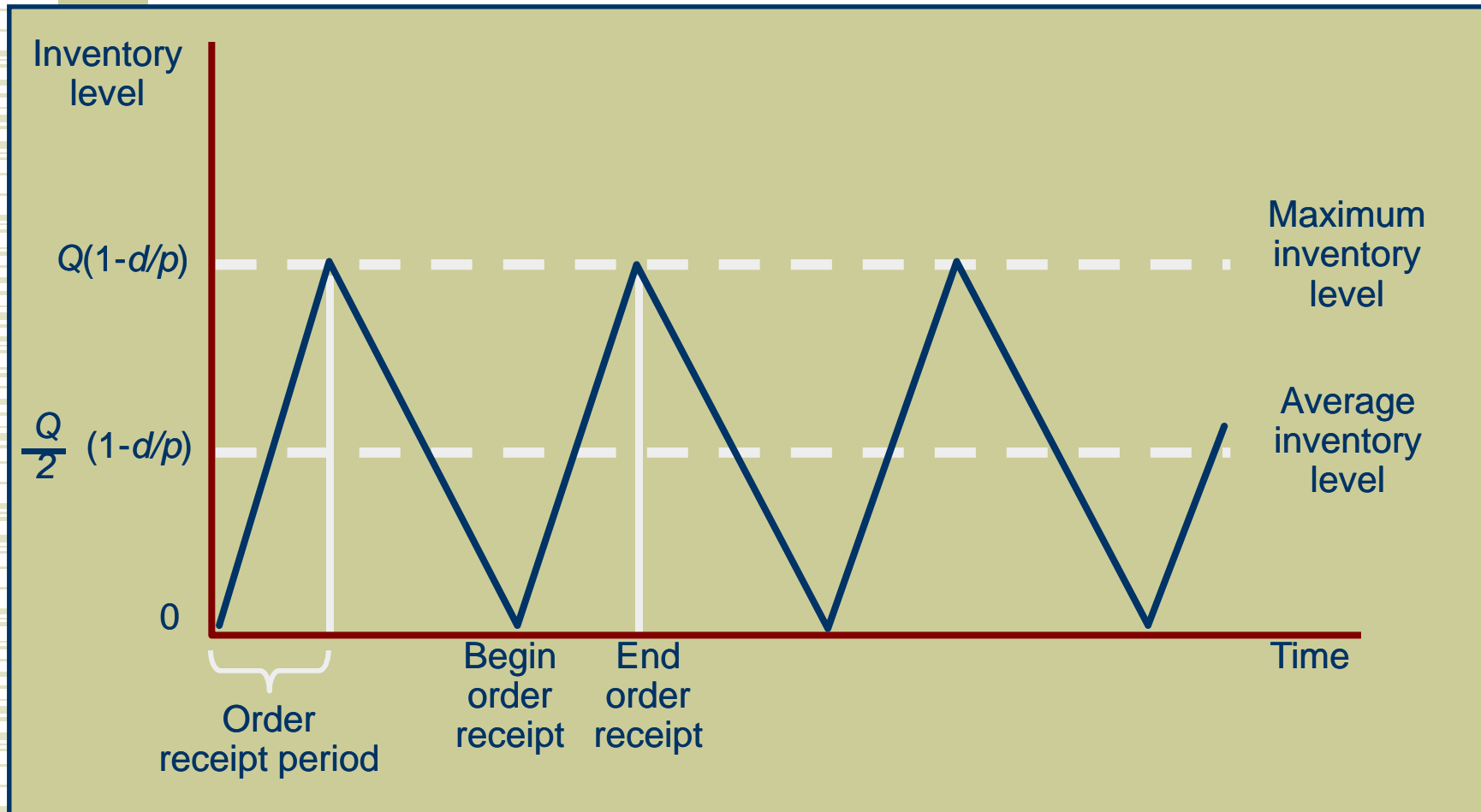
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Orders per year} &= D/Q_{\text{opt}} \\ &= 10,000/2,000 \\ &= 5 \text{ orders/year} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Order cycle time} &= 311 \text{ days}/(D/Q_{\text{opt}}) \\ &= 311/5 \\ &= 62.2 \text{ store days} \end{aligned}$$

Production Quantity Model

- ◆ An inventory system in which an order is received gradually, as inventory is simultaneously being depleted
 - AKA non-instantaneous receipt model
 - assumption that Q is received all at once is relaxed
- ◆ p - daily rate at which an order is received over time, a.k.a. *production rate*
- ◆ d - daily rate at which inventory is demanded

Production Quantity Model (cont.)



Production Quantity Model (cont.)

p = production rate

d = demand rate

$$\text{Maximum inventory level} = Q - \frac{Q}{p} d$$

$$= Q \left(1 - \frac{d}{p} \right)$$

$$\text{Average inventory level} = \frac{Q}{2} \left(1 - \frac{d}{p} \right)$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c \left(1 - \frac{d}{p} \right)}}$$

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2} \left(1 - \frac{d}{p} \right)$$

Production Quantity Model: Example

$$\begin{array}{lll} C_c = \$0.75 \text{ per gallon} & C_o = \$150 & D = 10,000 \text{ gallons} \\ d = 10,000/311 = 32.2 \text{ gallons per day} & & p = 150 \text{ gallons per day} \end{array}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c \left(1 - \frac{d}{p}\right)}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(150)(10,000)}{0.75 \left(1 - \frac{32.2}{150}\right)}} = 2,256.8 \text{ gallons}$$

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2} \left(1 - \frac{d}{p}\right) = \$1,329$$

$$\text{Production run} = \frac{Q}{p} = \frac{2,256.8}{150} = 15.05 \text{ days per order}$$

Production Quantity Model: Example (cont.)

$$\text{Number of production runs} = \frac{D}{Q} = \frac{10,000}{2,256.8} = 4.43 \text{ runs/year}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Maximum inventory level} &= Q \left(1 - \frac{d}{p} \right) = 2,256.8 \left(1 - \frac{32.2}{150} \right) \\ &= 1,772 \text{ gallons} \end{aligned}$$

Solution of EOQ Models with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.1.Inventory.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

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D8 $=SQRT((2*D5*D6)/D4)$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Example 13.2: The Economic Order Quantity											
2												
3												
4			Carrying cost = \$	0.75								
5			Ordering cost = \$	150								
6			Demand =	10,000								
7												
8			Q =	2,000	gallons							
9			TC = \$	1,500								
10			Order per year =	5	orders							
11			Order cycle time =	62.20	days							
12												

The optimal order size, Q , in cell D8

Solution of EOQ Models with Excel (Con't)

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.2.Inventory.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

D10 $=SQRT(2*D4*D5/(D3*(1-(D7/D8))))$

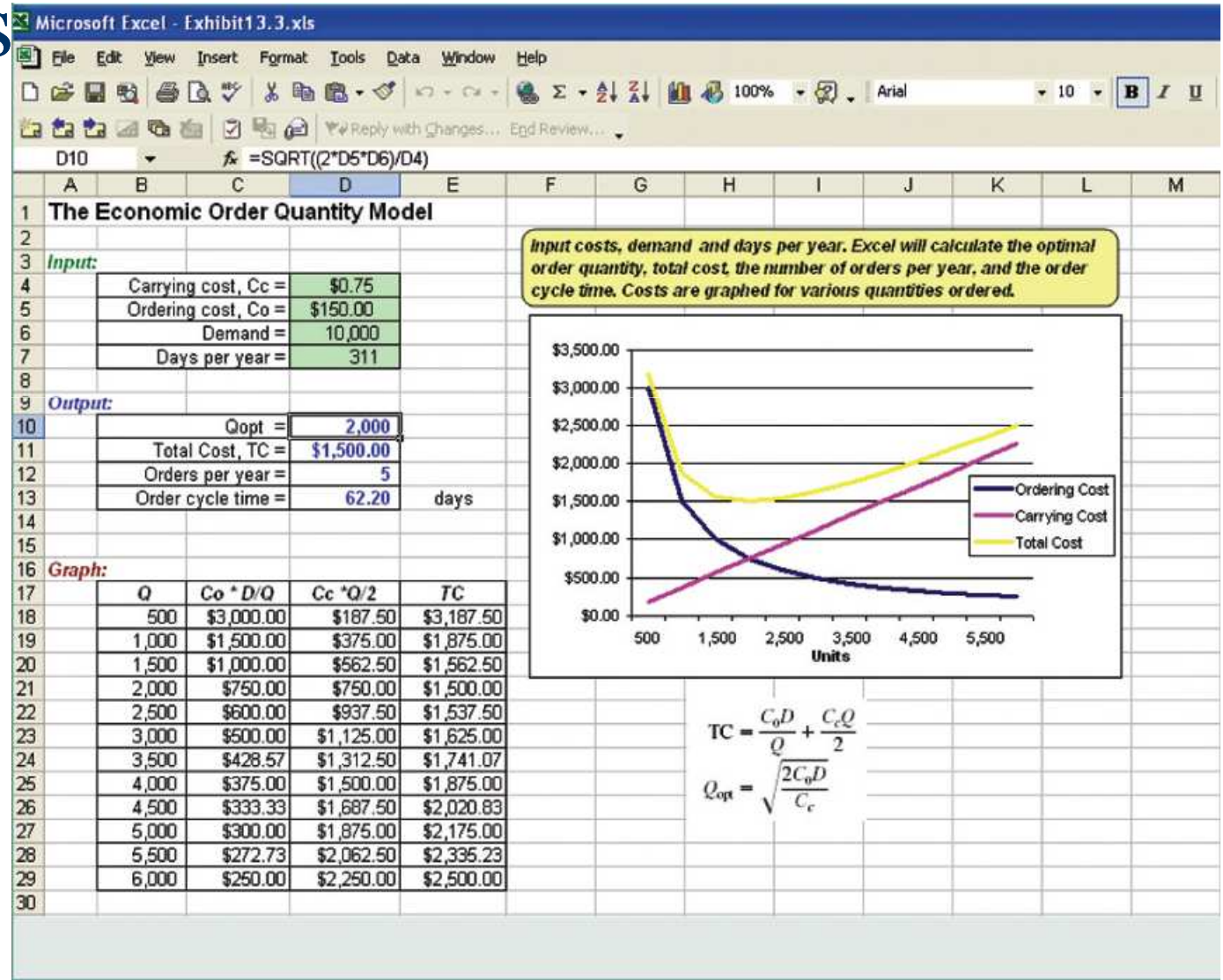
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S
1	Example 13.3: The Production Quantity Model																		
2																			
3		Carrying cost = \$		0.75															
4		Ordering cost = \$		150															
5		Demand =		10,000															
6		Annual days =		311															
7		Daily demand rate =		32.15															
8		Daily production rate =		150															
9																			
10				Q =	2256.41														
11				TC = \$	1329.54														
12		Production run length =		15.04															
13		Number of runs =		4.43															
14		Maximum inventory =		1772.72															
15																			

The formula for Q in cell D10

$(D4 * D5 / D10) + (D3 * D10 / 2) * (1 - (D7 / D8))$

$D10 * (1 - D7 / D8)$

Solution of EOQ Models with OM Tools



Quantity Discounts

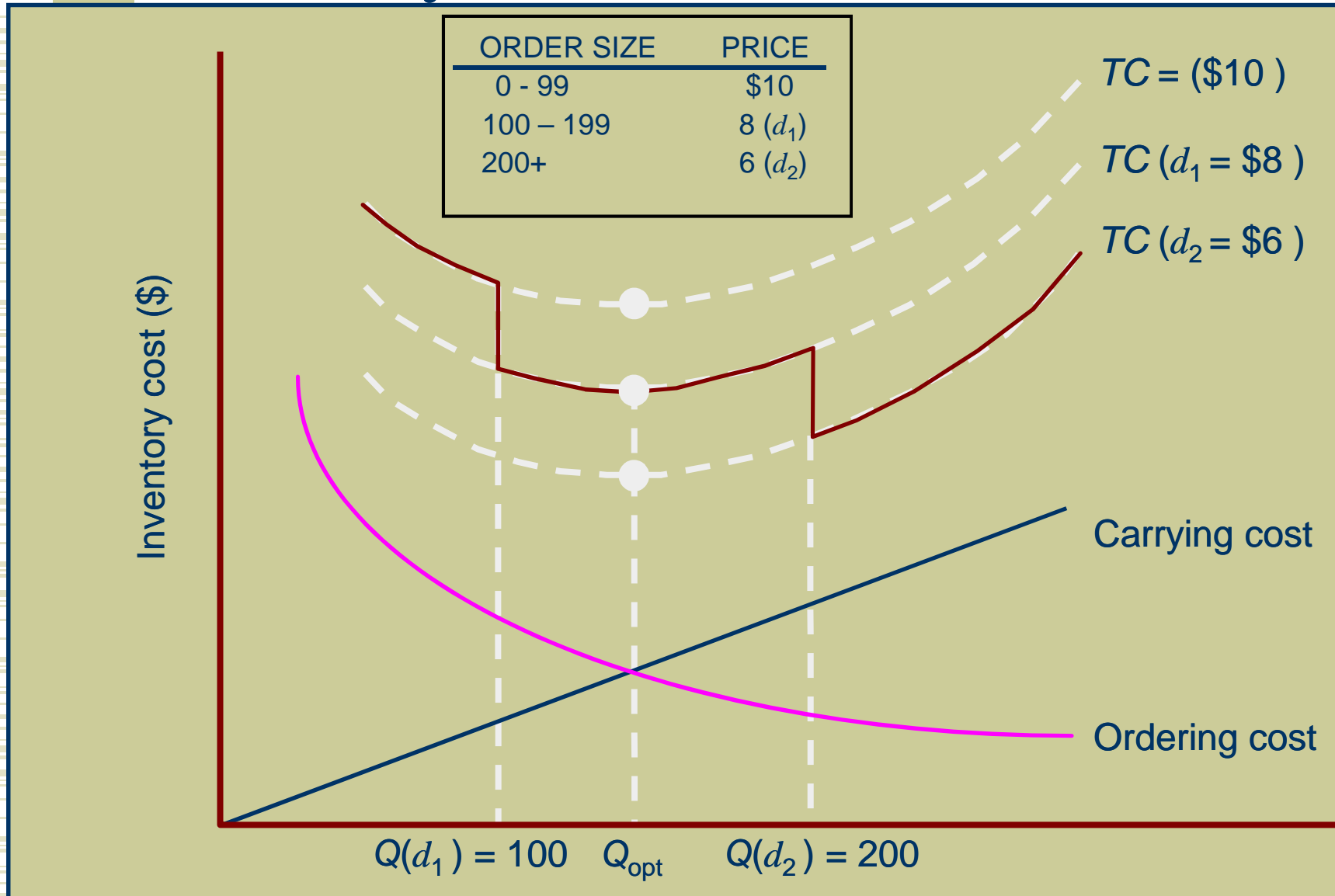
Price per unit decreases as order quantity increases

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2} + PD$$

where

P = per unit price of the item
 D = annual demand

Quantity Discount Model (cont.)



Quantity Discount: Example

QUANTITY	PRICE
1 - 49	\$1,400
50 - 89	1,100
90+	900

$$C_o = \$2,500$$
$$C_c = \$190 \text{ per TV}$$
$$D = 200 \text{ TVs per year}$$

$$Q_{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{2C_o D}{C_c}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(2500)(200)}{190}} = 72.5 \text{ TVs}$$

For $Q = 72.5$

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q_{\text{opt}}} + \frac{C_c Q_{\text{opt}}}{2} + PD = \$233,784$$

For $Q = 90$

$$TC = \frac{C_o D}{Q} + \frac{C_c Q}{2} + PD = \$194,105$$

Quantity-Discount Model Solution with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.4.Inventory.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

110%

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E8 =IF(D8>=B8,D8,B8)

1 **Example 13.4: A Quantity Discount Model with Constant Carrying Cost**

2

3 Carrying cost = \$ 190

4 Ordering cost = \$ 2,500

5 Demand = 200

6

Quantity	Price	Q	Discount Q	Total Cost
1	1,400	72.55	72.55	\$ 293,784.05
50	1,100	72.55	72.55	\$ 233,784.05
90	900	72.55	90.00	\$ 194,105.56 <i>Optimal</i>

7

8

9

10

11

$$=(D4 * D5 / E10) + (D3 * E10 / 2) + C10 * D5$$

$$=IF(D10 > B10, D10, B10)$$

Reorder Point

Level of inventory at which a new order is placed

$$R = dL$$

where

d = demand rate per period

L = lead time

Reorder Point: Example

Demand = 10,000 gallons/year

Store open 311 days/year

Daily demand = $10,000 / 311 = 32.154$
gallons/day

Lead time = $L = 10$ days

$R = dL = (32.154)(10) = 321.54$ gallons



Safety Stocks

Safety stock

buffer added to on hand inventory during lead time

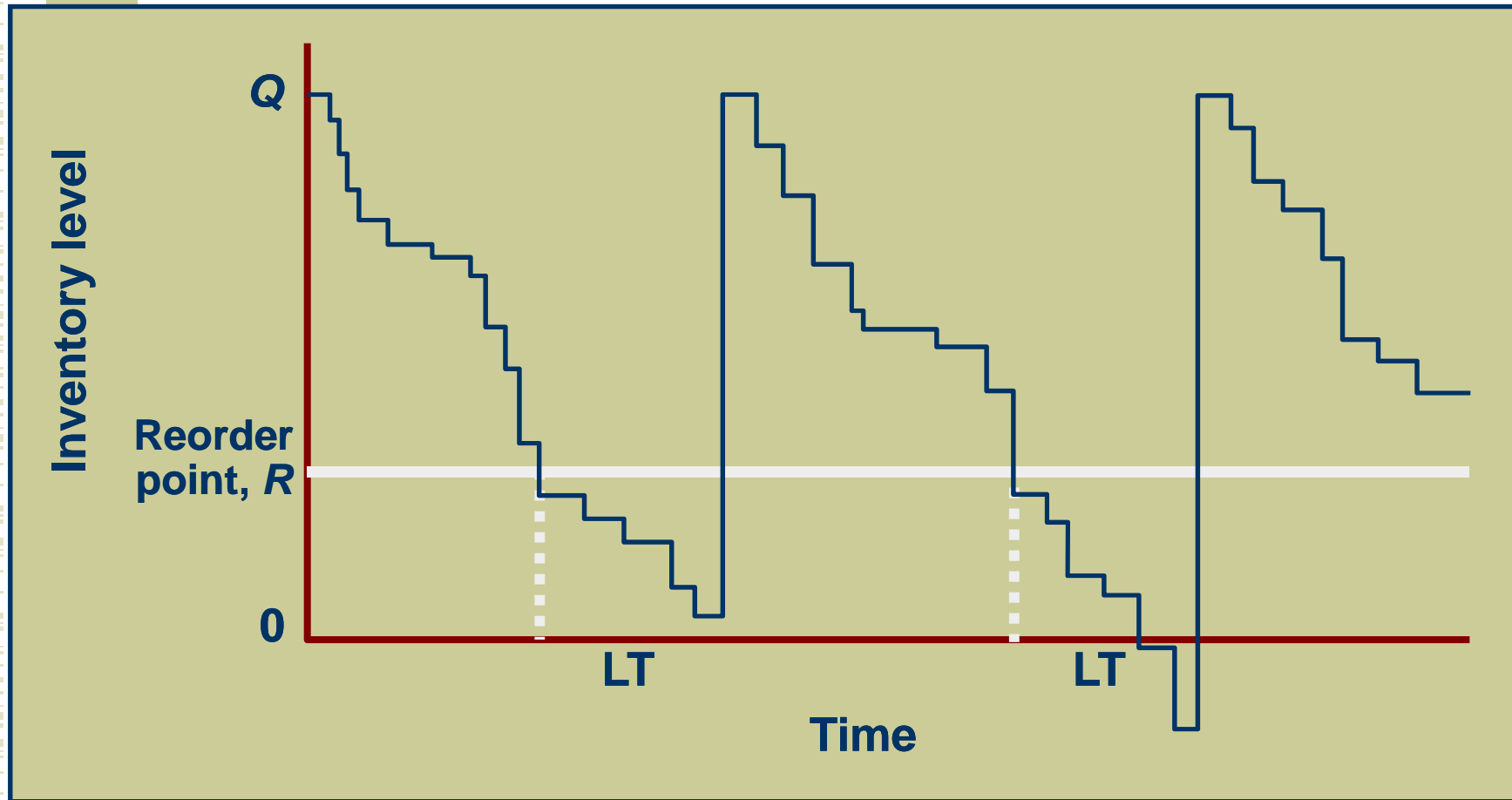
Stockout

an inventory shortage

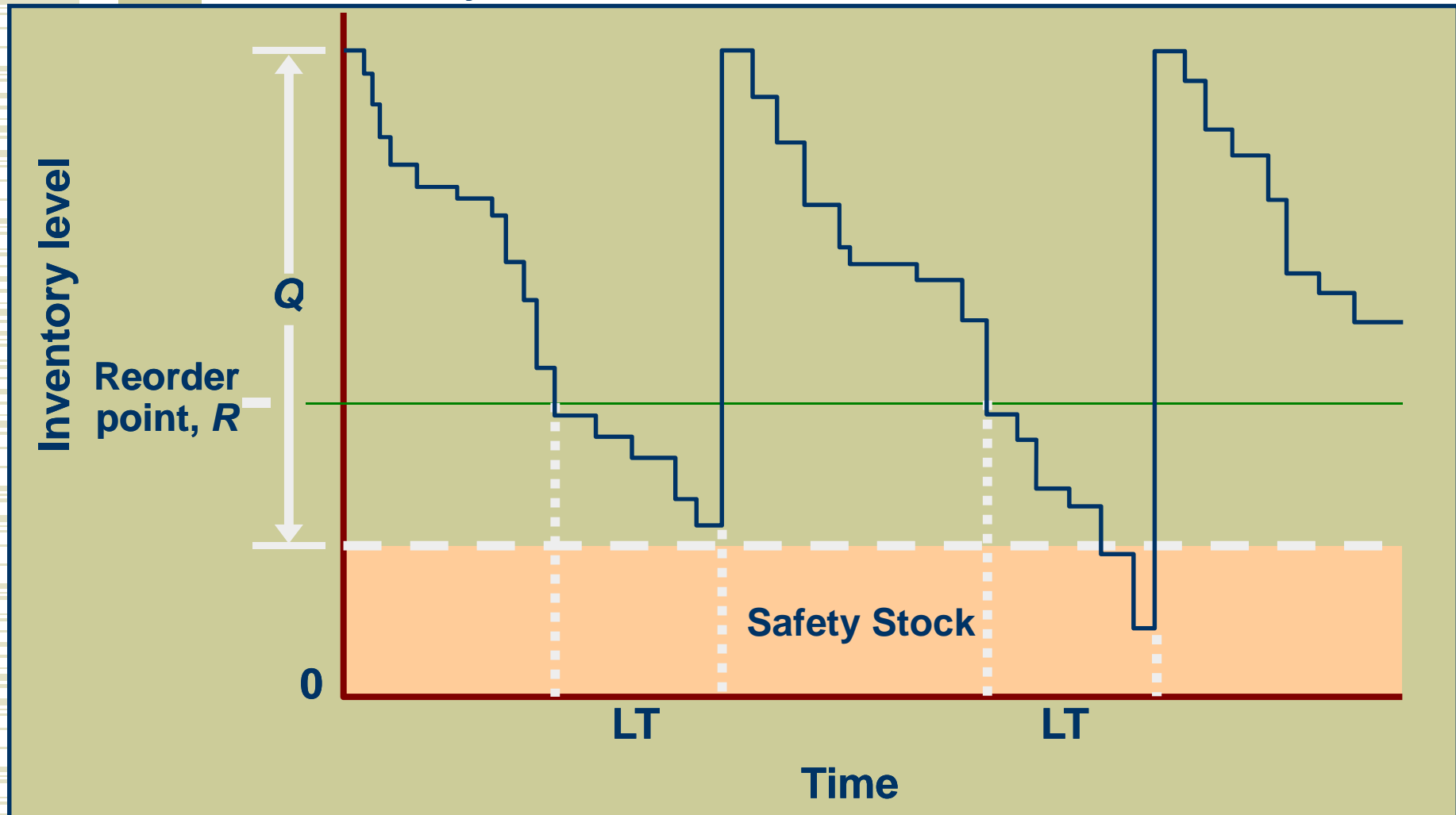
Service level

probability that the inventory available during lead time will meet demand

Variable Demand with a Reorder Point



Reorder Point with a Safety Stock



Reorder Point With Variable Demand

$$R = \bar{d}L + z\sigma_d\sqrt{L}$$

where

—

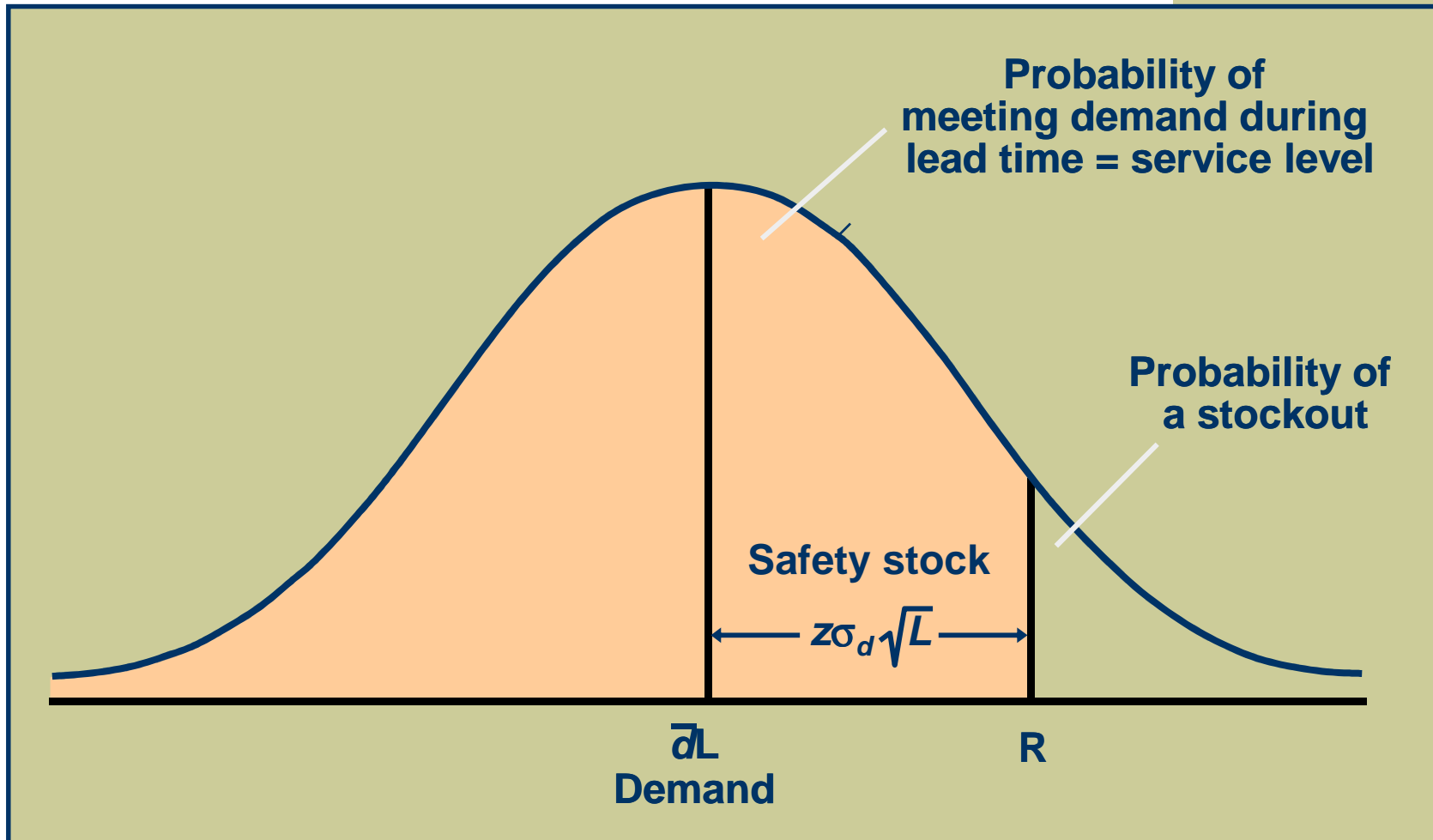
d = average daily demand
 L = lead time

σ_d = the standard deviation of daily demand
 z = number of standard deviations corresponding to the service level probability

$\sqrt{}$

$z\sigma_d\sqrt{L}$ = safety stock

Reorder Point for a Service Level



Reorder Point for Variable Demand

The paint store wants a reorder point with a 95% service level and a 5% stockout probability

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{d} &= 30 \text{ gallons per day} \\ L &= 10 \text{ days} \\ \sigma_d &= 5 \text{ gallons per day}\end{aligned}$$

For a 95% service level, $z = 1.65$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{R} &= dL + z\sigma_d \sqrt{L} \\ &= 30(10) + (1.65)(5)(\sqrt{10}) \\ &= 326.1 \text{ gallons}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Safety stock} &= z\sigma_d \sqrt{L} \\ &= (1.65)(5)(\sqrt{10}) \\ &= 26.1 \text{ gallons}\end{aligned}$$

Determining Reorder Point with Excel

The screenshot shows an Excel spreadsheet titled "Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.5.Inventory.xls". The spreadsheet is set to row 1, column E. The formula bar displays the formula $=E3*E5+1.65*E4*SQRT(E5)$. The spreadsheet content is as follows:

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1	Example 13.6: Reorder Point with Variable Demand																	
2																		
3			Average daily demand =		30													
4			Standard deviation =		5													
5			Lead time =		10													
6																		
7					R =	326.09												
8																		

A callout box with an orange background and black border points to cell E7, containing the text: "The reorder point formula in cell E7".

Order Quantity for a Periodic Inventory System

$$Q = \bar{d}(t_b + L) + z\sigma_d \sqrt{t_b + L} - I$$

where

d = average demand rate

t_b = the fixed time between orders

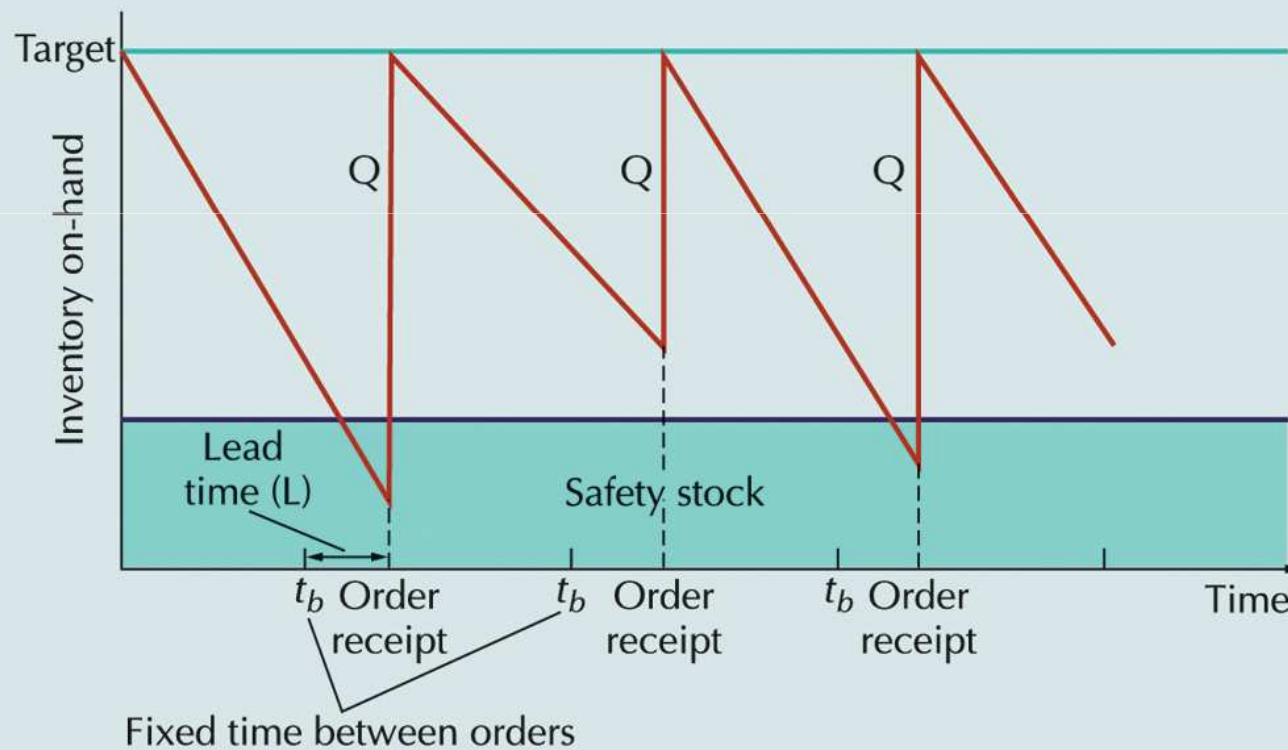
L = lead time

σ_d = standard deviation of demand

$z\sigma_d \sqrt{t_b + L}$ = safety stock

I = inventory level

Periodic Inventory System



Fixed-Period Model with Variable Demand

$d = 6$ packages per day

$\sigma_d = 1.2$ packages

$t_b = 60$ days

$L = 5$ days

$I = 8$ packages

$z = 1.65$ (for a 95% service level)

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= d(t_b + L) + z\sigma_d\sqrt{t_b + L} - I \\ &= (6)(60 + 5) + (1.65)(1.2)\sqrt{60 + 5} - 8 \\ &= 397.96 \text{ packages} \end{aligned}$$

Fixed-Period Model with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.6.Inventory.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

D10 =D3*(D4+5)+D7-D8

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1	Example 13.7: Fixed Period Model with Variable Demand															
2																
3			Average demand rate =	6	packages per day											
4			Time between orders =	60	days											
5			Lead time =	5	days											
6			Standard deviation of demand =	1.2	packages											
7			Safety stock =	15.96	packages											
8			Inventory in stock =	8	packages											
9																
10			Q =	397.96	packages											
11																

Formula for order size, Q, in cell D10



Chapter 13 Supplement

Simulation

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Monte Carlo Simulation
- ◆ Computer Simulation with Excel
- ◆ Areas of Simulation Application

Simulation

- ◆ Mathematical and computer modeling technique for replicating real-world problem situations
- ◆ Modeling approach primarily used to analyze probabilistic problems
 - It does not normally provide a solution; instead it provides information that is used to make a decision
- ◆ Physical simulation
 - Space flights, wind tunnels, treadmills for tires
- ◆ Mathematical-computerized simulation
 - Computer-based replicated models



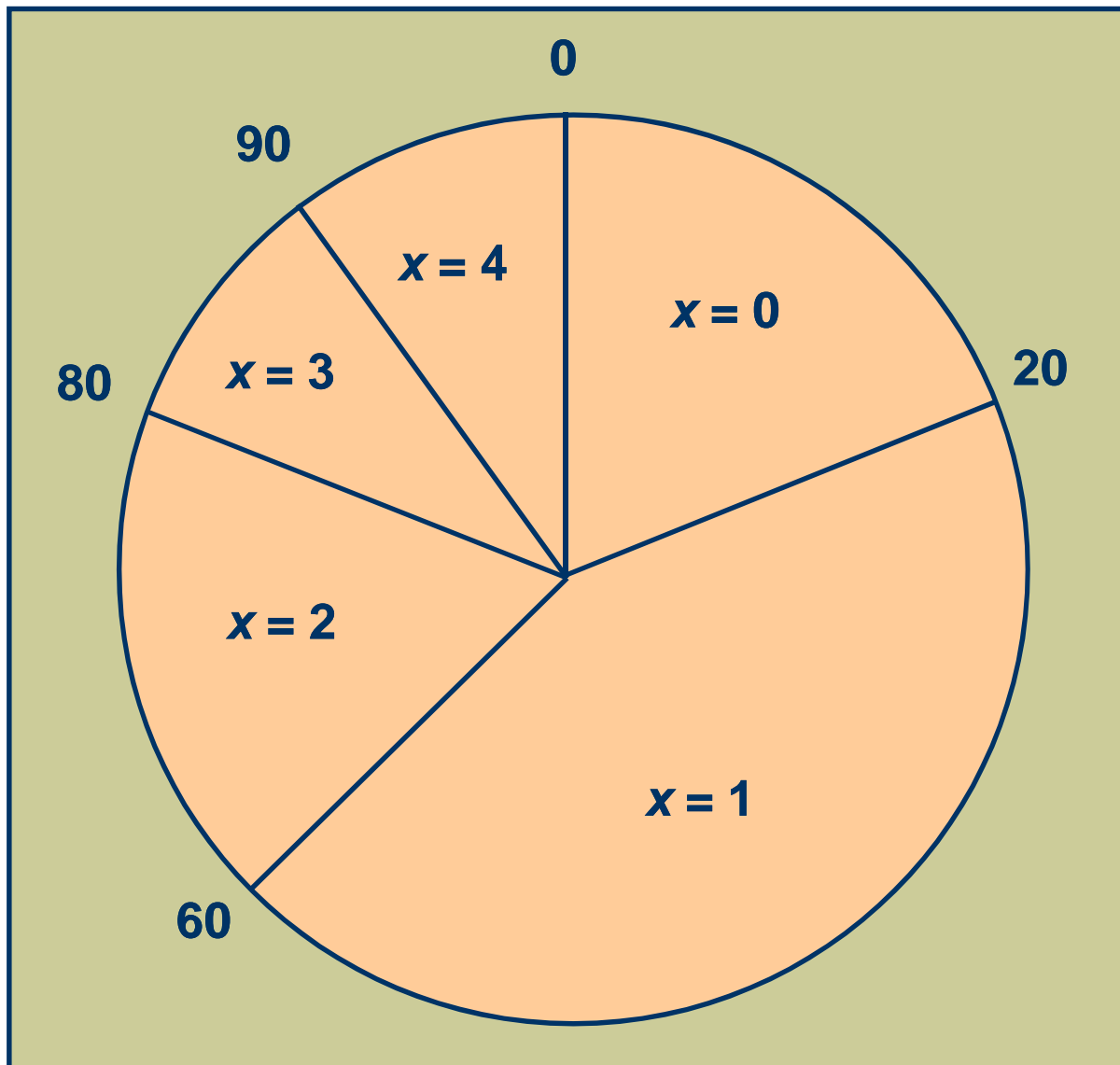
Monte Carlo Simulation

- Select numbers randomly from a probability distribution
- Use these values to observe how a model performs over time
- Random numbers each have an equal likelihood of being selected at random

Distribution of Demand

LAPTOPS DEMANDED PER WEEK, x	FREQUENCY OF DEMAND	PROBABILITY OF DEMAND, $P(x)$
0	20	0.20
1	40	0.40
2	20	0.20
3	10	0.10
4	10	0.10
	100	1.00


Roulette Wheel of Demand



Generating Demand from Random Numbers

DEMAND, x	RANGES OF RANDOM NUMBERS, r
0	0-19
1	20-59
2	60-79
3	80-89
4	90-99

$r = 39$



Random Number Table

39	65	76	45	45	19	90	69	64	61
73	71	23	70	90	65	97	60	12	11
72	18	47	33	84	51	67	47	97	19
75	12	25	69	17	17	95	21	78	58
37	17	79	88	74	63	52	06	34	30

15 Weeks of Demand

WEEK	r	DEMAND (x)	REVENUE (\$)
1	39	1	4,300
2	73	2	8,600
3	72	2	8,600
4	75	2	8,600
5	37	1	4,300
6	02	0	0
7	87	3	12,900
8	98	4	17,200
9	10	0	0
10	47	1	4,300
11	93	4	17,200
12	21	1	4,300
13	95	4	17,200
14	97	4	17,200
15	69	2	8,600
		$\Sigma = 31$	\$133,300

Average demand
 = $31/15$
 = 2.07 laptops/week

Computing Expected Demand

$$\begin{aligned} E(x) &= (0.20)(0) + (0.40)(1) + (0.20)(2) \\ &\quad + (0.10)(3) + (0.10)(4) \\ &= 1.5 \text{ laptops per week} \end{aligned}$$

- Difference between 1.5 and 2.07 is due to small number of periods analyzed (only 15 weeks)
- Steady-state result
 - an average result that remains constant after enough trials

Random Numbers in Excel

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS13.1.Simulation.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

100% Arial

A3 0.629923723538247

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1	100 Random Numbers Generated Using RAND()										
2											
3	0.6299	0.6922	0.4634	0.0433	0.0755	0.0641	0.3189	0.2599	0.2288	0.7371	
4	0.4191	0.7927	0.6893	0.9192	0.8019	0.4114	0.3443	0.5397	0.8936	0.6944	
5	0.7306	0.4968	0.5271	0.2341	0.3518	0.1129	0.7664	0.5752	0.7673	0.7338	
6	0.8712	0.5170	0.8834	0.9357	0.6817	0.6175	0.9635	0.0216	0.9409	0.3832	
7	0.8718	0.2347	0.3095	0.8006	0.7955	0.0621	0.3317	0.4863	0.4599	0.3011	
8	0.0935	0.0287	0.1110	0.6009	0.1023	0.3886	0.3424	0.2876	0.1904	0.1980	
9	0.2892	0.0149	0.5325	0.4057	0.0385	0.4983	0.8286	0.1043	0.3955	0.1855	
10	0.4016	0.8078	0.0656	0.2995	0.5729	0.5776	0.8871	0.4656	0.9582	0.6215	
11	0.4508	0.3710	0.1533	0.9799	0.4267	0.7611	0.2242	0.8883	0.7665	0.5268	
12	0.6573	0.4849	0.6997	0.4905	0.8855	0.9194	0.5891	0.0643	0.2703	0.9780	
13											

Simulation in Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit13.2.Simulation.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

Type a question for help

G6 =VLOOKUP(F6,Lookup,2)

ComputerWorld Simulation Example						
Probability of Weekly Demand:			Simulation:			
P(x)	Cumulative	Demand	Week	RN	Demand	Revenue
0.20	0	0	1	0.3630	1	4300
0.40	0.20	1	2	0.5524	1	4300
0.20	0.80	2	3	0.1484	0	0
0.10	0.80	3	4	0.3172	1	4300
0.10	0.90	4	5	0.3131	1	4300
1.00			6	0.4194	1	4300
			7	0.9014	4	17200
Average Demand =	1.53		8	0.4203	1	4300
Average Revenue =	6593.33		9	0.3734	1	4300
			10	0.4832	1	4300
			11	0.5215	1	4300
			12	0.8611	3	12900
			13	0.8191	3	12900
			14	0.8884	3	12900
			15	0.2815	1	4300
			Total	23	98900.00	

=AVERAGE (G6:G20)

Enter this formula in G6 and copy to G7:G20

Enter “=4300* G6” in H6 and copy to H7:H20

Generate random numbers for cells F6:F20 with the formula “=RAND()” in F6 and copying to F7:F20

Simulation in Excel (cont.)

Spreadsheet “frozen”
at row 16 to show
first 10 weeks
and last 6

Microsoft Excel - Exhibits13.3.Simulation.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

110%

G6 =VLOOKUP(F6,Lookup,2)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
1	ComputerWorld Simulation Example (100 Weeks)									
2										
3	<i>Probability of Weekly Demand:</i>				<i>Simulation:</i>					
4										
5	P(x)	Cumulative	Demand		Week	RN	Demand	Revenue		
6	0.20	0	0		1	0.3630	1	4300		
7	0.40	0.20	1		2	0.5524	1	4300		
8	0.20	0.60	2		3	0.1484	0	0		
9	0.10	0.80	3		4	0.3172	1	4300		
10	0.10	0.90	4		5	0.3131	1	4300		
11	1.00				6	0.4194	1	4300		
12					7	0.9014	4	17200		
13	<i>Average Demand =</i>		1.49		8	0.4203	1	4300		
14	<i>Average Revenue =</i>		6407.00		9	0.3734	1	4300		
15					10	0.4832	1	4300		
100					95	0.2370	1	4300		
101					96	0.1215	2	8600		
102					97	0.0809	2	8600		
103					98	0.8202	0	0		
104					99	0.9290	0	0		
105					100	0.3653	2	8600		
106						<i>Total</i>	149	640700		
107										

Decision Making with Simulation

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS13.4.Simulation.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

110% Arial 10

G7 =1+MAX(G6-H6,0)

Probability of Weekly Demand:			Simulation:						7	8	9
P(x)	Cumulative	Demand	1	2	3	4	5	6	Shortage	Inventory	Total
0.20	0	0	1	0.3630	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
0.40	0.20	1	2	0.5524	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
0.20	0.60	2	3	0.1484	1	0	0	0	0	50	-50
0.10	0.80	3	4	0.3172	2	1	0	4300	0	100	4200
0.10	0.90	4	5	0.3131	2	1	0	4300	0	100	4200
1.00			6	0.4194	2	1	0	4300	0	100	4200
			7	0.9014	2	4	-2	8600	-1000	100	7500
	Average Demand =	1.50	8	0.4203	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
	Average Total Revenue =	3875.00	9	0.3734	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
			10	0.4832	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
			11	0.5215	1	1	0	4300	0	50	4250
			95	0.0181	1	0	0	0	0	50	-50
			96	0.1289	2	0	0	0	0	100	-100
			97	0.2281	3	1	0	4300	0	150	4150
			98	0.7927	3	2	0	8600	0	150	8450
			99	0.1978	2	0	0	0	0	100	-100
			100	0.4241	3	1	0	4300	0	150	4150
			Total		158	150	-52	421400	-28000	7900	387500

This formula entered in G7 and copied to G8:G105

=G6*50 entered into cell L6 and copied to L7:L105

=VLOOKUP(F6,LOOKUP,2) in H6 and copied to H7:H105

Shortages computed by entering =MIN(G6-H6,0) in I6 and copying to I7:I105

Decision Making with Simulation (cont.)

Microsoft Excel - ExhibitS13.5.Simulation.xls

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

110% Arial

G7 =2+MAX(G6-H6,D)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
1	ComputerWorld Simulation Example													
2	Simulation:													
3	Probability of Weekly Demand:													
4					1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
5	P(x)	Cumulative	Demand		Week	RN	Inventory	Demand	Shortage	Revenue	Cost	Inventory	Total	
6	0.20	0	0		1	0.3630	2	1	0	4300	0	100	4200	
7	0.40	0.20	1		2	0.5524	3	1	0	4300	0	150	4150	
8	0.20	0.60	2		3	0.1484	4	0	0	0	0	200	-200	
9	0.10	0.80	3		4	0.3172	6	1	0	4300	0	300	4000	
10	0.10	0.90	4		5	0.3131	7	1	0	4300	0	350	3950	
11	1.00				6	0.4194	8	3	0	12900	0	400	12500	
12					7	0.9014	7	4	0	17200	0	350	16850	
13	Average Demand =	1.52			8	0.4203	5	1	0	4300	0	250	4050	
14	Average Total Revenue =	5107.50			9	0.3734	6	1	0	4300	0	300	4000	
15					10	0.4832	7	1	0	4300	0	350	3950	
16					11	0.5215	8	1	0	4300	0	400	3900	
100					95	0.0161	42	0	0	0	0	2100	-2100	
101					96	0.1289	44	0	0	0	0	2200	-2200	
102					97	0.2281	46	1	0	4300	0	2300	2000	
103					98	0.7927	47	2	0	8600	0	2350	6250	
104					99	0.1978	47	0	0	0	0	2350	-2350	
105					100	0.4241	49	1	0	4300	0	2450	1850	
106						Total	2857	152	0	653600	0	142850	510750	
107														

New formula for two laptops ordered per week.



Areas of Simulation Application

- ◆ **Waiting Lines/Service**
 - Complex systems for which it is difficult to develop analytical formulas
 - Determine how many registers and servers are needed to meet customer demand
- ◆ **Inventory Management**
 - Traditional models make the assumption that customer demand is certain
 - Simulation is widely used to analyze JIT without having to implement it physically



Areas of Simulation Application (cont.)

- ◆ **Production and Manufacturing Systems**
 - Examples: production scheduling, production sequencing, assembly line balancing, plant layout, and plant location analysis
 - Machine breakdowns typically occur according to some probability distributions
- ◆ **Capital Investment and Budgeting**
 - Capital budgeting problems require estimates of cash flows, often resulting from many random variables
 - Simulation has been used to generate values of cash flows, market size, selling price, growth rate, and market share

Areas of Simulation Application (cont.)

- ◆ **Logistics**
 - Typically include numerous random variables, such as distance, different modes of transport, shipping rates, and schedules to analyze different distribution channels
- ◆ **Service Operations**
 - Examples: police departments, fire departments, post offices, hospitals, court systems, airports
 - Complex operations that no technique except simulation can be employed
- ◆ **Environmental and Resource Analysis**
 - Examples: impact of manufacturing plants, waste-disposal facilities, nuclear power plants, waste and population conditions, feasibility of alternative energy sources



Chapter 14

Sales and Operations Planning

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





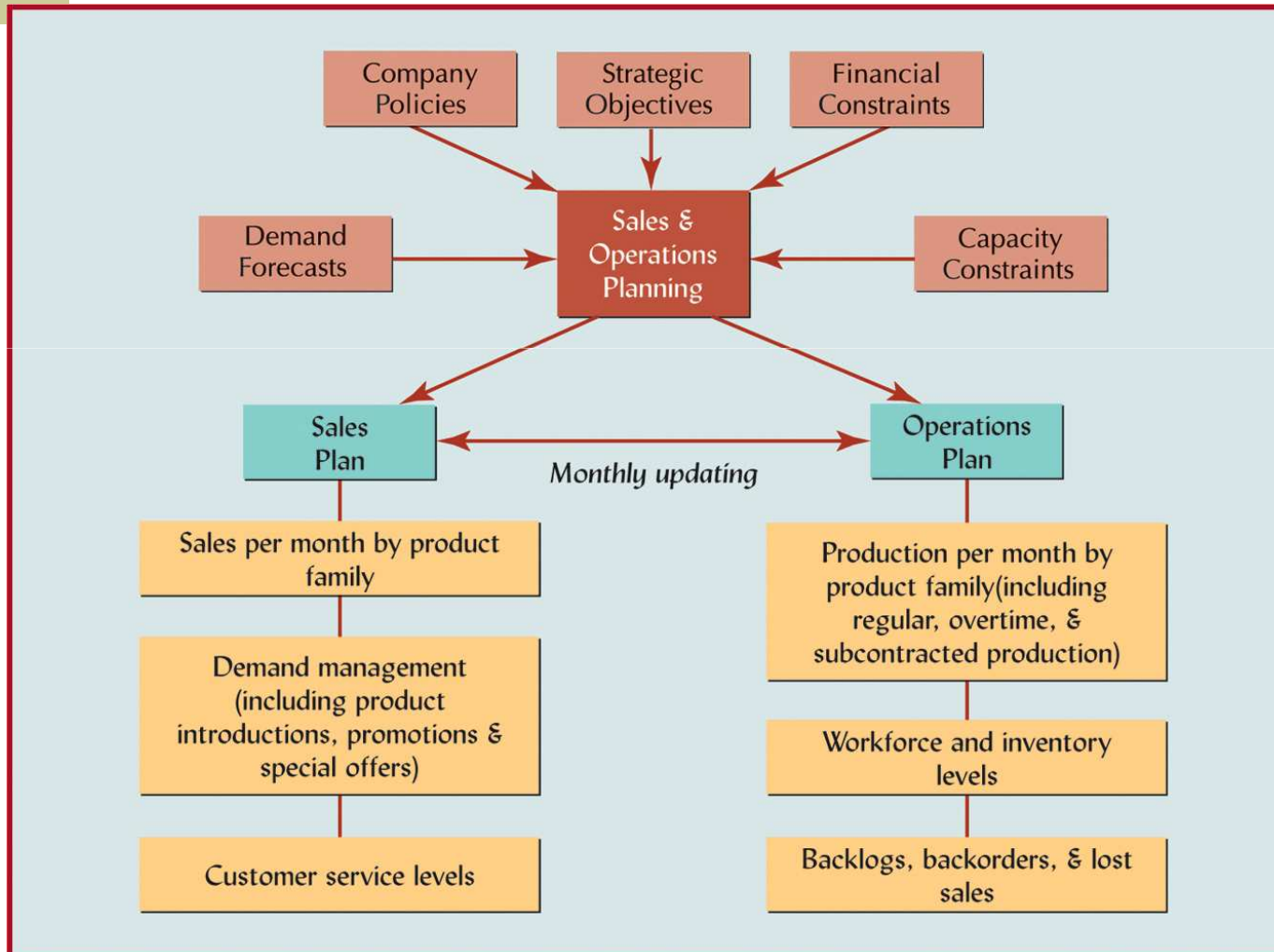
Lecture Outline

- ◆ The Sales and Operations Planning Process
- ◆ Strategies for Adjusting Capacity
- ◆ Strategies for Managing Demand
- ◆ Quantitative Techniques for Aggregate Planning
- ◆ Hierarchical Nature of Planning
- ◆ Aggregate Planning for Services

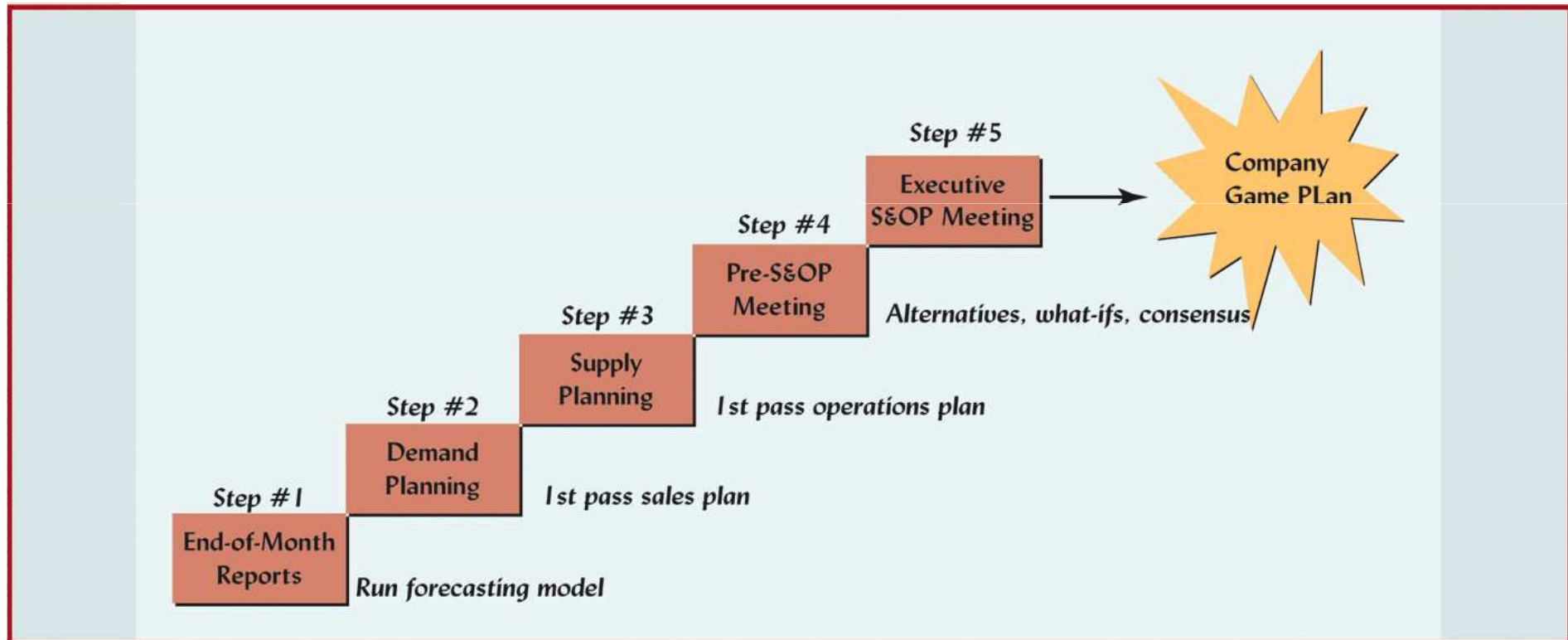
Sales and Operations Planning

- ◆ Determines the resource capacity needed to meet demand over an intermediate time horizon
 - *Aggregate* refers to sales and operations planning for product lines or families
 - *Sales and Operations planning (S&OP)* matches supply and demand
- ◆ Objectives
 - Establish a company wide game plan for allocating resources
 - Develop an economic strategy for meeting demand

Sales and Operations Planning Process



The Monthly S&OP Planning Process





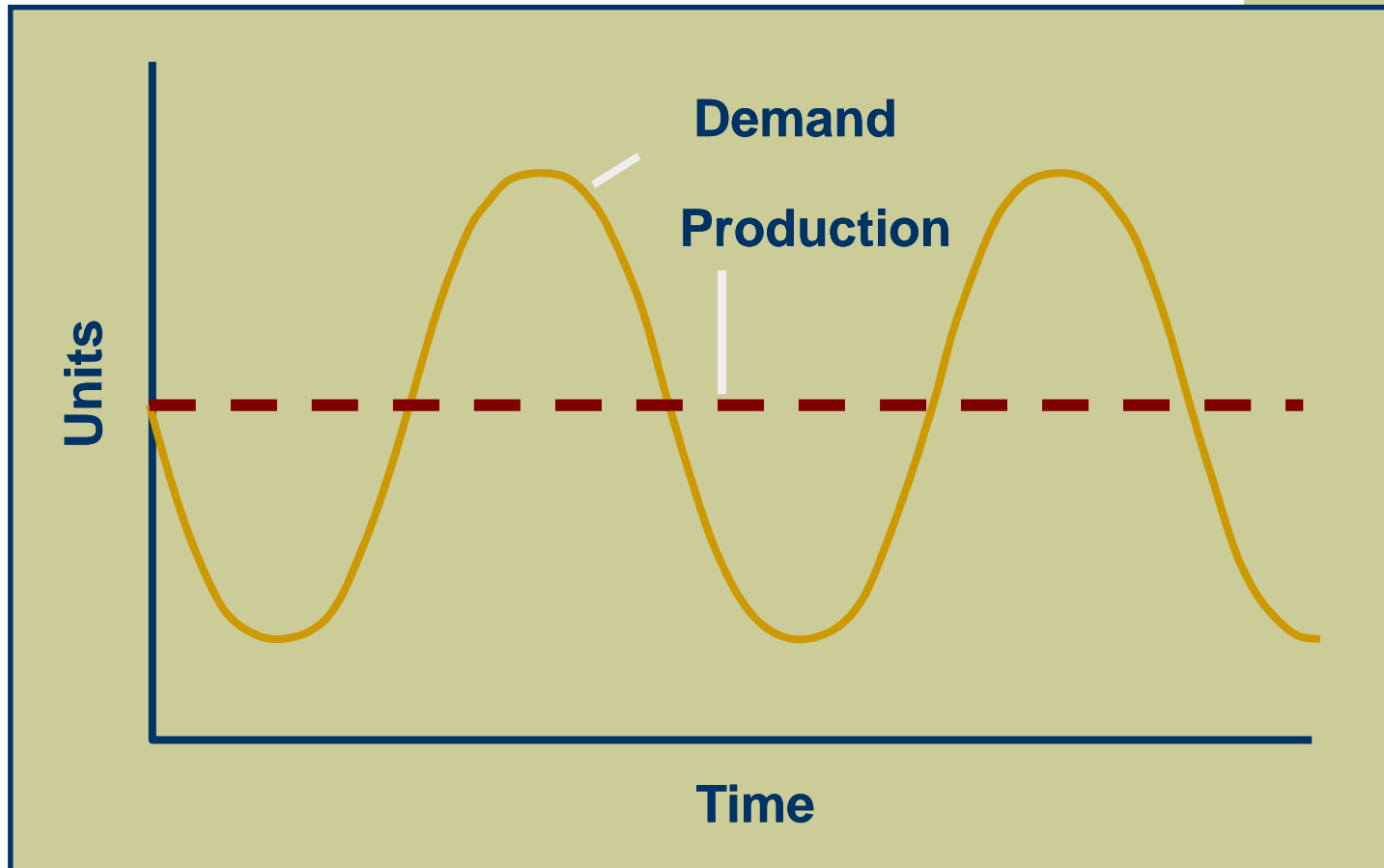
Meeting Demand Strategies

- ◆ Adjusting capacity
 - Resources necessary to meet demand are acquired and maintained over the time horizon of the plan
 - Minor variations in demand are handled with overtime or under-time
- ◆ Managing demand
 - Proactive demand management

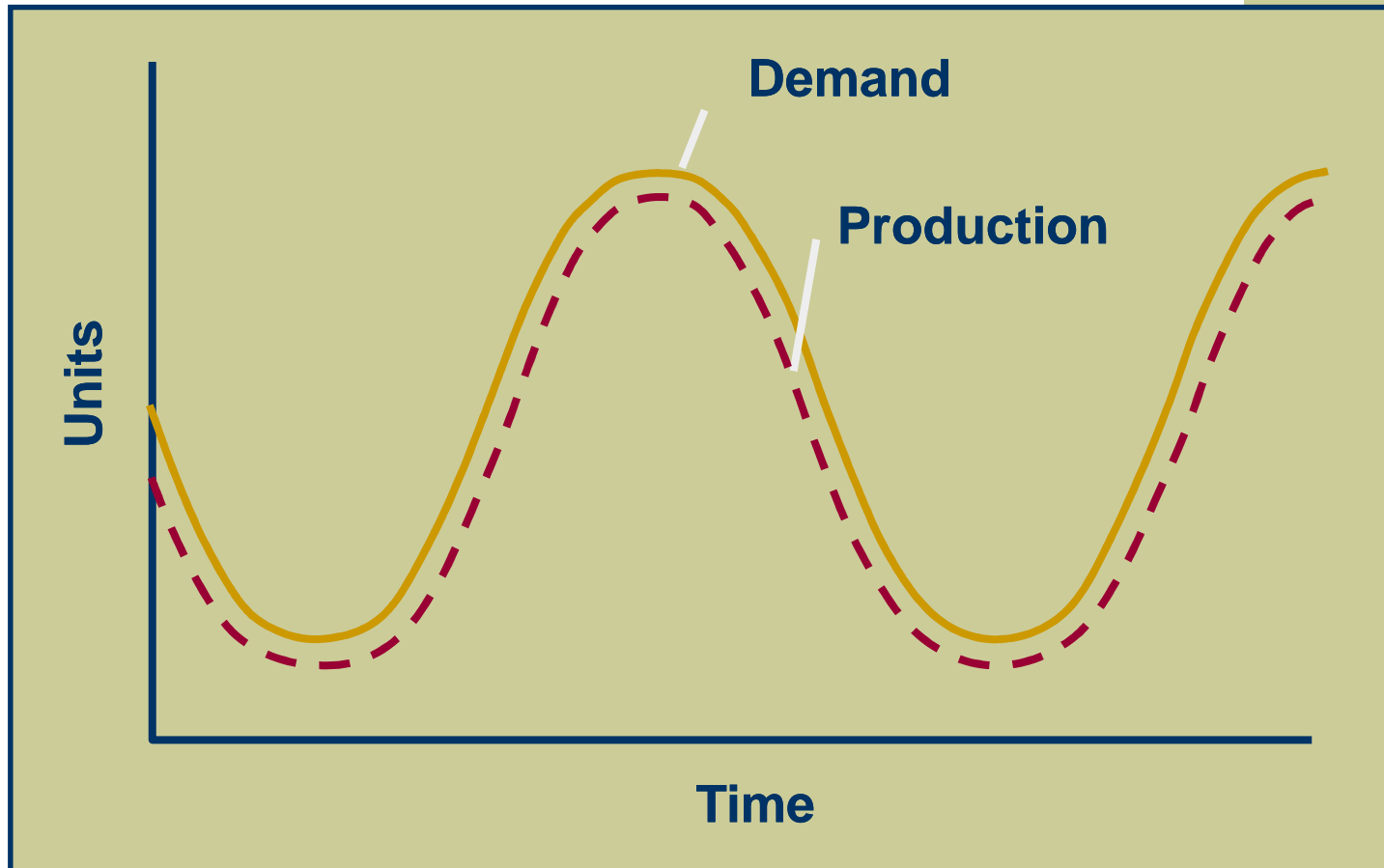
Strategies for Adjusting Capacity

- ◆ Level production
 - Producing at a constant rate and using inventory to absorb fluctuations in demand
- ◆ Chase demand
 - Hiring and firing workers to match demand
- ◆ Peak demand
 - Maintaining resources for high-demand levels
- ◆ Overtime and under-time
 - Increasing or decreasing working hours
- ◆ Subcontracting
 - Let outside companies complete the work
- ◆ Part-time workers
 - Hiring part time workers to complete the work
- ◆ Backordering
 - Providing the service or product at a later time period

Level Production

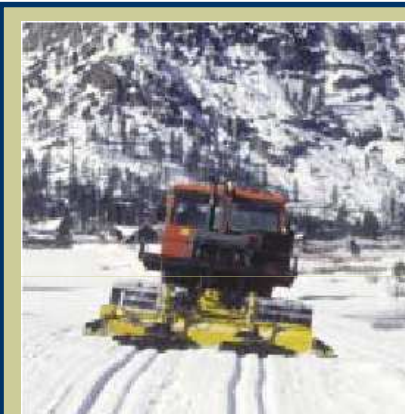


Chase Demand



Strategies for Managing Demand

- ◆ Shifting demand into other time periods
 - Incentives
 - Sales promotions
 - Advertising campaigns
- ◆ Offering products or services with counter-cyclical demand patterns
- ◆ Partnering with suppliers to reduce information distortion along the supply chain



Quantitative Techniques For AP

- ◆ Pure Strategies
- ◆ Mixed Strategies
- ◆ Linear Programming
- ◆ Transportation Method
- ◆ Other Quantitative Techniques



Pure Strategies

Example:

QUARTER	SALES FORECAST (LB)
Spring	80,000
Summer	50,000
Fall	120,000
Winter	150,000

Hiring cost = \$100 per worker

Firing cost = \$500 per worker

Inventory carrying cost = \$0.50 pound per quarter

Regular production cost per pound = \$2.00

Production per employee = 1,000 pounds per quarter

Beginning work force = 100 workers

Level Production Strategy

Level production

$$\frac{(50,000 + 120,000 + 150,000 + 80,000)}{4} = 100,000 \text{ pounds}$$

QUARTER	SALES FORECAST	PRODUCTION PLAN	INVENTORY
Spring	80,000	100,000	20,000
Summer	50,000	100,000	70,000
Fall	120,000	100,000	50,000
Winter	150,000	100,000	0
		400,000	140,000

Cost of Level Production Strategy
 $(400,000 \times \$2.00) + (140,000 \times \$0.50) = \$870,000$

Chase Demand Strategy

QUARTER	SALES FORECAST	PRODUCTION PLAN	WORKERS NEEDED	WORKERS HIRED	WORKERS FIRED
Spring	80,000	80,000	80	0	20
Summer	50,000	50,000	50	0	30
Fall	120,000	120,000	120	70	0
Winter	150,000	150,000	150	30	0
				100	50

Cost of Chase Demand Strategy

$$(400,000 \times \$2.00) + (100 \times \$100) + (50 \times \$500) = \$835,000$$

Level Production with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help Adobe PDF

F12 $=F11+E12-D12$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1								
2								
3		Example 14.1a - Level Production				Cost	\$870,000	
4								
5		Beg Wkforce	100	Prod. Cost	\$2.00	Firing cost	\$500	
6		Units/wker	1000	Inv. Cost	\$0.50	Hiring cost	\$100	
7		Beg Inv.	0					
8								
9								
10			<i>Quarter</i>	<i>Demand</i>	<i>Production</i>	<i>Inventory</i>		
11			Spring	80,000	100,000	20,000		
12			Summer	50,000	100,000	70,000		
13			Fall	120,000	100,000	50,000		
14			Winter	150,000	100,000	0		
15			Total	400,000	400,000	140,000		
16								

Inventory at end of summer

Input by user; 400,000/4

Chase Demand with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

F11 =IF(E11-100<0,0,E11-100)

Example 14.1b - Chase Demand					Cost	\$835,000
Beg Wkforce	100	Prod. Cost	\$2.00	Firing cost	\$500	
Units/wker	1000	Inv. Cost	\$0.50	Hiring cost	\$100	
Beg Inv.	0					
Quarter	Demand	Production	Workers Needed	Workers Hired	Workers Fired	
Spring	80,000	80,000	80	0	20	
Summer	50,000	50,000	50	0	30	
Fall	120,000	120,000	120	70	0	
Winter	150,000	150,000	150	30	0	
Total	400,000	400,000		100	50	

Workforce requirements calculated by system

Production input by user; production = demand

No. of workers hired in spring

Cost of chase demand = hiring + firing + production

Mixed Strategy

- ◆ Combination of Level Production and Chase Demand strategies
- ◆ Examples of management policies
 - no more than $x\%$ of the workforce can be laid off in one quarter
 - inventory levels cannot exceed x dollars
- ◆ Many industries may simply shut down manufacturing during the low demand season and schedule employee vacations during that time

Mixed Strategies with Excel

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.2

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help Adobe PDF

G9 $\text{=MAX}(G8+D9+E9+F9-C9,0)$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	
1					Example 14.2 (a) - Level Production							
2												
3		Input:	Beg. Wkrs	10	Regular	\$10	Hiring	\$1,000				
4			Units/wkr	100	Overtime	\$15	Firing	\$500		Cost:	\$146,000	
5			Beg. Inv.	0	Subk	\$25	Inventory	\$1				
6												
7	Month	Demand	Reg	OT	Subk	Inv	#Wkrs	#Hired	#Fired			
8	Jan	1000	1,000	0	0	0	10	0	0			
9	Feb	400	1,000	0	0	600	10	0	0			
10	Mar	400	1,000	0	0	1,200	10	0	0			
11	Apr	400	1,000	0	0	1,800	10	0	0			
12	May	400	1,000	0	0	2,400	10	0	0			
13	Jun	400	1,000	0	0	3,000	10	0	0			
14	July	500	1,000	0	0	3,500	10	0	0			
15	Aug	500	1,000	0	0	4,000	10	0	0			
16	Sept	1000	1,000	0	0	4,000	10	0	0			
17	Oct	1500	1,000	0	0	3,500	10	0	0			
18	Nov	2500	1,000	0	0	2,000	10	0	0			
19	Dec	3000	1,000	0	0	0	10	0	0			
20	Total	12,000	12,000	0	0	26,000		0	0			
21												

Feb's ending inventory

Cost of level production

Excel calculates these

Production input by user; $12,000/12 = 1,000$

Mixed Strategies with Excel (cont.)

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.2

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help Adobe PDF

19 =MAX(H9-H8,0)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	K
1	Example 14.2 (b) - Chase Demand								
2									
3	<i>Input:</i>	Beg. Wkrs	10	Regular	\$10	Hiring	\$1,000		
4		Units/wkr	100	Overtime	\$15	Firing	\$500	Cost:	\$149,000
5		Beg. Inv.	0	Subk	\$25	Inventory	\$1		
6									
7	<i>Month</i>	<i>Demand</i>	<i>Reg</i>	<i>OT</i>	<i>Subk</i>	<i>Inv</i>	<i>#Wkrs</i>	<i>#Hired</i>	<i>#Fired</i>
8	Jan	1000	1000	0	0	0	10	0	0
9	Feb	400	400	0	0	0	4	0	6
10	Mar	400	400	0	0	0	4	0	0
11	Apr	400	400	0	0	0	4	0	0
12	May	400	400	0	0	0	4	0	0
13	Jun	400	400	0	0	0	4	0	0
14	July	500	500	0	0	0	5	1	0
15	Aug	500	500	0	0	0	5	0	0
16	Sept	1000	1000	0	0	0	10	5	0
17	Oct	1500	1500	0	0	0	15	5	0
18	Nov	2500	2500	0	0	0	25	10	0
19	Dec	3000	3000	0	0	0	30	5	0
20	Total	12,000	12,000	0	0	0		26	6
21									

No. of workers hired in Feb.

Input by user; production = demand

Calculated by Excel

Cost of chase demand

General Linear Programming (LP) Model

- ◆ LP gives an optimal solution, but demand and costs must be linear
- ◆ *Let*
 - W_t = workforce size for period t
 - P_t = units produced in period t
 - I_t = units in inventory at the end of period t
 - F_t = number of workers fired for period t
 - H_t = number of workers hired for period t

LP MODEL

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimize } Z = & \$100 (H_1 + H_2 + H_3 + H_4) \\ & + \$500 (F_1 + F_2 + F_3 + F_4) \\ & + \$0.50 (I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4) \\ & + \$2 (P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4) \end{aligned}$$

Subject to

	$P_1 - I_1 = 80,000$	(1)
Demand	$I_1 + P_2 - I_2 = 50,000$	(2)
constraints	$I_2 + P_3 - I_3 = 120,000$	(3)
	$I_3 + P_4 - I_4 = 150,000$	(4)
Production	$1000 W_1 = P_1$	(5)
constraints	$1000 W_2 = P_2$	(6)
	$1000 W_3 = P_3$	(7)
	$1000 W_4 = P_4$	(8)
	$100 + H_1 - F_1 = W_1$	(9)
Work force	$W_1 + H_2 - F_2 = W_2$	(10)
constraints	$W_2 + H_3 - F_3 = W_3$	(11)
	$W_3 + H_4 - F_4 = W_4$	(12)

Setting up the Spreadsheet

Access Solver from the Tools Menu; if missing, install from your Office CD

Solve by clicking on Tools, then Solver, then Solve.

Set columns equal to each other for constraints

Solver will put solution here

These cells contain constraint formulas

Minimize cost of solution

When model is complete, solve.

Click here next

Cells where solution appears

Named columns set equal to each other

Check these boxes

Qtr	Demand	Production	Inventory	Workers Needed	Workers Hired	Workers Fired	Demand Constraint	Production Constraint	Workforce Constraint
1	80,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
2	50,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	120,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	150,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	400,000	0	0	0	0	0			

The LP Solution

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.3

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100%

Arial 10 B I U

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1	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
2		Example 14.3 - LP Model				Cost	\$832,000			
3										
4		Beg Wkforce	100	Prod. Cost	\$2.00	Firing cost	\$500			
5		Units/wker	1000	Inv. Cost	\$0.50	Hiring cost	\$100			
6		Beg Inv.	0							
7										
9	Qtr	Demand	Production	Inventory	Wkrs Needed	Wkrs Hired	Wkrs Fired	Demand Constraint	Production Constraint	Wkforce Constraint
10	1	80,000	80,000	0	80	0	20	80,000	80,000	80
11	2	50,000	80,000	30,000	80	0	0	50,000	80,000	80
12	3	120,000	90,000	0	90	10	0	120,000	90,000	90
13	4	150,000	150,000	0	150	60	0	150,000	150,000	150
14	Total	400,000	400,000	30,000		70	20			
15										

Solve by clicking on Tools, then Solver, then Solve.

Cost of optimal solution

Optimal solution; mixture of inventory and workforce variations

Transportation Method

QUARTER	EXPECTED DEMAND	REGULAR CAPACITY	OVERTIME CAPACITY	SUBCONTRACT CAPACITY
1	900	1000	100	500
2	1500	1200	150	500
3	1600	1300	200	500
4	3000	1300	200	500

Regular production cost per unit	\$20
Overtime production cost per unit	\$25
Subcontracting cost per unit	\$28
Inventory holding cost per unit per period	\$3
Beginning inventory	300 units

Transportation Tableau

PERIOD OF PRODUCTION		PERIOD OF USE				Unused Capacity	Capacity		
		1	2	3	4				
1	Beginning Inventory	300	0	3	6	9	300		
	Regular	600	20	300	23	100	26	29	1000
	Overtime		25	28	31	100	34	100	
	Subcontract		28	31	34	37	500		
2	Regular		1200	20	23	26	1200		
	Overtime			25	28	150	31	150	
	Subcontract			28	31	250	34	250	500
3	Regular			1300	20	23	1300		
	Overtime			200	25	28	200		
	Subcontract				28	500	31	500	
4	Regular				1300	20	1300		
	Overtime				200	25	200		
	Subcontract				500	28	500		
Demand		900	1500	1600	3000	250			

Burruss' Production Plan

PERIOD	DEMAND	REGULAR PRODUCTION	OVERTIME	SUB- CONTRACT	ENDING INVENTORY
1	900	1000	100	0	500
2	1500	1200	150	250	600
3	1600	1300	200	500	1000
4	3000	1300	200	500	0
Total	7000	4800	650	1250	2100

Using Excel for the Transportation Method of Aggregate Planning

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.4

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		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
1															
2		Exhibit 14.4 - The Transportation Method of Aggregate Planning													
3															
4			<i>Period of Use</i>												
5	<i>Period of Production</i>		1	2	3	4	<i>Units Produced</i>	<i>Capacity</i>	<i>Unused Capacity</i>						
6	Beg. Inventory	300 ⁰	0 ³	0 ⁶	0 ⁹	0 ¹²	300	300	0						
7	1 Regular	600 ²⁰	0 ²³	0 ²⁶	400 ²⁹	0	1,000	1,000	0						
8	Overtime	0 ²⁵	0 ²⁸	0 ³¹	0 ³⁴	0	0	100	100						
9	Subk	0 ²⁸	0 ³¹	0 ³⁴	0 ³⁷	0	0	500	500						
10	2 Regular	0	1,000 ²⁰	0 ²³	200 ²⁶	0	1,200	1,200	0						
11	Overtime	0	150 ²⁵	0 ²⁸	0 ³¹	0	150	150	0						
12	Subk	0	350 ²⁸	0 ³¹	0 ³⁴	0	350	500	150						
13	3 Regular	0	0	900 ²⁰	400 ²³	0	1,300	1,300	0						
14	Overtime	0	0	200 ²⁵	0 ²⁸	0	200	200	0						
15	Subk	0	0	500 ²⁸	0 ³¹	0	500	500	0						
16	4 Regular	0	0	0	1,300 ²⁰	0	1,300	1,300	0						
17	Overtime	0	0	0	200 ²⁵	0	200	200	0						
18	Subk	0	0	0	500 ²⁸	0	500	500	0						
19	Units Produced	900	1,500	1,600	3,000		7,000	7,000	750						
20	Demand	900	1,500	1,600	3,000		7,000								
21	Unmet Demand	0	0	0	0										
22															
23															
24		<i>Production Plan</i>													
25															
26		<i>Period</i>	<i>Demand</i>	<i>Reg. Prod.</i>	<i>Overtime</i>	<i>Subk</i>	<i>Ending Inventory</i>								
27		1	900	1,000	0	0	400								
28		2	1,500	1,200	150	350	600								
29		3	1,600	1,300	200	500	1,000								
30		4	3,000	1,300	200	500	0								
31		Total	7,000	4,800	550	1,350	2,000								
32															
33															

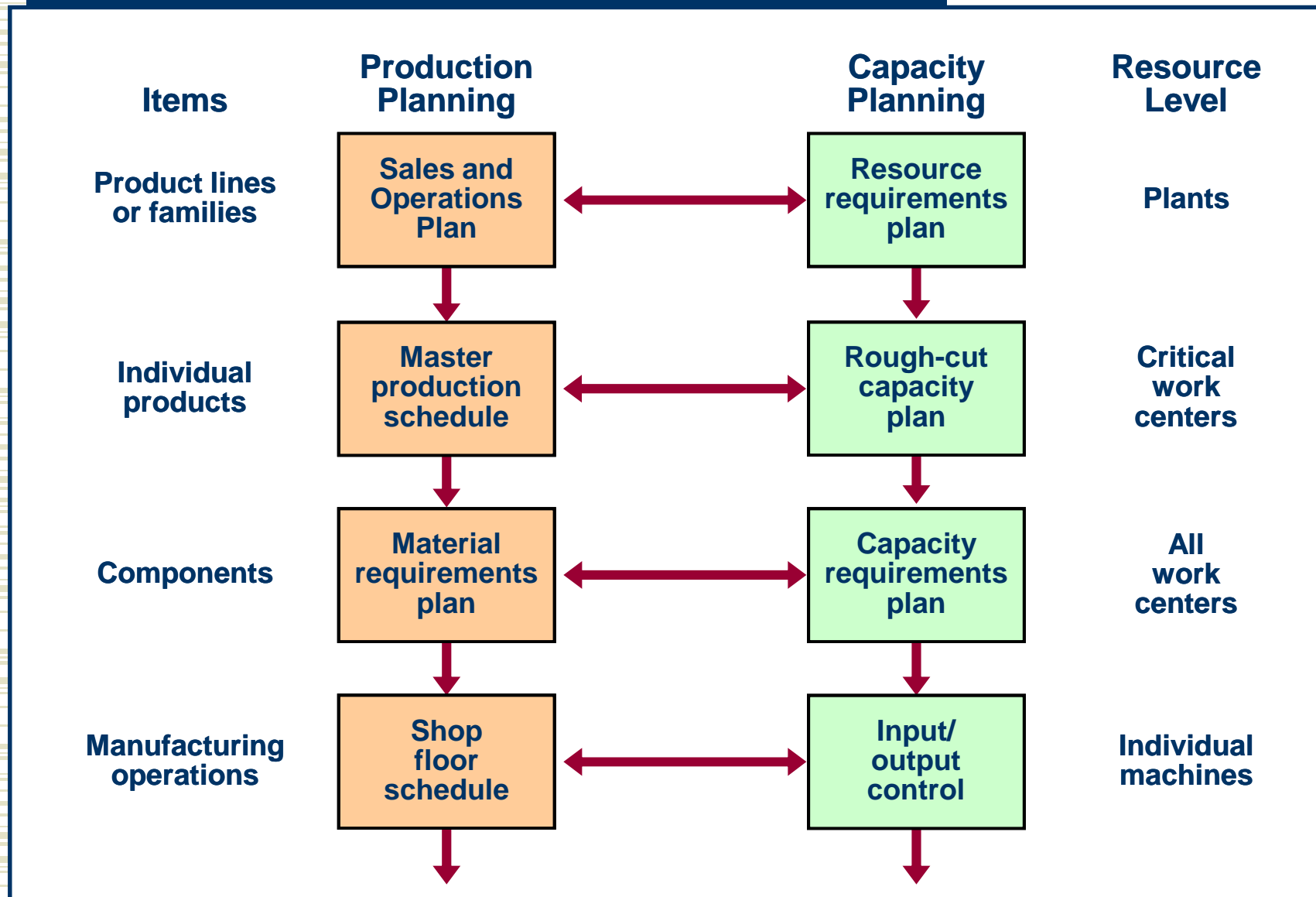
Total Cost = \$153,550



Other Quantitative Techniques

- ◆ Linear decision rule (LDR)
- ◆ Search decision rule (SDR)
- ◆ Management coefficients model

Hierarchical Nature of Planning



- ◆ Disaggregation: process of breaking an aggregate plan into more detailed plans

Collaborative Planning

- ◆ Sharing information and synchronizing production across supply chain
- ◆ Part of CPFR (collaborative planning, forecasting, and replenishment)
 - involves selecting products to be jointly managed, creating a single forecast of customer demand, and synchronizing production across supply chain

Available-to-Promise (ATP)

- ◆ Quantity of items that can be promised to customer
- ◆ Difference between planned production and customer orders already received

AT in period 1 = (On-hand quantity + MPS in period 1) –
(CO until the next period of planned production)

ATP in period n = (MPS in period n) –
(CO until the next period of planned production)

- ◆ Capable-to-promise
 - quantity of items that can be produced and made available at a later date

ATP: Example

Aggregate Production Plan

Product Family	Quarter			
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Juvenile Bikes	800	1,000	1,500	4,000

Master Production Schedule

	April	May	June	Total
Boys 26"	150	100	150	400
Girls 26"	100	100	100	300
Boys 20"	30	20	50	100
Girls 20"	40	20	140	200
Total	320	240	440	1000

ATP: Example (cont.)

Available-to-Promise for Girls 26" Bike

On Hand = 10	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>Total</i>
Forecast	50	100	150	300
Customer Orders				
Master Production Schedule	100	100	100	300
Available-to-Promise				

On Hand = 10	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>Total</i>
Forecast	50	100	150	300
Customer Orders	70	110	50	230
Master Production Schedule	100	100	100	300
Available-to-Promise				

ATP: Example (cont.)

On Hand = 10	April	May	June	Total
Forecast	50	100	150	300
Customer Orders	70	110	50	230
Master Production Schedule	100	100	100	300
Available-to-Promise	30	0	50	80

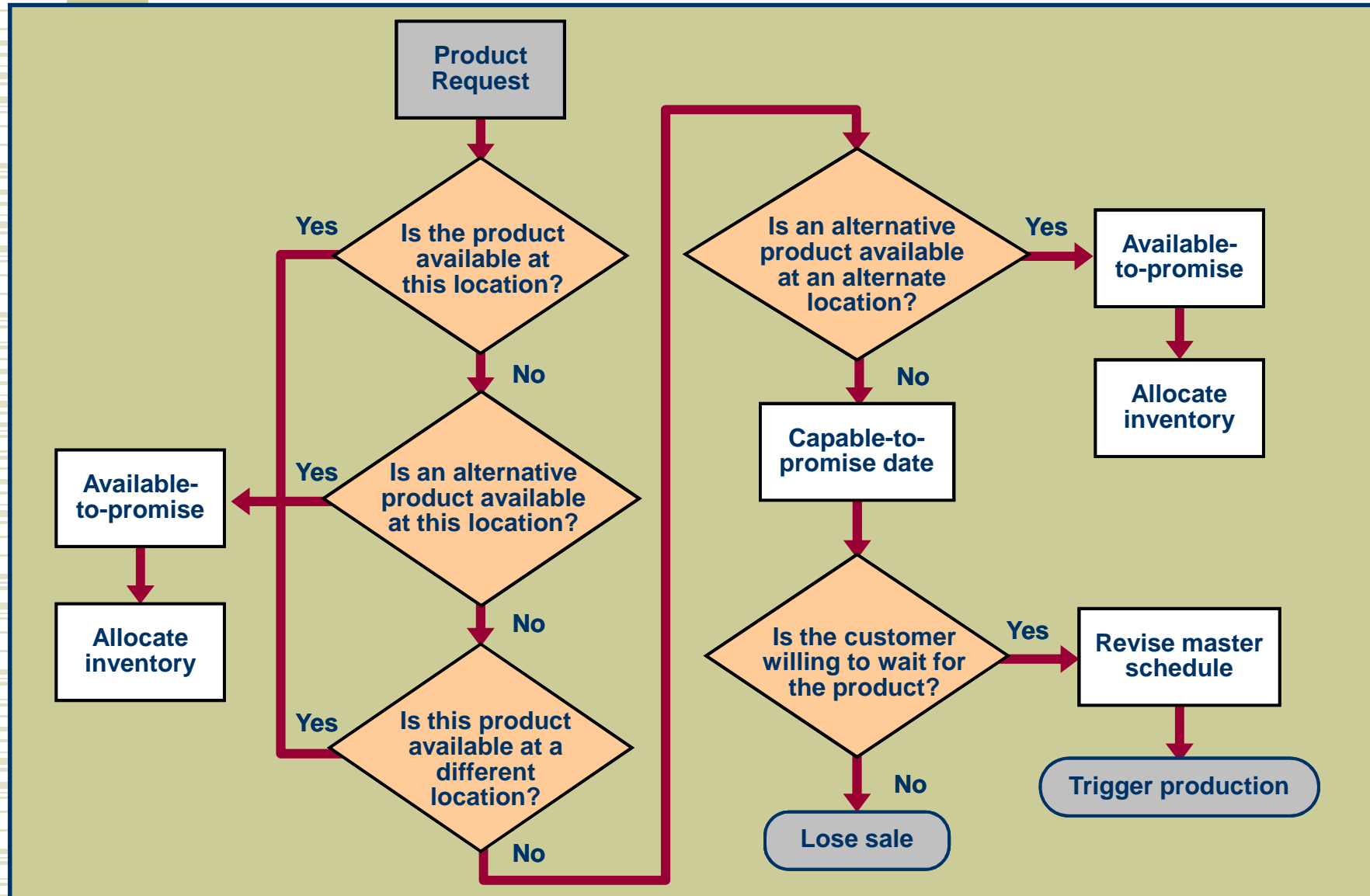
Take excess units from April

$$\text{ATP in April} = (10+100) - \cancel{70} = \cancel{30}$$

$$\text{ATP in May} = 100 - \cancel{110} = \cancel{-10}$$

$$\text{ATP in June} = 100 - 50 = 50$$

Rule Based ATP





Aggregate Planning for Services

1. Most services cannot be inventoried
2. Demand for services is difficult to predict
3. Capacity is also difficult to predict
4. Service capacity must be provided at the appropriate place and time
5. Labor is usually the most constraining resource for services

Yield Management

Type of Problem	Type of Business	Probability of overestimating demand or no-shows, $P(N < X)$	Optimal probability of demand or no-shows $\frac{C_u}{(C_u + C_o)}$	Cost Description
Overbooking	Hotel, airlines, restaurants	N = number of no-shows X = number of overbooked rooms or seats	C_o = cost of overbooking	Replacement cost
			C_u = cost of underbooking	Lost profit
Fare Classes	Airlines, cruise ships, passenger trains, extended stay hotels	N = number of full-fare tickets that can be sold X = seats reserved for full fare passengers	C_o = cost of overestimating full fare passengers C_u = cost of underestimating full fare passengers	Lost full-fare (Full-Fare – discounted fare)

Yield Management (cont.)

Type of Problem	Type of Business	Probability of overestimating demand or no-shows, $P(N < X)$	Optimal probability of demand or no-shows $\frac{C_u}{(C_u + C_o)}$	Cost Description
Premium seats	Stadiums, theaters	N = no. of premium tickets that can be sold X = seats reserved for premium ticket holders	C_o = cost of overestimating premium ticket sales C_u = cost of underestimating premium ticket sales	Lost regular revenue (Premium ticket – regular ticket revenue)
Single Order Quantities	Newspapers, magazines, florists, nurseries, bakeries, sale items	N = number of items that can be sold X = number of items ordered	C_o = cost of overestimating demand C_u = cost of underestimating demand	(Cost – salvage value) Lost profit

Yield Management: Example

NO-SHOWS	PROBABILITY	$P(N < X)$	
0	.15	.00	
1	.25	.15	
2	.30	.40	.517
3	.30	.70	←

Optimal probability of no-shows

$$P(n < x) \leq \frac{C_u}{C_u + C_o} = \frac{75}{75 + 70} = .517$$

Hotel should be overbooked by two rooms



Chapter 14 Supplement

Linear Programming

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Model Formulation
- ◆ Graphical Solution Method
- ◆ Linear Programming Model Solution
- ◆ Solving Linear Programming Problems with Excel
- ◆ Sensitivity Analysis



Linear Programming (LP)



A model consisting of linear relationships
representing a firm's objective and resource constraints

LP is a mathematical modeling technique used to determine a
level of operational activity in order to achieve an objective,
subject to restrictions called constraints

Types of LP

Linear Programming Model Type	OM Application
Aggregate Production Planning	Determines the resource capacity needed to meet demand over an immediate time horizon, including units produced, workers hired and fired and inventory. (See Chapter 13.)
Product Mix	Mix of different products to produce that will maximize profit or minimize cost given resource constraints such as material, labor, budget, etc.
Transportation	Logistical flow of items (goods or services) from sources to destinations, for example, truckloads of goods from plants to warehouses. (See Supplement 10.)
Transshipment	Flow of items from sources to destinations with intermediate points, for example shipping from plant to distribution center and then to stores. (See Supplement 10.)

Types of LP (cont.)

Linear Programming Model Type	OM Application
Assignment	Assigns work to limited resources, called "Loading," for example, assigning jobs or workers to different machines. (See Chapter 16.)
Multiperiod Scheduling	Schedules regular and overtime production, plus inventory to carry over, to meet demand in future periods.
Blend	Determines "recipe" requirements, for example, how to blend different petroleum components to produce different grades of gasoline and other petroleum products.
Diet	Menu of food items that meets nutritional or other requirements, for example, hospital or school cafeteria menus.
Investment/Capital Budgeting	Financial model that determines amount to invest in different alternatives given return objectives and constraints for risk, diversity, etc., for example, how much to invest in new plant, facilities or equipment.

Types of LP (cont.)

Linear Programming Model Type	OM Application
Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA)	Compares service units of the same type—banks, hospitals, schools—based on their resources and outputs to see which units are less productive or inefficient.
Shortest Route	Shortest routes from sources to destinations, for example, the shortest highway truck route from coast to coast.
Maximal Flow	Maximizes the amount of flow from sources to destinations, for example, the flow of work-in process through an assembly operation.
Trim-Loss	Determines patterns to cut sheet items to minimize waste, for example, cutting lumber, film, cloth, glass, etc.
Facility Location	Selects facility locations based on constraints such as fixed, operating, and shipping costs, production capacity, etc.
Set Covering	Selection of facilities that can service a set of other facilities, for example, the selection of distribution hubs that will be able to deliver packages to a set of cities.

LP Model Formulation

- ◆ Decision variables
 - mathematical symbols representing levels of activity of an operation
- ◆ Objective function
 - a linear relationship reflecting the objective of an operation
 - most frequent objective of business firms is to *maximize profit*
 - most frequent objective of individual operational units (such as a production or packaging department) is to *minimize cost*
- ◆ Constraint
 - a linear relationship representing a restriction on decision making

LP Model Formulation (cont.)

Max/min $Z = C_1X_1 + C_2X_2 + \dots + C_nX_n$

subject to:

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n (\leq, =, \geq) b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n (\leq, =, \geq) b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n (\leq, =, \geq) b_n \end{cases}$$

x_j = decision variables

b_i = constraint levels

c_j = objective function coefficients

a_{ij} = constraint coefficients

LP Model: Example

RESOURCE REQUIREMENTS

PRODUCT	<i>Labor</i> (hr/unit)	<i>Clay</i> (lb/unit)	<i>Revenue</i> (\$/unit)
Bowl	1	4	40
Mug	2	3	50

There are 40 hours of labor and 120 pounds of clay available each day

Decision variables

x_1 = number of bowls to produce

x_2 = number of mugs to produce

LP Formulation: Example

Maximize $Z = \$40 x_1 + 50 x_2$

Subject to

$$x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 40 \text{ hr} \quad (\text{labor constraint})$$

$$4x_1 + 3x_2 \leq 120 \text{ lb} \quad (\text{clay constraint})$$

$$x_1, x_2 \geq 0$$

Solution is $x_1 = 24$ bowls

$x_2 = 8$ mugs

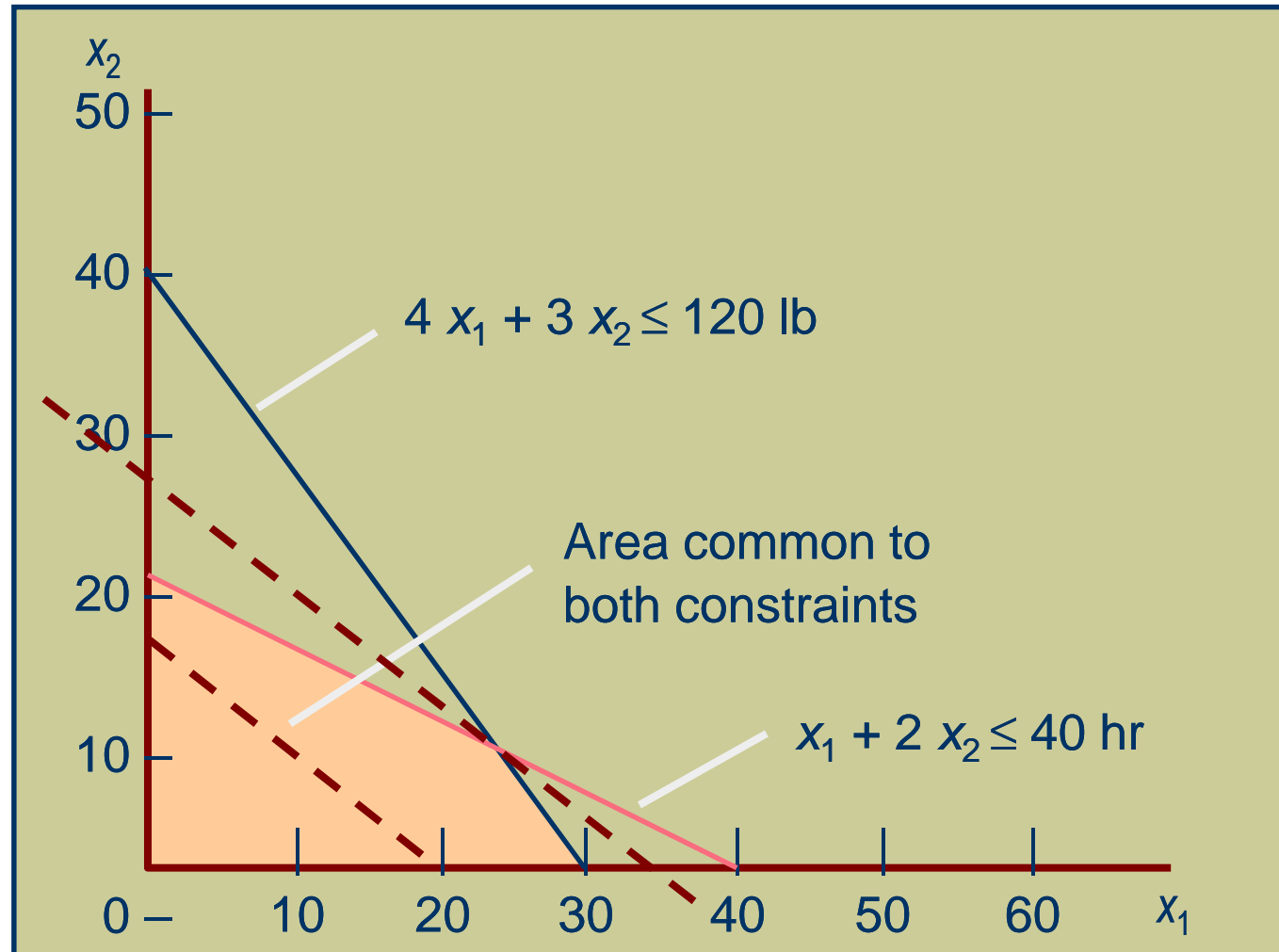
Revenue = \$1,360



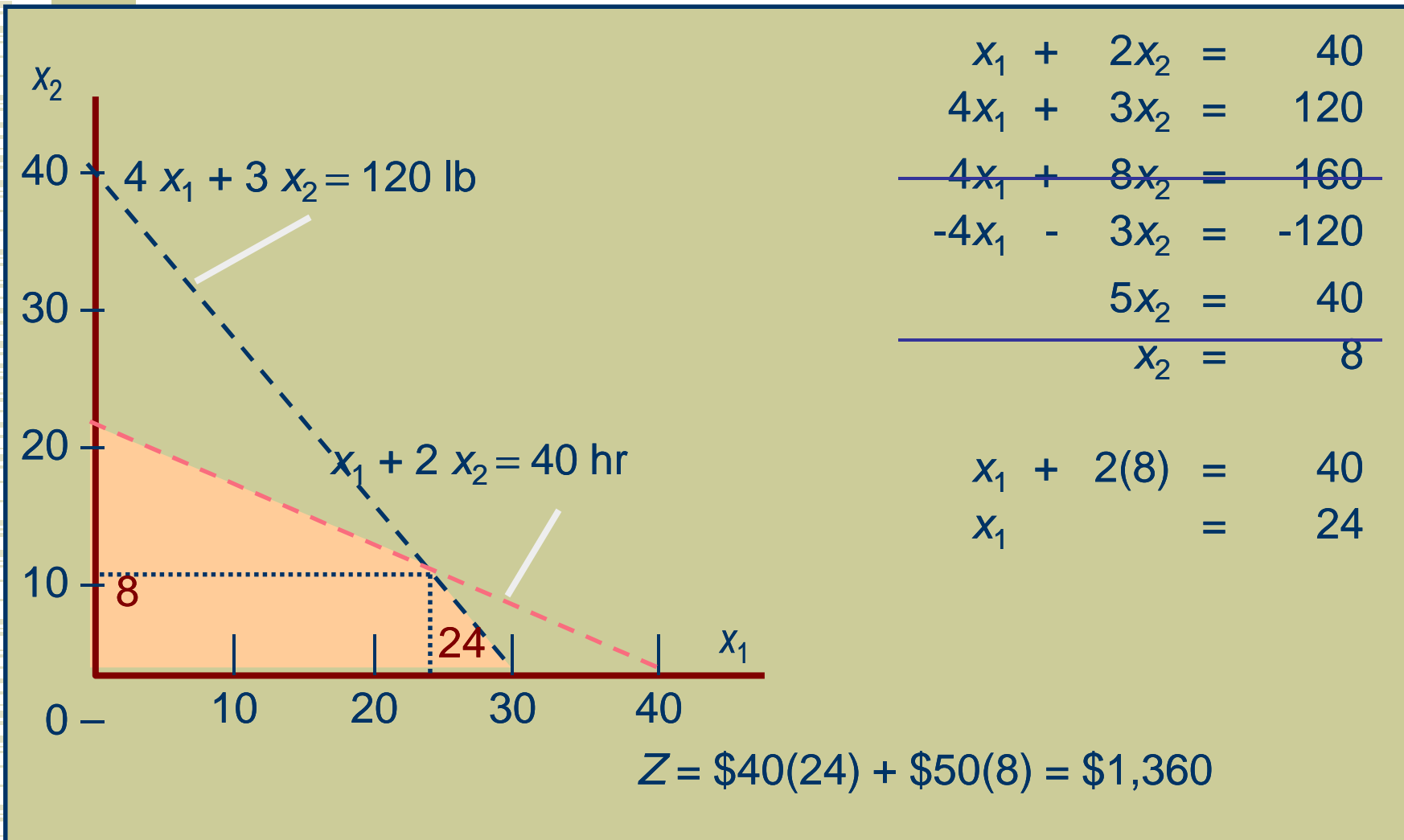
Graphical Solution Method

1. Plot model constraint on a set of coordinates in a plane
2. Identify the feasible solution space on the graph where all constraints are satisfied simultaneously
3. Plot objective function to find the point on boundary of this space that maximizes (or minimizes) value of objective function

Graphical Solution: Example



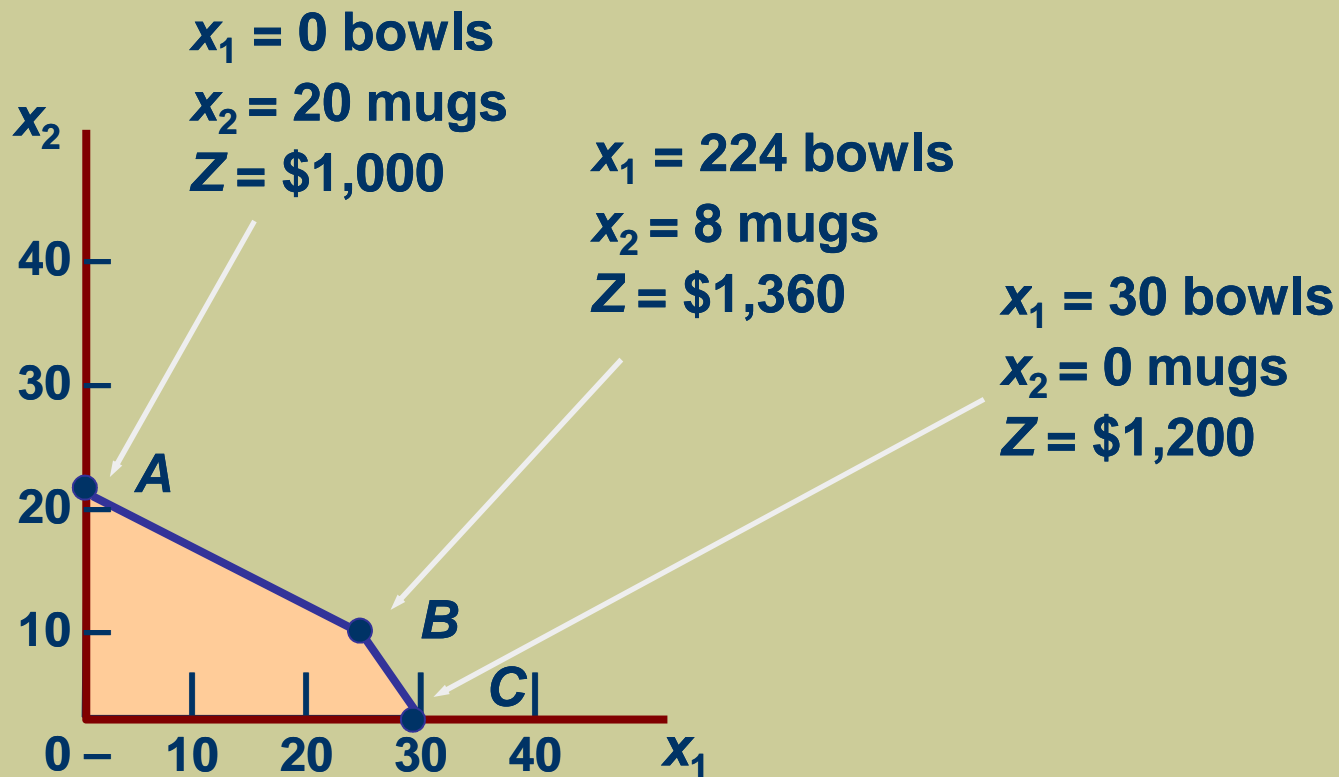
Computing Optimal Values



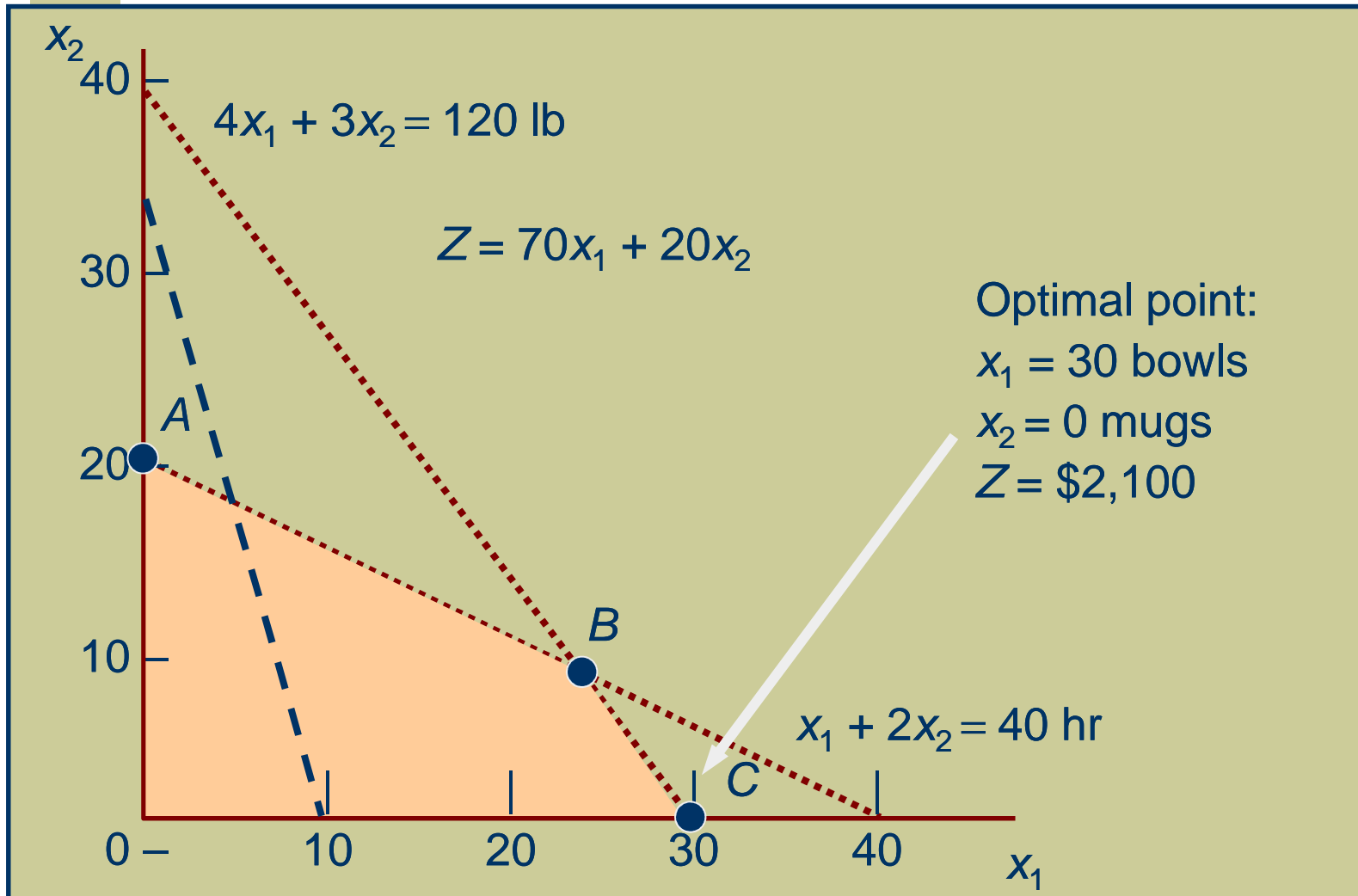
$$\begin{array}{r}
 x_1 + 2x_2 = 40 \\
 4x_1 + 3x_2 = 120 \\
 \hline
 -4x_1 + 8x_2 = -160 \\
 -4x_1 - 3x_2 = -120 \\
 \hline
 5x_2 = 40 \\
 \hline
 x_2 = 8
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x_1 + 2(8) = 40 \\
 x_1 = 24
 \end{array}$$

Extreme Corner Points



Objective Function



Minimization Problem

CHEMICAL CONTRIBUTION

<i>Brand</i>	<i>Nitrogen (lb/bag)</i>	<i>Phosphate (lb/bag)</i>
Gro-plus	2	4
Crop-fast	4	3

$$\text{Minimize } Z = \$6x_1 + \$3x_2$$

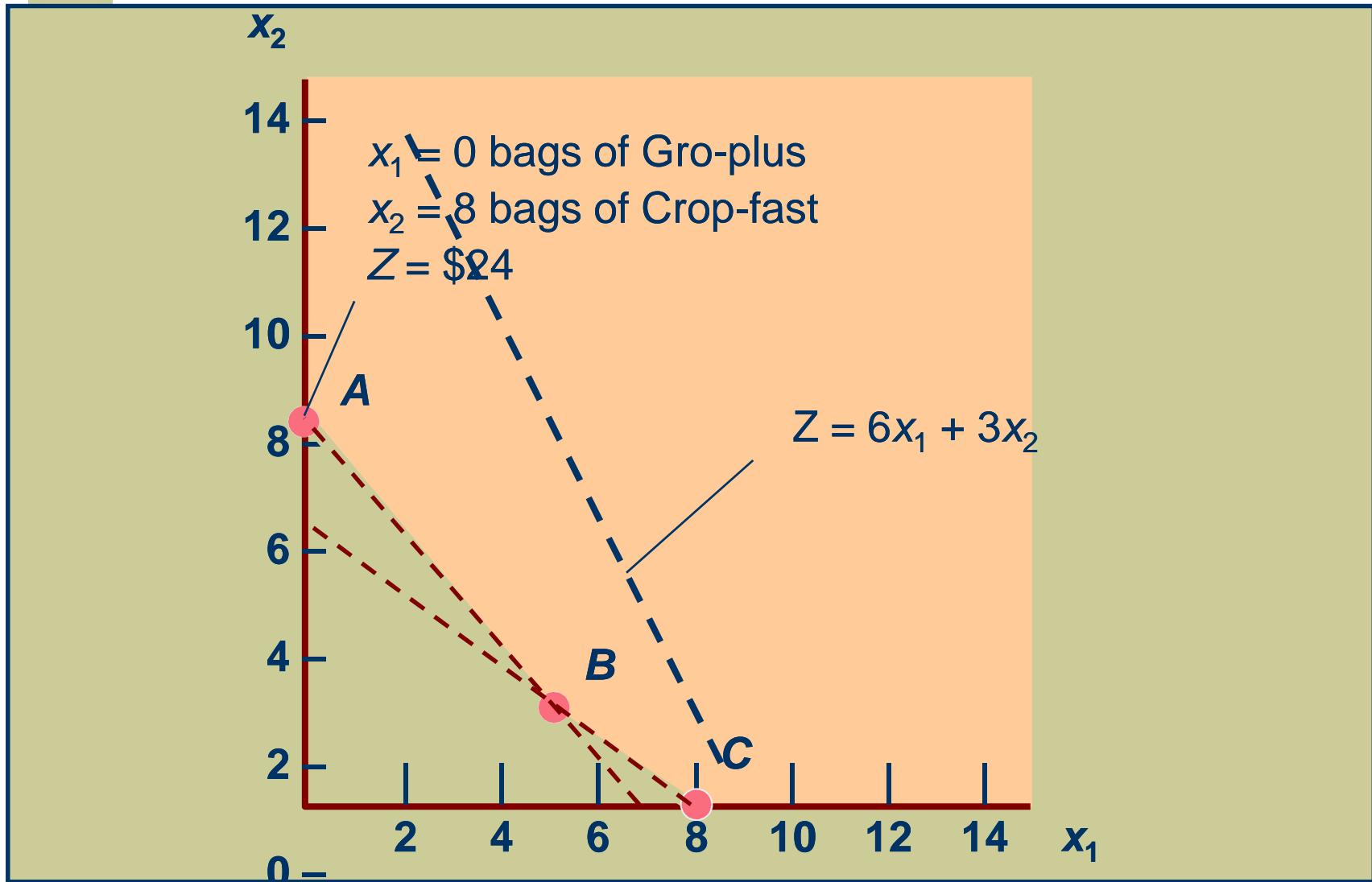
subject to

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 \geq 16 \text{ lb of nitrogen}$$

$$4x_1 + 3x_2 \geq 24 \text{ lb of phosphate}$$

$$x_1, x_2 \geq 0$$

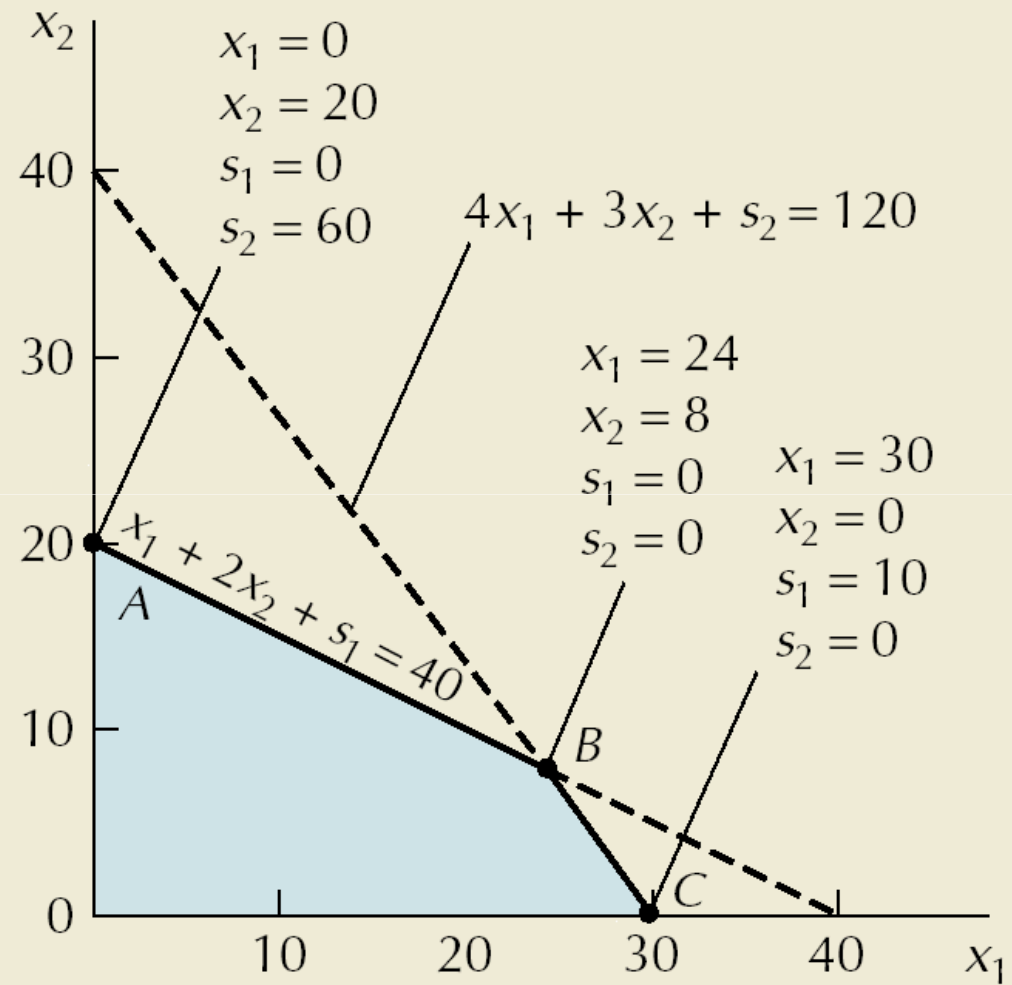
Graphical Solution



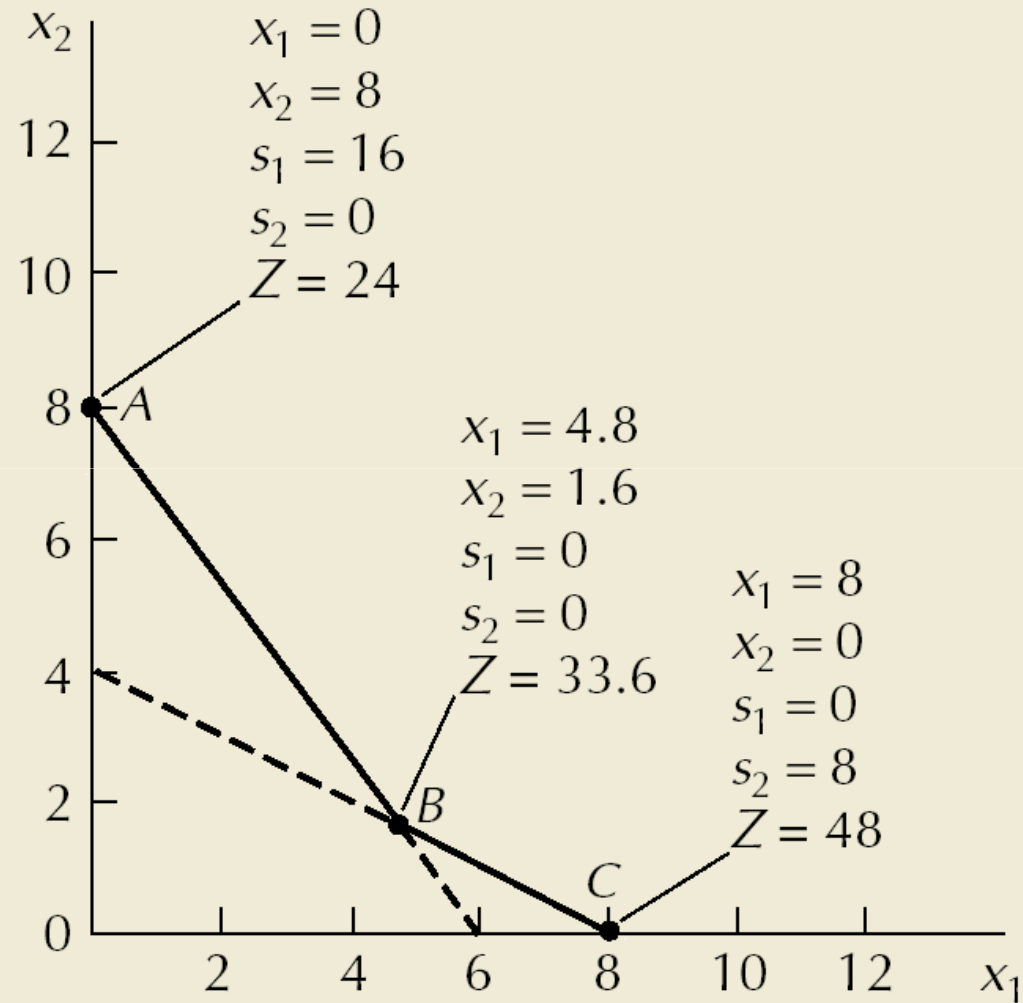
Simplex Method

- ◆ A mathematical procedure for solving linear programming problems according to a set of steps
- ◆ Slack variables added to \leq constraints to represent unused resources
 - $x_1 + 2x_2 + s_1 = 40$ hours of labor
 - $4x_1 + 3x_2 + s_2 = 120$ lb of clay
- ◆ Surplus variables subtracted from \geq constraints to represent excess above resource requirement. For example,
 - $2x_1 + 4x_2 \geq 16$ is transformed into
 - $2x_1 + 4x_2 - s_1 = 16$
- ◆ Slack/surplus variables have a 0 coefficient in the objective function
 - $Z = \$40x_1 + \$50x_2 + 0s_1 + 0s_2$

Solution Points with Slack Variables



Solution Points with Surplus Variables



Solving LP Problems with Excel

Click on "Tools" to invoke "Solver."

Objective function

$=C6*B10+D6*B11$

$=E6-F6$

$=E7-F7$

$=C7*B10+D7*B11$

Decision variables – bowls (x_1)=B10; mugs (x_2)=B11

Products:	Bowl	Mug			
Profit per unit:	40	50			
Resources:			Available	Usage	Left over
labor (hr/unit)	1	2	40	0	40
clay (lb/unit)	4	3	120	0	120
Production:					
Bowls =					
Mugs =					
Profit =	0				

Solving LP Problems with Excel (cont.)

After all parameters and constraints have been input, click on "Solve."

Objective function

Decision variables

$$C6 * B10 + D6 * B11 \leq 40$$

$$C7 * B10 + D7 * B11 \leq 120$$

Click on "Add" to insert constraints.

Solver Parameters

Set Target Cell:

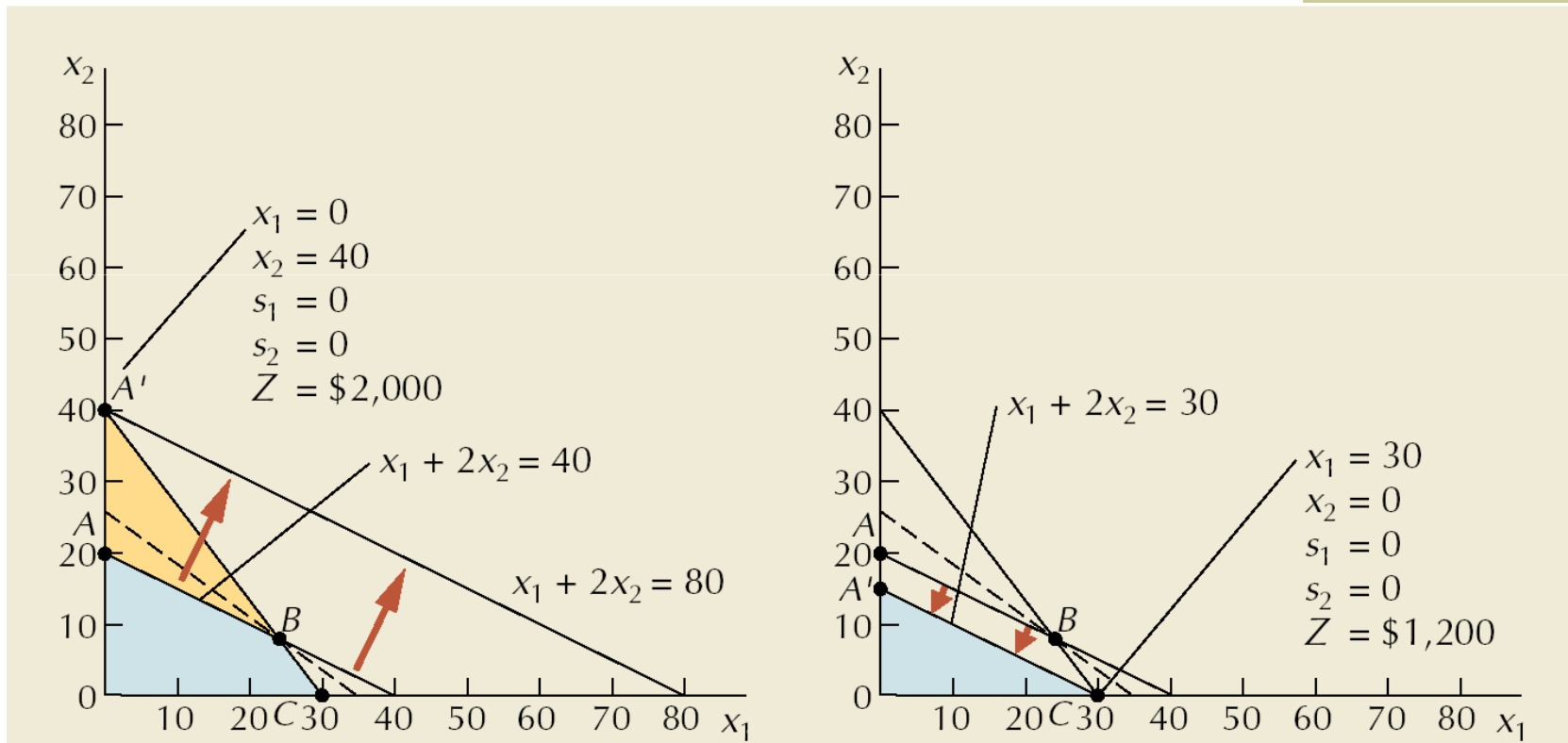
Equal To: Max Min Value of:

By Changing Cells:

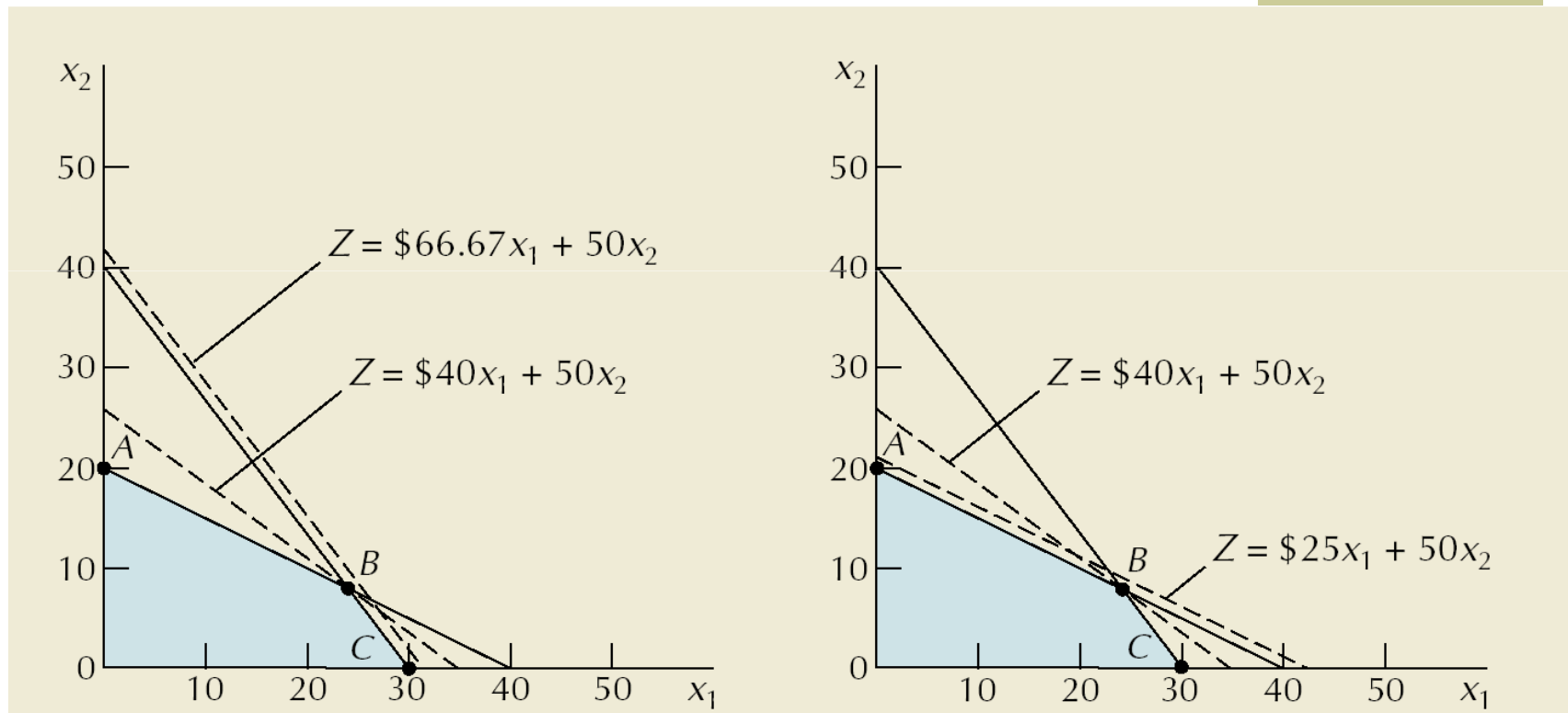
Subject to the Constraints:

-
-
-

Sensitivity Range for Labor Hours



Sensitivity Range for Bowls





Chapter 15

Resource Planning

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III



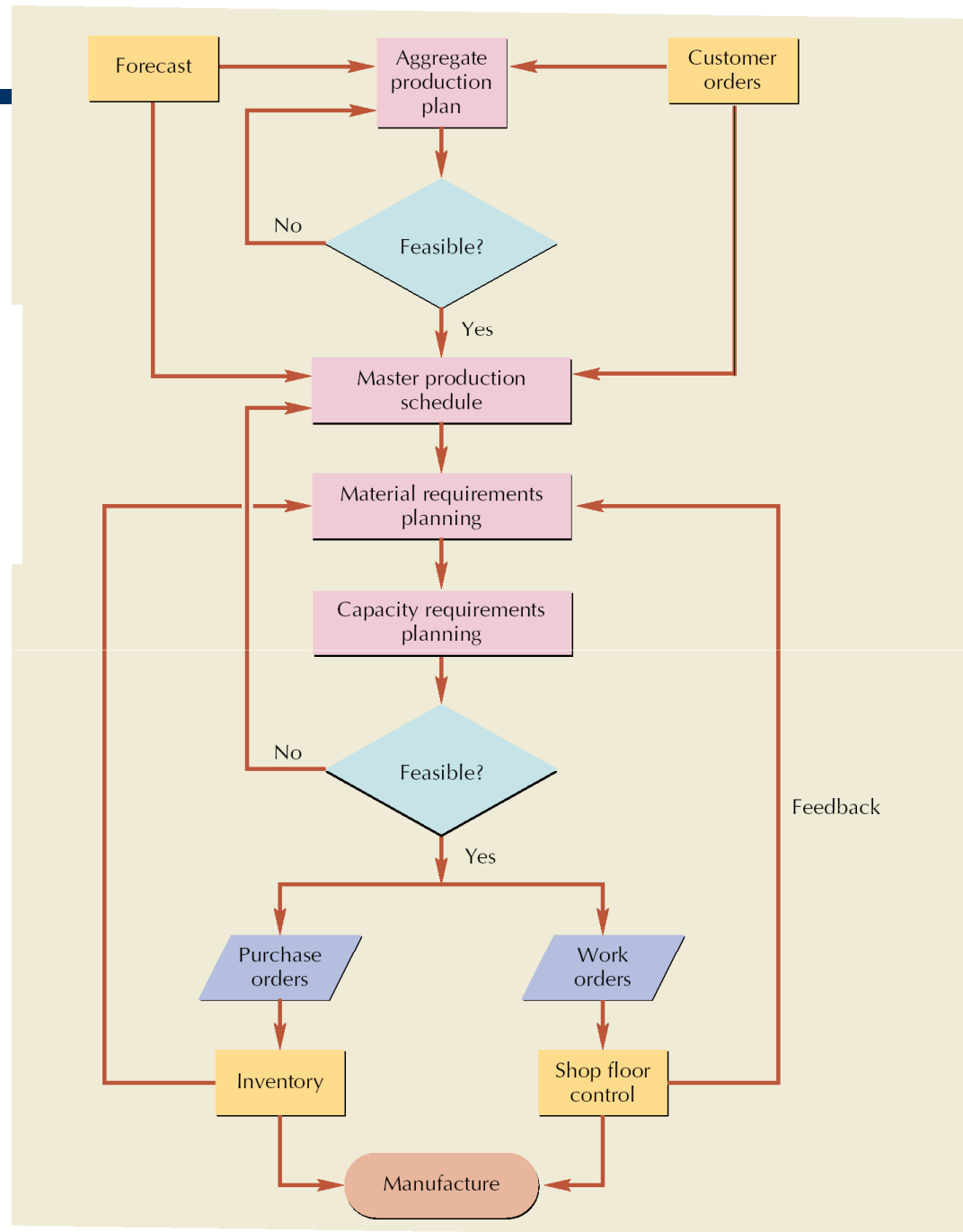


Lecture Outline



- ◆ Material Requirements Planning (MRP)
- ◆ Capacity Requirements Planning (CRP)
- ◆ Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP)
- ◆ Customer Relationship Management (CRM)
- ◆ Supply Chain Management (SCM)
- ◆ Product Lifecycle Management (PLM)

Resource Planning for Manufacturing





Material Requirements Planning (MRP)

- ◆ Computerized inventory control and production planning system
- ◆ When to use MRP?
 - Dependent demand items
 - Discrete demand items
 - Complex products
 - Job shop production
 - Assemble-to-order environments

Demand Characteristics

Independent demand

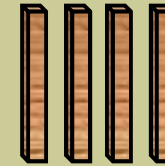


100 tables

Dependent demand

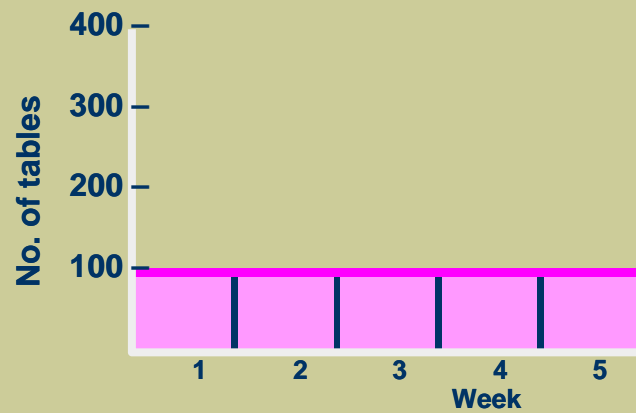


$100 \times 1 =$
100 tabletops

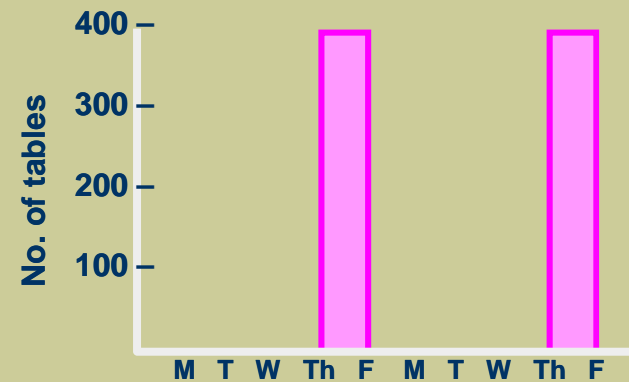


$100 \times 4 = 400$ table legs

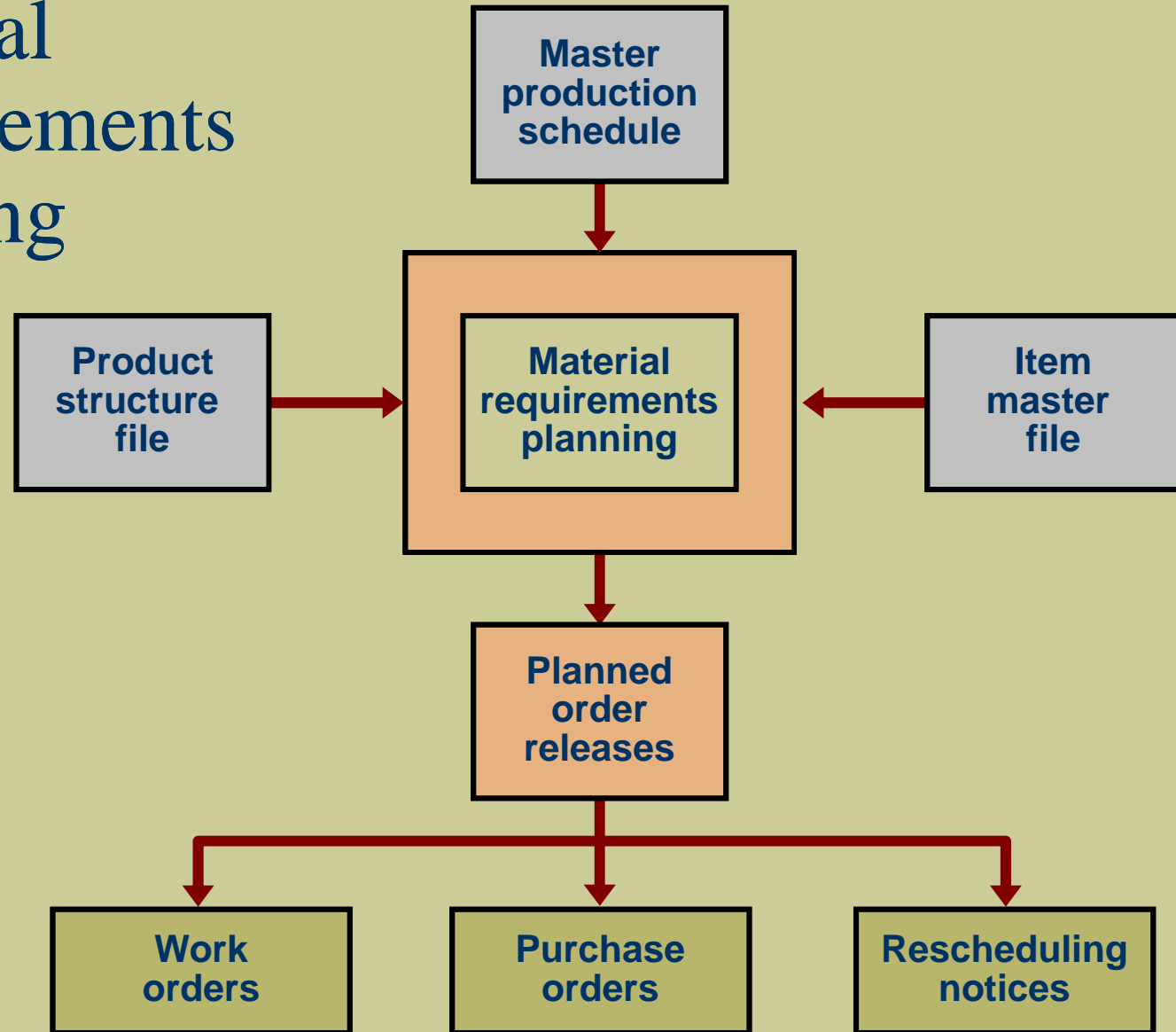
Continuous demand



Discrete demand



Material Requirements Planning



MRP Inputs and Outputs

◆ Inputs

- Master production schedule
- Product structure file
- Item master file

◆ Outputs

- Planned order releases
 - Work orders
 - Purchase orders
 - Rescheduling notices

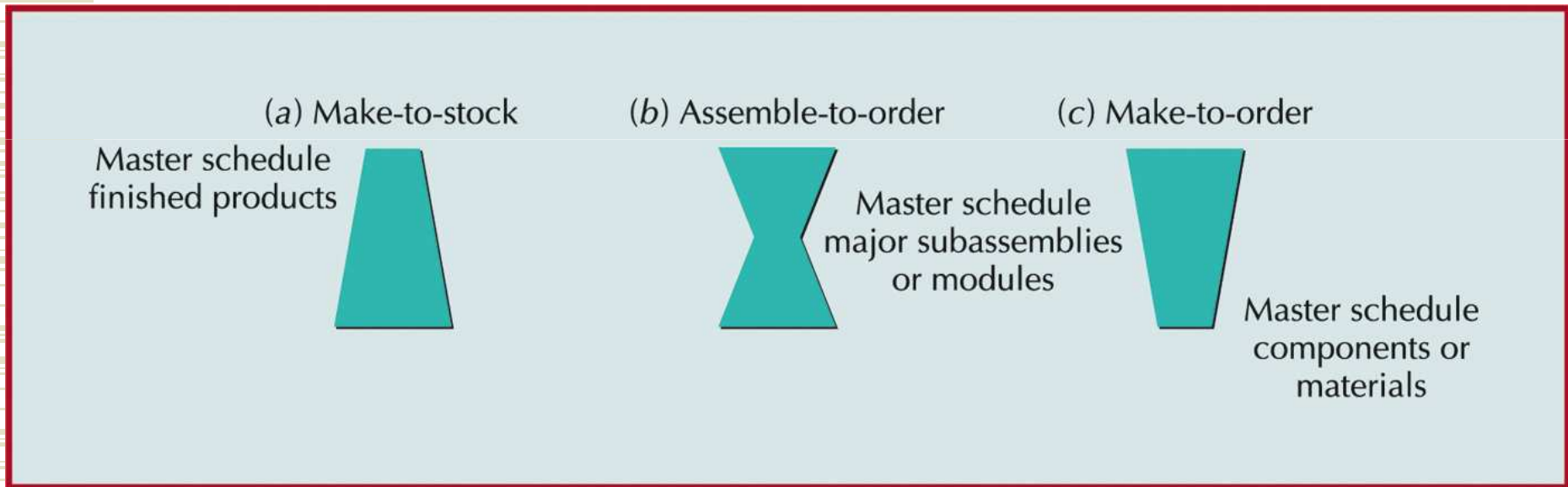
Master Production Schedule

- ◆ Drives MRP process with a schedule of finished products
- ◆ Quantities represent production not demand
- ◆ Quantities may consist of a combination of customer orders and demand forecasts
- ◆ Quantities represent what needs to be produced, not what can be produced
- ◆ Quantities represent end items that may or may not be finished products

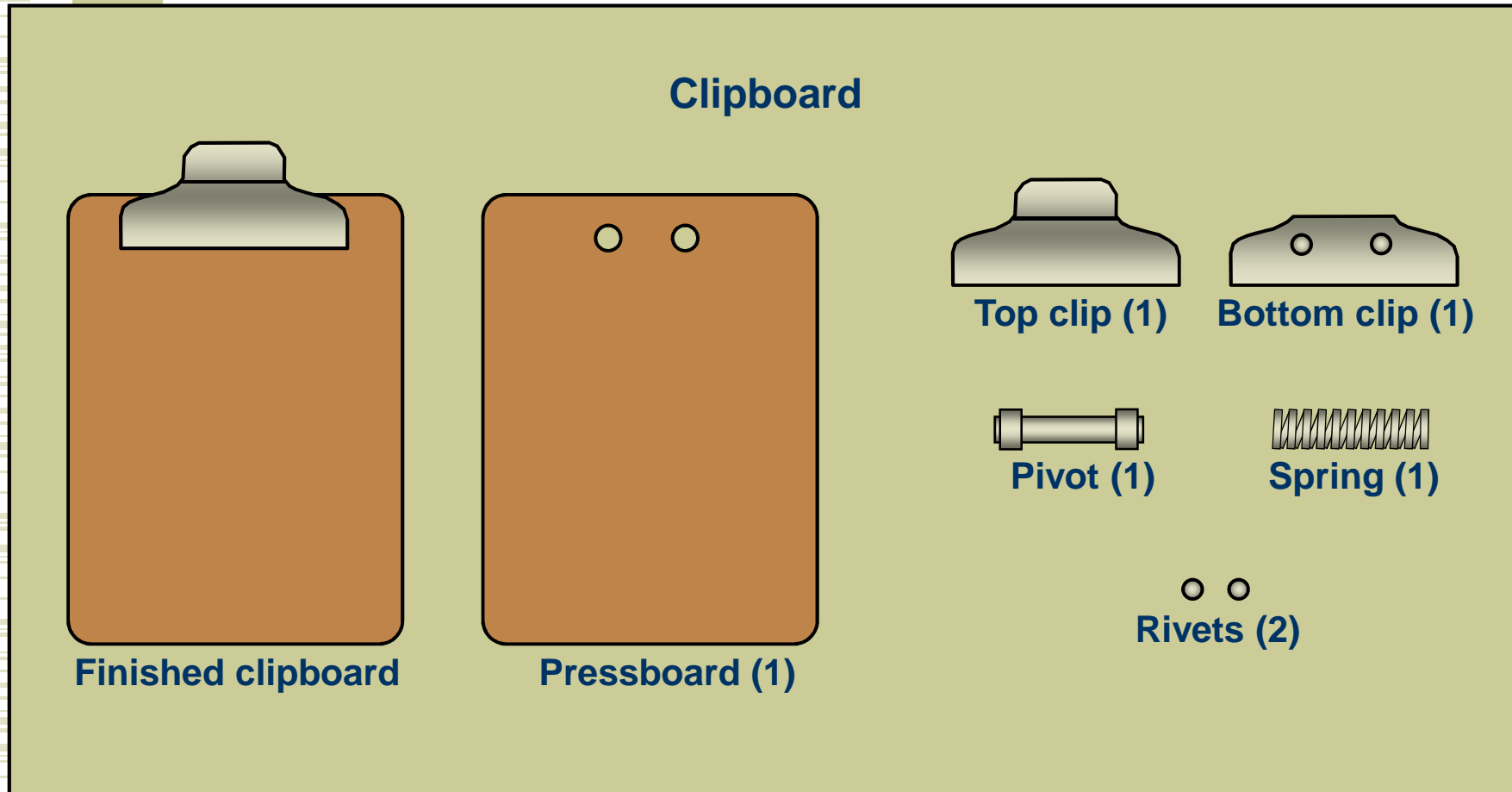
Master Production Schedule (cont.)

MPS ITEM	PERIOD				
	1	2	3	4	5
Pencil Case	125	125	125	125	125
Clipboard	85	95	120	100	100
Lapboard	75	120	47	20	17
Lapdesk	0	50	0	50	0

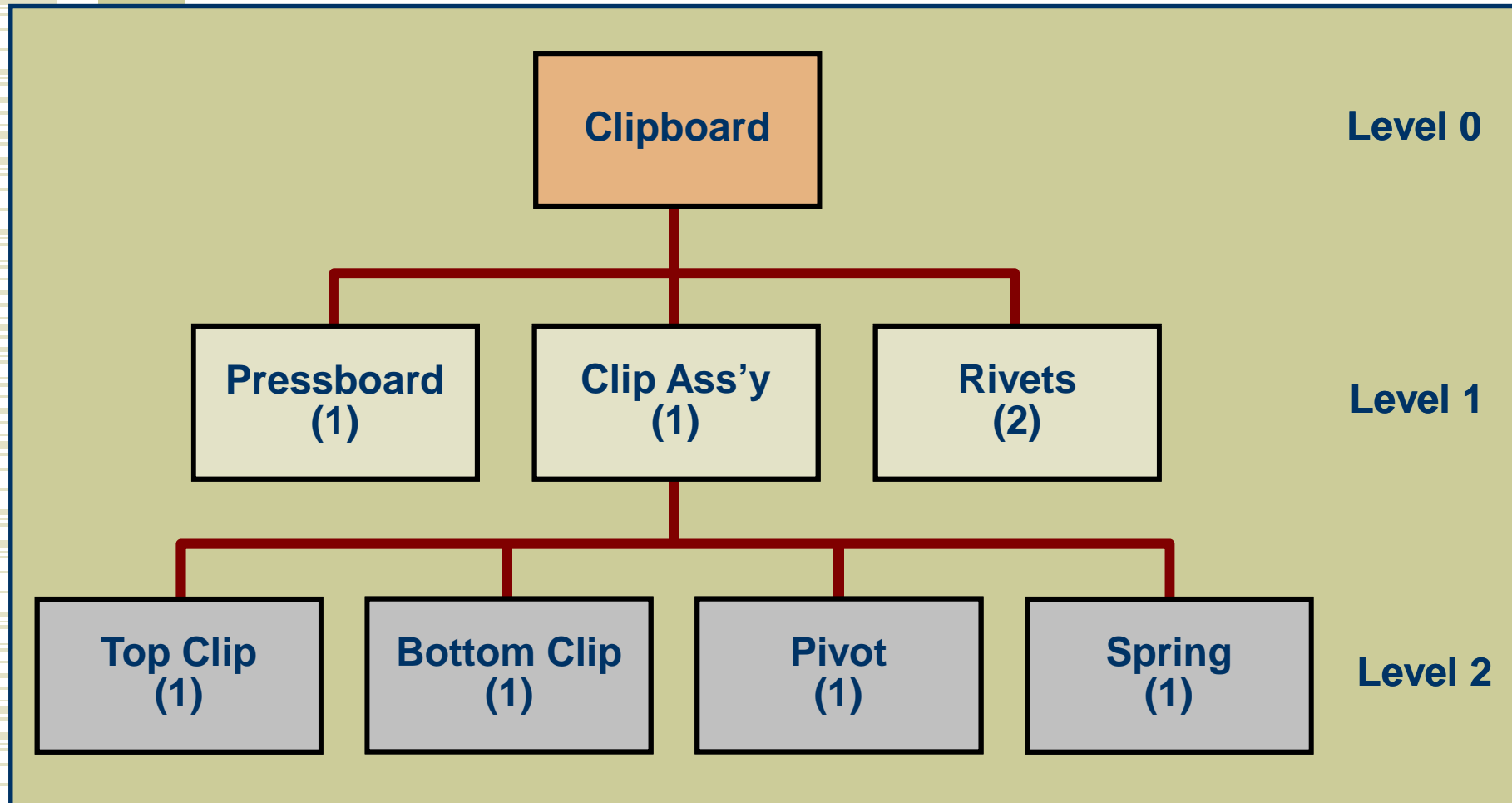
Product Structure File



Product Structure



Product Structure Tree



Multilevel Indented BOM

LEVEL	ITEM	UNIT OF MEASURE	QUANTITY
0 - - - -	Clipboard	ea	1
- 1 - - -	Clip Assembly	ea	1
- - 2 - -	Top Clip	ea	1
- - 2 - -	Bottom Clip	ea	1
- - 2 - -	Pivot	ea	1
- - 2 - -	Spring	ea	1
- 1 - - -	Rivet	ea	2
- 1 - - -	Press Board	ea	1



Specialized BOMs

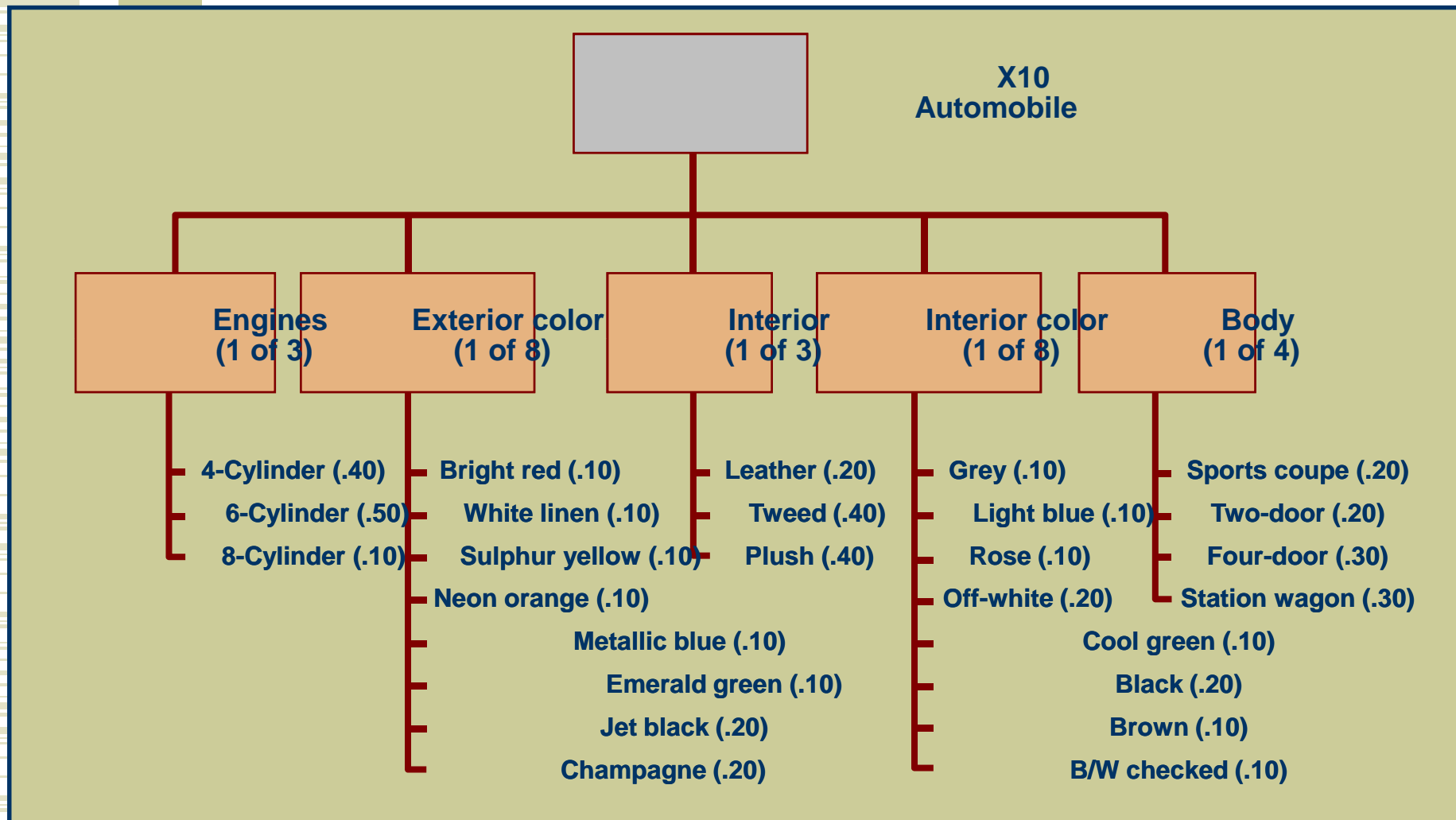
- ◆ Phantom bills
 - Transient subassemblies
 - Never stocked
 - Immediately consumed in next stage
- ◆ K-bills
 - Group small, loose parts under pseudo-item number
 - Reduces paperwork, processing time, and file space

Specialized BOMs (cont.)

◆ Modular bills

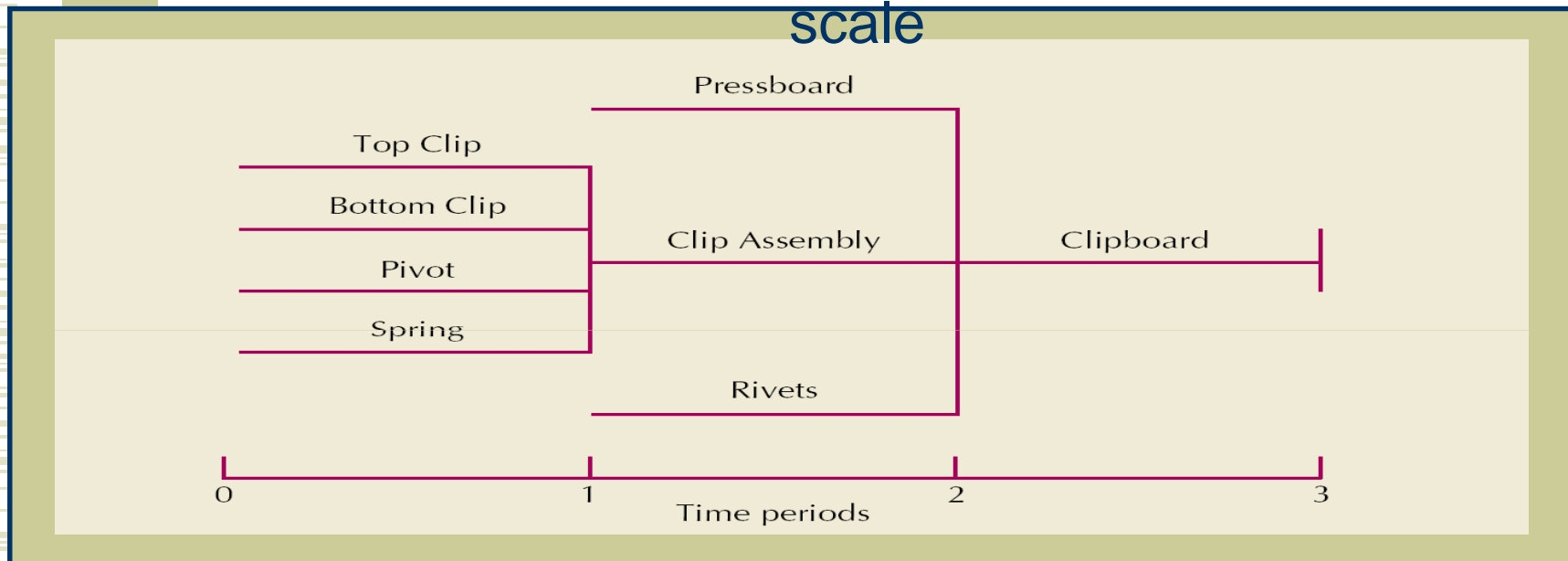
- Product assembled from major subassemblies and customer options
- Modular bill kept for each major subassembly
- Simplifies forecasting and planning
- X10 automobile example
 - $3 \times 8 \times 3 \times 8 \times 4 = 2,304$ configurations
 - $3 + 8 + 3 + 8 + 4 = 26$ modular bills

Modular BOMs



Time-phased Bills

an assembly chart shown against a time scale



Forward scheduling: start at today's date and schedule forward to determine the earliest date the job can be finished. If each item takes one period to complete, the clipboards can be finished in three periods

Backward scheduling: start at the due date and schedule backwards to determine when to begin work. If an order for clipboards is due by period three, we should start production now

Item Master File

DESCRIPTION		INVENTORY POLICY	
Item	Pressboard	Lead time	1
Item no.	7341	Annual demand	5000
Item type	Purch	Holding cost	1
Product/sales class	Comp	Ordering/setup cost	50
Value class	B	Safety stock	0
Buyer/planner	RSR	Reorder point	39
Vendor/drawing	07142	EOQ	316
Phantom code	N	Minimum order qty	100
Unit price/cost	1.25	Maximum order qty	500
Pegging	Y	Multiple order qty	1
LLC	1	Policy code	3

Item Master File (cont.)

PHYSICAL INVENTORY		USAGE/SALES	
On hand	150	YTD usage/sales	1100
Location	W142	MTD usage/sales	75
On order	100	YTD receipts	1200
Allocated	75	MTD receipts	0
Cycle	3	Last receipt	8/25
Last count	9/5	Last issue	10/5
Difference	-2	CODES	
		Cost acct.	00754
		Routing	00326
		Engr	07142

MRP Processes

- ◆ Exploding the bill of material
- ◆ Netting out inventory
- ◆ Lot sizing
- ◆ Time-phasing requirements
- ◆ Netting
 - process of subtracting on-hand quantities and scheduled receipts from gross requirements to produce net requirements
- ◆ Lot sizing
 - determining the quantities in which items are usually made or purchased

MRP Matrix

Item	LLC	Period				
		1	2	3	4	5
Lot size	LT					
Gross Requirements		<i>Derived from MPS or planned order releases of the parent</i>				
Scheduled Receipts		<i>On order and scheduled to be received</i>				
Projected on Hand	Beg Inv	<i>Anticipated quantity on hand at the end of the period</i>				
Net Requirements		<i>Gross requirements net of inventory and scheduled receipts</i>				
Planned Order Receipts		<i>When orders need to be received</i>				
Planned Order Releases		<i>When orders need to be placed to be received on time</i>				

MRP: Example

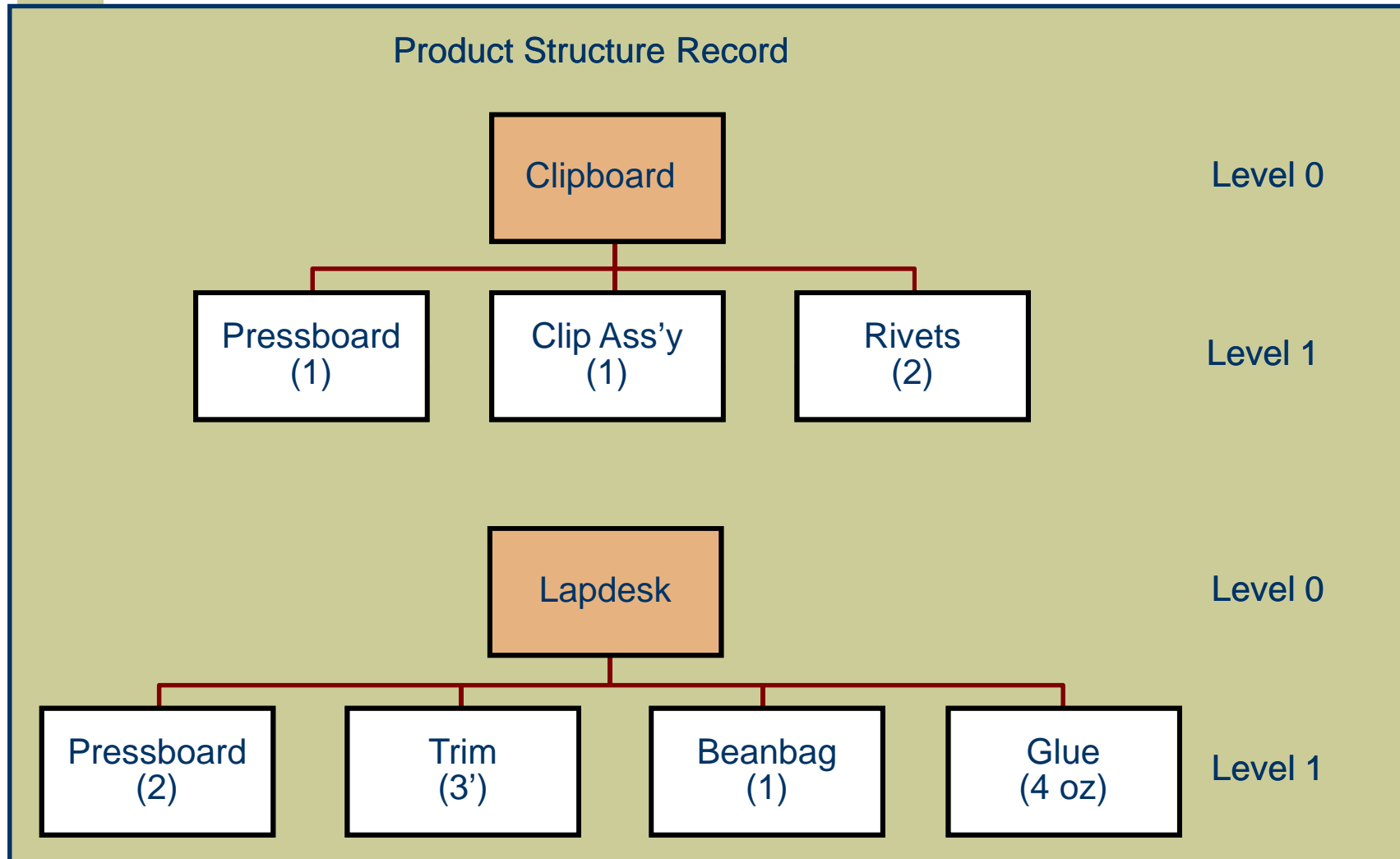
Master Production Schedule

	1	2	3	4	5
Clipboard	85	95	120	100	100
Lapdesk	0	60	0	60	0

Item Master File

	CLIPBOARD	LAPDESK	PRESSBOARD
On hand	25	20	150
On order	175 (Period 1) (sch receipt)	0	0
LLC	0	0	1
Lot size	L4L	Mult 50	Min 100
Lead time	1	1	1

MRP: Example (cont.)



MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements		85	95	120	100	100
Scheduled Receipts				175		
Projected on Hand		25				
Net Requirements						
Planned Order Receipts						
Planned Order Releases						

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD LOT SIZE: L4L	LLC: 0 LT: 1	PERIOD				
		1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements		85	95	120	100	100
Scheduled Receipts				175		
Projected on Hand		25	115			
Net Requirements				0		
Planned Order Receipts						
Planned Order Releases						

$(25 + 175) = 200$ units available
 $(200 - 85) = 115$ on hand at the end of Period 1

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L		LT: 1		1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements				85	95	120	100	100
Scheduled Receipts						175		
Projected on Hand		25		115	20			
Net Requirements					0	0		
Planned Order Receipts								
Planned Order Releases								

115 units available
(115 - 85) = 20 on hand at the end of Period 2

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements		85	95	120	100	100
Scheduled Receipts				175		
Projected on Hand	25	115	20	0		
Net Requirements			0	0	100	
Planned Order Receipts					100	
Planned Order Releases				100		

20 units available

$(20 - 120) = -100$ — 100 additional Clipboards are required
 Order must be placed in Period 2 to be received in Period 3

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L		LT: 1		1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements				85	95	120	100	100
Scheduled Receipts						175		
Projected on Hand		25		115	20	0	0	0
Net Requirements				0	0	100	100	100
Planned Order Receipts						100	100	100
Planned Order Releases					100	100	100	

Following the same logic Gross Requirements in Periods 4 and 5 develop Net Requirements, Planned Order Receipts, and Planned Order Releases

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: LAPDESK	LLC: 0	PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MULT 50	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements		0	60	0	60	0
Scheduled Receipts						
Projected on Hand		20				
Net Requirements						
Planned Order Receipts						
Planned Order Releases						

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: LAPDESK		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MULT 50		LT: 1		1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements				0	60	0	60	0
Scheduled Receipts								
Projected on Hand	20	20	10	10	0	0		
Net Requirements				0	40		50	
Planned Order Receipts					50		50	
Planned Order Releases				50		50		

Following the same logic, the Lapdesk MRP matrix is completed as shown

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Planned Order Releases			100	100	100			
ITEM: LAPDESK		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MULT 50	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Planned Order Releases			50		50			
ITEM: PRESSBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MIN 100	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Gross Requirements								
Scheduled Receipts								
Projected on Hand		150						
Net Requirements								
Planned Order Receipts								
Planned Order Releases								

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD	LLC: 0	PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Planned Order Releases			100	100	100	
ITEM: LAPDESK	LLC: 0	X1	PERIOD			X1
LOT SIZE: MULT 50	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Planned Order Releases		50		50		
ITEM: PRESSBOARD	LLC: 0	X2	X2	PERIOD		
LOT SIZE: MIN 100	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements		100	100	200	100	0
Scheduled Receipts						
Projected on Hand		150				
Net Requirements						
Planned Order Receipts						
Planned Order Releases						

MRP: Example (cont.)

ITEM: CLIPBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: L4L	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Planned Order Releases			100	100	100			

ITEM: LAPDESK		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MULT 50	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Planned Order Releases		50		50				

ITEM: PRESSBOARD		LLC: 0		PERIOD				
LOT SIZE: MIN 100	LT: 1	1	2	3	4	5		
Gross Requirements		100	100	200	100	0		
Scheduled Receipts								
Projected on Hand	150	50	50	0	0	0		
Net Requirements				50	150	100		
Planned Order Receipts				100	150	100		
Planned Order Releases		100	150	100				

MRP: Example (cont.)

Planned Order Report

ITEM	PERIOD				
	1	2	3	4	5
Clipboard		100	100	100	
Lapdesk		50		50	
Pressboard		100	150	100	



Lot Sizing in MRP Systems

- ◆ Lot-for-lot ordering policy
- ◆ Fixed-size lot ordering policy
 - Minimum order quantities
 - Maximum order quantities
 - Multiple order quantities
 - Economic order quantity
 - Periodic order quantity

Using Excel for MRP Calculations

Microsoft Excel - Exhibit 14.1

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help MRP

S47

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
1																				
2	Example 14.1 - School Mate Products																			
3	INPUT										CALCULATIONS									
4	Master Production Schedule																			
5	Item no.	Item	1	2	3	4	5													
6	1	Clipboard	85	95	120	100	100													
7	2	Lapdesk	0	60	0	60	0													
8	Scheduled Receipts																			
9	Item no.	Item	1	2	3	4	5													
10	1	Clipboard	175																	
11	2	Lapdesk																		
12	3	Pressboard																		
13	Item Master File																			
14	Item no.	Item	LLC	LT	Lot Size	On Hand														
15	1	Clipboard	0	1	L4L	1	25													
16	2	Lapdesk	0	1	Mult	50	20													
17	3	Pressboard	1	1	Min	100	150													
18	Product Structure File																			
19	Level	Item	No.	Qty*																
20	0	Clipboard	1																	
21	1	Pressboard	3	1																
22	0	Lapdesk	2																	
23	1	Pressboard	3	2																
24	* quantity per next level of assembly																			
25																				
26																				
27																				
28																				
29																				
30																				
31																				
32																				
33																				
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37																				
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39																				
40																				
41																				
42																				
43																				

Advanced Lot Sizing Rules: L4L

Period	1	2	3	4	5
Gross Requirements	30	50	20	10	40

$$C_o = \$60$$

$$C_c = \$1$$

$$\bar{d} = (30 + 50 + 20 + 10 + 40)/5 = 30$$

Item: Rod	LLC: 0	Period				
		1	2	3	4	5
Lot size: L4L	LT: 1					
Gross Requirements		30	50	20	10	40
Scheduled Receipts						
Projected on hand	30	0	0	0	0	0
Net Requirements			50	20	10	40
Planned Order Receipts			50	20	10	40
Planned Order Releases		50	20	10	40	

$$\text{Total cost of L4L} = (4 \times \$60) + (0 \times \$1) = \$240$$

Advanced Lot Sizing Rules: EOQ

$$EOQ = \sqrt{\frac{2(30)(60)}{1}} = 60 \quad \text{minimum order quantity}$$

Item: Rod	LLC: 0	Period				
Lot size: EOQ 60	LT: 1	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
Gross Requirements		30	50	20	10	40
Scheduled Receipts						
Projected on hand	30	0	10	50	40	0
Net Requirements			50	10		
Planned Order Receipts			60	60		
Planned Order Releases		60	60			

$$\text{Total cost of EOQ} = (2 \times \$60) + [(10 + 50 + 40) \times \$1] = \$220$$

Advanced Lot Sizing Rules: POQ

$$POQ = Q / \bar{d} = 60 / 30 = 2 \text{ periods worth of requirements}$$

Item: Rod	LLC: 0	Period				
		1	2	3	4	5
Lot size: POQ 2	LT: 1					
Gross Requirements		30	50	20	10	40
Scheduled Receipts						
Projected on hand	30	0	20	0	40	0
Net Requirements			50		10	
Planned Order Receipts			70		50	
Planned Order Releases		70		50		

$$\text{Total cost of POQ} = (2 \times \$60) + [(20 + 40) \times \$1] = \$180$$

Planned Order Report

Item	#2740	Date	9 - 25 - 05
On hand	100	Lead time	2 weeks
On order	200	Lot size	200
Allocated	50	Safety stock	50

DATE	ORDER NO.	GROSS REQS.	SCHEDULED RECEIPTS	PROJECTED ON HAND	ACTION
					50
	9-26	AL 4416	25		25
	9-30	AL 4174	25		0
	10-01	GR 6470	50		- 50
10-08	SR 7542		200	150	Expedite SR 10-01
	10-10	CO 4471	75		75
	10-15	GR 6471	50		25
	10-23	GR 6471	25		0
10-27	GR 6473	50		- 50	Release PO 10-13

Key: AL = allocated WO = work order
 CO = customer order SR = scheduled receipt
 PO = purchase order GR = gross requirement

MRP Action Report

Current date 9-25-08

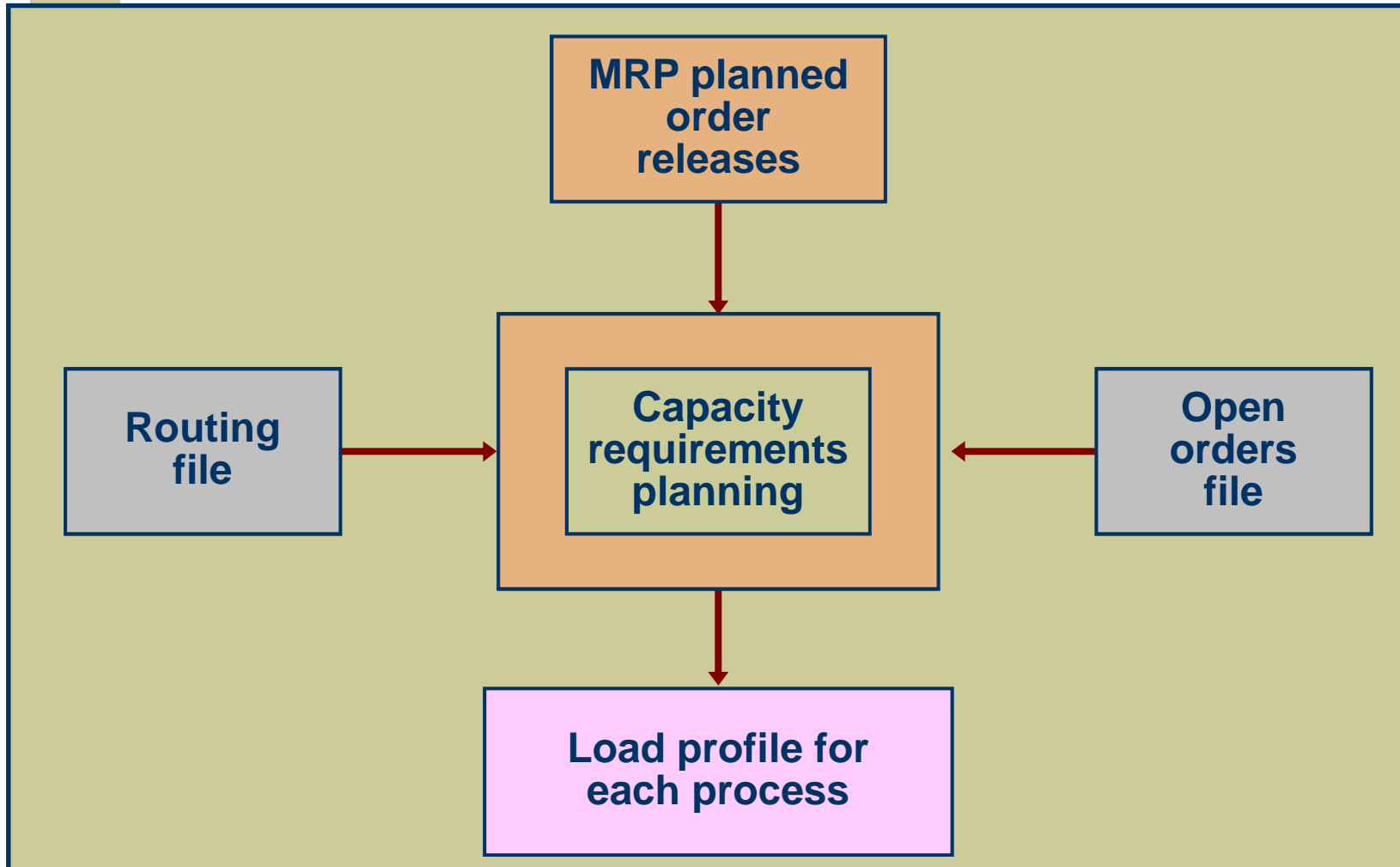
ITEM	DATE	ORDER NO.	QTY.		ACTION	
#2740	10-08	7542	200	Expedite	SR	10-01
#3616	10-09			Move forward	PO	10-07
#2412	10-10			Move forward	PO	10-05
#3427	10-15			Move backward	PO	10-25
#2516	10-20	7648	100	De-expedite	SR	10-30
#2740	10-27		200	Release	PO	10-13
#3666	10-31		50	Release	WO	10-24



Capacity Requirements Planning (CRP)

- ◆ Creates a load profile
- ◆ Identifies under-loads and over-loads
- ◆ Inputs
 - Planned order releases
 - Routing file
 - Open orders file

CRP



Calculating Capacity

- ◆ Maximum capability to produce
- ◆ Rated Capacity
 - Theoretical output that could be attained if a process were operating at full speed without interruption, exceptions, or downtime
- ◆ Effective Capacity
 - Takes into account the efficiency with which a particular product or customer can be processed and the utilization of the scheduled hours or work

Effective Daily Capacity = (no. of machines or workers) x
(hours per shift) x (no. of shifts) x (utilization) x (efficiency)

Calculating Capacity (cont.)

- ◆ Utilization
 - Percent of available time spent working
- ◆ Efficiency
 - How well a machine or worker performs compared to a standard output level
- ◆ Load
 - Standard hours of work assigned to a facility
- ◆ Load Percent
 - Ratio of load to capacity

$$\text{Load Percent} = \frac{\text{load}}{\text{capacity}} \times 100\%$$



Load Profiles



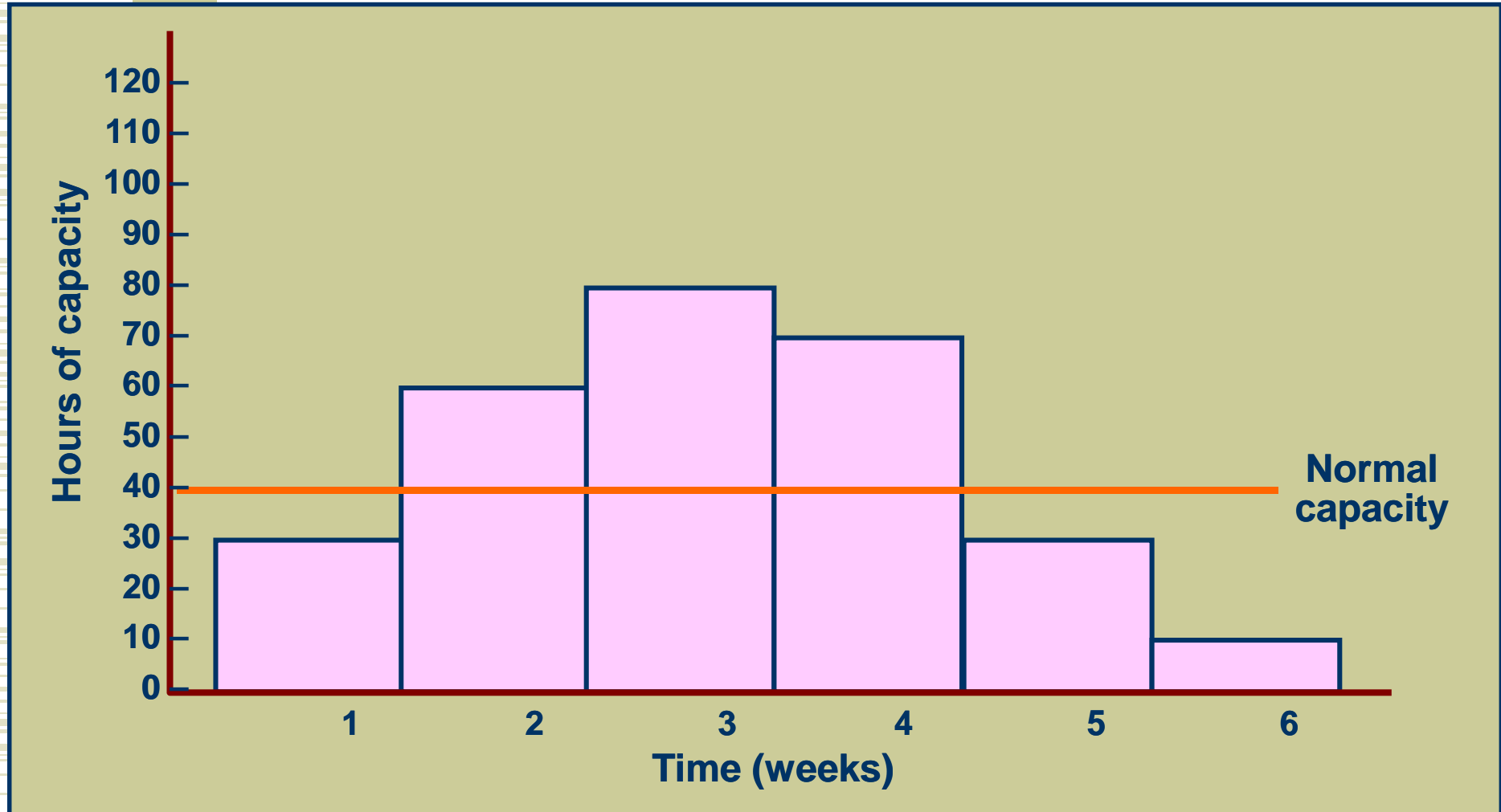
- ◆ graphical comparison of load versus capacity
- ◆ Leveling underloaded conditions:
 - Acquire more work
 - Pull work ahead that is scheduled for later time periods
 - Reduce normal capacity



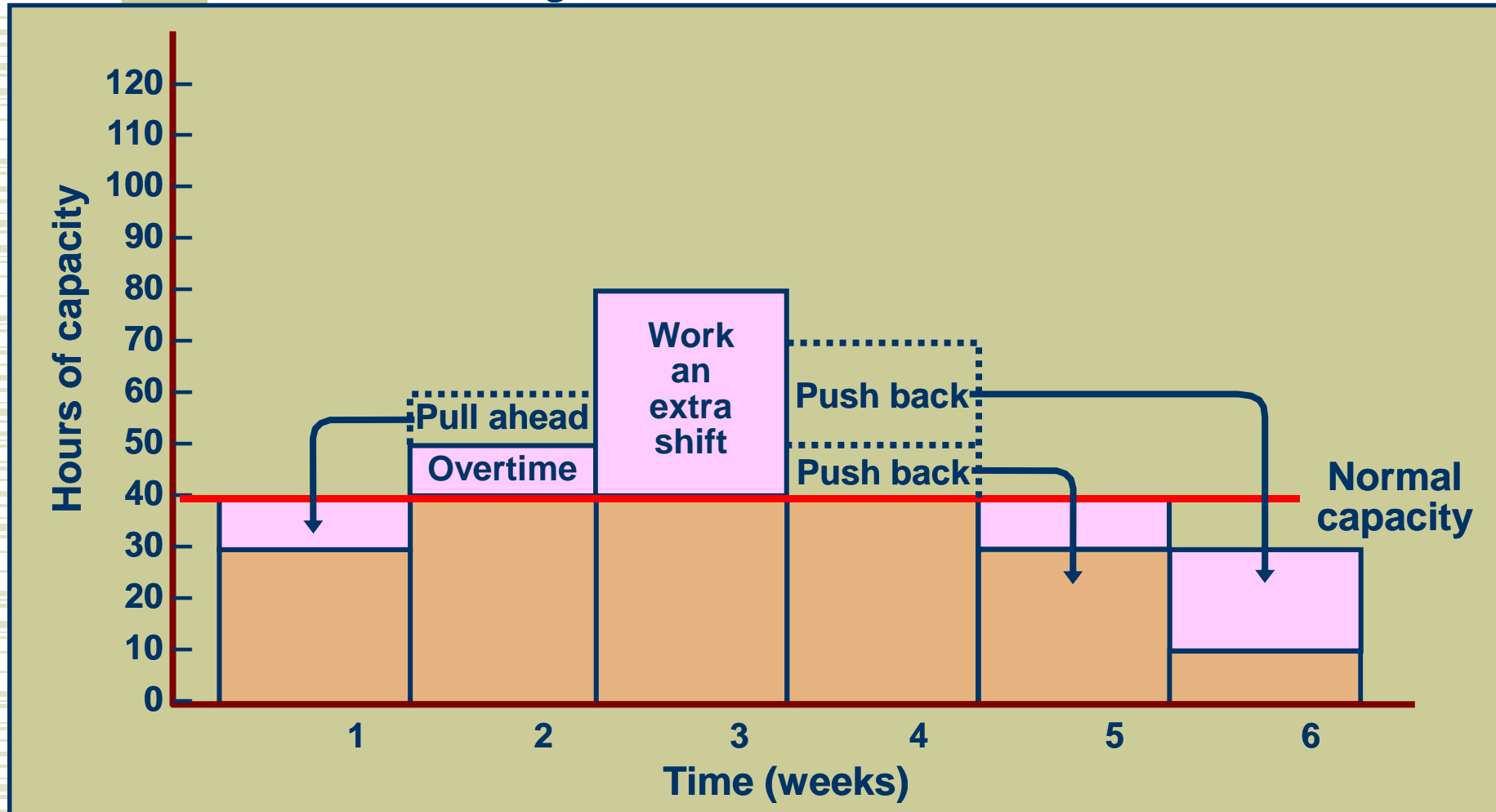
Reducing Over-load Conditions

1. Eliminating unnecessary requirements
2. Rerouting jobs to alternative machines, workers, or work centers
3. Splitting lots between two or more machines
4. Increasing normal capacity
5. Subcontracting
6. Increasing efficiency of the operation
7. Pushing work back to later time periods
8. Revising master schedule

Initial Load Profile



Adjusted Load Profile



- ◆ Load leveling
 - process of balancing underloads and overloads



Relaxing MRP Assumptions

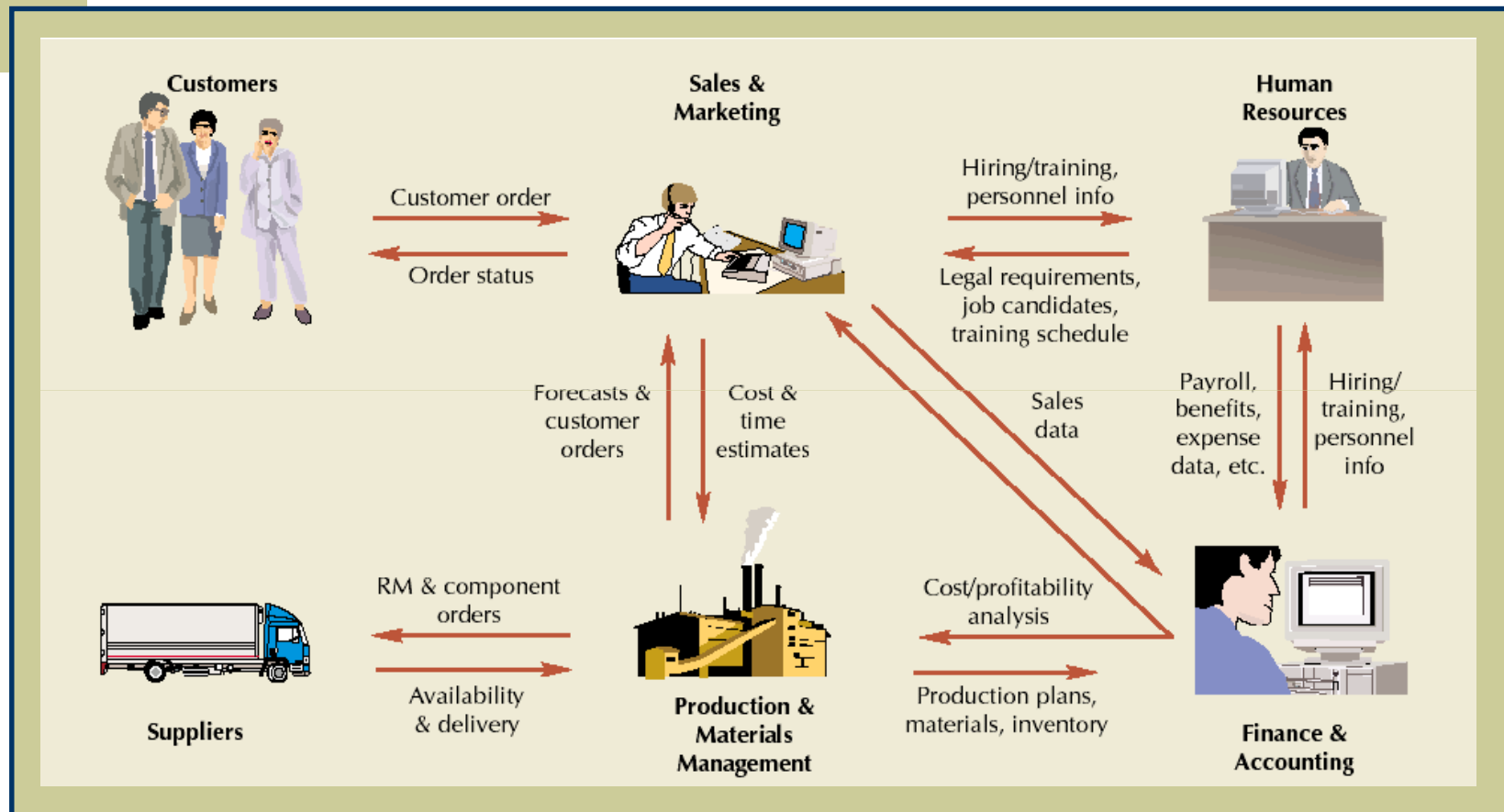
- ◆ Material is not always the most constraining resource
- ◆ Lead times can vary
- ◆ Not every transaction needs to be recorded
- ◆ Shop floor may require a more sophisticated scheduling system
- ◆ Scheduling in advance may not be appropriate for on-demand production.



Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP)

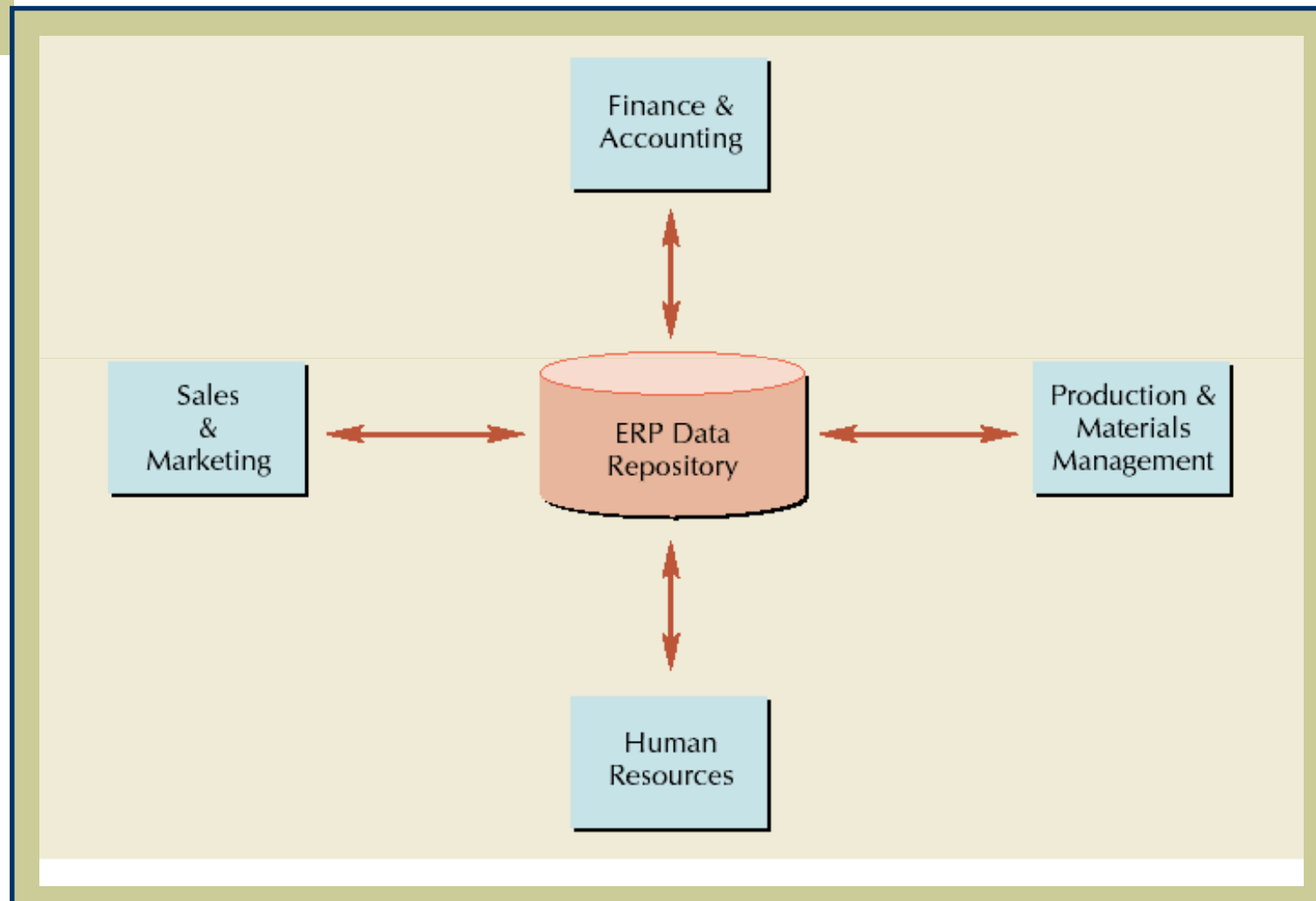
- ◆ Software that organizes and manages a company's business processes by
 - sharing information across functional areas
 - integrating business processes
 - facilitating customer interaction
 - providing benefit to global companies

Organizational Data Flows



Source: Adapted from Joseph Brady, Ellen Monk, and Bret Wagner, *Concepts in Enterprise Resource Planning* (Boston: Course Technology, 2001), pp. 7–12

ERP's Central Database



Selected Enterprise Software Vendors

Vendor	Specialty
1. SAP	Large enterprise discrete manufacturing ERP, SCM
2. Oracle Corp.	Large enterprise discrete manufacturing and services
3. Oracle's PeopleSoft	Human resources and employee relationship management
4. Oracle's Siebel Systems	Customer relationship management (CRM)
5. i2 Technologies	Supply chain management (SCM)
6. PTC, EDS, Dassault Systems	Product life cycle management (PLM)
7. Siemens Energy & Automation	Manufacturing execution systems (MES)
8. SCT	Process industry; education; energy
9. QAD	Multinational midmarket manufacturing
10. Microsoft Dynamics	Small to midmarket CRP, CRM



ERP Implementation



- ◆ Analyze business processes
- ◆ Choose modules to implement
 - Which processes have the biggest impact on customer relations?
 - Which process would benefit the most from integration?
 - Which processes should be standardized?
- ◆ Align level of sophistication
- ◆ Finalize delivery and access
- ◆ Link with external partners



Customer Relationship Management (CRM)

- ◆ Software that
 - Plans and executes business processes
 - Involves customer interaction
 - Changes focus from managing products to managing customers
 - Analyzes point-of-sale data for patterns used to predict future behavior



Supply Chain Management

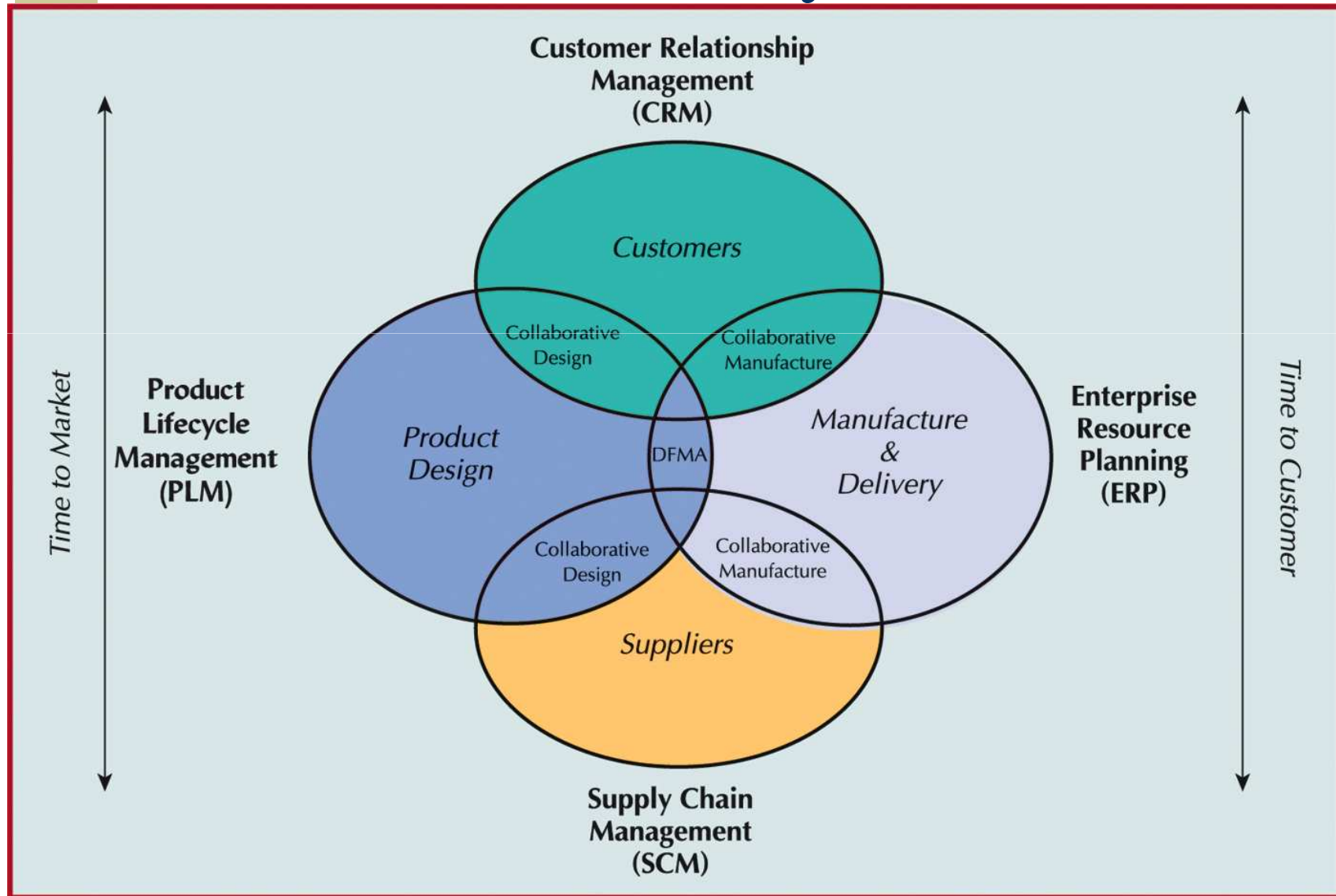
- ◆ Software that plans and executes business processes related to supply chains
- ◆ Includes
 - Supply chain planning
 - Supply chain execution
 - Supplier relationship management
- ◆ Distinctions between ERP and SCM are becoming increasingly blurred



Product Lifecycle Management (PLM)

- ◆ Software that
 - Incorporates new product design and development and product life cycle management
 - Integrates customers and suppliers in the design process though the entire product life cycle

ERP and Software Systems



Connectivity

- ◆ Application programming interfaces (APIs)
 - give other programs well-defined ways of speaking to them
- ◆ Enterprise Application Integration (EAI) solutions
- ◆ EDI is being replaced by XML, business language of Internet
- ◆ Service-oriented architecture (SOA)
 - collection of “services” that communicate with each other within software or between software



Chapter 16

Lean Systems

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





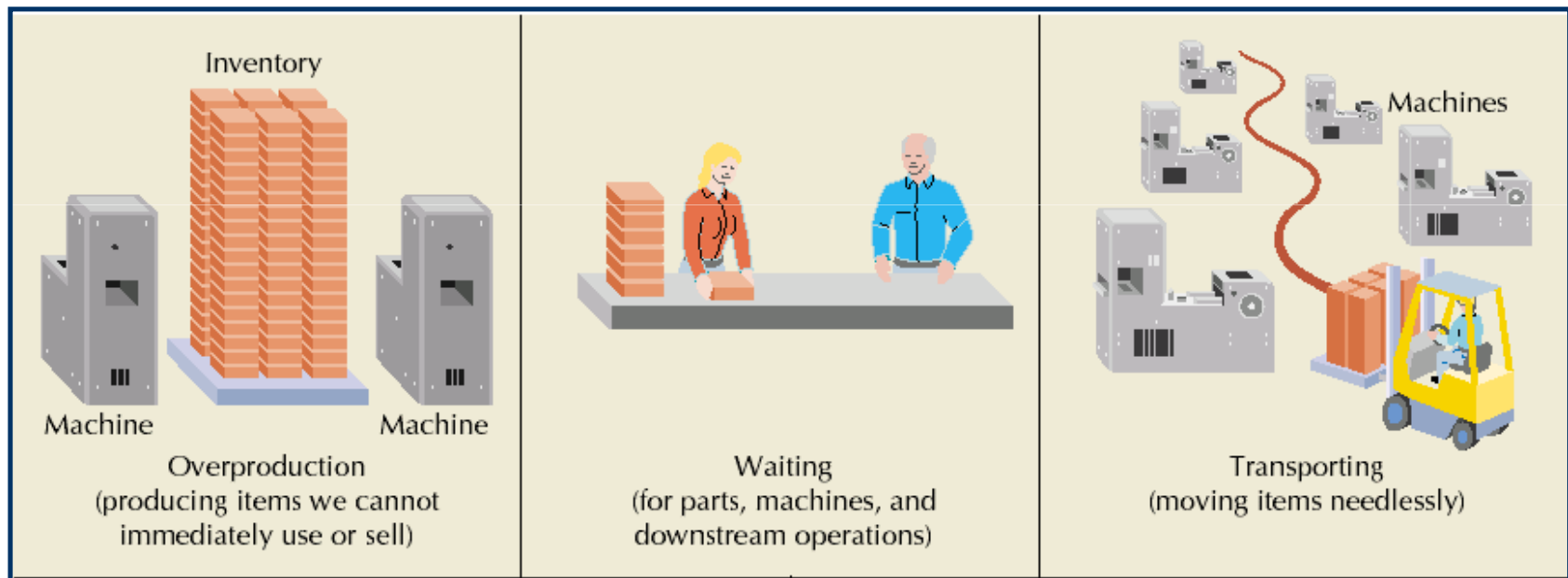
Lecture Outline

- ◆ Basic Elements of Lean Production
- ◆ Benefits of Lean Production
- ◆ Implementing Lean Production
- ◆ Lean Services
- ◆ Leaning the Supply Chain
- ◆ Lean Six Sigma
- ◆ Lean and the Environment
- ◆ Lean Consumption

Lean Production

- ◆ Doing more with less inventory, fewer workers, less space
- ◆ Just-in-time (JIT)
 - smoothing the *flow* of material to arrive just as it is needed
 - “JIT” and “Lean Production” are used interchangeably
- ◆ Muda
 - waste, anything other than that which adds value to product or service

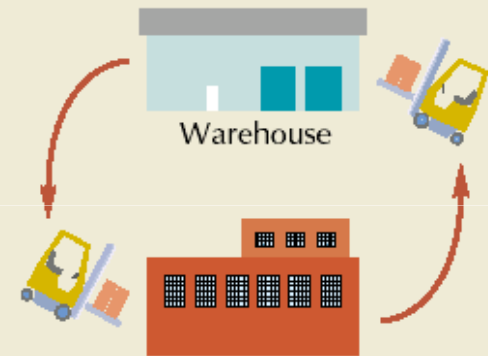
Waste in Operations



Waste in Operations (cont.)



Processing
(unnecessary steps that
do not add value)

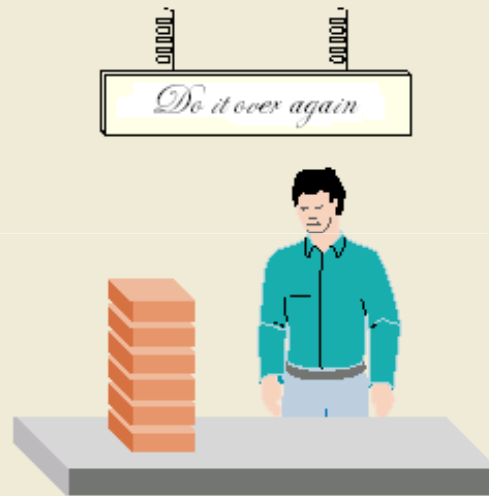


Warehouse
Factory
Inventory
(storing, retrieving, counting,
insuring, taking up space & money)

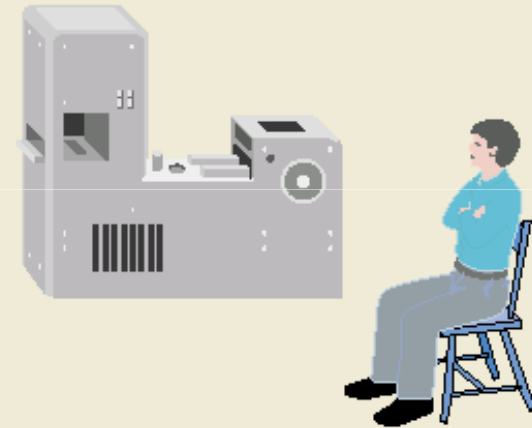
Waste in Operations (cont.)



Movement
(searching for tools, parts,
instruction, approval)



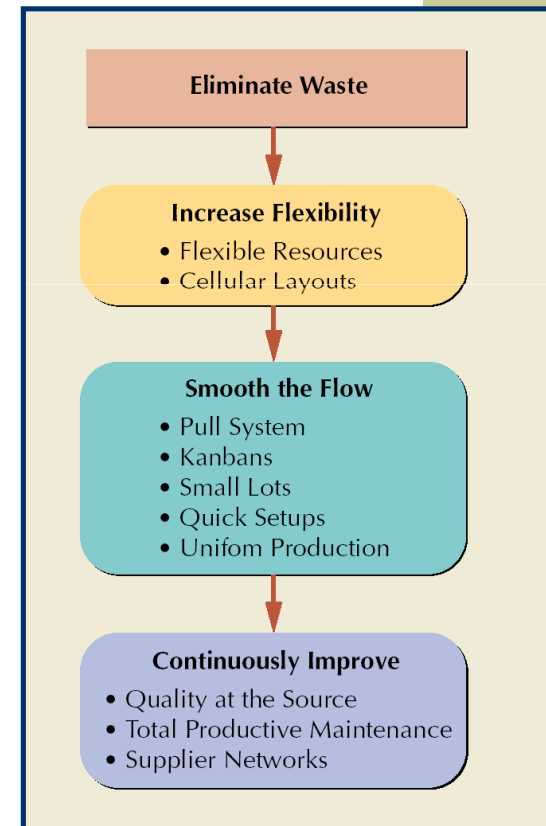
Defects
(rework and scrap)



Talent
(underutilization of worker
knowledge and skills)

Basic Elements

1. Flexible resources
2. Cellular layouts
3. Pull system
4. Kanbans
5. Small lots
6. Quick setups
7. Uniform production levels
8. Quality at the source
9. Total productive maintenance
10. Supplier networks



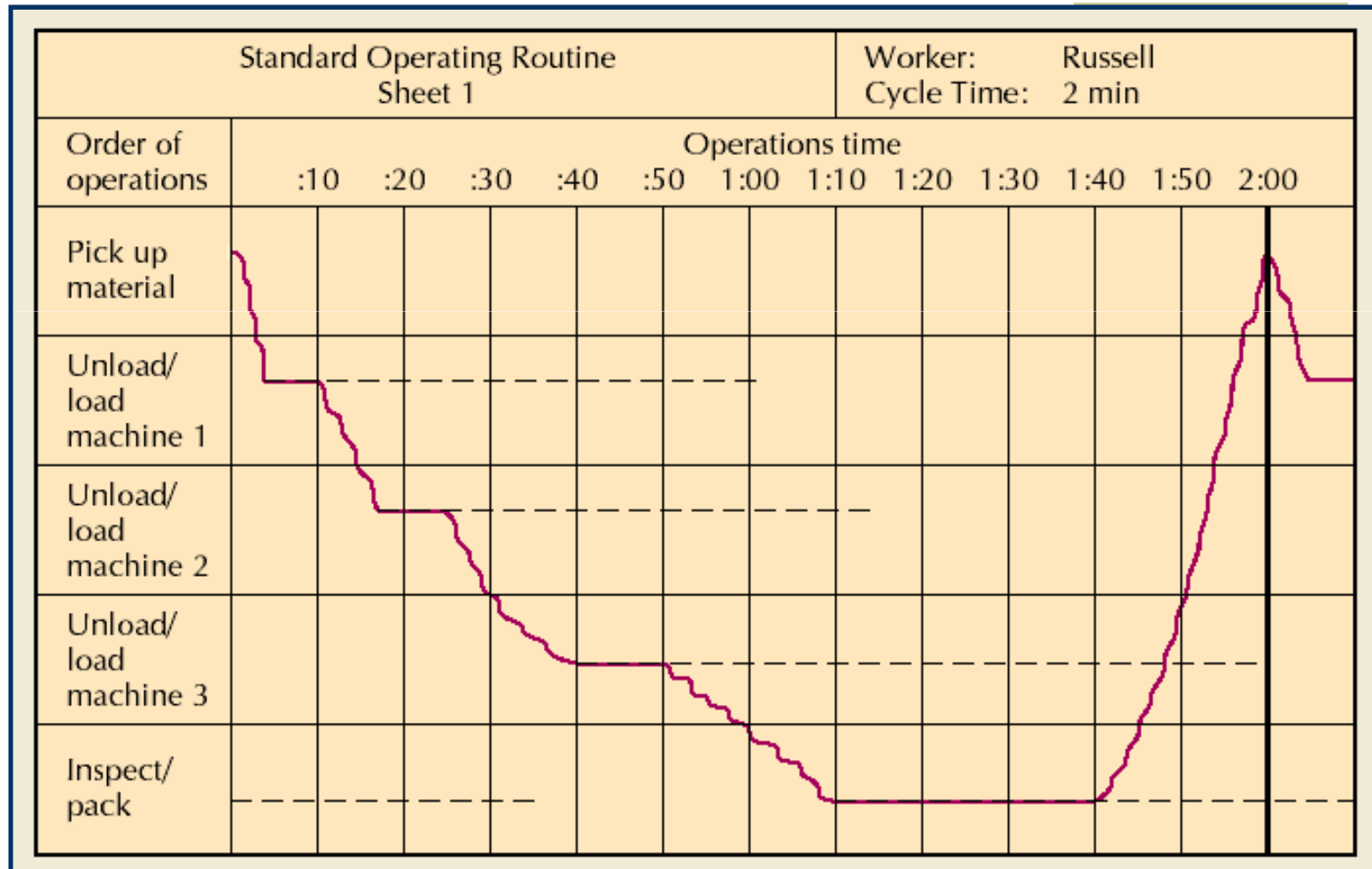


Flexible Resources



- ◆ Multifunctional workers
 - perform more than one job
 - general-purpose machines perform several basic functions
- ◆ Cycle time
 - time required for the worker to complete one pass through the operations assigned
- ◆ Takt time
 - paces production to customer demand

Standard Operating Routine for a Worker

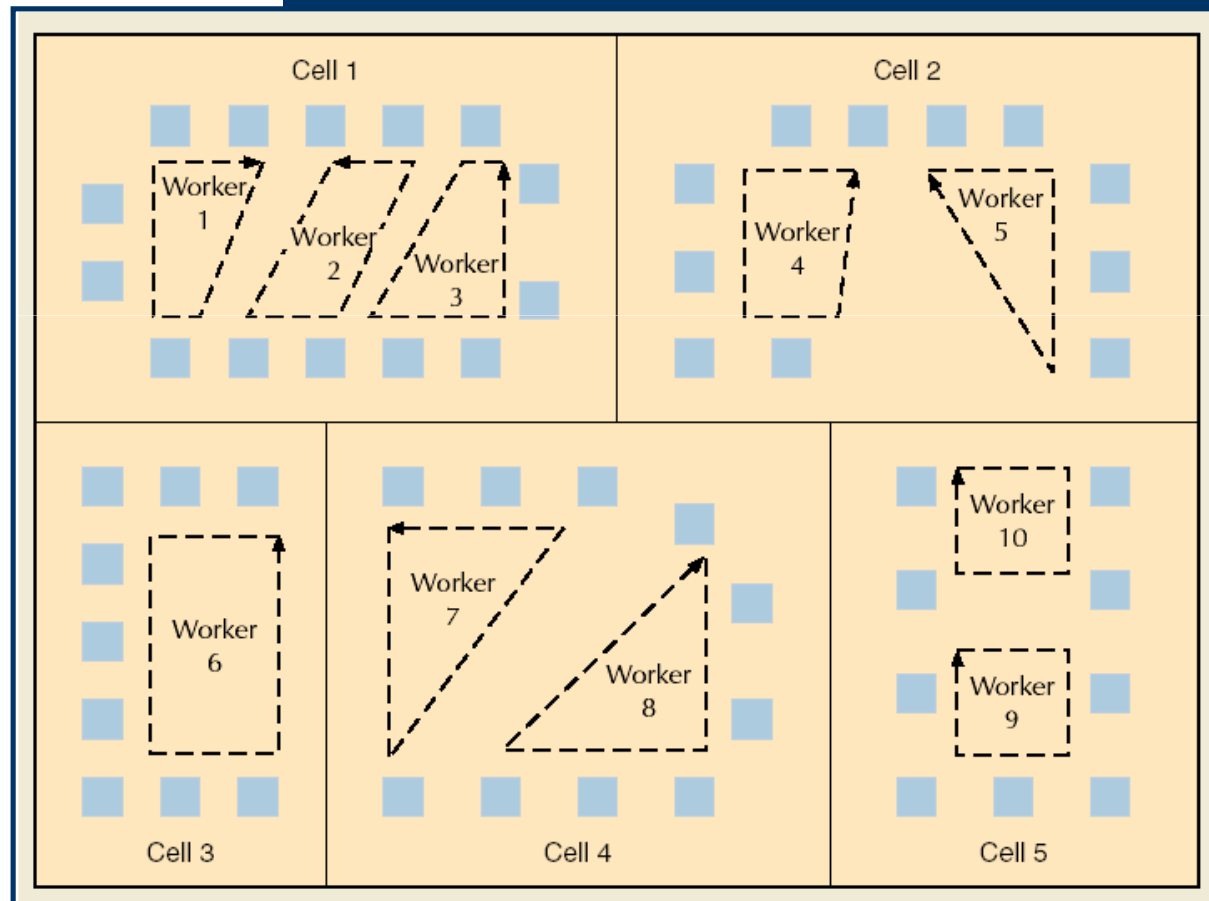




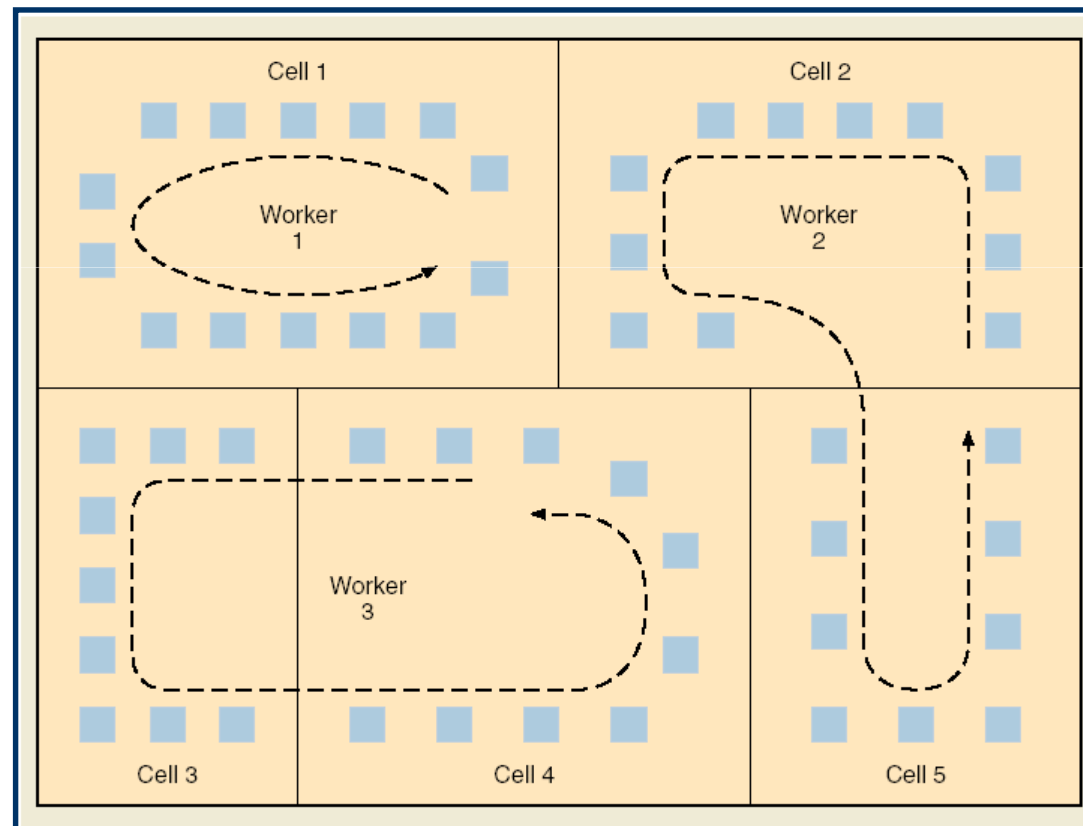
Cellular Layouts

- ◆ Manufacturing cells
 - comprised of dissimilar machines brought together to manufacture a family of parts
- ◆ Cycle time is adjusted to match takt time by changing worker paths

Cells with Worker Routes



Worker Routes Lengthen as Volume Decreases





Pull System

- ◆ Material is pulled through the system when needed
- ◆ Reversal of traditional push system where material is pushed according to a schedule
- ◆ Forces cooperation
- ◆ Prevent over and underproduction
- ◆ While push systems rely on a predetermined schedule, pull systems rely on customer requests



Kanbans

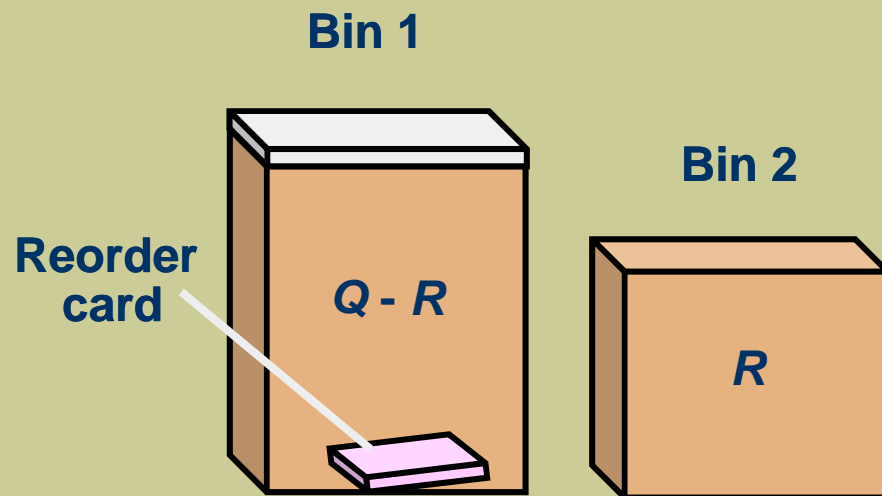
- ◆ Card which indicates standard quantity of production
- ◆ Derived from two-bin inventory system
- ◆ Maintain discipline of pull production
- ◆ Authorize production and movement of goods

Sample Kanban

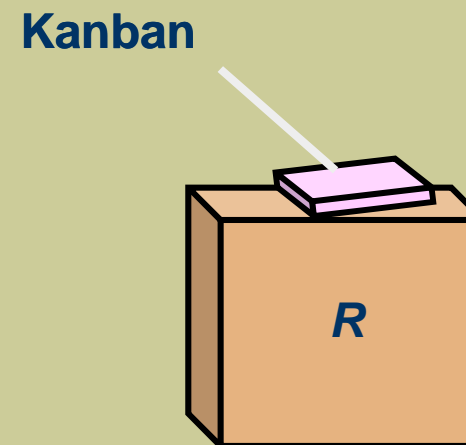
STORE ADDRESS		KANBAN NO		LINE SIDE ADDRESS	
1	57-B-NB	N762		2W-10-3	
PART NO		ROUTE		GROUP CODE	
22020-03011-00		F-1		IA520	
PART DESCRIPTION		DOCK CODE		N2	
METER ASSY AIR FLOW/V-AIR CLEA					
SUPPLIER		QTY / CONT		SERIAL NO	
NIPPONDENSO PURCENSO		1950-5 4		345	

Origin of Kanban

a) Two-bin inventory system



b) Kanban inventory system

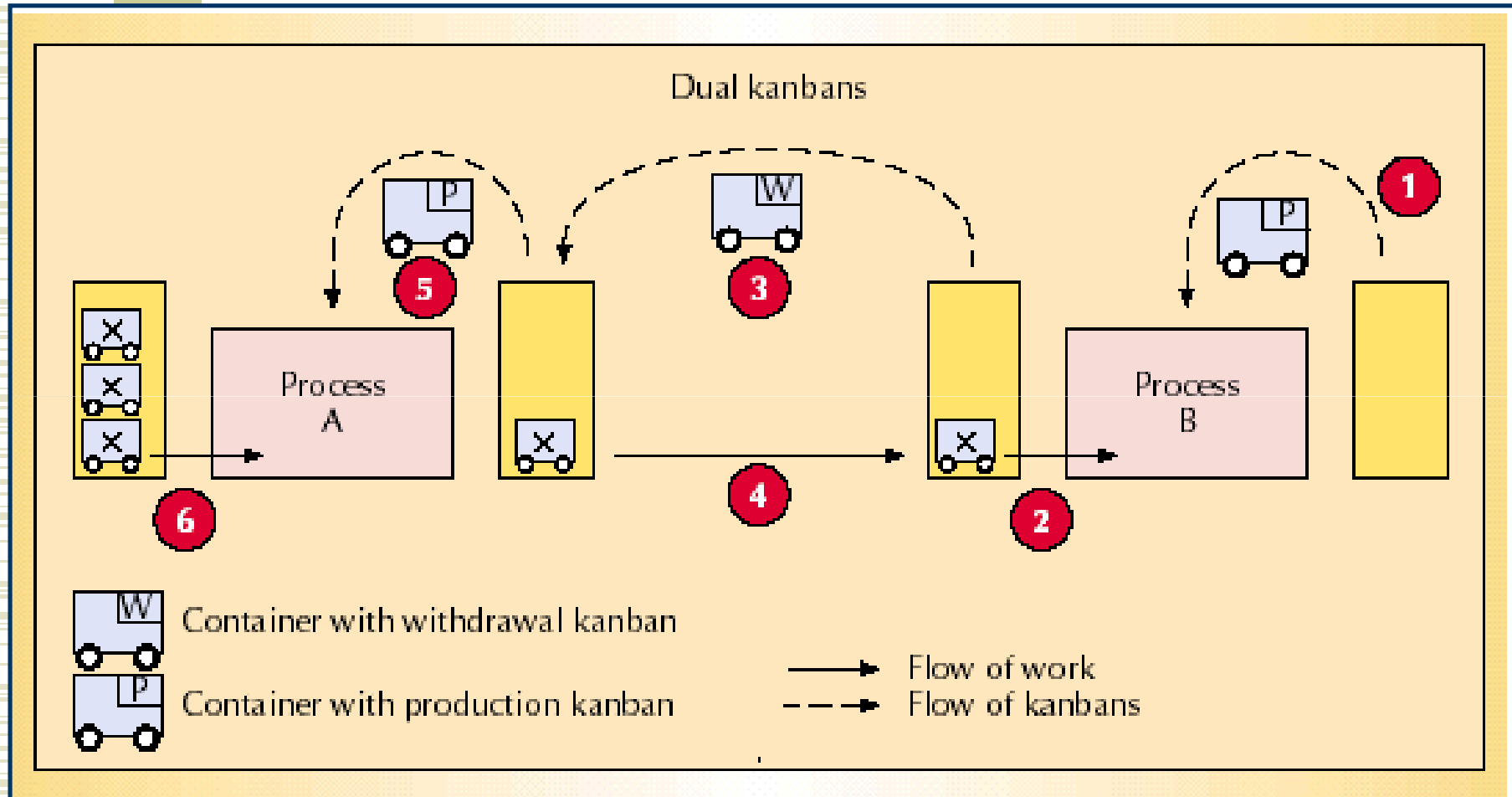


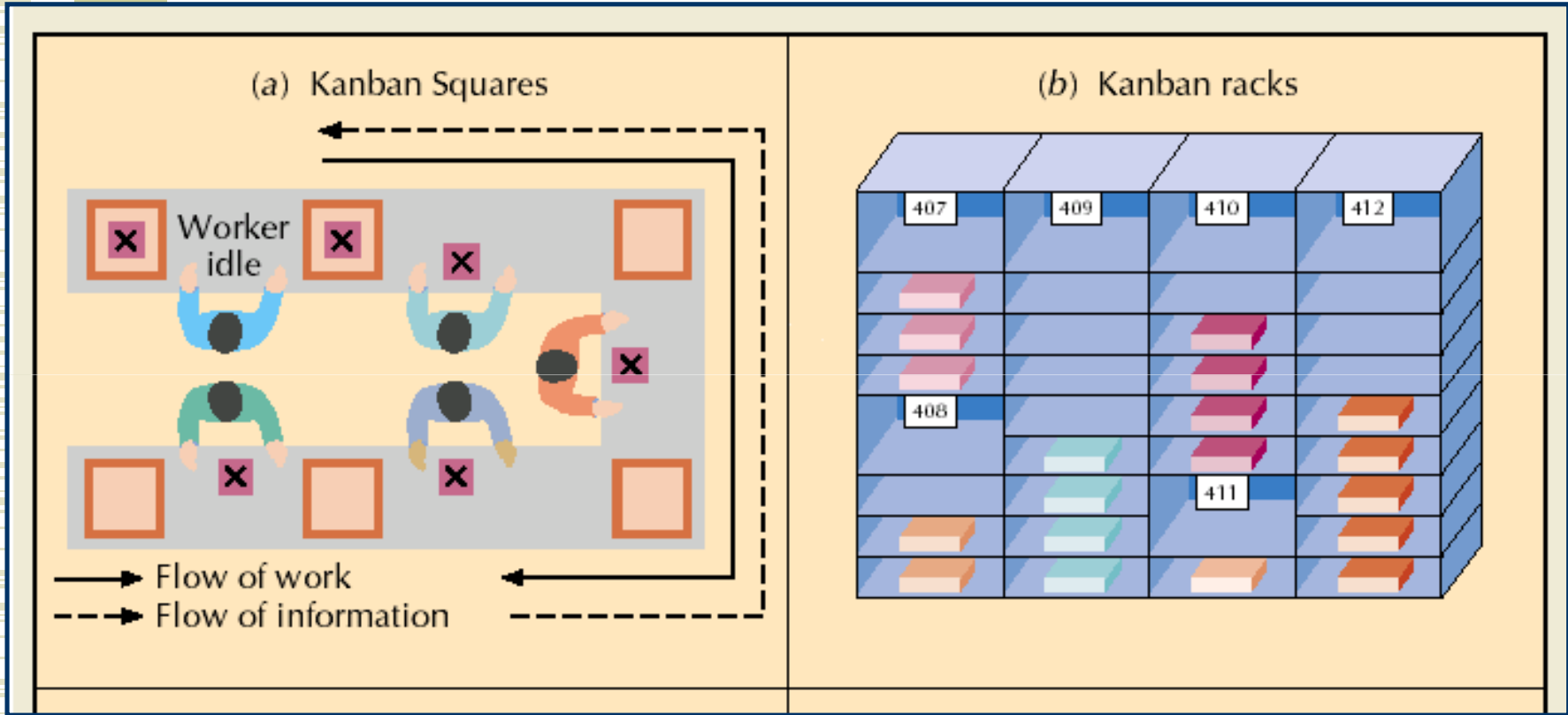
$Q =$ order quantity

$R =$ reorder point - demand during lead time

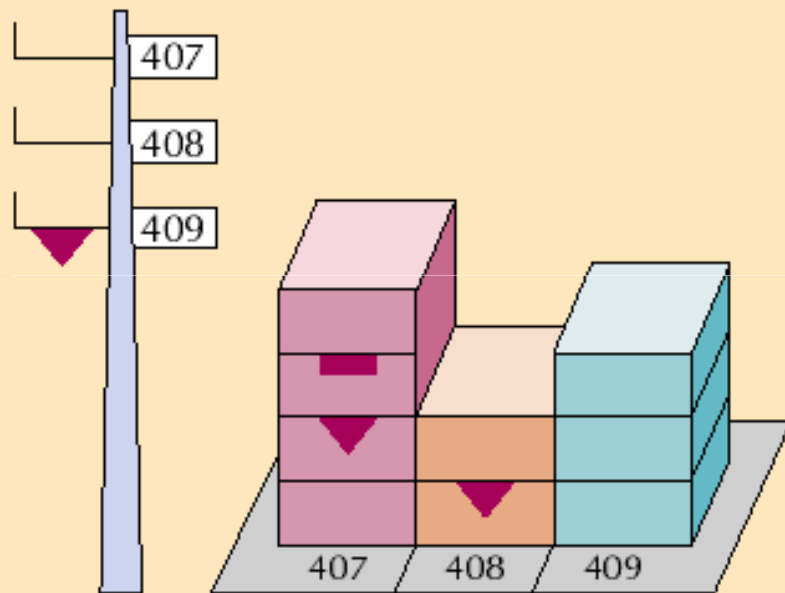
Types of Kanban

- ◆ Production kanban
 - authorizes production of goods
- ◆ Withdrawal kanban
 - authorizes movement of goods
- ◆ Kanban square
 - a marked area designated to hold items
- ◆ Signal kanban
 - a triangular kanban used to signal production at the previous workstation
- ◆ Material kanban
 - used to order material in advance of a process
- ◆ Supplier kanban
 - rotates between the factory and suppliers





(c) Signal kanban



(d) Kanban post office

65	66	67	68	69	70	71
72	73	74	75	76	77	78
79	80	81	82	83	84	85
86	87	88	89	90	91	92
93	94	95	96	97	98	99
100	101	102	103	104	105	106
107	108	109	110	111	112	113
114	115	116	117	118	119	120

Determining Number of Kanbans

$$\text{No. of Kanbans} = \frac{\text{average demand during lead time} + \text{safety stock}}{\text{container size}}$$

$$N = \frac{\bar{d}L + S}{C}$$

where

- N = number of kanbans or containers
- \bar{d} = average demand over some time period
- L = lead time to replenish an order
- S = safety stock
- C = container size

Determining Number of Kanbans: Example

$$\bar{d} = 150 \text{ bottles per hour}$$

$$L = 30 \text{ minutes} = 0.5 \text{ hours}$$

$$S = 0.10(150 \times 0.5) = 7.5$$

$$C = 25 \text{ bottles}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\bar{d}L + S}{C} \quad N &= \frac{(150 \times 0.5) + 7.5}{25} \\ &= \frac{75 + 7.5}{25} = 3.3 \text{ kanbans or containers} \end{aligned}$$

Round up to 4 (to allow some slack) or
down to 3 (to force improvement)



Small Lots

- ◆ Require less space and capital investment
- ◆ Move processes closer together
- ◆ Make quality problems easier to detect
- ◆ Make processes more dependent on each other

Inventory Hides Problems



Less Inventory Exposes Problems



Components of Lead Time

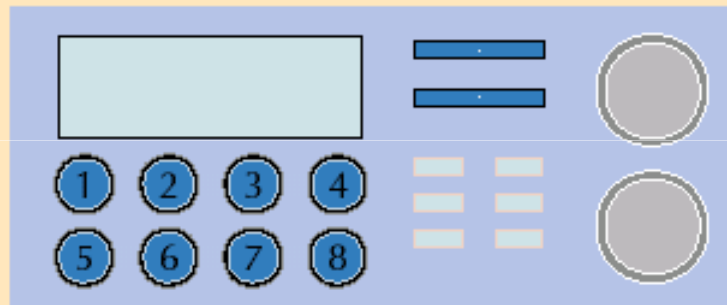
- ◆ Processing time
 - Reduce number of items or improve efficiency
- ◆ Move time
 - Reduce distances, simplify movements, standardize routings
- ◆ Waiting time
 - Better scheduling, sufficient capacity
- ◆ Setup time
 - Generally the biggest bottleneck

Quick Setups

- ◆ Internal setup
 - Can be performed only when a process is stopped
- ◆ External setup
 - Can be performed in advance
- ◆ SMED Principles
 - Separate internal setup from external setup
 - Convert internal setup to external setup
 - Streamline all aspects of setup
 - Perform setup activities in parallel or eliminate them entirely

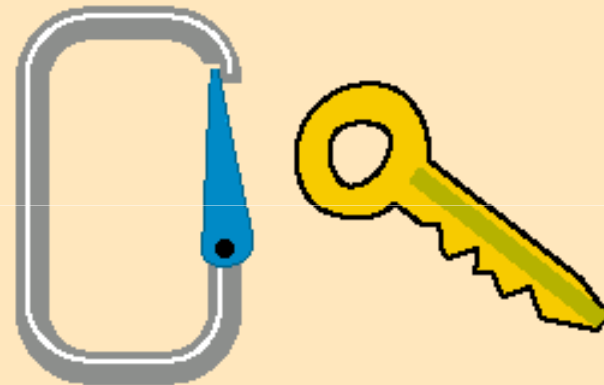
Common Techniques for Reducing Setup Time

Preset desired settings



... like the stations on your car radio.

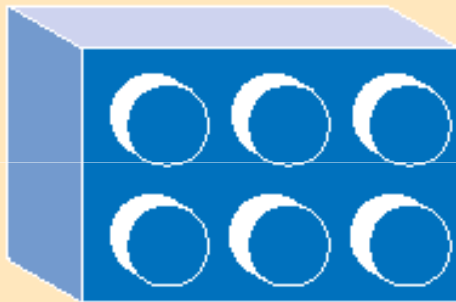
Use quick fasteners



... like key rings that allow keys to be added easily.

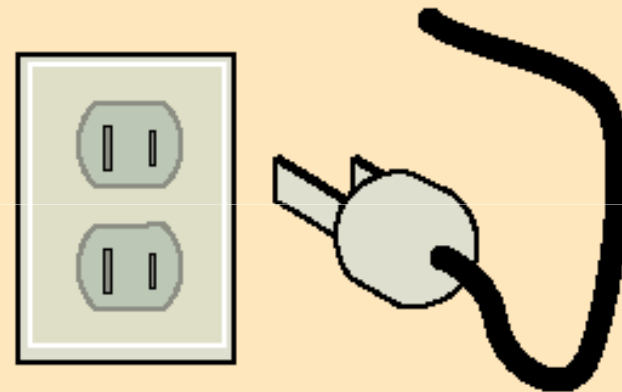
Common Techniques for Reducing Setup Time (cont.)

Use locator pins



... like Lego blocks

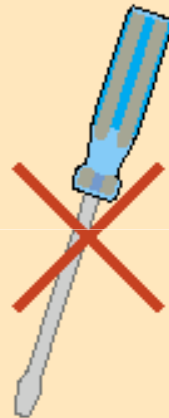
Prevent misalignment



... like electrical plugs with one longer prong

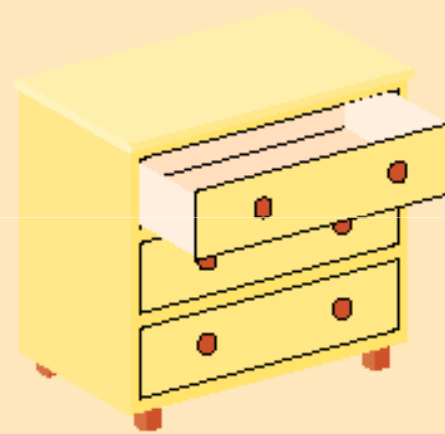
Common Techniques for Reducing Setup Time (cont.)

Eliminate tools



... like snap on connectors for computers.

Make movements easier



... like exchanging the drawers in your dresser.

Uniform Production Levels

- ◆ Result from smoothing production requirements on final assembly line
- ◆ Kanban systems can handle +/- 10% demand changes
- ◆ Reduce variability with more accurate forecasts
- ◆ Smooth demand across planning horizon
- ◆ Mixed-model assembly steadies component production

Mixed-Model Sequencing

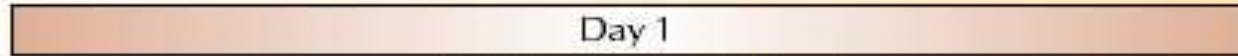


September Sales Forecast

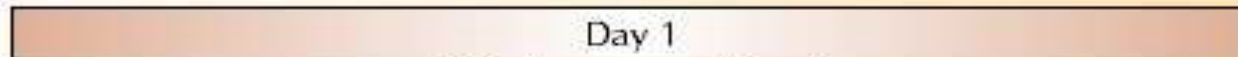


Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Daily Breakdown



Daily Sequence—Batched

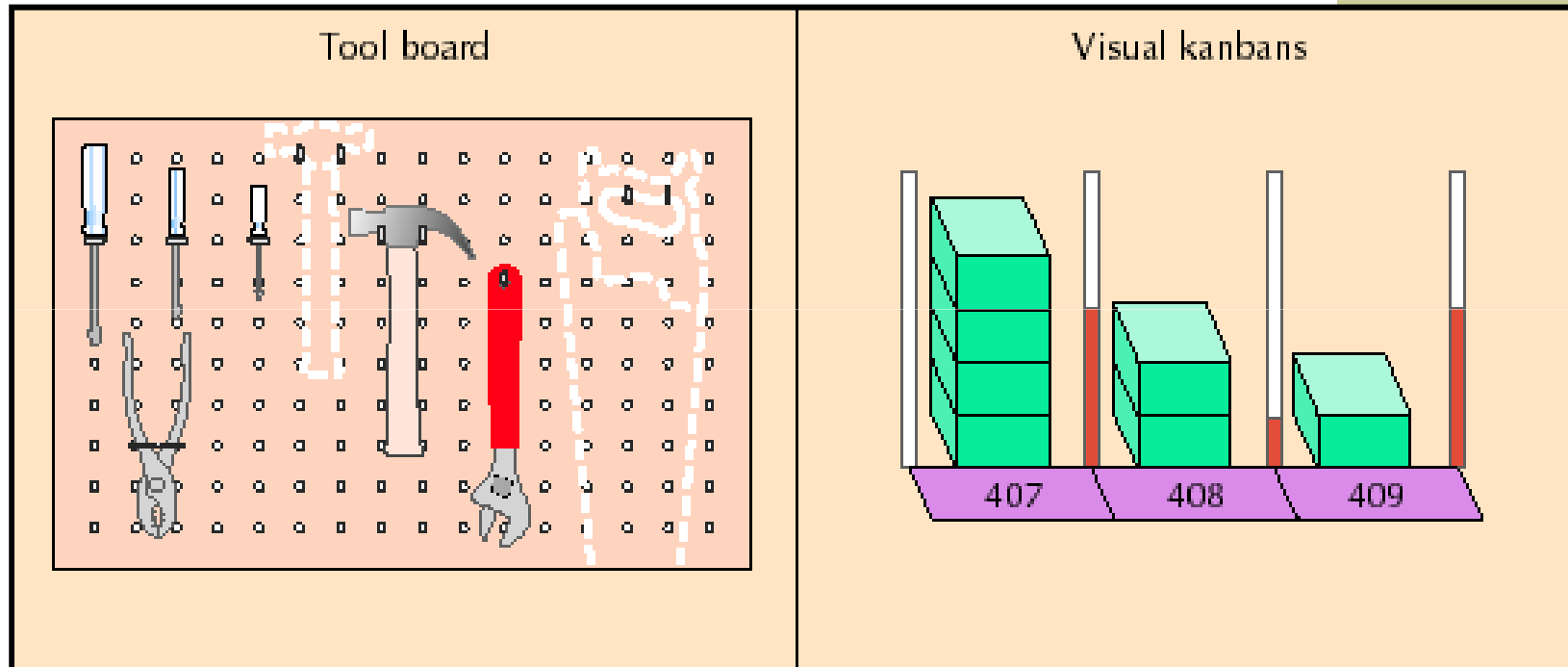


Daily Sequence—Mixed

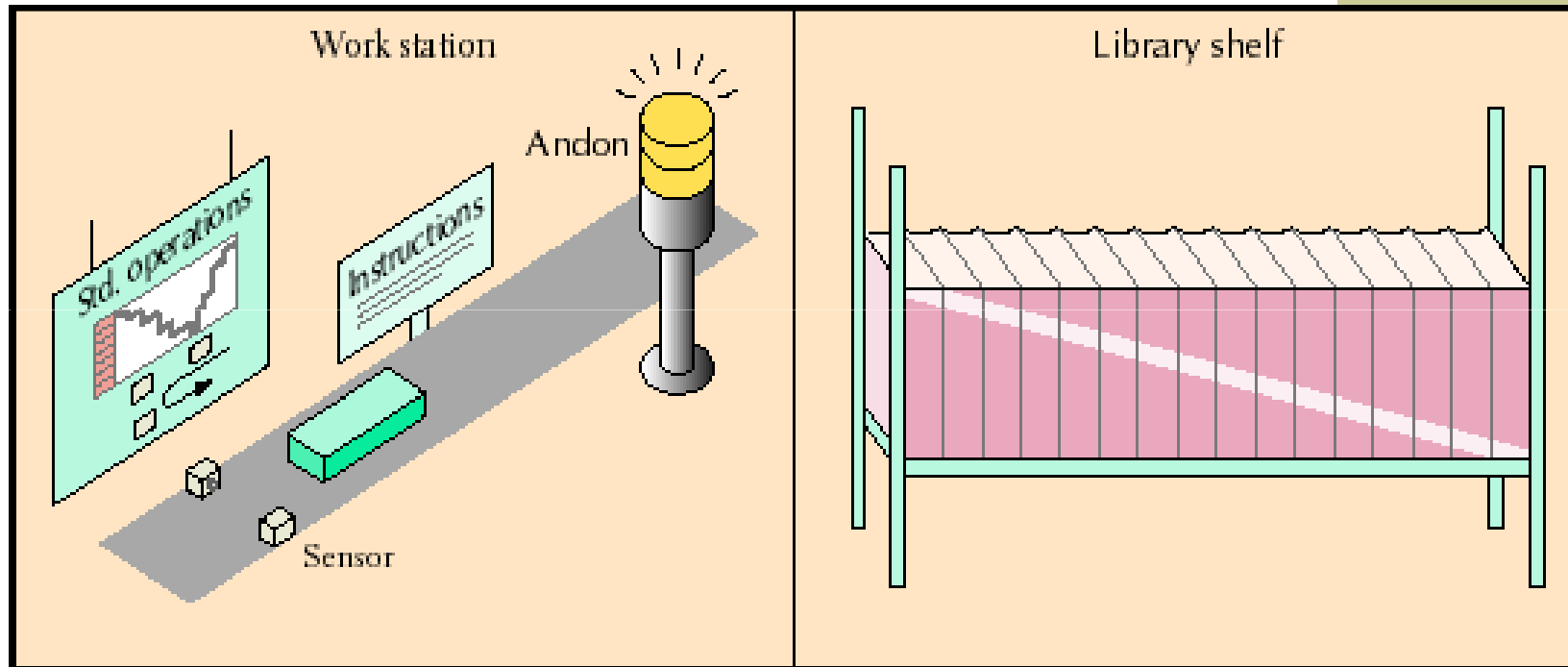
Quality at the Source

- ◆ Visual control
 - makes problems visible
- ◆ Poka-yokes
 - prevent defects from occurring
- ◆ Kaizen
 - a system of continuous improvement; “change for the good of all”
- ◆ Jidoka
 - authority to stop the production line
- ◆ Andons
 - call lights that signal quality problems
- ◆ Under-capacity scheduling
 - leaves time for planning, problem solving, and maintenance

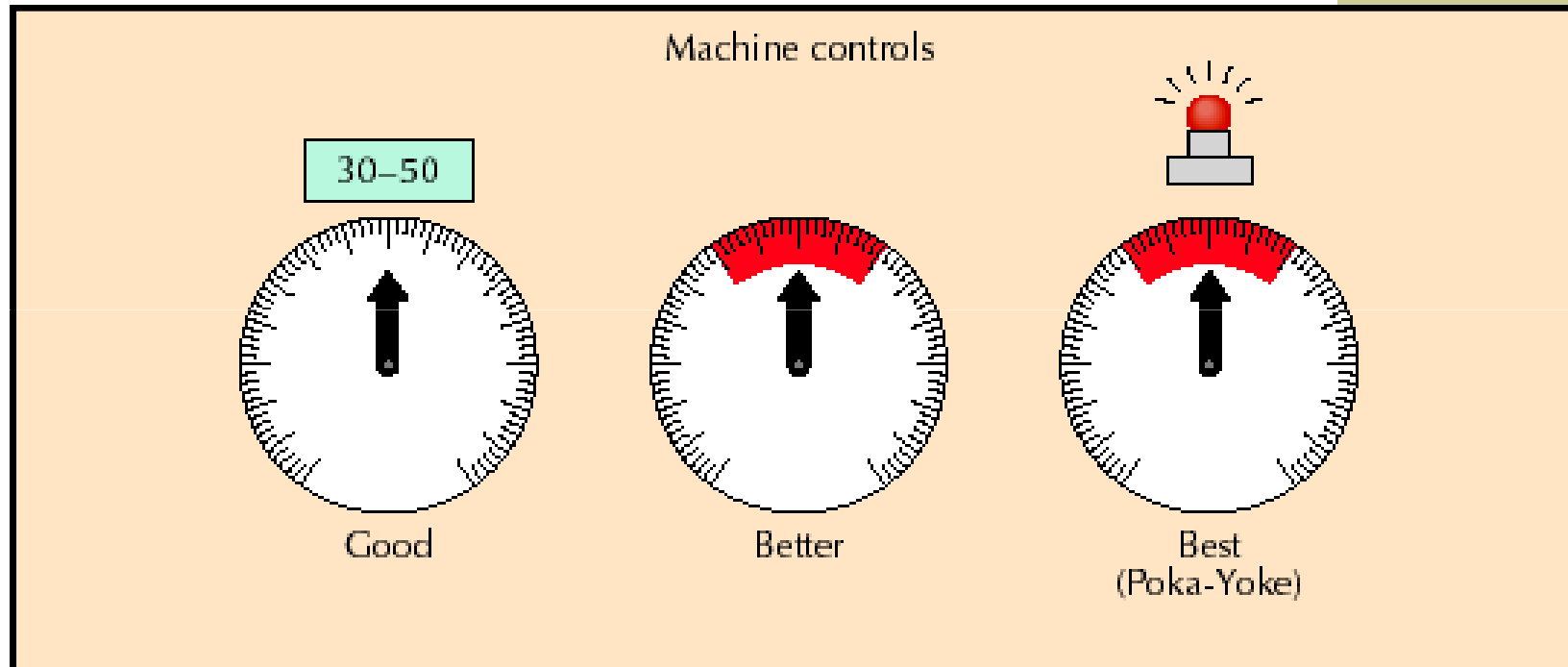
Examples of Visual Control



Examples of Visual Control (cont.)



Examples of Visual Control (cont.)





5 Whys

- ◆ One of the keys to an effective Kaizen is finding the root cause of a problem and eliminating it
- ◆ A practice of asking “why?” repeatedly until the underlying cause is identified (usually requiring five questions)
- ◆ Simple, yet powerful technique for finding the root cause of a problem



Total Productive Maintenance (TPM)

- ◆ Breakdown maintenance
 - Repairs to make failed machine operational
- ◆ Preventive maintenance
 - System of periodic inspection and maintenance to keep machines operating
- ◆ TPM combines preventive maintenance and total quality concepts



TPM Requirements

- ◆ Design products that can be easily produced on existing machines
- ◆ Design machines for easier operation, changeover, maintenance
- ◆ Train and retrain workers to operate machines
- ◆ Purchase machines that maximize productive potential
- ◆ Design preventive maintenance plan spanning life of machine

5S Scan	Goal	Eliminate or Correct
Seiri(<i>sort</i>)	Keep only what you need	Unneeded equipment, tools, furniture; unneeded items on walls, bulletins; items blocking aisles or stacked in corners; unneeded inventory, supplies, parts; safety hazards
Seiton(<i>set in order</i>)	A place for everything and everything in its place	Items not in their correct places; correct places not obvious; aisles, workstations, & equipment locations not indicated; items not put away immediately after use
Seisou (<i>shine</i>)	Cleaning, and looking for ways to keep clean and organized	Floors, walls, stairs, equipment, & surfaces not clean; cleaning materials not easily accessible; lines, labels, signs broken or unclean; other cleaning problems
Seiketsu (<i>standardize</i>)	Maintaining and monitoring the first three categories Sticking to the rules	Necessary information not visible; standards not known; checklists missing; quantities and limits not easily recognizable; items can't be located within 30 seconds
Shisuke (<i>sustain</i>)		Number of workers without 5S training; number of daily 5S inspections not performed; number of personal items not stored; number of times job aids not available or up-to-date



Supplier Networks

- ◆ Long-term supplier contracts
- ◆ Synchronized production
- ◆ Supplier certification
- ◆ Mixed loads and frequent deliveries
- ◆ Precise delivery schedules
- ◆ Standardized, sequenced delivery
- ◆ Locating in close proximity to the customer



Benefits of Lean Production

- ◆ Reduced inventory
- ◆ Improved quality
- ◆ Lower costs
- ◆ Reduced space requirements
- ◆ Shorter lead time
- ◆ Increased productivity



Benefits of Lean Production (cont.)

- ◆ Greater flexibility
- ◆ Better relations with suppliers
- ◆ Simplified scheduling and control activities
- ◆ Increased capacity
- ◆ Better use of human resources
- ◆ More product variety



Implementing Lean Production

- ◆ Use lean production to finely tune an operating system
- ◆ Somewhat different in USA than Japan
- ◆ Lean production is still evolving
- ◆ Lean production is not for everyone



Lean Services

- ◆ Basic elements of lean production apply equally to services
- ◆ Most prevalent applications
 - lean retailing
 - lean banking
 - lean health care



Leaning the Supply Chain

- ◆ “pulling” a smooth flow of material through a series of suppliers to support frequent replenishment orders and changes in customer demand
- ◆ Firms need to share information and coordinate demand forecasts, production planning, and inventory replenishment with suppliers and supplier’s suppliers throughout supply chain



Leaning the Supply Chain (cont.)

- ◆ Steps in Leaning the Supply Chain:
 - Build a highly collaborative business environment
 - Adopt the technology to support your system



Lean Six Sigma

- ◆ Lean and Six Sigma are natural partners for process improvement
- ◆ Lean
 - Eliminates waste and creates flow
 - More continuous improvement
- ◆ Six Sigma
 - Reduces variability and enhances process capabilities
 - Requires breakthrough improvements



Lean and the Environment

- ◆ Lean's mandate to eliminate waste and operate only with those resources that are absolutely necessary aligns well with environmental initiatives
- ◆ Environmental waste is often an indicator of poor process design and inefficient production



EPA Recommendations

- ◆ Commit to eliminate environmental waste through lean implementation
- ◆ Recognize new improvement opportunities by incorporating environmental, health and safety (EHS) icons and data into value stream maps
- ◆ Involve staff with EHS expertise in planning
- ◆ Find and drive out environmental wastes in specific process by using lean process-improvement tools
- ◆ Empower and enable workers to eliminate environmental wastes in their work areas



Lean Consumption

- ◆ Consumption process involves locating, buying, installing, using, maintaining, repairing, and recycling.
- ◆ Lean Consumption seeks to:
 - Provide customers what they want, where and when they want it
 - Resolve customer problems quickly and completely
 - Reduce the number of problems customers need to solve



Chapter 17

Scheduling

Operations Management

Roberta Russell & Bernard W. Taylor, III





Lecture Outline

- ◆ Objectives in Scheduling
- ◆ Loading
- ◆ Sequencing
- ◆ Monitoring
- ◆ Advanced Planning and Scheduling Systems
- ◆ Theory of Constraints
- ◆ Employee Scheduling



What is Scheduling?

- ◆ Last stage of planning before production occurs
- ◆ Specifies when labor, equipment, and facilities are needed to produce a product or provide a service

Scheduled Operations

- ◆ Process Industry
 - Linear programming
 - EOQ with non-instantaneous replenishment
- ◆ Mass Production
 - Assembly line balancing
- ◆ Project
 - Project -scheduling techniques (PERT, CPM)
- ◆ Batch Production
 - Aggregate planning
 - Master scheduling
 - Material requirements planning (MRP)
 - Capacity requirements planning (CRP)

Objectives in Scheduling

- ◆ Meet customer due dates
- ◆ Minimize job lateness
- ◆ Minimize response time
- ◆ Minimize completion time
- ◆ Minimize time in the system
- ◆ Minimize overtime
- ◆ Maximize machine or labor utilization
- ◆ Minimize idle time
- ◆ Minimize work-in-process inventory

Shop Floor Control (SFC)

- ◆ scheduling and monitoring of day-to-day production in a job shop
- ◆ also called *production control* and *production activity control* (PAC)
- ◆ usually performed by production control department
 - Loading
 - Check availability of material, machines, and labor
 - Sequencing
 - Release work orders to shop and issue dispatch lists for individual machines
 - Monitoring
 - Maintain progress reports on each job until it is complete



Loading

- ◆ Process of assigning work to limited resources
- ◆ Perform work with most efficient resources
- ◆ Use assignment method of linear programming to determine allocation

Assignment Method

1. Perform row reductions
 - subtract minimum value in each row from all other row values
2. Perform column reductions
 - subtract minimum value in each column from all other column values
3. Cross out all zeros in matrix
 - use minimum number of horizontal and vertical lines
4. If number of lines equals number of rows in matrix, then optimum solution has been found. Make assignments where zeros appear
 - Else modify matrix
 - subtract minimum uncrossed value from all uncrossed values
 - add it to all cells where two lines intersect
 - other values in matrix remain unchanged
5. Repeat steps 3 and 4 until optimum solution is reached

Assignment Method: Example

Initial Matrix	PROJECT			
	1	2	3	4
Bryan	10	5	6	10
Kari	6	2	4	6
Noah	7	6	5	6
Chris	9	5	4	10

Row reduction				Column reduction				Cover all zeros			
5	0	1	5	3	0	1	4	3	0	1	4
4	0	2	4	2	0	2	3	2	0	2	3
2	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
5	1	0	6	3	1	0	5	3	1	0	5

Number lines \neq number of rows so modify matrix

Assignment Method: Example (cont.)

Modify matrix

1	0	1	2
0	0	2	1
0	3	2	0
1	1	0	3

Cover all zeros

1	0	1	2
0	0	2	1
0	3	2	0
1	1	0	3

Number of lines = number of rows so at optimal solution

PROJECT

	1	2	3	4
Bryan	1	0	1	2
Kari	0	0	2	1
Noah	0	3	2	0
Chris	1	1	0	3

PROJECT

	1	2	3	4
Bryan	10	5	6	10
Kari	6	2	4	6
Noah	7	6	5	6
Chris	9	5	4	10

$$\text{Project Cost} = (5 + 6 + 4 + 6) \times \$100 = \$2,100$$

Sequencing

Prioritize jobs assigned to a resource

If no order specified use first-come first-served (FCFS)

Other Sequencing Rules

FCFS - first-come, first-served

LCFS - last come, first served

DDATE - earliest due date

CUSTPR - highest customer priority

SETUP - similar required setups

SLACK - smallest slack

CR - smallest critical ratio

SPT - shortest processing time

LPT - longest processing time

Minimum Slack and Smallest Critical Ratio

SLACK considers both work and time remaining

$$\text{SLACK} = (\text{due date} - \text{today's date}) - (\text{processing time})$$

CR recalculates sequence as processing continues and arranges information in ratio form

$$\text{CR} = \frac{\text{time remaining}}{\text{work remaining}} \quad \frac{\text{due date} - \text{today's date}}{\text{remaining processing time}}$$

If $\text{CR} > 1$, job ahead of schedule

If $\text{CR} < 1$, job behind schedule

If $\text{CR} = 1$, job on schedule

Sequencing Jobs through One Process

- ◆ Flow time (completion time)
 - Time for a job to flow through system
- ◆ Makespan
 - Time for a group of jobs to be completed
- ◆ Tardiness
 - Difference between a late job's due date and its completion time

Simple Sequencing Rules

JOB	PROCESSING TIME	DUE DATE
A	5	10
B	10	15
C	2	5
D	8	12
E	6	8

Simple Sequencing Rules: FCFS

SEQUENCE	FCFS TIME	START TIME	PROCESSING TIME	COMPLETION DATE	DUE DATE	TARDINESS
A	0	5	5	10	10	0
B	5	10	5	15	15	0
C	15	2	5	17	5	12
D	17	8	5	25	12	13
E	25	6	5	31	8	23
Total				<u>93</u>		<u>48</u>
Average				$93/5 = 18.60$		$48/5 = 9.6$

Simple Sequencing Rules: DDATE

SEQUENCE	DDATE TIME	START TIME	PROCESSING TIME	COMPLETION DATE	DUE TARDINESS
C	0	2	2	5	0
E	2	6	8	8	0
A	8	5	13	10	3
D	13	8	21	12	9
B	21	10	31	15	16
Total			<u>75</u>		<u>28</u>
Average			75/5 = 15.00		28/5 = 5.6

Simple Sequencing Rules: SLACK

$$A(10-0) - 5 = 5$$

$$B(15-0) - 10 = 5$$

$$C(5-0) - 2 = 3$$

$$D(12-0) - 8 = 4$$

$$E(8-0) - 6 = 2$$

SEQUENCE	SLACK TIME	START TIME	PROCESSING TIME	COMPLETION DATE	DUE TARDINESS
E	0	6	6	8	0
C	6	2	8	5	3
D	8	8	16	12	4
A	16	5	21	10	11
B	21	10	31	15	16
Total			<u>82</u>		<u>34</u>
Average			$82/5 = 16.40$		$34/5 = 6.8$

Simple Sequencing Rules: SPT

SEQUENCE	SPT TIME	START TIME	PROCESSING TIME	COMPLETION TIME	COMPLETION DATE	DUE DATE	TARDINESS
C	0	2	2	2	5	5	0
A	2	5	5	7	10	10	0
E	7	6	6	13	8	8	5
D	13	8	8	21	12	12	9
B	21	10	10	31	15	15	16
Total				<u>74</u>			<u>30</u>
Average				$74/5 = 14.80$			$30/5 = 6$

Simple Sequencing Rules: Summary

RULE	AVERAGE COMPLETION TIME	AVERAGE TARDINESS	NO. OF JOBS TARDY	MAXIMUM TARDINESS
FCFS	18.60	9.6	3	23
DDATE	15.00	5.6	3	16
SLACK	16.40	6.8	4	16
SPT	14.80	6.0	3	16

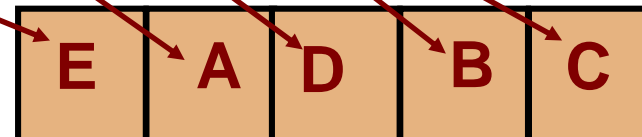
Sequencing Jobs Through Two Serial Process

Johnson's Rule

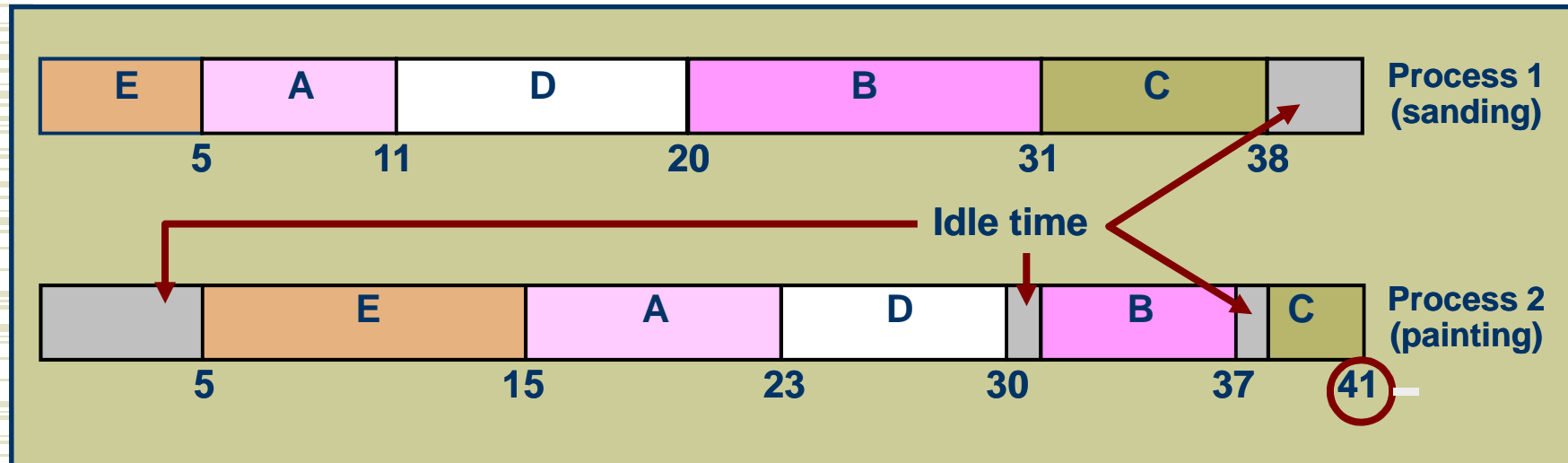
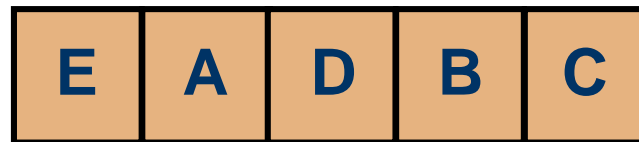
1. List time required to process each job at each machine. Set up a one-dimensional matrix to represent desired sequence with # of slots equal to # of jobs.
2. Select smallest processing time at either machine. If that time is on machine 1, put the job as near to beginning of sequence as possible.
3. If smallest time occurs on machine 2, put the job as near to the end of the sequence as possible.
4. Remove job from list.
5. Repeat steps 2-4 until all slots in matrix are filled and all jobs are sequenced.

Johnson's Rule

JOB	PROCESS 1	PROCESS 2
A	6	8
B	11	6
C	7	3
D	9	7
E	5	10



Johnson's Rule (cont.)



Completion time = 41
Idle time = 5+1+1+3=10



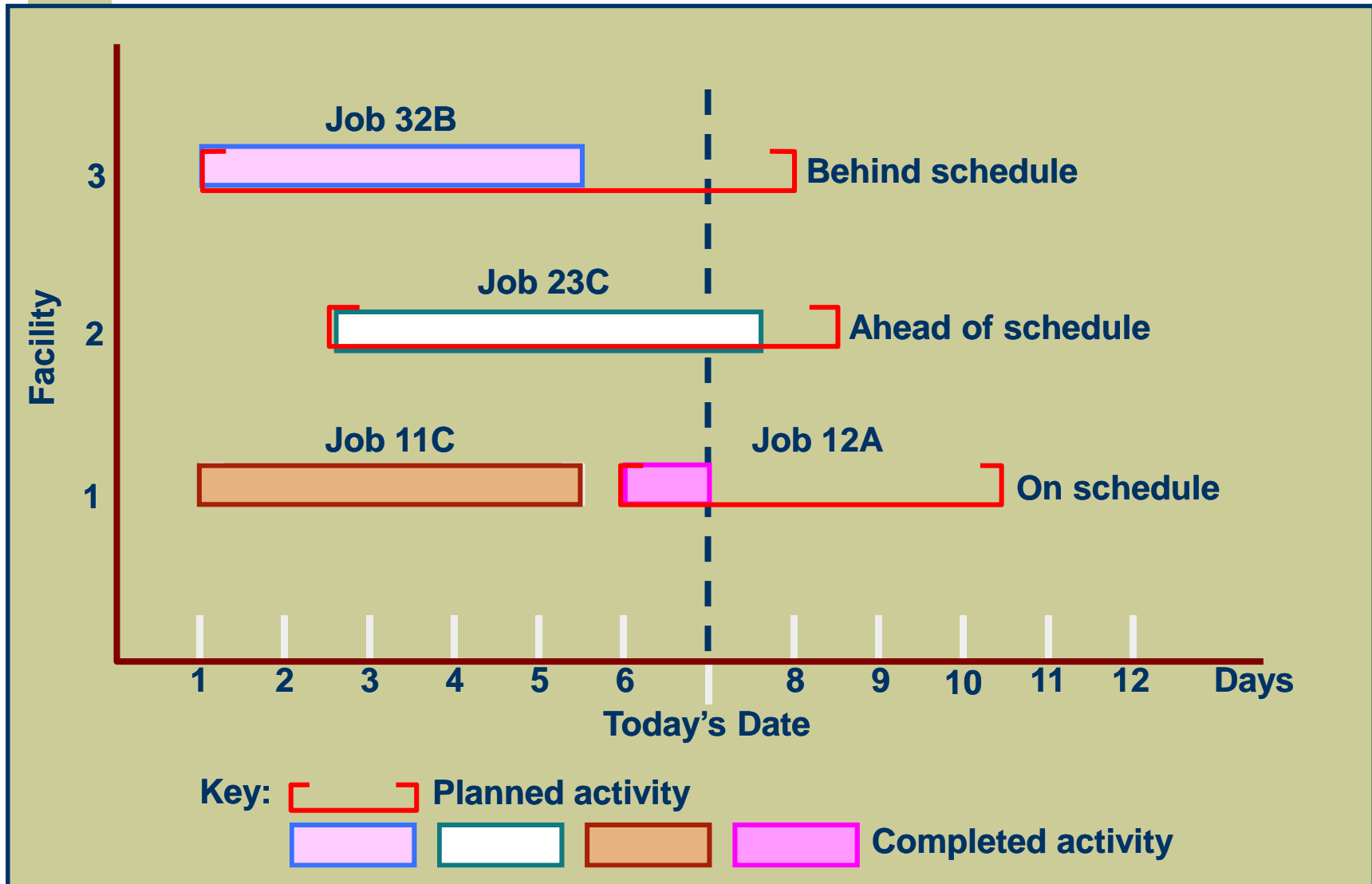
Guidelines for Selecting a Sequencing Rule

1. SPT most useful when shop is highly congested
2. Use SLACK for periods of normal activity
3. Use DDATE when only small tardiness values can be tolerated
4. Use LPT if subcontracting is anticipated
5. Use FCFS when operating at low-capacity levels
6. Do not use SPT to sequence jobs that have to be assembled with other jobs at a later date

Monitoring

- ◆ Work package
 - Shop paperwork that travels with a job
- ◆ Gantt Chart
 - Shows both planned and completed activities against a time scale
- ◆ Input/Output Control
 - Monitors the input and output from each work center

Gantt Chart



Input/Output Control

Input/Output Report

PERIOD	1	2	3	4	TOTAL
Planned input	65	65	70	70	270
Actual input					0
Deviation					0
Planned output	75	75	75	75	300
Actual output					0
Deviation					0
Backlog	30	20	10	5	0

Input/Output Control (cont.)

Input/Output Report

PERIOD	1	2	3	4	TOTAL
Planned input	65	65	70	70	270
Actual input	60	60	65	65	250
Deviation	-5	-5	-5	-5	-20
Planned output	75	75	75	75	300
Actual output	75	75	65	65	280
Deviation	-0	-0	-10	-10	-20
Backlog	30	15	0	0	0

Advanced Planning and Scheduling Systems

- ◆ Infinite - assumes infinite capacity
 - Loads without regard to capacity
 - Then levels the load and sequences jobs
- ◆ Finite - assumes finite (limited) capacity
 - Sequences jobs as part of the loading decision
 - Resources are never loaded beyond capacity

Advanced Planning and Scheduling Systems (cont.)

- ◆ Advanced planning and scheduling (APS)
 - Add-ins to ERP systems
 - Constraint-based programming (CBP) identifies a solution space and evaluates alternatives
 - Genetic algorithms based on natural selection properties of genetics
 - Manufacturing execution system (MES) monitors status, usage, availability, quality



Theory of Constraints



- ◆ Not all resources are used evenly
- ◆ Concentrate on the” bottleneck” resource
- ◆ Synchronize flow through the bottleneck
- ◆ Use process and transfer batch sizes to move product through facility

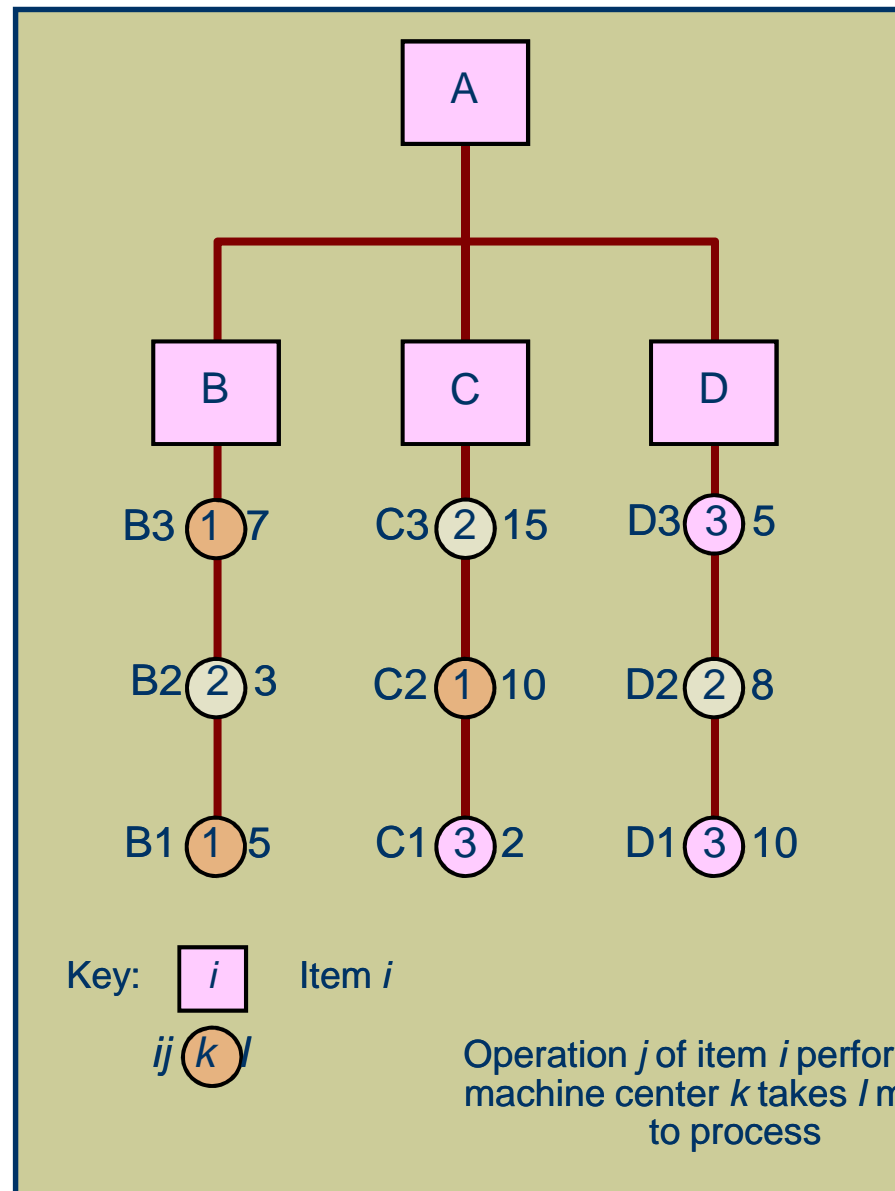
Drum-Buffer-Rope

- ◆ Drum
 - Bottleneck, beating to set the pace of production for the rest of the system
- ◆ Buffer
 - Inventory placed in front of the bottleneck to ensure it is always kept busy
 - Determines output or throughput of the system
- ◆ Rope
 - Communication signal; tells processes upstream when they should begin production

TOC Scheduling Procedure

- ◆ Identify bottleneck
- ◆ Schedule job first whose lead time to bottleneck is less than or equal to bottleneck processing time
- ◆ Forward schedule bottleneck machine
- ◆ Backward schedule other machines to sustain bottleneck schedule
- ◆ Transfer in batch sizes smaller than process batch size

Synchronous Manufacturing



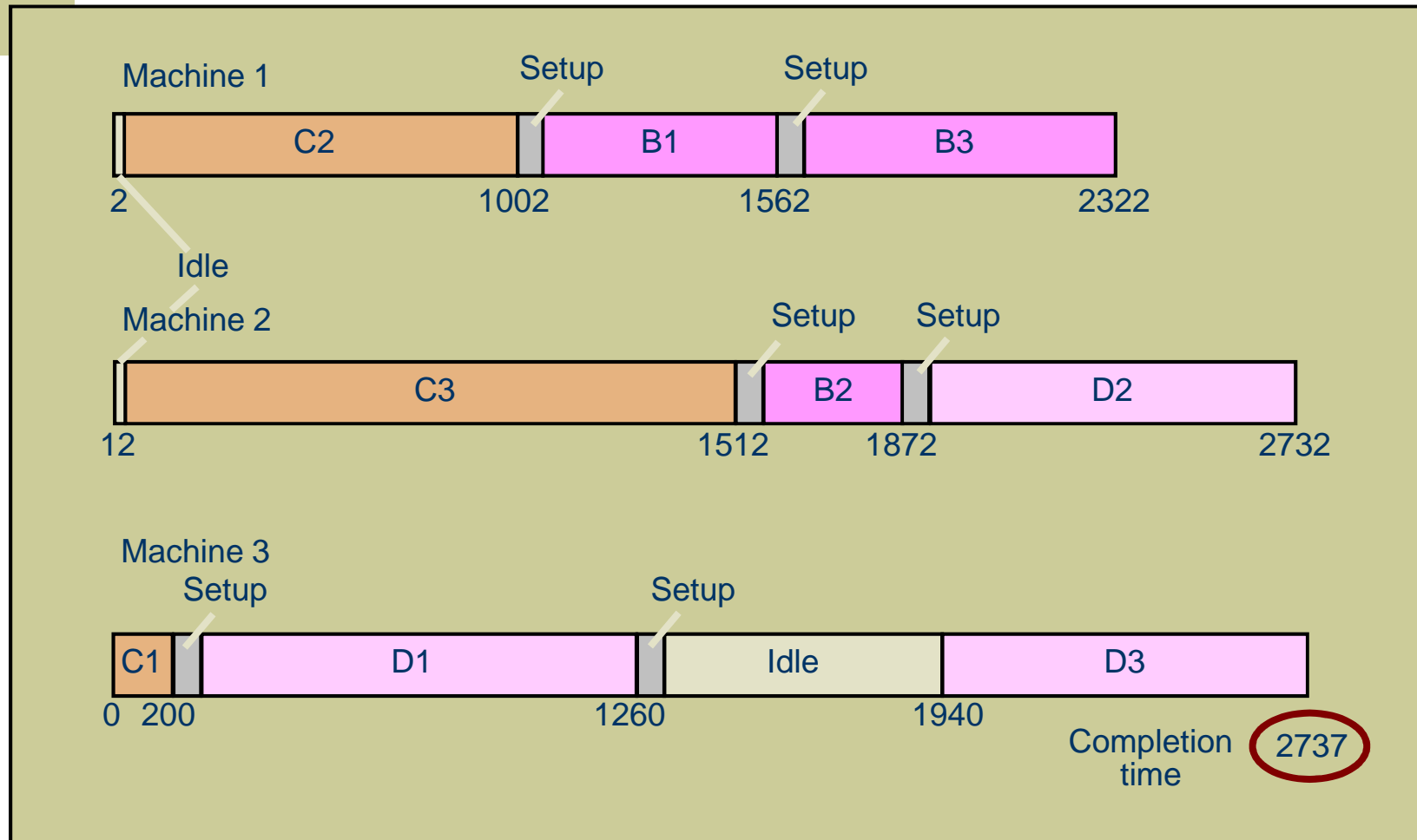
Synchronous Manufacturing (cont.)

Demand = 100 A's
Machine setup time = 60 minutes

MACHINE 1	MACHINE 2	MACHINE 3			
B1	5	B2	3	C1	2
B3	7	C3	15	D3	5
C2	10	D2	8	D1	10
Sum	22	26*	17		

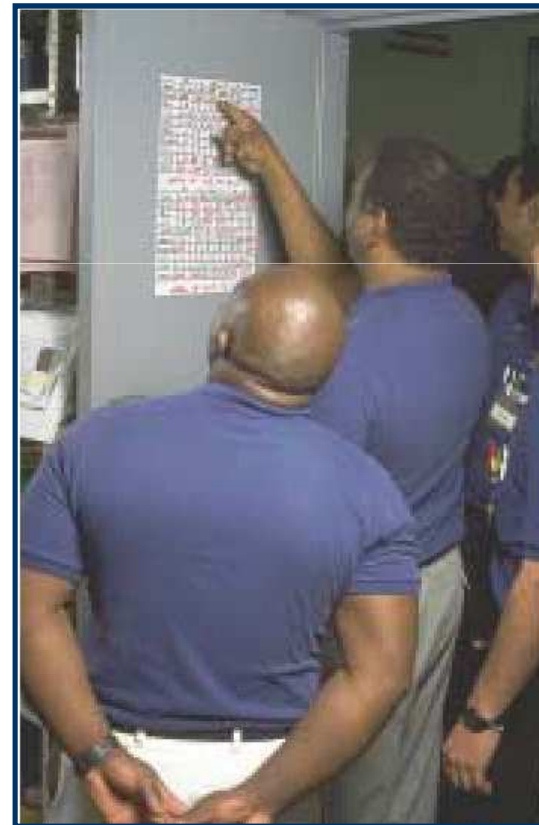
* Bottleneck

Synchronous Manufacturing (cont.)



Employee Scheduling

- ◆ Labor is very flexible resource
- ◆ Scheduling workforce is complicated, repetitive task
- ◆ Assignment method can be used
- ◆ Heuristics are commonly used



Employee Scheduling Heuristic

1. Let N = no. of workers available
 D_i = demand for workers on day i
 X = day working
 O = day off
2. Assign the first $N - D_1$ workers day 1 off. Assign the next $N - D_2$ workers day 2 off. Continue in a similar manner until all days are have been scheduled
3. If number of workdays for full time employee < 5 , assign remaining workdays so consecutive days off are possible
4. Assign any remaining work to part-time employees
5. If consecutive days off are desired, consider switching schedules among days with the same demand requirements

Employee Scheduling

DAY OF WEEK	M	T	W	TH	F	SA	SU
	MIN NO. OF						
WORKERS REQUIRED	3	3	4	3	4	5	3
Taylor							
Smith							
Simpson							
Allen							
Dickerson							

Employee Scheduling (cont.)

DAY OF WEEK	M	T	W	TH	F	SA	SU
	MIN NO. OF						
WORKERS REQUIRED	3	3	4	3	4	5	3
Taylor	O	X	X	O	X	X	X
Smith	O	X	X	O	X	X	X
Simpson	X	O	X	X	O	X	X
Allen	X	O	X	X	X	X	O
Dickerson	X	X	O	X	X	X	O

Completed schedule satisfies requirements but has no consecutive days off

Employee Scheduling (cont.)

DAY OF WEEK	M	T	W	TH	F	SA	SU
WORKERS REQUIRED	3	3	4	3	4	5	3
Taylor	O	O	X	X	X	X	X
Smith	O	O	X	X	X	X	X
Simpson	X	X	O	O	X	X	X
Allen	X	X	X	O	X	X	O
Dickerson	X	X	X	X	O	X	O

Revised schedule satisfies requirements with consecutive days off for most employees

Automated Scheduling Systems

- ◆ Staff Scheduling
- ◆ Schedule Bidding
- ◆ Schedule Optimization





Thank You

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