THE DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPUTER SIMULATION MODEL OF THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THE SUPPLY AND USAGE OF MAJOR COMPONENTS IN CAR ASSEMBLY FOR USE IN STOCK CONTROL -

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by

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SUMMARY

The assembly of a motor car is the most capitally intensive part of its manufacture because there is high capital investment both in the stocks of expensive major components and in the fully automated assembly factories needed to produce ears. Control of major component stocks can therefore play a significant part in keeping overall manufacturing costs down.

The nature of volume car manufacture does not permit any direct control of major component stocks, but a measure of indirect control can be achieved by fixing ceiling levels up to which stocks will be allowed to rise before supplies are stopped.

At present these ceiling levels are not fixed in any scientific way at the Austin-Morris Division of the British Leyland Motor Corporation. This thesis describes the development of a probabilistic computer simulation model of the inter-action between the supply and usage of major components in order to review major component stocking policy to the Company's best advantage.

Part I of the thesis describes motor car manufacture and methods of production and inventory control of major components presently emplyed by the Company. The contribution of existing literature is also reviewed in this section of the thesis. A simulation model of the inter-action between the supply and usage of major components is developed in the second part of the thesis. Part III deals with a feasibility study undertaken to validate, and experiment with, the model.

The results obtained indicate that

- The model used is sufficiently valid for its intended purpose;
- 2) The use of a ceiling level of about 2,000 sets of major components can be recommended for conditions specified in the feasibility study;
- 3) Maintaining a low ceiling level of about 700 sets of major components would cost over £170,000 more than the recommended level under similar conditions.

ACKNCHLEDGAENTS

The author would like to thank his university supervisors Dr. C.D. Lewis and Mr. J. Sawyer, his external supervisor, Mr. K.A. Bailey, and other members of the staff of the University of Aston in Birmingham for the help given in the preparation of this thesis.

Thanks are also due to all colleagues, both in the I.H.D. Scheme and in the Group Production Control Department of Austin-Morris, who have found time to discuss the author's work and to offer constructive criticism.

The writer wishes to thank B.L.M.C. (Austin-Morris) Ltd. for the complete support, both financial and moral, which has been given to the project described in this thesis.

Finally thanks are due to the author's wife, without whose consistent help and understanding the work could not have been completed, and Mrs. Affleck, who had the difficult task of typing the thesis.

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PREFACE

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The project described in this thesis is rather unusual in the sense that it is one of the first applied research projects to be supervised by the Inter-disciplinary Higher Degrees Scheme of the University of Aston. For this reason a preface to this thesis has been written in an attempt to explain what the scheme, and its aims, are.

The IED scheme was started up towards the end of 1968 in response to a growing demand for longer term and deeper joint ventures by industry and universities. Prior to 1968 a number of universities, polytechnics and technical colleges had maintained a link with industry mainly through the undergraduate sandwich course, the short course and the day release course. But the purpose of these courses was, and still is, to teach students certain skills, which could be exploited by industry only after the students had either left or completed the course. Short projects are carried out in industry by the students on some of these courses, but the time set aside is usually not long enough for any useful results to be obtained from them.

In the 1960's, however, the Science Research Council, several universities and a few companies all thought that there was room for the longer term post-graduate research project in industry. The University of Aston was one of the first universities to start up a scheme on these lines, with backing from the Science Research Council and industry, and the project described in this thesis was one of the first to be started on the scheme. The IHD scheme is now running more than 40 projects and a number of other universities have started up similar schemes.

The aim of the IHD scheme is, in a nutshell, the solution of industrial problems by applied research; to provide a means for solving those important and complex problems in industry, which are always just beneath the surface. By doing this the scheme aims to show that ivory tower and factory floor do have areas of common interest, to which a joint approach, that will be advantageous to all concerned, can be applied.

The project described by the report was started because the management at Austin-Morris had for some time had the idea of developing a method of reviewing major component stocking policy. But more important jobs were taking up all the time, resources and energy available. On the other hand the problem was not a copybook stock control problem and it was thought that some advantage could be gained from setting up a research project within the IHD scheme to deal with it.

Any joint approach to a problem must involve compromises on both sides, and the research undertaken for this project is no exception. On the one hand the theory and statistics used are not analysed in such great depth as they might be, because the real life problem would not benefit from such deep analysis. On the other hand the analysis used and the methods suggested would not satisfy the manager who wants a quick answer to a problem and who is not too concerned about the longer term. In reading this thesis therefore, the basic reason for this project being undertaken and the aims of the IHD scheme must be kept in mind.

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GICSSARY

Definition

Part

Term

Any finished item used in building a car before it is put together with other parts in any form of sub-assembly or assembly process. E.g. A windscreen, a screw etc.

Component

As 'Part'.

Sub-assembly (1)

A unit made up from several parts and/or sub-assemblies. E.g. Pedal sub-assembly made up from pedals, connecting bars, screws, nuts and washers.

(2)The process of building a sub-assembly.

Major Subassembly

- The largest sub-assemblies to be built before the final assembly of a car. For the purposes of this thesis these have been defined as:
- (a) Body shell Empty car body frame
- (b) Power unit¹ Engine and Transmission subassemblies joined together.
- (c) Pair of front suspension units."
- (d) Pair of rear suspension units.²
- (Sometimes referred to as just 'Engine') 1.
- Suspension units are delivered in pairs. One pair controls the 2. driving wheels whilst the other pair does not, hence the difference.

Term

Major Component Sub-assembly Plant

Assembly

Main Assembly Plant Trim

Car Range

Variant

Option

Volume Car Manufacture

Definition

- 4 -

As 'Major Sub-assembly'. Factory where the sub-assembly of major components takes place. Final assembly - the process of assembling

major components, sub-assemblies and parts into a finished car.

Factory where assembly takes place. Any part or sub-assembly which goes into the empty body shell and turns it into a finished car interior. E.g. Seats, carpets, headlights.

Any group of cars having a particular design and marketed under one name. E.g. Mini, Maxi.

Any combination of body style and power unit within a car range. E.g. 1100 2-door automatic, 1300 4-door manual and 1300 GT all come within the 1100/1300 car range.

As 'Variant'

Production of large numbers of relatively low cost cars.

Definition

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Vertical Integration

Term

Shift

The establishment of direct control, usually through ownership, of all the processes of manufacture leading to a finished product.

A scheduled period of work or duty so arranged that if the need arises more than one such period can be worked within 24 hours by different groups of people.

Another term for stock, but one which includes stocks in transit and work in progress.

Material scheduling - sending notice of material requirements to suppliers. Abbreviation for British Leyland Motor Corporation (Austin-Morris & Manufacturing) Ltd. - the largest part of B.L.M.C. Also referred to as the Company in this thesis. Abbreviation for Pressed Steel Fisher, the Company's body building division. The Company's short-term sales forecast for production mix, issued monthly.

Float

Scheduling

B.L.M.C.

(Austin-Morris)

PSF

Sales Requirement. Forecast (SRF)

Definition

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Production Programme The

449/204 or 500/230

Term

Vehicle Build Programme (VBP)

Built Up (BU)

The Company's long-term production plan. Also referred to in this thesis as Programme or Programme Level.

In Part III of this thesis production programme figures are referred to daily, one day being a 24 hour period or 12 hour period depending on the number of shifts worked. In a standard working week there are 4 complete 24 hour periods (2 shifts) and one 12 hour period (one shift). So the production programme for a week is written as two figures, 449/204 etc, indicating that the week contains 4 daily production programmes for 449 vehicles each, and one daily programme for 204 vehicles.

The Company's short-term production plan determining production mix, issued monthly.

Cars that are completely assembled in the U.K. and either sold in the home market or exported complete.

Definition

Knocked Down (KD)

Term

Cars that are assembled abroad, either by foreign subsidiaries or under licence, from sets of sub-assemblies produced in the UK.

CAB 1 and CAB 2

One of the Company's assembly plants has two Car Assembly Buildings in it. These are referred to as Car Assembly Buildings, or CAB 1 and 2.

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TERMS OF REFERENCE

"To investigate, with a view to improvement, the interaction of the supply of major components with main production."

* For the purposes of this thesis major components are as defined in the Glossary.

PART I - BACKGROUND

CHAPTER 1 - MOTOR MANUFACTURE AT AUSTIN-MORRIS

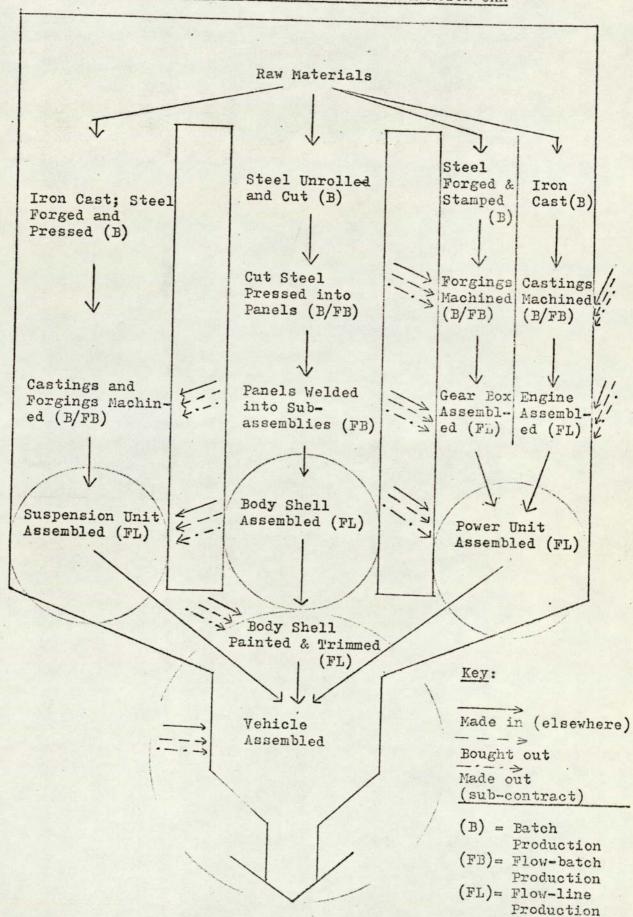
1.1. Introduction - Car Manufacture.

The manufacturing processes involved in building a motor car appear at first to be very complex. The average family car is built up from at least 5,000 individual parts. Yet the final assembly of a car involves the putting together of only a handful of major components, sub-assemblies and parts.

The discrepancy is explained by the additive process of car manufacture, which is illustrated on the flow chart in Figure 1.1.a on page 10. In general there are three distinct stages of manufacture. First there is the processing of raw materials, such as steel, iron and aluminium, into processed or finished parts. These processes do not involve the addition of any other parts and they are usually batch production operations, such as casting, forging, pressing and machining.

The second stage is the assembly of processed parts, bought in parts and any existing sub-assemblies into increasingly larger sub-assemblies as final assembly is approached. Each successive sub-assembly has its own part number and exists as a single unit in its own right for a time. The largest sub-assemblies to be built are the major components, which are surrounded by the continuous circles in the flow chart. Together they contain about one half of the total number of individual parts that go into a car.

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PRODUCTION PROCESSES IN THE MANUFACTURE OF A MOTOR CAR

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Figure 1.1.a

All that has to be done in the last stage of manufacture is the painting and trimming of the body shell and the final assembly operation.

The flow chart has been drawn up in terms of the major components defined for this thesis in order to stress the important part they play in the manufacture-of a motor car. On the one hand they are extremely expensive items, accounting for about one half of the total labour and material costs of a car, as well as a large slice of the overhead costs. On the other hand each major component is essential to the production of any motor car. Stocks of major components therefore form the final, most expensive, and most vital inventory station in a series of stations.

1.2. Integration and Location of Sub-assembly and Main Assembly Plants in the Company.

The flow chart in Figure 1.1.a shows that a certain degree of vertical integration has been achieved in the motor industry, but the degree of this integration is not as complete as is sometimes imagined.

The broken line arrows on the chart indicate that many parts and sub-assemblies used to build a car are still either bought 'outside' the companies controlling car assembly, or processed and built up by independent sub-contractors. In fact the sector of the motor industry which is not owned by the car assembly companies employs more people than the sector which is owned by them. At the top end of the scale in this independent sector are companies which exercise monopolistic or oligopolistic control over supplies of such components as tyres, toughened glass and brakes. The dependency of the motor car assembly companies on the supplies of such components has been demonstrated several times over the past few years when industrial action has affected delivery.

It would, however, be true to say that the closer the production processis to final assembly, the higher the degree of vertical integration there is. By the time major components are assembled and supplied to final assembly this integration is complete. Two consequences follow from this. Firstly the motor car assembly company has complete control over the supply of major components for final assembly. But, secondly, it is not possible to obtain a major component from anywhere else when stocks run out.

Vertical integration in the U.K. Motor industry has been the result of a logical progression of events rather than a planned process. Before the Second World War it was the exception rather than the rule and even some of the companies producing major components were independent from those assembling the cars. Since the war it has come about gradually through a series of takeovers and mergers. So gradually, in fact, that the Pressed Steel Company, now a part of Austin-Morris, was still an independent supplier of body shells less than ten years ago.

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The gradual process of integration to some extent explains the dispersal of factories belonging to the motor car assembly companies throughout the country, although since the war, successive governments have also succeeded in getting the companies to build factories in development areas. It also explains the arrow labelled 'made in (elsewhere)' on the flow chart in Figure 1.1.a, which can now be seen to mean that a part or sub-assembly used in a particular process has been supplied from another factory within the same company.

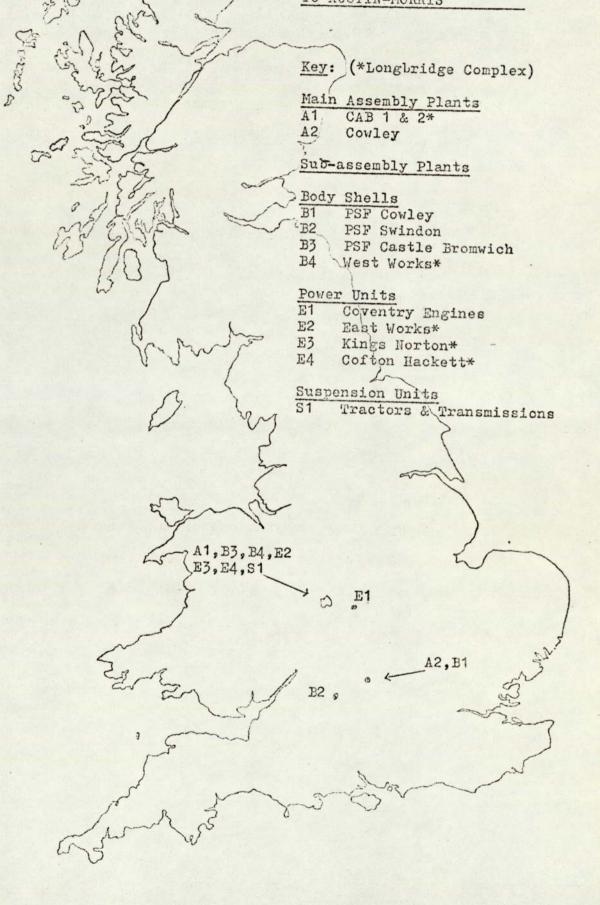
Austin-Morris is one result of this gradual process of integration and consequently some of its sub-assembly plants are located at some distance from the main assembly plants, as illustrated on the map in Figure 1.2.a on page 14. Any attempt to closely integrate the production at factories in different locations is bound to create some problems, especially when flow-line operations are involved. Those sub-assembly plants in Austin-Morris which are not located in or near the main assembly plant complexes to which they send their products are connected to the assembly plant by road or rail transport. The flow of transport from sub-assembly plants to main assembly plants is therefore an integral part of the production system, which must be maintained almost continuously if the system is not to break down.

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Figure 1.2.a

MAIN ASSEMBLY AND SUB-ASSEMBLY PLANTS BELONGING TO AUSTIN-MORRIS



1.3 Planning Production in the Company

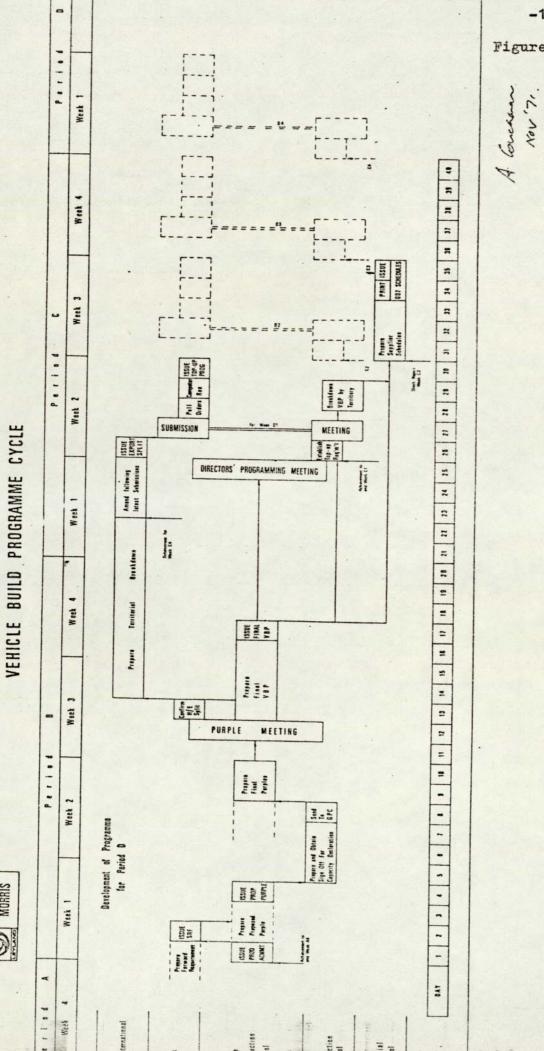
There are two levels of production planning in the Company, The first covers long-term planning. The cost of altering machines and flow-line tracks every time total production levels for a car range are changed can be very high. Not only are the machine and track alterations expensive to carry out, but the equipment involved must remain idle for days, or even weeks, at a time. The Company also covers the costs incurred by independent suppliers setting up their machines to satisfy a particular production level whether the parts are ordered or not. And finally total production levels are subject to union negotiations from which labour tries to obtain long production runs at a steady level in order to obtain regular wages. For all these reasons it is impracticable to let short-term demand for finished cars be the sole factor to influence total production levels for car ranges. Some compromise between sales and production must be reached. This compromise is a production programme which is based on long-term forecasts of sales and productivity. The duration of a production programme is never usually less than six months and once it has been set it will only be altered if a serious error in forecasts has been made. It effectively keeps production levels for each car range steady over a fairly long period of time and so allows the investment costs in production facilities to be recovered.

The second level of production plauning in the Company is controlled by the Vehicle Build Programme. The VEP is a short-term plan which fixes the production of one month ahead firmly, and the production of two further months tentatively, in more precise detail within the constraints laid down by the production programme. Just as the total number of cars to be produced in each car range is determined by long-term planning, the mix of options within any range is controlled by the VEP from month to month. As such the second level of production planning is more closely related to sales forecasts and the Company's Sales Requirement Forecast always forms the basis for the VEP. Figure 1.3.a on page 17 illustrates the present proce dure for determining the VEP and a specimen copy of the document which is issued as the result is contained in Appendix D1.

The integration of production at sub-assembly and main assembly plants is affected by both levels of planning. Both types of factory operate on a flow-line principle and therefore their track speeds and the distances between operations on the lines are fixed in accordance with the production programme. Manning up levels the amount of labour and the number of skills necessary for any production level - are also controlled by long-term plans. But none of these factors are affected by what major component or car options within any range are produced and so production mix is governed by the VBP. In the short term, therefore, the production of major components and their usage at the assembly plants can only be controlled in content, and not in number.

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Figure 1.3.a

1.4 Major Component Stock Control in the Company,

One of the basic ingredients of standard stock control systems is the ability to order more supplies and, within a reasonable lead time, to receive all or most of those supplies. That ingredient is not, however, present in the production system connecting major components with final assembly.

Stocks of major components occur as a result of any variability between their supply from the sub-assembly plants and their usage at the assembly plants. In theory the integration between the two types of plants should be so close that any variability between supply and usage of major components is negligible and control of stocks is unnecessary. In practice, however, the system may not always work so perfectly. Men and machines are fallible, and transport, although an integral part of the production system, is not always under the Company's control. Moreover, in volume car assembly even small variability between supply and usage of major components can result in large surpluses of stock occuring or a large amount of production at the assembly plants being lost through shortages.

In the latter case there would be a need for some form of stock control. But mejor components cannot be scheduled and so safety stocks cannot be maintained. One form of control available is the fixing of ceiling levels up to which the stocks of any major component will be permitted to rise.

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Company records, examined in the early stages of the research project, indicated that large surpluses of major component stocks do occur quite frequently, as do losses to production caused by shortages of major components. A list of weekly opening stock figures for the body shells of a particular car range that were recorded during the financial year 1948/69 appear in Appendix C1. During the same year 46,340 cars were lost from total Austin-Morris production because of shortages of major components.

Further investigation established that there are two ways in which the ceiling levels for major component stocks can be fixed in the Company. The first method is to tic the ceiling levels to the production programme currently in force by fixing them at the planned production levels for two or three shifts. This is, however, only a rough guide.

Ceiling levels can also be fixed by using a calculation contained in the 049 procedure for selective parts control in the Company. 049 is the standard scheduling and float control procedure used by the Company. It was primarily designed for use in scheduling materials and, as such, assumes some degree of control over levels of supply in the short term in order to maintain safety stocks. That control does not exist in the case of major components and enquiries established that 049 was not really designed for use with major components. But 049 does have a calculation to fix ceiling levels for stocks, which appears in Figure 1.4.a on page 21 and which can be used for major components.

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The two elements of that calculation are Stores Buffer and Delivery Quantity. The Stores Buffer is itself the sum of the elements set out in the centre of Figure 1.4b on page 22 which turns out to be a negligible figure for major components because of the continuous nature of the way in which they are delivered, and can therefore be safely ignored. The Delivery Quantity for major components is the production programme for the time interval over which delivery is considered to take place. The ceiling level chosen will therefore depend on this time If a small one is used ceiling levels will be low and interval. if a large one is used they will be high. It is interesting to note that if the 049 calculation were applied over time intervals of one shift and two shifts, the ceiling levels would be one and a half shifts and three shifts of planned production respectively, which are almost the same as suggested by the rough guide described above.

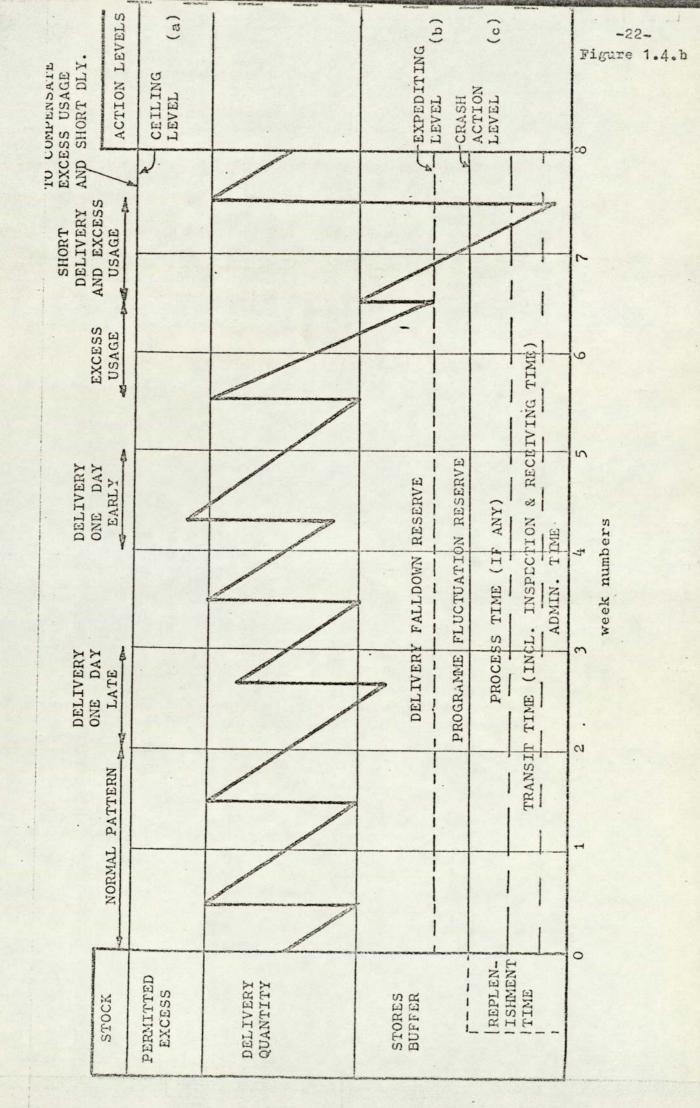
1.5 Need for some Method of Review established.

Both methods of fixing ceiling levels for major component stocks in the Company are arbitrary. They include no method of evaluating the effects of the chosen levels on the Company, neither do they have any means of comparing the chosen levels against other potential ceiling level policies. This does not mean to say that the ceiling levels chosen by those methods are not the best available. It just means that the Company has no means of knowing whether or not they are the best. In order to be sure of choosing

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						-			1.18	ure i	•4•8
Appendix'A' illustrates the elements which make up Action Points :-	(a) Ceiling Level Stores Buffer	plus Delivery Quantity	plus Permitted Excess (up to 50% of delivery quantity subject to stores capacity)	(b) Expediting Level Stores Buffer Level	minus Delivery Falldown Reserve	(c) Crash Action Level (Replenishment Time) Admin. Time	plus Transit Time (inc. Receiving and Inspection) plus Process Time				
AI											

Figure 1.4.a



the best ceiling level policy for major components, however that policy is calculated, it is necessary to use some scientific method of reviewing major component stocking policy. Such a method would fix ceiling levels in such a way as to minimise the combined cost of holding large stocks and losing production because of shortages. In other words the variability between the supply and usage of major components would be the determining factor in any scientific method of review. It was therefore decided to try and establish such a method of review.

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CHAPTER 2 - CONTRIBUTION OF LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

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2.1 The Review of Literature and Research.

A review of existing literature and contemporary research was undertaken once the problem area had been defined. The primary purpose of the review was to find an existing method of ceiling level control for major in-process stocks, which could be applied directly to major components in the motor industry. Failing this a secondary purpose was to find some existing work in the field of stock control that could be adapted for the development of a major component stocking model. Three approaches to the literature and research survey were taken.

- 2.1.1. References from the following bibliographies were followed up.
 - (a) The APICS Bibliography .
 - (b) 'Operations Research in Production and Inventory Control'².
 - (c) 'Inventory Control Research: A Survey'.
 - (d) The Austin-Morris Inventory Control Bibliography4 *
- 2.1.2. Abstracts from specialised abstract publications in the fields of industrial scheduling⁵ and inventory control⁶ were read and potentially useful references were followed up.

2.1.3. A survey of contemporary research into in-process

stock control, based on the latest available edition of 'Scientific Research in British Universities and Colleges, Volume III (The Social Sciences)⁷, was carried out. A copy of the circular letter sent out in connection with the survey appears in Figure 2.1.a on page 26, and a schedule containing details of research that was followed up is contained in Figure 2.1.b on page 27.

2.2 The Contribution of the Review.

The review yielded mixed results. Because of the nature of the stock control problem involved and its peculiarity to the motor industry no immediately applicable methods of reviewing major component stocking policy were found. The few useful references that were found, however, did provide a basis for the development of a major component stocking model.

2.2.1. The production system described in 'The Effects of Breakdowns and Interstage Storage on Production Line. Capacity:⁸ bears a close resemblance to the system linking major component sub-assembly with final assembly. The automated production line model described in the article has the following main features:

> (a) It is defined as "...a network of automatic (machine controlled) production stages through which parts are successively fed." Attention is restricted to production lines of a simple linear flow with n stages.

The University of Aston in Birmingham Department of Industrial Administration

Head of Department: Professor I F Gibson

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Postgraduate Room

Meple House, 158 Corporation Street, Birmingham 4 Telephone 021-359 3611 Extension:

Dear

I am a research student at the University of Aston doing some work on production and inventory control for major components in the motor and heavy engineering industries. The research is concerned with major inprocess stocks and supplies rather than finished products.

I understand from the latest edition of "Scientific Research in British Universities and Colleges" Volume 3, that you are carrying out research into some aspect of production and inventory control. If your research is in any way connected with in-process stocks (the industry or product is not important at this stage), or with computer applications for in-process stock control, I would be obliged if you could let me know a little about the work you are doing.

Should I discover that we have some common ground in the research we are doing I would be very pleased to start a correspondence with you and, should the need occur, come and see you.

CONTEMPORARY RESEARCH PROJECTS FOLLOWED UP

<u>NAME</u> S.J. Morrison.	UNIVERSITY ETC. Hull	RESEARCH TOPIC "Production scheduling and in- process stock control problems"
D.C. Spencer.	Leicester Coll. of Technology	"Development of ultra-stable production and stock control systems: examination of the role of stocks as a casual factor in generating economic instability."
K. Hilton.	Southampton	"Inventory model of U.K. by sector" (1966-1968). "Cross- section analysis of stocks in British manufacturing industry" (1966-1968).
Dr. G. Gregory,	Lancaster	"Layout problems of sales fore- casting, production planning and stock control." (1968-1969).
M.J. Sargeaunt.	Loughborough	"Overall optimisation of complete industrial systems as against sub-optimisation of the individ- ual parts, with particular reference to stock and production control." (1966-).
D.J. Jugwell.	Swansea (U.of W.)	"Systems for inventory control in instrument manufacturing company" (1966-1968 Marconi Ltd.).
G.A.B. Edwards.	UMIST	"Inventory control in engineering firms." (1967-).
R. Shanks.	Warwick	"Production planning in the motor industry." (1967-1970).

(b) " A production line is considered to be producing whenever the last stage is turning out finished pieces. Otherwise it is said that the line is "down"."
(c) Each stage in the line is subject to random stoppages resulting from mechanical breakdowns or adjustments, and a stage in this condition is considered to be "down". A working stage is referred to as being "up".

(d) " A third state is possible for a stage. That is, it is physically able to produce.....but it either has no parts on which to work or it has no place to eject the part on which it has just completed work." Such a stage is said to be "forced down".

(e) " A storage facility between two successive stages is called the buffer capacity. Under the postulates of breakdowns, the number of parts found in a buffer at any time is a chance variable. A stage will build up the number of parts in a buffer whenever that stage is up and the succeeding stage is down or forced down. A stage will decrease the number of parts in a . buffer whenever that stage is up and the preceeding stage is down or forced down. The buffers are not preloaded with parts at the beginning of a production run."

At first sight it may appear that the two production systems have so much in common that the method set out in the article for determining how much buffer storage capacity to provide for an automated production line could be directly applied for determining optimum ceiling levels for major component stocks. Closer inspection of the contents, however, indicate a number of important differences, which are listed below.

(a) Mr Freeman's interest is not restricted to storage policy alone. He is concerned with the major factors relating to the design of automated production lines, and in the article referred to he seeks to determine:

- " 1. How many stages to employ in the line.
 - 2. In which order to place the stage?.
 - How much interstage storage capacity to provide.
 - 4. How to allocate the storage capacity among the stages."

(b) The production line defined in the article is not strictly comparable to the production system under study in this thesis. The article refers to a production line separated into production stages by buffer storage facilities, each stage carrying out a distinct operation on a part. Such a production process is referred to as flow-batch in Figure 1.1.a on page IO , and it is used mainly for machining operations in the motor industry. The system described in Chapter One can be defined as two continuous flowlines connected by a major component storage facility. Furthermore, whereas Mr Freeman is only considering one n-stage line, the system under study contains three or four parallel sub-assembly lines feeding one

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final assembly line.

(c) Only fixed capacity buffer storage facilities are considered in the article, and once the line is built these capacities cannot be altered. Control of major component stocks, however, must involve some degree of flexibility in the ceiling levels used, in order to cater for varying conditions.

(d) Finally, the analysis used in the article is confined to the mechanical behaviour of production stages in the production line. Transport between stages is discounted and human factors are ignored. The assumptions used in this respect are critical to the solutions arrived at in the article, as the following paragraph illustrates:

" The last assumptions to be made about the production line concern the breakdown characteristics of the individual stages. In this investigation it is assumed that the mean up time between successive breakdowns of a stage, and the duration of a breakdown, are each independent random variables described by exponential distributions.The basis for choosing the exponential model is the empirical evidence that actual production facilities behave in that manner. Such evidence is cited in Koenigsberg^{*} and Feller^{*}."

* References given in the article.

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The differences between the two production systems bar the way to any direct application of the work in the article being reviewed to the problem under study in this thesis. If, however, the sub-assembly and main assembly processes of car manufacture are considered as two stages of one continuous flow-line, separated by buffer stock facilities, it is possible to adapt the method of simulating the behaviour of the production stages to determine optimum ceiling levels for major component stocks, as set out in the article.

2.2.2. A basis for developing a major component stocking model had been provided by the article discussed above. The arbitrary assumption about the distribution of production stage breakdowns, however, did mean that some other way of describing the behaviour of the production 'stages' concerned had to be found. Once again the literature provided no direct answer. But there appeared to be some connection between the system under study and a dam storage model.

> The use of dam storage theory in stock control is not a new phenomenon as the following passage from 'The Theory of Storage'⁹ illustrates: "Dams and inventories having essentially different structures it is not at first sight obvious that a very close connection exists between the two types of situation. In the above simple model we have a dam of finite capacity K, input X_t, content after release

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 Z_{t+1} and amount released equal to min (M, $X_t + Z_t$). Consider the deficit, $D_t = K - Z_t$, which is a random quantity and may be interpreted as the stock in a store. During successive intervals of time random demands, X_t , are made on the store. If $X_t \leq K - Z_t$ the demand can be completely satisfied and the final amount of stock is $K - X_t - Z_t$. If $X_t > K - Z_t$ the whole demand cannot be satisfied and the final content of the store is zero. This corresponds to an overflow. At the end of each interval of time, the store is again stocked with an amount M or K - $X_t - Z_t$, whichever is less (since the store is finite). This corresponds to the release rule in the dam. Unsatisfied demand remains unsatisfied and does not occur again in the next interval. The equations of this system are thus exactly the same as those of the dam, whether the quantity being stored is continuous or discrete."

Closer inspection of the above passage. however, demonstrates that it is an <u>inverted</u> dam storage . model which is being used to describe a stock control situation. The input of water into the dam, X_t, is used to describe demand on the store, the release rule, or flow of water out of the dam, is used to describe the flow of stock into the store, and an overflow is used to describe a stockout.

The literature reviewed did not contain any case in which a dam storage model is applied to a stocking

situation the 'right way up'. Yet the dam storage model referred to in this section is closely related, as it stands, to the production system linking major components to final assembly. In both cases the supply of a particular commodity flow into a storage space of finite capacity, from where it is taken to help produce another commodity. The long term nature of the supply of both water and major components can be estimated from distributions of rainfall in a given season and deliveries against a given production programme respectively. But the exact level of supply in any one time interval is largely a matter of chance for both.

One difference between the dam storage and major component stocking situations is that the flow of major components out of stock is also a chance variable in the short term, whereas the release rule for water in a dam can be fairly accurately forecast for a time interval. This difference is, however, . only one of detail. The dam storage model provides an even better basis for a major component stocking model than the interstage storage model, described in 2.2.1, does. The production system being considered is still one of two 'stages' separated by a buffer storage facility, but the resulting stock is no longer being determined by the behaviour of the production stages themselves. It is now being determined by the flows of major components being

- 33 -

supplied to, and used from, a stock reservoir. The model developed in Part II of the thesis is therefore essentially concerned with the interaction between the supply and usage flows of major components.

The dam storage model is by no means the complete solution. It can only have two dimensions whereas a major component stocking model must have at least four or five dimensions, one for the supply of each major component and one for usage. Moreover, once built, the dam has a fixed physical capacity, whereas ceiling levels for major component stocks need to be more flexible. The way in which the basic two dimensional supply/usage model is adapted to the major component stocking situation is described in Chapters 3 and 4.

2.3 The Longbridge Engine Storage Exercise.

During the project described in this thesis a small engine storage simulation exercise was carried out by the Operational Research Department of the Longbridge complex. That exercise was also based on a supply/usage model, but it is not directly applicable for the following reasons:

> (a) The Longbridge exercise was a one-off study of the supply and usage of just power units. The interdependency of the supplies of all major components was not considered.

(b) The time interval in that simulation was one week.

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In order to approximate to continuous supply and usage flows the interval needs to be much smaller.

The engine storage exercise is mentioned here because, although it is not directly comparable with the major component stocking model described in Part II, it does provide partial confirmation for the supply/usage model approach, since both projects were carried_out independently. The results obtained during the Longbridge exercise also confirm the trend of results obtained from the major component stocking model, as will be seen in Chapter 9.

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PART II - DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPUTER SIMULATION MODEL CHAPTER 3 - A MAJOR COMPONENT STOCKING MODEL

3.1. The basic Model

It has already been established in 1.4 that the sole reason for any change in the stock level of a major_component is the variability, or inter-action, between its supply and usage. A change in stock level can therefore be defined as the difference between supply and usage, and the basic major component stocking model can be expressed in terms of the following closing stock equation:

Figure A

 $CS_t = OS_t + REC_t - USE_t$

Key: CS = Opening Stock; CS = Closing Stock; REC = Supply; USE = Usage; t = A Time Interval.

The exact nature of supply and usage for any one time interval are not known. But the pattern of supply and usage for any particular programme level can be estimated. These estimates can be made from probability density functions set up from distributions describing the supply and usage of any major component. In the model, therefore, supply and usage will depend on estimates and the equation should be defined as:

Figure B

 $CS_t = OS_t + REC_t - USE_t$

where REC_t = Pr(REC)_t

USE_t = Pr(USE)_t

Key: Pr(-) = An event estimated from the relevant density function.

Assuming for the moment that there are no constraints whatsoever on CS, then the model will be affected solely by the inter-action between Pr(REC) and Pr(USE). In this case supply and usage will be acting quite independently of each other in the short term described by t. As they are independent variables the results of their inter-action can be described by their joint distribution, giving estimated changes in stock level, set out below

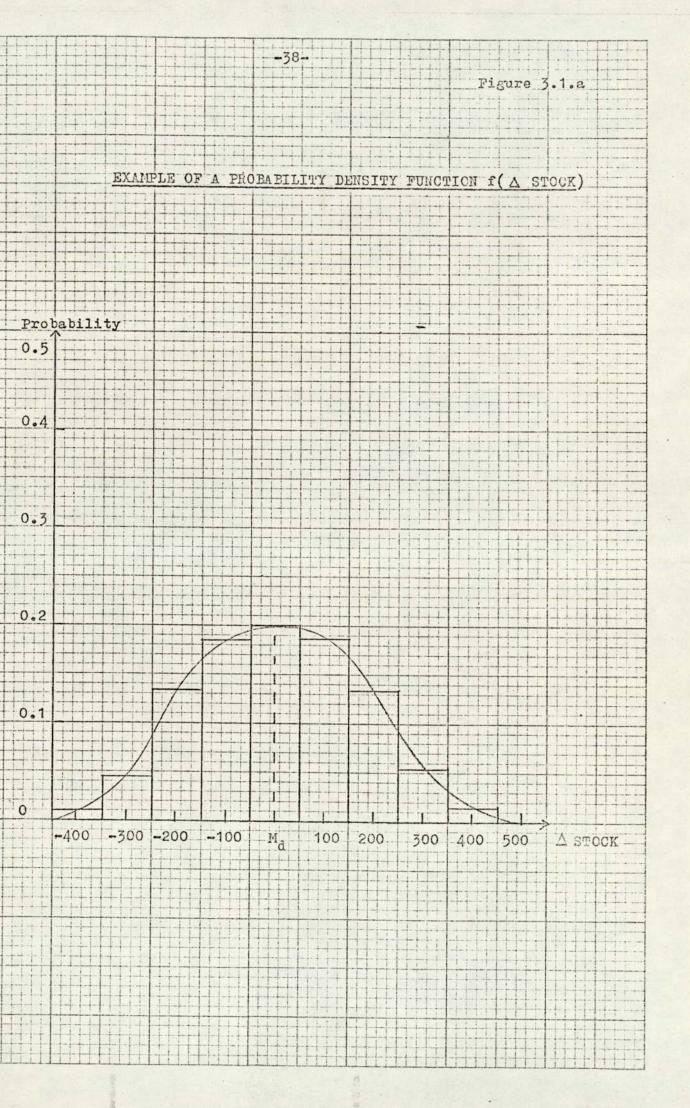
Figure C

 $Pr(\Delta STOCK)_t = Pr(REC)_t - Pr(USE)_t$

with $CS_t = OS_t + Pr(\Delta STOCK)_t$

<u>Key:</u> \triangle STOCK = A change in stock level.

An example of a probability density function built up from the joint distribution $Pr(\triangle STCCK)$ is shown in Figure 3.1.a on page 38 . Both the continuous and discrete cases have been included in the example. Given such a density function and an opening stock figure it is possible to estimate the probabilities of various closing stock figures.



3.2. Availability.

In the model developed so far CS has three possible states. It can be positive, zero or negative. But in any real stocking situation negative closing stocks cannot occur and a restriction must therefore be placed on the model to prevent their occurrence there. At the same time the real effect of a negative stock, a loss to production caused by shortage of the major component, must be recorded. This loss will amount to the absolute value of the negative stock generated by the model. Hence the following relationship can be defined:

Figure D

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 $\text{LOSS}_{t} = |\text{CS}_{t}|$

for $CS_{t} < 0$

CS can only be negative if the estimated availability of the major component is less than its estimated usage, where estimated availability is the sum of the opening stock and estimated supply. The value of the negative closing stock will then be the difference between estimated usage and estimated availability, and the usage generated by the model will be restricted to the estimated availability resulting in a zero closing stock figure. Taking the availability restriction into account the model can be expressed as follows:

Figure E

$$CS_{t} = OS_{t} + REC_{t} - USE_{t}$$

$$Where REC_{t} = Pr(REC)_{t}$$

$$USE_{t} = Pr(USE)_{t}; LCSS_{t} = 0 \text{ for } OS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} \geq Pr(USE)_{t}$$

$$\left(USE_{t} = OS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} \text{ for } OS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} < Pr(USE)_{t}\right)$$

$$\left(LOSS_{t} = Pr(USE)_{t} - (CS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t})\right)$$

3.3. Ceiling Levels

Another as sumption underlying the model developed so far is that there is no restriction on the size of a positive CS. But in real situations there is a space constraint on the amount of stock that can be held in any one time interval. Moreover, in the major component stocking situation, as in dam storage, the restrictions on size for any positive CS comptitute one method of controlling stocks. The dam storage problem is to optimise the physical size of a dam. This is a onceand for all exercise because geographical and climatic conditions, controlling the supply of water are unlikely to change during the life-span of any dam and the growth of the use of electricity in any area can be fairly accurately forecast. The behaviour of the supply and usage of major components, however, will change at least each time the production programme is changed. It is therefore not practicable to invest in a physical storage space to cater for just one supply/usage condition. There must, of course, be a physical limit to any storage space, and the considerations involved in fixing such a limit are discussed in the concluding chapter of this thesis. The major component stocking problem is therefore

to optimise ceiling levels, within any storage space limit, for given supply/usage conditions.

The effect of a ceiling level restriction in the real situation is to stop the supply of the major component in the following time interval, thus causing a disruption to production at the sub-assembly plant for the duration of a time interval, whenever it is reached. In the model this can be expressed as:

Figure F

$$CS_t = OS_t + REC_t - USE_t$$

where $\operatorname{REC}_{t} = \operatorname{Pr}(\operatorname{REC})_{t}$ for $\operatorname{OS}_{t} < \operatorname{MAX}$ $\operatorname{REC}_{t} = 0$; $\operatorname{DIS} = t$ for $\operatorname{OS}_{t} \ge \operatorname{MAX}$ (for USE see Figure E)

Key: MAX = Ceiling level; DIS = Disruptions to Production at the Sub-assembly Plant.

3.4. Explaining Losses to Production in Assembly, and Disruptions to Production in Sub-assembly,

The basis of the major component stocking model is the unconstrained inter-action between supply and usage, which is described by their joint distribution of likely changes in stock level. The effects of introducing the availability and ceiling level constraints into the model can therefore be explained by reference to the example in Figure 3.1.a.

There are two ways in which losses to production in assembly and disruptions to production at sub-assembly can occur. The first is when average levels of efficiency at the two types of factory are out of equilibrium. M is the mean likely change in stock. If M_d is significantly different from zero, there will be either a cumulative increase in stocks or a cumulative decrease in stocks, and the inter-action between supply and usage will be constantly subjected to a constraint. Consequently there will be either large losses to production in final assembly, or frequent disruptions to production at the sub-assembly plant. It is possible to find an optimum ceiling level restriction for this supply/usage condition. But to do so would be to solve for a second best situation and thus imply that such a situation had been accepted as normal. Depending on how large a value M is, it it also unlikely that any optimum solution would make much difference to the situation in this case.

When M_d is not significantly different from zero, the supply and usage of any major component are in balance. But the model is probabilistic, and the order of events is unknown. It is therefore possible for either a decrease in stocks to occur in a time interval with a low opening stock, or for an increase in stocks to occur in a time interval with a high opening stock. These combinations of circumstances would also result in the inter-action between supply and usage being subjected to the restrictions, causing either losses to production

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in final assembly or disruptions to production at sub-assembly to occur.

In the first case the mean likely change in stocks is the determining factor in the model. But in the second case it is the variance of the joint distribution that determines how many times the constraints need to be used. The flatter the distribution, for instance, the greater is the chance of any large change in stocks, and consequently the greater is the chance of any loss to production at final assembly or disruption to production at sub-assembly. In a balanced supply/usage situation, therefore, a useful optimum solution, in terms of ceiling level restriction, can be found, and it will always be related to the variance of the joint distribution. The higher the variability between supply and usage is, the larger the variance of their joint distribution will be and the higher the ceiling level needs to be set.

Two further considerations arise from the explanations given in this section. The first concerns the independence of the supply and usage variables. These variables are only independent when their inter-action is not subject to any restrictions. In the model the inter-action takes place <u>before</u> the restrictions are introduced, and the model itself then determines the effects of any restrictions. The supply/usage information used for the model must therefore be independent.

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Recorded supply and usage information will have already been subject to the restrictions in the real situation, and therefore some of it will not be independent. If recorded information is used extreme care must be taken to eliminate any dependent data.

The second consideration concerns the time interval. In the basic model, with no restrictions on supply or usage, negative stocks and very large stocks have no effect whatsoever. Providing Md is not significantly different from zero, cumulative increases in stock will off-set any cumulative decreases in stock almost exactly over a reasonable length of time, and the time interval chosen is not of much consequence. When the restrictions are introduced that is no longer the case. The moment the inter-action is subjected to a constraint its results are affected, and whatever the result of the inter-action in the following time interval is, it cannot off-set that effect. A loss to production at final assembly during one time interval, for instance, cannot be made good by an increase in stocks during the following time interval. The model is therefore very sensitive to the time interval used, which must be small to approximate to the real situation. If a time interval of, say, one week were to be used, any actual increase or decrease in stocks generated by the model may well conceal any losses to production at final assembly or disruptions to production at sub-assembly that might have occurred during that week.

me hali m

Including both the availability and ceiling level restrictions introduced, the model developed so far has been expressed as:

Figure G

$$CS_{t} = CS_{t} + REC_{t} - USE_{t}$$
where $REC_{t} = Pr(REC)_{t}$ for $OS_{t} < MAX$

$$REC_{t} = 0; DIS = t$$
 for $OS_{t} \ge MAX$

$$USE_{t} = Pr(USE)_{t}; LOSS_{t} = 0$$
 for $OS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} \ge Pr(USE)_{t}$

$$\begin{cases}USE_{t} = CS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} & \text{for } OS_{t} + Pr(REC)_{t} < Pr(USE)_{t} \\ LCSS_{t} = Pr(USE)_{t} - (OS + Pr(REC)_{t}) \end{cases}$$

As it stands the model is only two-dimensional, describing the inter-action between the supply of just one major component and its usage, whereas all four major components are needed to produce a car. The supplies of all major components are therefore inter-dependent, and, as such, can only be described by a five dimensional model, which must contain four supply variables and one usage variable. There will also be four ceiling level restrictions, and the purpose of the model will be to find not an optimum ceiling level, but an optimum combination of the four ceiling levels. There will still only be one availability restriction, which will be determined by the major component with the lowest availability in any time interval. The model should therefore be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Figure H}}{\text{CS}_{t,j} = \text{OS}_{t,j} + \text{REC}_{t,j} - \text{USE}_{t}}$$

$$\frac{\text{where }}{\text{REC}_{t,j} = \text{Pr}(\text{REC})_{t,j}} \qquad \text{for } \text{OS}_{t,j} < \text{MAX}_{j}$$

$$\frac{\text{REC}_{t,j} = \text{O}; \text{ DIS}_{j} = t}{\text{ISE}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}; \text{ LOSS}_{t} = 0} \qquad \text{for } \text{MINAV}_{t} \ge \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}$$

$$\frac{\text{USE}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}; \text{ LOSS}_{t} = 0}{\text{ISE}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}} \qquad \text{for } \text{MINAV}_{t} < \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}$$

Key MINAV = Minimum availability amongst major components - i.e. Minimum (OS_{t,j} +Pr(REC)_{t,j}); j = A Major Component.

3.6. The Production Programme.

It has already been pointed out that the model depends on the supply/usage condition for which an optimum ceiling level policy is being sought, and that this condition will change at least each time there is a programme change. Consequently if a review of major component stocking policy over a period to include more than one programme level is contemplated, the model will have to include. one distribution for each of the five variables (four for supply and one for usage) at each programme level to be included. Strictly speaking, therefore, estimated supply and usage should be written as; $Pr(REC)_j /PRCG_i$ and $Pr(USE)/PRCG_i$ respectively, where $PROG_i$ is any one programme level. In order to avoid too much visual complexity, however, this has not been done, and references to production programmes are made just with the symbol PROG. The dependency of the supply and usage variables on programme levels is taken as understood from now on.

The production programme also affects losses to production at final assembly. A loss has so far been defined as $Pr(USE)_t - MINAV_t$, when $MINAV_t < Pr(USE)_t$. But losses are really calculated from the production programme, and it is possible for more production than planned to be achieved. It is therefore important to ensure that any potential usage (i.e. estimated usage) over and above programme level, that has not been taken up because of a shortage of major components, is not regarded as a loss.

On the other hand, when usage is below the programme level (i.e. estimated usage again) and a loss occurs, that loss is covered by the existing loss relationship in Figure H, because factors local to the assembly plant would have caused usage to be below programme level, even if there had been enough major components to satisfy the complete production programme. Taking the production programme into account the model should be expressed as follows:

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Figure I

where

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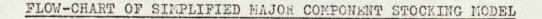
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{USE}_{t,j} = \text{USE}_{t,j} + \text{REC}_{t,j} = \text{USE}_{t} \\ & \text{REC}_{t,j} = \text{Pr}(\text{REC})_{t,j} & \text{for OS}_{t,j} < \text{MAX}_{j} \\ & \text{REC}_{t,j} = 0; \quad \text{DIS}_{j} = t & \text{for CS}_{t,j} \geq \text{MAX}_{j} \\ & \text{USE}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t}; \quad \text{LCSS}_{t} = 0 & \text{for MINAV}_{t} \geq \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} \\ & \text{USE}_{t} = \text{MINAV}_{t}; \quad \text{LCSS}_{t} = 0 & \text{for MINAV}_{t} < \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} \\ & \text{USE}_{t} = \text{MINAV}_{t}; \quad \text{LCSS}_{t} = 0 & \text{for PROG}_{t} < \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} \\ & \text{LOSS}_{t} = \text{PROG}_{t} - \text{MINAV}_{t} \\ & \text{USE}_{t} = \text{MINAV}_{t} \\ & \text{LOSS}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} - \text{MINAV}_{t} \\ & \text{for PROG}_{t} \geq \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} \\ & \text{LOSS}_{t} = \text{Pr}(\text{USE})_{t} - \text{MINAV}_{t} \\ & \text{MINAV}_{t} \end{aligned}$$

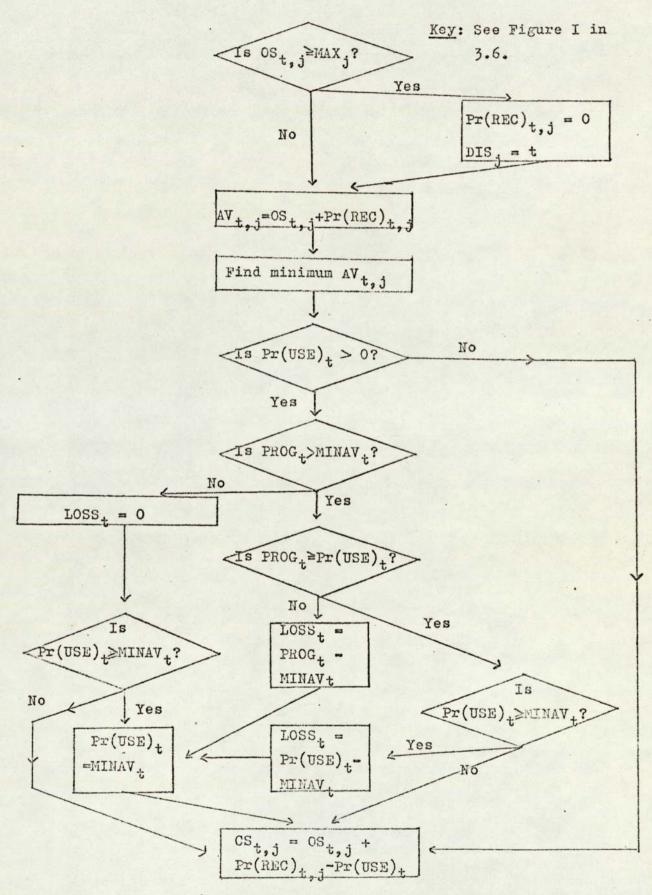
Key: CS = Closing Stock; OS = Opening Stock; REC = Supply; USE = Usage; t = Time Interval; j = A Major Component; Pr(-) = An Estimated Event; MAX = Ceiling Level; DIS = Disruption to Production at Sub-Assembly; LOSS = Loss to Production at Final Assembly; MINAV = Minimum Availability.

A flow chart of this model can be seen on Figure 3.6a. on page 50 .

3.7 Accuracy of the Model.

The model set out in Figure I is the one which has been used for all the practical work carried out during this research project. It is, however, a simplified model. Greater accuracy could still be achieved. A more accurate and complex model is described in Chapter Four. But, for reasons that are given at the end of that chapter, it was not possible to put the more complex model to any practical use at this stage. The description of the more complex model has been included in this thesis so that it can be used immediately the practical difficulties involved are overcome, without any further work being necessary.





N.B In Figures 3.6.a and 4.4.a <u>actual</u> supply and usage in the final equation are also defined by Pr(REC) and Pr (USE).

CHAPTER 4 - A MORE COMPLEX MODEL

4.1 Towards a more complex Model.

No Company policy concerning the production at main assembly and sub-assembly plants has been included in the model developed so far. Production stops when a constraint has been reached and only starts again in the following time interval providing that the constraints are no longer applicable. In other words the model assumes that there is no cost attached to spasmodic production.

This is, of course, unrealistic. There is a cost attached to any production process that is frequently disrupted, especially when production is supposed to be more or less continuous, as in the case of the production and usage of major components. The Company does have a policy to cover possible disruptions to production at assembly and sub-assembly plants. This policy has been introduced into the model, in the form of restrictions, in order to try to make the model more realistic. It will also make the model more complex.

4.2. Usage Restrictions.

The important relationship between sub-assembly and main assembly plants has resulted in a good communications system between them. Advance knowledge of certain events is therefore available to management. Given this knowledge, it is Company policy not to start production in any shift if there is a good chance that

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most of the shift will not be worked for one reason or another. This is because the moment any shift begins labour costs for the whole shift are incurred whether it is worked or not.

In the model it can be assumed that advance knowledge of estimated supply levels for all time intervals within any shift is available at the beginning of each shift. In order to ensure that most of any shift will be worked and that there will not be too many disruptions to final assembly because of shortages of major components, the minimum availability figure is compared against a fairly high percentage of the production programme for that shift. If the minimum availability for the shift is lower than the chosen percentage of programme the shift is not begun and lost production amounting to the whole shift programme is attributed to the shortage of the major component with the minimum availability. The part of the model relating to production loss can therefore be expressed as follows:

FIGURE J

 $USE_{t_1...t_n} = 0$

for X<Y

 $\text{LOSS}_{t_1 \cdots t_n} = \text{PROG}_t$

(and then as for FigureI)

Key: X = MINAV - i.e. Minimum (OS , + Pr(REC) , j); s = Shift Y = Chosen Percentage of Production Programme; n = Number of time Intervals in a Shift.

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4.3. Supply Restrictions.

If t is less than a shift disruptions to production can also occur in the middle of any shift at the sub-assembly plants and similar restrictions must be applied to the supply of major components.

The model again assumes prior knowledge of events that may lead to this situation, and if it is known that the ceiling level will be exceeded during the shift to come, production at the subassembly plant concerned will be stopped for that shift.

Whether or not the ceiling level will be exceeded in the next shift depends on the interaction between supply and usage. But usage itself may depend either on the estimated level of usage input into the model, or on a low availability of another major component. In the case of each major component, therefore, the chances of their respective ceiling levels being reached depend on the size of existing stock levels and on either a low usage being estimated or a low minimum availability being estimated.

The additional supply restrictions can therefore be written as:

Figure K

REC $t_1 \dots t_n$, j = 0; $DIS_j = s$ for $OS_{s,j} \ge MAX_j$ and $(OS_{s,j} + REC_{s,j} - U) \ge MAX_j$ Key: $U = Pr(USE)_s$ for $Pr(USE)_s \le X$ U = X for $Pr(USE)_s > X$

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4.4. The more complex Model.

The more complex model is formed by applying the extended restrictions set out in Figures J and K to the closing stock equation:

$$CS_{t,j} = OS_{t,j} + REC_{t,j} - USE_t$$

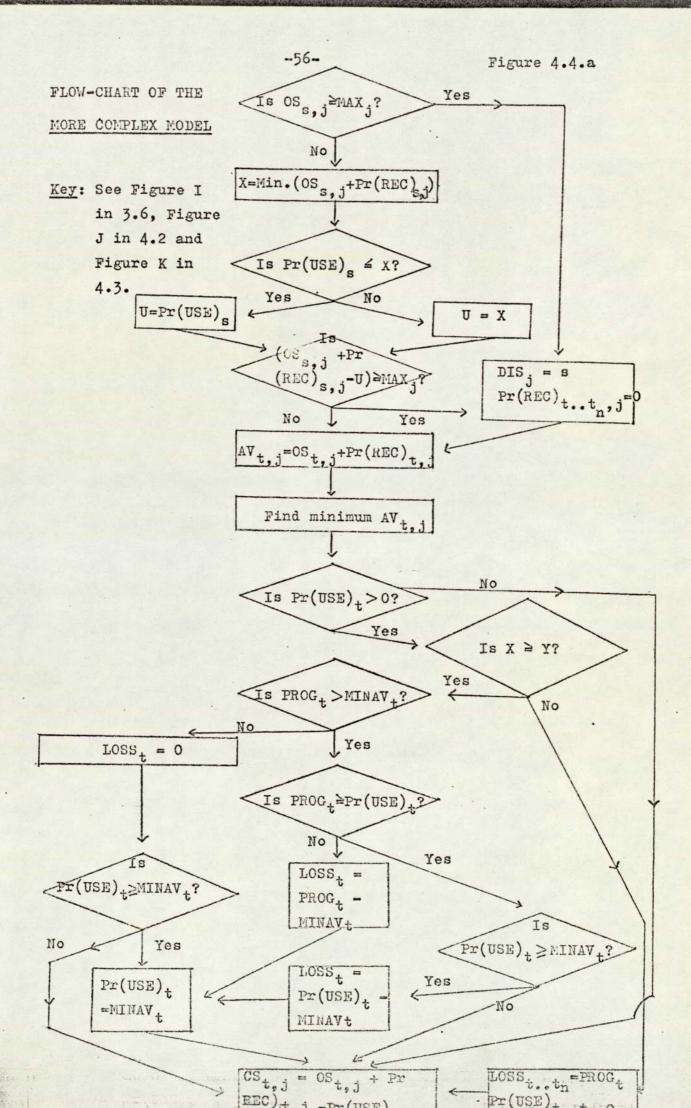
An illustration of this model appears on the flow-chart in Figure 4.4.a on page 56.

4.5. The Time Interval in the more complex Model,

It would be generally agreed that the additional restrictions introduced into the model in this chapter make for greater accuracy on two counts. Firstly the good communications and the production policy on which they are based do exist. And secondly time intervals of one shift or less must be used with the more complex model. It will therefore be more representative of the real situation.

Yet it was this restriction on time intervals that can be used in the more complex model that caused it to be abandoned: for the feasibility study described in Part III of this thesis. A model is only as good as the information that can be fed into it. After the model had been built records of supply and usage were examined. It was found that it would be impracticable to collect the necessary supply and usage information over time intervals of one shift or less for the experimental work to be carried out during the research project for two reasons. Firstly, although supply and usage information is available, over small time intervals from Company records of one sort or another, the necessary records are not easily accessible and they also contain a fairly large number of gaps. Secondly, any information collected for use in the model must also be investigated in order to eliminate any dependent data (see section 4 of Chapter Three). The work of investigating the information collected over small time intervals turned out to be too complicated and time-consuming to be successfully undertaken by one person in the time available.

It was therefore decided to collect daily supply and usage information for any experimental work. But that meant that the more complex model could not be used, and that all practical work would have to be done on the simplified model in Figure I. It should be stressed that the work done is none the less valid because the simpler model was used as the results obtained in validating the model, described in Chapter Seven, indicate.



CHAPTER 5 - THE COSTS

5.1. A Measure of Performance.

The development of a major component stocking model, and some refinements to it, have been described in the last two chapters. But in order to use the model for reviewing various ceiling level stocking policies it is necessary to introduce a measure of performance, by which the effects of different policies can be compared so that an optimum policy can be chosen. The cost involved in fixing a given ceiling level is used as that measure of performance, and the elements of that cost are introduced into the model in this chapter.

5.2. A Storage Policy.

The use of a ceiling level stocking policy for major components implies a storage policy, even if that policy were to leave stocks lying around in any available open spaces. The storage policy used will obviously affect the cost of maintaining any particular ceiling level in one way or another. If no storage facilities are to be provided there will be a high cost of maintenance and deterioration. If facilities are to be provided there will be an investment cost, but the maintenance and obsolescence costs will be much lower. It should therefore be the purpose of any major component stocking review to compare the optimum ceiling levels for different storage policies, in order to choose the storage policy with the minimum cost, as well as comparing different ceiling levels for just one storage policy.

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Storage policy in the model has three elements. They are:

- 5.2.1 The investment cost. It can vary from nothing to thousands of pounds, but if there is to be an investment cost it will be discounted over a number of years and appear as an annual cost in the model.
- 5.2.2 Storage facility capacity. If investment in storage facilities does take place it must be remembered that each facility will have a different capacity for each type of major component. More space will be required for storing body shells, for instance, than storing suspension units. The investment cost attributable to each type of major component must therefore be related to the amount of the storage facility taken up by it.
- 5.2.3 Factory Floor Storage Space. In the assembly plants there is usually provision for buffering a limited amount of major component stocks, resulting from the variability between supply and usage, within the factory building itself. In CAB 2, for instance, there is a balcony capable of holding some 200 body shells. A small proportion of any major component stocks can therefore be accommodated in these existing storage facilities at no extra investment cost.

Any storage policy can thus be expressed as follows:

Figure L

$$\left\{ \left(\left(MAX_{j} - XY_{j} \right) / DIV_{j} \right) \times TC_{j} \right\}$$

Key: MAX = Ceiling Level; XY = Factory Floor Storage Space; DIV = Storage Facility Capacity; TC = Investment Cost; j = Any Major Component.

5.3. Cost of holding Stock.

The cost of holding stock is the opportunity cost of keeping capital tied up in stocks instead of investing the capital and getting a return, plus the cost of maintaining stocks. This cost is usually calculated by applying a holding rate of percentage to the cost of the materials being held in stock. As the cost of maintaining stocks (or failing to maintain them in terms of wear and tear) is included in the cost of holding, the cost of holding will usually be inversely proportional to the investment cost, as explained in 5.2. The cost of holding is expressed below.

Figure M

$$CH_j = CM_j \ge R$$

Key: CH = Cost of Holding; CM = Cost of Labour and Materials; R = Holding Rate.

5.4 Cost of Shortage.

The shortage of any major component results in a loss to production and a cost is incurred by the Company each time this happens. The overhead costs of every car are calculated on the

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basis of the production programme. If a car is not built that overhead must be absorbed by the Company. The cost of shortage is therefore the unabsorbed overhead cost.

5.5. The Total Cost.

The total cost for any major component stocking policy can thus be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Figure N}}{\text{TCOST}} = \sum_{j=1}^{4} \left[\left\{ ((\text{MAX}_{j} - \text{XY}_{j})/\text{DIV}_{j}) \times \text{TC}_{j} \right\} + \text{CH}_{j} \right] + \cos \left[\text{for XY}_{j} < \text{MAX}_{j} \right]$$

$$TCCST = \sum_{j=1}^{4} CH_j + COS \qquad for XY_j \ge MAX_j$$

Key: TCOST = Total Cost; CCS = Cost of Shortage

5.6. The Total Cost Introduced into the Model.

The total cost is introduced into the model by multiplying the cost of holding stocks by an average stock figure generated by the model for any time period, and by multiplying the cost · of shortage by a figure which is the sum of all the losses to production generated by the model for the same time period. These figures are derived from the model in Figure 0.

$$AS_{j} = \left(\sum_{t=1}^{n} OS_{t,j}\right)/n$$

$$TLCSS = \sum_{t=1}^{n} LCSS_{t}$$

<u>Kov:</u> CS, LOSS, t and j are as defined in Figure I, Chapter Three; AS = Average Stock; TLOSS = Total Loss; n = number of Time Intervals in Period of Review.

The measure of performance of each ceiling level policy can therefore be expressed by the following ecuation:

$$\frac{\text{Picure P}}{\text{TCOST}} = \sum_{j=1}^{4} \left[\left((\text{MaX}_{j} - \text{XY}_{j})/\text{PIV}_{j} \right) \text{APC}_{j} \right] + (\text{AS}_{j} \text{ zCH}_{j} \right] + (\text{CS z TIOSS}) \text{ for } \text{XY}_{j} < \text{HAX}_{j}$$

$$\frac{4}{\text{TCOST}} = \sum_{j=1}^{4} (\text{AS}_{j} \text{ z OH}_{j}) + (\text{CCS x TICSS}) \text{ for } \text{XY}_{j} < \text{HAX}_{j}$$

and the purpose of any review would be to find the policy which minimises TCOST.

5.7. Disruptions to Production.

Cne effect of the inter-action between supply and usage of major components is that losses to assembly will occur if there is any variability, and so a cost has been attached to it. But another effect is that disruptions to production at sub-assembly plants will also occur whenever ceiling levels are reached. It is extremely difficult to attach a cost to such disruptions, even when the information relating to them is correct, and the information generated by the simple model would not be an accurate reflection of disruptions likely to occur in the real situation. Since the simple model had to be used for all practical work in the research, it was decided to make no attempt to cost disruptions to production at sub-assembly plants generated by the model. Provision was made, however, for the number of disruptions that were generated to be recorded so that some idea of their extent could be gained.

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CHAPTER 6 - SIMULATION

6.1. Getting Results.

It has been demonstrated in Chapter Five that various ceiling level policies can be evaluated by solving for TCCST (Figure P) in each case. A review of policies can then be carried out by simply comparing the costs, and the policy with the minimum cost can be deemed optimum. A method of reviewing major component stocking policy has therefore been developed. But the evaluation of TCCST depends, in turn, on finding realistic estimates of the average stock and the total loss for each ceiling level policy. As it is not possible to find these estimates by implementing various policies and waiting for the results, a model has been constructed to obtain them instead. It is therefore necessary to find some means of obtaining the results from the model that are necessary for the evaluation of the stocking policies.

There are two ways in which results can be obtained from models. The first is by using an analytical technique and the second is by simulation. Analytical techniques usually take the form of equation(s) or rule(s) of thumb that can be applied to the model. Simulation is a technique by which results are obtained from models by a process of imitation.

All models can be defined by relationships of one sort or another, and therefore it is always better to try and find solutions analytically. The only reason for resorting to a

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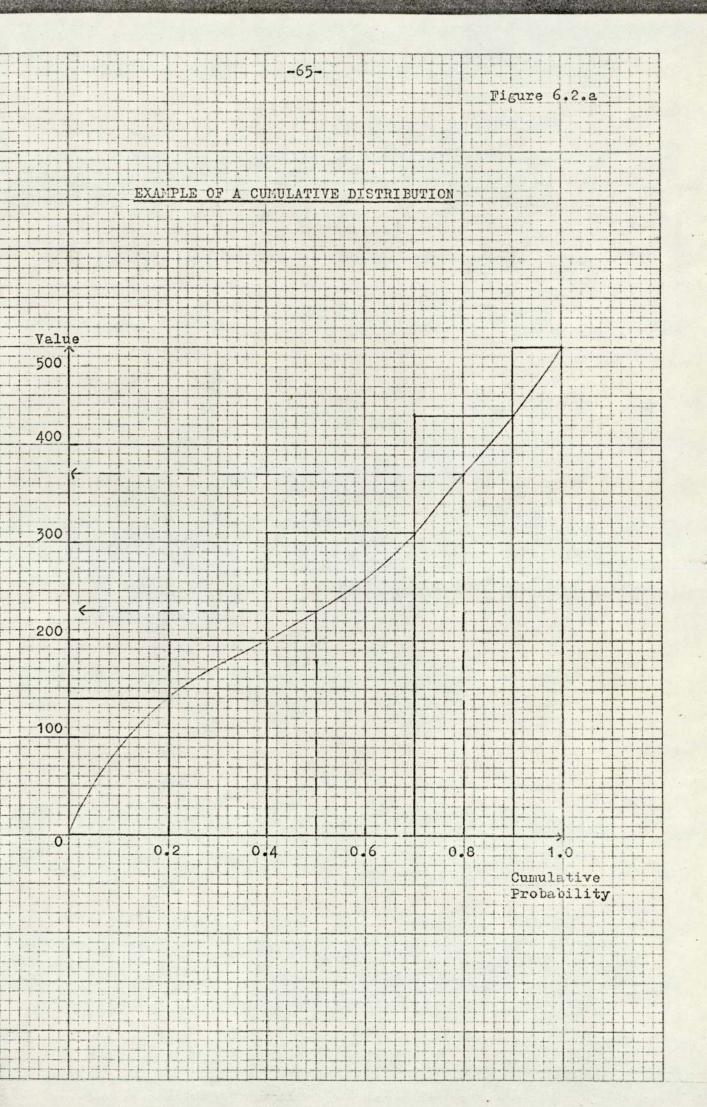
simulation is, according to F. Hannsman,² "....the complexity of the model which prevents one from writing down the desired measure of performance in closed "analytical" form."

The relationships in the major component stocking model all depend on $Pr(\Delta STOCK)$ - the joint distribution of supply and usage. If the parameters of that distribution can be calculated it will be possible to find the average stock and total loss from the model analytically. But the real major component stocking model is not the two-dimensional model portrayed in Figure 3.1.a on page 38, but a five-dimensional model. The calculation of the parameters of the joint distribution would therefore be quite complex, and it was decided to use simulation in order to obtain the results from the model.

6.2. Generating Events.

Whereas analytical solutions are found directly from a model, simulation involves the imitation of what happens, or has happened, in any situation described by a model. This is done by generating events in some predetermined order or pattern. If the model is probabilistic events will be generated in a pattern determined by a probability or frequency distribution.

The method by which events are generated for a probabilistic model is described in this section. Any distributions to be used are turned into cumulative distributions as illustrated in the exemple in Figure 6.2.a. on page 65. The figure contains examples of cumulative distributions for both the continuous and the discrete case. Use of the continuous distribution implies that any value, between 0 and 500 in this case, has a chance of



occuring. If only specific values have a chance of occurring, such as 140, 200, 310, 430 and 500 in the example, the discrete distribution must be used. The supply of body shells and power units, for instance, approximate to a continuous distribution because there is a chance of almost any number of those major components being supplied in a given time interval within a specific range. Suspension units, however, are smaller and can be delivered in greater numbers. Supply of suspension units therefore tends to be confined to specific batches and is best described by a discrete distribution. In both cases the pattern of likely ovents in maintained by the shape of the distribution.

The generation of events or values depends on random occurrence. It is known that there is only a small chance of obtaining a value of less than 100 on the continuous distribution, but when a value less than 100 will occur is not known. Random occurrence is ensured by means of generating a pseudo-random number, which has an equal chance of turning up as any number between 0 and 1 in the example. Once a pseudo-random number has been generated the process of generating an event from the continuous distribution is simply one of reading off from the curve the value corresponding to the pseudo-random number on the probability axis. This is illustrated by the broken lines in the example. In the discrete distribution the random number will fall into one of the boxes formed by the histogram, and as each box, or range of probabilities, corresponds to just one

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discrete value, that value will be generated. If, for instance, a random number of between 0.21 and 0.4 were generated, the corresponding value of 200 would be generated from the distribution.

6.3 A Computer Simulation Model.

Simulation can be done by hand, with the help of random number tables and a calculating machine. The time, effort and cost of using a computer for simulation are such that it should be done by hand whenever possible. In the major component stocking model, however, there are at least five distributions from which events need to be generated (four for supply and one for usage) and there are also a large number of policies that need to be simulated because a policy is any combination of four ceiling levels, not just one set of ceiling levels. Use of a computer is therefore essential to the model. But this also means that the cost of using a computer must be borne in mind when considering how useful the simulation model is to the Company.

The size of this section in the thesis belies the time and effort spent on computer systems and programming. Although an understanding of computers and computing is not necessary for the reading and understanding of the thesis, because a computer is only the means of evaluating and comparing different major component stocking policies, any appreciation of the work involved must take the computing done into account. Instructions and advice on how to use the computer simulation model can be found in Appendix B, together with details of the computer programs used.

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There are, in fact, two programs. The first builds up frequency distributions of supply and usage. The second is the simulation program proper, which generates the events, puts them through the model and evaluates and compares the costs of various ceiling level policies. If the behaviour of any supply variable or usage can be shown to be compatible with a known probability distribution it may not be necessary to build up a frequency distribution for it, in which case the first program does not have to be used.

All the programming has been done in FORTRAN IV. Courses in the specialist simulation languages of GPSS and CSL were attended, but so much of the programming was involved in building up frequency distributions and sorting, neither of which could be done by those languages, that it was decided not to use them at all.

The computer used was the ICL 1905 installation at Aston University. It is much smaller and slower than some of the Company's machines and therefore the costs and running times discussed in Chapter 9 may not be applicable. The Aston Computer, however, was much more adaptable to research work because of the software available, in terms of statistical packages and scientific sub-routines, and because of the faster turn-round of work.

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PART III - THE FEASIBILITY STUDY

CHAPTER 7 - VALIDATION

7.1. Purpose of Feasibility Study.

The terms of reference for this research project require the inter-action between the supply of major components and main assembly to be investigated with a view to improvement. Those terms have partly been satisfied by the development of a computer simulation model for the purpose of reviewing major component stocking policy, which is based on the inter-action between supply and usage of major components, and which has been described in Part II of this thesis.

So far, however, all the work described has been theoretical. In order to carry out the terms of reference to their full extent it was necessary to undertake a feasibility study in order to:

- Establish that the model being used is a reasonable approximation of the real situation - i.e. to validate the model.
- Carry out experimental work to assess the computer simulation model as a means of periodically reviewing major component stocking policy, in terms of practicability and cost.

7.2. Scope of the Investigation.

In order to validate the model an investigation of the supply and usage of major components for a particular car range over a past period had to be undertaken, and the actual results from that period had to be compared with the results generated by the simulation model. Although practical considerations had caused the simple model to be used, with time intervals of one day, for all practical work, it was not thought that validation of the model would prove to be impossible.

The car range chosen had to be one of Volume car manufacture, because only when production levels were high would the stocks resulting from the variability between supply and usage become large enough to merit serious consideration and review. The range chosen for the investigation was therefore the ADO 16 (11CO/13OO) car range, which represented approximately 36% of the Company's total planned production at the time. The period chosen was the latest complete financial year at the time, 1969/70, and the time interval to be used was one day.

The ADO 16 car range was, however, being assembled at both the Company's assembly plants (see map in Figure 1.2.a on page 14) during 1969/70. It was realised that the data collection involved in trying to carry out the investigation at both assembly plants could not be carried out in the time available, and the investigation was further restricted to a sub-set of the car range. The sub-set chosen was the standard four door ADO 16 saloon, which represented a still substantial 18% of the Company's total planned production at the time, and which was built at the Longbridge assembly plant during 1969/70.

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The scope of the investigation to be undertaken can therefore be summed up as follows: to investigate in detail the supply and usage of major components for the standard four door ADO 16 saloon during the financial year 1969/70, and to apply the information collected to the simulation model described in this thesis in order to validate it and then experiment with it.

7.3. The Production System Investigated.

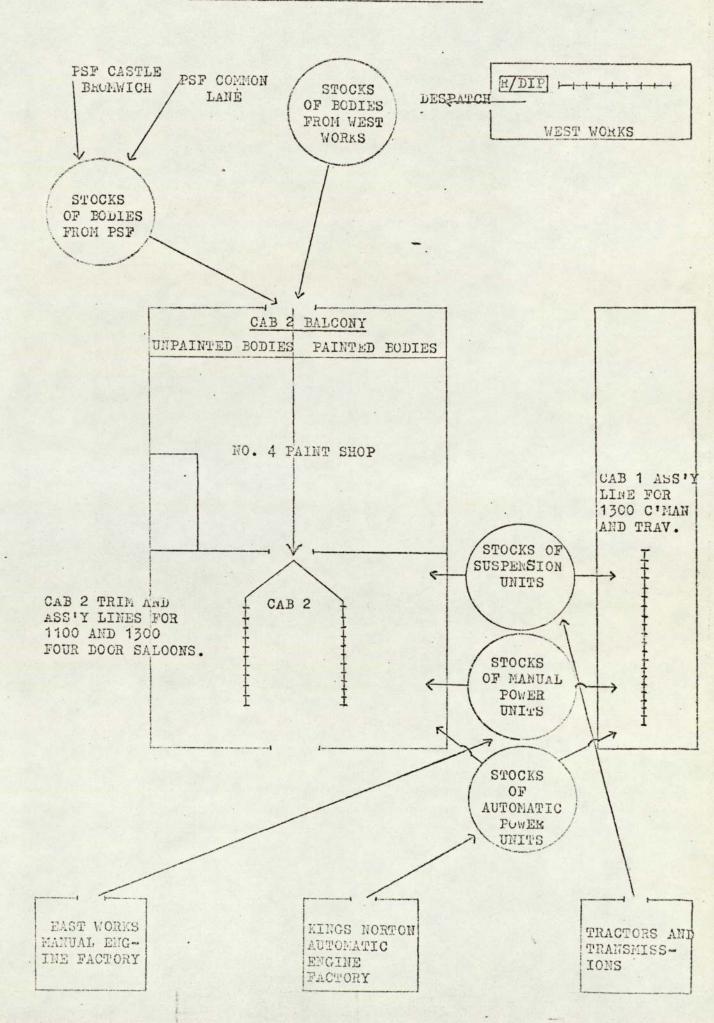
Figure 7.3.a on page 72 illustrates details of the supply and usage of major components in the system investigated. Body shells were received from three sources; West Works (within the Longbridge assembly plant complex) and the two Pressed Steel Fisher factories indicated. Stocks of body shells received from the PSF factories were kept separate from those received from West Works, when possible, for accounting purposes. Supplies of power units were received from either of two factories, both within the assembly plant complex, depending on whether they were manual or automatic units. Supplies of all suspension units came from one factory outside the assembly plant complex. All the factories concerned are, in fact, in the Birmingham area.

7.4. Data Collected.

Information relating to the supply and usage of major components and production programmes was required in order to validate the model. But in the case of supply and usage information it was not only necessary to collect the correct

Figure 7.3.a

THE PRODUTION SYSTEM INVESTIGATED



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information for the time interval chosen, but it was also essential to have the necessary background knowledge to be able to eliminate dependent data in the five distributions. It will be recalled that it was the difficulty of obtaining this background knowledge, coupled with the difficulty of obtaining necessary records, for small time intervals of one shift or less that caused the complex model to be abandoned.

7.4.1. Supply information was collected from daily advice note records, if the supplying plant was outside the Longbridge ascembly plant complex, or from daily internal factory records if it was inside the complex. Data actually used for the model, after elimination of any dependent data had taken place, is contained in the computer printouts in Appendix B1. Specimens of the documents used in collecting the supply information appear in Appendix D2. As has been mentioned in Chapter 6.2, the supply of body shells and power units was considered to be continuous, whilst the supply of suspension units was taken to be discrete. One additional factor had to be taken into account, in the case of power unit and suspension unit supplies. Another sub-set of the ADO16 car range was being built at Longbridge during the year 1969/70, in the other Car Assembly Building, as indicated in Figure 7.3.a. Although the production involved was

only low volume, averaging about 60 per day as opposed to the 500 odd per day of the four door saloon, the same power units and suspension units were used for both types of car. This problem was overcome by subtracting the average daily production of the ADC16 Countryman from daily supplies of power units and suspension units.

- 7.4.2. Usage information was collected from a daily production report, which gave figures for production achieved and for production falldown. It also gave reasons for production falldown, although these often had to be further investigated. Usage information actually input into the model, after the elimination of dependent data, also appears in the printouts in Appendix B1. A specimen copy of the daily production report can be found in Appendix D3.
- 7.4.3. Daily opening and closing stock information was collected, but there were too many gaps in the records to prove useful.
- 7.4.4. During the year investigated there was a change in production programme. Moreover, as the time interval being used was one day, each full week consisted of four days with two shifts and one day with one shift. Consequently it was necessary to use four distributions for the supply of each major component and for usage.

The daily production programmes involved were 449/204 (for two shifts and one shift respectively) during the first 43 production days of the year, and 500/230 for the remaining 196 days (see Glossary.) Some daily programmes did differ from those set out above. But not sufficiently for separate account of them to be taken (e.g. 447 instead of 449 and 209 instead of 204).

7.4.5. The ceiling levels used for the major components under investigation were estimated from the stocking information that had been collected. There had been a strike at the assembly plant during the year and stocks of body shells, pairs of front suspension units and pairs of rear suspension units had risen to 1200, 1400 and 1200 respectively before supplies had been stopped. During the same year there was a large surplus of power units of all types in the Company and these storks were stored in rented storage space. It was therefore difficult to establish a realistic estimate for a ceiling level, and a figure of 2000 was used.

7.5. Validation Results.

In theory any attempt to validate the model should have taken average stocks, losses to production at final assembly and disruptions to production at sub-assembly into account. But it had been established that only the more complex model could generate accurate results about disruptions to production at sub-assembly. And insufficient stock data had been collected for comparison of average stocks generated with those actually recorded. That left only losses to production as a means of validating the model.

Although the pattern of losses to production generated by the simple model using one day as the time interval would obviously not be as accurate as the pattern generated by the complex model, there was no reason to suppose that the total losses generated by the model for the year should not be a good approximation of the actual losses to production caused by shortages during the year. It was therefore decided that the model could be declared valid if the total loss generated by the model was a reasonable approximation of the actual loss. This meant that the mean total loss calculated from a number of simulation runs would have to have a good confidence of being close to the actual total loss incurred.

The actual figure for total loss caused by shortages of major components in the year was 7860, all of which had been caused by shortages of body shells. But a strike during the year which affected the body shell supplying plants was responsible for 4000 of that loss. The total loss for purposes of comparison was therefore considered to be 3860, all caused by shortages of body shells.

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The mean total loss generated by the model was 4083, 3892 of which were caused by shortages of body shells. A good confidence for these average figures being not more than 3½ or 4% out was also obtained. It was therefore considered that the model was sufficiently valid for use in further experimental work, although it is strongly recommended that further validation of the model, using better recorded data, is undertaken before it is put to regular use.

CHAPTER 8 - EXPERIMENTAL MORN

2.1 Purpose.

Once the model had been validated experimental work had to be carried out to assess the viability of the computer simulation model as a method of reviewing major component stocking policy. It was decided that the best way of doing this would be to actually use the model to review and compare various ceiling level combinations under a supply/usage condition specified by management. The finding of an optimum solution, although required if possible, was not considered to be of as much importance as the general trends that could be determined by the results.

8.2. Assumptions.

Using a time interval of one day meant that ceiling levels could be exceeded by amounts almost as large as one day's planned production under exceptional circumstances (i.e. if $OS_{t,j} = 950$, $MaX_j = 1000$, $Pr(REC)_{t,j} = 450$, $USE_t = 0$ and $PRCG_t = 500$). Investment costs for storage facilities in the model are calculated on the ceiling level imposed less any factory floor storage capacity. If the ceiling level is exceeded, the cost of holding stock will increase, but the investment cost will not. In the more complex model this cannot happen. Therefore, rather than trying to adapt the total cost equation for exceptional circumstances, which could be avoided by using a more realistic

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model, it was decided to assume that the excess stock could be accommodated at no extra investment cost.

The main assumption that has to be made before costs can be input into the model is that of storage policy. The traditional method of storing major components is on trailers, which are specially built for the transport and storage of specific major components. In order to make the experimental work as realistic as possible this same method of storage was chosen. Another consideration was that trailer costs and capacities were readily available.

Normally a total storage space restriction would be available and ceiling levels above a certain figure could not be considered. Some points to be considered in choosing this total space restriction are discussed in the concluding chapter of this thesis. But for the experimental work an attempt was made to establish the current space restriction in terms of total numbers. The restriction would, of course, depend on the storage facility used, which were trailers in this case.

Up till now it has been tacitly assumed that all storage of major components takes place at the assembly plant. But that is not the case, and stocks of major components are held at the sub-assembly plants too. The choice of a total space restriction did not really warrant a number of detailed calculations at each

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sub-assembly plant concerned, and therefore a total restriction of 2000 for each major component was assumed. This high figure, involving at least 400 trailers, was chosen so that a reasonable range of ceiling levels could be reviewed without the results being too unrealistic.

8.3 Supply and Usage.

A great deal of time had been spent in collecting and investigating the supply and usage information used for validating the model. It was therefore agreed that the same data should be used for the experimental work. But, the long strike involving body shell plants apart, body shell supply had still been considerably out of balance with the other supply variables and usage, as was demonstrated during validation of the model. Management therefore specified that the supply/usage conditions for the experimental work should be the same as existed during the financial year 1969/70, save that certain body shell data should be removed in order to establish a balanced situation. The data removed for the experimental work is marked with an asterisk on the printouts in Appendix B1.

8.4 Cost and Capacity Information.

Having defined the nature of the experimental work in detail, cost and capacity information was collected as follows:

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The cost of labour and material for each major component was obtained from the Longbridge cost office and is set out under item one of Appendix C2. The Company surprisingly did not appear to have a holding rate, and therefore a conservative figure of 25% was chosen.

- 8.4.2. Trailer capacities and costs are set out under items two and three of Appendix C2. Their source was the factory planning department at Longbridge. A series of new trailers was being purchased by the Company at the time and two sets of capacities and costs are given for power units and suspension units. The first set in each case was used for the model.
- S.4.3. The factory floor storage space for body shells in CAB 2 was known because there is a balcony in the building specifically designed for holding body shells and it has a capacity of 200. The space for the other major components was estimated at 200, 360 and 360 respectively for power units, front suspension units and rear suspension units.

8.4.4. The cost of shortage has been defined as the unabsorbed overhead incurred each time a programmed car was not built because of the shortage of a major component. The Longbridge Operational Research Department had used a figure of £200 to cover this cost in a project on engine storage. But the lower "economic profit" figure of £150, suggested by the Group Freduction Control department, was chosen in order to keep costs conservative.

8.5 Cpening Stocks,

The starting point for all simulation runs in the experimental work was to be the same as the actual opening stock figures for 1969/70 used in validating the model.

8.6 Feriod of Review.

Any implementation of a major component stocking policy would probably involve some storage policy decision and some investment cost. It is therefore unrealistic to assume that any review of major component stocking policy could be operated at short intervals, even if it is anticipated that supply and usage alter their behaviour significantly in the short term. Considerations in choosing the period of review are discussed in Chapter Tên; ". In the experimental work, however, management wanted the period of review to correspond to a given programme level. As there was one change in production programme during the year from which the data base for the model had been taken, two periods of review were involved.

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CHAPTER 9 - THE RESULTS

9.1 Variation in Results.

The viability of using the computer simulation model for reviewing major component stocking policy depends on the number of samples, or simulation runs, that have to be taken for each ceiling level policy in order to ensure reasonable accuracy for the results obtained. The number of samples that have to be taken depend, in turn, on the variance of the results generated by the model.

The validation runs of the simulation model had already shown that the results for any one major component stocking policy took some time to settle down, and even then varied by between 10% and 12% about the mean. The slight modification made to the data base for the experimental work, described in section 3 of Chapter Eight, was not expected to affect this variation a great deal. But the validation runs were carried out over a period of one year involving a change in production programme, and hence using four different distributions for each supply variable and usage. A separate review for each programme level was to be carried out during the experimental work, and therefore only two distributions would be used for each variable. Consequently further tests were carried out to establish the variation in results to be expected. One test was carried out for each programme level.

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Five simulation runs of one ceiling level policy were carried out for periods of between one and five years length, and variation as a percentage of mean total cost was a follows:

TABLE 1

Programme Level:

Level: <u>500/</u>	230	449/204	
Year Length	<u>8</u>	Year Length	5
1	50.79	1	58.31
. 2	35.67	2	36.02
3	26.19	3	18.63
4	8.69	4	13.16
5	12.48	5	7.03

s = estimated standard deviation.

An extra run of six years length was carried out for the 449/204 level to discover whether any further decrease in variation could be expected, but the variation recorded was 9.33%. It was therefore concluded that the results would settle down after about four years at the 500/230 level, and after about five years at the 449/204 level. The actual variation in both cases was expected to be in the region of 10%, but more precise calculations were to be carried out later.

The long time taken for the results to settle down, and the large variation in results even then, were thus confirmed. Applying an estimated standard deviation of 10% to the sampling formula $C \ge s/\sqrt{n} = A$ (where C = statistical confidence requiredin terms of numbers of standard deviations;¹ s = estimatedstandard deviation; n = sample size; A = a degree of accuracy), it turned out that at least 16 to 25 simulation runs would be needed for each policy in order to achieve a .975 confidence² that the mean total cost generated would be within 4% to 5% of the true mean.

1 This is based on the Normal Distribution, but in order to obtain greater accuracy with small samples C should be chosen from the Student's 't' Distribution.

2 Confidence limits are usually referred to as .95 and .99. But these only apply to two-tail tests, in which variation both above and below the mean is taken into account. The purpose of the simulation model is to find the ceiling level policy with the minimum total cost. An error will only occur if the total cost of the optimum policy found by the model is underestimated. Therefore it is only necessary to use a onetail test.

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It followed that every policy to be reviewed would have to be run for four or five years at least 16 times. If, for instance, any four combinations of just ten ceiling levels were to be reviewed, 10⁴ policies (or 10,000 policies) would have to be run 16 times over a number of years. Even the speed of a computer has its limits, and the one being used was comparatively slow as computers go. It was therefore expected that it would prove impracticable, in terms of both time and cost, for an optimum solution to be found merely by attempting to carry out the necessary number of runs for all the policies to be reviewed.

The first attempt at obtaining results only served to confirm these fears. An attempt was made to review all policies between 900 and 1400, at steps of 100, for just one of the programme levels. That range was chosen because it contained the ceiling levels estimated to have been used during 1969/70.

1296 policies were involved and a fairly long time on the computer was set aside for the run, but the run was not completed. Not even when the number of policies was cut to 4⁴ or 256 was the run completed. It was estimated that it would take about 3 hours for the computer to complete one run of 1296 policies. The cost of leasing time on the Asuon University computer was £50 an hour. If a minimum of 20 runs was needed at each programme level, the cost of completing the review would be 3 x 20 x £50 x 2 or £6000, (20 runs of 3 hours each @ £50 an hour for both programme levels).

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9.2 The Extract Routine.

The problem encountered was by no means insuperable. A faster computer could be used and if this were done the running time for the model would be cut, although a cut in costs would not necessarily follow as faster computers cost more for the time used on them. But it was not even necessary to consider switching computers at that stage. There are methods of designing experiments such that only a small number of results, which are likely to be optimum, have to be analysed. A secondary literature review was undertaken, but unfortunately no applicable method of experimental design was found. Sufficient knowledge was gained, however, to develop the basis of an experimental design which would cut down the amount of computing work to be done. For the purposes of this thesis it has been called the Extract Routine.

The underlying assumption of the extract routine is that there is some relationship between the bottom area of the total cost curve and the ranking of policies being reviewed according to minimum cost. Within that area the variation in results will make it difficult to distinguish the optimum solution from a number of near optimum solutions. But it is highly unlikely for the most expensive policy ever to be placed near the optimum policy, even in any single simulation run. If, therefore, a good estimate of the bottom area of the true total cost curve can be obtained in terms of a percentage of ranked policies for any one run, it will only be necessary to carry out one complete simulation run of all the policies to be reviewed. Further runs of only the likely optimum solutions need then be carried out.

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There was not sufficient time to develop the extract routine -properly and carry it to its logical conclusion by determining the relationship between the optimum area of the total cost curve and the ranking of policies. Experiments were carried out, however, and their results indicated that the use of the extract routine would ensure the choice of at least a near optimum solution. The results of those experiments appear in Appendix C3, and on the basis of those results it was decided to carry out the review of major component stocking policy by extracting the first 122% of policies, ranked according to minimum cost, and then by simulating the extracted policies the correct number of times. Only one run would be needed to extract the best $12\frac{1}{2}$ of policies. The results from the extract routine experiments were also used to obtain a better estimate of standard deviation, and estimates of 11.0% and 11.5% were calculated. It was found that there was a .9995 confidence of their not being exceeded. Using the sampling formula described in section 1 of this chapter it was decided to run 30 simulation runs of the extracted policies for both programme levels in order to achieve an accuracy of about 4%.

9.3 Results from the Extract Routine.

In order to avoid making the initial extract run too large at the same time as trying to cover as wide a range of ceiling levels as possible, it was decided to test all combinations of ceiling levels between 1000 and 2000 at steps of 250. This meant that 625 policies

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were to be initially reviewed, but only the best 12½%, or 78, from the first run were to be examined in detail, Appendices C4 and C5 contain the 78 extracted policies, together with their mean total costs estimated from 30 simulation runs, for the 449/204 and 500/230 programme levels respectively. The ten optimum policies in each case are also marked in the appendices. As can be seen there is not much to choose between any of the total costs relating to the best thirty or so policies shown, and it can be concluded that the bottom area of the total cost curve is not very sensitive.

9.4 Comparison of Results.

Cnce an optimum, or near optimum, policy for each programme level had been found, the effect of using them both together during a period of one year could be compared with the effects of other policies, chosen by arbitrary methods. Three other such policies were chosen.

The first was the ceiling level policy suggested in section 4 of Chapter One - tying all ceiling levels to three shifts of production programme. This policy also involved a change of ceiling levels during the year to be simulated because of the change in programme.

A second policy used in the ecomparison was to fix all ceiling levels at their highest possible point, which was 2000. And the last policy was the policy used in the validation runs, and estimated

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to have been used during 1969/70. Changes in programme would affect neither of the last two policies.

The results of the 30 comparison runs appear in Appendix 66. The immediate lesson to be drawn from this comparison is that setting ceiling levels too high is always better than setting them too low. The cost of losses to production cutweigh the costs of stocking quite heavily.

9.5 Computer Costs and Time.

Using the entract routine involved running the computer simulation model four times at each programme lovel, and once for the comparison of policies described in section 4. The first run at each programme level was to determine the optimum run length, the second was to try and find a range of policies approximating to the bottom area of the total cost curve, the third was to apply the extract routine to the policies under review and the last run, or rather series of runs, was to carry out the necessary 30 simulation runs on the extracted policies. A full break-down of the running times and costs for each stage are contained in Appendix 27.

At first the total cost of £1440 appears to be still quite high, although it has been cut to a quarter of what it might have been (see 9.1). But compared with the security the model affords against making a wrong decision, which is highlighted by the £150,000 difference in costs between the three shift ceiling lovels and any of the other policies, the £1400 computing cost fades into insignificance.

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9.6 Individual Component Simulation

The influence of the cost of losses to production was so pronounced in the results of the comparison run that management wished to develop some means of illustrating the point. A graphical illustration was suggested, but the results of the model are expressed in terms of one total cost for any combination of four ceiling levels, which would involve an illustration of five dimensions.

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For the purpose of illustration, therefore, the computer programs were adapted to review a two dimensional case of the interaction between the supply and usage of any one major component. It was fully realised that optimum results could not be obtained by solving for each individual type of major component in this way. No details on how the computer programs were adapted have been included in this thesis because the work involved was specific to this once and for all exercise.

Ceiling levels of between 400 and 2000, at steps of 100, were simulated over the same one year period which still included the . programme change. Five simulation runs were carried out for each major component, but no real attempt to obtain statistically correct averages for the results was made because it was the comparison between the influence of the cost of stocking and the cost of lost production on the total cost curve that was of central interest. Graphs showing smoothed total cost curves for two of the simulation runs carried out appear in Appendices C8 and C9. One curve relates to pairs of front suspension units, and the other to pairs of rear suspension units. The predominant feature in both graphs is the steep rise in costs as the ceiling level decreases from the optimum as opposed to the very gradual rise in costs as the ceiling level increases from the optimum. The results of all the individual major component simulation runs appeared to confirm that the lesser evil lay in setting ceiling levels too high rather than too low.

Another feature management required to be illustrated is the way in which ceiling levels can be lowered from the levels for which investment in storage facilities has been made, thus reducing the amount of capital tied up in stocks at the same time as allowing a reduction of efficiency at the assembly plant. At certain times of the year the demand for stocks of finished cars falls off considerably and there is not such a great need for efficiency at the assembly plant. Management wanted to know if there was a way of discovering how much could be saved, in terms of a decrease in capital tied up in stocks of major components, by a limited reduction in the efficiency of the assembly plant caused by lowering the ceiling levels. There would, of course, be no reduction in the annual investment cost for storage facilities.

It was found that an Efficiency/Cost curve could be constructed from the results already being generated by the model.

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Examples of the two Efficiency/Cost curves, constructed from information generated by the same simulation runs as were used for the total cost curves in Appendices C8 and C9, can be seen in Appendices C10 and C11.

First of all losses to production caused by shortages are plotted against the ceiling levels at which they occur. The losses to production are then expressed as decreasing rates of production efficiency. This is done by calculating loss as a percentage of total planned production for the year and by then subtracting that percentage from 100. The cost of capital tied up in average stockholdings at the various ceiling levels is then added as the second set of values for the 'x' axis. From this curve it is possible to estimate the effects of lowering a ceiling level on both efficiency at the assembly plant and average stocks of major components. Once again it is not possible to illustrate this process for the five-dimensional model, but a similar exercise can be undertaken by simulating the desired drop in ceiling level and comparing results.

Cne last interesting feature of the Efficiency/Cost curves is that they confirm the almost total influence of losses to production on the total cost curve, which is almost identical to the Efficiency/Cost curve cum. Shortage/Ceiling Level curve.

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The individual component simulation exercises carried out were to some extent similar to the Longbridge engine storage simulation exercise referred to in Chapter 2. There were still differences in time interval and method of control assumed for the two exercises. But the results proved to be strikingly similar, as is shown by the graph in Appendix C12, which has been reproduced from the report on engine storage issued by the Longbridge Operational Research Department. - The very strong influence of the cost/risk of shortages of major components on the total cost curve is thus further confirmed by an independent source.

CHAPTER 10 - CONCLUSIONS

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10.1 Results.

On the whole the results obtained from the computer simulation model are very encouraging. They can be summarised as follows:

- 1. Validation. Even the simple model, used with time intervals of one day, has been shown to be a reasonable approximation of the real situation. The more complex model should therefore prove to be even better.
- 2. Experimental work. The major component stocking policy review carried out during the experimental work established two important points. Firstly, losses to production caused by shortages of major components is by far the most influential factor on the total cost of any policy. Consequently it is always better to overestimate, rather than underestimate, the ceiling levels required. The results of the comparison run, contained in Appendix C6, show that the arbitrarily chosen policy of stocking right up to the limit, whenever the system allowed, costs only £3000 more than the optimum policy derived from the model, whereas the arbitrarily chosen policy of maintaining ceiling levels amounting to only three shifts of planned production costs over £170,000 more than the optimum policy of 2000 sets of

major components can therefore be recommended under the specified conditions. The second point established by the results obtained from the model during the experimental work was that the bottom area of the total cost curve is probably not very sensitive.

3. Viability.

The amount of work involved in any major component stocking review will depend on the variability of the results generated by the model. But if there is a large variability the basis for an experimental design, which could cut the amount of work to be done quite considerably, is available.

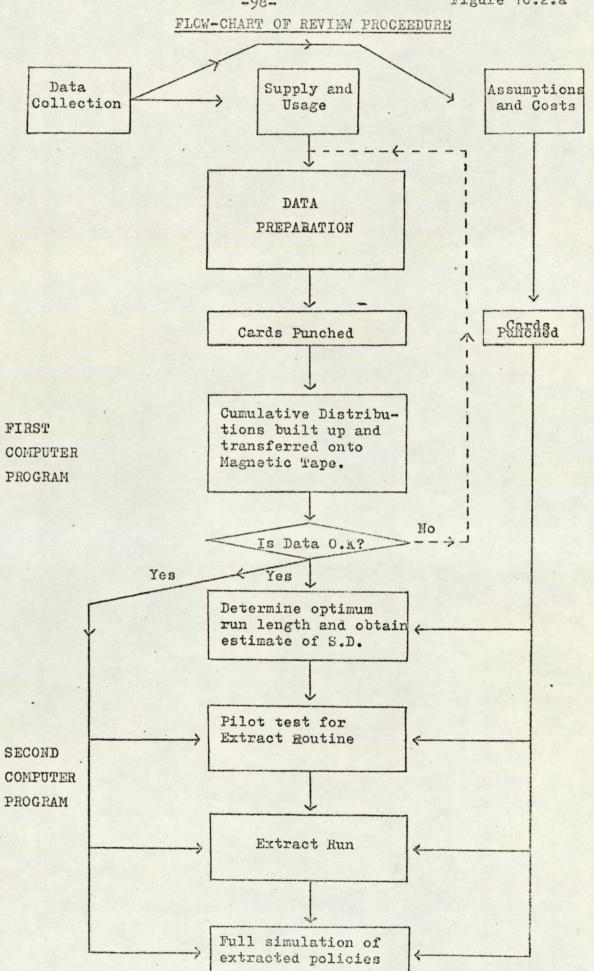
A. Cost. The cost of running a simulation model is usually high because of the very nature of simulation. The cost involved must be considered against the background of major component supply, usage and stocks. The cost of any stocking policy for major components is going to be high. The cost of choosing the wrong policy will also be high. The simulation model practically eliminates the risk of choosing a wrong policy and is able to review far more policies, with scientific precision, than any one person would be able to review. For reasons that will be given later in this chapter it is not anticipated that the model will be used very frequently. - 97 -

On the basis of the experimental work carried out on the model so far, there is every reason to suppose that it will become a very useful management tool.

10.2 Surmary of Review Proce dure.

The procedure for using the computer simulation model to review major component stocking policy and to choose an optimum policy is set out in the form of a flow-chart in Figure 10.2.a. on page 98. Detailed instructions on how to use the computer model are contained in Appendix B.

The first stage is the data collection. Two types of data have to be collected; supply and usage information is needed as the data base for the model, and cost information is needed as the measure of performance in the model. The supply and usage information collected can either be historical, if it is thought likely that a particular supply/usage condition is going to repeat itself, or it can be a forecast of likely events obtained from management.



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Figure 10.2.a

The second stage is the data processing or preparation. This involves the elimination of all dependent supply and usage data. It also involves ensuring that the data used for the model describes a balanced supply/usage condition (i.e. where M_d in Figure 3.1.a. on page 38 is not significantly different from zero.)

Cnce the data has been prepared the cards are punched and the supply and usage information is fed into the first computer program. This program builds up all the necessary cumulative distributions for each supply variable and usage. It also prints out the mean and standard deviation of each distribution so that the data can be checked a second time before it is fed into the simulation program. The first program then transfers all the cumulative probability distributions onto magnetic tape.

The cycle of simulation runs then begins. A first run is carried out to determine the optimum run length, and also to obtain an estimate of the standard deviation of generated results. The second run is a pilot test to determine what range of ranked policies to extract. This is followed by the extract run, and ' finally the full simulation of extracted policies takes place.

10.3 Information.

It will be clear by now that the usefulness of the major component stocking model which has been developed for the Company depends on the accuracy with which the supply and usage conditions can be estimated. In the early stages all the possible ways in which supply and usage can behave will have to be determined from

analysis of past records. Experience during this project has demonstrated that the collection of the necessary information is a long and complicated procedure as things stand. Even the collection of supply and usage information for time intervals of one day took over two months of full time work to complete. As it is the difficulty of getting access to available information, rather than any lack of available information, which seems to be the problem, it is recommended that provision be made for the collection of supply and usage information, together with any background information needed in preparing the data, at a central point. The information should, of course, be collected for the smallest possible time intervals so that the more accurate model can be used (providing it can be validated.) The collection of data at a central point is essential for the model and would involve a negligible amount of work.

10.4 The Assembly Plant as a Unit.

The simulation model that has been developed will review major component stocking policy for any one car range. Investment in storage facilities will therefore be calculated for each car range separately. But this is not very realistic. Firstly, because car ranges are sometimes built at both the Company's assembly plants, and secondly because it is most unlikely that ceiling levels for stocks of major components of all car ranges will be reached at the same time, and consequently the Company will be left with a large amount of spare storage capacity most of the time. Any investment in storage facilities should therefore be made for the assembly plant as a unit, and the necessary investment will depend on a calculation combining the ceiling levels chosen for all car ranges produced in the assembly plant with an analysis of the probabilities of stocks of the same type of major component from different car ranges reaching their various ceiling levels at one and the same time. These probabilities can be derived by carrying out a number of simulation runs of the optimum policy for each car range and then comparing the closing stock figures generated for the same type of major component in each car range. Calculation of total storage facility capacity for the assembly plant in this way assumes that the storage facilities needed for the major components of different car ranges are all identical. Investment cost in the model can then be expressed as rental

10.5 Period of Review.

charges incurred by any major component.

Investment in storage facilities for all major components used at one assembly plant will come to a very high figure. It will probably also be necessary to acquire a site near the assembly plant for storage purposes. It is therefore totally impracticable to carry out frequent reviews of major component stocking policy with a view to altering investment. Accordingly any investment in a storage site and storage facilities will be a long-term corporate planning decision. The considerations in reaching the investment decisicus will, however, still be

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supply and usage of major components and the simulation model can be used to help determine optimum investment decisions. The difference is that the period of review will have to be over a much longer period, say five years or so, and all expected supply/usage conditions for that period will have to be input into the model. The cost of running the model for these corporate planning decisions will be much higher, but it would only be incurred once in a number of years.

At a lower level of decision making the standard period of review will usually be tied to the length of any particular production programme, and the purpose of the model will be to find optimum ceiling levels for major components of all car ranges in the way that has been described in this thesis.

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In Part I of this bless's it was established that, although there could be no direct control over the total levels of major components in any car range being supplied and used in the short term, control of the mix of major component options being supplied and used in the short term is possible. Some ideas on how to tie in the control of stocks of major component options with an overall ceiling policy are discussed in this Appendix.

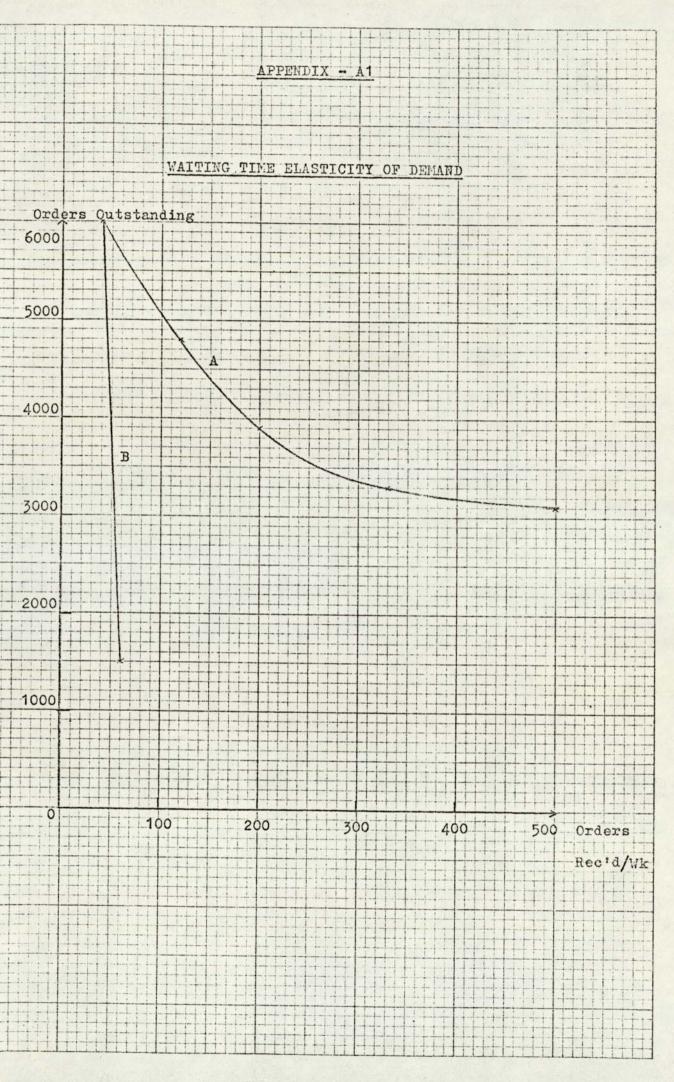
The basic idea is to fix a number of option levels within any major component ceiling level, so that when too high a surplus of one option occurs production at the sub-assembly plant can be switched to another option at short notice. The problem, therefore, is to develop the best means of fixing these option levels.

The normal method of stocking for production mix is to stock according to demand. It is therefore possible to develop a method of fixing option levels according to some kind of demand analysis, like Pareto. But the assumption underlying any such analysis of demand is that the cost of not being able to build a popular car is greater than the cost of not being able to produce a car with a lower demand. It is a logical assumption, but no proof for it exists. It was therefore decided to develop the basis for a method of fixing option levels which is more closely tied to the costs involved in not being able to produce a particular option.

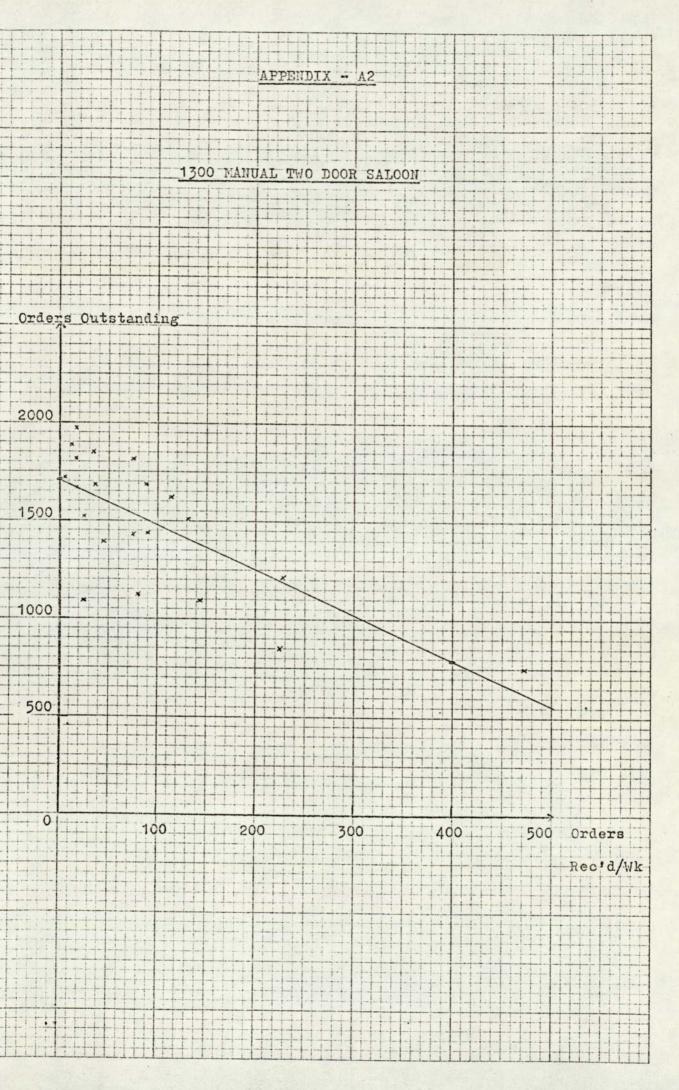
The cost of not being able to produce an option can, to some extent, be expressed in terms of the amount of time a customer is prepared to wait for his car. If he is prepared to wait a long time there is little chance of the 'cost' of losing him as a customer being incurred if the particular car he is waiting for cannot be built for the lack of a major component option. If he is not prepared to wait, however, this cost will be incurred. The likelihood of a customer willing to wait for a particular car option can be determined by the relationship between the orders outstanding for that car and the orders received for it in any time interval. If the curve of this relationship is elastic it can be concluded that customers are not prepared to wait a long time, and if it is inelastic it can be concluded that customers are prepared to wait. It should therefore be possible to fix option levels according to the elasticity of the 'Waiting Time Cost' curve of the car(s) containing the particular major component option.

Examples of elastic (A) and inelastic (B) waiting time cost curves are shown in Appendix A1. Using the waiting time elasticity of demand to control stock levels of major component options will ensure that options used for cars with a low demand but high sensitivity to waiting time will be stocked.

Some analysis of waiting time curves for all car options in the ADO 16 range was carried out during this research project and two of these curves appear in Appendices A2 and A3. Lack of time, however, did not permit any further progress in this direction.

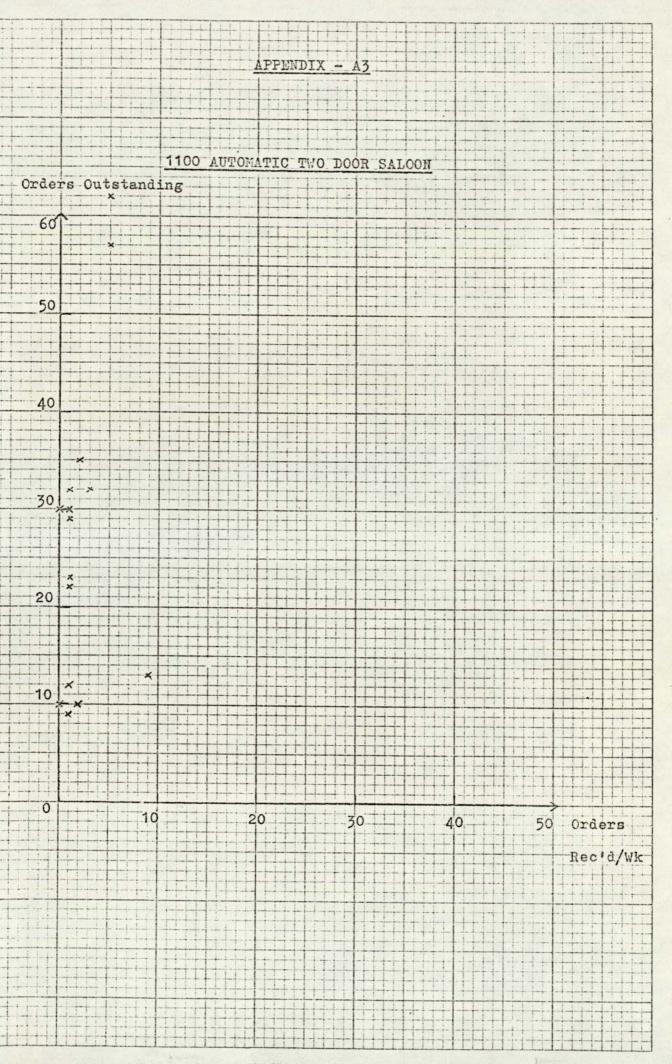


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3-1. The



INSTRUCTIONS FOR USING THE COMPUTER PROGRAMS

The review proce dure for major component stocking policy in Chapter 10.2 involves the use of two computer programs. The first program builds up the cumulative distributions of supply and usage from which events for the second program, the simulation program, are generated. Copies of both programs that were used for the experimental work described in this thesis are contained in Appendix E3. All the programming has been done in Fortran IV. Neither of the programm is very complex, nor are they as efficient as they might be since the overriding consideration in the programming was the relatively small core capacity of the computer being used. Except where changes are recommended, the programs themselves will not be discussed in this appendix.

THE FIRST PROGRAM

Instructions for Input.

The base supply and usage information for the simulation model is input into the first program. The data pack for that program currently contains one control card and data cards containing the raw supply and usage data already sorted into data sets. A data set is defined as <u>either</u> usage figures <u>or</u> supply figures for any one major component relating to a specific production programme - i.e. supplies of body shells during the period when production programme was 449 per day. Input instructions are as follows:

- 1) Prepare data i.e. eliminate dependent data;
- 2) Sort data into data sets;
- 3) Punch data onto cards, remembering that
 - (a) Only whole numbers may be used
 - (b) At least one blank column must be left after each number on any one card
 - (c) Each new data set must be started on a completely new card;
- 4) The order in which the numbers within each data set are punched is not important, but for the program as presently written the data sets themselves must be placed in the data pack in the following order -
 - (a) Usage Programme level A to D* respectively
 - (b) Body Supply Programme level A to D respectively
 - (c) Engine Supply " " " " "
 - (d) Front Suspension Unit Supply As for (a), (b) and (c)
 - (e) Rear " " " " " " " " " " " "

* See Key on cover page of Appendix B1; Printouts of supply and usage data actually read into the first program can be found in Appendix B1.

5) A control card, or set of control cards, which contain the number of values in each data set, must then be punched in the same order as set out in 4) above. The control card(s) must be the first card(s) in the data pack.

The number of data sets to be input will always be the number of major components being analysed plus one for usage, times the number of programme levels involved. This figure will obviously vary with both the number of major components and the number of programme levels involved. At present control of the total number of data sets to be processed is achieved by setting a program control variable, M4 (circled in the copy of the program listing in Appendix B3), equal to the required figure at the start of each program run. This means that it is necessary to change a program source card each time it is desired to process a different number of data sets. This is unnecessary and can easily be changed. It is therefore recommended that the total number of data sets to be processed is read in from a data card, which will then become the first card in the data pack. The necessary adjustment to the program has been added to the program listing in Appendix B3.

Interpretation of Output.

The first program just does all the basic data processing for the main simulation program. The two programs could therefore be linked without much difficulty. They have been kept separate so that a check on the cumulative distributions built up by the first program is available. Results from the first program are therefore output to both magnetic tape, as an indirect link to the second program, and lineprinter, as a visual check.

- Magnetic Tape: A cumulative distribution is built up for each data set read into the program. These distributions are defined in terms of data blocks, each containing three segments as follows
 - (a) Ranked values
 - (b) Cumulative probabilities

(c) Number of values.

The data blocks are output to magnetic tape in the same order as their respective data sets are read in. An illustrated example of a data block, together with an example of how the blocks are stored on magnetic tape, is shown at the beginning of Appendix B2.

2) Lineprinter: The same data blocks are also output to the lineprinter in the same order as they are written to magnetic tape. Additionally the corresponding data sets are printed out, exactly as they were read in from the data cards, before each data block and the mean and estimated standard deviation of each distribution are printed out. A specimen printout of results from the first program can be found in Appendix B2.

THE SECOND PROGRAM

Instructions for Input.

The data blocks describing the supply and usage distributions which are output to magnetic tape by the first program are automatically input into the second program from the same magnetic tape. Consequently no further instructions regarding supply and usage information are necessary. Nevertheless the data pack for the second program is still quite large because there are a number of different types of simulation run that can be carried out during any major component stocking review. Operating instructions are given by listing below the details of data cards that need to be punched in the order in which they must be placed in the data pack.

Order	Card	Card Type	Program Variable	Setting
			· · ·	
1	Run Type	Facility	køde	Extract Run = 0
			(Integer)	Simulation of Extr-
			-	acted Policies = 1
				Simulation of Rest-
				ricted Number of
				Policies = 2
2	Change	Facility	ITIME*	No Change = 0
	in	•	(Integer)	
	Ceiling		-	Time Interval at
	Level			which Change in
				Level is required
				= t

* <u>NB</u> ITIME is also the name of a time checking routine in ICL Fortran. This has already caused some errors in execution and it is therefore strongly recommended that the variable name is changed.

1	and the state of the second			
3	Number	Control	M5	1 to 4. The program
	of Data		(Integer)	can handle up to 4
	_ Blocks			distributions.
4	Number	Control	NSC	Must be > 0 .
	of Sim-		(Integer)	Maximum limit
	ulation			depends on time
	Runs			available.

Order	Card	Card Type	Program Variable	Setting
5	Run	Control	YEARC	Any multiple of a
	Length		(Integer)	Kun Period. Usually
				Optimum Kun Length.
6	Number	Control	KØUNTC	Number of policies
	of		(Integer)	to be extracted -
	Policies	-		for KØDE = 0; OR
		1.18.49	S. Sector	to be reviewed -
				for_KODE £ 0
7	Number	Control	M2	1 to 4
	of Major		(Integer)	
	Component	a		
8	Number	Control	M8	Number of time int-
	of Time		(Integer)	ervals within any
	Intervals			single period of
				review.
9	Data	Control	KZ	Set in conjunction
	Block		(Integer)	with M5. For M5 <
	Indicator			4, KZ = 1 or 2. For
				M5 = 4, KZ = 0.
		1		

* <u>NB</u> At present the program is designed to accommodate dual level production programmes (e.g. 449/204 and 500/230 see Glossary). From the magnetic tape storage diagram in Appendix B2 it can be seen that the relevant distributions are stored in positions 1 and 3, and 2 and 4 respectively. Set KZ at 1 if the distributions stored in positions 1 and 3 are <u>not</u> required, and at 2 if the distributions in positions 2 and 4 are <u>not</u> required. The

Order		Card	Program	
Order	Card	Type	Variable	Setting

relevant programming instructions are missing from the program listing in Appendix B3, but they have been inserted in the correct place by hand.

-	0
1	U

		7	F
10	Programme Control	LH1, LL1	The range of small
	Limits	LH2, LL2	fluctuations in
		LH3, LL3	programme levels
	Maria and	(Integer)	must be set in
			pairs (LH = high,
			LL = low) for each
			specified programme
			(see 7.4.4)*

* <u>MB</u> These limits ensure that events generated from the correct distribution are attributed to programme levels which deviate slightly from the generalised level specified. The three sets of limits must be set for the first three programme levels in the same order as their corresponding distributions, or data blocks, are stored on magnetic tape. The last programme level is catered .

11	Factory	Data	XY(M2)	One value for each
	Floor		(Integer)	major component.
	_ Storage _			See_5.2.3.
12	Opening	Data	STØCK(M2)	One value for each
	_ Stocks		(Integer)	major component.
13	Programme	Data	P(M8)	One value for each
!	Levels_		(Integer)	time interval.

Order	Card	Card Type	Program Variable	Setting
14	Ceiling	Data	MAXHI,	For KØDE = 0: The
	Levels			highest and lowest
			(Integer)	levels to be sim-
				ulated plus the
		1.4		steps between them,
				in that order.
			MAX(M2)	For KØDE ≠ 0: Either
			(Integer)	the paper tape out-
	1. 1. 1.			put by the Extract
		and the second		Program (see under
				1(b) of Interpretat-
				ion of Output) must
				be handed over with
		• • •		the data pack and
				no card(s) are in-
				serted (KØDE = 1).
				Or card(s) contain-
•				ing all policies to
				be reviewed must be
				inserted (KØDE = 2).
				of a combination of
				a different card.
				ed by 2 ceiling
				fferent cards. In
				icy must be placed
togethe	r in the da	ata pack i	n the order	in which the

_____ceiling levels are to be put into effect.

11

Order	Card	Card Type	Program Variable	Setting
15	Random Number	Data	RNS (Real)	Any decimal number between .00001 and
	Seed '			.0001 under normal
	COMPACE SA	2. And the	No. Com	circumstances. The
er det				card should be
				changed for each
				new computer run.*
				alation the program
				nis facility is not
		rogram so	urce instruc	tions will have to
	changed		1	
16	Cost of	Data	R	See 5.3
	Holding	*	(Real)	
	Rate			
17	Cost of	Data	cøs	See 5.4
	Shortage_		(Real)	
18	Cost of	Data	C(M2)	One value for each
	Material		(Real)	major component.
				See 5.3
19	Cost of	Data	TC(M2)	One value for each
	Invest-		(Real)	major component.
	<u>ment</u>			See_5.2.1
20	Storage	Data	DIV(M2)	One value for each
	Facility		(Real)	major component.
L	Capacity_]		See_5.2.2

Each variable listed must be punched on a separate card or set of cards in addition to any specific instructions already given. Once again a blank column must be left between all the figures on any one card.

Interpretation of Output.

The simulation program outputs the six most relevant results for assessing any major component stocking policy. A specimen printout of these results is shown in Appendix B2. The information it provides is, reading from left to right, as follows:

(a) Major component code: 1 = Body Shells

2 = Power Units

3 = Front Suspension Units

4 = Hear Suspension Units;

- (b) Ceiling level combination. Hence the major component stocking policy being analysed is always defined by the first 2 columns on the printout;
- (c) Simulated average stocks per period;
- (d) Simulated average losses to final assembly production caused by shortages of each major component per period;
- (e) Simulated average number of disruptions recorded at each sub-assembly plant per period;
- (f) Simulated total cost of the policy;
- (g) Simulated average total loss to final assembly production caused by shortages of all major components (which will usually differ from the sum of (d));

(h) Simulated average number of disruptions recorded at the final assembly plant.

The results listed above are output regardless of run type (i.e. KØDE setting). But the method of output and additional output facilities will vary according to run type chosen as follows:

- 1) Extract Run (KØDE = 0)
 - (a) Lineprinter: The results of the number of lowest cost policies specified by the input variable KØUNTC are printed out in <u>descending</u> order of total cost. This form of output is merely a visual check on the first main stage of the whole stocking review (Chapter 10.2) The only information of any importance to be output from an Extract Hun are the extracted policies themselves, which form part of the input into the next stage of the review proceedure (Chapter 10.2 and Input Instruction 14)
 - (b) Paper Tape: The transfer of data with respect to the extracted policies from run type 0 to run type 1 is achieved by a second output from the Extract Run to paper tape in the same order as they are printed out. The same paper tape is then used as input into the next run. If a separate visual record of the extracted policies alone is required the paper tape can be put through a reader and printed out, as has been done for Appendices C4 and C5:
- 2) Simulation of Extracted Policies (KØDE = 1): As presently written the program will print out results for each policy and for each simulation run. A vast amount of

printout would therefore accumulate as the result of a modest number of runs. It is therefore necessary to

- (a) Average the simulation results for each policy. At present a special routine at the end of the program averages the total costs of all the required runs for each policy. A specimen printout of the results obtained by the routine is shown in Appendix B2. The limited core size of the computer being used did not permit the averaging of all the results without basic changes to the program. But if a computer with larger core size is used it is recommended that the routine is expanded to cater for the averaging of all required results
- (b) Suppress the results from each individual simulation run. In the past this has been done by inserting a special program source card. Those instructions are not included in the program listing, and it is recommended that a general output suppression routine is added to the program;
- 3) Simulation of Restricted Number of Policies (KØDE = 2): The same output is obtained for this type of run as is obtained for run type 1 (see above). The only difference is that the number of policies to be simulated will be far less, and failure to suppress printouts for each separate run will result in less superfluous printout.
- 4) Finally, for simulation runs where KØDE ≠ 0, it is possible to get a full simulation listing for any policy on the lineprinter. A specimen listing is contained in Appendix E2. The key to the column headings is as follows:

PRØG	= Daily production programme
ø/s	= Opening stock
c/s	= Closing stock
REC	= Supply received
B	= Body shells
E	= Power units
FS	= Front suspension units
RS	= Rear suspension units
USAGE	= Major component usage
LØSS	= Loss to final assembly production
CØDE	= Major component shortage responsible for
	loss

At present this facility is limited to the first simulation run only. But if a large number of policies are being simulated, full simulation listings, even for just one run, will again result in a great deal of unwanted printout. It is therefore recommended that a general output suppression routine for the simulation listings is also added to the program.

the

GENERAL

A general word of warning needs to be added in concluding this appendix. Both programs have been written specifically for the ICL 1905 computer at the University of Aston in Birmingham. Consequently certain ICL packages and conventions have been used. If the programs are to be used on other installations great care must be taken to discover what changes need to be made.

APPENDIX - B1

PRINTOUTS OF SUPPLY AND USAGE DATA

<u>NB</u>: In the first computer program supply and usage is read into arrays of 150 elements each. In the printouts in this appendix the whole array has been printed out. Consequently all the zeros which appear after the last value in each array refer to empty array elements and are not zero values of supply or usage.

KEY:

н	-	Data	collected	for	specified	449	programme	level	
B		n	u	"	n	500			
C	=	Π	n	"	n	204	"		
D		11	"	"	n	230	"	"	

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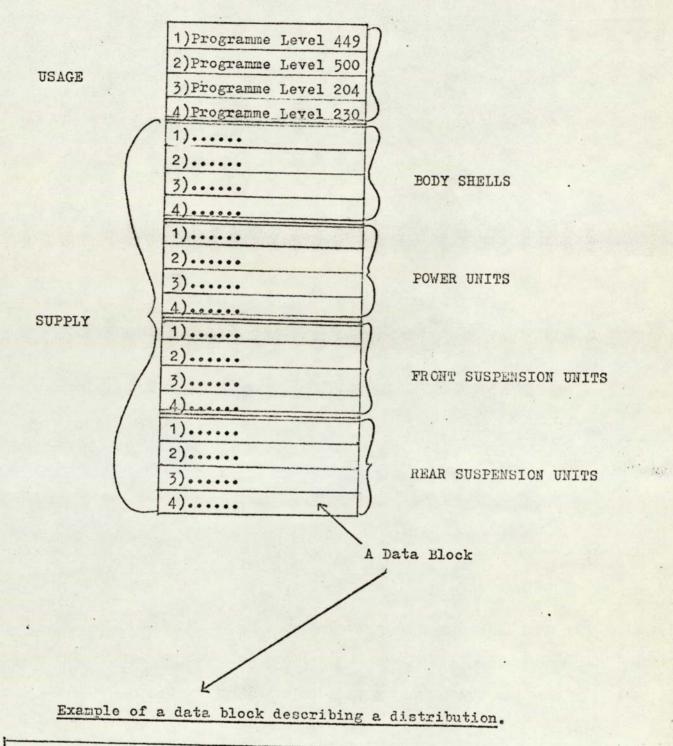
SUPPLY - FRONT SUSPENSION UNITS

11111

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DATA BLOCKS STORED ON MAGNETIC TAPE



CUMULATIVE PROBABILITIES	NUMBER OF
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```
LIST(LP)
SEND TO (ED,ASTD-DEFAULT(0))
WORK(ED,WORK FILF (0))
PROGRAM(PD02)
COMPRESS INTEGER AND LOGICAL
INPUT 5=CR0
OUTPUT 6=LP0
OUTPUT 7=MT0/(STOREDUPDATE)
NO TRACE
END
```

FIRST COMPUTER PROGRAM

the second s

10-12-10-1

```
MASTER(PPOBDISTS)
   DIMENSION ROM(15r), CUMNOM(150), (50)
   INTEGER RR(150), SP1(150), SP2(150)
   REAL NON(150), NAH(150), HEA
  (\mathbb{P}4=20) - - -
                                   - Change to: READ(5, IOO)M4
   ×0=0
  READ(5,100)(M(I), I=1, M4)
00 FORMAT(25010)
  NO AND MI ARE SPARE INTEGERS. SPI AND SP2 ARE SPARE INTEGER ARRAYS.
U3 N1=M(K0+1)
  DO 108 1=1,150
  CUMNOM(I)=0
  SP1(1)=0
05 SP2(1)=0
  READ(5,100)(RR(1),1=1,M1)
  DO 101 I=1,M1
U1 SP1(I)=PR(T)
 URITE(6,898)SP1
  IF((K0+1)-8)104,104,0
  IF((K0+1).E0.11.08.(K0+1).E0.12)60 TO 110
  IF((K0+1).E0.15.0R.(K0+1).F0.16)G0 TO 110
  IF((K0+1).E0.19.0R.(K0+1).E0.20)G0 TO 110
  DC 107 1=1,M1
                                                      Special routine
  SP1(I)=Sp1(I)-60
  IF(SP1(1)-0)0,0,107
                                                      to accommodate
  SP1(1)=0
07 CONTINUE
                                                      data problem
  GU TO 104
10 00 111 I=1,M1
                                                      specified in 2nd
  SP1(1)=Sp1(1)=30
  IF(SP(1)-0)0:0:111
                                                     paragraph of 7.4.I
  SP1(1)=0
  CONTINUE
11
  RANK DATA
14 DO 102 I=1,111
02 SP2(1)=Sp1(1)
  SM= sp2(1)
  DO 105 1=1,M1
  Do 106 L=1,H1
  IF(SP2(L)-SM)0,0,106
  SM=SP2(L)
  NO=L
6 CONTINUE
  SP1(I)=SM
  SP2/NO)=1000000
15 SM=1000000
  GENERATE CUM. PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS
  N=0
  1=1
  M9=M1-1
  DO 15 J=1,19
  IF(SP1(J)-5P1(J+1))16,0,0
  1=1+1
  GO TO 15
0 1=1+1
  Sp1(N)=Sp1(J)
  NON(N)=L
  1=1
5 CONTINUE
  N=N+1
  5P1(N)=SP1(M1)
  NOM(H)=L
  IF(SP1(1)-0)600,600,0
  N=N+1
```

1	
	SP2(1)=0
	$N \wedge M(1) = 0.0$
	Do 610 I=2,N
	NAM(I)=NOM(I-1)
610	SP2(1)=Sp1(1-1)
4.2.	00 620 1=1.N
050	NOM(I)=NAM(1) SP1(I)=SP2(I)
969	ROM(1)=0.0
	00 630 I=2.N
650	ROM(I) = (NOH(J)/M1)*99.0
	GO TO 640
600	D0 23 1=1,N
23	ROM(1) = (NOM(1)/M,) + c9.0
640	CUMNUM(1)=ROM(1)
	00 25 1=2.N .
25	CUMNOM(1) = CUMNOM(1-1) + POM(1)
	WRITE(6,898)SP1
898	FORMAT(2016)
	WRITE(6,99b)CUMNCM
998	FORMAT(20F6.2)
	MEAN=0.0
	VAR=0.0
	DO 27 1=1,N
27	MEAN=MEAN+(NOM(I)*SP1(I))/M1 VAR=VAR+(NOM(I)*SP1(I)=MEAN)**2/M1
· · ·	SD=SQRT(VAR)
	WRITE(6,29)MEAN, SD, N
29	FORMAT(1H0,10X,F10.3,10X,F10.3,14)
	WRITE(7)N
	WRITE(7)(SP1(1),1=1,N)
	WRITE(7)(CUMNUM(T), T=1, H)
	K0=K0+1
	IF(K0-M4)103.0.0
	ENDFILE 7
	STOP
	END

END OF SEGMENT, LENGTH . 741, NAME NONM

ON BY #XFAT MK 4C

```
LIST(LP)

SEND TO (ED,ASTD-DEFAULT(0))

WORK(ED,WORK FILE (0))

LIBRARY(SUBGROUPSRF7)

LIBRARY(SUBGROUPFSCE)

PROGRAM(JCS2)

COMPRESS INTEGER AND LOGICAL

INPUT 4=TRO

INPUT 5=CRO

OUTPUT 6=LPO

INPUT 7=MTO/(UPDATEDTORED)

OUTPUT 9=TPO

NO TRACE

END
```

SECOND COMPUTER PROGRAM

..

```
MASTER(INTERACT)
 DIMENSION LOSS(250), MAX(4), C(4), MM(4), MX(4), AS(4), ASZ(160, 4
1), LC(250), S(4), DIV(4), TC(4), CH(4), CUMNOM(160), COST(4), TCOSTZ(160)
 THTEGER RB(250,4), RE(250.4), RTF(250,4), RTR(250,4), U(250,4), RO(250.
14), U0(250), P(250), OS(250, 4), AV(4), CS(250, 4), SP1(250)
2.SP2(250),XY(4),STOCK(4),TLC(4),TLX(4),YEAR,YEARC,DN,DD,PROG
 CALL WORKFILE(8,2HED,15000)
 CALL WORKFILE(3, 2HED, 1000)
 CALL WORKFILE(2,2HED,1000)
 NS=0
 pEAD(5,100)KODE(ITIME) - - - - - - Change variable name.
 READ(5,100)M5, NSC, YEARC, KOUNTC, M2, M8, KZ, LH1, LL1, LH2, LL2, LH3, LL3
1, (XY(I), I=1, M2), (STOCK(I), I=1, M2), (P(I), I=1, MB).
0 FORMAT(100010)
HIS LARGE A REPEAT COUNT INTENDED AT ABOUT COLUMN 15, LINE 0028
  F(KODE-1)0,800,800
 gEAD(5, 100) MAXHI, MAXS, MAXC
 GO TO 801
0 KY1=1
 IF(KODE=1)0,0,802
  60 803 I=1, KOUNTC
  DEAD(4,100)(MAX(J), J=1, M2)
  CALL PUTARRAY (3, KY1, MAX)
3 CONTINUE
 GO TO 801
2 DO 99 1=1,KOUNTC+2
  QEAD(5,100)(MAX(J), J=1, M2)
  CALL PUTARRAY(3, KY1, MAX)
9
  CONTINUE
1 READ(5,10)RNS
  aEAD(5,10)R,COS,(C(I),I=1,M2),(TC(I),I=1,M2),(DIV(3),I=1,M2)
0 FORMAT(250F0.0)
HIS LARGE A REPEAT COUNT INTENDED AT ABOUT COLUMN 15, LINE 0045
  ¥Y2=1
  DO 90 I=1,KOUNTC
0 sP2(1)=0
  CALL PUTARRAY (2, KY2, SP2)
  M4=M5+(M2+1)
  00 11 J=1,M2
1 CH(J) = C(J) * R
3 K0=0
  VOUNT=0
  ¥Y=1
  xY1=1
  ¥Y2=1
  YEAR=0
1 b0 110 K=1,M2
  READ(7)(N)
  gEAD(7)(SP1(1),1=1,N)
  eEAD(7)(CUMNOM(I),I=1,N)
                                    IF(K.EQ.KZ.OR.K.EQ.(KZ+2))GO TO ID
  הם 50 זהו האה
8 IS=FPMCRV(RNS)*100
 IF(1S=0)58,58,0
  1F((K0+1)-(M5=3))33,33,0
  00 31 J=1,N
  1F(1S-CUMNOM(J))32,32,0
1 CONTINUE
2 sP2(1)=sp1(J)
  a0 TO 50
3
 YF(IS-CUMNOM(4))58,0,53
  sP2(1)=SP1(1)
  c0 T0 50
```

```
èc
     N. 51 J=2.N
      F(CUMNOM(J)~IS)0;52,56
  51
     CONTINUE
  52
     SP2(1)=SP1(J)
     a0 TO 50
     SP2(I)=((IS=CUMNOM(J=1))/(CUMNOM(J)=CUMNOM(J=1)))*(SP1(J)=SP1(J=1))
  56
    1)+Sp1(1-1)
  50 CONTINUE
     RNS=RNS+0.0003
     1F(RNS-0)22,22,0
     1F(RNS-0,50)21,0,21
  22
     RNS=0.02
  21
     K0=K0+1
     1F(K0-M5)60,60,0
     IF(K0-(M5*2))61,61,0
     1F(K0-(M5+3))62,62,0
     1F(K0-(M5+4))63,63,0
     00 76 1=1,M8
  76
     RTR(1,K)=SP2(1)
     GO TO 110
 60
     00 970 I=1,M8
970 U(I,K)=SP2(1)
     GO TO 110
 61
     DO 70 1=1,M8
 70 RB(1,K)=SP2(1)
     GO TO 110
 62
     00 72 I=1,M8
 72
    pE(1,K)=SP2(1)
     GO TO 110
    00 74 I=1,M8
 63
 74
    pTF(1,K)=SP2(1)
110 CONTINUE
     1F(K0-M4)101,0,0
     11=1
     12=1
     13=1
     14=1
     DO 200 I=1,M8
    IF(P(I).LE.LH1.AND.P(I).GE.LL1)GO TO 910
    IF(P(I).LE.LH2, AND.P(I).GE.LL2)GO TO 911
    F(P(I).LE.LH3. AND.P(I).GE.LL3)GO TO 912
    gO(1,1)=RB(J4,4)
    00(1,2)=RE(J4,4)
    0(1,3)=RTF(14,4)
    20(1,4)=RTR(14,4)
    110(1)=U(J4,4)
    14=14+1
    005 OT 00
910
    20(1,1)=RB(J1,1)
    p0(1,2)=RE(J1,1)
    QO(1,3)=RTF(J1,1)
    00(1,4)=RTR(J1,1)
    10(1)=U(J1.1)
    11=11+1
    GO TO 200
911
    RO(1.1)=RB(J2.2)
    $0(1,2)=RE(J2,2)
    20(1,3)=RTF(J2,2)
    g0(1,4)=RTR(J2,2)
    10(1)=U(12:2)
    15=15+1
    GO TO 200
912 =0(1,1)=RB(J3,3)
    n0(1,2)=RE(13,3)
    20(1,3)=RTF(J3,3)
    00(1,4)=RTR(J3,3)
```

```
110(1)=0(13,3)
    13=13+1
200 CONTINUE
    CALL PUTARRAY(8,KY,RO)
    CALL PUTARRAY(3, KY, UO)
    YEAR=YEAR+1
    1F(YEAR-VEARC)0,401,401
    K0=0
    REWIND 7
    60 10 101
401
    YF(KODE-1)400,0,0
    CALL GETARRAY(2, KY2, SP2)
400
    DO 250 J=1,M2
    oS(1, J)=STOCK(J)
    MM(J)=0
    s(J)=0.0
    TLC(J)=0
250
    AS(J)=0.0
    NN=0
    11=0
    YEAR=0
    xY=1
 12 DO 14 I=1.M8
    (C(I)=0
 14
    1F(KODE-1)840,0,0
    CALL GETARRAY (3, KY1, MAX)
840
    CALL GETARRAY (8, KY, RO)
    CALL GETARRAY (8, KY, UO)
    00 15 J=1,M2
    00 15 1=1,M8
    RB(1, J)=RO(1, J)
    sP1(1)=U0(1)
 15
    00 330 I=1,M8
    1F(1-ITIME)900,0,900
    CALL GETARRAY (3, KY1, MAX)
     1F((YEAR+1)-YEARC)0,900,900
    KY1=KY1=M2+2
    DO 300 J=1, M2
900
     IF(05(1, J)=MAX(J))300,0,0
    RO(1,J)=0
    CONTINUE
300
    00 260 J=1,M2
260 AV(J)=0S(I,J)+RO(I,J)
    MINAV=AV(1)
    00 270 Jai.M2
     IF(AV(J)-MINAV)0,0,270
    MINAV=AV(J)
     11=1
270
    CONTINUE
     1F(UO(1)-0)0,0,601
     10(1)=0
     60 70 320
    1F(P(1)-MINAV)0,0,371
601
     1055(1)=0
     10(1)=0
     7F(UO(I)-MINAV)320,372,372
371
    IF(P(I)~U0(I))0,102,102
     LOSS(I)=P(I)=MINAV
     80 TO 103
102
    1F(U0(1)-MIHAV)320,320,0
     10SS(I)=UO(I)+MINAV
103
    10(1)=11
     \gamma LC(J1) = TLC(J1) + LOSS(1).
    UO(I)=MINAV
372
320
    PO 330 J=1,M2
     c3(1,J)=AV(J)=U0(I)
```

```
1F(RO(1, J) = RB(1, J))0, 395, 395
    MM(J)=MM(J)+1
395 s(J)=S(J)+CS(1,J)
330 os(1+1,J)=Cs(1,J)
    00 390 I=1,M8
    L1=L1+L055(1)
    1F(UO(1)-SP1(1))0,390,390
    NN=NN+1
390 CONTINUE
    L=L1/(YEAR+1)
   NX=NN/ (YEAR+1)
    00 500 J=1,M2
    AS(J)=S(J)/(M8*(YEAR+1))
    MX(J)=MM(J)/(YEAR+1)
    TLX(J)=TLC(J)/(YEAR+1)
    YF(MAX(J)-XY(J))515,515,0
    COST(J)=((MAX(J)=XY(J))/DIV(J))*TC(J)*AS(J)*CH(J)
    60 TO 500
515
    ROST(J)=AS(J)+C.(J)
500 CONTINUE
    7COST=0.0
    00 516 J=1,M2
516 7COST=TCOST+COST(J)
    YCOST=TCOST+L+COS
    YEAR=YEAR+1
    IF(YEAR-YEARC)0,13,13
    00 20 J=1,M2
20
   05(1, J)=CS(M8, J)
    60 10 12
13
   KOUNT=KOUNT+1
    1F(KODE=0)810,0,810
```

```
18 IF (KOUNT-KOUNTC)0,0,520
    NOSKOUNT
    c0 TO 545
520 TE(TCOST-HI)0,525,525
545 NO 530 1=1,M2
    PTF(NO, J)=MAX(J)
    •SZ(N(), J)=AS(J)
    PTR(NO,J)=TLX(J)
530
   DE(N0, J) = MM(J)
    CUMNOM(NO)=TCOST
    11(NO,2)=L
   11(10.3) =NN
    IF (KOUNT-KOUNTC) 525,0,0
   HI=CUMNOM(1)
   NO 541 K=1.KOUNTC
    TF(CUNNOM(K)-HI)541,0,0
   HI=CUMNUM(K)
   NO=X
541
   CONTINUE
525 MAX(4)=MAX(4)-MAXS
   IF(MAX(4)-MAXC)0,400,400
   MAX(4)=MAXHI
   MAX(3)=MAX(3)-MAXS
   [F(MAX(3)-MAXC)0,400,400
   MAX(3)=MAXHI
   MA((4)=MAXHI
   MAX(2)=MAX(2)-MAXS
   IF(MAX(2)-MAXC)0,400,400
   MAX(2)=MAXHT
   MAX(3)=MAXHI
   MAX(A)=MAXHI
   MAX(1)=MAX(1)-MAXS
   TF(MAX(1)-MAXC)0,400,400
   n0 16 1=1,M2
16 MAX(1)=MAXH1
   HI=CUMNOM(1)
   NO 540 1=1.KOUNTC
   NO 542 K=1.KOUNTC
   rF(CUMNOM(K)-HI)542,0,0
   HI=CUMNOM(K)
   N0=K
42 CONTINUE
   TCOSTZ(I)=HI
   11(1,1)=1:0
   CUMNOM(NO) =- 1000000
40 41=-1000000
   NO 17 1=1, KOUNTC
   URITE(9, 1005) (RTF(U(1,1), J), J=1, M2)
05 FORMAT (4110/)
  URITE(6,350)(J,RTF(U(I,1),J),ASZ(U(I,1),J),RTR(U(I,1),J),RE(U(I,1)
  1. J), I=1, M2), TCOSTZ(1), U(U(I,1),2), U(U(I,1),3)
17 FUNTINUE
   "S=NS+1
```

60 TO 820

0 WRITE(6,350)(J,MAX(J),AS(J),TLX(J),MX(J),J=1,M2),TCOST,L,NX 0 FORMAT(1H0,2(/),6X,93HMAXIMUM STOCK,6X,13HAVERAGE STOCK,6X,11HLOSS 1 CAUSED: 6X, 2HMM, 6X, 4HCOST, 6X, 10HTOTAL LOSS, 6X, 2HNN/6X, 13(1H=), 6X, 243(1H=),6X,11(1H=),6X,2(1H=),6X,4(1H=),6X.10(1H=),6X,2(1H=)/4(//2X 3,13,9X,15,13X, F6,0,13X,14,4X,14),1X,F9.0,11X,15,4X,14)

1F(NS-1)0,902,902 3 URITE(6,340)(P(I),(OS(I,J),RO(I,J),CS(I,J),J=1,M2),UO(I),LOSS(I),

0 BORMAT(1H1//2X,4HPROG,2X,5H0/S B,2X,5HREC B,2X,5HC/S B,2X,5HO/S E. 12X, SHREC E, 2X, SHC/S E, 2X, 6H0/S FS, 2X, 6HREC FS, 2X, 6HC/S FS, 2X, 26HO/S RS, 2X, 6HREC RS, 2X, 6HC/S RS, 2X, 5HUSAGE, 2X, 4HLOSS, 2X, 4HCODE/ 32X,4(1H=),2X,5(1H=),2X,5(1H=),2X,5(1H=),2X,5(1H=),2X,5(1H=),2X, 45(1H=),2X,6(1H=),2X,6(1H=),2X,6(1H=),2X,6(1H=),2X,6(1H=),2X,6(1H=) 5,2X,5(1H=),2X,4(1H=),2X,4(1H=)///250(2X,14,3X,14,3X,14,3X,14,3X, 614, 3X, 14, 3X, 14, 4X, 14, 3X, 14, 2X, 14, 72X,14/))

THIS LARGE A REPEAT COUNT INTENDED AT ABOUT COLUMN 41, LINE 0252

```
02 SP2(KOUNT)=SP2(KOUNT)+L
   FECKOUNT-KOUNTC) 400,0,0
   KY2=1
   CALL PUTARRAY (2, KY2, SP2)
   NS=NS+1
   1F(NS-NSC)0,414,414
   REWIND 7
   60 TO 443
14 xY2=1
   CALL GETARRAY (2, KY2, SP2)
```

```
DO 91 I=1, KOUNTC
91 sP2(1)=SP2(1)/NSC
   ¥Y1=1
   DO 92 I=1,KOUNTC
   CALL GETARRAY (3, KY1, MAX)
   WRITE(6,93)(MAX(J),J=1,M2)
```

```
93 #ORMAT(1H0,10X,4110)
   URITE(6,94) SP2(1)
94 FORMAT(10X, 110)
```

```
KY1=KY1+M2
92 CONTINUE
   GO TO 814
```

```
820 HS=18+1
    *F(NS-NSC)0,814,814
```

```
REVIND 7
GO TO 443
```

```
814 STOP
    END
```

1501 , NAME ENGTH

NONM

· COMMENTS

ANALYSIS OF ADO 16 FOUR DOOR BODY SHELL STOCKS, LONGBRIDGE 1968/69.

MEEK No.	CPENING STOCK.	WEEK No.	CPENING STCCK.
1)	N/A ¹	27	112
2)	.,	28	149
3	485	29 -	17
4	449	30	-
5	410	31	455
6	183	32	613
7	121	33	772
8	167	34	504
9	262	35	560
10	274	36	194
11	415	37	335
12	558	38	258
13	624	39	180
14	613	40	321
15	529	41	319
16	442	42	320
17	257	43)	HOLIDAYS
18	23	44)	HODIDAID
19	18	45	63
20	118	46	161
21	309	47	399
22	190	48	523
23	328	49	623
24	158	50	468
25	113	51	470
26	198	52	HOLIDAYS
		52A	746

1 N/A = Figures Not Available.

LIST OF COST INFORMATION

1) Cost of Material and Labour.

Body shell (ADO 16 four dcor)£80-551Power unit (1100/1300)£100-572Front Suspension units£28-74 per pair3Rear Suspension units£13-72 per pair

- 1 Weighted average of the costs of material and labour from West Works and PSF.
- 2 Weighted average of the costs of all relevant power units.
- 3 Weighted average of the costs of manual and automatic units.
- 2) Trailer and Pallet Capacities.

For body shells		Trailer capacity - 6	
For power units		Trailer capacity 26 (on trolleys)	
	OR	Trailer capacity 96 (in pallets holding 4)	
For suspension units		Trailer capacity - 180 prs. (in pallets	5
		holding 15 singles each.)	
	OR	Trailer capacity - 300 prs. (in pallets	5
		holding 15 singles each.)	

3) Cost of Trailers and Accessories."

For	body shells		£1250					
For	power units		£1400	plus	£468	for	trolleys	
		OR	£2200	plus	£720	for	pallets	
For	suspension units		£1800	plus	£132	for	pallets	
		OR	£2200	plus	£440	for	pallets:	

* The cost of trailers used for the model include trolley or pallet costs where applicable.

PILCT TESTS FOR EXTRACT ROUTINE

In order to establish some relationship between the ranking of policies according to minimum cost in any one run and the bottom area of the true total cost curves, pilot tests were carried out in which 81 policies were simulated over the optimum run length five times. The best 30 policies from each run were extracted and the top 10 policies of each run were then analysed with respect to their ranking in other runs. This was carried out for both the 449/204 programme level and the 500/230 level. The results of these tests were as follows:

Programme Level: 449/204

Run No.	Policy.	Ranking.	Ran	king in	other	Runs,
1				Ru	n No.	Selle
4	1000/1000/1		2	3	4	5
	1000/1500/1500/20001	1	6	12	23	7
	1000/2000/1500/2000	2	5	3	2	4
	1000/1500/2000/2000	3	11	15	27	3
	1000/1500/1000/2000	4	-	19	~.	24
	1000/2000/2000/2000	5	2	5	4	8
	1000/1500/1500/1500	6 .	4	29	24	
	1000/2000/1000/2000	7	-	-/		14
	1000/1500/2000/1500	8	-		10	-
	1000/2000/1500/1500		9	30	29	1
		9	3	8	1	2
	1500/1500/1500/2000	10	18	10	11	27

1 The ceiling levels for Body Shells, Power Units, Front Suspension Units and Rear Suspension Units are always given in that order for each policy.

AFPENDIX - C3 (Cont'd)

Programme Level: 449/204

Run No.	Policy.	Ranking.	Rank	Ranking in other Runs.				
		Republic Ser		Ru	n No.			
2			1	3	4	5		
	1000/2000/2000/1500	1	11	11	3	5		
	1000/2000/2000/2000	2	5	5	4	8		
	1000/2000/1500/1500	3	9	8	1	2		
	1000/1500/1500/1500	4	6	29	24	14		
	1000/2000/1500/2000	5	2	3	2	4		
	1000/1500/1500/2000	6	1	12	23	17		
	1500/2000/1500/1500	7	20	9	7	10		
	1500/2000/1500/2000	8	14	2	8	11		
	1000/1500/2000/1500	9	8	30	29	1		
	1000/2000/2000/1000	10	-	-	-	7		
3				Ru	n No.			
			1	. 2	4	5		
	1000/2000/1000/2000	1	7	-	10	-		
	1500/2000/1500/2000	2	14	8	8	11		
	1000/2000/1500/2000	3	2	5	2	4		
	1500/2000/2000/2000	4	16	13	6	9		
	1000/2000/2000/2000	5	5	2	4	8		
	1500/2000/1000/2000	6	22	-	15	-		
	1000/2000,/1000/1500	7	17	-	9	22		
	1000/2000/1500/1500	8	9	3	1	. 2		
	1500/2000/1500/1500	9	20	7	7	10		
	1500/1500/1500/2000	10 .	10	18	11	27		
			1					

APPENDIX - C3 (Cont'd)

Programme Level: 149/204

「「「「「「

Run No.	Policy	Ranking.	Rar	Ranking in other Runs,				
				R	un No.			
_4			1	2	3	5		
	1000/2000/1500/1500	1	9	3	8	2		
	1000/2000/1500/2000	2	2	5	3	4		
	1000/2000/2000/1500	3	11	1	11	5		
	1000/2000/2000/2000	4	5	2	5	8		
	1500/2000/2000/1500	5	21	12	13	6		
	1500/2000/2000/2000	6	16	13	4	9		
	1500/2000/1500/1500	7	20	7	9	10		
	1500/2000/1500/2000	8	14	8	2	11		
	1000/2000/1000/1500	9	17	-	7	22		
	1000/2000/1000/2000	10	7	-	1	-		
				Run No.				
5			. 1	2	3	4		
-	1000/1500/2000/1500	1	8	9	30	29		
	1000/2000/1500/1500	2	9	3	8	1		
	1000/1500/2000/2000	3	3	11	15	27		
	1.000/2000/1500/2000	4	2	5	3	2		
	1000/2000/2000/1500	5	11	1	11	3		
	1500/2000/2000/1500	6	21	12	13	6		
	1000/2000/2000/1000	7	-	10	-	_		
	1000/2000/2000/2000	8	5	2	5	4		
	1500/2000/2000/2000	9	16	13	4	9		
	1500/2000/1500/1500	10	20	7	9	7		

APPENDIX - C3 (Cont'd)

Programme Level: 500/230

Run No.	Policy.	Ranking	Rank	ing :	in other	Run	5.
				Run No.			
1			2	3	4	5	
	1500/1000/1000/2000	1	-	19	5	6	
	1500/1000/1500/2000	2	4	5	8	1	
	1500/1000/2000/2000	3	2	12	10	3	
	2000/1000/1000/2000	4	-	17	2	20	
	2000/1000/1500/2000	5	12	1	4	9	
	2000/1000/1500/1500	6	10	2	3	-	
	1500/1500/1000/2000	7	-	8	21	12	
	2000/1000/2000/2000	8	6	3	7	13	
	1500/1000/1500/1500	9	3	9	9	29	
	2000/1000/1000/1500	10	-	-	1	-	
				-			
				R	un No.		
2			1	3	4	5	
	1500/1000/2000/1500	1	14	25	11	-	
	1500/1000/2000/2000	2	3	12	10	3	
	1500/1000/1500/1500	3	9	9	9	29	
	1500/1000/1500/2000	4	2	5	8	1	
	2000/1000/2000/1500	5	11	10	6	-	•
	2000/1000/2000/2000	6	. 8	3	7	13	
	1500/1000/2000/1000	7	-		-		
	1500/1500/2000/1500	8	-	-	29	-	
	1500/1500/2000/2000	9	15	16	26	4	
	2000/1000/1500/1500	10	6	2	3	-	

AFPENDIX __ C3. (Cont'd)

Programme Level: 500/230

Run No.	Policy	Rankir	IZ.	Ran	king i	n othe	r Runs.
					R	un No.	
3				1	2	4	5
No.	2000/1000/1500/2000	1		5	12	4	9
	2000/1000/1500/1500	2		6	10	3	-
	2000/1000/2000/2000	3		8	6	7	13
	2000/1500/1500/2000	4		23	26	17	14
	1500/1000/1500/2000	5		2	4	8	1
	2000/1500/2000/2000	6		27	15	22	17
	2000/1500/1500/1500	7	1	24	22	18	-
	1500/1500/1000/2000	8		7	-	21	12
	1500/1000/1500/1500	9		9	3	9	29
	2000/1000/2000/1500	10		11	5	6	-

2000/1000/1000/1500 -----2000/1000/1000/2000 -2000/1000/1500/1500 -2000/1000/1500/2000 1500/1000/1000/2000 ---2000/1000/2000/1500 -2000/1000/2000/2000 1500/1000/1500/2000 1500/1000/1500/1500 1500/1000/2000/2000

Run No.

APPENETX - 03 (Contid)

Programme Lovel: 500/230

Run No.	Policy.	Banking	<u>Rar</u>	<u>ving i</u>	n othe	n Ruman
				Run	110.	
5			1	2	32	4
	1500/1000/1500/2000	1	• 2	4	5	8
	1500/1500/1500/2000	2	12	18	13	23
	1500/1000/2000/2000	3 -	3	2	12	10
	1500/1500/2000/2000	4	15	9	16	26
	1000/1000/1500/2000	5	17		27	15
	1500/1000/1000/2000	6	1	-	19	5
	1000/1000/2000/2000	7	22	16	-	20
	1000/1000/1000/2000	8	13	-		-
	2000/1000/1500/2000	9	5	12	1	4
	2000/1500/1000/2000	10	19	-	11	12

In order to obtain some measure of how good an approximation to the policies at the bottom of the true total cost curve the top ten policies of any one run were, the mean number of policies out of the best ten of any one run that appeared amongst the top ten of any of the other runs was calculated. The higher this average is, the closer the top ten policies of any run will be to the true best ten policies. The five runs yielded 20 samples and the results showed that there was a .975 confidence of means of 4 and 5 (for programme levels of 500/230 and 449/204 respectively), or higher, occurring. This was considered to be accurate enough for the experimental work, and so it was decided to extract the best 10/81, or 12¹/₂%, policies from the first simulation of the full review to be carried out.

APPENDIX	атоски		1250	1500	MEAN TOTAL 284396	CCST(i's)
C4	Bodies;	Power Units;1 2000	t. Susps; 1500	Rr. Susp. 1500	286729	
4	1250	1250	1750	1750	293862	Programme Level: 449/204
	1250	1250	1500	2000	291651	201021. 4437 204
	1000	1750	1750	1500	291197	
	1250	1250	1250	2000	295200	
	1000	2000	1500	1250	298866	
	1000	1250	2000	1750	302537	
	1000	2000	1250	1250	301127	
	1000	1500	2000	1500	297766	
	1250	2000	1250	1750	274429	(8th Position)
	1000	2000	1250 .	1.500	287122	
	1250	1250	1500	1750	293471	
	1000	1250	1750	5000	296895	
	1250	2009	S000	S000	280363	
	1250	1500	1250	1500	291492	
	1000	1750	1500	1500	283248	
	1250	2000	2000	1750	275459	(10th Position)
	1000	1250	1750	1750	301322	
	1250	1750	1250	1750	280113	
	1000	1500	1750	1500	297019	
	1000	1750	1500	1250	302762	
	1000	1750	1250	1250	303774	
	1250	2000	1750	5000	271614	(2nd Position)
	1250	1750	.5000	S000	296905	
	1000	1750	1250	1500	291308	
	1000	1250	1500	5000	297855	
	1000	2000	1000	2000	288694 .	
	1250	1750	5000	1750	270563	(1st Position)
	1250	2000	1250	8000	273039	(4th Position)
	1250	S000	1750	1750	273710	(6th Position)
	1250	2000	1500	S000	271681	(3rd Position)
	1000	1250	1500	1750	301158	
	1000.	1500	1500	1500	297216	
	- 1250	1750	1750	2000	274263	(7th Position)

	and and a second		the second second		in the second	
APPENDIX	1250 STOCKING	1500 POLICY	S000	2000	MEAN TOTA	L COST(£'s)
C4 (Cont	<u>a)</u> 1250	1500	1250	1750	282185 283674	Programme
	1000	1500	1500	1250	306752	Level: 449/204
	i250	2000.	1500	1750	273291	(5th Position)
	1000	1250	1250	1750	302114	
	1000	1500	1250	1250	309427	
	1000	1500	1250	1500	297693	
	1250	1500	5000	1750	284999	
	1250	1750	1250	5000	277631	
	1250	1'750	1750	1750	277149	
	1250	1750	1500	2000	275071	(9th Position)
	1000	1750	1000	· 2000	293776	
	1250	1500	1750	8000	280495	
	1250	1750	1500	1750	277382	All Supervised in .
	1000	500 0	8000	soun	278040	
	1250	1500	1250	2000	282704	
	1250	1500	1750	1750	283301	
•	1250	1500	1500	2000	281232	
	1000	1500	1000	2000	297100	
	1000	8000	2000	1759	280210	
	1250	1500	1500	1750	283269	
	1000	1750	2000	5000	282627	
	1000	2000	1750	S000	276345	
	1090	1750	2000	1750	285247	
A TRANS	1000	2000	1750	1750	278665	
	1000	1750	1750	2000	281241	
	1000	1500	2000	5000	288468	
	1000	8000	1500	2000	276807 .	
	1000	2000	1250	5000	278575	
	1000	1750	1750	1750	283897	
	1000	1500	8000	1750	292263	
	1000	2000	1500	1750	278370	
	1000	1500	1750	2000	287130	
	1000	1750	1500	8000	281122	
	1000	2000	1250 1250	x 1750 2000	280383 281063	
	14. · · · / ·	-				

APPENDIX	STOCKING	POLICY	1750	1750	MEAN TOTA 291011	L COST(£'s)
C4 (Cont	a) ₁₀₀₀	1750	1500	1750	283485	Programme
	1000	1750 .	1250	1750	284403	Level: 449/204
en and S	1000	1500	1500	2000	287280	
	1000	1500	1250	8000	288090	
	1000	1500	1500	1750	291835	
	1000	1500	1259	1750	290751	
****					: · · · ·	

			-			
APPENDIX	2000	1000	1750	1500	MEANT TOTAL 494339	COST (£'s)
5	STOCKING P	1250	1500	2000	482053	
	. 1750	1250	1500	1750	488959	Programme Level: 500/230
	1750	1250	1000 '	1750	502416	201021 700/270
	1250	1250	1000	2000	500596	
	1000	1250	1500	2000	504141	
	1250	1000 .	2000	1750	493316	
	1750	1000	1000	1500	509005	
	1750	1250	1500	1500	498261	
	2000	1250	1000	S000	494196	Records and
	1500	1000	1250	1500	498808	
	1250	1250	1000 .	1750	509654	
	1250	1500	1750	2000	495049	
	1500	1250	2000	S000	481948	
	1500	1250	5000	1750	489067	
	2000	1000	1750	1750	485045	
	1500	1500	1000	\$000	500956	
	1750	1250	1250	2000	483133	
	1000	1250	1250	5000	507238	
	2000	1000	1750	2000	478633	(8th Position)
	1750	1250	1250	1500	502711	
	1750	1250	1250	1750	490723	
	1250	1000	1750	1750	492117	
	2000	1000	1500	1500	495382	The Way Day
	1750	1250	1000	1500	512551	
	1250	1500	1500	2000	494024	
	1500	1250	1750	2000	480673	
	1500	1250	1750	1750	488280	
	2000	1000	1500	1750	485684	
	1750	1000	2000	1500	494103	
	S000	1000	1500	S000	478212	(7th Position)
	2000	1000	1250	1500	493626	
	SUOU	1000	1000	1750	497934	
	1250	1500	1250	2000	496748	
a service and the service of the ser	1250	1000	1500	1750	491598	

				1		
APPENDIX	1750	1000	2000	1750	MEAN TOTAL 484337	COST(£'s)
C5 (Contid)	STOCKING 1750	POLICIES	5000	2000	478104	(6th Position)
	1750	1000 .	1750	1500	492676	Programme
	1500	1250	1500	2000	480332	Level: 500/230
	1500	1250	1500	1750	488416	
	5000	1000	1000	2000	492096	
	5000	1000	1250	1750	488445	
	1750	1250	1000	2000	493765	
	2000	1000.	1250	. 5000	481037	
	1250	1250	2000	2000	489029	
	1250	1000	1250	1750	496436	
	1750	1000	1750	1750	483216	
	1500	1250	1250	2000	483753	
	1250	1000	1000	S000	499067	
	1750	1000	1750	2000	477279	(4th Position)
	1500	1250	1250	1750	487974	
	1750	1000	1500	1500	493617	
	1250	1000	1000	1750	508976	
	1250	1250	1750	5000	487359	
•••	1750	1000	1500	1750	483728	
	1750	1000	1500	2000	477026	(3rd Position)
	1750	1000	1250	1500	498265	
	1750	1000	1000	1750	498171	
	1500	1000	2000	1750	484534	
	1500	1000	2000	5000	477284	(5th Position)
	1250	1250	1500	. 2000	487250	
	1750	1000	1000	2000	490447	
	1750	1000	1250	1750	485497	
	1500	1250	1000	2000	495455	
	1750	1000	1250	2000	479725	(10th Position)
	1500	1000	1750	1750	483010	
1	1250	1250	1250	5000	490372	
1	1500	1000	1750	S0 0 0	476048	(1st Position)
	1250	1000	8000	2000	486204	

-	-			and the street of the	and the		
	APPENDIX C5(Cont'd)	1500 STOCKING	1000 POLICIES	1500	1750	MEAN TOTAL 483210	COST(£'s)
	<u>c)(cont-u)</u>	1500	1000	1500	8000 .	476696	(2nd Position)
		1250	1000	1750	2000	484681	Programme
1		1500	1000	1000	1750	497242	Level: 500/230
		1500	1000	1000	2000	490600	
		1500	1000	1250	1750	485625	
		1500	1000	1250	2000	479087	(9th Position)
	12.50	1000	1500	2000	485226		
		1250	1000	1250	2000	488346	
	100000000						

RESULTS OF COMPARISON RUNS

	Body Shells	Power Units	Ft. Susp. Units	Rr. Susp. Units	
Nean Total Costs from	355370.	1750	2000	1750 -	Near optimum policy computed
15	557416.	2000	2000	5000 <mark>-</mark>	Arbitrary high level policy
Comparison E Kuns	675 537830,	675	675	675* _	Arbitrary low level policy
£	1200	2000	1400	1200 -	Estimated 1969/70 policy
		•			FOTTCY
Mean Total Costs from	1250 £372292.	1750	2000	1750	- Hear optimum policy
2nd Group of 15	2000 £375405.	2000	2000	5000	- High level policy
Comparison Runs.	675 £541357.	675	675	675*	- Low level
FTRACTOR ST	1200 £399103.	2000	1400	1200	
	COMBINED RE	SULTS FROM	30 COMPARIS	SON RUNS	
	1250 , £363381	1750	2000	1750*	- Near optimum policy
	2000 £366410	2000	2000	2000	- High level policy
	675 £539593	675	675	675 [*]	- Low level policy
	1200 €385525	2000	1400	1200 -	- 1969/70 policy
and the second		and the second		A TEN A MARK SHOW A	

* These policies have involved a change in ceiling level during the year and only the first combination of ceiling levels is shown here. The second combinations used are 1500/1000/1750/2000 and 750/750/750 respectively.

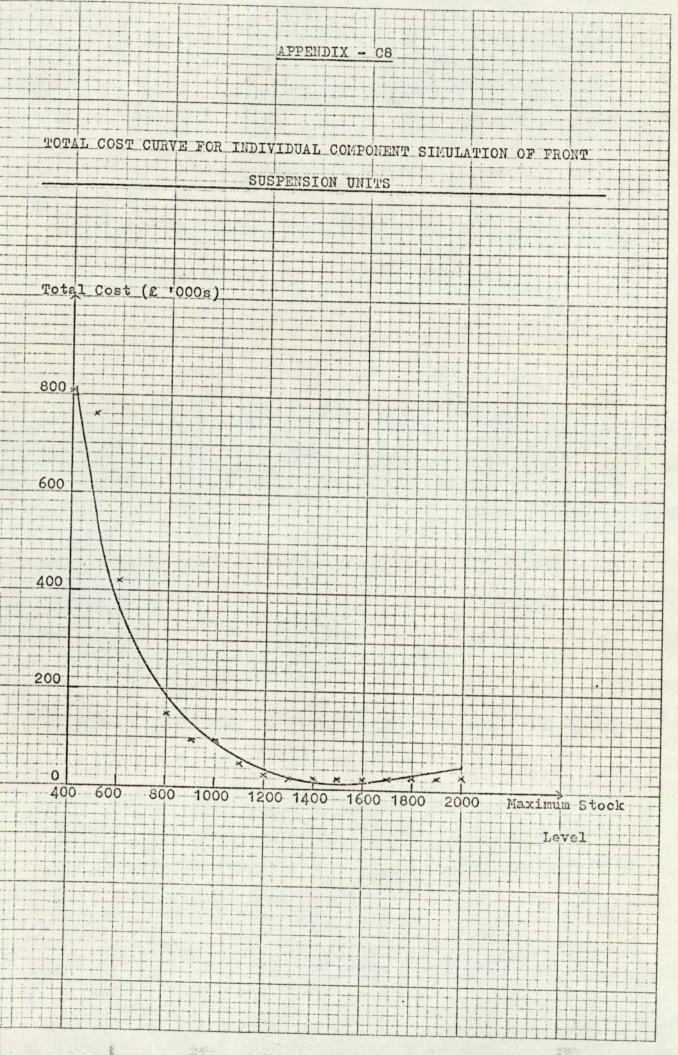
COMPUTER COSTS AND RUNNING TIMES*

Type of Simulation Run	Running Time.	Cost	Total Cast
Determining optimum run length for:			Total Cost.
a) 449/204 Programme Level.	30 Minutes	£25	
b) 500/230 " "	n n	£25	
Experimental work for the extract routine:			
a) 449/204 Programme Level.	87 Minutes	£90-10	
b) 500/230 " "	70 "	£75-30	
The extract run:			
a) 449/204 Programme Level.	120 Minutes	£134-30	
b) 500/230 " "	100 "	£112-30	
30 runs of the extracted policies:			
a) 449/204 Programme Level.	600 Minutes	£508-26	
b) 500/220 "	500 Minutes	£390	
Comparison Run.	120 Minutes	£80	

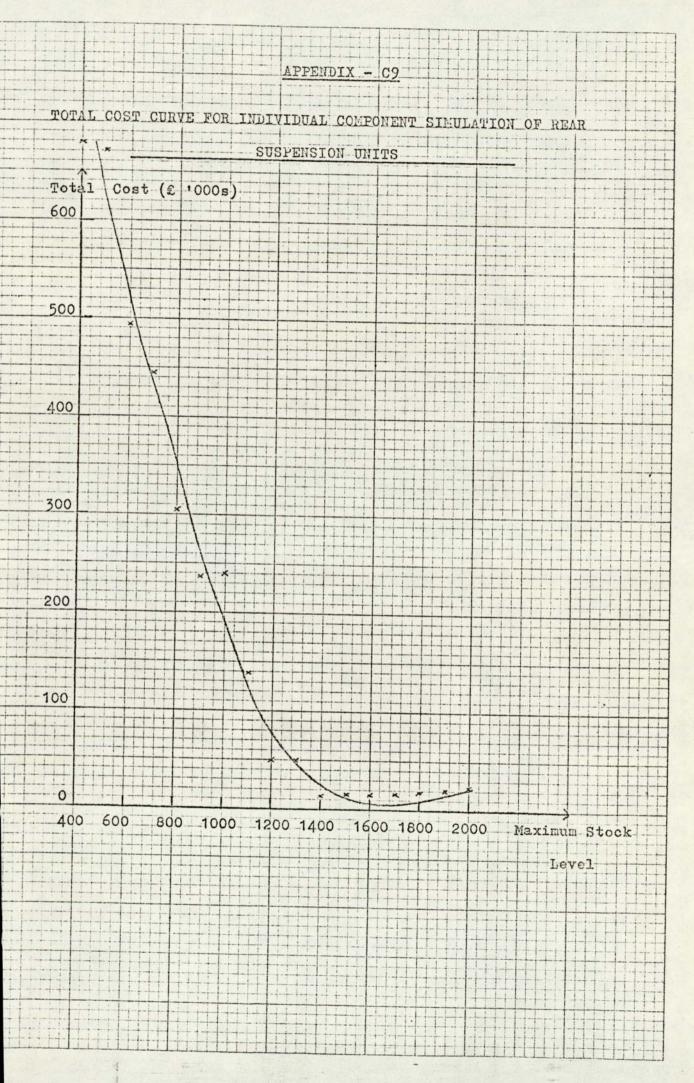
£1440-26

* Based on the scale of charges for external users of the University of Aston computer.

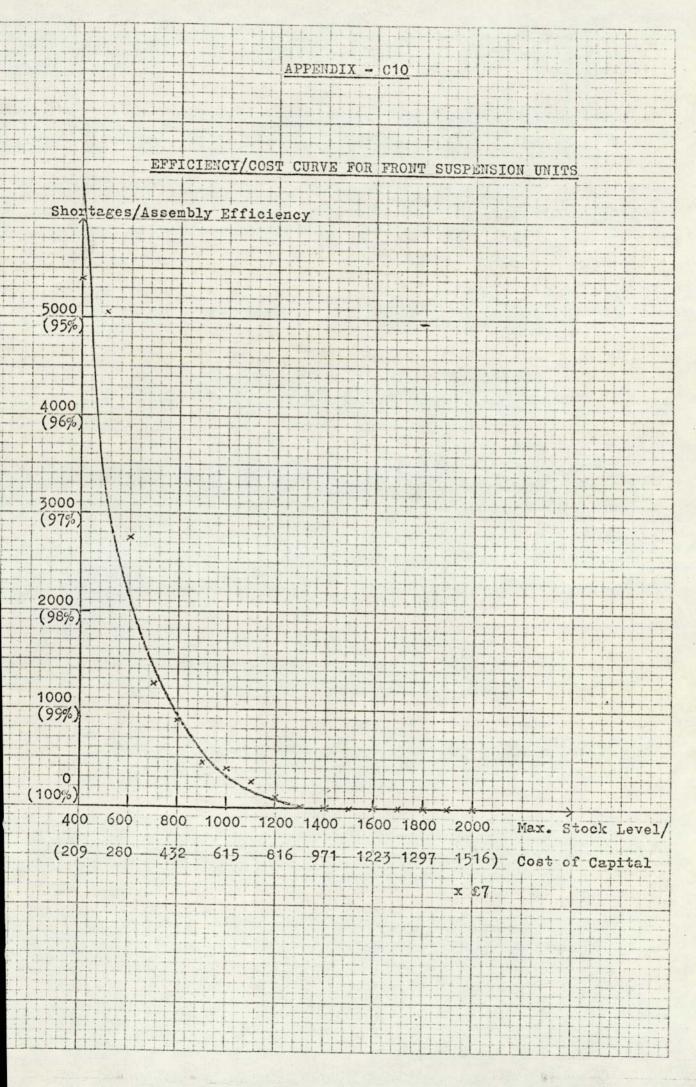
** The 449/204 level had an optimum run length longer than that used for the 500/230 level, so running times for the 449/204 level will be longer and charges will be higher.



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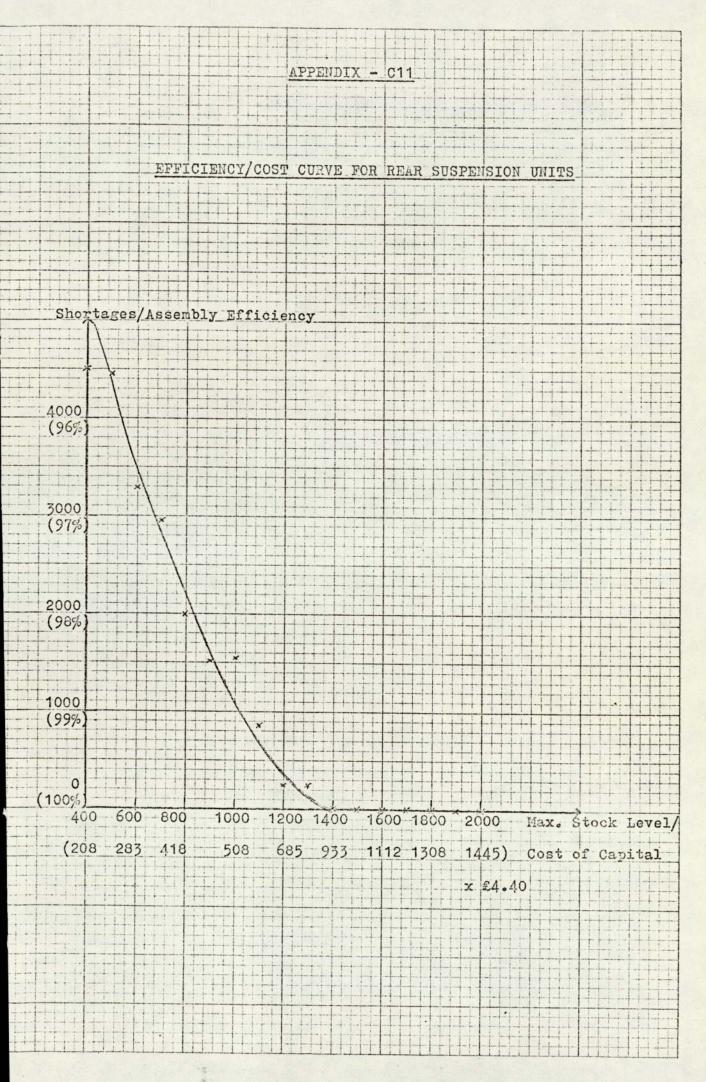


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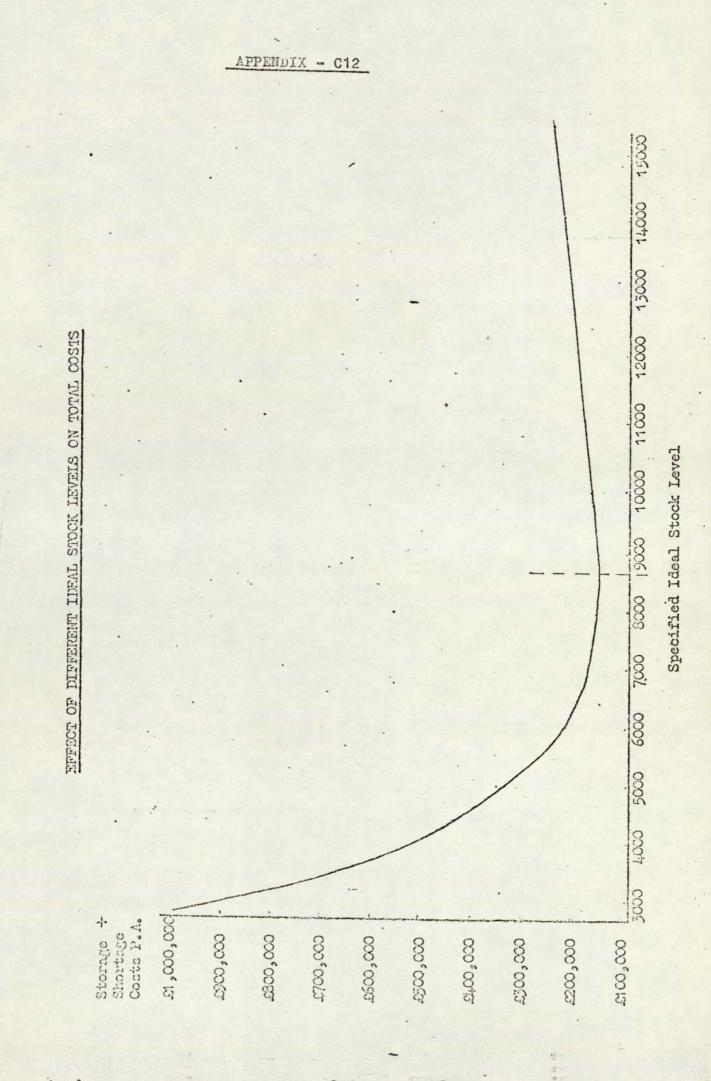
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