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MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING

LOT SIZING PROCEDURES FOR REQUIREMENTS PLANNING SYSTEMS: A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

Several procedures have been proposed for determining the lot size and timing of deliveries for manufactured components in requirements planning systems. These include the use of: Economic Order Quantities, Periodic Order Quantities, Part Period Balancing, and the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm. Yet, very little data has been prepared to guide the production manager in selecting a procedure. This paper presents a framework for comparing such procedures with respect to two criteria: inventory related costs, and computing time.

Requirements planning systems are receiving increased attention by production and purchasing managers as many firms turn to the computer for assistance in planning and controlling manufacturing operations [9,10]. These systems reduce a master schedule of finished products to a time phased schedule of requirements for intermediate assemblies and component parts. The resulting forecast of component requirements is critical in planning the lot size and timing of replenishment orders for both manufactured and purchased items. Since this task often involves processing large amounts of detailed information, as well as making a substantial number of routine decisions, it is a logical candidate for processing on the computer.

Computer based requirements planning systems frequently include a procedure for determining the lot size and timing of replenishment orders to meet the forecast requirements. Thus, one problem often encountered in designing such a system is that of selecting a procedure for making lot size decisions. Although a number of procedures have been proposed, ranging from the use of simple decision rules to extensive optimizing procedures, there is surprisingly little guidance for the manager in selecting a lot sizing procedure for his system. The problem in selecting a procedure is that reductions in inventory related costs can generally be achieved only by using increasingly complex procedures. Such procedures are less easily understood by operating personnel and require more computations in making lot size decisions.

This paper is the first of two papers which deal with a comparison of four prominently mentioned ordering procedures for requirements planning sys-

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Week Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Requirements	10	10	15	20	70	180	250	270	230	40	0	10
Ordering Cost: S	= 9300 per order											
Inventory Carrying Cost: C_1	= 92 per unit per week											

Table 1—Example Problem: Weekly Requirements Schedule

tems: Economic Order Quantities, Periodic Order Quantities, Part Period Balancing, and the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm. In this paper we present a framework for comparing the performance of these procedures over a broad range of cost and demand data parameters. The second paper will report a simulation analysis in which the framework we propose has been used to evaluate the performance of the four ordering procedures discussed in this paper.

In the present discussion, we describe the ordering problem often encountered in a requirements planning system and present a performance comparison of the four lot sizing procedures mentioned above using a single example. Next, we describe the problems associated with making simple performance comparisons. Finally, we suggest a more general framework for comparing the performance of alternative lot sizing procedures and provide an illustration of its application.

The Ordering Problem

The ordering problem that we are concerned with is basically one of converting a forecast of component requirements into a series of replenishment orders. This involves determining how to group the time phased requirements data into a schedule of replenishment orders which minimizes the combined costs of placing orders and carrying inventory.¹ The example shown in Table 1 illustrates a typical requirements forecast that is considered in planning the lot size and timing of replenishment orders.²

Although this ordering problem occurs in a wide variety of manufacturing and purchasing situations, we shall only consider the problem in the context of a requirements planning system, i.e. when the demand forecast is derived by an explosion of finished product requirements. In this case, the schedule of weekly requirements for an individual component, like the one shown in

this example, is derived by exploding the scheduled production for all higher level assemblies into the necessary component parts. The weekly requirement for each component is then obtained by accumulating its weekly usage in all higher level assemblies. Thus a forecast of component requirements, covering the next 12 weeks in this case, is prepared.³

Since computer time is an important factor in preparing a requirements schedule for individual components, requirements planning systems are often operated on a daily or weekly basis, i.e. batch processed. Because this mode of operation affects our view of the ordering problem, we shall state our assumptions before proceeding. First, since the component requirements are aggregated by time period for planning purposes, we assume that all of the requirements for each period must be available at the beginning of the period. Second, we assume that all of the requirements for a given period must be met and cannot be backordered. Third, since the system is operated on a periodic basis, the ordering decisions are assumed to occur at regular time intervals, e.g. daily or weekly. Fourth, the orders which are placed at the beginning of a period, are assumed to be available in time to meet the requirements for that period. This assumption of zero production lead time is not very restrictive, however, since once the ordering decisions are made, they can be offset to allow for the production lead time. Finally, we assume that the components are withdrawn from inventory at a uniform rate during each period. Therefore the average inventory level will be used in computing the inventory carrying costs.⁴

In the following sections we shall illustrate the results obtained by applying four different ordering procedures to the example shown in Table 1. Furthermore, this example will be used to illustrate the manner in which these procedures vary in their assumptions and the extent to which they utilize all of the available data in making lot size decisions.

Economic Order Quantities: The economic lot size formula is often used as a decision rule for placing orders in a requirements planning system because of its simplicity (8,10). As we shall illustrate in the following example, however, the static EOQ model frequently must be modified in requirements planning system applications. It is important to recognize this fact because, in many cases, it prevents one from using the total cost expression for the static EOQ model in evaluating the inventory cost performance of this procedure.

The results obtained by ordering material in economic lot sizes for the

³In this paper we shall assume that the requirements forecast remains fixed and is not subject to forecast error. Since this assumption is unwarranted in a number of actual situations, the effect of forecast errors on the performance of the lot sizing techniques mentioned in this paper is an important problem for further research.

⁴An interesting comparison of these assumptions with those of the static Economic Order Quantity model is presented by Gorenstein (3).

¹In the case of a purchased part, the inventory related costs may also include quantity discount and transportation rate schedules (14).

²This example was obtained from an article by Kaimann (7). The item value in this case is \$520 per unit and the inventory carrying charge is 20 percent of the item value per year.

Week Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Requirements	10	10	15	20	70	180	250	270	230	40	0	10
Order Quantity	166					166						
Beginning Invt.	166	156	146	131	111	207	250	270	230	166	126	126
Ending Invt.	156	146	131	111	41	27	0	0	0	126	126	116
Ordering Cost:							\$1800					
Inventory Carrying Cost:							3065					
Total Cost:							4865					
(Economic Lot Size = 166)												

Table 2—Economic Order Quantity Example

example above are presented in Table 2.⁵ In this example the economic lot size was computed by using the average weekly demand of 92.1 units for the entire requirements schedule. Note, too, that the average inventory for each period was used in computing the inventory carrying cost.

This example illustrates several problems with the EOQ procedure. When the demand is not equal from period to period, as is often the case in requirements planning forecasts, one of the assumptions underlying the EOQ formula is violated. Since demand does not occur at a constant rate, as is assumed by the EOQ formula, the restriction of fixed lot sizes results in larger inventory carrying costs. This occurs because of the mismatch between the order quantities and the demand values, causing excess inventory to be carried forward from week to week. As an example, 41 units are carried over into week 6 when a new order is placed.

In addition, the order quantity must be increased in those periods where the demand exceeds the economic lot size plus the amount of inventory carried over into the period. An example of this occurs in week 7. This modification is clearly preferable to the alternative of placing orders earlier to meet the demand in such periods, since this would further increase the inventory carrying costs. Likewise, the alternative of placing multiple orders in a given period would needlessly increase the ordering cost.

Finally, the use of the average weekly demand figure in computing the economic lot size ignores a considerable amount of other information contained in the requirements schedule. This information has to do with the magnitude of demand. For instance there appear to be two levels of component demand in this example covering weeks: 1) 1-4 and 10-12 and 2) 5-9.

⁵If an order is placed for 50 units in week 10, rather than for an economic lot size of 166, the total cost for this example may be reduced to \$4171. This would, however, require the use of a more complex decision rule in actual applications.

Week Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9-10	11	12	
Requirements	10	10	15	20	70	180	250	270	230	40	10	
Order Quantity	20		35		250		520		270		10	
Beginning Invt.	20	10	35	20	250	180	520	270	270	40	10	
Ending Invt.	10	0	20	0	180	0	270	0	40	0	0	
Ordering Cost:							\$1800					
Inventory Carrying Cost:							2145					
Total Cost:							3945					

Table 3—Periodic Order Quantity Example

By computing an economic lot size for each of these two time intervals, and placing orders accordingly, the total cost can be reduced to \$3855. Yet, this proposal would be much more difficult to implement because the determination of different demand levels would require a very complex decision rule. The Part Period Balancing procedure (to be described in a later section of this paper) is a much simpler means of accomplishing the same objective.

Periodic Order Quantities: One way of reducing the high inventory carrying cost associated with fixed lot sizes is to use the EOQ formula to compute an economic time interval between replenishment orders [10]. By dividing the EOQ by the mean demand rate in the example above, this time interval would be approximately two weeks ($166/92.1 = 1.8$). When this procedure is applied to the example, as is shown in Table 3, it yields the same number of orders as the EOQ procedure, but with lot sizes ranging from 20 to 520 units. Consequently, the inventory carrying cost has been reduced by 30%, thereby improving the total cost of the 12 week requirements schedule by 19% in comparison with the EOQ result above.

Although the Periodic Order Quantity procedure improves the inventory cost performance by allowing the lot sizes to vary, like the EOQ procedure it, too, ignores much of the information contained in the requirements schedule. That is, the replenishment orders are constrained to occur at fixed time intervals, thereby ruling out the possibility of combining orders during periods of light product demand, e.g. during weeks 1 through 4 in the example. If, for example, the orders placed in weeks 1 and 3 were combined and a single order was placed in week 1 for 55 units, the combined costs can be further reduced by \$160 or 4%.

Part Period Balancing: The Part Period Balancing procedure described by Gorham [4] uses all of the information provided by the requirements sched-

ule.⁶ In determining the lot size for an order, this procedure tries to equate the total costs of placing orders and carrying inventory. This point can be illustrated by considering the alternative lot size choices available at the beginning of week 1. These include placing an order covering the requirements for:

- a) week 1 only
- b) weeks 1 and 2
- c) weeks 1, 2, and 3
- d) weeks 1, 2, 3, and 4
- e) weeks 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5
- etc.

The inventory carrying cost for these alternatives is shown below. These calculations illustrate the manner in which we have changed the procedure suggested by Gorham to accommodate the average inventory carrying cost criterion rather than the end of period criterion.⁷ Thus, the ordering plans produced by this procedure can now be directly compared with those obtained with the EOQ procedure.

- a) $(\$2) \cdot [(1/2) \cdot (10)] = \10
- b) $(\$2) \cdot [(1/2) \cdot (10) + (1/2) \cdot (10)] = \40
- c) $(\$2) \cdot [(1/2) \cdot (10) + (1/2) \cdot (10) + (2/2) \cdot (15)] = \115
- d) $(\$2) \cdot [(1/2) \cdot (10) + (1/2) \cdot (10) + (2/2) \cdot (15) + (3/2) \cdot (20)] = \255
- e) $(\$2) \cdot [(1/2) \cdot (10) + (1/2) \cdot (10) + (2/2) \cdot (15) + (3/2) \cdot (20) + (4/2) \cdot (70)] = \885

In this case, the inventory carrying cost for alternative d), ordering 55 units to cover the demand for the first four weeks, most nearly approximates the ordering cost of \$300. Therefore an order should be placed at the beginning of the first week and the next ordering decision need not be made until the beginning of week 5.

When this procedure is applied to the example shown in Table 4, the total inventory cost is reduced by \$500 or by 13% of the cost obtained with the Periodic Order Quantity procedure. Notice that this procedure permits both the lot size and the time between orders to vary. Thus, for example, in periods of light product demand this procedure results in smaller lot sizes and longer time intervals between orders than for periods of high demand. This results in lower inventory related costs.

Despite the fact that this procedure utilizes all of the information available, it will not always yield the minimum cost ordering plan. Although this procedure can produce low cost ordering plans, it may miss the minimum cost plan since it does not evaluate all of the possibilities for ordering material to satisfy the demand in each week of the requirements schedule. This point is illustrated by the example shown in the next section.

⁶A more sophisticated version of this procedure, involving a look-forward and look-backward technique, is described by Plossl and Wight (10).

⁷Note that the inventory carrying cost for alternative a) is:
 $(\$2) \cdot [(10 + 0) / 2] = (\$2) \cdot (1/2) \cdot (10)$

Week Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Requirements	10	10	15	20	70	180	250	270	230	40	0	10
Order Quantity	55				70	180	250	270	270			10
Beginning Invt.	55	45	35	20	70	180	250	270	270	40	0	10
Ending Invt.	45	35	20	0	0	0	0	0	40	0	0	0
Ordering Cost:									\$2100			
Inventory Carrying Cost:										1385		
Total Cost:												\$3485

Table 4—Part Period Balancing Example

Wagner-Whitin Algorithm: One optimizing procedure for determining the minimum cost ordering plan for a time phased requirements schedule is the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm [1,2,13]. Basically, this procedure evaluates all of the possible ways of ordering material to meet the demand in each week of the requirements schedule. We will not attempt to describe the computational aspects of the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm, since these are presented elsewhere [2,13]. Rather, we shall note the difference in performance between this procedure and the Part Period Balancing procedure.

When the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm is applied to the example, the results of which are shown in Table 5, the total inventory cost is reduced by \$240 or 7% in comparison with the ordering plan produced by the Part Period Balancing procedure in Table 4. The difference between these two plans occurs in the lot size ordered in week 9. The Part Period Balancing procedure did not consider the combined cost of placing orders in both weeks 9 and 12. By spending an additional \$60 to carry 10 units of inventory forward from week 9 to 12, the \$300 ordering cost in week 12 is avoided. In this case a savings of \$240 in total cost can be achieved. This increase in the number of ordering alternatives considered, however, clearly increases the computations needed in making ordering decisions.

PERFORMANCE COMPARISON PROBLEMS

After observing the inventory cost performance obtained with these four ordering procedures in the example above, one might conclude that the first three procedures should not be considered for inclusion in a requirements planning system since the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm will guarantee an optimal solution. Yet, there are two problems with the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm.

In the first place, although the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm has been avail-

Week Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Requirements	10	10	15	20	70	180	250	270	230	40	0	10
Order Quantity	55				70	180	250	270	280			
Beginning Invt.	55	45	35	20	70	180	250	270	280	50	10	10
Ending Invt.	45	35	20	0	0	0	0	0	50	10	10	0
Ordering Cost:									\$1800			
Inventory Carrying Cost:									1445			
Total Cost:									3245			

Table 5—Wagner-Whitin Example

able for some time, it is rarely used in practice. Instead, one finds numerous applications of the first three procedures [8,10]. Production managers often maintain that an ordering procedure for a requirements planning system should be: 1) simple to understand and implement and 2) efficient in terms of computing time because of the size of the inventory files in most systems.

In view of these factors, a more appropriate performance comparison would involve both inventory cost and computational criteria. That is, the analysis should indicate the tradeoff one is making between inventory cost performance and computing time when simple decision rules are employed. Such an analysis would involve comparing the inventory cost obtained with each procedure with the optimum results produced by the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm for a given ordering problem. This proposal leads, however, to a second problem.

The second problem with the cost comparison above is that we are generalizing from a single set of problem parameters. That is, a better comparison of ordering procedures would consider their performance over a wide range of cost and demand parameters. Several papers, dealing with a comparison of the Economic Lot Size and Wagner-Whitin models, have noted that the difference in performance between these approaches depends upon the variability of the demand data [2,6,12]. That is, as the assumption of a constant, known demand rate is removed, the performance of the Economic Lot Size model declines relative to the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm.

The most systematic approach to the problem of comparing alternative ordering procedures over a range of parameter values developed so far has been suggested by Kaimann [7]. We think that an extension of his method will provide considerable insight in the comparison of alternative ordering procedures for use in actual situations. We shall illustrate this approach using the example above, as well as several additional examples provided by Kaimann, in the remaining section of the paper.

EOQ/ \bar{D} Ratio	Procedure	Coefficient of Variation				
		0	.293	.718	1.410	3.310
.73	Economic Order Quantity	1681	1681	1585	1633	1153
	Periodic Order Quantity	1681	1681	1445	1633	1153
	Part Period Balancing	1681	1681	1585	1597	1153
	Wagner-Whitin Algorithm	1681	1681	1557	1589	1153
1.0	Economic Order Quantity	2209	2915	2601	2655	1197
	Periodic Order Quantity	2209	2209	2025	2117	1197
	Part Period Balancing	2209	2209	2025	1961	1197
	Wagner-Whitin Algorithm	2209	2209	1953	1941	1197
1.14	Economic Order Quantity	3612	3085	3275	3105	1225
	Periodic Order Quantity	2545	2545	2305	2425	1225
	Part Period Balancing	2545	2545	2305	2205	1225
	Wagner-Whitin Algorithm	2545	2505	2205	2145	1225
1.5	Economic Order Quantity	3859	4873	3747	3799	1311
	Periodic Order Quantity	3447	3491	3145	3381	1311
	Part Period Balancing	3577	3359	2933	2787	1311
	Wagner-Whitin Algorithm	3447	3353	2871	2681	1311
1.82	Economic Order Quantity	5120	5435	4951	4865	1405
	Periodic Order Quantity	4011	4055	3615	3945	1405
	Part Period Balancing	4011	4055	3545	3485	1405
	Wagner-Whitin Algorithm	4011	4055	3435	3245	1405

Table 6—Total Inventory Cost Performance

PERFORMANCE COMPARISON FRAMEWORK

In comparing the Economic Order Quantity and the Wagner-Whitin procedures, Kaimann [7] varied the problem parameters systematically along two dimensions: the coefficient of variation of the product demand in the requirements schedule and the ratio of the ordering and inventory carrying costs (S/C_1).⁸ The coefficient of variation describes the degree of variation in the demand data and is useful in indicating those cases where the EOQ procedure results in higher costs than the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm because of non constant demand. A sharper distinction can, however, be drawn between

⁸The coefficient of variation: $V_D = \sigma_D / \bar{D}$; where \bar{D} is the average weekly demand and σ_D is the standard deviation of weekly demand.

Week	Data Sets				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	92	90	50	10	0
2	92	100	90	10	0
3	92	125	100	15	0
4	92	100	80	20	0
5	92	50	0	70	0
6	92	50	0	180	1105
7	92	100	180	250	0
8	92	125	150	270	0
9	92	125	10	230	0
10	92	100	100	40	0
11	92	50	180	0	0
12	93	100	95	10	0
	1105	1105	1105	1105	1105
Standard Deviation:	0	27.0	66.1	130.0	305.0
Coefficient of Variation:	0	.293	.718	1.410	3.310

Table 7—Demand Patterns for Investigation

the performance of these two procedures if the ratio of the economic order quantity to the average period demand (EOQ/\bar{D}) is substituted for the inventory cost ratio (S/C_p) used by Kaimann. The EOQ/\bar{D} ratio measures the degree of mismatch between integral multiples of product demand and explains the large inventory carrying costs exhibited in some applications of the EOQ procedure.

When Kaimann's examples are viewed using this framework, there are several important differences between his conclusions and ours. In order to illustrate these differences, we have extended the example presented earlier. In all, we have computed the total inventory cost for 25 different sets of data, using the same methods that were employed in Tables 2-5. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 6. The cost and demand data used in preparing this table are provided in Tables 7 and 8. Table 6 presents a performance comparison of the four ordering procedures for selected parameter values in the range: $.73 \leq EOQ/\bar{D} \leq 1.82$ and $0 \leq V_D \leq 3.31$. A direct comparison of the percentage difference between the results obtained with the three simple decision rules and the optimum results produced by the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm is shown in Table 9.

Ratio of EOQ to Average Weekly Demand (EOQ/\bar{D})	EOQ	Ordering Cost	Inventory Carrying Cost Per Unit Per Week
.73	67	\$ 48	12
1.00	92	92	2
1.14	105	120	2
1.50	138	206	2
1.82	166	300	2

Source: Kaimann, R.A., "EOQ vs. Dynamic Programming—Which One to Use for Inventory Control?", *Production and Inventory Management*, 4th Qtr., 1969.

Table 8—Inventory Cost Parameters

EOQ/\bar{D} Ratio	Procedure	Coefficient of Variation				
		0	.293	.718	1.410	3.310
.73	Economic Order Quantity	0	0	2.05	2.76	0
	Periodic Order Quantity	0	0	2.05	2.76	0
	Part Period Balancing	0	0	2.05	0.005	0
1.00	Economic Order Quantity	0	31.96	33.17	36.78	0
	Periodic Order Quantity	0	0	3.68	9.06	0
	Part Period Balancing	0	0	3.68	1.03	0
1.14	Economic Order Quantity	41.92	23.15	48.52	44.75	0
	Periodic Order Quantity	0	1.59	4.53	13.05	0
	Part Period Balancing	0	1.59	4.53	2.79	0
1.50	Economic Order Quantity	11.95	45.33	30.51	41.70	0
	Periodic Order Quantity	0	4.11	9.54	26.10	0
	Part Period Balancing	3.78	0.17	2.15	3.95	0
1.82	Economic Order Quantity	27.64	34.03	44.13	49.92	0
	Periodic Order Quantity	0	0	5.24	21.57	0
	Part Period Balancing	0	0	3.20	7.39	0

Table 9—Percent Increase in Total Inventory Cost: EOQ, POQ, PPB vs. Wagner-Whitin

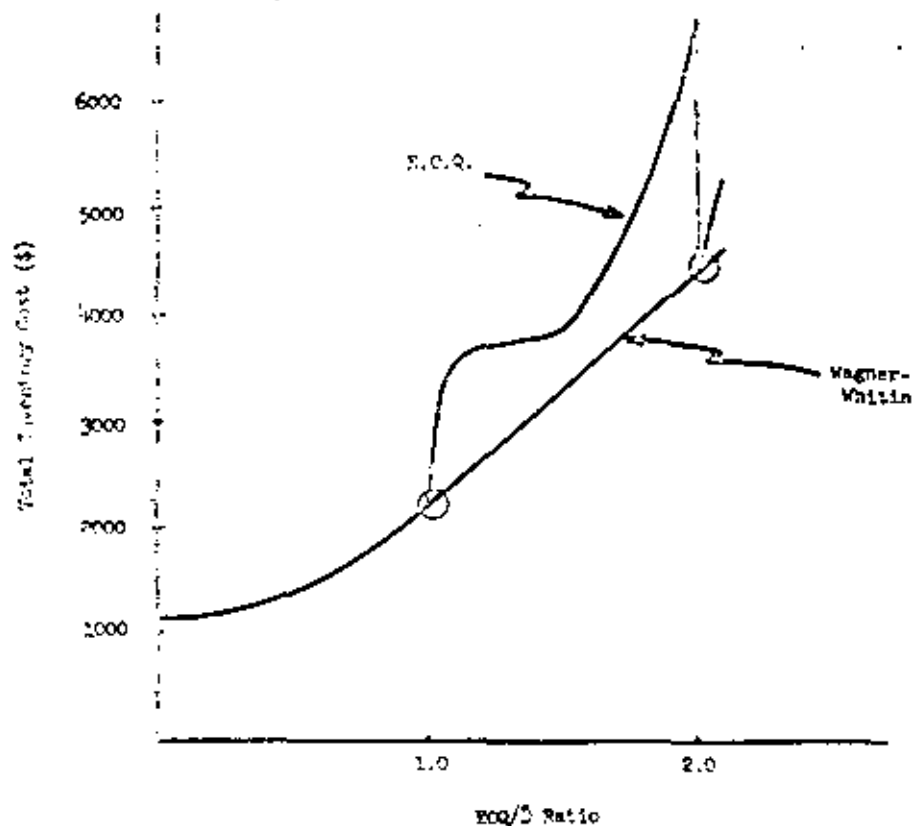


Figure 1—Total Inventory Cost vs EOQ/D Ratio for the Economic Order Quantity and Wagner-Whitin Procedures when $V_D = 0$

Economic Order Quantity: The analysis shown in Table 6 indicates that when the Economic Order Quantity procedure is applied to the discrete demand data in a requirements schedule, there are two conditions where the EOQ procedure yields the same results as the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm. One condition in which this occurs is when the demand is uniform over the requirements schedule, i.e. the coefficient of variation is zero, and the economic order quantity is an integer multiple of the average weekly demand. The $EOQ/\bar{D} = 1.0$ and $V_D = 0$ element in Table 6 provides one example of this condition.

To better illustrate this condition we have prepared additional examples that extend the range of EOQ/\bar{D} values considered in Table 6 for the case when $V_D = 0$. These results are plotted in Figure 1. This graph shows that the EOQ procedure leads to higher total costs than the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm except when the EOQ/\bar{D} ratio assumes integer values⁹ or when

EOQ/\bar{D} ratio is less than 1.0, in which case weekly orders are placed. In no case is the Wagner-Whitin procedure more costly than the EOQ procedure as is suggested by Kaimann [7, pp. 71-74]. This fact follows directly from the assumption that orders can only be placed and received at the discrete time intervals defined by the requirements schedule.

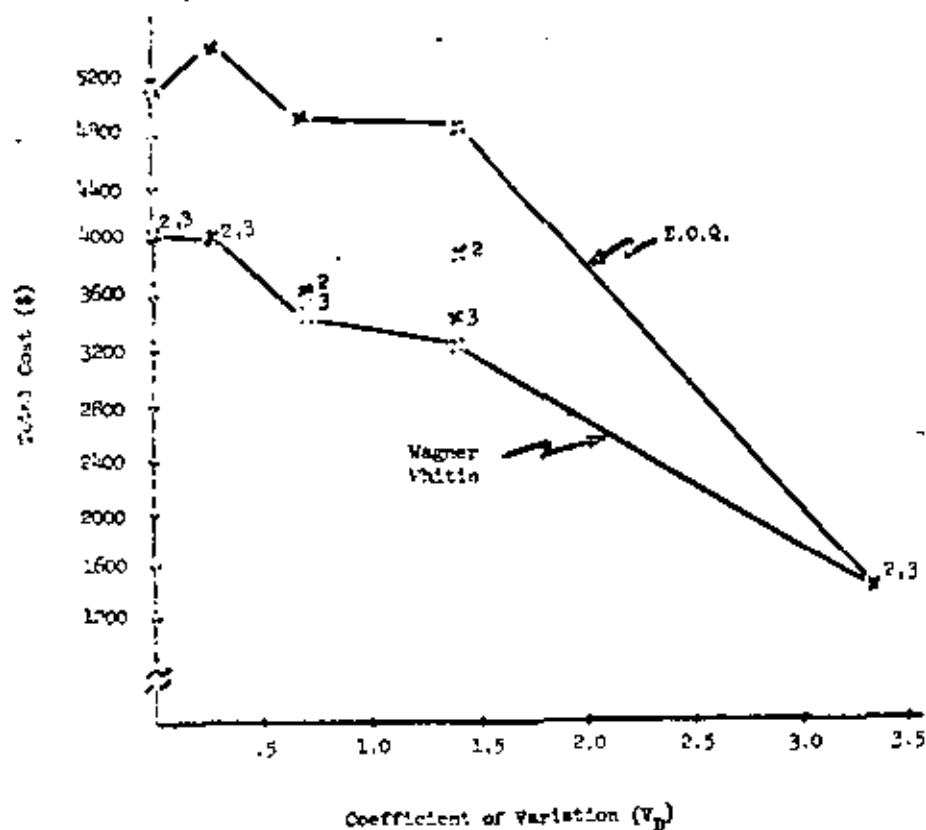
The higher total cost performance of the economic order quantity procedure relative to the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm in Figure 1 is largely explained by the mismatch between the economic order quantities and the weekly demand, causing higher inventory carrying costs. The dip in the total cost curve for the EOQ procedure which occurs near the $EOQ/\bar{D} = 1.5$ point in Figure 1 may be surprising at first. This happens because as the magnitude of the economic lot size increases, the extra inventory carried over from week to week soon becomes sufficient to eliminate one or more weekly orders. When the EOQ is 1.5 times the average weekly demand, in a constant demand schedule, an order is avoided every third week. Since orders can not be placed every second week until the EOQ/\bar{D} ratio equals 2.0, the total inventory cost increases rapidly after EOQ/\bar{D} equals 1.5.

A second condition in which the EOQ procedure and the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm yield the same results occurs when the coefficient of variation becomes very large, i.e. $V_D = 3.31$ in this example. This happens when extreme variations occur in the demand data and there is a marked degree of spikiness in the requirements schedule. The demand schedule shown in data set 5 in Table 7 provides a good illustration of this point. In such cases the economic lot size is not sufficient to meet the weekly demand. It is less expensive to simply increase the order quantity, rather than to initiate two or more orders for a peak demand period. The orders are placed to meet the weekly demand and the results obtained with both procedures are the same. We have plotted the data in the last row of Table 6 to illustrate this point. This graph is shown in Figure 2.

Kaimann's results indicate that the EOQ curve in Figure 2 should be a straight line, extending horizontally from a point on the total inventory cost axis.⁹ This would reflect an increasing difference in total cost between the EOQ and the Wagner-Whitin procedures. Yet, our results indicate that there is a clear advantage to modifying the EOQ procedure as the degree of spikiness in the requirements schedule increases. Although the coefficient of variation does not measure the degree of spikiness in the demand data directly, it is a good approximating variable to signal the need to modify the EOQ approach.

Periodic Order Quantities and Part Period Balancing: Although the results shown in Table 9 indicate a close correspondence between the performance of these two procedures and the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm, the data

⁹This point is computed using the total cost expression for the static economic order quantity model and assumes that the time between successive orders is not restricted to integer values.



Note 2: Periodic Order Quantity
3: Part Period Balancing

Figure 2—Total Inventory Cost vs Coefficient of Variation for an Ordering Cost of \$300 and EOQ/\bar{D} Ratio of 1.52

is not sufficient to draw any firm conclusions. In addition to its simplicity, the Part Period Balancing procedure did provide low cost ordering plans in these examples. One might therefore hypothesize that this procedure would represent an effective tradeoff between inventory cost and computing time performance for a requirements planning system.

CONCLUSIONS

The production manager clearly has a number of options in choosing an ordering procedure for a requirements planning system, ranging from the use of simple decision rules to optimizing procedures. The procedure he chooses will largely depend upon the emphasis he places on three criteria:

inventory cost performance, computational efficiency, and procedural simplicity. To provide data for a more informed decision with regard to these criteria, the method of evaluating alternative ordering procedures should be broadened to include both: a range of cost and demand parameter values and the amount of computing time required to make ordering decisions. We believe that the analytical framework proposed in this paper is one step toward a more systematic analysis.

In a second paper we will report a simulation analysis in which this analytical framework was used to analyze the four ordering procedures described in this paper. Specifically, these simulation experiments were directed toward a more extensive exploration of the total inventory cost surface illustrated in Table 6 of this paper, and included both inventory cost and computing time criteria. In particular, two questions were analyzed in these experiments.

- What is the magnitude of the difference between each of the three procedures and the Wagner-Whitin Algorithm with respect to: inventory related costs and computing time?
- Can the differences observed for these two measures be accounted for by changes in the coefficient of variation or the EOQ/\bar{D} ratio?

This analysis is directed toward improving the manager's ability to make better decisions with regard to the tradeoff between inventory cost and computing time in choosing an ordering procedure for a requirements planning system.

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MATERIALS REQUIREMENTS PLANNING
A HOPE FOR THE FUTURE OR A
PRESENT REALITY -- A CASE STUDY

L. J. Burlingame
Twin Disc, Incorporated

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This article reprinted from *Production and Inventory Management*, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 2nd Quarter 1972 pp. 19-34.

Dr. Joseph Orlicky started a three-session series of presentations on Materials Requirements Planning with a talk entitled "Requirements Planning Systems: Cinderella's Bright Prospects for the Future" just one year ago in Cincinnati. This is a rather ironic title for Joe to use as he was running a Requirements Planning System nearly ten years ago. Not only was the system running, but a system derived from this one is still in use today in the same plant. Thus we have an example of ten years of history on Cinderella's future.

Two years ago in New York, just prior to the APICS conference, a workshop on "Materials Requirements Planning" was led by George Flossl and Oliver Night for companies using this technique. The proceedings of this workshop have been published as part of the APICS Special Report, "Material Requirements Planning by Computer." Anyone interested in Requirements Planning should, I believe, obtain a copy of this report.

In this book, there are nine case studies of companies which had systems up and running two years ago. The results for these nine have been nothing short of spectacular. There have been 20 to 30% reductions in inventory, up to 20% improvements in customer service, and important cost reductions.* This is even more significant when you consider the diverse businesses represented. These companies go all the way from mass production to classical job shops. They go from heavy industry to electronics. The same basic technique yields positive results.

I am obviously making the case that Material Requirements Planning is a proven tool of the present. I am prepared to support the claim that under no condition can Requirements Planning be worse than Statistical Inventory Control. There are conditions under which it may be no better, but I feel that these are few in a manufacturing environment. The principle of Dependent vs Independent Demand is involved here and Dr. Orlicky has covered this a lot better than I could.

There is, at this time, a relatively new dimension which makes the picture still more favorable. Several computer manufacturers have made program packages available to take a great deal of the programming work out of Requirements Planning. The best known of these is IBM's PICS. This system has been successfully installed in several companies and it has been working for over three years. When you add to all of the above, the vastly improved computer capability available today compared to ten years ago, it would seem that companies by the hundred would be turning to this method.

The above is, however, not so. Progress at implementation of this well-known and proven technique is relatively slow. Why? The answer is, of course, very simple. George Flossl, in his Newsletter No. 7, gave the key in eight words -- "Systems make it possible, people make it happen." One Newsletter later, Oliver Night said, "The odds are 20 to 1 PICS won't work for you." Please be sure to stress the YOU. Cinderella is here and getting old waiting for you.

*Note: See pages 19 and 20 of the report.

About the Author--

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Formerly, Dr. Berry was employed by the General Electric Company as a member of the manufacturing training program, a supervisor in production in the Industry Control Department, and as a computer systems specialist in the same department. Presently, he is engaged in teaching and research in the area of production planning, scheduling, and inventory control. He is a member of APICS, TMS, ORSA, and AIIE.

EXHIBIT 1.

ITEM NO.	DESCRIPTION	QTY	UNIT	DATE	STATUS	REMARKS
20001	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20002	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20003	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20004	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20005	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20006	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20007	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20008	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20009	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	
20010	SAFETY PAPER	10	REEL	10/15/66	OK	

Since philosophy is one thing and practice another, I would like to introduce you to Twin Disc, Incorporated and show you a real live Requirements Planning System. Twin Disc has sales over \$50,000,000 and manufactures power transmission equipment for a variety of industries, the largest of which is construction machinery. The system you will see is 7-1/2 years old, although it has had several major revisions. It was started on an IBM 1401 computer and is run today on a 360/40. We programmed it ourselves since MICH was not available in 1964. The most outstanding difference between our system and MICH is that we use not change while PDC uses customer. Twin Disc is one of the companies whose results are given on pages 19 and 20 of the Special Report.

Exhibit 1 is a copy of Twin Disc's reorder point system which was in use from the late 1930's until 1964 in Racine and 1968 in Rockford. We were unable to include the Rockford Plant in the new system until the 360 replaced the 1401. This system was quite a good one of its type and had only two real problems. The worst was that it took two to three weeks to update the system. This meant a lag of, at best, two weeks to explode a level of a bill of material. Some of our bills have ten levels. Entering an order took 20 weeks! We, obviously, had to develop manual short cuts, but these, at best, are poor substitutes for doing the job right. The other problem was the lack of timing. We knew that we needed material but we did not know when we needed it. Notice that on 8/4/66, we received five pieces of this part. This brought inventory up to 15 pieces. It was not until 10/28/66 that even one piece was used and not until 11/29/66 that the inventory fell below the 10 pieces that had been in stock on 8/4/66. That was real inventory turn?

EXHIBIT 2.

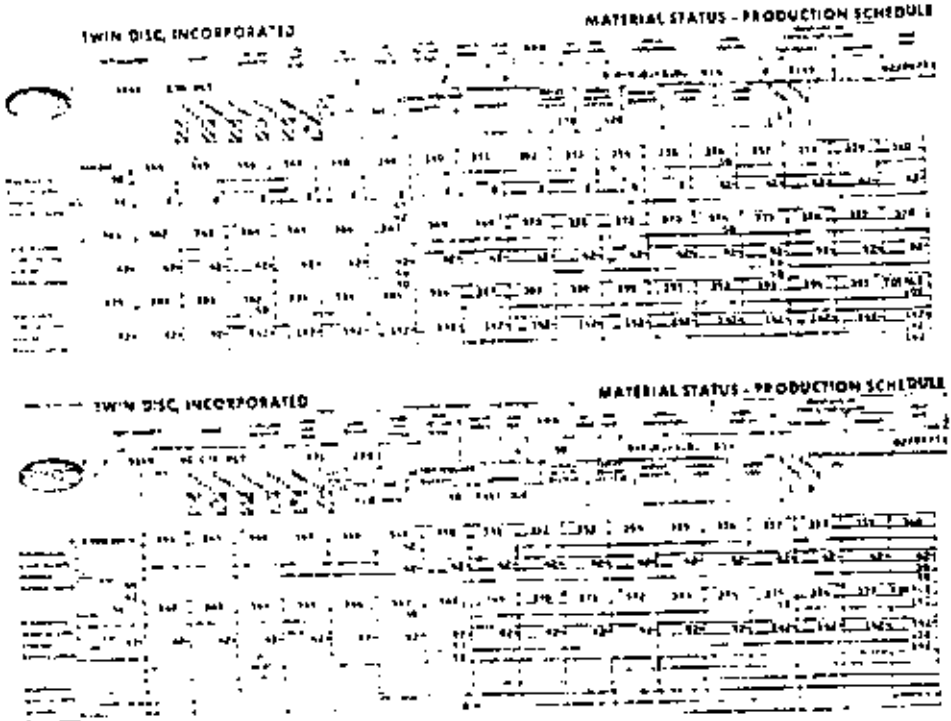
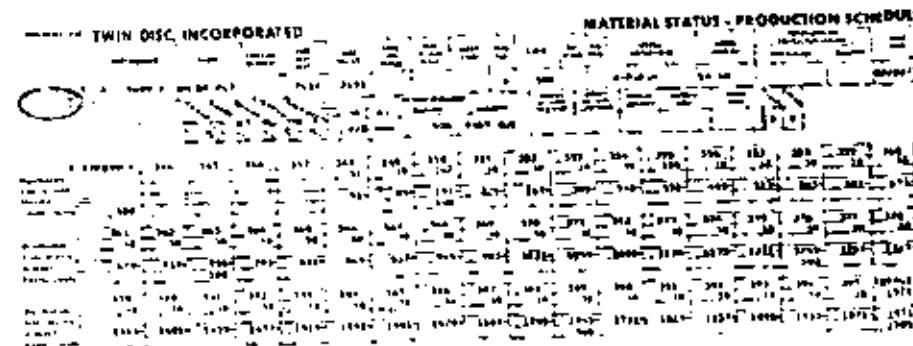
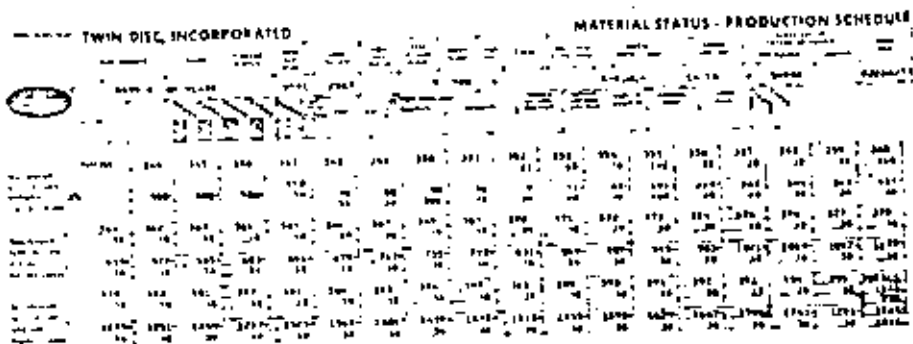


Exhibit 2 is an example of two levels of a bill of material. It is also an example of a very simple dependent demand item. The first line that starts under Part Number is self-explanatory. The second line starts with some indicated action blocks. This is a copy of an Exception Action Report. For this exhibit, we made an inquiry and its box has an "X" in it. No action is indicated. The rest of the line should explain itself. We call these two lines "Master Information". Below, there are three sets of four lines each of variable information. This information goes ten weeks into the past, has the current week, and 89 future weeks. This format has the accumulated past due, the current week, and 50 future weeks. There are ten optional formats for this information. We will see two others later. The consecutive numbers starting with "144" are week numbers. When we started this system, we started with Week 000 and when we get to 999, we will start over. The next line, "Requirements", shows in time frames all of the requirements for this part. These can be caused by customer or service orders at a higher level, the same at this level, safety stock at any level, or sales forecast at any level. In short, it is the number of pieces we need to fill all demands. The next line is called "Scheduled Receipts". These are open purchase orders for a purchased part and work-in-process inventory for a manufactured part. "Available" starts in the first space with on hand inventory, and is the result from there on of netting the inventory, scheduled receipts and requirements. Thus, the 50-piece requirement in "Past Due" nets against the 58 pieces in inventory and gives an available in Week 144 of +8. In the same way, the 50-piece requirement in Week 356 nets against the +8 and gives an available of -42. "Planned Orders" are nothing more than start dates. This part has a six-week lead time and our rules say a part should be scheduled to be received one week prior to need. Thus, the first need is in Week 356 and if we subtract six weeks from Week 355, we have a planned order in Week 349. This is the last date that parts can be started through the shop if they are to be done in Week 355 and available in Week 356. There are two 42's in Week 349. We carry two

EXHIBIT 3.



complete sets of inventory records for each part. I said, above, that all requirements were carried on line 1. There is another record that carries only customer orders and service orders on line 2. This record can then be said to be "pegged" to firm orders. This record can be identified by order number! The second 42 is the planned order line from the second record. An example of this second record will be discussed later.

The general subject of pegging is a complex one. I would like to point out a few items about this type of peg. If you try to peg at all levels with an exact peg to order numbers at an upper level, you will run into a very complex set of records at lower levels if there is much cross usage of parts. In our case, we would have several thousand pegs on some lower level parts and raw materials. To avoid this, most systems peg only one level down or peg only to level 10. However, I think that, in something over 90% of the cases, it is important only to know the type of order, not the order number. If you accept this, you can cut out 90% of the trouble with pegging and get 90% of the good. Order numbers can be found at any time by implication. In general, you have two choices to peg: if you wish to break through forecasts, lot sizes, safety stock, etc. The first is to maintain a separate record for each type of peg for each item in inventory. This is what we have done for this one type of peg. You can see that this would get out of hand if you were to have six or ten types of peg. The other is to regenerate by special program, on request, any type of peg desired.

The lower half of Exhibit 2 shows the casting from which the part is made. (Note the 42 is part of the part number.) The 42-piece planned order above in Week 349 is a requirement of 42. Week 349, for the casting. This shows the lead time offset. On this part, we show not only the inquiry but also an order suggestion and an

expedite since Week 349 is within lead time. The suggested purchase order is for 50 pieces which is the order quantity for the casting. Therefore, there is a 50-piece planned order in the past due. Note, however, the second planned order is still the pegged 42 pieces. Page 18 of the Special Report refers to our practice of coding parts by vendor's machine center for inquiry purposes. The "50" in the part name of this casting is a code for a foundry and a code for the type of molding.

This is, of course, an example of demand demand. There are requirements for 200 pieces of the top level part over a time spread of 13 weeks. These demands come in four 50-piece increments. I think that this example points out, as well as anything can, the shortcomings of the sawtooth chart and traditional MRP. Both techniques are based on the incorrect premise that demand will be constant.

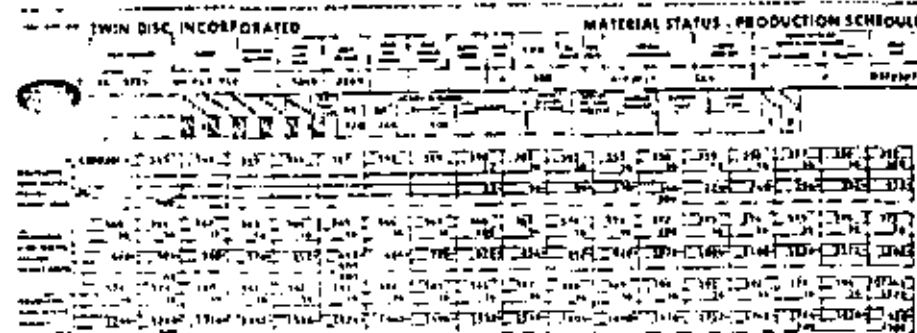
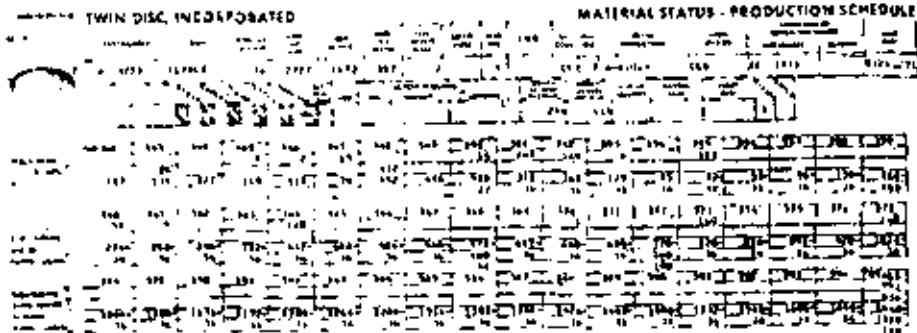
Exhibit 3 shows the effect of safety stock on a requirements plan. In this case, the 500-piece safety stock has been deducted from "on hand" prior to the calculation of available. With no "on hand" and no "requirements", the first available is -500. At first glance, the casting would seem to be in the same condition as the one in Exhibit II, with a past due planned order. However, in this case, there is no pegged planned order and you can tell at a glance that this message comes from the fact that we are into safety stock at an upper level. There is no need, in this case, to try to bring in the castings in less than lead time. If you had a traditional reorder point system, however, I don't think that you could tell the difference between these two parts, and you would be putting equal emphasis on them. It is central to our system to be able to tell what would be nice to do and what must be done. I don't think that a sensible approach to Shop Floor Control or Purchasing Systems can be made until the Inventory Control System provides this data.

The inventory control rules used in our system or in any other system can be the user's own. Our system is not the lowest inventory system that can be devised with Requirements Planning. It was designed to yield a high degree of customer service. I would like to stress, however, that it is possible to go the other way. A 500-piece safety stock may seem high to you on an "A" item. It is there for reasons that have to do with a vendor and a customer; it is not a part of the system.

I will use Exhibit 4 to support my claim that even with independent demand, Requirements Planning can do the job as well as reorder points. The example part is an independent or nearly independent demand part. As such, exponential smoothing is used to forecast this part. The forecast, in this case, is 36 pieces per week and the smoothing constant is .15. This forecast is recalculated every four weeks. The program compares the actual requirements with the forecast and uses the greater amount to calculate the available, except in the first four weeks where it uses 20% of the forecast. This is easy to see if you look at the planned order line. All weeks with a 36 are the result of forecast, at least in part; the others are firm. Note the total at the end of the record where we have 1820 pieces in planned orders for this record, of which 189 are firm orders from the pegged record.

Exhibits 2 through 4 are examples of an exception report which is issued twice a week for those parts requiring action (order, cancel order, reschedule, etc.). This is the tool used for inventory control. Exhibit 5, on the other hand, is generated only on request and is used to review schedules. This format shows customer and service orders as requirements only. The planned order line of this information arrangement is the second planned order line in

EXHIBIT 4.

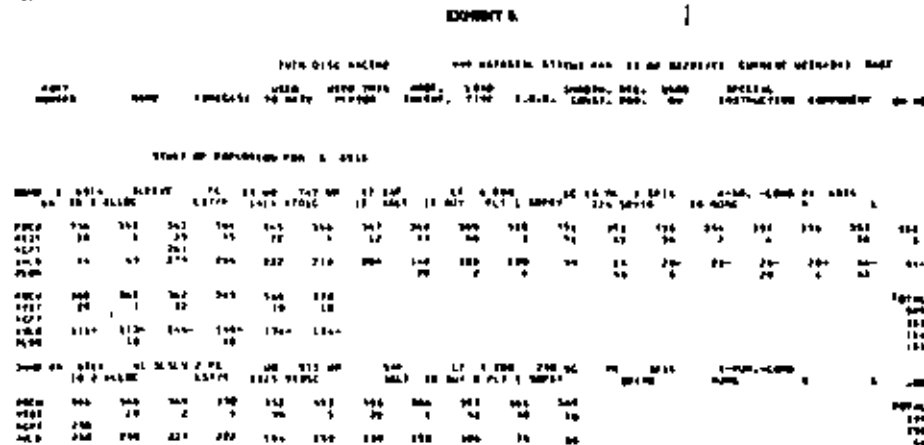
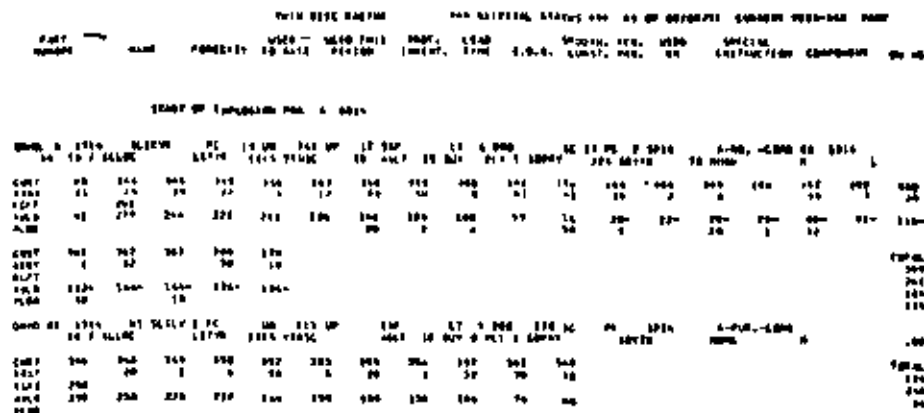


Exhibits 2-4. In this way, a product line scheduler can look at the lower levels of any bill of material and see the availability of parts and raw materials, devoid of the distortions brought about by upper level safety stocks, order quantities, etc. This format is harder to read than the others because it is printed on plain paper to avoid the cost of preprinted forms, and ease of reading is unnecessary since only a few people need to know how.

The same information is available in Exhibit 6 as is available in Exhibit 5 with one exception. In Exhibit 5, all of the past due is collected in one summarized quantity for each line. This is good enough for a product scheduler, but a Shop Floor Control System needs to know, not only that a job is past due, but how far it is past due. Thus, the 21 pieces which are shown as past due in Exhibit 5 can be identified as 20 from Week 336 and 1 from Week 342. This format is printed out only rarely (mostly for examples such as this), but the computer makes use of the information to calculate critical ratio.

I think that you will agree that it is important for Purchasing to be able to separate firm customer requirements from requirements caused by inventory decisions and sales forecasts. It would be very nice to have all vendors deliver all material on the date requested, but we don't live in that sort of world. How many times have we heard people say, "Well, no how many you really need and when, and I'll get them." Material Requirements Planning can answer that question for both the buyer and the foreman. Exhibit 7 is a fairly standard Open Purchase Order Report which shows each buyer his open orders in vendor number and part number sequence. However, at the right of the page, under QUANTITY and QUANTITY, he can find the last ditch date and quantity, delivery of which can prevent a late delivery to a customer. It is interesting to me to see, that, in every case, either the date or the quantity differs from those on the purchase order. This part of the report extends out

EXHIBIT 5.



seven weeks. Since expediting is usually a telephone matter, no attempt is made to issue a formal reschedule for orders which are needed sooner than the schedule date shown within these seven weeks. One by-product advantage of this is the savings of 14 pieces of paper (Purchase Order Revision -- Receiving set), and the time required to prepare it, for each such case.

A "Fail Safe" report of this type can be generated by customer, product line, due date, type of order, etc. In this way, specific information, without extra unwanted items, can be generated on request. Thus, the pegging principles enumerated earlier have been put into practice.

When scheduling customer orders under our reorder point system, we were lucky to examine the inventory position of 10% of our parts. The other 90% were assumed to be in adequate supply. This worked most of the time because our people knew which 10% to check. However, when one of the other parts was in short supply, for any reason, the schedule date could be months too soon. Not only that, but when it was taking two to three weeks to update the system, the inventory records could, and did, show positive availability on parts which had been sold! These two problems sound stupid and funny, but they existed for us seven years ago and they exist for many of you today.

EXHIBIT 11.

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING REPORT				PAGE 1	
ORDER NO.	DATE	QTY	DATE	QTY	DATE
201418	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201419	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201420	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201421	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201422	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201423	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201424	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201425	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201426	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201427	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201428	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201429	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201430	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201431	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201432	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201433	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201434	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201435	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201436	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201437	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201438	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201439	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201440	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201441	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201442	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201443	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201444	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201445	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201446	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201447	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201448	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201449	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201450	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68

With inventory records setup having a time series, it is easy to see how the computer can be programmed to determine a delivery date after examining all components of an assembly. With net change, it is also easy to see how the system can be updated completely after each individual order is entered. The actual program is very complex and uses 28K plus many hours of computer time each week. This would be out of line for many companies, but we feel that it is well worthwhile for us. Exhibit 8 is the output from this program which shows all orders entered, and it notes those which were not scheduled to the customer's request. This is indicated in the second column from the right. The right hand column shows the part number that caused us to fail to meet the customer's requested date. Orders which are so indicated are checked over by a product scheduler to be sure that the reschedule is necessary.

Exhibits 9 and 10 are an implosion and an explosion which explain themselves.

On the first page, I gave some attention to the failure rate of these systems and indicated that people were responsible for either failure or success. Details cannot be overlooked. Since the system is very quick to respond, it will compound errors faster than any other inventory system I know. Exhibits 11 and 12 show examples of two types of daily updates. On both of these sheets, the computer has been able to find errors. This is done by checking order numbers, part numbers, quantities, dates, etc., against each other. After these errors have been identified, the rule is that corrections must be made prior to processing another day's work. If a correction is not made, the error will appear on the next day's update. There have been three corrections made on these sheets.

EXHIBIT 12.

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING REPORT				PAGE 1	
ORDER NO.	DATE	QTY	DATE	QTY	DATE
201451	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201452	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201453	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201454	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201455	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201456	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201457	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201458	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201459	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201460	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201461	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201462	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201463	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201464	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201465	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201466	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201467	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201468	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201469	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201470	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201471	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201472	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201473	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201474	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201475	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201476	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201477	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201478	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201479	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201480	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201481	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201482	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201483	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201484	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201485	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201486	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201487	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201488	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201489	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201490	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201491	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201492	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201493	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201494	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201495	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201496	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201497	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201498	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201499	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68
201500	10/20/68	10	10/20/68	10	10/20/68

The last exhibit is illustrative of another important feature of our system. Most reports are generated either by exception or by special request when the information is desired. We generate few traditional two foot high reports to sit on a desk until yellow, and which then are thrown out. This form is used to request the most used optional reports. Except in an emergency, these are issued on an overnight basis.

This has been a rather quick introduction to Material Requirements Planning, and it has been necessary to skip much that is important. However, I feel that the use of actual examples, rather than made-up ones (even though they are more complex), makes the story more believable. This is a better way to control inventory, and it is also a better way to spread the necessary information throughout the organization. It belongs in the present, not the future.

TWIN DISC, INCORPORATED

REQUEST FOR COMPUTER INFORMATION

CODE: None

Code	Code	Code	Date
A - 1 Level Explosion	E - Manufacturing Routing	SPECIAL MATERIAL STATUS	Requested by
B - Indirect Explosion	F - Random Action Inquiry	G1 - Customer Requirements Only	
C - 1 Level Implosion	G - Regular Material Status Inquiry	L1 - 10 Week Post Due	
D - Indirect Implosion	H - Part Style Item to be Deleted	G2 - 10 Week PD & Est. Req	

Type of Inquiry	PART NUMBER										REMARKS	
	Column	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Form 1078 Rev. 3-7-69

STOP: BEFORE YOU USE THE BILL PROCESSOR

DAVE GARWOOD

Fisher Controls Company, Marshalltown, Iowa

Bill Processors are becoming increasingly popular software packages to load and maintain product structure data (bills of material) on computer files. The technical proficiency of these packages has been found to be excellent. But beware! Technical proficiency of software may not be the solution to your *real* problem. Your efforts - which are usually time consuming and costly - may be an exercise in futility and result in a "computerized system" which never achieves the promised, practical utility.

Do any of these statements sound familiar?

- "Our product has too many variations to forecast by end product for planning component requirements."
- "We have been working for four years and have still not achieved complete bill of material coverage."
- "Maintaining and indexing our bills of material is becoming too large to handle."

If so, the basic structure of your bills of material may be your real problem. The Bill Processor and computer speed *are not solutions* to your problem.

PROBLEM

Examine the need for and resulting requirements of bills of material. The advent of the computer has opened doors for application of some *potentially* profitable production and inventory control techniques - time phased requirements planning for instance. These techniques require a sound data base including a well documented product structure - Bills of Material. What role does the bill of material play in applying these techniques? *Coverage* - you must be able to quickly and accurately provide specific product definition with every sales order. But, *more important*, you must be able to use your bills of material to *translate* general, non-specific *product forecasts* down to specific part requirements.

The basic problem usually found in structuring bills of material is the fantastic number of combinations into which a relatively few parts can be assembled. For instance, consider an automobile which is assembled with 5 sub-assemblies - 1 of 20 motors, 1 of 5 transmissions, 1 of 20 interiors, 1 of 50 body styles, and 1 of 5 radios. Although *only 100* ($20 \times 5 \times 20 \times 50 \times 5 = 100$) sub-assemblies are involved, a total of *500,000* ($20 \times 5 \times 20 \times 50 \times 5 = 500,000$) *different automobiles* could be assembled - assuming that all

This article reprinted from the *American Production and Inventory Control Society 1971 Conference Proceedings* pp. 125-136.

About the Author --

L. J. Burlingame is presently Vice-President, Materials Management, for Twin Disc, Incorporated, Racine, Wisconsin, where a Time Phased Requirements Planning System has been in use since April of 1964. This system has recently been augmented with a Critical Ratio Dispatching System and an Infinite Capacity Loading and Capacity Planning System. Prior to his current assignment, he was Materials Manager, Production Control Manager, Industrial Engineer, Shop Foreman, and Project Engineer. He received an AB degree from Harvard in Physics in 1951 and an MBA from Harvard in 1956. He is the current President of the Milwaukee Chapter of APICS. His article, "Finite Capacity?" appeared in the second quarter, 1970 issue of *Production and Inventory Management*.

combinations are practical. Sound impossible? A leading manufacturer of motor trucks reported in a recent article that over 32 quadrillion variations of one model were possible considering only 18 standard items such as engine, axle, brakes, etc. How about trying to forecast the specific models to be sold from the 2nd quarter forecast of 10,000 automobiles? Lots of Luck!

Some companies achieve bill of material coverage by starting with an existing bill, deleting various parts not required and adding new parts to form a new bill of material. The new bill is usually not identified with a unique number nor retained on permanent files. If it is identified and retained, it must be added to the index, which can become unwieldy. This technique — called "Add/Delete" — is error prone due to the manual intervention of correctly deleting and adding part numbers which are usually 6 — 12 digits long and introduces transposition errors. It also slows down the order entry process. But, the *prime shortcoming* is that it does not provide an adequate, historical data base to use in translating the forecast into specific part requirements. You may know for instance that Bill of Material Number 474 x 1 was used 40% of the time when Model 474 was sold but you don't know which parts (and with what frequency) were added and deleted. If you maintain a record of the exceptions, you are back to forecasting a multitude of specific end products (add/delete variations) with little certainty in the forecast accuracy.

Another solution sometimes recommended is to apply the 80-20 Law. Structure the 20% which represent 80% of the volume and structure the remaining 20% of the volume as the customer's orders are received. Great! Which 20% are the high volume products? They will be impossible to identify without first structuring all possibilities and examining their historical usage. In addition, 20% of 500,000 for the automobile manufacturer is still 100,000 bills of material requiring 500,000 (5 x 100,000) product structure records.

SOLUTION

The best solution is to adopt the *Modular Bill of Material concept*. The concept is to group parts which vary by the same product variables into a PPL (Partial Parts List). When a customer's order is received, an Order Entry Department determines the product variables required to satisfy the customer's requirements and selects the required PPL's. A simple computer program pulls the part numbers together from each PPL to compile the complete bill of material. This complete bill is stored only for the life of that customer's order.

Consider the automobile example discussed earlier. If a PPL were made for each motor, transmission, interior, body and radio, only 100 bills of material and 100 product structure records would be required. This is a 99% reduction in bills of material.

Indexing the bills of material is simplified. The index would be sub-divided by motor, transmission, interior, body style and radio. You make one selection

from the 5 — 50 choices in each sub-division. This is much easier than finding the single bill of material from 500,000 possibilities!

Look how the *forecasting problem* has been reduced. Instead of trying to determine which of the 500,000 unique autos are to be sold from the 10,000 unit 2nd quarter forecast you need only to distribute the 10,000 unit forecast over 5 transmissions, and the same 10,000 units over 5 radios, the same 10,000 units over 20 motors, and so forth. The bill of material structure becomes the tool to translate general, nonspecific product forecast down to specific part requirements.

A common misinterpretation of this concept is that the parts on each PPL must be made into sub-assemblies. This is not true. The parts listed in each PPL are commonly used in the end product when a unique variation is selected but may never exist in a sub-assembly or even be possible to make as a sub-assembly. The PPL simply represents a set of parts to be combined with other parts to assemble an end product.

ADVANTAGES

The advantages with this approach are:

- 1) A tremendous reduction in the number of bills of material
- 2) An even greater reduction in product structure records
- 3) Less maintenance of the bills for engineering changes
- 4) A simplified index to the bills of material
- 5) The ability to plan individual part requirements from the end product forecast

Do you need the same safety stock inventory for radios and motors in the automobile? *Absolutely not!* The forecast for each of the 5 radios will be more accurate than for each of the 20 motors; therefore, the total safety stock inventory on motors will be greater than that of radios to protect against the greater uncertainty of the forecast for each motor.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE

Fisher Controls Company manufactures products which are custom assembled with 30 to 100 parts. A staff of 5 — 10 spent three years creating 750,000 product structure records and achieved bill of material coverage for only 50% of our orders — the easy 50%! A management consultant suggested we consider the Modular Bill of Material concept. The concept is a practical solution to our bill of material dilemma.

Figure No. 1 is an example of the index used by our Order Entry Department to specify the PPL's required to build one of our products which is engineered for the customer's application. The *product variables* are indexed as an ITEM.

TITLE		TYPE 310 HIGH PRESSURE GAS AND AIR TYPE 32 STEEL PILOT				SIZE
ITEM A - BODY						
	SIZE	1 INCH	2 INCH	3 INCH	4 INCH	
2000 WITHOUT INSPECTION TAPPING						
SCREWED		(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
200 LB RF		(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
2000 WITH INSPECTION TAPPING						
SCREWED		-	(7)	(8)	(10)	
200 LB RF		-	(7)	(8)	(10)	
2000 WITHOUT INSPECTION TAPPING						
SCREWED		(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
300 LB RF		(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
600 LB RF		(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
2000 WITH INSPECTION TAPPING						
SCREWED		-	(20)	(21)	(22)	
300 LB RF		-	(20)	(21)	(22)	
600 LB RF		-	(20)	(21)	(22)	
ITEM B - VALVE						
	SIZE	1 INCH	2 INCH	3 INCH	4 INCH	
50% CAPACITY						
		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	
75% CAPACITY						
		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	
100% CAPACITY						
		(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	
ITEM C - O-RINGS						
	SIZE	PISTON	VALVE			
1 INCH		(1)	(2)			
2 INCH		(1)	(2)			
3 INCH		(1)	(2)			
4 INCH		(4)	(8)			
ITEM D - COMMON PARTS						
	SIZE					
1 INCH		(1)				
2 INCH		(2)				
3 INCH		(3)				
4 INCH		(4)				
ITEM E - BLANKING PLATE - SPECIFY ONLY IF PILOT (ITEM F) IS NOT RUN						
	SIZE	VALVE	PISTON			
		(1)	(2)			
ITEM F - PILOT ASSEMBLY IN SET						
	SIZE	VALVE	PISTON			
10-100 PSI		(1)	(2)			
100-250 PSI		(2)	(3)			
250-600 PSI		(3)	(4)			
EM310-1 A _ B _ C _ D _ E _ F _						
FISHER CONTROLS COMPANY						
ORDER ENTRY MATRIX						

Figure 1 - Order Entry Matrix

One or more PPL's are available for selection in each ITEM. The numbers in parenthesis () identify the PPL for a unique selection in each ITEM. The PPL's in ITEM A vary by body size, inspection tapping, and flange rating. The PPL's in ITEM B vary by the body size and valve capacity. Notice that the PPL's in ITEM D vary only by body size and are identified as "Common Parts." This product requires 30 parts to assemble an end product of any size - 20 of these parts are common to all units of a given body size. We have found some products which have a group of parts common to all product variations of a model.

Consider, for example, that a customer wants a 3 inch, 300 LB RF unit without inspection tapping, a 50% capacity valve, viton O-rings and a 100-250 psi pilot. Order Entry specifies an EM310 x 1A14 B7 C3 D3 F5. Pre-loaded into our product structure file are the part numbers required for PPL's EM310 x 1A14, EM310 x 1B7, EM310 X1C3, EM310 x1D3, and EM310 xs,1F5. Data Processing keypunches the PPL numbers along with appropriate order identification. A complete bill of material is pulled together from the individual PPL's and printed for that order. It is possible to assemble 760 unique variations of this one model by selecting acceptable combinations of PPL's from the Order Entry Matrix in Figure 1.

Table 1 lists some numbers for comparative analysis of the Modular Bill of Material concept versus the conventional bill of material approach. These numbers represent actual products manufactured by Fisher Controls Company.

MODEL	B/M APPROACH	NUMBER OF BILLS OF MATERIAL	PRODUCT STRUCTURE RECORDS
310	Modular	60	260
	Conventional	760	24,300
92B	Modular	86	300
	Conventional	900	45,000
67F	Modular	40	100
	Conventional	138,000	4,838,400
657	Modular	40	3,300
	Conventional	80	72,200
E	Modular	1,150	2,000
	Conventional	250,000	3,110,000

Table 1 - Comparison of Modular Versus Conventional Bills of Material for Different Models.

The number of bills of material and product structure records for each model is substantially reduced with the Modular Approach. For example, Model 67F would require 138,000 bills of material to define all possible end products

but only 40 with the Modular Approach. Since the number of parts per bill of material is substantially less with the Modular Approach, the reduction in product structure records is even greater (4,383,400 to 100). We have estimated 8 man-years to complete the project of changing our current product definition to the Modular Bill of Material format and achieve nearly 100% bill of material coverage -- a feat which we had spent approximately 20 man years to achieve 50% coverage.

APPLICATION

Examine one of your products to see if some parts are commonly used together. A good way to examine your product for parts commonality is take a stack of bills of material for one product line and see if the same part appears on all of the bills or one or two (or three) parts appear on several bills. If they do, these are the parts common to the product variable on those bills and should be grouped into a PPL. Another good indicator of the applicability of the Modular Bill of Material concept to your product line is determine the number of variations into which one of your products can be assembled. If you find that your product can be assembled into many variations from a relatively few parts and a significant degree of parts commonality exists, your bills of material need restructuring before you use the Bill Processor.

CONCLUSION

Don't expect a Bill Processor to solve your bill of material structure problems. It will degenerate into another computer system illustrating programming competence but contribute little improvement in operating your business. Bills of Material are fundamental elements in the data base required for an effective material control system. Examine your bill of material structure. Be sure you will achieve the coverage required, you can store, maintain and index your bills and you can compute specific part requirements from end product forecasts.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Appreciation is expressed to the APICS Editorial Board for their valuable and constructive comments. They were well made and assisted substantially in the final preparation of this article.

About the Author--

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This article reprinted from production and Inventory Management, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 2nd Quarter 1970 pp. 73-79.

DYNAMIC ORDER QUANTITIES

Thomas Corham

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Computer capacity and techniques have now reached the point where more and more companies are developing time series requirements planning systems. In these systems the requirements for a part will be expressed not as a rate per day, but rather as an array of varying requirements scattered out through time. Components of stocked assemblies will show intermittent usage based on the expected building of the assembly. A seasonal part would show a fluctuating usage. It is apparent that such erratic requirements could not be validly expressed as a rate per day nor could they be ordered economically with either a fixed quantity or fixed time period order quantity calculation. An ordering system is required which will develop economical orders in spite of this changing and intermittent usage.

Two methods of calculating dynamic order quantities are discussed in this article. Both are non-iterative in that they step through the array of requirements only a single time, calculating a series of orders. These methods are considerably faster than reiterative methods which must try several alternative strategies before deciding on an ordering pattern.

The first method which is more well known and the most commonly used, searches for the least unit cost. In developing an order it steps through the requirements calculating the cost of inventory and setup per piece and it orders at the point where the unit cost is lowest. This method, in spite of its apparently unassailable logic, turns out upon analysis and comparison with other methods of ordering, to be a very uneconomical way of determining order quantities. It develops ordering patterns which result in excessive inventory and also excessive setup charges.

The second method is newer and not so commonly known. It is based on the same theory as the classic EOQ formula, i.e., that the least total cost is at the point where the inventory cost and setup cost are equal. This method consistently develops ordering patterns which result in considerably smaller inventory and setup charges than does the least unit cost method.

The following examples show the difference in the way the two methods would order. They show a very simple array of requirements and the computation of order quantities using the least unit cost method. Throughout these examples we are assuming:

$$\text{Unit cost} = C = \$1.00$$

$$\text{Setup cost} = S = \$40.00$$

$$\text{Inventory carrying cost} = I = .5\% \text{ per week (25\% per year)}$$

The inventory cost is figured as follows:

The first requirement of 1000 is assumed to come to stock and be drawn for the next usage in the same week. Therefore it would not acquire any inventory cost.

The second requirement of 6000 would be held in inventory for three weeks which is equivalent to carrying 18000 parts for one week. The 18000 at .5% gives an inventory cost of \$90.00.

Week	Requirements	Cum Weeks Reqts. In Inv.	Weeks	Reqts x Weeks	Inv. Cost @ .5%	Setup Cost	Total Cost	Unit Cost
1	1000	1000	0	0	0	40.00	40.00	.040
2			1					
3			2					
4	6000	7000	3	18000	90.00		130.00	.0186
5	1000	8000	4	4000	20.00		150.00	.0187

Figure 1

In the example of Figure 1, the least unit cost is at a quantity of 7000 where the unit cost is .0186 with a total cost of \$130. An inspection of the costs, however, reveals that it would be less expensive to setup and make the requirements for 6000 separately since then there would be a setup charge for \$40 rather than an inventory charge of \$90. This would result in \$50 less expense. The least total cost method would order this way because the inventory charge of \$0 is closer to the setup charge than is \$90. (There is no advantage to making part of the 6000 in order to achieve an exact balance of \$40 inventory and \$40 setup, since that would increase inventory but would not reduce setups.)

In Figure 2 the requirements have been switched around.

Here the least unit cost is at a quantity of 6000 with a total cost of \$40. Again, an analysis of the costs reveals that it would cost \$40 to set up to make the 1000 in period 4 whereas if that quantity were combined with the initial requirement it would only cost \$15 in inventory charges. This would be a savings of \$25. The least total cost system would combine the 6000 in period 1 and the 1000 in period 4 (and more) because the cumulative inventory charges had not written off the setup charges.

These two examples, though admittedly rigged, do show the radical differences between these two methods. Many tests of these have been made using long arrays of requirements. A series of orders was devel-

Week	Requirements	Cum. Repts. In Inv.	Weeks Repts. x Weeks	Inv. Cost @ .5%	Setup Cost	Total Cost	Unit Cost
1	6000	6000	0	0	40.00	40.00	.0067
2			1	0	0		
3			2	0	0		
4	1000	7000	3	3000	15.00	55.00	.0075
5	1000	8000	4	4000	20.00	75.00	.0094

Figure 2

oped and the resulting cost of inventory and setup was computed. The least unit cost method was very erratic in its behavior. On one set of requirements it would develop low setup costs and high inventory costs, and on another set it might do just the reverse. However it never could obtain the balance between the two which resulted in lower total costs than were being achieved by the least total cost method.

From a more mathematical point of view the following are generalized expressions of the two methods. (The derivations of these are in the appendix.) In these

- S = Setup cost
- C = Unit cost of part
- I = Inventory carrying charge per period
- R_n = Requirement quantity in period n
- n = Number of periods ordered or period number

Least unit cost:

The unit cost at period $n + 1$ will be less if

$$nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{C}$$

Therefore order out through time periods until the expression on the left becomes greater than S/IC .

Least Total cost:

$$0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n = \frac{S}{IC}$$

C at the point where the expression on the left is most nearly equal to S/IC .

Before going on, it might be a good idea to look at the expression S/IC which is the control factor in both formulas. This, in effect, defines a part from an economic standpoint since it contains setup cost, unit cost and the inventory carrying cost. Since this is a new concept, there has been no generally acceptable name developed for the expression, although "quantity factor" and "part-period" seem to be fairly well established. What this factor boils down to is the number of parts which if carried in inventory for one period would result in an inventory charge equal to the setup cost. In the previous examples S/IC would be $\$40.00/005 \times \$1.00 = 8000$, meaning that 8000 parts carried for one week (or 4000 parts for 2 weeks, etc.) would result in an inventory charge equal to the setup charge. This, I suspect, will become a very useful number in various inventory control applications.

To get back to the formulas, both expressions are related to S/IC . However, the weighting the requirements is completely reverse. Assume four time periods ($n=4$) in order to make the two expressions easier to read:

$$\text{Least unit cost} = 4R_1 + 3R_2 + 2R_3 + 1R_4$$

$$\text{Least total cost} = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + 3R_4$$

The least unit cost puts a higher weight on the first requirement which is held in stock for much shorter time period than is the requirement for period five. This is not at all logical from a cost of inventory standpoint. On the other hand the weightings for the least total cost do seem to be more logical.

Another, probably even more disturbing, thing about the least unit cost formula is that it says that if the total at period n is less than S/IC , then the unit cost at $n + 1$ will be less regardless of quantity or inventory charges. This helps to understand why some of the orders developed by the least unit cost method are illogical as they were in Figures 1 and 2. As long as unit cost decreases it will order regardless of what it does to total cost.

In conclusion, the least unit cost method, in spite of its extremely attractive name and easily understood logic, actually does not develop orders which result in a low over-all cost. On the other hand, mathematical analysis and extensive comparative tests show that the least total cost system results in substantially lower costs of both inventory and setup. Although it is a little more complex in concept, it is equally simple to administer and use, and it certainly gives better results.

This article reprinted from *Production and Inventory Management*, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 1st Quarter 1968 pp. 75-81.

APPENDIX

Derivation of Formulas

1. Formula for Least Unit Cost

$$\text{Unit cost} = \frac{\text{Setup Cost} + \text{Inventory Cost}}{\text{Quantity}}$$

$$\text{Setup cost} = S$$

$$\text{Inventory Cost} = \text{Requirement qty} \times \text{weeks in Inventory} \times \text{Cost of part} \times \text{Inventory carrying cost.}$$

Assuming that the first requirement is used as soon as it is received, the weeks in inventory would be zero. Then

$0R_1IC$ = cost of inventory for the first requirement

$1R_2IC$ = cost of inventory for the second requirement

$(n-1)R_nIC$ = cost of inventory for the n^{th} requirement

$nR_{n+1}IC$ = cost of inventory for the $n+1$ requirement

The total cost of inventory would be

$$0R_1IC + 1R_2IC + 2R_3IC + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1}IC + (n-1)R_nIC$$

or

$$[0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n]IC$$

$$\text{let } R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n$$

Quantity is the sum of the requirements,

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_{n-1} + R_n$$

$$\text{Thus unit cost at } n = \frac{S + R_TIC}{R_T}$$

$$\text{Unit cost at } n+1 = \frac{S + R_TIC + nR_{n+1}IC}{R_T + R_{n+1}}$$

Order R_{n+1} if unit cost is less than at R_n

Order R_{n+1} if

$$\frac{S + R_TIC + nR_{n+1}IC}{R_T + R_{n+1}} < \frac{S + R_TIC}{R_T}$$

This simplifies to

$$nR_TIC < S + R_TIC$$

$$nR_TIC - R_TIC < S$$

$$nR_T - R_T < \frac{S}{IC}$$

Substituting for R_T

$$nR_T = n(R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_{n-1} + R_n)$$

$$nR_T = nR_1 + nR_2 + nR_3 + \dots + nR_{n-1} + nR_n$$

$$R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n$$

$$nR_T - R_T = nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{IC}$$

Order R_{n+1} if

$$nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{IC}$$

2. Least Total Cost

This balances the cost of inventory with cost of setup.

Cost of Inv. = Cost of setup

$$R_TIC = S$$

$$R_T = \frac{S}{IC}$$

$$R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n = \frac{S}{IC}$$

About the author --

THOMAS CORHAM is Production and Inventory Control Specialist on the corporate systems staff of Outboard Marine Corporation. He has been working in the area of computer applications for approximately ten years. Prior to that he worked in many areas of production planning and control as well as related fields such as methods engineering and tool making. He attended Harvard University and is a member of the Milwaukee Chapter of APICS.

NET CHANGE MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING •

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In the summer of 1971, APICS published a special report entitled **MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING BY COMPUTER**. This publication, which is based on the proceedings of a workshop attended by people from a number of companies that use Material Requirements Planning, contains the following statement:

"The more experienced companies at this workshop used a Net Change system and felt strongly that Net Change was the only way to go . . ."

I completely agree with this conclusion. My view may be a bit biased, because I had a hand in the design and implementation, in 1961, of the prototype system of which the referenced systems are an outgrowth.

The Significance of Net Change

The knowledge of the principles and techniques of Net Change Material Requirements Planning has thus far resided mostly with actual users, as very little has been written or publicly expounded on the subject. To make the information more widely available is why I have selected this topic for my 1971 APICS Conference presentation.

The production and inventory control professional should know that there is more than one approach to Material Requirements Planning, and should understand the advantages and drawbacks of Net Change. He must know when and where the Net Change approach should be considered, because he may be called upon to decide and make the choice at the time his company commits itself to implement a Material Requirements Planning system. He should also understand under what circumstances it becomes desirable to switch from a conventional, regenerative Material Requirements Planning system to a Net Change system.

The Question of Replanning Frequency

I recall a meeting, in January, 1961, at the large tractor works of the J. I. Case Company in Racine, Wisconsin. That day, I joined several people with whom I was then associated at Case to work out the basic specs for a new Material Requirements Planning system that was to be implemented on the

company's first computer.

Among other features of the proposed system, we needed to specify the frequency of the requirements explosion, trying to decide between a monthly, semi-monthly, or weekly cycle. In the dynamic environment of tractor manufacture, a high frequency of replanning was obviously desirable, but the trade-off lay in the scope of the requirements explosion job and the volume of printed output generated during each cycle. The problem boiled down to the question: "How often is it *practical* to re-explode and replan requirements?"

To arrive at the answer, we posed a somewhat different question: "How often would a system *ideal* for our business re-explode and replan requirements?" After some debate, the consensus of the group was that ideally, replanning should be taking place continuously, i.e., should be entirely non-cyclical.

An Alternative to Schedule Regeneration

It was not clear, at first, how this could be achieved with Material Requirements Planning, as the conventional, and traditional, approach to the job is based on so-called schedule regeneration and on sequential processing techniques. Regeneration is a batch processing method which, by definition, must be tied to some *periodic* frequency.

Further study and analysis revealed, however, that a non-periodic, non-batch Material Requirements Planning system could, in fact, be implemented, provided the computer had random-access file storage. In 1961, some IBM computer models were already being offered with disk storage as an alternative to magnetic tape storage.

With the capability of random access to file records, sequential processing was no longer mandatory (though, of course, still possible). This meant that periodic batch data processing methods, heretofore dictated by the economics of sequential processing, could be abandoned for applications where they had been a drawback.

If a Material Requirements Planning system were designed accordingly, the processing of the pertinent data could proceed in a continuous mode, in contrast to some arbitrary frequency of a re-planning cycle. All inventory records, *including requirements planning data*, could be kept up to date (up to the minute) at all times.

The group at J. I. Case proceeded to design such a system from scratch. It was called Net Change and became operational in 1962. The original Case system is the predecessor, and has served as the prototype for the design of Net Change Material Requirements Planning systems since implemented by several other manufacturing companies.

*This article is based on the author's speech at the 14th International Conference of APICS, November 1, 1971, St. Louis, Missouri.

The Regenerative Method

The best way to bring out the salient characteristics of Net Change Material Requirements Planning is by using its conventional counterpart as a point of departure. The regular, prevalent approach to Material Requirements Planning is based on *schedule regeneration*. Under this approach, the entire master production schedule, which constitutes the prime input to a Material Requirements Planning system, is "exploded", or broken down, into detailed requirements for every individual item and existing inventories (on hand plus on order) are, in effect, reallocated in a level-by-level process.

Under the regenerative approach

1. Every end item requirement stated on the master production schedule must be exploded
2. Every (active) bill of material must be retrieved
3. Every (active) inventory item record must be recalculated
4. Voluminous output is generated

Schedule regeneration is always a big job, even on a big computer. Inherent to the regenerative approach is the task of massive data handling which

1. Entails a delay in obtaining the results of the requirements planning run
2. Dictates that the job be done periodically, i.e., at economically reasonable intervals

This causes the system to be out of date, in some degree, *at all times*.

How important these disadvantages are in a given case depends on both the *environment* in which the system must operate, and the *uses* to which it is being put. Let's look at these one at a time.

In a dynamic, or volatile, environment the situation is in a continuous state of change. There are frequent changes in the master production schedule. Customer demand fluctuates and orders are being changed, perhaps day by day. Interplant orders arrive erratically. There are rush service part orders. There is scrap. There is a constant stream of engineering changes. All of this means that requirements for individual inventory items, and their timing, are subject to rapid change.

In a volatile environment of this kind there is a strong need for timeliness of response to change, but a regenerative Material Requirements Planning system can replan only periodically -- at best, probably once a week. Its reflexes are relatively sluggish, because it is not really geared to the rhythm of the operation it is intended to support.

A Question of Use

In a more stable environment, a regenerative Material Requirements Planning system may function satisfactorily, as far as *material requirements* are concerned. But Material Requirements Planning is more than just an

inventory system. If it is to be put to its full and proper use, it actually functions on three distinct levels:

1. Planning and controlling inventories
2. Providing the basis (through its "planned order" schedules) for planning capacities
3. Maintaining priorities of open shop orders (and purchase orders) up to date and valid

The shop priority control function represents a vitally important capability of a time-phased Material Requirements Planning system. Oliver Wight has repeatedly been stressing this point in his recent writings and talks. At present, this is still ill-understood and consequently little used. Every Material Requirements Planning system has an inherent, built-in capability to re-evaluate and revise all open order due dates. It is these due dates that form the basis of any sound method of establishing relative priorities of shop orders, and of operation sequencing.

If these priorities are to be kept valid, however, the shop order due dates on which they are based must obviously be maintained up to date. If we want shop priorities valid at all times we must have order due dates that are up to date at all times.

A Material Requirements Planning system that replans in infrequent cycles can obviously do no better than to generate order due dates that are *only periodically up to date*. Unless the environment is exceptionally stable, it is hard to see how shop priorities can be kept constantly valid by such a system. But that is just the point. If the formal system cannot do the job, the informal system must, and will, take over.

The informal system of assembly shortage lists and "hot order" expediting can exist side by side with an apparently sophisticated computer system. The informal system is, of course, devised by operating people to *overcome the deficiencies* of the formal system. Shop order due dates need to be revised on short notice, so the expeditors revise them then and there, as required. It is fortunate that they do, because the business could not afford to wait for the next computer run, days or perhaps weeks away.

Specs for a Material Requirements Planning System

With Material Requirements Planning, the frequency of replanning is a critical variable in the use of the system. It is also a critical parameter in the *design* of the system, because the regenerative approach makes it impractical to replan at a frequency higher than about once per week.

When the specs for a Material Requirements Planning system are being defined, the frequency of replanning should be specified by the user, i.e., by a manufacturing executive or by the Production Control Manager. This frequency should be geared to the particular environment in which the Material

requirements Planning system is to operate, and to the uses that are to be made of it, as we discussed.

In deciding on the required frequency of replanning, the user should be free of constraints and should be able to specify the frequency that the business calls for -- including a daily cycle, or even *continuous* replanning. To settle for less than what is really needed will ensure, right at the outset, that the proposed Material Requirements Planning system will have its effectiveness impaired.

To be able to replan material requirements at a high frequency, we must solve the problem of data processing economics, i.e., the scope of the replanning job, its duration, the volume of its output, and the delay inherent in any massive batch-processing run.

In other words, we need a non-regenerative approach to Material Requirements Planning. An approach that will minimize the number of inventory records and bills of material that must be accessed during the replanning process. An approach that will limit the volume of (automatically generated) output to notices of *currently* required action.

A Material Requirements Planning system designed on the Net Change concept is the answer here, as it solves every one of the just-mentioned problems.

Characteristics of a Net Change System

Such a system can be implemented for either of two modes of use:

1. High frequency replanning (on, typically, a *daily batch* basis)
2. *Continuous*, or on-line, replanning (a "transaction-driven" system)

Prevailing current practice, in companies that have implemented a Net Change Material Requirements Planning system, is daily batch for transaction processing, with continuous on-line inquiry into the part No. file.

Aside from current practice, however, it should be noted that the system's design allows it to become transaction-driven whenever the user deems this mode desirable. On-line transaction entry is a matter of terminal and software arrangements external to the system itself. The system is *independent* of these. The system, in any case, is up to date as of the last transaction processed. It can be the more up to date the less delay there is in bringing transactions to it.

The *logic* of planning and time-phasing material requirements is essentially the same for both conventional and Net Change systems, except for --

1. The treatment of the master production schedule
2. A *partial explosion* of requirements

The Net Change Concept

Under the Net Change approach,

1. The master production schedule is viewed as *one plan in continuous*

existence, rather than as successive versions or issues of the plan

2. The master production schedule can be updated (as a result of an authorized change) *at any time*, by adding or subtracting the net difference from its previous status
3. Periodic issues of a new schedule are treated the same way, in effect as a special case of updating for change

The idea may become clearer if the schedule is envisioned to resemble a Chinese scroll which is continually being unwound, analogous to passage of time. The contents of each "bucket" in the master production schedule grid is either zero or some positive value. In concept, the schedule extends indefinitely into the future, all buckets beyond the planning horizon having zero contents. Passage of time brings segments of the future within the planning horizon, at which time their contents are normally changed (via the issue of a new schedule) from zero to some positive value.

Because the master production schedule is updated or changed (the two are equivalent under the Net Change concept) by means of addition or subtraction of the net difference relative to its previous status, the task of replanning is minimized.*

Thus if a 6-month schedule looked in March as in Fig. 1, and in April as in Fig. 2, the difference from previous status would net out as shown in Fig. 3.

This is the *net change* that would be processed (exploded) by the Material Requirements Planning system on whatever day the new schedule is approved. In our example, out of a total of 18 master production schedule "buckets" within the planning horizon, 15 remain unaffected. It should also be noted that the schedule for product B continues unchanged. In this case, the data processing job on a Net Change basis would be only a fraction of the job that a conventional Material Requirements Planning system would have to perform. This is so because under the schedule-regeneration approach, the contents of all 18 "buckets" would be input to the Material Requirements Planning system, and all inventory records as well as bills of material related to products A, B, and C would have to be accessed and processed.

It is important to point out also that if, in our example, the need to reduce the August quantity of product A had been recognized at some time in March, it could have been processed by a Net Change system at that time, without waiting for the next (April) issue of the schedule. In that case, the net impact of the April schedule, as far as product A is concerned, would be limited to the addition of 40 for September.

* This treatment of the master production schedule was pioneered by American Bosch of Springfield, Mass. in a bi-weekly batch Material Requirements Planning system implemented in 1959.

← PLANNING HORIZON →						
PRODUCT	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG
A	80	70	30	0	0	50
B	100	60	80	100	60	60
C	15	0	10	15	0	10

Figure 1

PRODUCT	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	SEP
A	70	30	0	0	35	40
B	60	80	100	60	60	0
C	0	10	15	0	10	15

Figure 2

PRODUCT	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	SEP
A					-15	+40
B						
C						+15

Figure 3

Partial Explosion

With a conventional Material Requirements Planning system, *all* requirements are exploded in one batch processing run, as the master production schedule is periodically being "regenerated". During this run, the net requirements for each inventory item are being recalculated and its "planned order" schedule is recreated. The entire process is carried out in level-by-level fashion, starting with the highest (end item) product level and progressing down to the lowest (purchased material) level. All items on a given level are processed before the next lower level is addressed.

With a Net Change Material Requirements Planning system, only a *partial explosion* is carried out. Only those inventory records that are actually affected by a given net change are reprocessed, and only those bills of material that are pertinent to these records are retrieved.

The partial explosion is the key to the practicability of the Net Change concept, as it minimizes the scope of the Material Requirements Planning job at any one time, and thus permits a high frequency of replanning. Because the explosion is only partial, it automatically limits the volume of the

resulting printed output. This, of course, is also an important consideration.

Continuous Net Change

Partial explosion is a characteristic of any Net Change Material Requirements Planning implementation, whether the system is operated in a daily batch mode or in a *continuous* mode. A partial explosion is triggered not just by changes to the master production schedule but also by certain inventory transactions, such as scrap or physical inventory adjustment entries. In fact, any transaction that alters the "planned order" schedule of an item in any way, causes an explosion to (revision of requirements for) its component lower-level items.

A continuous, non-cyclical Net Change Material Requirements Planning system, such as the original J. I. Case system mentioned earlier, has additional special characteristics. The updating process triggered by a given transaction is completely carried out before the next transaction is processed. This means that in those cases where a change in status of one inventory item affects other, lower level items, all of the respective records (perhaps on several successive levels) will be updated as a result of a single transaction entry.

Thus the individual partial explosions take place as part of the transaction updating process which goes on in a continuous fashion. In contrast with a batch-oriented system, where the explosion proceeds in *horizontal* stages (level by level), in a continuous Net Change system the intermittent explosions progress, as it were, *vertically* down the product structure.

Any transaction on any inventory item is fully processed at the time it is presented to the system. This means that transactions may be entered in *random sequence* at *random times*.

Net Change Outputs

As mentioned earlier, the volume of automatically generated output (as distinct from output generated in response to inquiry) under Net Change is in any case limited to only those items affected by a partial explosion. This can be further restricted by suppressing output related to items that require no *current* action.

This is really the only practical way to handle outputs with continuous Net Change Material Requirements Planning. Automatic outputs are generally limited to situations calling for immediate action, such as placing, canceling, or rescheduling an order. Only information for imminent action is being displayed or printed out. Information for action *planned* for the future (tomorrow, next week) is being withheld from the user until it matures and actually needs to be acted on.

Advantages of Net Change

A Net Change Material Requirements Planning system is superior to its conventional counterpart, in several respects. The Net Change approach enables the system to

1. Minimize the requirements planning (explosion) job at schedule release time
2. Process schedule changes occurring between release cycles
3. Be independent of the *timing* of both releases and changes
4. Be continually up to date
5. Generate non-delay outputs (thus communicating the need for inventory management action at the earliest time possible)

From the user's point of view, the essential characteristic of a Net Change system is its *reactiveness*, its unique capability of timely response to change.

"Drawbacks" of Net Change Systems

Negative aspects of Net Change Material Requirements Planning, and the usual targets of skepticism can be categorized as follows:

1. The relative processing inefficiency of Net Change
2. The "nervousness" of the system
3. Reduced self-purging capability, and the consequent need for stricter external disciplines

Let me briefly deal with each of these. It is a fact that from the data processing point of view, Net Change is less efficient, and therefore more costly, primarily due to its characteristic of multiple access to inventory records, in both the straight transaction update and explosion modes.

But this cannot be considered a valid argument against Net Change. Any data processing method that does not utilize sequential processing techniques is, by definition, relatively inefficient.

In Net Change Material Requirements Planning, the emphasis is on *requirements planning efficiency*, and *data processing efficiency* is deliberately sacrificed to this end. In the development of Material Requirements Planning systems, like in many other business computer applications, there is a trade-off between data processing efficiency and the efficiency of the business function the system is intended to support. In these cases, data processing efficiency should never be a primary objective, but should be subordinated to the larger goal of improving the effectiveness of the *business*.

The second type of criticism refers to the "nervousness" of a Net Change system. Since the system is continuously updating itself, it is also continuously replanning, and thus revising, order action. This might appear as causing a stream of constant revisions of open orders, both in the shop and those previously placed with outside suppliers. That need not be so, however,

and in practice it does not happen.

This type of criticism neglects to draw a distinction between

1. The system being informed, up to the minute
2. The frequency of action taken on the basis of the information

The latter can obviously be decided on (based on practical considerations), independently of the former. A deliberate withholding of user action in the full knowledge of current facts is preferable to a lack of action caused by ignorance of these facts.

The "nervousness" on the level of *planning* is a virtue, not a drawback, of a Net Change Material Requirements Planning system. The "nervousness" on the level of *reaction* can, and should, be dampened. Let me discuss the timing of action separately, in more detail, a little later on. Not every change in inventory status calls for reaction, anyway.

Many minor changes of the type that would otherwise require action are absorbed by inventory surpluses that exist as a result of previous inventory management decisions. These surpluses are created by safety stock, safety lead time, and temporary excesses in inventory due to lot sizing, engineering changes, reduced requirements, forecast error, overshipments, overruns, and premature deliveries by suppliers.

The system constantly strives to use up such temporarily excessive inventories as early as possible, through the net requirements planning process. Inventory excesses are thus automatically prevented from accumulating, but under normal conditions they exist, in some measure, at any point in time.

Besides relying on normal inventory surpluses to absorb minor changes, "dampers" on such changes can, if desired, be programmed into the system. The user can specify limits within which changes in both timing and order quantity cannot be made by the system. If such change-dampening rules are made to apply to "planned orders" as well as to open orders, many partial explosions of trivial nature will be suppressed, precluding further changes in lower-level component records.

The critic of a "nervous" system argues, in effect, that it is better for an inventory management system to be out of date. Such an argument is simply unacceptable. Keeping the system intentionally ignorant of current facts, to whatever degree and for whatever length of time, can never be an advantage.

The third type of criticism relates to a need for increased discipline under a Net Change Material Requirements Planning system. From the practical point of view, it must be conceded that this is indeed a disadvantage.

With the conventional regenerative system, the old plan is literally thrown away every time a new version of the master production schedule is authorized. The job of exploding and planning requirements then proceeds from scratch. This has the advantage of throwing away old errors, plus data

hat became invalid due to change, along with the old plan.

The opposite is true, of course, with the Net Change approach. The old plan is retained and merely modified, updated. Old errors never fade away, and changes in the bill of material, in lead times, and in other parameters of the system must be methodically incorporated, as they occur. Furthermore, the planned (forecast) requirement data at the highest assembly level that is reflected in the system must be conscientiously *reconciled* with actual past requirements. Otherwise the discrepancies between "planned" and "actual" are carried forward and their cumulative effect will gradually render the system ineffective.

Net Change Material Requirements Planning is a *continuous* system that must be *continuously* maintained. It presupposes that high data integrity can be sustained, in both transaction entries and file records. Companies that use Net Change Material Requirements Planning maintain a stand-by program for requirements regeneration, to be substituted for the Net Change program if and when the system's records accumulate too many errors. The stand-by program is then run once, to purge the system by regenerating all requirements and "planned orders". In actual practice, operational Net Change systems are being thus purged once or twice per year.

Of the three "drawbacks" of Net Change Material Requirements Planning, the first two prove to be nonexistent upon closer examination. The third one constitutes the only objection that has any validity at all.

A company that is unable to impose, and maintain, the required degree of procedural discipline will not be happy with a Net Change Material Requirements Planning system. For such a system to function with full success requires, to quote George Plossl*, "a management policy intolerant of errors. A zero-defects approach is necessary . . . a climate of accuracy". Unless and until management creates such a climate, the system simply cannot properly function.

The Timing of Action Under Net Change

Prompt reaction to changes in requirements or coverage is generally called for when requirements *increase*, or when the timing of planned performance *advances*. For the opposite type of change, a delay or lack of reaction can be tolerated. Changes can occur every minute of the day as a result of updating inventory, order, and requirements data. Stock status is not significantly affected by most of the updating transactions -- for example, a planned component issue against a previously released order, or a stock receipt. Stock status re-evaluation is, however, called for by some transactions, such as:

1. Unscheduled stock issues
2. Scrap
3. Physical inventory adjustments (short counts)
4. Miscellaneous demand exceeding forecast
5. Entry of an engineering change

Many changes may occur in the same inventory record on the same day, in which case orders would have to be replanned several times that day, even though the changes may have a mutually canceling effect.

The user's reaction to change can be *de-coupled* from the rate at which individual changes occur and are processed by the system. The most common method of dampening reaction to change is simply to *delay* such reaction. In practice, this takes the form of periodic action cycles on the part of the inventory planner. He does not react to the continuous stream of individual changes, but lets them accumulate for a period of, say, one day or longer.

The computer can be programmed to provide output of action requests on a cyclical basis. Some of these action messages would typically be generated, in a batch, once a day. Most requests for normal order action (release of shop orders and purchase requisitions) belong in this category.

Different action cycles apply to various types of action, depending on its *purpose*. Thus due dates for all open shop orders may be reevaluated once per shift, so as to maintain the validity of shop priorities. For certain types of messages (premature supplier deliveries, for example), a weekly cycle would be sufficient.

Other types of messages, however, should be generated without *any* delay, because corrective action time is critical. For example, an open purchase order may become a candidate for cancellation, as a result of changed requirements. A 24-hour delay in reacting to the new situation can make the difference between being or not being able to cancel. Other examples of situations that call for reaction without delay are excessive scrap, requirements falling into the past caused by a change in the status of a higher-level inventory item, a significant downward adjustment of inventory following a physical count, etc.

When major changes in the master production schedule are being processed, or following regular periodic issues of the schedule, all action-request output should be suppressed until the entire net change has been completely processed by the system. That type of change may affect thousands of records, and the status of an inventory item may change several times during the processing of such a change.

It should be kept in mind that planning cycles and action cycles are established on a more or less arbitrary basis. Delaying action on available information does dampen reaction to change, but delay obviously cannot be prolonged indefinitely. Under any action cycle, once delay is terminated,

*Designing and Implementing a Material Requirements Planning System. APICS International Conference, Cincinnati, 10/8/70.

subsequent changes can still invalidate the action taken. As a general rule, it is better to act with less delay under a system capable of frequent -- or continuous -- replanning, reevaluation and revision of previous action, than to tolerate unresponsiveness by operating on long planning and action cycles.

Net Change Material Requirements Planning offers a range of responses, from zero-delay to weekly and monthly cycles. The relative promptness of reaction to change should be a function of the type of change in question.

The Future of Net Change

In my opinion, the future belongs to Net Change Material Requirements Planning. Earlier, I pointed out its several advantages and its superiority over conventional, regenerative Material Requirements Planning. Superiority on the practical level of use is what counts, of course.

On the technical level, the continuous variety of Net Change Material Requirements Planning represents an advanced systems approach in that the logic of the application anticipates, and is compatible with, the trend in information processing technology. This type of Net Change system can be implemented in any one of several degrees of sophistication in input/output flow arrangements. The system's central architecture remains unaffected by any of these (external) arrangements, and by the technology of input/output devices used.

Continuous Net Change Material Requirements Planning can be implemented as a strictly card-oriented system, such as the prototype Case system was, with manual data collection, and output limited to cards and printout. Today's Net Change systems are typically supported by card-output data collection, and may have visual display units on-line, in addition to printers.

The system can be operated in any of these ways, and in others. It is ready to be operated as a communications-oriented, on-line, real-time system of the future. It is ready, whenever that future arrives. The Net Change Material Requirements Planning system itself will require no change -- it is *already there*.

Historical Note

In 1961, at the J. I. Case Company tractor plant in Racine, Wisconsin, a project group under my direction designed and installed the first *continuous* Net Change Material Requirements Planning system. The original system was implemented on an IBM 305 RAMAC with 15 million characters of disk file capacity. This prototype version of a Net Change system was relatively crude. Inventory records of 500 character positions corresponded to one RAMAC disk track sector. Each such record contained three 1-week "buckets" plus seven 4-week "buckets." There were only two types of output: an action ticket which included the image of the entire record (generated automatically, or in response to inquiry, at random times) and a weekly control report. The system covered about 20,000 active part No's., including 4,000 assemblies with up to seven assembly levels. As IBM had no programming support for a material requirements planning application at that time, the J. I. Case programmer team had to write their own equivalent of the Bill of Material Processor, in addition to the application programs.

The development and programming took ten months following a two-month feasibility study. The project team expended approximately six man-years in the development/programming phase. This is exclusive of system-related work performed by user personnel.

The prototype system was implemented on a stand-alone basis, with the computer fully dedicated to the Net Change Requirements Planning application. The system was subsequently implemented on an IBM 1410 with a 1001 disk file, and eventually converted to an IBM System/360 Model 50.

My closest collaborators on the project are listed here in alphabetical order: A. R. Brani (Case), J. A. Chobanian (Case), H. D. Jones (Case), T. L. Musial (IBM), E. F. Roessler (Case). Company affiliations are as of that time. I held overall responsibility for the system, in my capacity, at that time, of Director of Production Control for the J. I. Case Company.

This article reprinted from Production and Inventory Management, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 1st Quarter 1972 pp. 1-14.

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STRUCTURING THE BILL OF MATERIAL FOR MRP

Joseph A. Orlicky
George W. Plossl
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INTRODUCTION

An important distinction between Order Point systems and Material Requirements Planning systems lies in the fact that the order point/order quantity approach is *part based* whereas MRP is *product-oriented*. Order Point views each inventory item independently of all the others, whereas MRP looks at the product and the relationships of its components, using bills of material as the basis for planning.

MRP puts the bill of material to a whole new use. Under MRP, the bill acquires a new function, in addition to serving as part of the product specs. It becomes a framework on which the whole planning system hangs.

Often, however, the bill of material furnished by the engineering department is not necessarily *usable* for material requirements planning. As a key input to an MRP system, the bill of material must be accurate and up to date if MRP outputs are to be valid. But in addition it must be unambiguous and so structured as to *lend* itself to MRP. The mere existence of a bill of material is no guarantee that MRP will actually work.

To understand the reason for this, we must remember that the bill of material is basically an engineering document. Historically, the function of the bill of material has been to define the product from the design point of view and from the design point of view only. But now, because we want to use the bill of material for purposes of material planning, we must re-define the product from the manufacturing and planning point of view. Proper product definition is crucial to a planning system such as MRP, which directly depends on it—*unlike* an order point system.

People usually think of bills of material, and of MRP as being applicable only in hard goods manufacturing. But businesses that *mix* component materials, *sew* them together, *package* them, etc., can also use material requirements planning to advantage. Companies in the garment industry, pharmaceutical houses, batch chemical manufacturers, and others, all have bills of material except they call them by different names—material lists, formulations, specifications, etc.

With MRP, the prime input to the whole system is the master production schedule. The product must be defined in such a way as to make it possible to put a valid master schedule together in terms of bill of material numbers; i.e.,

assembly numbers. If the overall plan of production—and that is what the master schedule is—cannot be stated in terms of bills of material, it is not possible to do material requirements planning successfully.

The master schedule and the structure of the bill of material must be thought of together, when an MRP system is being developed. The bills of material and the master schedule must *fit together* like lock and key. If these are not compatible, nothing turns. Neither is there any guarantee that an MRP system can function properly just because the bill may already have been organized and loaded onto a computer file under a *Bill of Material Processor* program. This type of software will load practically anything onto a disc file, including straight engineering parts lists—which are not much good for purposes of material requirements planning. The functions of a bill processor are merely to organize, maintain, and retrieve bill of material data. A Bill of Material Processor is not designed to *structure* the bill. It assumes that the bill is already properly structured to serve the user's needs.

The intent of the discussion that follows is to clarify the subject of bill of material *structuring*, so that it will not be confused with bill of material *file organization* under a bill processor.

In most instances, companies planning to implement MRP will be wise to review their bills of material, to determine whether certain changes in the structure of this file data may have to be made, and of what kind. In reviewing the bill for this purpose, the following seven-point checklist will help in spotting its structural deficiencies:

1. *The bill should lend itself to the forecasting of optional product features.* This capability is essential for purposes of material requirements planning.
2. *The bill should permit the master schedule to be stated in the fewest possible number of end items.* These end items will be products or major assemblies, as the case may be, but in either case they must be stated in terms of bill of material numbers.
3. *The bill should lend itself to the planning of subassembly priorities.* Orders for subassemblies have to be released at the right time, and with valid due dates.
4. *The bill should permit easy order entry.* It should be possible to take a customer order that describes the product either in terms of a model number, or as a configuration of optional features, and translate it into the language that the MRP system understands: bill of material numbers.
5. *The bill should be usable for purposes of final assembly scheduling.* Apart from MRP, the final assembly scheduling system needs to know, specifically, which assemblies (assembly numbers) are required to build individual units of the end product.
6. *The bill should provide the basis for product costing.*

7. The bill should lend itself to efficient computer file storage and file maintenance.

When, in a given case, these yardsticks are applied to the existing bill of material, it will usually be found that some, but not all, of the above requirements can be satisfied. If that is the case, changes in bill of material structure are called for. This can and should be done. While the bill still must serve its primary purpose of providing product specifications, it should not be regarded as a sacrosanct document that must not be tampered with. The bill may have to be modified, or *restructured*, as required for purposes of material requirements planning. This can be done without affecting the integrity of the specs.

The severity of the bill of material structure problem varies from company to company, depending on the complexity of product and nature of the business. The term "bill of material structuring" covers a variety of *types* of changes to the bill, and several different techniques for effecting these changes.

The topics that make up the subject of bill of material structuring, as reviewed in this article, can be categorized as follows:

1. *Assignment of identities*
 - (a) Elimination of ambiguity
 - (b) Levels of manufacture
2. *Modular bill of material*
 - (a) Disentangling product option combinations
 - (b) Segregating common from unique parts.
3. *Pseudo-bills of material*

IDENTIFICATION OF MATERIALS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS

There are several principles involved here. First, the requirement that each individual item of inventory covered by the MRP system be uniquely identified. This includes raw materials and subassemblies.

The assignment of subassembly identities tends to be somewhat arbitrary. Between the design engineer, the industrial engineer, the cost accountant and the inventory planner, each might prefer to assign them differently. The question is: When do unique subassembly numbers have to be assigned? In reality, it is not the design of the product but the way it is being manufactured; i.e., assembled, that dictates the assignment of subassembly identities.

The unit of work, or task, is the key here. If a number of components are assembled at a bench and then are forwarded as a completed task, to storage or to another bench for further assembly, a subassembly number is required so that orders for these subassemblies can be generated and their priorities

planned. An MRP system will do this, but only for items with individual identities.

Some engineering departments are stingy in assigning new part numbers, and we often see the classic example of this in a raw casting that has the same part number as the finished casting. This may suit the engineer, but it is difficult to see how an automated inventory system such as MRP is supposed to distinguish between the two types of items that must be planned and controlled separately.

The second requirement is that an identifying number define the *contents* of the item uniquely, unambiguously. Thus the same subassembly number must not be used to define two or more different sets of components. This sometimes happens when the original design of a product subsequently becomes subject to variation. Instead of creating a new bill with its own unique identity, the old one is specified with instructions to substitute, remove, and add certain components. This shortcut method, called "add and delete," represents a vulnerable procedure, undesirable for MRP. We will come back to it in a later example.

The third requirement is that the bill of material should reflect the way material flows in and out of stock. "Stock" here does not necessarily mean "stockroom" but rather a *state of completion*. Thus when a piece part is finished or a subassembly is completed, it is considered to be "on hand"; i.e., in stock, until withdrawn and associated with an order for a higher level item as its component. An MRP system is constructed in such a way that it assumes that each inventory item flows into and out of stock at its respective level in the product structure, MRP also assumes that the bill of material accurately reflects this flow.

Thus the bill of material is expected to specify not only the *composition* of a product but also the *process stages* in that product's manufacture. The bill must define the product structure, in terms of so-called *levels of manufacture*, each of which represents the completion of a step in the buildup of the product.

A schematic representation of product structure is shown in Figure 1. The structure defines the relationship among the various items that make up the product in terms of levels, as well as the parent item/component item relationships. These things are vital for material requirements planning because they establish, in conjunction with lead times, the precise *timing* of requirements, order releases, and order priorities.

The product represented by Figure 1 has four levels of manufacture. The end product is designated, by convention, as being at level zero, its immediate components as being at level one, etc. The parent/component relationships depicted in the example indicate that "A" is the parent of component "C" (also of "B" and "1"). Item "C," in turn, is the parent of component "3," etc. Thus "A" is the only item that is not also a component.

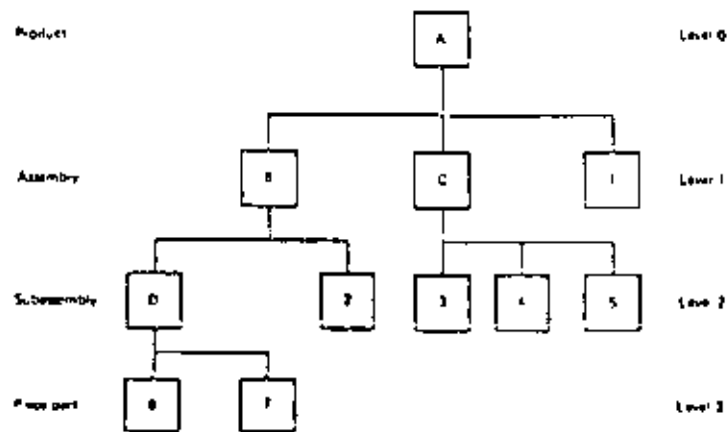


Figure 1.

Items "B," "C" and "D" are both parents (of their components at the next lower level!) and components (of their parent items at the next higher level). Items "1" through "7" are components but never parents.

This would be true if all of the piece parts were purchased. If item "6," however, is manufactured from raw material "X," then it becomes a parent in relationship to this component material. Thus the distinction between parent item and component item appears not only in assembly but also in the conversion of material for a single part from one stage of manufacture to another.

This also applies to semi-finished items that are stocked (in the sense described earlier) and that are to be controlled by the MRP system. The raw material, the semi-finished item, and the finished item must be uniquely identified; i.e., must have different part numbers.

People are sometimes reluctant to assign different identities to semi-finished and finished items, where the conversion to the finished stage is of minor nature. A good example is a die casting that is machined and then painted one of four different colors, as shown in Figure 2. The four varieties of painted casting will have to be assigned separate identities if they are to be ordered, and their order priorities planned, by the MRP system.

This is an example of a situation where item identity (of the painted casting) would normally not exist, but would have to be established prerequisite to MRP, because otherwise such items would fall outside the scope of the system and loss of control would result.

Another example of an item identity problem that is almost the opposite is the transient subassembly, sometimes called a "blow-through" or "phantom." Assemblies of this type never see a stockroom, because they are immediately consumed in the assembly of their parent items. An example of this is a subassembly built on a feeder line that flows directly into the main assembly line. Here the subassembly normally carries a separate identity.

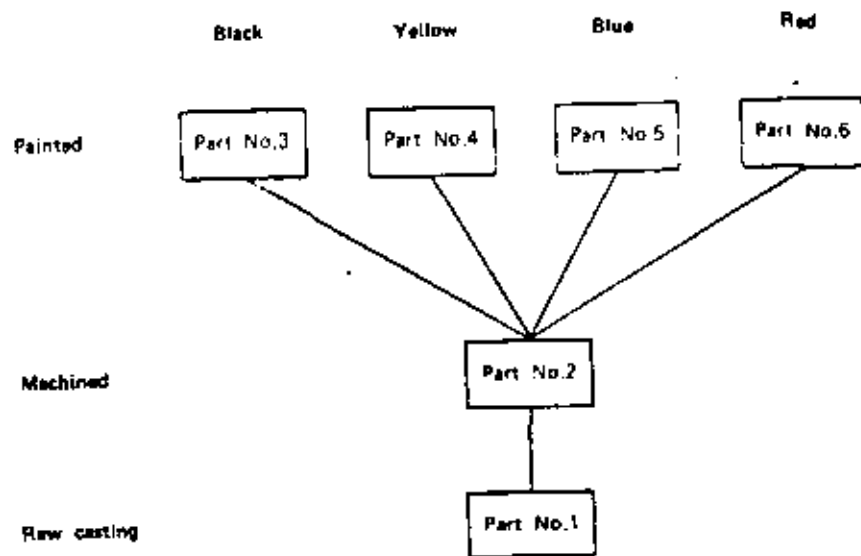


Figure 2.

Because it is recognized in the bill of material, the MRP system would treat it the same as any other subassembly.

This may be undesirable, because if this kind of item is to be planned under an MRP system, we must remember that the logic of MRP assumes that each component item goes in and out of stock. That is the way the basic time-phased record is designed and updated. So the question arises as to how to handle such subassemblies within an MRP system. MRP users have worked out techniques to deal with this situation. People often wonder whether this type of assembly should be identified in the bill at all. The phantom does not require separate identity in the bill of material, provided there is never

1. An over-run
2. A service part demand
3. A customer return.

Otherwise, it must be separately identified in the bill and item records (stock status) must be maintained. This is so because over-runs, service demand, and returns create a need to stock material, and to control it. But then the MRP user would have to report all transactions for the phantom subassemblies, so that the system can post these and keep the records up to date. This seems like unnecessary effort and paperwork in the case of order releases and order completions.

Fortunately, there is no need to do this. A technique called the "phantom bill" eliminates the need for posting such transactions for these items. (This technique is used, for instance, by the Black & Decker Manufacturing Company, a skilled MRP user.) Using this technique, it is possible to have

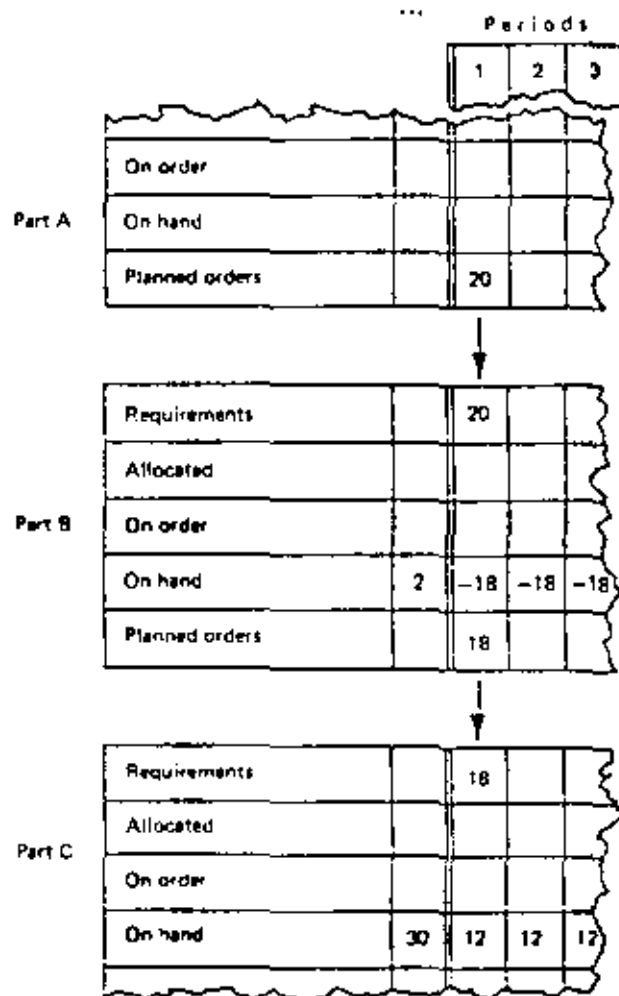


Figure 3.

your cake and eat it. While transactions of the type mentioned do not have to be reported and posted, the MRP system will pick up and use any phantom items that may happen to be on hand. Service part requirements can also be entered into the record and will be correctly handled by the system. But otherwise MRP will, in effect, bypass the phantom item's record and go from its parent item to its components directly.

To describe the application of this technique, let's assume that assembly "A" has a transient subassembly "B" as one of its components, and part "C" is a component of "B." Thus, for purposes of illustration, item "B," the phantom, is envisioned as being sandwiched between "A," its parent, and

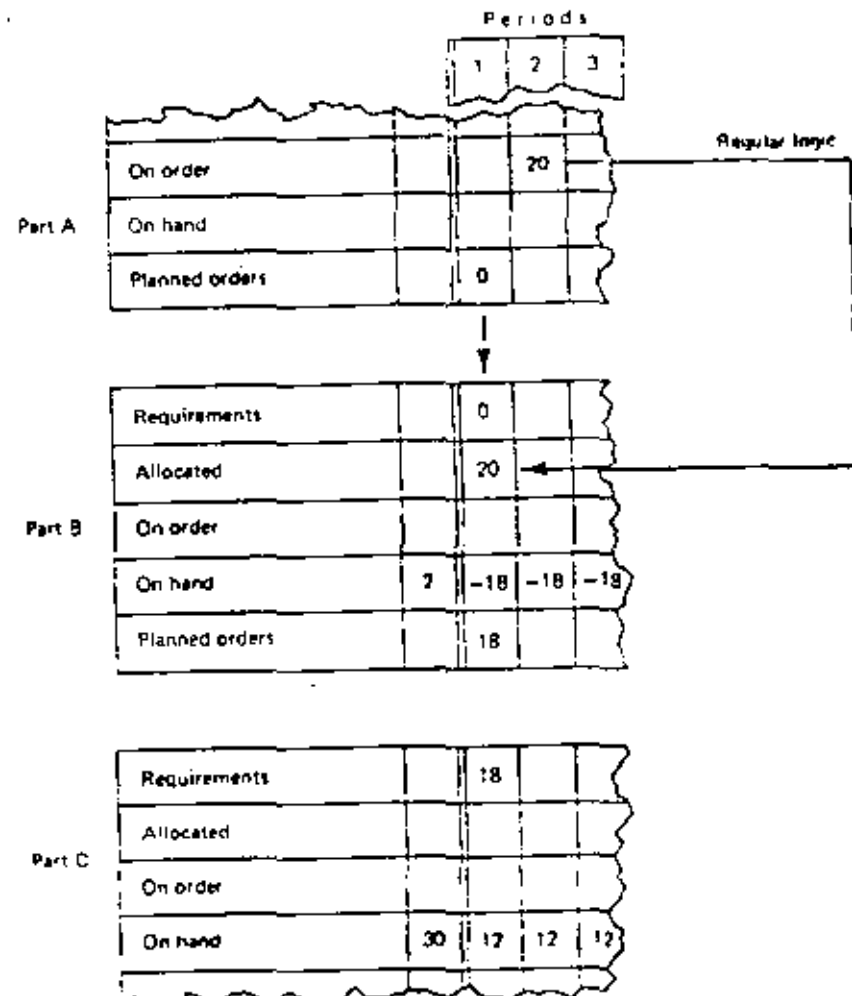


Figure 4.

"C," its component.

To implement this technique, the phantom item is treated as follows:

1. Lead time is specified as zero
2. Lot sizing is discrete (lot for lot)
3. The bill of material (for the item record) is coded, so that the system can recognize that it is a phantom and apply special treatment.

The special treatment referred to above means departing from regular procedure, or record update logic, when processing the phantom record. The difference between the procedures can best be described through examples.

In Figure 3, inventory status data for items "A" (top), "B" (middle), and

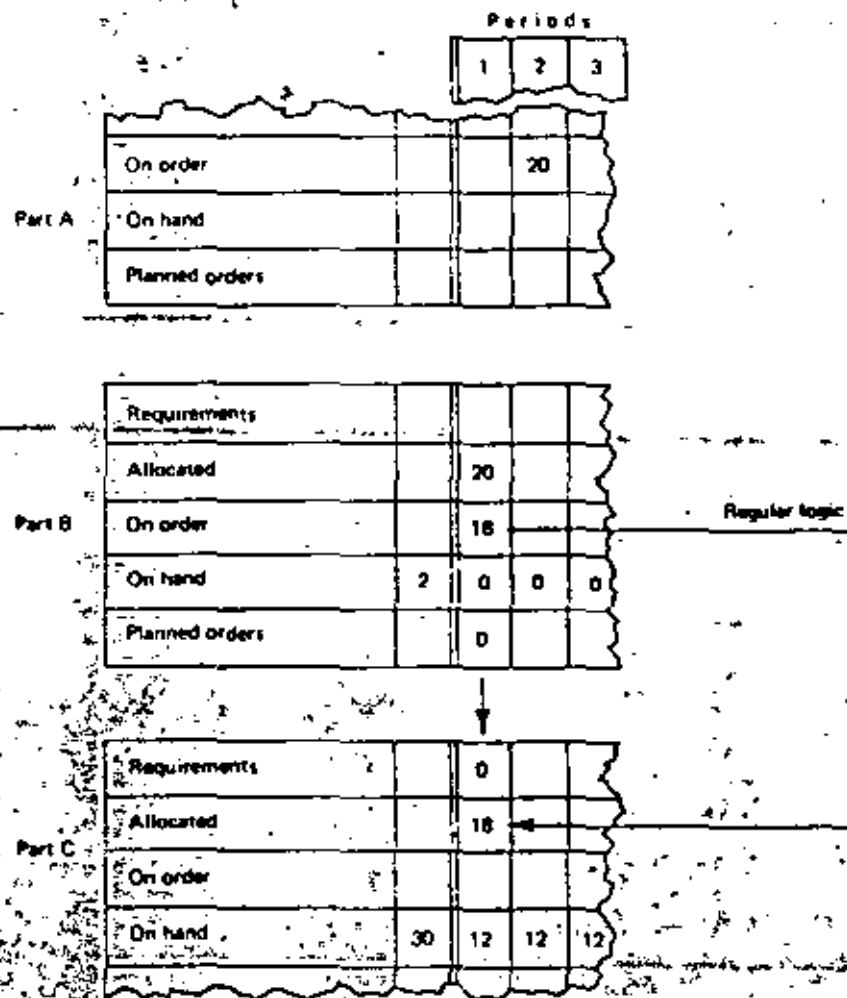


Figure 5.

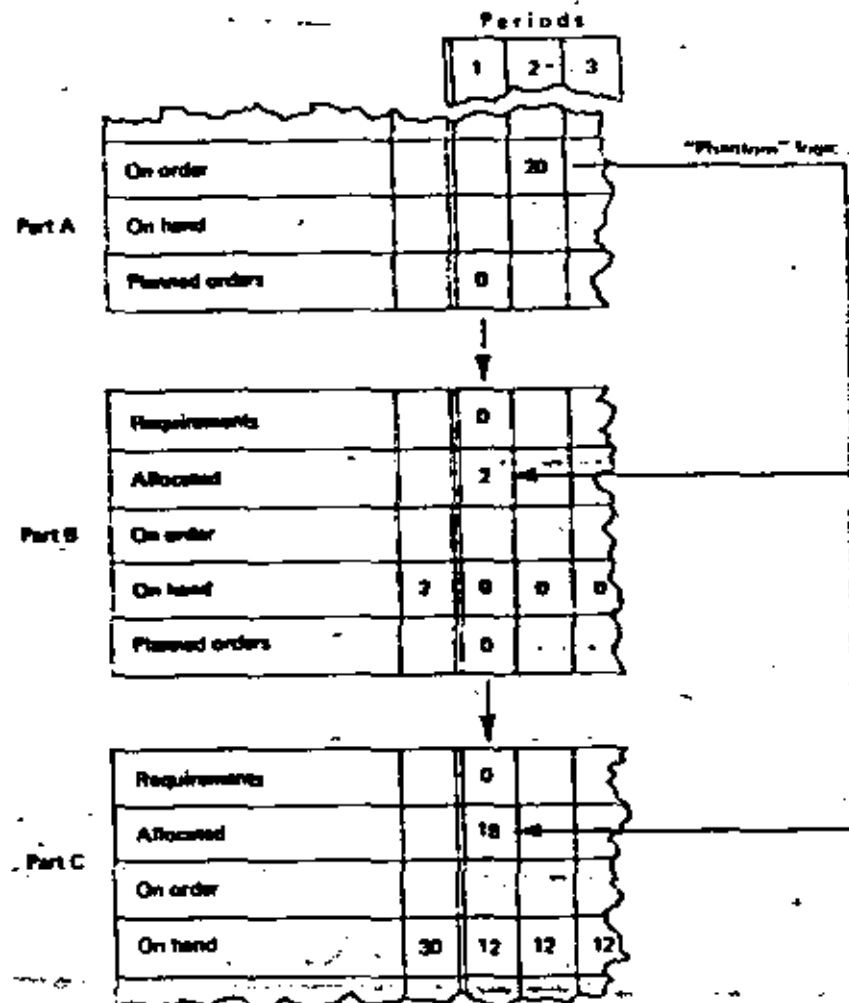


Figure 6.

"C" (bottom) are shown. Note that the zero lead time offset on the item in the middle places the planned order release for 18 pieces in the same period as the net requirement. This, in turn, corresponds to the requirement for 18 "C's" in the same period.

Following the release of the planned order for "A," the update procedure for item record "B" will vary, depending on whether it is coded as a phantom. In the absence of such a code, regular logic applies. The regularly updated records of "A" and "B" are shown in Figure 4. Record "C" continues unchanged. Following the release of the planned order for "B," item "C" is updated, as shown in Figure 5.

Had item "B" been coded as a phantom, all three records would have been updated in one step, as shown in Figure 6, as a result of the planned order release of item "A." Note that the release of planned order "A," which normally would reduce only the corresponding requirement "B" (as in Figure 4), in this case reduces also the requirement for "C," as though "C" were direct component of "A."

Note also that the two pieces of "B" in stock (perhaps a return from previous over-run) are applied to the requirement for "A," and that allocation has been distributed between "B" and "C." Upon close examination of these examples it will be seen that the phantom logic is nothing more

than a different treatment of *allocation*. (Zero lead time and discrete lot sizing are assumed. These can, however, be specified for non-phantom sub-assemblies also.) Once this step is carried out, regular logic applies, causing the records to be updated and their data aligned, in the correct manner.

The phantom bill technique, as described above, applies to MRP systems of the Net Change type. In conventional regenerative MRP systems the question of posting or not posting transactions to the phantom record is not crucial, because a planned order release does not update component requirements data. Hence, the problem of rebalancing or realigning the planned order and requirements data of the three records does not arise. Following the planned order release of the phantom's parent, the next regeneration will wash out both the requirement and the planned order release for the phantom item.

The objective of not having to post phantom transactions still remains, however, and it can be achieved by, again, setting lead time to zero, specifying discrete lot sizing, and coding the phantom item so that notices for planned order releases are either suppressed or flagged to be disregarded. The MRP system will function correctly.

The problem then becomes one of component requisitioning (for the phantom parent order) and it must be solved by modifying the requisition generating procedure. When some phantom items are on hand, two requisitions will have to be generated:

1. One for the quantity of the phantom on hand
2. One for the balance of the order; for the phantom's components.

In the Figure 6 example, these quantities are 2 and 18, respectively.

MODULAR BILLS OF MATERIAL

The term "bill of material structuring" is most commonly used in reference to modularizing the bill of material file. The process of modularizing consists of *breaking down* the bills of high-level items (products, end items) and *reorganizing* them into product modules. There are two, somewhat different, objectives in modularizing the bill:

1. To disentangle combinations of optional product features
2. To segregate common from unique, or peculiar, parts.

The first is required to facilitate forecasting, or, in some cases, to make it possible at all under the MRP approach. The second has as its goal to minimize inventory investment in components common to optional units which must be forecast and thus make it necessary to carry safety stock. We will deal separately with each of these two objectives, and the techniques used to achieve them.

The question probably most frequently asked by people interested in MRP is what to do with the bill of material to handle product variations. Under

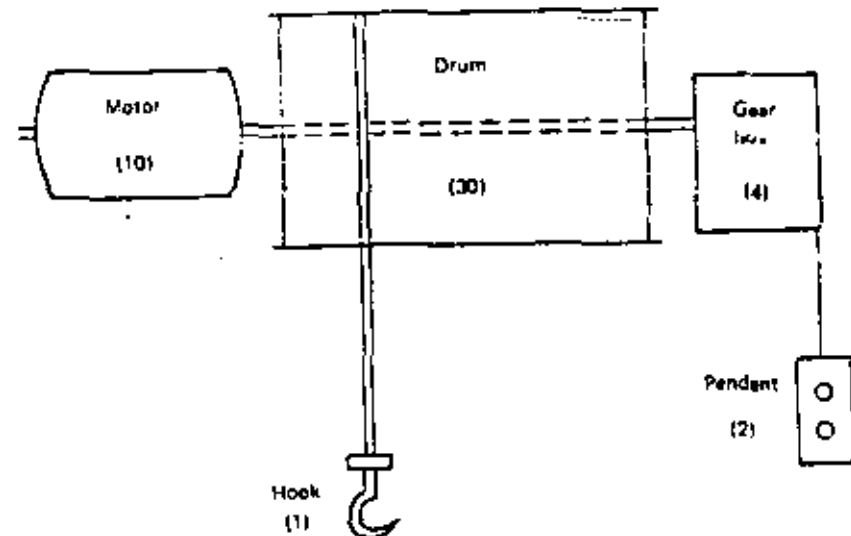


Figure 7.

MRP, these product variations, or optional features, must be forecast at the master schedule level, that is to say, we must be able to forecast end items rather than their individual components, as we do under Order Point. If a product has many optional features, their combinations can be astronomical and forecasting them becomes impossible. Furthermore, if separate bills of material were to be set up for each of the unique end products that it is possible to build, the file would be enormous—too costly to store and maintain. Not only that. A valid master schedule could not even be put together, using such bills, for the MRP system to explode.

The solution to this problem is the modular bill of material. Instead of maintaining bills for individual end products, under this approach the bill of material is restated in terms of the building blocks, or modules, from which the final product is put together. The problem, and its solution, can best be demonstrated on an example. Figure 7 represents a familiar product, a hoist that is used to handle material in a factory.

The hoist manufacturer offers his customers a number of options, in this case 10 motors, 30 drums, 4 gear boxes, and 2 pendants (the hook assembly is standard), from which a customer configures the specific hoist he wants. Figure 8 shows the schematic product structure of this family of hoists. By assembling the optional features in various combinations, it is possible to build 2,400 models; i.e., 2,400 unique configurations.

Assuming we manufacture this product and wish to implement MRP, the question is what to do with the bill of material. We can see clearly how to write a bill of material for each of the 2,400 models, but we certainly would

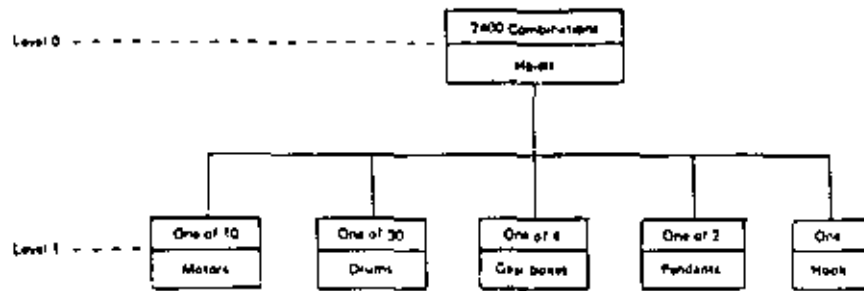


Figure 8.

not want to carry all those bills. Consider this: There is only one variety of hook on this product, but the engineers are probably working on that. If they introduce just one more option—a choice between two hooks, the number of possible configurations will *double* from 2,400 to 4,800—and another 2,400 bills would have to be added to the file.

That is one reason we do not want to set up bills for the end products themselves. But aside from this consideration, with all those bills we would not know how to develop a master schedule showing a quantity of each model needed in specific time periods.

Suppose we produce 100 hoists per month. Which 100 out of 2,400 should we select as a forecast for a particular month? This is clearly an impossible situation. Note that *volume* is part of the problem here. A product family with 100 models is a problem if volume is 20 per month. If volume were 10,000 per month, the forecasting problem would not be nearly as serious.

The solution here is to forecast each of the highest-level *components* (i.e., major assembly units) separately, and not to try to forecast the end products at all. That way, we would forecast each of the ten different motor variations, the thirty drum sizes, the four types of gear box, and the two types of pendant.

Specifically, since we only have one hook assembly and want to make 100 hoists during a month, we will need 100 hooks. This quantity would appear in the master schedule, and a bill of material for this "module" would be required to match the schedule. But we have two types of pendant. From previous sales of this product we know that, let us say, 75 percent of the orders call for type "A" and 25 percent for type "B." Applying these percentages to the pendant option, we could schedule seventy-five "As" and twenty-five "Bs." But here we would probably want some safety stock, because the batch of 100 customer orders in any one month is unlikely to break down exactly 75 and 25 percent.

The proper way to handle safety stock under material requirements planning is to plan it at the master schedule level. Thus, instead of scheduling 75 and 25 percent of the pendants we would deliberately overplan and put, let us

say, 90 and 30 into the master schedule. (This would not be done in every period; the unused safety stock is rolled forward.) The same approach would be followed for the motor option, the drum option, and the gear box option.

Each of the options, or *modules*, would have to have a bill of material, for use by the MRP system. Under this approach, the total number of bills of material—and the things to forecast—would be as follows:

Motors	10	Pendants	2
Drums	30	Hook	1
Gear Boxes	4	Total	47

This total of 47 compares with 2,400 if each product model had a bill of its own. If the engineers add a second variety of hook, this would only add one more bill to the 47, instead of doubling the file.

At this point, the reader may be wondering how this type of problem is being handled in a real-life situation, if the manufacturer *does not* have the bills set up in modular form. Chances are that there would be several bills, for *some* of the 2,400 configurations, and they would be used for everything by adding and subtracting optional components. Quite a few companies use this "add-and-delete" technique as a solution to the problem we have discussed.

This technique solves some but not all of the problems. Its main disadvantages are vulnerability to human error, slowing down Order Entry, but mainly, failure to establish the proper historical data for option forecasting purposes. Under this approach, the company would most likely use order points and safety stock on the "add-and-delete" components. That would be highly undesirable because it would deprive the user of some important benefits of an MRP system.

But suppose we *have* a certain number of bills for end products, and we want to restructure them in a modular fashion, so we can get away from adding and deleting. How do we go about such restructuring, specifically? We will demonstrate this on the next example. For this purpose, we have to scale down the previous example somewhat, so the solution can be seen clearly. Let us assume that the product has only *two* optional features, the motor and the drum, each with only two choices. The customer can then select between motor #1 and motor #2, and between drum "A" and drum "B."

Figure 9 represents the four bills of material: the first combines motor #1 with drum "A," the second one, motor #1 with drum "B," etc. In the product structure, the end product (model) numbers, 12-4010 etc., are considered to be on level zero. The level-one components, A13, C41, etc., may represent assemblies, but their components are not shown on the chart, so as not to make it too busy.

To restructure these bills into modules, we break them down, analyze and compare the use of level-1 items, and group them by use. For example, we see

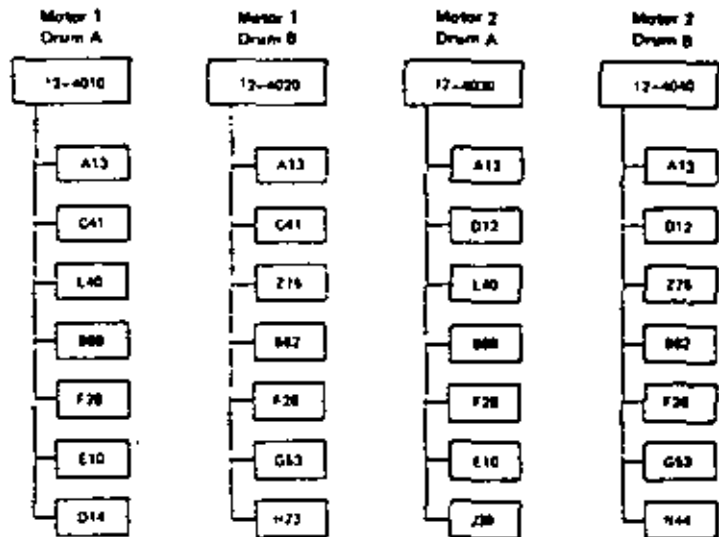


Figure 9.

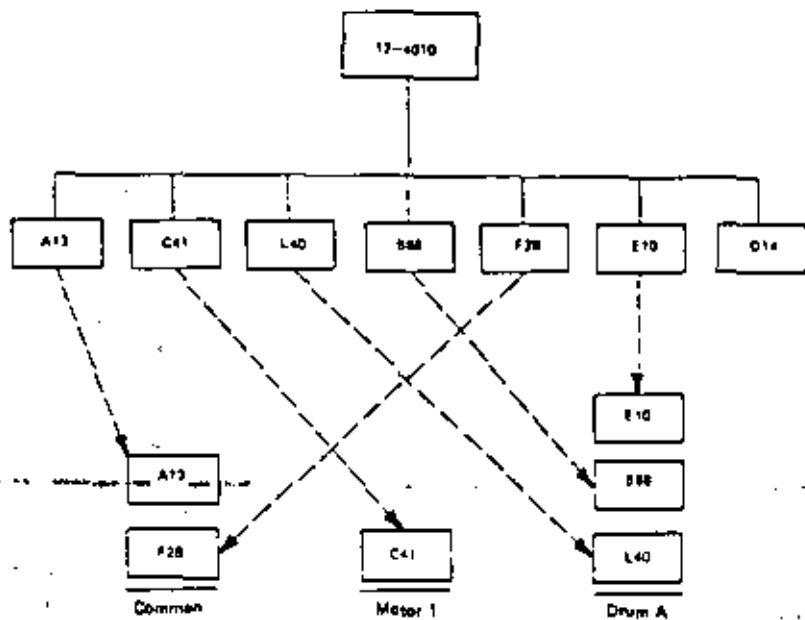


Figure 10.

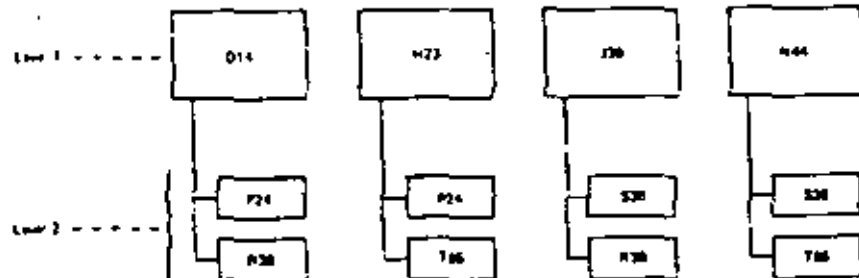


Figure 11.

that the first component in the first bill, A13, is common to all products, and assign it to the *Common* group. The next item, C41, is found in #1-A and #1-B combinations but not in #2-A and #2-B, which indicates that it is *unique to motor option #1*. The item that follows, L40, is *used only with drum option "A."* The remaining component items are similarly examined and assigned to groups. The result is shown in Figure 10.

Note, in Figure 10, that the last level-1 component item, D14, does not fit into any of the groupings. When all of the bills are broken down this way and their level-1 components are grouped by option, items D14, H23, J39, and N44 in our example remain unassigned, because each of them is used only with one or the other of the option combinations. Here we must carry the process one step further; i.e., break down these items, as shown in Figure 11, and assign *their* (level-2) components to the groupings by option. The final result is represented by Figure 12, where all of the items involved in our example are grouped into the respective modules.

In our case, we solved the entire problem through the technique of breakdown and group assignment. But if items D14, H23, etc. had not been sub-assemblies but piece parts, we would not have been able to break them down. In a case like that, the part that is used only with a certain combination of options should, if possible, be redesigned, particularly if it is an expensive item.

Low-cost items of this type need not be re-engineered, because we can

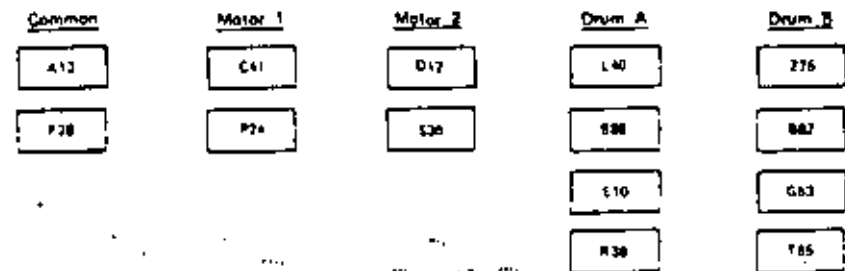


Figure 12.

afford to overplan them and carry some excess inventory. In the modularizing process, such parts can simply be assigned to more than one grouping. For example, item D14 (Figure 9) could be duplicated in both #1 and "A" modules (Figure 12), ensuring that it would never be planned short. Another solution, of course, is to forecast (and over-forecast) the option combinations for purposes of ordering this type of component.

Let us recap what we have done with the example under discussion, up to this point. We have *abolished* the end product numbers and we have done away with their bills of material as unnecessary for purposes of MRP. Where the final product formerly served as the end item in the bill of material, we have now *promoted* level-1 items (and in one case, level-2 items) to end item status.

This procedure established a new, modular *planning bill*, suitable for forecasting, master scheduling, and material requirements planning. The job of restructuring is not finished, however. The former level-1 items, D14, H23, etc., that are excluded from the planning bill cannot simply be abolished. These items will eventually have to be assembled, and the production control system has to be able to place orders for these items, schedule them, and requisition their components. These bills must therefore be retained for the purposes just mentioned.

This represents another technique of bill of material structuring: the establishment of *manufacturing bills*, or *M-bills*, which together constitute the M-bill file. These bills are coded to distinguish them from planning bills, so that the MRP system will, in effect, bypass them. M-bills are not involved in the process of component requirements planning. They are used for purposes of assembly only. M-items are built against the final assembly schedule, usually to customer order (or warehouse order), using the components planned through MRP.

The principle involved here is that in modularizing the bill of material at whatever level, *end product bills (level-0) can be abolished entirely but not any bills formerly on level-1 or lower*. These must be segregated in the M-bill file and retained for purposes of ordering, scheduling, costing, etc. Specifying options in Order Entry (or in scheduling a warehouse order) will call out and reconstruct the proper bills for individual end products, but not for lower level assemblies that have been removed from the planning bill file.

In the example we have been using, the total bill of material file would consist of:

1. *The planning bill file*
comprising bills shown in Figure 12.
2. *The M-bill file*
comprising bills for D14, H23, J39, and N44.

The Production and Inventory Control Handbook* contains an example of

**Production & Inventory Control Handbook*, McGraw-Hill, 1970.

bill of material restructuring that illustrates another technique. Namely, *reassigning* components from one bill to another. It is in chapter 17, and the reader is referred to the detailed discussion and illustrations contained there. The example used involves an engine, transmission, intake manifold, carburetor, and flywheel housing. This technique is really another version of modularizing. The difference is that the items being broken out, like the manifold, are *not* being promoted to level-1 status but are reassigned as components of another level-1 item, such as the carburetor.

This will get the right components planned but, because the manifold, for instance, does not *really* get assembled with the carburetor, certain new problems will be created. For example, stock requisitions or service parts orders for the carburetor should not call out manifolds, the cost build-up of the carburetor must not include the manifold, etc. Special procedures would have to be established within the system to handle this. Two bills would have to be maintained for the carburetor. One, a planning bill, with the manifold and another one, an M-bill, without it. But in this case, it would not otherwise be necessary to set up two carburetor bills if the illegitimate components were not assigned to it.

This technique of reassigning components is unnecessarily complicated and vulnerable. The straight modularization technique demonstrated on the previous example is cleaner and gets the job done in a simpler fashion. We mentioned earlier that one reason for modularizing is to disentangle option combinations, for purposes of forecasting and master scheduling. In our example of the hoist, this has been accomplished by establishing the modular planning bill shown in Figure 12. The other objective of modularization, segregating common from unique (optional) parts for purposes of inventory minimization, has not been fully met, however.

In modularizing the bills, we assigned level-1 items to groups, by option. But those items were *assemblies*, and they may contain common components. For example, a subassembly that is only used for motor #1 could have some common parts with another subassembly used for motor #2. Requirements for such common parts will be overstated, if they are included in the safety stock for *both* options. If we want to get at these common parts, we would have to tear the bills apart even further. In some cases it is desirable to do that, but if this technique is carried to its extreme, we might finally end up with a planning bill that has only piece parts in it and no subassemblies. The ultimate module of the product is really the piece part.

The question is this: When we do modularize, how far down the product structure should we go? What we are really doing when we modularize is determining the right level in the bill of material at which to forecast. Whether we should forecast the subassembly itself or just its components—and that is the question here—depends on *when* we need to assemble it.

We have two choices. Either we assemble it as a function of executing the master schedule, through MRP. This means assembling to stock, or *pre-assembling*, before the end product itself is scheduled to be built, which is probably after receipt of a customer order. Or we defer putting this subassembly together until such time when we build the end product. The making of the subassembly then becomes a function of executing the final assembly schedule. The decision between these two alternatives is pretty much dictated by the nature of the product in question, and by the nature of the business. Lead times and the economics of subassembly operations will determine, in each case, whether the item should be pre-assembled or whether it can wait until final product assembly.

Let us take the pendant on the hoist as an example. We can wait and assemble the pendant, and its subassemblies, when we build the final hoist to customer or warehouse order. But, on the other hand, we may want to have the pendants in stock when the order comes in, so as not to have to assemble them one at a time. If this is the case, we would have to leave the respective bills alone, even though some common parts will consequently be tied up in the pendant assemblies. The master schedule would then contain pendant bill numbers rather than their component numbers.

In trying to arrive at the answer to the question we are examining here it is helpful to distinguish between the

1. Master production schedule
2. Final assembly schedule

The master schedule represents a *procurement and fabrication schedule*. The final assembly schedule, created later in time, must stay within the constraints of component availability provided by the master schedule through the MRP system. (These schedules may coincide where the product either contains no options, or is small and simple, etc.) Different subassemblies are under the control of these two schedules, and in modularizing bills of material we are, in effect, assigning a given subassembly to either one of these schedules:

1. To the master schedule, by retaining it in the planning bill
2. To the final assembly schedule, by breaking down its bill (i.e., transforming it into an M-bill)

Thus the question of how far down the product structure one should go in modularizing tends to answer itself when the bill for a particular product is analyzed, and when we look at the nature of the various subassemblies in a particular business environment.

To conclude the discussion of modular bills of material, it may be proper to reflect on the objectives of modularization. Besides the specific objectives brought out earlier, there is a broader, more fundamental reason. And that is to maintain flexibility of production with a minimum investment in materials inventory. We want to offer a wide choice of products and to give maximum

service to customers, and at the same time keep component inventories down. Modular bills of material are intended to help us do just that.

PSEUDO-BILLS OF MATERIAL

There is one more problem that is related to the modular bill of material. When the bill is broken down in the process of modularizing, various assemblies are promoted and become end items; i.e., highest-level items with no parent. This tends to create a large number of end items. Because it is the end items that will have to be forecast, and because the master schedule has to be stated in terms of these end items, we could end up with hundreds (or thousands) of end items, too many to work with.

Fortunately, there is a simple solution to this. We certainly want the smallest possible number of things to forecast, and the smallest possible number of end items shown on the master schedule. To accomplish this, we can use the technique of creating "pseudo-bills of material." If we go back to Figure 12, where the newly created end items are grouped by option, there is nothing to stop us from taking any group of such items and creating a pseudo-bill to cover all of them. We have done so in Figure 13, where an artificial parent has been assigned to each group, and a new series of (pseudo) bills has been created.

These new bills, sometimes called *super-bills* or *S-bills*, are an example of *non-engineering part numbers* being introduced into a restructured bill of material. An S-number, such as S-101 in Figure 13, identifies an artificial bill of material for an imaginary item that, in reality, will never be built. The only purpose of the S-number is to facilitate planning. With the S-bills set up when we forecast drum size, for instance, we forecast S-104 and S-105 only. These pseudo-bill numbers will also represent these options in the master schedule. The MRP system will explode the requirements automatically from

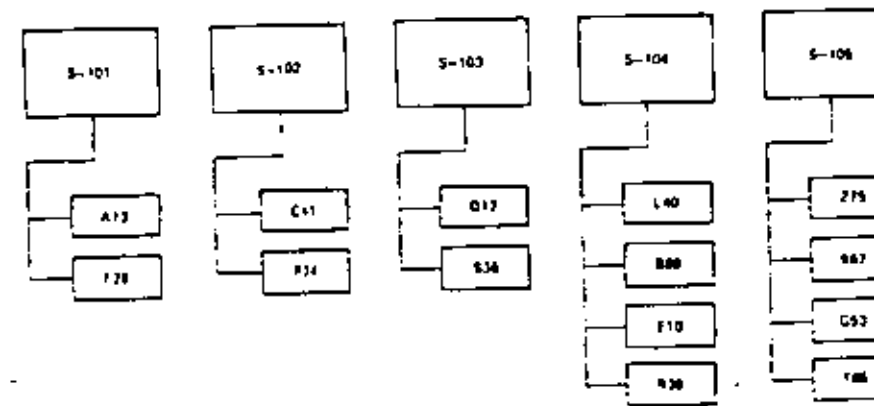


Figure 13.

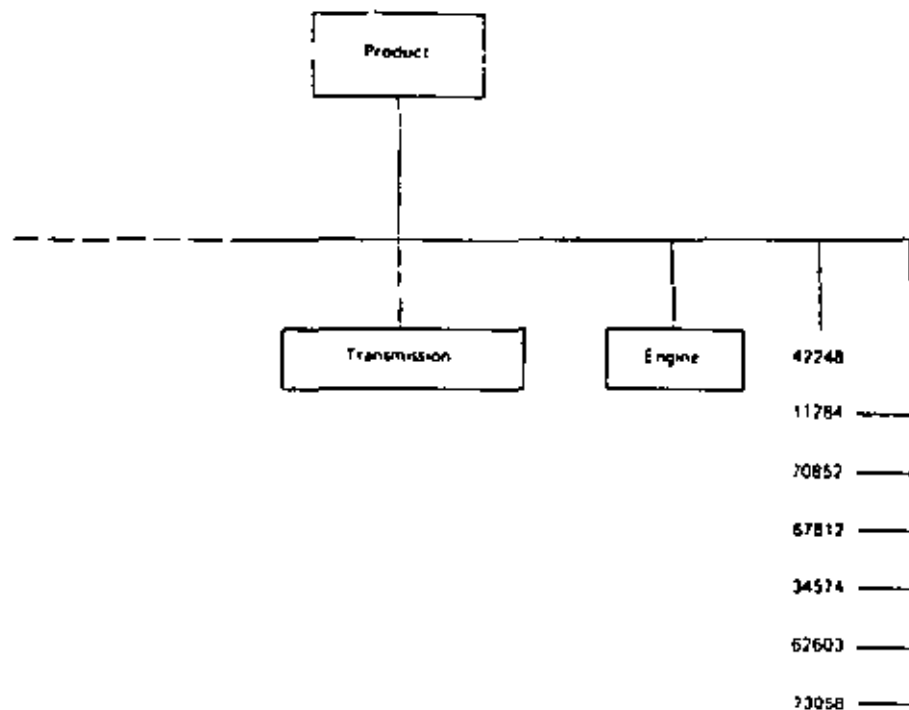


Figure 14.

this point on, using the S-bills in the bill of material file.

A total of 47 S-bills (one for each option plus one for common items including the hook) would cover the original (non-simplified) example of the hoist represented in Figures 7 and 8. The 47 compares with 2,400 end product bills, or with several hundred end item (level-1) bills.

In this article, the terms "S-bills," "S-number," and others, are being used for lack of standard terms. The terminology in this whole area is unfortunately entirely non-standard, as the subject has been almost totally neglected in literature. One of very few exceptions is the article by Dave Garwood* in which he described the results of restructuring the bills of material at Fisher Controls Co. In his article, the term "partial parts list" (PPL) corresponds to the S-bill, and the term "Item" to an option or option grouping.

Another pseudo-bill term in current use is the "Kit number" or "K-number." This technique is used by some companies that have a lot of small loose parts on level one in the product structure, as in the example in Figure 14. These are often the fasteners, nuts, and bolts, used to assemble the major assemblies together. If you do not want to deal with all these parts in-

*"Stop: Before You Use the Bill Processor," by D. Garwood, *Production & Inventory Management*, Second Quarter 1970.

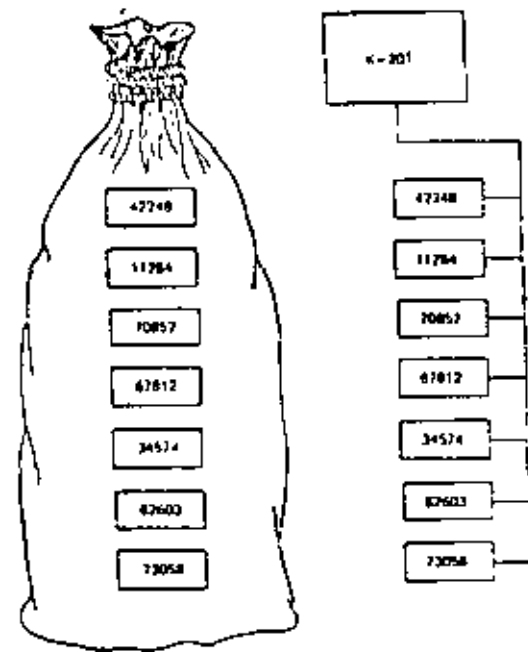


Figure 15.

dividually—and you certainly do not under an MRP system—you can put them into an imaginary bag, as depicted in Figure 15. You can then assign a part number to this bag of parts and treat it, in effect, as an assembly. This means setting up a bill of material for such a kit number (also shown in Figure 15).

The principle is the same as in the case of the S-bill—assigning a single new identity code to individually coded items that constitute a logical grouping, and employing the format of a bill of material to relate the items together for system purposes. The K-bill is another non-engineering part number created in the process of structuring the bill of material. These artificial identity codes have little to do with the design of the product and are not part of the product specs, but are created for more convenient planning, forecasting, and master scheduling.

These newly created bills, along with the M-bills we discussed earlier are sometimes collectively called the *superstructure*. The superstructure, once established, must then be maintained along with the rest of the bill of material file. This is a new job, which means that the cost of file maintenance will normally go up.

CONCLUSION

In the previous sections of this article we have reviewed modularization, which does away with end product bills and creates separate planning bills and manufacturing bills. We have seen how artificial bills are created in the process of restructuring, and for what purpose. We have also touched on the relationship of item identities to material requirements planning, and on the treatment of "phantom" assemblies. All of this goes to show that by making these kinds of changes, we can put the bill to new uses.

There are still other uses that can be assigned to the bill of material. An interesting example of modifying and using the bill of material in a new way is to expand the traditional concept of the bill to include other materials which may not actually be part of the product, but which are consumed in its making. For example, a ball bearing manufacturer has added special grinding wheels to bills of material for ball bearings. In effect, they are saying that a "part" made of a portion of the grinding wheel goes into each bearing assembly. The "quantity per" is the fraction of wheel life to make one bearing. Adding this item to bills of material makes it possible for this company to project requirements for expensive grinding wheels and thus minimize investment in this inventory, as well as to reduce the possibility of a shortage of grinding wheels.

An electrical machinery manufacturer has added electrical specification numbers for power transformers to bills of material. The assembly orders generated from these bills then show not only the parts that go into the assembly but also the proper specifications for final inspection and test.

In conclusion, we want to indicate who does and who does not need to restructure the bill of material, as a pre-condition to successful MRP system operation. Where the product line consists of a finite, limited number of items (models), modularizing the bill, or any other changes for the sake of bill of material structure may be unnecessary. For example, a company making power tools—a highly successful user of MRP—did not have to restructure bills of material. In their business the bill simply is no problem, because they manufacture only so many varieties of power drill, power saw, etc., in large quantities. Furthermore, the product is relatively simple and small, in terms of the number of different components used per unit of end product. With a product line like that, it is feasible to maintain complete bills for each product model, and forecast and plan by model.

On the other hand, bill of material restructuring is called for where the product line consists of a virtually infinite number of end products, due to complexity of design and wide choice of optional features. Modular bills of material make material requirements planning possible for such diverse products as highway truck trailers, mining machinery, gasoline station pumps, etc., elevators, office machinery, farm machinery, computers,

machine tools, instruments, industrial tractors, and a multitude of others, who have the common problem of an almost endless product variety that makes it otherwise impossible to develop valid master schedules.

The study of how bills of material should be constructed is therefore a vital part of the work of designing and implementing an MRP system. Structuring the bill of material requires some real cooperation from the engineering department, and sometimes this can be a problem. After the bill is restructured, it can no longer "belong" to the engineers exclusively, and that can sometimes be a problem also.

The bill of material can and should be more than just part of product specs. It should also be viewed and used as a *tool for planning*. The resistance by some engineering departments to change in bill of material format, structure, maintenance, etc., cannot really be justified. After all, the engineers create the bill so that, by definition, somebody other than the designer can make the product. The bill of material is, therefore, really made for others, in the first place. And it would seem to follow that it should be structured for the user's, not the designer's, convenience.

An ex-engineer friend of ours put it this way: "When I worked as an engineer, I saw the creation of the bill of material as the *last step in the process of design*. But when I later moved into production and inventory control, I began to see it as a *first step in the process of planning*."

This article reprinted from Production and Inventory Management, the Journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 4th Quarter 1972 pp. 19-42.

ADVANCED REQUIREMENTS PLANNING SYSTEM
CUTS INVENTORY COSTS, IMPROVES
WORK FLOW

EARLE QUIMBY

Markem Corporation, Keene, N. H.

"The right part in the assembly room at the right time."

Though simply stated, this goal always has presented a challenge for manufacturing management. It is difficult enough to maintain an economical flow of parts when the company is small and sales stable; but when the product line becomes complex and sales improve at a healthy rate, the pressure on the manufacturing plant grows dramatically. Then the right part *must be* in the right place when it's needed.

We believe we've "turned the corner" on this problem at Markem Corporation. An advanced requirements planning system, using a medium-size computer, is helping pull together all the threads which make up manufacturing planning and production. By combining separate but interrelated systems for inventory and production scheduling, this new capability already has reduced inventory substantially even as sales have increased by better than 15 percent.

Most important, the profit percentage has been holding up and we've experienced a record shipping period. We're pleased with our present ability to get parts through to the assembly floor to meet our schedules.

We are a growing company, serving many industries with marking equipment that is highly customized. In fact, about 75 percent of our products require special engineering features to meet customer requirements. Markem was founded in 1911 by F. A. Putnam, and is still a privately owned company. The first products devised by Mr. Putnam were an ink and a marking machine which printed size information on shoe linings.

Today, we make marking machines and special inks and printing type for practically any product. Our Marketing Division and field sales force are specialized by industry and are supported by similarly specialized research and development activities. One of our newest products, a drug capsule printer, can mark 400,000 capsules per hour. Another specialized machine automatically feeds and prints on transistors and other miniature electronic components. Markem has become the leader in industrial identification equipment.

The Mechanical Products Division has the responsibility for producing a wide range of machines and printing types; the Chemical products Division, also located in Keene, produces inks and printing foils. Sales offices are located throughout the United States and Canada, and in certain European countries; sales agents are located around the world. In 1967, the Milford-Astor Group, in

Manchester, England — a manufacturer of hot stamping equipment and foils — was acquired.

Company sales have been growing at a steady rate of 10 to 15 percent in recent years; annual sales are in the \$15-to-\$18-million range.

To fill machine orders, the Mechanical Products Division manufactures about 80 different models which in turn lead to about 150 combinations. Three batch assembly lines are in operation, where basic parts are assembled to build basic configurations from which the final machines are produced. It is here that the critical need for "the right part at the right time" is felt. If this line does not keep moving smoothly, shipment dates cannot be met.

We began thinking of applying modern information processing methods to manufacturing planning and control in the mid-1960s. Our experience with automatic data processing dates back to 1950, when we began to use punched-card equipment for accounting and sales analysis applications. This was updated in 1966 with a System/360 Model 20.

With the decision to extend data processing to manufacturing operations, we ordered a Model 30 and set out to achieve an effective inventory control system which we envisaged as the first step towards a comprehensive plant system. We used the IBM Bill of Material Processor — a programming system which organizes production information on magnetic disk files — to create a product structure file. In December, 1968, IBM released another set of programs, Requirements Planning, and ours was one of the first companies to put it to use. Requirements Planning uses sales forecasts and customer orders to determine component part and sub-assembly requirements by time period, generate action notices or orders for items requiring production or purchase, and plans replenishment orders. Both the Bill of Material Processor and Requirements Planning are part of an interrelated Production Information and Control System (PICS).

Our Model 30 includes three 2311 magnetic disk units which use interchangeable disk packs — or electronic files — a punched card input/output unit, and a high-speed printer. Production information, organized as a data base and maintained on other disk packs, is broken down into separate files. The primary files include:

1. An item master file. Maintained on one disk pack, and covering all of the 15,000 items we inventory — raw materials, parts, and assemblies.
2. The product structure file, organized under the Bill of Material Processor. Each product is structured in four levels — raw material, part, subassembly and machine. Each level references both the prior and next higher level permitting both explosion and implosion of requirements.
3. The subordinate master item file. This includes data on the 6000 item thus far selected to be controlled under Requirements Planning.

Two criteria determine if a part is included in Requirements Planning: usage and dollar value. For the past two years, we have been ABC-listing inventory with the most expensive items at the top. Thus, all A and B, and most of the C

items, have been included in requirement planning.

The usage criterion we established is *how* the part is used. If 90 percent of usage is in fabrication of new machines, as opposed to sale as a repair part, it is included in Requirements Planning.

During the weekly run of the Requirements Planning System, the three disk files are on-line, or directly linked, to the computer. They hold operating system/requirements planning instructions, item master file and product structure/subordinate item master file. Thus, all the data needed to explode and project requirements across different manufacturing periods are immediately available.

The cycle actually begins with our yearly sales forecast. This is integrated with orders in-house at the time the forecast is made and a year-long assembly schedule, projected in five-day working periods. As orders come in, they are used to fine-tune the forecast. This fine-tuning extends over a three-month period; orders still in the engineering department when this forecast is made are picked up later at the subassembly level.

Based on the data developed in the three-month forecast, the batch assembly lines are scheduled one month ahead. Basically, the information at this stage tells us how many and what machines we will be manufacturing. Scheduling data which includes machine numbers, quantities needed and dates to be shipped, is sent once a week to the data processing department, where it is punched on cards. The cards are fed into the computer with the previously-described on-line data base. Automatically, the system explodes requirements for each machine to be produced, at each level of the product structure.

If the system finds an item with enough quantity on hand, it goes no further; if not, processing continues through each product level, testing the inventory balance at every level. When the gross requirement for an item or part is not covered by on hand or on order balance, a net requirement is generated and a planned order developed.

The result is a comprehensive requirements generation report which prints the critical details of each item extended across the five-day calendar periods, one year ahead. Shown are: the gross requirements for the item in each calendar period; existing open orders and those projected for specific periods; the anticipated inventory balance for each period as well as the current balance; net requirements per period; and offset requirements. Also shown is the quantity to be ordered if net requirements in any period fall below the minimum for an item.

Prepared at the same time is an exception report highlighting conditions that might otherwise be missed. For example: for a given item the report will show that although a planned open order exists, gross requirements are covered by inventory on hand. Another exception might show that an order is needed sooner than the time period anticipated. The programming system allows for 19 such exceptions to be reported.

Both the requirements generation and exception reports — which are developed in four hours' running time on the computer — are sent to the manufacturing planning and control department. The items to be ordered are noted; the exceptions noted; projected requirements for each item studied through each time period; and actual orders initiated accordingly. These are fed back to the data processing department, where job packets are printed and order information accumulated. Each week, prior to the requirements planning run, the orders initiated during the past week are fed into the system for posting to the subordinate item master file. This automatically clears any previous order data and substitutes the new information. Orders in the open order file are closed out as information from the plant floor flows back to data processing.

This, in brief, is the system as it is operating now. We have made certain changes and additions to the programming systems supplied by IBM. These include the forecast percentage, a projected balance line printed on the requirements generation plan, and the extension of anticipated parts usage for repair purposes throughout the year.

The next step in our manufacturing system plan will be implementing the Capacity Planning Program. This phase will handle long-range planning: taking the load of jobs to be run in the plant, measuring them against available manpower and machines within required time periods, and developing start dates in order to establish a leveled load pattern while meeting customer shipment requirements.

We also plan to install a television-like display station in the manufacturing planning and control department to serve as a direct link to the computer system. This will permit instant retrieval of inventory and other data, quick updating of information, and other functions, such as checking individual open orders. Another computer terminal in the engineering department will be used to process engineering changes, and to retrieve bill of material data. We hope to use one of these terminals for order entry.

The basic goal in manufacturing is to ship finished products on the closest possible schedule, keeping customer service at a high plane, while holding inventory and manufacturing costs to the minimum. We are convinced this can no longer be done without the computer, and have proved that while the transition to modern information processing is a long-range effort, the payoff is very real.

LINE NO.	ITEM#	PRICE	UNIT	DESCRIPTION	QTY	UNIT PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	STATUS	REMARKS
1	541	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
2	542	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
3	543	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
4	544	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
5	545	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
6	546	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
7	547	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
8	548	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
9	549	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
10	550	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
11	551	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
12	552	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
13	553	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
14	554	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	
15	555	1.00	EA	REPAIR PART	100	1.00	100.00	10/22	OPEN	

Exhibit A. - A sample printout of the requirements generation plan produced on the IBM System/360 Model 30. This printout covers one part - a tank stud - and extends requirements over 52 five-day working periods. At the top is printed descriptive and identifying information. On the second line, "Source M" indicates the part is produced in house; the word "each" next to unit of measure indicates the measure is in discrete numbers rather than pounds; the order quantity indicates that an order for 100 units will have to be placed to meet requirements in one of the time periods; the lead time shows that eight working periods are needed. In the third line is shown the current inventory balance (min/max/multiple order quantities and allocated stock are not printed on this report); the final item on the third line indicates the item's percentage use as

a repair part. Along the left are headings for each of the time periods shown - gross requirements each period, open orders, net, offset requirements, and balance. The figures starting with 541 are the five-day working periods. Assuming that 541 actually referred to the week of September 24, the report shows that on October 22 - calendar figure 561 - an open order for that part is due to be completed and 100 units will be added to stock. This existing open order is indicated by the f. sign. Extending gross requirements into the future, the report shows that in period 606 another order should be placed; the asterisk indicates it is an anticipated order. This report is produced weekly for each of the 6,000 items or parts controlled under the requirements planning system.

ITEM NUMBER	DESCRIPTION CODE	REQUIREMENT DATE	ALLOCATION QUANTITY
0110348	19	555	250
0110691	19	550	150
0170006	19	555	20
0120013	19	540	250
0170225	19	543	200
0120362	19	550	40
0130647	19	705	50
0130642	19	560	50
0130529	19	555	50
0130546	19	605	150
0150009	19	535	30
0150106	19	425	70
0160235	19	655	200
0170209	19	555	150
0170653	19	935	100
0190698	19	560	80
0200153	19	660	100
0200734	19	565	750
0200381	19	540	25
0200362	19	560	25
0200383	19	610	25
0200936	19	550	90
0200437	19	545	60
0220062	19	650	15
0220122	19	575	40
0220231	19	590	60
0220232	19	590	100
0260009	19	540	25
0260009	19	550	25
0260025	19	560	25
0260065	19	540	25
0260013	19	575	10
0260225	19	560	75
0260229	19	515	75
0260461	19	545	40
0260461	19	545	40
0290468	19	545	50
0290471	19	555	10
0290472	19	555	40

Exhibit B. - After the requirements generation plan is printed, the IBM System/360 Model 30 also produces an exception report to highlight conditions which might otherwise be overlooked. In the sample shown here, the exception code (19) indicates that for the items or parts listed on the left, an open order is due to be completed in the five-day calendar period shown under requirement date - but not requirements for this part exist in an earlier period; in other words, the part will be needed sooner than indicated on the requirements generation report. This permits Material Manufacturing planning and control management to take whatever action is necessary to assure the needed parts will be on hand in the time period indicated. The IBM requirements planning system incorporates 1 exception situations. The system identifies them automatically and prints them out as shown.

About the Author—

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Mr. Quimby holds a degree in Mechanical Engineering from the University of New Hampshire, is a graduate of Northeastern University's Management Development Course, and has participated in many American Management Association workshops and seminars.

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING— THE KEY TO CRITICAL RATIO EFFECTIVENESS

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Critical Ratio is a simple yet sound method of expressing the relative priority of work in process, by relating the *time remaining* before an item is due, to the amount of *work remaining*. For example, if a part in process is required in five days and it has ten days of work remaining, it has five days over ten days or a ratio of $.5(\frac{5}{10} = .5)$. This is an expedite priority,

since the job will have to be done in half its normal remaining lead time if it is to be completed on schedule. Ratios of 1.0 mean the job is exactly on schedule, ratios greater than 1.0 mean the job is ahead of schedule, and anything less than one means behind schedule. This technique for shop scheduling and job sequencing can be a powerful tool provided the source of the time and work remaining is accurate and reliable.

Of the two elements of the ratio, *time remaining* (to order due date) is self-evident, and *work remaining* is easy to express since it (the lead time remaining) can be determined by the summation of the transit time, queue time, set-up and run time for all the operations on the routing still to be performed. Care must be taken to insure that the queue times are correct and reflect the desired level of float. As the work is performed and reported through some form of data collection procedure, the *work remaining* decreases, which in turn alters the calculation of the ratio.

This is a simple mechanical procedure which relies primarily on timely shop reporting and accurate routings. The difficulty with critical ratio occurs with the *time remaining* element of the ratio, although, at first glance, its value seems self-evident. The lack of success critical ratio has experienced in the past years can be attributed to the inaccuracy of the *time remaining*. The real problem is with the *integrity* of the due date.

A critical ratio shop floor control system will deteriorate quickly when the foreman discovers he is working to priorities that do not coincide with the *real* needs of the assembly department. Thus the effectiveness of shop execution is directly contingent on the integrity of the due date the inventory system generates. What is the order due date, and does it coincide with the date of real need? The inventory system must answer this question every time critical ratio priorities are calculated.

Materials Requirements Planning can answer this question because it has the inherent capability to plan and maintain order due dates valid. Generally, Material Requirements Planning is thought of as a super-

This article reprinted from *Production and Inventory Management*, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 3rd Quarter 1970 pp. 32-38.

charged computer technique for ordering material and for inventory planning, which it is. But it also has the critical role of keeping shop priorities up-to-date. It is not unusual for a company that has severe shop scheduling problems to be attracted to Material Requirements Planning for its shop floor control capability and not solely for purposes of inventory planning and ordering. Because it has this ability to maintain due dates valid, it is ideally suited to drive a critical ratio shop floor control system.

Materials Requirements Planning can react dynamically to changing material needs. As the master schedule is changed because of reschedules, expedites or cancellations, and as this is processed by Material Requirements Planning, the *time remaining* is altered by the revised shop order due dates, and the new ratio will reflect these changes to the shop floor. This can be done as often as it is necessary to update the inventory files and communicate schedule information to the foremen. This flexibility is a characteristic that is simply not available with reorder point techniques.

A material control system based on reorder points considers only the usage characteristics of the part itself, and virtually ignores the relationship to its position in the bill of material, and the timing of its parent end item on the master schedule. Consequently, schedule changes to highest level assemblies will not be reflected down through the bill of material to all its lower level components. This insensitivity to schedule change can be costly, especially when it becomes necessary to retard an end item assembly and its components.

Changes can be the result of customer requests, forecast adjustments or the need to be realistic and reschedule an assembly to coincide with the late receipt of one or more of its components. With Material Requirements Planning, the resulting change of the due date on all orders affected can be communicated to the shop floor before valuable capacity is consumed, and before more labor dollars are put into inventory. The critical ratio will adjust to a slack priority which tells the foreman to shift his attention to other jobs with higher priorities.

The utility of Materials Requirements Planning is further demonstrated by its ability to raise the red flag on material in process that has no requirement. Engineering changes, quantity changes or customer cancellations can suddenly eliminate the need for parts. It is obviously important to stop these orders in process before the costs of surplus or obsolescence increase. When there are no requirements, the *time remaining* equals infinity. The critical ratio will reflect this condition and signal the foreman to stop all further work and remove the job from the floor.

A common problem with critical ratio is maintaining a meaningful priority on work that is past due. When the *time remaining* is zero (the due date is today) and there is still work to be done, the value of the critical ratio is zero. If *time remaining* continues to be expressed as zero when the

order is one or more days past due, the zero value becomes meaningless. Which of the zero jobs should the foreman work on next?

This can be a problem when the dispatch list reflects a number of such jobs. Typically, this situation is overcome by expediting, rush stickers, or perhaps a sophisticated algorithm which converts the zero to some kind of past due priority index that the foreman does not understand. With Material Requirements Planning, it is possible to resolve this problem. A time phased past due permits the time remaining to be expressed as a negative number, which produces an understandable *minus* priority value that is still relative to all other jobs on the dispatch list.

There are other options available through Material Requirements Planning that can be applied to critical ratio shop floor control. Some of these techniques are: audits to insure the calculated lead time or *work remaining* is consistent with the offset lead time used in the inventory part master record, or utilizing pegging methods that discriminate between work-in-process for customer orders and orders being run against an inventory forecast. Knowing which jobs are for customers and which are for inventory can aid shop planning and maintain proper emphasis.

The important fact is that critical ratio with Material Requirements Planning presents a viable means of executing the master schedule. The results of this combination further demonstrate the power and versatility of Material Requirements Planning, and indicate why it must be the keystone of a computerized production and inventory control system. Again, its capacity to plan and maintain due dates valid enables production control to give the foreman what he wants—a schedule that is truly current.

This article reprinted from Production and Inventory Management, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 3rd Quarter 1972 pp. 89-91.

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TO ORDER POINT OR NOT TO ORDER POINT

Oliver W. Wight

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THE ORDER POINT — A GREAT CONCEPT

The order point is a fundamental concept in inventory management and many companies use it on all items in inventory. Experience in practice has shown that order points are not always the best re-ordering technique and, in fact, that most items in the inventory carried by the typical company that fabricates and purchases components (this term includes subassemblies, parts, and raw materials) to be assembled, can be reordered far more effectively using other approaches.

Before discussing the problems involved with order points and the techniques that should be used instead, some background information on order points should be reviewed. Basically, an order point establishes the level at which a replenishment order will be placed. The order point construction is:

$$OP = D_{LT} + R$$

where the order point is equal to a forecast of demand during lead time plus reserve stock. If, for example, lead time were six weeks, demand were estimated to be approximately 100 units per week and a safety stock or reserve stock equivalent to a two week supply were planned, the order point would be equal to 800 units and when inventory reached this level, a calculated order quantity (often determined using an Economic Order Quantity formula) would be reordered.

There are many variations on the basic order point theme. The well known "two bin" system establishes a quantity in one bin as the order point and when the other bin is depleted, a reorder is placed. The "min-max" system establishes a minimum (order point) and when inventory reaches this level, a quantity is reordered to bring the inventory up to a maximum (order point plus order quantity). These order point systems are called fixed order quantity systems as distinguished from their near relatives, the fixed interval or periodic review systems. In a fixed order system, variations in demand cause variations in the timing of re-orders; in a fixed interval system, it is assumed that inventory will only be replenished periodically and thus the quantity ordered at each review period varies as demand varies. In the discussion that follows, all of these techniques are categorized as "order point type systems".

Intuitive approaches to calculating order points usually involve some across the board rules, such as: "We will always reorder when we get down to a 45 day supply" or "We will always carry a 60 day supply on hand and on order". It is more rational to relate reserve stock to forecast error since it is kept in inventory to protect against forecast error during replenishment lead time and today statistical sampling approaches analyzing actual data for each item can be used to determine more efficient levels of reserve stock than the intuitive approaches yielded. Considerable literature has been written on this subject in the last 10 to 15 years and the so called "Scientific Inventory Management" techniques using exponential smoothing to forecast demand during lead time and the mean absolute deviation and statistical tables to calculate reserve stock are well accepted in the universities and industry today. Proper application of this approach to recalculate so called "floating" order points, monthly or even weekly, can generally result in a reduction in inventory of between 20 to 40% without impairing service, or inventory can be maintained at the same level and service improved instead, where intuitive methods were previously used.

Here, then, are some useful techniques that have been greeted with great enthusiasm by practitioners and educators alike. For the practitioner, these are highly useful techniques that can enable him to make substantial improvements in his system. For the educator, they are an excellent demonstration of the potential applications of statistics and higher mathematics.

SOME OBVIOUS MISAPPLICATIONS

With all the development and writing that has been done, there have been some excellent applications of these modern techniques, but most progress carries with it some form of penalty and there has very definitely been an overemphasis on the order point type systems to the degree that some authors recognize only this type of reorder system. In the real business world, there are a good many places where these order point type systems are very inefficient ordering systems and, in many companies, serious problems have resulted from application of order points to inventories of components.

An eastern manufacturer of an electrical product applied order points to his finished inventory and to all the components that were used to assemble the finished product. Since there were many components that had common usage in many different assemblies, it was decided to use an order point system on all components and try to have the components available rather than to add the full component lead time into the order point for each finished item. This seemed to make sense on the common usage components, but generated some obvious problems on those components that were used on only one or two end items. For example, a typical end item inventory record is as follows:

END ITEM ORDER POINT = 40
 END ITEM ORDER QUANTITY = 35

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
End Item Demand	10	5	2	20	3	11	14	0
End Item Inventory	65	60	58	38	35	24	45	39

Note that with the order point of 40 and order quantity of 35, as the end item drops below order point in week 4, an assembly order is created thus generating a component demand in week 4. An assembled lot-size of 35 is received into inventory in week 7 and again in week 8 the item is once more below order point, thus creating another component require-

ment in week 8. This activity is reflected in the component inventory record, as follows:

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Component Requirement	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	35

Using a floating order point to control this component inventory generates some interesting results. In the example shown, exponential smoothing would take the demand in week 1, smooth it, and decrease the order point. It would successively do that in weeks 2 and 3 to the point where the order point was very low and then in week 4 there would be a demand for 35. The order point would then be increased for week 5 but then the 0 demand in week 5 would be smoothed in, dropping the order point once again until another component demand occurred in week 8. Obviously, this system is 180 degrees out of phase with true component demand — and the use of a mean absolute deviation to compensate for forecast error only aggravates the problem with the result that reserve stocks are very high but components are often not on hand when they are required.

Rather than trying to use order points to make components available, it would be far more satisfactory in this case to try to forecast when reorders will occur and have components available to assemble at that time. Assuming that end item demand approximates 9 units per period, it can be seen that the inventory on hand in week 1 will last about 7 weeks and that the order point is approximately equal to 4 weeks; therefore, in about 3 weeks, a reorder should be expected. Since the order quantity will last about 4 weeks, assembly reorders in the future can be anticipated approximately every 4 weeks.

The components for this product obviously can be reordered much more effectively by exploding anticipated requirements down through a bill of materials. The inventory pattern for this item could be charted as shown (Figure 1), where the finished product has many small demands from customers which are "independent"; that is, they cannot be related to any known requirement, while the components of finished items tend to have a few large demands that are "dependent" upon the requirements for assembly. Using an order point on these components will tend to generate more inventory than is actually required and

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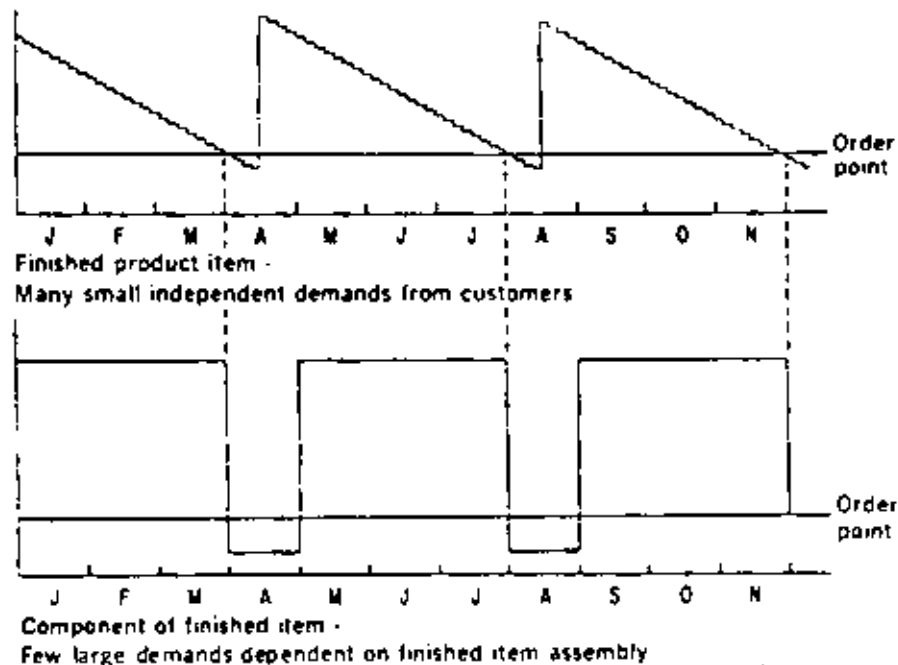
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experience in practice shows that the reverse happens too: components are often not available when they are actually needed because they are being ordered independent of the timing of end item requirements.

Figure 1. Independent vs. Dependent Demand



The very least this example demonstrates is that one universal reorder rule for everything in inventory doesn't make sense. The proponents of order point type techniques at this point may say that nothing has been proved except that the assembly order point should have included the full lead time for components used on only one end item, but that order points should still be used on those components that are used on more than one end item. While this example has been oversimplified, it should be readily apparent that if there were two end items using this component and each of them had an order quantity equal to an 8 week's supply, demand would be even more erratic than this example shows. An order point type system would not only tend to bring in inventory before it is needed, but at times when both assemblies happened to require the component almost simultaneously, it probably would not be available because the order point type system assumes that the annual demand will average out on a weekly basis which is not the case.

In one company where dynamic ratio type priority systems were developed, order points were used for reordering components. The foreman complained that many items had high priorities as soon as they

were issued to the starting departments. As an example of the system's shortcomings, one foreman cited the example of a component used on two end items that was in his department with a high priority; he had checked the end items and found that there was a six month's supply of one available and that four month's supply of the other was just being assembled (with all components available). The system, because its dispatching priorities were based on an order point, assumed that each component inventory needed to be replenished as soon as it was depleted. This is the basic assumption of order point type systems, but in this case it is invalid. It would be more efficient to order components against projected assembly requirements and try to drive the inventory to zero between requirements.

A CASE STUDY IN MISAPPLICATION

Order point type techniques for components with one, or even two end uses, are not very efficient. Where, then, do order point techniques for components make sense? One proponent of order point techniques has suggested that order points can be used on any components that have more than 7 end uses. Even this is an arbitrary rule of thumb that does not work out well in practice. The following is an actual example:

A manufacturer of assembled products that are made up of many common components that must be stocked had been using intuitive order points for ordering these components. His inventory was extremely high and service was unsatisfactory so he did a study to determine whether a statistical order point system implemented on a computer would work better. Inventory simulations were run for 8 different components. They purposely chose components with many end uses and the simulations showed that a high level of service on each component would result from using an order point approach. The 8 items simulated gave these results.

NUMBER OF ITEMS	SERVICE LEVEL
2 items	100%
3 items	98.1%
1 item	96.2%
1 item	94.3%
1 item	92.4%

At first glance, this series of simulations looked very good to the company and they were only concerned that order points might not work as well on the items with less stable demand (in fact, simulations for other components with only a few end uses did show that a floating order point would tend to build extremely high inventories while giving very poor service).

Further thinking about the results of the simulations, however, showed that even those results that looked good on the surface would not work well in practice. The company's service is judged by their ability to ship *assemblies, not components*. If it were assumed that this company's product consisted of only the 8 components simulated instead of the 35 to 50 components that typically go into one of their products, it might be worth asking how many times they would be unable to ship the assembly. A further check of the simulations generated the following results.

ITEM	NO. OF WEEKS OUT OF STOCK	SERVICE	WEEKS NOT AVAILABLE
1	3	94.3	#11, #12, #13
2	1	98.1	#52
3	2	96.2	#30, #35
4	0	100.0	-----
5	1	98.1	#42
6	4	92.4	#23, #24, #35, #36
7	0	100.0	-----
8	1	98.1	#19

This summary indicates that Item #1 would be unavailable in weeks 11, 12, and 13, while Item #2 would be unavailable in week 52, etc. Altogether there are 12 stockouts among the 8 items, resulting in 11 weeks (note that Item #3 and #6 are both unavailable on week #35) when the end item cannot be assembled, indicating that while service appears to be very high at the component level, it will not be very high for the assembly. In this example, while service levels for the components are as high as 100%, there are actually 11 weeks out of 52 when the products cannot be assembled, so that even for a product using only 8 components, the service level would be 78.8%.

Further examination of these simulations showed another problem that arises when components are ordered independently. It was decided to pick one week at random when none of the components were out of stock and determine how many of the end item could be put together, again assuming that it takes only the 8 components involved in the simulation. In week #15, the inventory balances were as follows:

Item #1	-	81 units
Item #2	-	719 units
Item #3	-	1134 units
Item #4	-	193 units
Item #5	-	226 units
Item #6	-	34 units
Item #7	-	57 units
Item #8	-	349 units

The simulation shows that *only 34 assemblies* (the quantity of the component with the lowest inventory) could be put together in week #15, even though all components are in stock that week! Obviously, some unusable high component inventories result from this approach. As a result of this analysis, the company decided to put their bills of material on the computer and use it to reproject their requirements weekly rather than using it to improve their order points system.

The company in this example was fortunate because they used simulation to determine in advance that order points on components would not work very satisfactorily. Another company replaced a very *crude* requirements planning system with a highly sophisticated order point system for components and had disastrous results. Inventory increased 25% and there was a dramatic *reduction* in service. It's indicative of the state of the art of production and inventory control today that order point type systems, because they are well-developed in the literature, tend to be applied where they can generate very poor results indeed.

TIME SERIES MATERIALS PLANNING

Two phenomena discussed in the simulation example above contribute to these poor results:

1. *When components are ordered independently, the cumulative service level for all components will be much lower than the service levels of the individual components.* This phenomenon is one that is well known to statisticians and simply demonstrates the laws of probability in action. If an individual component is likely to be on hand 90% of the time that it is required, then any 2 components will be likely to be on hand 81% of the time (90 x 90) and any 3 components will be likely to be on hand 73% of the time, etc. Some quick calculations like those above would indicate that if the chances were 95% for any one component to be on hand and only 10 components were needed to make an assembly, the chances of all of these being available at the same time would be approximately 56%.
2. *When components are ordered independently, component inventories will not match assembly requirements well.* The upper portion of Figure 1 shows the familiar saw-tooth curve that results from an order point approach. Even for a component with many end uses and relatively uniform demand, the "saw teeth" will peak independently and thus component inventories seldom match requirements at any point in time.

The fact that those companies using order points on components *do* get some things shipped on time may seem to contradict these observations. But they usually do it by carrying extremely high inventories and doing a great deal of expediting. These expeditors usually work from

assembly floor shortages to try to pull the right item through, in spite of all the wrong inventory items the order point system generated.

The expeditor usually has some kind of a "hot list" and in spite of the dates that the inventory system has put on component orders, he tries to get the right items to the assembly floor. He faces a dilemma with this hot list, however. If he only expedites those shortages that already exist on the assembly floor, it's obviously a case of too little too late. If he tries to anticipate shortages and expedite these, he has an extremely long hot list and the foreman's logical question is, "Which do you want first?". To do an effective job, he really needs a series of "hot lists". He needs to break down his assembly floor requirements into time periods and indicate by time period what his requirements will be. This concept extended through enough time periods to cover the component lead time is the technique called *time series materials planning*.

Figure 2. Assembly Requirements

PAST DUE	WEEK												
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13			
	—	—	600	—	—	800	—	—	400	—	—	—	

END ITEM MASTER SCHEDULE

Lead Time 4 Weeks

	PAST DUE	WEEK												
		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13			
Projected Usage		—	—	600	—	—	800	—	—	400	—	—		
On Hand		900	900	300	300	300								
Scheduled Receipts		—	—	—	—	—	500	—	—	400	—	—		
Planned Order Release		—	500	—	—	400	—	—	—	—	—	—		

COMPONENTS MATERIALS PLAN

A representative time series materials plan is shown in Figure 2. In this case, a forecast of requirements is used to generate a master schedule for the end item. Using the bill of materials for the end item, this usage is then projected against the component in the corresponding time period when the inventory record for the component is referenced and

an inventory balance is calculated. In week #8, the requirement of 800 will decrease the component inventory balance to 300; in week #9, the requirement of 500 with only 300 units on hand will generate a "scheduled receipt" of 500. This will then result in a planned order release of 500 in week #5 since the lead time for this component is 4 weeks and the same procedure will result in a planned order release of 400 in week #8 to cover the requirement in week #12.

This is a fairly standard approach which has been implemented in many companies using the computer. The example shown is elementary. Obviously, many components go into more than one end item and, in that case, the requirements for each end item are reflected in the projected usage for common components. Any requirements for service parts can also reflect in the materials plan. If the component used as an example has a projected usage of 50 pieces per week for service or repair parts, this could be added into the projected usage before the inventory balance and planned order releases were calculated. Lot sizes could be pre-calculated using the economic ordering quantity formula but where these usages tend to be discrete, it is often more practical to use the time series order quantity calculation. In this calculation, the lot sizing is done by testing to see if it is economical to combine planned order releases in order to save setups. For example, if a unit cost for the component, a weekly inventory cost, and a setup cost were provided, it would be straightforward to determine the economics of combining the planned order release for week #5 and week #8. This would result in saving one setup, but it would result in carrying 400 units in inventory for an extra three weeks. This calculation offers some significant advantages over the square root EOQ formula when calculating lot sizes for components since it tends to generate lot sizes that match assembly requirements much more closely.

Materials planning is simply a computerized approach to the requirements planning that used to be done on manually posted ledger cards. With ledger cards, it was difficult to plan requirements for a specific time period, accumulate requirements for common usage items, and recalculate these requirements as they changed. In fact, in most manual systems, this recalculation of requirements was the real stumbling block. When trying to bring all of the components together to assemble a finished product, it is essential to be able to re-explode and calculate requirements frequently as the end item forecast changes.

When punched cards were first used for materials planning, it was common to explode the end items down into subassembly requirements, post these "gross requirements" manually against a ledger card inventory balance for the subassemblies, and subtract the inventory balance to get "net requirements". These were then punched into another deck of cards representing the subassembly bills of material and exploded to get gross requirements for subassembly components. This procedure was awkward and time consuming and later inventory records were kept by

the computer too so that gross requirements at each "level" could be referenced to the computerized inventory records directly with no manual intervention. With later, more powerful computers and direct access storage, it became possible to break these requirements down into fairly fine time periods to show requirements in weekly "buckets" and to recalculate these requirements as often as weekly. Today, for example, a materials plan that uses monthly planning periods and is only recalculated monthly is considered very crude.

There are basically two approaches to materials planning using the computer. One of them is a periodic recalculation or "regeneration" approach while the other technique is called "net change." The regeneration approach requires that a new schedule be completely reexploded and requirements replanned on a periodic basis, usually once a week. Some companies have found that even a weekly recalculation of requirements is not sensitive enough to changes in demand, and they have thus adopted the "net change" approach. The net change technique is designed to accept any schedule change on any end item at any time and to explode only this change down through the various levels of product structure to determine how it will affect component schedules. In a net change system, the computer will then generate an exception report indicating where a component schedule needs to be adjusted to meet the changed requirement.

It seems apparent, then, that materials planning techniques can be far more effective for dependent demand items than order point techniques. Actually, this is not a new conclusion. John Magee noted some years ago, "It has been found that if finished item demand is exploded into components and . . . totalled over all finished items containing the component, many control benefits can result."² Dr. Joseph A. Orlicky, Manufacturing Industry Consultant for the IBM Corporation, originally developed the independent/dependent demand concept suggesting that when items are independent, such as finished goods items (where the demand of each item is unrelated to the demand for other items), it is necessary to forecast using techniques like exponential smoothing. Where demand is dependent (related to demand for other items), this demand should be calculated through a bill of materials explosion. He has further recommended, "Do not forecast demand when it can be calculated". Experience has shown that this is sound counsel. One possible exception is the low value common use item that may well be reordered using an order point system because it is cheaper to carry excess inventory than to use computer time to recalculate requirements.

CHOOSING THE RIGHT TECHNIQUE

Since the order point approaches are well-known and accepted in the field of production and inventory control, and materials planning has really only been introduced since the advent of the business computer,

there are many common objections to the use of materials planning. Some of these are quoted and explained below:

Objection #1— "Our experience has shown that an order point system is as good as a materials planning system for controlling component inventories."

This statement is only valid when a manual order point system is being compared with a manual materials planning system. With manual materials planning systems, the material plan can only be recalculated infrequently—in many companies, only once a quarter—and under these circumstances, an order point system could even be a slight improvement! With a modern computer system where requirements can be recalculated weekly (or even more often) and spread out in weekly time periods, company after company has found materials planning superior.

Objection #2— "In order to give good customer service we need to use an order point system in order to have all components on hand when they are needed."

One can only conclude that those who expect statistical order points to keep components on hand have forgotten some fairly basic statistics! Most practitioners recognize that 100% service is seldom economical or attainable and, as was pointed out in the examples above, even a simple product requiring only 10 components would have only a 56% chance of all 10 of those being available at any random moment if each of the individual items had a 95% chance of being available. This type of system is doomed to fall back on expediting to get any semblance of results.

Objection #3— "Floating order points on each component should enable us to react quickly to changes in demand."

Reaction to changes in demand could be handled much more effectively by forecasting at the end item or subassembly level. Consider, for example, an end item with a usage of 100 units per week and an order quantity of 500 units. Normally, a reorder would be placed every 5 weeks. If demand suddenly increased to 120 units per week, reorders would be placed every 4 weeks. Using exponential smoothing for this component, the system would have to recognize the increased frequency of demand, smooth it, increase the order point, and then reorder. The lag time tends to be extremely long. Using a materials planning system, if the end item exponential smoothing forecast increased from 100 to 120, this would then be reflected in the master schedule, exploded down through the bill of materials, then reflected in the projected component usage and planned order releases would be rescheduled. Note that the order point system must detect increased component demand, adjust to it, and then reorder while the materials planning system can project this increased requirement ahead of time.

Objection #4 - "We know we must protect against forecast error with safety stocks, so we use order points."

There is no reason why safety stocks cannot be used with materials planning. In Figure 2, if reserve stock had been set at 200 units, the scheduled receipt for week #9 would need to be 700 units rather than 500. Where there are common components that go into many end items, it is important to remember not to add all the forecast errors for all end items together when setting reserve stocks. Figure 3 shows an example based on a company that custom assembles electric motors. Their weekly forecast calls for 5000 Type "A" motors and on any one of the five different motors in this family they would like to be prepared to make 1500 units. Any component unique to motor "A" would require a 500 unit reserve stock, but any component used on all Type "A" motors should have less reserve stock than the sum of the forecast error or 2500 since it is highly unlikely that all motors would have their maximum demand in any one week. As illustrated only 1100 units reserve stock would be required for any component that is common to all "A" type motors. Obviously, as with order point systems, careful analysis is needed to determine optimum reserve stocks.

One more caution: since this reserve stock will now be exploded down through the bills of material, no reserve stock is needed on lower levels of inventory unless they have outside demands such as service stock.

Figure 3. Reserve Stocks For Common Components

	FORECAST	FORECAST ERROR
Motor A1	1000	±500
Motor A2	"	"
Motor A3	"	"
Motor A4	"	"
Motor A5	"	"
Total	5000 units	-2500 units

Forecast error, all type "A" motors = 1100 units

Objection #5 - "We have to use order points because we have so many possible combinations of components that it is impossible to forecast end item requirements."

This is usually a symptom of a problem in bill of materials structure. This problem occurs and is readily recognized in the automobile industry. It would be impossible to maintain a bill of materials for each of the possible configurations of automobiles, much less forecast them. As a result, it becomes necessary from a bill of materials structuring point of view to consider major assemblies like end items. While it would be extremely difficult to forecast the number of convertibles of a particular color that would have automatic transmissions, etc., it is possible, for example, to forecast the total number of cars, the percentage that will be a particular color, the percentage of these that will be convertibles, and the percentage that will have automatic transmissions, etc. This same problem exists in many other industries but is often not recognized. Wherever common building blocks are put together, the practitioner with good knowledge of his product structure can usually restructure his bills of material to facilitate forecasting.

Objection #6 - "We don't have time to get our bills of material straightened out so we're going to put in an order point system to get inventory under control quickly."

This can only be a stopgap. Even if order points must, for lack of proper bills of material, or lack of available computer time, be used on components temporarily, it is strongly recommended that in addition to these order points, an assembly or a matrix bill of materials² be used to project assembly requirements periodically, at the very least monthly, to assist in expediting the right parts through. If a computer is available, this same amount of effort put into organizing bills of material properly, product group by product group, and developing a materials planning system would generate far better, more lasting results.

Objection #7 - "There is no computer time available for materials planning in our company."

This objection is sometimes heard from people who do not have a computer; many companies that don't have computers today do their materials planning periodically with someone else's computer or at a service bureau. More often, this objection comes from someone who already has a computer in house that already is being used for many other things so that no time is available. If a larger computer is not immediately available, it would probably be profitable to send the payroll out to a service bureau and to use the computer to get the inventory under control.

Order point techniques have been given a great deal of attention in inventory control literature because they demonstrate the application of mathematics and statistical concepts, while the mechanics and applications of materials planning techniques and bill of materials structuring tend to be ignored by most colleges today because the subject is considered too "vocational". As T. M. Whitin, one of today's leading inventory theoreticians, put it so appropriately, "an increasing number of individuals are working with inventory models because they present interesting theoretical problems in mathematics . . . practical application is not a major objective, although . . . their theoretical work may be helpful in practice at some future time."¹ This is fine; we need pure research, but the fact that the literature emphasizes order point techniques should not be misconstrued: this simply means that they are most interesting from an academic point of view. The business manager's criterion is different: he must ask, "In this application, which technique will enable me to manage inventories better?"

Those who are considering using so called scientific inventory management techniques should consider the principles of statistics before applying statistical techniques arbitrarily. Statistical order point theory almost always assumes:

1. Relatively uniform average demand.
2. Gradual depletion of inventory.
3. A "Normal" distribution of forecast errors.
4. That it is desirable to have inventory on hand at all times.
5. Statistical independence of demands.

These assumptions are valid for those items which have *independent* demand, but not those having *dependent* demand. The independent/dependent demand concept is a sound guideline for application of re-ordering techniques; where demand is *independent* (unrelated to demand for other items), it must be forecast; where it is *dependent* (related to other items), it can be calculated. Finished goods or service parts are independent demand items while components, semi-finished items or raw materials are dependent demand items.

The practical application of the statistical approach to order points is one of the greatest advances that has been made in inventory management in the last few years. When implemented properly, where it really applies, dramatic improvements can result, but too many practitioners espouse either order points or materials planning. The professional approach to inventory management requires that we understand all of the techniques that are available to us, that we understand where they do and don't work well and that we use the techniques that will work best in each application.

FOOTNOTES

¹ See C. W. Plossl, O. W. Wight, *Production and Inventory Control: Principles and Techniques*, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967, Pg. 145-147.

² *Production Planning & Inventory Control*, J. F. Magee, McGraw-Hill, 1958, Pg. 90.

³ This term is used here according to its definition in the APICS Dictionary: Bills of material for groups of products and families having common components that are arranged in a matrix so that all requirements for common components can be readily totaled. Synonym: explosion sheet.

⁴ *Analysis of Inventory Systems*, C. Hadley, T. M. Whitin, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963, Preface.

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- (1) Plossl, C. W. and Wight, O. W., *Production and Inventory Control: Principles and Techniques*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.
 - (2) *MOS Inventory Management and Materials Planning Detail*, E20-0050. White Plains, N.Y.: IBM Data Processing Division.
 - (3) *The Production Information and Control System*, E20-0280. White Plains, N.Y.: IBM Data Processing Division.
- * The forthcoming APICS Handbook will cover Materials Planning in detail.

This article reprinted from *Production and Inventory Management*, the journal of the American production and Inventory Control Society, 3rd Quarter 1968 pp. 13-28.

APICS Certification Program Study Guide MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING

By the Material Requirements Planning Subcommittee
APICS Curriculum and Certification Program Council

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this Study Guide is to assist the candidate in his preparation for taking the Material Requirements Planning examination. The subject is broken down into ten topics so as to conform with the ten sessions of a review course recommended for Chapter education programs. While the Study Guide is designed to be consistent with, and to complement, the review course, it can also be used for individual preparation and study in the absence of such a course.

This Study Guide is made up of the following sections:

- Description of the subject
- About the exam
- Ten sample questions
- How to use the Study Guide
- Listing of topics and sub-topics
- Correct answers to sample questions
- MRP Bibliography
- MRP film listing

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING

MRP, or time-phased material requirements planning, is a set of techniques that evolved from an approach to inventory management in which the following two principles are combined:

1. Calculation (vs. forecast) of dependent demand for component items
2. Time-phasing; i.e., adding the dimension of timing to inventory status data

The term "component item" under MRP covers all inventory items below the product or end-item level, including subassemblies, piece parts, semifinished parts, and raw materials. Requirements for end items are stated in the master production schedule and are arrived at through forecasting, customer orders, field warehouse requirements, interplant orders, etc. Requirements for all of their component items, and their timing, are derived from this schedule by MRP.

MRP is normally implemented via a computer-based system, because of

the large amount of data handling that MRP entails. The prime input to an MRP system is the master production schedule. The overall output is termed a material requirements plan. Principal outputs are, specifically, order action (release or cancel), rescheduling of open orders (advance or defer due date), and planned (future) order releases.

Originally conceived as an approach to inventory control, MRP has been found to provide also other functions (to offer other types of use), principally priority planning and capacity requirements planning. In a manufacturing company that has inventory items with dependent demand and orders with dependent priorities, MRP represents the only sound system foundation. Other systems; e.g., scheduling, dispatching, shop floor control, and purchasing, merely execute the material requirements plan; i.e., MRP output.

ABOUT THE EXAM

The examination consists of a written test administered within a three-hour time limit. The format used is that of questions with multiple-choice answers. One hundred twenty-five items make up the exam, each item consisting of a question (or statement) plus four choices of an answer. These choices are always coded A, B, C, and D. One, and only one, represents the correct answer. The other three, called "distracters," are worded so as to appear equally attractive to someone who guesses.

All of the exam items have been developed based on a topical outline reproduced in this Study Guide. Each of the ten topics listed is broken down into a number of sub-topics, also listed. An exam item always pertains to a specific sub-topic. A sub-topic may be tested by one or more exam items, but every sub-topic does not necessarily have a counterpart exam item included in the test, which is designed merely to sample the candidate's total knowledge of the subject.

Because terminology and methods of representation within the area of Material Requirements Planning are not completely standardized, the following information is being provided to familiarize the candidate with terms and graphic conventions used in the exam.

Charts

Product structure (bill of material) relationships are being represented (Figure 1) as follows, with assembly part numbers having alphabetic, single-part and raw material numbers having numeric designations. Levels are numbered from top to bottom, starting with level zero. The quantity of component per assembly is assumed to be one (1) unless shown otherwise.

The time-phased inventory record used by an MRP system is represented, throughout the exam, in the format shown in Figure 2.

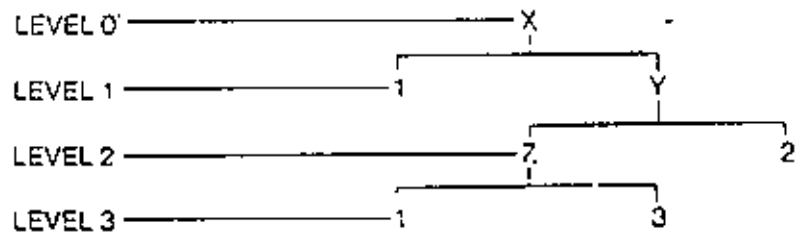


Figure 1

	PERIOD							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Requirements								
Scheduled Receipts								
On Hand								
Planned Order Releases								

Figure 2

Terminology

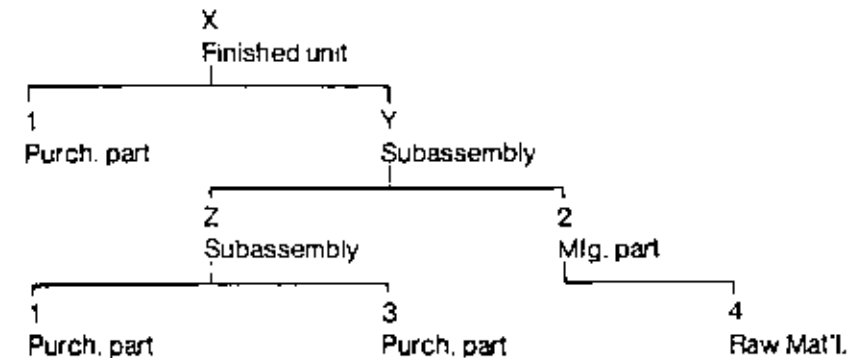
The language of the exam contains the following terms, sometimes used interchangeably, as shown:

- Bill of material processor, also bill processor
- Capacity requirements plan, also capacity requirements, load report
- Component item, also component part, component
- Date of need, also need date
- Inventory item, also item, part
- Item master (file), also inventory record, inventory (file)
- Master production schedule, also master schedule
- Material requirements planning, also MRP
- Planned order release, also planned order
- Product structure, also bill of material
- Releasing an order, also placing an order
- Requirements, also material requirements, gross requirements
- Scheduled receipts, also open orders, quantity on order
- Time period, also time bucket, bucket

SAMPLE QUESTIONS

Following are ten questions representative of the contents and format of the exam. These questions are "real" in the sense that they have been drawn from the set developed for potential inclusion in the exam. Because they are used as a sample, however, they will not be repeated in the actual exam. Correct answers with explanations are provided in a later section of this guide.

Sample Question #1.



In the example of a product structure shown, which items are considered parent items?

- (A) X only
 (B) X, Y, and Z only
 (C) X, Y, Z, and 2 only
 (D) X, Y, Z, 1, and 2 only

Sample Question #2

Which of the following is(are) among the uses of *planned orders* in an MRP system?

- I. They may be used to project capacity requirements.
- II. They are used to generate material requirements at the next lower level.

- (A) I only
 (B) II only
 (C) Both I and II
 (D) Neither I nor II

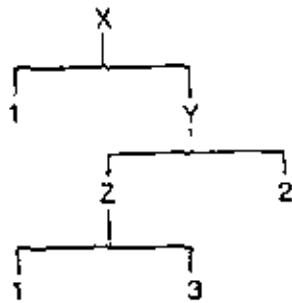
Sample Question #3

A typical capacity planning report based on orders generated by MRP has which of the following characteristics?

- I. Load is leveled within available capacity.
- II. Load reflects both existing and future shop orders.

- (A) I only
 (B) II only
 (C) Both I and II
 (D) Neither I nor II

Question #4



For the product structure diagrammed, which of the following items could be subject to independent demand?

- I. Items 1, 2, 3, Y, and Z.
- II. Item X.

- (A) I only
- (B) II only
- (C) Both I and II
- (D) Neither I nor II

Question #5

The daily shop dispatch list will tend to rank jobs in incorrect priority sequence when

- (A) "C" items are excluded from the MRP system
- (B) the MRP system is based on inflated lead times
- (C) actual lead times vary from those used by the MRP system
- (D) the capacity planning system is not integrated with the MRP system

Sample Question #6

If a company eliminated all order points and substituted MRP, but they set the planning horizon too short. Which of the following results can be expected?

- I. Orders for components tend to get released too early.
- II. The usefulness of the load report is impaired.

- (A) I only
- (B) II only
- (C) Both I and II
- (D) Neither I nor II

Sample Question #7

The MRP output that shows the source of the requirements for an item is called

- (A) a priority report
- (B) an input-output report
- (C) a master schedule report
- (D) a pegged requirements report

Sample Question #8

With Time-Phased Order Point, which of the following values must be pre-calculated before the system can function?

- I. The Order Point quantity itself
- II. The demand during lead time

- (A) I only
- (B) II only
- (C) Both I and II
- (D) Neither I nor II

Sample Question #9

If the Master Schedule is overstated, which of the following can be expected to result?

- (A) The MRP system outputs will not be consistent with the Master Schedule.
- (B) Large, unexpected sales orders can be shipped with less expediting.
- (C) Shop order priorities will become meaningless.
- (D) Forecast error due to product mix will be absorbed by excess inventory.

Sample Question #10

An MRP system may be ineffective in reducing the need for expediting and hot lists for which of the following reasons?

- I. The system does not call for changes to released purchase and shop order due dates.
- II. The system has safety lead times which vary by inventory classification (1 week for "A" items, 2 weeks for "B" items, 3 weeks for "C" items).

- (A) I only
- (B) II only
- (C) Both I and II
- (D) Neither I nor II

HOW TO USE THIS STUDY GUIDE

The key to the preparation for the exam is the list of topics and sub-topics, along with the recommended study material. The candidate should review each sub-topic listed under a given topic, and read the referenced bibliographical material. Viewing the film(s) referenced to each of the topics will help to consolidate the knowledge.

The study material is the following:

1. MRP Bibliography, November 1972 revision (see page 20)

2. Recommended reading list

<i>MRP Bibl. #</i>	<i>Title</i>
1	MRP by Computer
4	Structuring the Bill of Material
6	Master Scheduling
14	Net Change MRP
15	MRP Systems
17	MRP & Inventory Record Accuracy
25	Time Phasing

3. MRP film series (listed in bibliography)

4. APICS Dictionary, 3rd edition

For purposes of study, the subject of material requirements planning is broken down into the following ten topics:

- Introduction to MRP
- Fundamental MRP system functions
- Design characteristics of MRP systems
- MRP and the master schedule
- Bill of material structure
- Priority planning through MRP
- MRP outputs and their use
- Making MRP work
- MRP: regeneration vs. net change
- MRP systems implementation

LISTING OF TOPICS AND SUB-TOPICS

1. INTRODUCTION TO MRP

Definitions and terminology

Understand the meaning of such terms as: lot sizing, planned orders, time periods, buckets, regeneration, time-phasing, priority, lead time offset.

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp.23-36

MRP vs. order point

What are the key characteristics of these two alternative systems of inventory management?

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp.3, 4, 7, 17

Film #2

Dependent and independent demand

Understand the difference between these two types of demand.

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 4,5

Film #2

Parent items and components

What is the relationship between such inventory items?

Ref: Bibl. #4, p. 5

Lumpy demand

What causes lumpy demand for a component item?

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 7, 39

Film #2

Time-phasing

What is the meaning of time-phasing as used in an MRP system and how is the data displayed?

Ref: Bibl. #15, p. 27

Inputs to MRP

What are the basic files required for an MRP system?

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 46, 47

The time-phased record

Understand the format and function of this record.

Ref: Bibl. #15, p. 25

Requirements explosion

Define. Understand the function of the explosion.

Ref: Bibl. #1, p. 4

Gross and net
What is the difference between a gross and a net requirement?
Ref: Bibl. #15, p. 25

Lead time offset
How is lead time offset in an MRP system and why?
Ref: Bibl. #15, p. 25

Bill of Material Processors
What are the major functions of a Bill of Material Processor?
Ref: Film #5
Bill of Material Processor Manual (available from IBM) Form #GH20-0197

FUNDAMENTAL MRP SYSTEM FUNCTIONS

Inventory item relationships
What is the relationship between inventory items found in a manufacturing company and how does MRP handle them?
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 37-39

Records and transactions
Understand the fields and headings in the standard MRP time-phased inventory record and be prepared to show how various transactions affect that record.
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 25-28, 36, 38

Feedback from shop and purchasing
What types of feedback from the shop floor and purchasing are important to MRP and why?
Ref: Bibl. #1, #15, #17
Films #3, #6

Allocation
Also referred to as an "uncashed requisition," what does that mean? What is its purpose?
Ref: Bibl. #1 (p. 35), #14, #15 (p. 47)

Planned and actual lead time
What is the difference? Which one is used by the MRP system?
Ref: Films #1, #3

Low-level coding
What does it mean and what is its purpose?
Ref: Bibl. #1, p. 5

Safety stock
How should safety stocks be handled in an MRP system?
Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 31-34), #15 (pp. 32-36)
Film #8

Lot sizing
Familiarize yourself with the names and workings of the various lot sizing techniques that can be used with MRP.
Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 30, 31), #2, #9, #15 (pp. 29-32)

Service parts and MRP
How are service parts that are also used in current production dealt with in an MRP system?
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 20, 26, 36, 37

Time-phased order point
How does the MRP system express an order point in a time phased format?
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 37-39
Film #1

MRP applicability
Where is MRP applicable, in what types of companies and to what types of products?
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 23-28, 37-39
Films #1, #5, #10

Functions of MRP
The three principal functions of an MRP system.
Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 26, 28, 53
Films #1, #7

3. DESIGN CHARACTERISTICS OF MRP SYSTEMS

Level by level processing
What is it and why is it necessary in an MRP system?
Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 4, 5), #4 (pp. 5, 45)

Quick deck
What is the quick deck method of MRP and what are its shortcomings?
Ref: Film #7

ABC classification, and coverage by MRP

Should A's, B's, and C's, be covered by an MRP system and what are the considerations in making such a decision?

Ref: Bibl. #1, p. 19
Film #7

Planning horizon

What is the minimum acceptable length of the planning horizon and why is it important?

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 43-44
Film #7

Time bucket size

What are the considerations in determining time bucket size?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 5, 22), #15 (p. 28)
Film #7

Frequency of replanning

How often should replanning take place to be effective and why?

Ref: Bibl. #14, #15
Film #7

MRP system effectiveness checklist

What are the key capabilities of a good MRP system?

Ref: Film #7

MRP AND THE MASTER SCHEDULE

Definition of master schedule

Describe this schedule, its format and contents.

End items

Define these items. What the master schedule does and does not include, how the information is displayed and used.

Master schedule and final assembly schedule

What are the differences between these schedules? When are they the same?

Length of planning horizon

How far out into the future should the planning horizon extend?

Developing the master schedule

How is a master schedule put together? The role of the forecast.

Unrealistic master schedule

What are the consequences?

Integrity of priorities

What is the difference between the concepts of validity of priorities and integrity of priorities? Which is related to the master schedule?

Pegged requirements

Definition and mechanics of pegging. What is the use of pegged requirements in MRP?

Customer delivery promises

How can the master schedule be used for making delivery commitments?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 21-23, 35, 36), #6, #15 (pp. 43-46)
Films #4, #10

5. BILL OF MATERIAL STRUCTURE

Function of bill in an MRP system

How is the bill used? Why is it important with MRP and not with order point?

Bill of material format

What are the standard formats for displaying bill of material data?

Bill of material checklist

What are the uses of a bill?

Item identity assignment

When must unique part numbers be assigned?

Product options

What kind of problems do they represent in an MRP environment?

Modular bills

What are they and when are they necessary?

Modularization procedure

Describe the steps involved

Pseudo-bills of material

What are they and what is their purpose?

Phantom bills

What are they? What is the reason for their use?

Common versus unique parts

Define. Which represents a problem in structuring the bill?

Ref: Bibl. #4

Film #5

PRIORITY PLANNING THROUGH MRP

Due date and date of need

Define. Why can they be different? How are they used?

Characteristics of priority systems

What should a priority system communicate? Define relative priorities.

Order priorities and operation priorities

What are the differences and uses?

MRP can keep priorities up to date

What priorities, and how does the system do it?

Dependent priorities

Vertical and horizontal dependency. How is MRP used to realign priorities?

Priority planning vs. priority control

Define the difference. Which one is done by MRP?

Complexity of priority problem, by type of company

The four types of companies that have priority problems of different complexity

Ref: Bibl. #15, #25

Films #3, #7

MRP OUTPUTS AND THEIR USE

Categories of outputs

What are these categories, and what are the specific outputs used for?

Inventory ordering

How does the system trigger order releases?

Rescheduling open orders

How does the system determine that an order should be rescheduled?

Priority control

What data generated by MRP is used for priority control?

Trial fit

Define. How is an MRP system used for this function?

MRP outputs for capacity requirements planning

What data generated by MRP is used in capacity requirements planning?

Load report

What are the three characteristics of a good load report? What does MRP contribute here?

Performance control

What measures are used to track system effectiveness?

Functions of an MRP system

What does MRP do? Where does it fit in with the overall manufacturing control system?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 11-18, 33-34), #15, #25

Film #10

8. MAKING MRP WORK

Inventory accuracy

Why is inventory accuracy important to the success of an MRP system?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 26, 27), #17 (pp. 1, 2)

Films #6, #11

Physical inventory control

What must be done physically in a plant to insure inventory accuracy?

Ref: Bibl. #17

Film #6

Check digits

How does the check digit work and what are other techniques used to insure accuracy?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 26, 27), #17 (p. 5)

Film #6

cycle counting
Why is cycle counting advantageous and what are some approaches to

Ref: Bibl. #17
Film #6

Keys to success in an MRP system
What are they and why is each one important?

Ref: Bibl. #15, pp. 40-54
Film #11

System responsiveness
How frequently should replanning take place to insure an acceptable level of responsiveness to changes?

Ref: Bibl. #14, #15, p. 28
Films #7, #9

Safety stock and safety lead time
What effect do they have on MRP in general, and priority planning in particular?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (pp. 9, 10, 31-33), #15 (pp. 32-36)

User responsibility
What are the MRP user's responsibilities?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (p. 25), #15 (p. 52)
Film #11

MRP REGENERATION VS. NET CHANGE

Schedule regeneration
Define. What are the mechanics of regeneration? How many phases of regeneration are there in a regenerative system?

Status data
What is the difference between inventory data and requirements data?

Frequency of replanning
How frequently is it practical to replan with a regenerative system? Why?

Partial explosion by net change system
Define partial explosion. When does it take place?

Master schedule and net change systems
What is input to the MRP system under the regenerative and the net change approach?

The principle of item record balance
Describe this principle. What effect does it have on the processing method?

The principle of inter-level equilibrium
What is it? How is equilibrium between parent and component established, maintained, verified?

Phases of operation
How many phases of operation are there in a net change system? Specify.

Allocation
Define. Is it necessary under net change?

Performance control
What kind of data for performance control does a net change system provide? How are these data generated?

Requirements alteration
Define. How does it differ from net change? Can an MRP system be operated permanently in a requirements alteration mode?

Ref: Bibl. #14
Film #9

10. MRP SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation phases
What are the key phases in MRP implementation?
Ref: Bibl. #1, pp. 23-25
Film #8

Study
What should a study prior to starting MRP implementation accomplish?
Ref: Film #8

Project team
Who should be on a project team which is assigned to implement MRP and who should lead this team?
Ref: Bibl. #15, p. 52
Film #8

System design

What are the key items to consider in the design phase of an MRP system?

Ref: Film #8

Programming and testing

What can be a valuable aid in speeding up programming and testing of an MRP system?

Ref: Bibl. #1, pp. 36-38

Film #8

Supporting procedures

What procedures must be established to support an MRP system?

Ref: Film #8

Education

What must be considered in a user education program and in conversion planning?

Ref: Film #8

Conversion methods

What are three approaches to conversion and the plusses and minuses associated with each?

Ref: Bibl. #1 (p. 25), #15 (p. 25)

Film #8

The pilot system

What type of manufacturing environments will be most suitable or least suitable for the use of this method?

Ref: Film #8

Checklists

Understand the checklist of items which can evaluate the operation of your system.

Ref: Film #8

This article reprinted from Production and Inventory Management, the journal of the American Production and Inventory Control Society, 3rd Quarter 1973 pp. 1-21.

CORRECT ANSWERS TO SAMPLE QUESTIONS

Question #1

(C) is the correct answer. (A) and (B) are incorrect because they exclude item 2, a manufactured part that is the parent of raw material item 4. (D) is incorrect because it includes item 1, a purchased part that is not the parent of any component.

Ref: Bibl. #12, p. 90

#15 pp. 24, 25

Film #5

Question #2

(C) is the correct answer. For purposes of load calculation, planned orders may be added to orders already released, so as to obtain a more complete picture of future load. Planned orders of a parent item are used by the MRP system to determine gross requirements for its component items.

Ref: Bibliography #12, pp. 49, 65

#15, pp. 25, 26, 36

Films #1, #7

Question #3

(B) is the correct answer. MRP doesn't schedule operations and doesn't use any capacity data in performing its functions. Load leveling, if done at all, would be done by another system. Because an MRP system contains information on planned (future) orders as well as open (existing) orders, an MRP user will typically take advantage of this and include both in the load calculation.

Ref: Bibliography #11 (pp. 5, 8), #15 (p. 26), #25 (p. 56)

Films #1, #3, #7, #10

Question #4

(C) is the correct answer. Independent demand, such as service part requirements, may arise for any component of assemblies X, Y, and Z.

Ref: Bibliography #3 (p. 129), #12 (pp. 29, 30), #15 (pp. 4, 5)

Question #5

(A) is the correct answer. When manufactured parts in the "C" item category are excluded, the due dates on at least some of their orders will become invalid, without possibility of correction by the system. Because they will then be incorrectly ranked on the dispatch list, the entire ranking by relative priority will become invalid.

(B) is incorrect because the fact that lead times are inflated will not invalidate the priority sequence. Priorities are based on need dates and these remain valid. (C) is incorrect because, even though actual lead times may vary, as long as the correct need date is maintained the priority sequence is

correct. (D) is incorrect because the maintenance of valid priorities (based on due dates) has nothing to do with capacities or capacity planning systems.

Ref: Bibliography #12, pp. 73-76
Films #3, #7

Question #6

(B) is the correct answer. Orders for components will, if anything, tend to be released late rather than early. But there is not sufficient visibility into the future due to the short horizon, and this will reflect itself in the load report also. The usefulness of a load report depends, among other things, on being able to anticipate capacity problems far enough into the future so that there is time to take corrective action.

Ref: Bibliography #11, pp. 6-8.

Question #7

(D) is the correct answer. Pegging requirements means retaining information in the system on the sources of demand for a given item. This permits a requirement to be traced from component to parent, up the product structure, perhaps all the way to the master schedule. Answers (A), (B), and (C) are incorrect because the reports in question have purposes different from the one just described.

Ref: Bibliography #1 (p. 35), #12 (pp. 90-99), #15 (p. 36)

Question #8

(D) is the correct answer. With the time-phased order point, it is only necessary to input the forecast demand, by period, and the quantity of safety stock. The MRP logic takes it from there and arrives at the correct order point automatically. Because the order point itself need not be precalculated, neither does demand during lead time, which otherwise would be calculated in order to arrive at the order point value.

Ref: Bibliography #12 (p. 79), #15 (pp. 37, 38, 39)

Question #9

(C) is the correct answer. While the priorities will be valid, they will be meaningless for all practical purposes, because everything will tend to run behind schedule, with high priority.

(A) is incorrect because MRP outputs are always consistent with the master schedule, regardless of capacity. (B) is incorrect, in fact, the reverse will probably be the case due to overloads, the need to establish special priorities for the order, and reduced flexibility to react to the unexpected order. (D) is incorrect as there is no assurance of this at all. Excess inventory there will be, but not in matched sets required to build any product.

Ref: Bibliography #11, p. 6

Films #3, #4, #11

Question #10

(C) is the correct answer. If the system does not call for changes in open order due dates, some of these will become invalid. This will increase the need for expediting and hot-lists, to establish which orders are really needed. The same is true of a system that uses safety lead times. Shop personnel will soon learn that the due dates do not necessarily represent dates of real need, and will tend to rely on expeditors to tell them what the real needs are.

Ref: Bibliography #12, p. 64

Film #3

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*These items are available from the APICS National office as a bound volume and are titled *PICS Material Requirements Planning Reprints*.

MRP FILM LISTING

"Material Requirements Planning Systems," an educational film series, sponsored by IBM.

Film Number	Film Title and Speaker
1	WHY MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING? Oliver W. Wight and Joseph A. Orlicky
2	DEPENDENT DEMAND & ORDER POINT INVENTORY CONTROL Joseph A. Orlicky
3	MRP & SHOP PRIORITIES Oliver W. Wight, interviewed by Bruce L. Hollander
4	MRP & THE MASTER SCHEDULE Romeyn Everdell, interviewed by Robert M. Haddox
5	MRP & BILL OF MATERIAL STRUCTURE George W. Plossl, interviewed by Richard P. Chynoweth
6	MRP & INVENTORY RECORD ACCURACY George W. Plossl
7	WILL THE REAL MRP SYSTEM PLEASE STAND UP Joseph A. Orlicky
8	MRP IMPLEMENTATION CONSIDERATIONS Walter E. Goddard, interviewed by Thomas P. Putnam
9	NET CHANGE MRP Joseph A. Orlicky, interviewed by Paul J. Rosa
10	MRP OUTPUTS & HOW TO USE THEM L. James Buringame, interviewed by Robert E. Downhill
11	DIAGNOSING THE SICK MRP SYSTEM Oliver W. Wight

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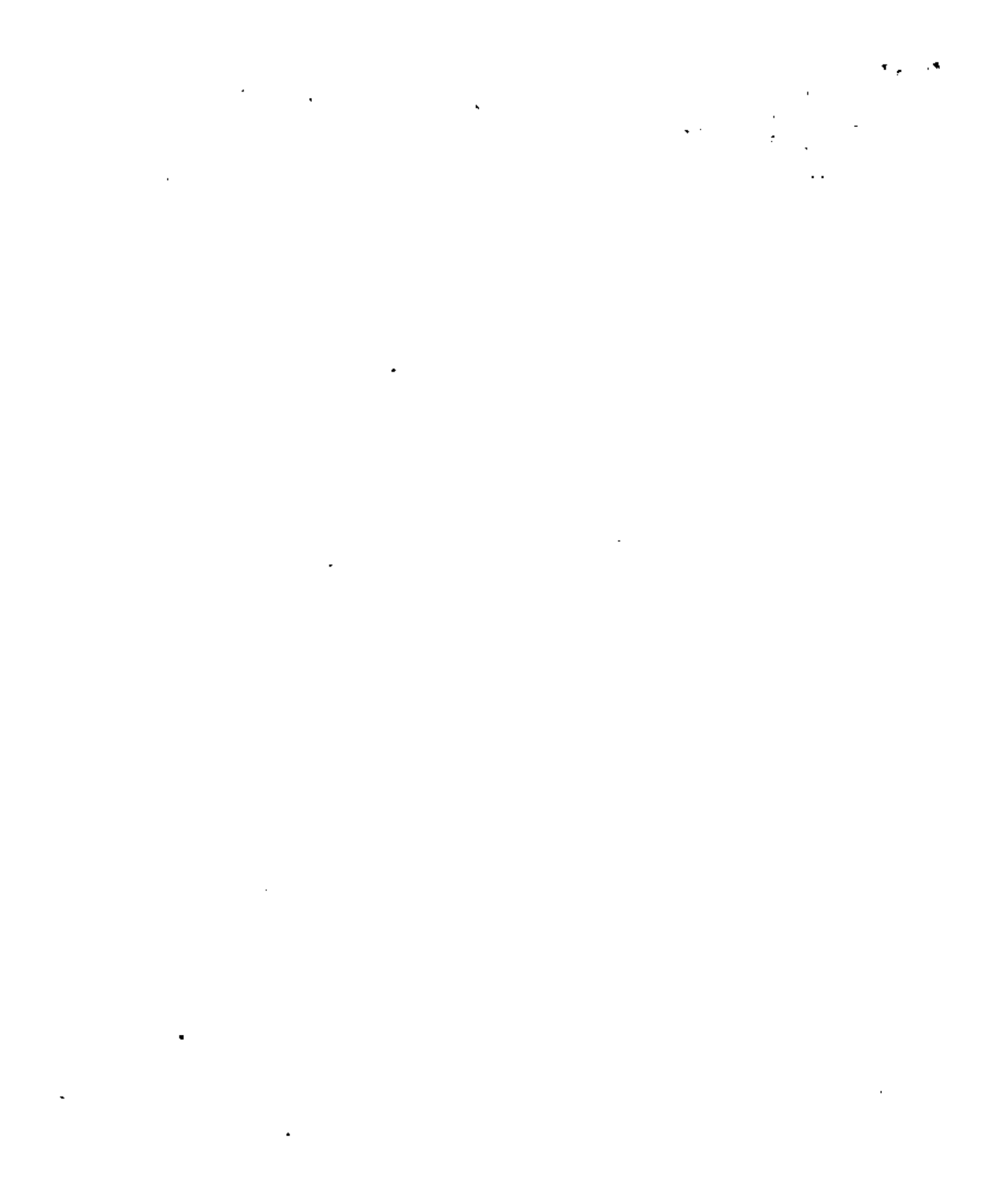
centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



SEMINARIO SOBRE PLANEACION DE REQUERIMIENTOS
DE MATERIALES

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLANNING BY COMPUTER

SEPTIEMBRE, 1978.



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I. The Workshop and its Participants

Introduction

One of the most difficult problems facing business managers today is the challenge of learning from the experience of others. This can at least avoid repeating others' mistakes and, at best, can save months of work in achieving results; particularly in the field of inventory and production management, where developments have been rapid and the "body of knowledge" is increasing at an almost explosive rate.

A willingness to exchange information on management and technical subjects has been characteristic of American business. Hence the popularity and success of seminars, conferences and workshops conducted by technical societies, trade associations and others. Much of APICS' success in assisting practitioners in the field has been achieved thru gatherings of those who are doing something well and those who want to find out how to do something better in their companies. Of necessity, these sessions are intended for large audiences with varied backgrounds and different interests, cover a wide range of subjects and can give in-depth coverage to only the most basic techniques.

Because of the great interest in "Material Requirements Planning" and the major improvements yielded by its successful application, a two and one-half day workshop was organized to bring together representatives of some of the companies now successfully using the technique and those sufficiently advanced in implementing new computer programs to have met and solved most of the problems of designing a sound system.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This Special Report was prepared and edited by two men well-known to APICS, George W. Plossl and Oliver W. Wight. They have been active as members and as chapter and national officers for many years.

Their writings, individually and combined, are familiar to readers of APICS *Production and Inventory Management Journal* and cover a wide variety of subjects in our field. They have talked, alone and together, at almost every Chapter in the continental United States including several abroad, and have contributed their efforts at APICS' chapter, regional and national conferences.

Oliver Wight edited the Society's first Seminar Chairman's Guide and the Dictionary. George Plossl edited the Bibliography and now heads up the Committee developing the Curricula and Certification Program. Both have edited chapters in the new *Production and Inventory Control Handbook*. Together with Jim Hartly, they prepared the first Special Report on Managing Lot Size Inventories.

They see education and professional development as the real job of the Society. In their opinion, each member who helps APICS helps himself even more. It is their hope that other Special Reports on the vital topics in our field will follow soon.

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Why a Special Report?

The enthusiastic reaction to this workshop by the participants resulted in their agreement that the sponsors, Plossl and Wight Associates, should prepare and offer its proceedings in an APICS Special Report as the best means of making this information available to others interested in this vital subject.

II. Requirements Planning and Related Techniques

A. Introduction

There are two basic methods for determining when to issue a replenishment order for an item in inventory. One is to establish an "Order Point" or "Minimum", based on past actual or forecasted future usage and to re-order this item whenever its inventory drops to or below this order point quantity. This method, assumes reasonably *uniform usage in small increments* relative to the replenishment lot-size and that it is necessary to *initiate replenishment action immediately*. Mathematical techniques and statistical analyses have been applied to improve this technique through better forecasting and better means for calculation of safety stocks. There is a wealth of literature on this method and several computer manufacturers have programs available to speed up its implementation. Many companies have attempted, without real success, to use this method to control *all* classes of items in inventory.

The second basic method is to calculate requirements for sub-assemblies and parts (collectively called "components") based on the needed quantities of the higher-level assemblies, usually finished products, in which they are used. Demands for the finished product assemblies are determined from forecasts, backlogs of orders or both and modified by existing inventories to prepare a "Master Schedule" of production requirements by time periods which provides the input to "Material Requirements Planning" to determine component needs.

Requirements planning approaches have been known to practitioners for many years. It was extremely tedious to calculate requirements manually for components of complex assemblies; it was virtually impossible to re-explode requirements frequently enough as schedules changed using a manual system. With the advent of the computer, requirements planning became a practical inventory control technique. The type of requirements planning discussed in this report, the multi-period or *time series requirements planning* (sometimes called "time-phased") is really practical only with a computer in most companies with broad, diversified product lines. The pros and cons of requirements planning vs. order point have been debated for some time. One of the workshop topics - the independent/dependent concept - discusses this further.

B. Description

Figure No. 1 shows the typical requirements plan in simplified form. The *End Item Master Schedule* for the assembly is the input that starts the plan; it schedules 600 assemblies in Week 6, 800 in Week 9 and 400 in Week 12. One very crude approach to requirements planning (called *quick deck*) merely "exploded" the end item requirements into the corresponding quantities of components and ordered these components to arrive in the same time period. In the example shown in Figure No. 1, this would result in ordering 600 sets of components in Week 6, 800 in Week 9 and 400 in Week 12, thus ordering *gross requirements* without considering available inventories. Overcoming this makes the *level by level* requirements plan more complicated; it must take the requirements for the finished assembly, post them as *gross requirements* against the component inventory record, and then project the available component inventory balance in the time periods to show when this inventory will have to be replenished. The example in Figure No. 1 shows a gross requirement of 800 in period 9, a projected on-hand balance of 300 in period 8, and, therefore, a *net requirement* (scheduled receipt) of 500 that will be needed in period 9. Since the lead time is 4 weeks, the planned order must be released 4 periods (the *lead-time offset*) earlier. That means that the order for 500 should be released in period 5.

ASSEMBLY REQUIREMENTS

WEEK	1	2	3	4	5	WEEK								
						6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
									800				400	

Component Materials Plan

WEEK	1	2	3	4	5	WEEK								
						6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Projected Requirements									800				400	
Projected On Hand		900	900	300	300	300								
Scheduled Receipts									500				400	
Planned Order Release			500				400							

Figure 1

1 APICS Dictionary, Second Edition defines "explosion" as: "an extension of a bill of materials into the total of each of the components required to manufacture an assembly or sub-assembly quantity."

If this component were used in other assemblies, their requirements would be posted also on the *projected requirements* line of the plan. Service or spare parts requirements for the component would also be posted on the projected requirements line to get *total planned usage*. If this component were a sub-assembly that used other parts, its *planned order releases* would be posted to the inventory records for these parts as projected requirements. *Planned orders at one level generate gross requirements at the next lower inventory level.*

Time periods in requirements planning are often called *buckets*; each bucket requires a field in the computer file to store the data applicable to that time period. Most requirements plans use weekly time buckets and undergo a "time shift" when updated. In the example shown in Figure No. 1, the current period is evidently week 4; next week, the current period will be week 5. Anything that is not acted upon at the proper time will appear in the "Past Due" column. For example, if the planned order for 500 units were not actually released in period 5, a quantity of 500 would appear in the past due column of the requirements plan in Figure No. 1 when period 6 became the current period.

There are two basically different approaches to requirements planning: *regeneration* and *net change*. Regeneration involves actually discarding previous plans and starting over every week with a new master schedule, exploding it into component requirements, netting against available inventories and developing new planned orders. Net change, on the other hand, explodes only changes from the previous master schedule down through the bill of materials until a component is reached which is unaffected by the change.

Depending on the complexity of the product structure, there will be a number of "levels" in the bill of materials. The end item itself is usually designated level 0, assemblies and sub-assemblies which make it up are level 1, their components are level 2, etc. The computer must recognize the *lowest* level of any bill in which a component appears so that it will accumulate requirements from *all higher* levels before netting against any component's available inventory. Identifying and maintaining low-level coding is a difficult but necessary activity in requirements planning.

It is frequently desirable to identify a requirement with the higher-level component which triggered it. Called *pegging*, this really amounts to a partial where-used listing which identifies, in more or less detail, where requirements come from.

C. Format

There are alternative ways to present data in a materials plan like Figure No. 1; each company tends to adopt its own conventions. "Projected Requirements" is sometimes called "Gross Requirements", "Planned usage" or "Forecast" and sometimes includes separate lines for different types of demand (assembly requirements from higher levels, service or spare parts needs, interplant requirements, etc.) "Projected On Hand" may be called "Available Inventory";

present on-hand balances may be shown in the header space (like "lead time" in Figure 1) or in the Past Due Bucket (used simply for convenience). Quantities "allocated" to meet specific demands from orders released for higher-level components, assemblies or products are usually deducted from the present on-hand balance and may also be shown in the header space. Safety stock quantities may also be deducted from such net available balances prior to entering them on the "On Hand" line, or the netting shown in future periods can compare On Hand with the safety stock quantity instead of zero to determine when a net requirement exists.

Some companies show orders as *Scheduled Receipts* only when the planned order has been released. Some add these quantities to the on-hand available balances, others do not, preferring to show a projected negative balance so that the planner will recognize that the material is "on order" and not in stock.

The format of a requirements plan can be tailored to a company's own desires. Superficial differences should not be allowed to obscure the similarities among the systems used by different companies.

D. Lot Sizing

Today there is an almost bewildering variety of lot-sizing techniques available. The best known is the Camp square-root formula: $Q = \sqrt{2As/I}$ where Q = the "economic" order quantity; A = forecast annual demand, dollars; s = ordering cost, dollars; and I = inventory carrying cost, decimal fraction. This formula is adequately covered in the literature² and needs no further explanation here.

A basic assumption of this formula is that usage will be at *uniform rates*. For components of an assembled product, the requirements tend to be anything but uniform; they usually occur in discrete "lumps"; principally because of lot-sizing at the higher levels. Typical component requirements could be 500 pieces in Week 1, 800 pieces in Week 7 and 1100 in Week 18, for example, with nothing required in other weeks.

For this item, the economic order quantity calculated using Camp's formula might be 1500 pieces. After using the 1300 total for Weeks 1 and 7, the balance of 200 would have been useless inventory since it is insufficient to meet Week 18's needs. After running another 1500 to fill this requirement, a balance of 400 will be carried uselessly until the next requirement appears. The square-root approach does nothing to balance out the pre-determined lot-size with the actual requirements.

There are several *discrete lot-sizing* approaches which attempt to overcome this problem:

1. Lot-for-lot ordering - the lot-size at the assembly level is exploded down through all sub-assemblies and components without any further lot-sizing at intermediate levels.

² "Production and Inventory Control: Principles and Techniques" - Plossl & Wight, Prentice-Hall, 1967, Chapter 4.

2. Period Order Quantity (POQ) - the lot-size is expressed in terms of periods of supply, calculated as follows:

- a. Using the forecast annual usage for the component, calculate the EOQ using the square-root formula.
- b. Divide the EOQ quantity into the annual usage to determine the number of reorders per year.
- c. Express the order quantity in "time periods covered" by dividing the number of reorders into 52 for "weeks" or 12 for "months".

Whenever a new order is to be placed, the computer looks ahead the number of periods specified by the POQ and adds up their total requirements to determine the lot-size. The lot-sizes will vary as the requirements change; however, since any individual EOQ is valid over a broad range with only small cost increases, this approach is more likely to give real economies than one which results in carrying small residues of lots which serve no useful purpose for long periods.

3. Discrete Requirements or Time Series EOQ - when usage occurs in discrete "lumps" at irregular intervals, the square-root EOQ assumption of uniform usage is violated. Components of assemblies will experience such intermittent, irregular usage; seasonal products will also show fluctuating usage. For these conditions, lot-sizing involves minimizing carrying plus ordering costs by combining requirements for several periods in one lot.

- Two basic methods of making such calculations are:
- a. Least unit cost - based on determining what combination of requirements for successive periods yields the lowest cost per piece.
 - b. Least total cost - seeking the lowest total cost involved in ordering and carrying combinations of requirements for successive periods.

Appendix I is a reprint of "Dynamic Order Quantities" by Thomas Gorham, published in the First Quarter, 1968, issue of Production and Inventory Management, APICS Journal. This article illustrates the application of each of these methods. The author's conclusion, based on many simulations, is that the least total cost method yields significantly lower inventory and ordering costs. This is substantiated by simulations run at Black & Decker and other companies.

As discussed in Appendix I, these techniques have the same objective as the square-root formula - "balancing" ordering and carrying costs to produce the *minimum total cost*. They use the ratio of ordering to carrying costs (S/Ic), called the "economic part-period" factor since it defines the quantity of parts carried for a number of periods which will make the total carrying cost equal to the ordering cost; thus the most economical situation. The names "Part-Period Balancing" and "Economic Part-Period Ordering" have been used by computer manufacturers in their software programs to describe the *least total cost* approach to discrete lot-sizing.

5 planning periods (i.e.; weekly instead of monthly), since they deal with smaller requirements, improve the technique's ability to get closer to the best balance between ordering and carrying costs.

IBM's Production Information and Control System (PICS) program for requirements planning contains a modification of part period balancing, called "look-ahead/look-back", intended to improve the lot-sizing. This feature attempts to extend the horizon farther into the future, in effect considering not one but two successive lot orderings. The following example illustrates how the "look-ahead" feature works:

Period	1	2	3	4	5	6
Net Req't	85	220	176	143	435	81
Lot Size	481			659		without "look-ahead"
Lot Size	624				New	with "look-ahead"

Using a value of S/i_c equal to 600, part-period balancing would set the lot size to be produced in Period 1 at 481 pieces, covering requirements in Periods 1, 2 and 3; a new order would be needed for requirements in Period 4 and beyond. Looking ahead, however, the large requirement in Period 5 would be carried in inventory during Period 4; it may be more economical to include the 143 Period 4 requirement in the preceding lot and start the new lot in Period 5. This is determined by checking the cost of carrying 143 pieces for 3 periods (produced in Period 1, used in Period 4; equal to 429 part-periods) against carrying 435 pieces for 1 period (produced in Period 4; used in Period 5, equal to 435 part-periods). Since the former alternative is cheaper, the lot size in Period 1 would be increased to include the 143 pieces for Period 4 as shown and a new lot run in Period 5. The following example illustrates the "look-back" feature:

Period	1	2	3	4	5	6
Net Req't	435	143	200	88	99	104
Lot Size	778			New		without "look-back"
Lot Size	578		491			with "look-back"

Using the same value of S/i_c , part-period balancing would set the lot size for Period 1 at 778 pieces, calling for a new lot to be run in Period 4. The "look-ahead" feature would not change this decision. Looking back from Period 4, however, the large requirement of 200 in Period 3 will be carried for two periods; it may be more economical to start the new lot in Period 3. This will be true if the requirement in Period 4 (88) is equal to or less than one-half that in Period 3 (200). The "look-back" feature would thus change the lot size in Period 1 to 578 pieces and start a new lot of 491 in Period 3 to cover Periods 3, 4, 5 and 6.

The look-ahead feature should be tested first and look-back employed

only if look-ahead leaves the lot-size unchanged.

Since merely increasing demand will satisfy the look-ahead feature, inflate lot-size will destroy the proper balance between ordering and carrying costs, and a test should be made to be sure the last requirement in the lot, when considered alone, is less than the economical part-period value. In the above example, look-ahead would *not* have changed the original 481 lot-size if the part period value of Period 4's requirement ($3 \times 143 = 429$) had exceeded 600. Since it did not, look-ahead acted. Part-period balancing utilizes these features to extend the planning horizon and test alternate decisions involving relatively large requirements to see if economies are possible. Their value in real-life is discussed in the Workshop Topics Section 8 - Lot-Sizing in this report.

4. Wagner-Whitin Algorithm - this is a more precise mathematical solution well-known in academic and operations research circles (See "Dynamic Version of the Economic Lot-Size Model", Management Science, Vol. 5, No. 1, Oct. 1958). No one at the workshop knew of any companies using this technique.

E. Safety Stock

There are three basic alternatives for providing safety stock in a requirements plan. They are:

1. Adding "safety time". If, for example, the components to make an assembly are needed in Week 10, their replenishment orders are scheduled to come into stock in Week 9, thus putting one week of "safety" time into the plan.
2. The top level input in the master schedule can be increased or over-forecast. For example, if the planned requirement in one period is for 10 units of a given product, but orders could be received for as many as 15 units, 5 extra sets of parts could be planned as safety stock.
3. Demand variation could be measured at the component level and a safety stock calculated for the component, using statistical order point methods.

Putting in "safety time" really doesn't tell the system the truth and can be particularly harmful if the safety time is varied for different items (i.e., one week on A components, two weeks on B components, three weeks on C components, etc.). Priorities are distorted and by such cushions, work-in-process inventories are inflated and operating people soon learn that they have more time to get parts than the due dates indicate. The resulting "credibility gap" can easily offset the benefits of having safety allowances.

Overforecasting the top-level demand can pyramid the inventory of components common to several finished products. The maximum projected demand for each top-level product will be exploded down to the level of such common components. Since it is extremely unlikely that actual demand will equal the

maximum for *all* top-level items *simultaneously*, the requirements for common components will be overstated. An excellent solution to this problem developed by one company is covered under the Workshop Topics Section 9 – Safety Stock.

F. The Independent/Dependent Demand Principle

Dr. Joseph A. Orlicky, Industry Consultant to the Manufacturing Industries Marketing Department of IBM suggested in 1965 the independent/dependent demand principle which defines as "independent" such items as finished goods for which it is necessary to forecast demand using statistical techniques like exponential smoothing or other forecasting approaches and then establish an order point or minimum to trigger a re-order when the inventory is reduced to this level. Demand is "dependent" when it can be calculated through a bill of materials explosion based on the forecasted demand for the top-level independent items. He recommended, "Do not forecast demand when it can be calculated". The principle states that inventories of finished goods items and service parts not used in current assembly (*independent demand items*) should be replenished using order points, but that requirements planning should be used for all components going into higher level assemblies and for semi-finished material (*dependent demand*) that is later converted into many different items.

	J	F	M	A	M	J	J
ASS'Y A	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
SUB B	20	0	20	0	20	0	20
PART C	40	0	0	0	40	0	0

Figure 2

Figure No. 2 indicates why the independent/dependent demand principle is valid. In each of the months January through July the demand for Assembly A is steady at 10 per month. The assembly is made in lots of 20; therefore, demand for sub-assembly B will be lumped into requirements of 20, 0, 20, 0, etc. The sub-assembly is made in lots of 40; therefore, demand for Part C will appear as requirements of 40, 0, 0, 0, 40, 0, 0, etc.

This example illustrates a situation involving a part and a sub-assembly which are used only in one higher-level item. It has been said that the demand for components will be much less erratic and lumpy if as few as seven higher level items use it. The fallacy of this in most companies making assembled products can be verified by examining records of actual usage of such components.

Romeyn Everdell, principal, Rath & Strong, on numerous occasions has noted that the literature of inventory control is obsessed with *quantities* (order quantities and order points), but, once lot sizes are introduced at any level, the question of *timing* becomes much more significant than quantity. Because it clearly identifies timing, time-phased or time-series requirements planning will do a better job of ordering dependent demand items than an order point technique which only implies timing, based on *average* usage where averages really are inappropriate.

III. Participating Companies Case Studies

A. Introduction

Figure 3 gives a quick synopsis of important factors for those participating companies that were doing Requirements Planning and some significant features of their plans.

A few of the columns on the report require a little explanation. "Experience in years or months" means the amount of time the company has actually been using requirements planning to control their inventory. "Make-to-stock or order" tells whether the company is manufacturing the finished, assembled product to a forecast or whether they are ordering parts to a forecast and assembling the product after receipt of customer order. "Type computer" where IBM is indicated means System 360; the column indicates the model (IBM 40, for example, means IBM System 360, Model 40). The only exception to this is Data-Control Systems' IBM 1130, a small scientific machine not part of the 360 series. Only one company had a different make computer – Dictaphone with a Honeywell 1200.

Dictaphone used the Honeywell Bill of Material Processor but chose to write their own requirements planning program. Black & Decker, Perkin-Elmer and Twin Disc all wrote their programs long before the IBM PICS package was available. Data-Control Systems wrote their own because they have an IBM 1130, for which no requirements planning software is currently available.

B. Case Studies

1. Black and Decker

The Black and Decker Inventory Status printout Exhibit 1A* shows a typical time series requirement plan; one page per item is printed out. Black and Decker has approximately 23,000 components with five levels in the product structure. The fields are all well defined on Exhibit 1B. It is interesting to note that this is a net change, and, therefore, an exception type program. Inquiry into inventory status is also available via visual display terminal. The bottom block entitled "status" contains all the detailed pegging information. Later in the text of this report examples of Black and Decker's handling of master scheduling and engineering change provide further information about their requirements plan.

* Exhibits referred to in the case studies appear as foldout material in the center portion of this publication.

The Data-Control Systems Material Requirements Plan Exhibit II is probably one of the simplest and easiest to read. Note that there are four parts shown on one report. Since most of the material is purchased, a 16-week horizon has been adequate although a longer one would be very desirable. The actual on-hand balance ("3" for Part AD 011430) is shown in the "Past Due" column. This is simply a matter of convenience; obviously, the amount on hand cannot be past due. The other figures that might be shown in that column include Allocation, On Order and Planned Order, all of which *could* be past due. In the first example there are 3 on hand, 3 on an order that is past due and 15 on order due in the current week. If the orders are received, the On Hand balance will rise to 21 as shown.

In the next week there is a requirement (Data-Control Systems calls this "forecast" - it actually could be forecast or actual customer orders since theirs is an assemble-to-order type business). On the printout below the Planned Order line there are two product numbers, 231 and 237, identified as "Items in Forecast". These are the products in the master schedule which are actually causing requirements. This is a simple "pegging" or "live where-used". Note that the "Messages" row at the top shows "AA" indicating an open order in past due condition. Note also that this is the "Purchasing Copy" (top right hand corner). Purchasing can see from this requirements plan that the past due order for 3 Right Rails, part #AD 011430, is really needed this week to cover requirements next week. Purchasing can also see that the balance of 15 on order due the current week are actually needed by week 04/25. When a vendor is having trouble getting parts in on time, it's most helpful to have accurate priority and delivery information available.

The third part, AD 011433, VCO Board, illustrates an interesting situation. The message "BB 05/16" indicates that the projected on-hand balance (16) will be below the desired safety stock level (17) in week 05/16 and that an order should be planned to be released five weeks (the lead time) earlier. The computer printout doesn't show the quantity of the planned order to be released in week 04/11 because there is already an order for 35 that is due in week 05/23. This tells the inventory planner that the system knows it should create an order based on the projected on hand balance in week 05/16, but it also recognizes that there is already material on order due in a later time period; the planner must decide whether to release another order or reschedule the existing one.

For part AD 011451, Front Panel, the "55" under "M.W.R." means "more work required" to make these available for use. This panel is usually kept in stock unpainted and the "Stock Balance" reads zero. The total on hand is considered to be 55 and this is what is used in the requirements plan since painting lead time is very short.

Company	Company Size (1)	Experience in Years or Months	Make to Stock or Order	Regeneration or Rec Change	Pegging - Yes or No	Number of Time Buckets	Size of Bucket in Weeks	Lot-Sizing	Frequency - Daily or Weekly	Type of Computer	Remarks
Black & Decker	L	1 Y	S	M	Y	32	1	Lot Lot	D	IBM 40	Very advanced system; eng. change especially good.
Data Control Systems	S	1 Y	O	R	Y	16	1	POQ	U	IBM 1130	Simple - doing the most with least.
Dictaphone Corporation	M	6 M	S	R	Y	56	1	POQ	U	M	Basic system - (2) uses "capacity planning" fileds.
General Railway Signal Company	M	2 M	O,S	M	Y	130 (3)	1	PPB	U	IBM 40	Uses IBM PICS package - much modified.
Market Corporation	S	6 M	O	R	N	32	1	EOQ	U	IBM 30	First known user of IBM PICS.
New Britain Machine Company	S	3 M	O,S	R	M	28	1	PPB	U	IBM 30	Uses IBM PICS, Mechanics Hand Tools Division
Perkin-Elmer Corporation	M	4 Y	S	M	M	11	1	POQ	D	IBM	Original system designed for has worked well. New System operating on 360.
Twin Disc, Inc.	M	3 Y	O,S	M	Y	100 (4)	1	EOQ	D	IBM 30	Incorporate Inquiry Features

- (1) - Large - over 75 million sales; medium - 26-74; small - under 25.
 (2) - See Dictaphone case study.
 (3) - Printout only shows 48.
 (4) - Printout only shows 81.

Data-Control Systems shows "Allocation" also, indicating the quantity on an order released to the storeroom but not yet picked. It represents an "uncashed requisition". Note that allocations are shown in time periods rather than in one header field so that time values can be assigned to them.

The Data-Control Systems report then shows pegging, the use of analysis to generate exception messages and a simple, basic format that is user-oriented. The large margin on the left hand side of the report is used by the planner to make notes about what he is going to do. His supervisor can then review these notes to see what action is planned.

3. Dictaphone

The Dictaphone Materials Plan Exhibit III is a weekly regeneration system using weekly time buckets. Two items are shown on each printout page. Several things are significant about this very basic and useful report which clearly defines each of the major fields.

It shows six past-due time buckets. In the real world there are always fall downs and having six past-due time periods enables Dictaphone to give relative priority to past-due items. It also shows single level pegging. Part #1154-000 Ball Steel is at level 03 and the next higher assemblies in which it is used are shown. These are the two items that have created requirements for this ball steel. The materials plans for these two items would show what the requirements cover if there is any question about whether or not an order needs rescheduling, cancellation, etc.

Dictaphone also uses exception messages. A rescheduling flag such as an "E" (early) or "L" (late) flag is shown on released orders (see week 053) when the due date deviates from the required date by more than an acceptable variance. This alerts the planner to situations which require rescheduling.

Capacity planning information is also shown in the inventory record. The critical starting machine center and the set-up family code for manufactured parts are printed in the header. This enables the planner to level input to key starting work centers; he can also group items to release orders to minimize set-up by combining "families" of items which can be run on screw machines, for example, with a major set-up and minor alterations. Dictaphone does not add "Orders Due" to "Available". Note that the available balance on the Ball Steel in week 067 shows as 297 and has not taken into account the 10,000 on order due in week 053. Most companies add in actual released orders when projecting the on-hand balance but do not take into account planned orders.

4. General Railway Signal Company

The General Railway Signal Requirements Planning Status Exhibit IV is very similar to that used by Black and Decker. There is one item per page and detailed pegging is used. Blank lines are provided at the bottom for the planner to write in the action he wants to take. It is interesting to note that few report

formats provide such convenient space for this type of notation. Obviously it is very useful to the planner and to his supervisor.

General Railway Signal utilizes IBM's requirements planning package substantially modified through the use of exits to include an open transaction and order master disc file in lieu of the subordinate item master record. The Order Master file contains data concerning an order such as vendor name code for purchase orders, customer name code for shipping orders, routing for factory orders, etc., and the address of the first transaction in the Open Transaction file, thereby providing the capability to start randomly the retrieval of all open transactions on a given order. The Open Transaction File, which is organized in part number sequence, contains individual transactions representing requirements (forecasts, shipping orders, undelivered components of open factory orders and planned requirements generated by Requirements Planning), open factory and purchase orders and planned orders generated by Requirements Planning. Each open transaction contains a transaction code (requirement vs. open order, etc.), schedule date, quantity, order number and the address of the next item in the order chain used for the retrieval of open transactions. Conceptually, these files provide a capability similar to the Bills of Material file; components of an assembly can be retrieved randomly from either file.

The GRS program contains one-level, detailed pegging shown under "Drawing Number of Next Level Due In". Open orders are rescheduled automatically for most items; manual rescheduling is used for certain top level items with special codes. GRS uses "requirements alteration", a net change approach using the IBM PICS package. The basic IBM package doesn't provide the capability to change the schedule of planned requirements if there has been a lead time change or to substitute the planned requirement of the deleted Bill of Material component for the new component. GRS has written programs to provide these capabilities.

GRS has also modified the IBM program so that they can print a projected available balance, shown as "PAB" under the net requirements section. The GRS program shows the amount of modification that can be made to the IBM PICS program to tailor it to an individual company's requirements.

5. Markem Corporation

The Markem Corporation Requirements Generation Exhibit V is a fairly straightforward use of the IBM PICS program with only minor modifications. The major change made was to include a projected on-hand "Balance", intended primarily to provide information for rescheduling. This enables the planner to determine quickly the time period into which an order should be rescheduled. An exception notice that the order should be rescheduled is one of the available IBM PICS exception messages. To make it easier to read the report, Markem has added a number sign (#) after an open order quantity and an asterisk (*) after a planned order quantity. This is illustrated by part number 0282301, which has

an open order for 80 pieces due in week 634 and a planned order for 80 pieces in week 644.

Input to Requirements Generation is at the finished product level and is based on the build schedule for the assembly department. Many of Markem's parts have service usage in addition to assembly demands. They maintain a running average forecast of service requirements which is added to gross requirements at the part level.

Markem was the first company to use the IBM PICS package. It has been highly successful and they have been particularly pleased with the improvement in their ability to get parts to the assembly floor on time and reduce their dependence upon expediting.

6. New Britain Machine

The New Britain Machine Company Hand Tools Division installed a very straightforward application of the IBM PICS packages including Inventory Control, Bill of Material Processor and Requirements Planning. The only change made was to add a "Planned Receipt Line". Their's is a weekly plan with thirty-two future weeks and four past-due weeks as shown on Exhibit VI.

Input to the Master Schedule comes from three sources: statistical forecasts for end product tool sets based on exponential smoothing; special promotions with the dates forecast by New Britain or by their customer; and make-to-order items with due date specified by the customer.

Allocations are divided into those needed to meet customer orders and those for manufacturing orders for stocked items. Several codes are used to indicate various lot-sizing techniques employed and the safety stock approach to be used. Lead time is expressed in working days. As can be seen from the Exhibit, demand is very lumpy due primarily to large promotions and lot-sizing of tools at the higher levels.

To avoid distorting statistical forecasts by inadvertently adding orders related to promotions, New Britain has built in a "filter" which tests all order quantities against the previous forecast average and rejects those which exceed the average by more than a fixed percentage. They have also included raw material for forgings made by one of their suppliers in their bill of materials structure so that they can furnish to the vendor an estimate of his raw material requirements.

By a very concentrated effort, New Britain was able to install these programs in slightly more than six months. While no significant modifications to the PICS packages were made in the original installation, New Britain is now working on the addition of a projected "On Hand Balance" to the printout and also on pegging requirements to the higher level item generating them.

7. Dodge Manufacturing Corporation*

Dodge has also used the IBM PICS programs with relatively few modifications. As shown on their Material Requirements Plan Exhibit VII, they

* Installed since data in Figure 3 was tabulated.

have added the "Net Available" and show both "Planned Orders" indicating the receipt date and "Start Planned Orders" indicating when orders should be released. They use weekly time buckets with one past-due bucket and eighteen weeks of data printed out although the system has fifty-two weeks of data stored in the computer. Lead times are given in working days.

Input to the plan originates from an annual forecast updated monthly by the Marketing Research Department and converted to a manufacturing "Program" to adjust finished goods inventory levels. The program data is spread evenly over the weeks or entered in seasonal patterns by the computer. Customer orders for non-forecasted items are scheduled in the weeks required. Fixed lot sizes are used. It can be seen that the quantities on released orders (shown on the "On Order" line) are added to "Net Available" but planned orders are not. This indicates to the planner that this material has not yet been ordered and he cannot count on it to satisfy requirements.

Another interesting feature of the Dodge report is the handling of exception messages. For each item, the number printed on the "Exceptions" line is the code included in the PICS package. For item 018240, for example, the exception "06" indicates that a net requirement exists for some period and an open order exists in a future period. Repeating the 06 four times indicates that the condition exists in four weeks (8/10, 8/17, 8/24 and 8/31) where a net requirement was not filled although an order (for 1000) was due to come in later (week 9/07). This provides all needed information for the planner on one sheet, making it unnecessary for him to search separate listings for exception reports to determine what actions he might have to take.

Dodge has done an outstanding job of designing a very legible and useable form. By printing only eighteen weeks they are able to get five item reports on a single sheet thus minimizing paper work and speeding up review for planning and ordering decisions.

8. Perkin-Elmer Corporation

Perkin-Elmer is one of the most experienced users of requirements planning, having been one of the first to install it over four years ago. Their original system was designed around the file limitations imposed by second generation equipment and used four-week time periods. These caused a great many problems but they were, nevertheless, very satisfied with the improvements made possible. They have recently installed their newest requirements planning system which uses weekly time periods. Exhibit VIII shows the Planning Status Report produced in the latest system. The plan includes two past-due weekly periods, ten future weekly periods and ten monthly periods beyond. The "Sales Plan" is exploded requirements coming down from the master schedule for higher level sub-assemblies, the "Export Plan" shows requirements from other plants outside of the continental United States and the "Other Plan" generally means service requirements.

Perkin-Elmer has pegged requirements, orders and allocations and are using a net change system. In addition to the regular printout they have inquiry capability via visual display units and exception reports analysing the status of an item and recommending action on it.

Requirements and other data are kept in the computer in weekly time periods even though they are printed out in monthly groupings beyond ten weeks. The objective here, of course, is to reduce the amount of paper being generated. There is little handicap with this approach since precise reaction to changes in requirements is available during the immediate future time periods and not so necessary in distant time periods.

9. Twin Disc, Incorporated

Twin Disc has 33,000 parts with eight levels. They use a net change type system with exception reports only. Their Material Status-Production Schedule report Exhibit IX is straightforward and requires little explanation.

Twin Disc embodies much of the latest thinking in their requirements plan. They show not only total planned orders but also, on the line below planned orders, exploded requirements for actual customer orders. This enables them to distinguish between requirements to meet forecast demand and requirements for firm customer orders. Requirements for actual customer orders are also combined into a "fail safe" expedite report which identifies parts that are urgently needed to make shipments to customers. Twin Disc shows the "Lower Level or Critical Part" required for a particular assembly, identifying the part in short supply that could keep the assembly from being built. They also peg upward, showing the "Model Used On".

While not shown on the Exhibit, one of the features of the Twin Disc program for purchased items is to show on the printout the prime work center in the vendor's plant where the item would be made. This enables them to combine requirements for all items made in each prime work center and "buy" capacity from the vendor without firming up actual part orders. When attempting to reschedule one item they can also see what other items might be rescheduled to help the vendor improve delivery of the urgent material.

Twin Disc, like Perkin-Elmer and Black & Decker, are very experienced in using requirements planning. They are thoroughly satisfied with their program. Its simplicity even with the refinements included in the system, make it noteworthy.

IV. Workshop Topics and Discussion

A. The Independent/Dependent Demand Principle

The participants in this workshop could be expected to have some bias in their opinions on whether or not the independent/dependent demand concept was valid, since they are either using or developing programs applying

requirements planning for control of their dependent items. On the other hand, each has had experience using order points and will continue using order points where they apply. It could well be argued that others who have not had experience using both techniques are in the weakest position to judge which works better in specific circumstances. The consensus of these users strongly supported the independent/dependent demand principle and they could find no reason to question its validity.

One company recently started using requirements planning on most dependent items but kept some of their multiple-use items on order points. They found that the order point items gave them the most trouble in meeting assembly requirements; they intend to extend the requirements plan to include these items in the near future. Another company put their low-value "C" items on an order-point type visual control, omitting them from the requirements plan. Each week the inventory of these components is visually reviewed for reordering. They have had no significant problems with this approach.

Some of the more experienced companies using requirements planning believed that low-value items would not require the same amount of attention from the planner because of infrequent ordering and that they would be better controlled when included in the requirements plan. In one instance, inventory transactions are not posted for low-value items but their requirements are exploded down through the bill of materials to be sure the order points reflect current usage rates. One of the problems in handling low-value items with the visual review or a similar simplified order-point type system based on historical usage is the possibility of an engineering standardization program changing the application of a component and increasing its usage drastically.

In general, these companies seemed to feel that requirements planning was justified on low-value items, since lack of these items could cause an assembly line shutdown. On the other hand, the cost of requirements planning in terms of the computer explosion time or file storage required might make it necessary to exclude low-value items from the requirements planning program, in companies that have limited computer capacity.

B. Benefits.

In reply to the question of whether or not the introduction of requirements planning generated benefits, the group's answer was an overwhelming "yes". Results can be found in four primary areas:

- a. Reduction of component inventory levels.
- b. Improvement of customer service.
- c. Reduction in product cost, principally direct labor.
- d. Reduction in inventory and production control personnel.

Four companies using requirements planning for considerable periods of time have been selected as indicative of the benefits possible; to avoid revealing confidential information, they are not identified by name. Company A has

increased inventory turnover (based on inventory and sales at cost, not including finished goods) from 2.9 to 4.5; customer service improved about 6%; product cost effects have not been documented; the number of people in inventory and production control is essentially the same, but their work has been upgraded to include many analysis and control procedures not possible previously.

Company B has reduced component inventory by 1/3; service has improved slightly; there has been no significant change in product cost or in the number of people in production control.

Company C has reduced inventory by 22%, service is up approximately 20%; product cost is essentially unchanged; the number of people in inventory control handling the ordering of components has been reduced 35%.

Company D has reduced component inventory by 1/3; the number of late orders (this is a make-to-order company) has been reduced 90 to 95%; the cost of the product is down 7%; indirect labor including truckers, production and inventory control personnel, shipping, receiving, stores, etc. has been reduced by 25%; although payroll costs did not go down 25% because many of these people, particularly stockroom personnel, were upgraded substantially.

The justification of a requirements planning system will obviously be different for each company. When a new system is installed in a dynamic environment, results are not easy to document. Specific improvements will depend to some extent on the effectiveness of the system being replaced.

The results from putting a system of this type in are also likely to be different for each company, depending on many factors. One company known to the attendees has a number of experienced personnel with a high degree of product knowledge doing a simplified manual job of requirements planning, pulling orders in the stockroom early, developing shortage lists from these and expediting effectively to get needed shortage items. This is effective because of a fairly stable product line and the presence of experienced planners with product knowledge developed over a period of fifteen years. The introduction of requirements planning in this company probably would not achieve great improvement. It may be necessary, however, in preparation for the day when products become too complex for manual requirements planning or when the planners currently doing the job have been promoted or retired and replaced by less experienced people.

Potential benefits are considerably greater in some companies. With certain types of products, for example, assembly labor costs can often be reduced substantially when component availability is improved and it is unnecessary to build around missing components or borrow components from other assemblies.

Long computer running time is frequently cited as a major drawback of requirements planning. Most companies have no programs now running on their computers capable of producing even a fraction of the potential benefits of requirements planning. One participant pointed out intangibles that can come from requirements planning. Benefits from improvement in morale because more

parts are available and better performance by planners to whom the system makes more sense are hard to measure. Less expediting and less need for informal sub-systems have built the confidence of everyone in his company.

In general, requirements planning by computer is not difficult to justify. In fact, because it is fairly easy to demonstrate adequate payback, goals and objectives may not be set nearly high enough. Many specific savings and improvements may thus be overlooked and no effort made to achieve the full results the system is capable of producing.

C. Master Scheduling.

Nothing much has been written on this subject, yet it is the key to requirements planning. The master schedule, usually for level 0 assemblies, is the basic input to the requirements plan. A new master schedule is used periodically in a *regeneration system*; only the changes are entered in a *net change system*. The master schedule for every company represented at this workshop consisted of both forecasts and firm orders. At Black & Decker, the manufacturing group has no responsibility for finished product inventory; this belongs to the marketing group. Manufacturing receives a forecast of requirements by product one year in advance for capacity planning purposes.

Each month the products in the 27 - 31 week time bucket are reviewed and "authorized", that is, the requirements become firm from a Marketing standpoint and manufacturing can begin spending money to satisfy them.

The requirements in the 13 - 31 week buckets can be changed rather easily upon mutual agreement between Marketing and Manufacturing. If less than 13 weeks from assembly, manufacturing's investment is greater and changes are not agreed to as readily. At a point 8 weeks from assembly, Marketing is required to finalize lot breakdown, and from this point, changes are possible only if extra-ordinary demands occur.

At Twin Disc, level 1 sub-assemblies are forecast. Actual orders for finished products coming into the system are checked against sub-assembly availability; if enough material is on hand or on order for receipt in time, the order is entered for delivery as requested by the customer. If not, the order is scheduled in a later time period; it can be reviewed, however, and the system overridden if later developments indicate a chance of getting the material through to meet the customers requirement. The master schedule uses the forecast or total of actual orders, whichever is larger, in each time bucket. If a sub-assembly had a forecast for ten units and customers orders were received for six, the master schedule would use ten units; if actual orders required twelve, this higher total would be used.

The blending of forecasts and actual orders is done manually in the majority of companies; a few do it partially by computer. The latter require rules like, "Use forecast or actual, whichever is larger, except in the first eight weeks of the plan use only actual orders". This is based on eight-weeks lead time for the

product and assumes that no orders will come in during the eight-week period required shipment in less than normal lead time. Obviously, this time period will change from company to company and there will be frequent cases in many companies where it will be desirable to have orders shipped in less than the normal lead time.

The participants made a strong recommendation that care be taken to avoid the pitfall of letting master schedule requirements fall back into a past-due period at the time shift. For example, when a forecast doesn't materialize, the difference between actual orders released for assembly and the forecast could be considered a past-due requirement. This would then explode down through all levels, generating requirements for sub-assemblies and parts that would not actually be needed when scheduled. There should not be any "past-due" quantities in the master schedule itself unless these will really be used in addition to the regularly scheduled components; this requires considerable care and attention to developing the master schedule.

One topic discussed in detail was whether or not an assembly should be rescheduled when a component shortage occurs. A purchased component, for example, could be scheduled by the vendor for delivery some weeks after it is required. The consensus was that this assembly should be rescheduled so that all common components would be freed up for use elsewhere and also to avoid giving high priority to components not actually needed. The conclusion of most of the participants was that anytime a component that is not required is being worked on, it is probable that a component that is really required will be pushed aside.

What is the best size of time bucket for a materials plan? Those people who had considerable experience using requirements planning indicated that a weekly time bucket seemed preferable. The group could think of very few applications where a shorter time period would be justified or necessary.

It's important to take capacity into account when developing the master schedule. Obviously, assembly capacity will limit the master schedule; putting more material into the master schedule than can actually be assembled will only inflate component inventories, generate larger shortage lists and achieve no good results unless assembly rates are to be increased to utilize the excess components.

Black & Decker has developed a ratio of parts fabrication hours to assembly hours. They determine from the finished product forecast the assembly hours required and apply this ratio to determine parts fabrication hours required to cover requirements for service parts, part orders from other plants and accessory requirements. If actual plant capacity is exceeded, they negotiate with Marketing to reduce the assembly and/or accessory requirements. Components are then scheduled to meet available capacity.

Who makes the forecast on which the master schedule is based? At Black & Decker this is done by the Marketing Department, at Twin Disc it is done by

Production Control using historical data and exponential smoothing. Data Control Systems, the forecast is made by the Materials Manager with some help from the Marketing Department. Everyone agreed that, in theory, the marketing department should make a heavy contribution to the forecast used in the materials plan; there were many instances, however, where marketing did not assume much responsibility for realistic forecasts and the responsibility for developing a valid master schedule fell on production and inventory control people alone. Whether marketing is involved in forecasting or not, it was agreed production control people should be responsible for developing the official master schedule.

D. Conversion to Requirements Planning.

The basic files needed to do requirements planning on a computer are:

1. The item master (inventory) record.
2. The product structure (bill of material) record.
3. The master schedule.
4. The open order file.
5. Back order file.
6. (Optional) The allocation file.

Typical item master records are shown in many computer manuals. One of the most widely circulated is *The Production Information and Control System Manual E20-0280*, available on request from IBM Data Processing Division, 112 East Post Road, White Plains, NY 10601. Other computer manufacturers have similar information available. One significant and critical omission from typical item master records is information needed to control release of work to the factory. The traditional approach is to have the inventory control system generate orders regardless of the plant's capacity to handle them and then let production control or plant people worry about how to get them through. Today, it is becoming widely recognized that lead time control requires levelling out the input of work, at least to starting departments where it is most easily controlled. This requires some orders to be released early and the task of identifying such items is easy if the item master records have in them some reference to the key machine group or starting work center each item goes through. Information should be included in the item master record on:

1. The key starting department.
2. The key machine group.
3. Set-up time.
4. Standard hours of running time.

Obviously, key machine groups are not always the first operations ("cut-off" or "rough grinding" could be the first operation although the "turret lathes" are the key machine group and could be the second or later operation). While such information is included in shop routings it is desirable not to have to reference the routing file before determining whether the order is actually going to be released or not.

The product structure file is also well covered in the literature. The master schedule file generally isn't; it would contain the information discussed in Section C - Master Scheduling. The open order file contains pertinent data on open purchase or manufacturing orders (not customer orders), indicating quantities and time periods in which they will be available for requirements planning.

Assembly often can be started even though one or two parts that go into the product at a final stage of assembly are missing and some companies release such orders. In the absence of a well-designed allocation procedure, *because the requirements for these parts will not be included with those exploded down from the master schedule now that the assembly order is released, a back order file must be created.* Data from this file is entered into the plan at the component level to show that a requirement still exists. "Allocation", covered later in Section L, can mean many things and is difficult to handle correctly; the back order file is simple and straight-forward.

The following topics are the ones the group felt most strongly influenced successful conversion to a requirements planning system:

1. Be sure that bills of material are complete and accurate. Check, double-check and triple-check them. Any part not included on a bill of material won't be ordered. Using the bill of material as a picking list and checking all unplanned stockroom transactions was suggested as an effective way of insuring bill of material accuracy.
2. Eliminate inventory record errors and keep records accurate. Just taking a physical inventory is not enough; true record accuracy requires developing disciplines and security so that all transactions are properly recorded. There is a need for a "Zero Defects" approach in this area, since operating an effective requirements plan places greater demands on inventory record accuracy. Only by this means can excessive inventories, heavy expediting and ineffective informal sub-systems (like physically laying out parts in advance of assembly needs) be eliminated.
3. Teach people how to develop the master schedule properly. The first inclination of schedulers accustomed to other systems is to use the computer simply to generate a giant shortage list.
4. Be sure to *tell* the master schedule *the truth*. The importance of this was emphasized by all participants. When lead time "cushions" are inserted or the master schedule overstated, the plan will "lie back to you" by developing unnecessary orders. One company had serious problems with their requirements plan because they used as a master schedule the finished product *shipping* schedule rather than the sets of parts they would withdraw from the stockroom for bulk assembly preceding final assembly and shipment. The master schedule must reflect *the quantities of components to be pulled from the stockroom in each time period for assembly.*

Conversion to requirements planning was generally made very cautiously. A few of the companies began requirements planning on a pilot basis on one product line before going to all products. They felt strongly that they would not do it any other way because of the problems involved in testing the system and training people. The majority of the companies started requirements planning on all product lines simultaneously because they had difficulty isolating one product line for piloting purposes.

It was emphasized that the fewer the things that are changed, the easier the installation will be. Dramatic changes in lot-sizing, for example, should not be introduced simultaneously with the conversion to requirements planning. Every effort should be made to minimize the number of potential problems and to prevent unrelated upsets which might bias people against the program.

Companies which had recently started requirements planning experienced a large number of reschedules of open purchase and manufacturing orders. New Britain Machine indicated that half of their open purchase orders were rescheduled out well beyond the normal lead time. At Dictaphone, information in the item master record on key operations helped generate the right advance orders when the inventory system indicated no requirements for some critical work areas in the plant.

Everyone emphasized the need for training and participation on the part of the users. New Britain Machine, for example, prepared typed sample requirements planning sheets and reviewed in detail with the planners how they would use such information well in advance of computer output. *The requirements planning system does not control inventory, people do; they must understand the system if they are to use it intelligently to make better decisions.*

One of the questions discussed was the number of planners needed to review requirements and initiate action. The most that any company had was six; the fewest was two. There seemed to be no correlation between the number of parts, the number of levels to the assembly or any other measurable number. It depends more on the type and number of decisions being made; a company requiring extensive review of engineering changes through their requirements plan will need more personnel than a company not needing as much control effort. As cited previously under Section B - Benefits, most companies found they could achieve the desired control with reduced planning personnel or greatly improve control with the same number of people.

One point obvious from this group was that in every case the user of the system had full responsibility for designing and installing requirements planning. In no case was a consulting firm used for anything but occasional guidance and advice (as opposed to having resident consultants design the system) and in no case was a systems group within the data processing department primarily responsible for the systems design; this responsibility was always assigned to the users.

E. Stock Status Records and Stockrooms

Sound requirements planning depends on accurate inventory records more than the common "order point plus expediting" system. With order points, the informal systems of pulling parts early to find shortages, etc., really control the inventory (see discussion on page 24, numbered paragraph 2). It is imperative therefore, that specific steps be taken to make and keep inventory records accurate. These successful companies summarized the dramatic changes needed in their stockrooms, recognized as the source of most record errors:

1. Stockrooms were locked so that the stores supervisor could assume responsibility for and really control both paperwork and material flows.
2. The importance of stockroom control was recognized by top management; in one case the president himself set the example by insisting that even he be among the non-authorized people excluded from the stockroom.
3. People in the stockroom have been upgraded in pay and status; their prime responsibility has been defined as "maintaining accurate records" — "proper care and handling of material" has been made secondary.
4. Adequate sub-systems have been set up to insure that engineers, product service people and assembly foremen, who may need parts when stockrooms are not manned can be serviced but adequate paperwork records will be maintained. One company not represented at the workshop has set up a separate open stock area with a few of each component to fill such needs.

There was general agreement that tight stockroom discipline is vital and that record accuracy will probably never be completely satisfactory. Counting errors, for example, cannot be avoided and audits of record accuracy through cycle counting will still have a small percentage error, particularly on low-value items, which must be tolerated.

One common error, especially where parts look very much alike, occurs when the wrong item is pulled from the stockroom bins. Assemblers or shop people who find the error later may simply hold the parts for future use and draw the correct parts from stores. Alternatively, they may return the incorrect parts while withdrawing the correct ones. In either case an unplanned transaction occurs and these are most difficult to control to prevent errors. Unlike counting errors which make only one record wrong, identification mistakes will cause errors to occur in two records, one for the part actually withdrawn and one for the part which should have been picked. To minimize this problem, Larry Sheley, Inventory Manager at Data Control Systems applied an ingenious check-digit technique. Check digits can be calculated in many ways; one of the most common is the Modulus 10 method, used on many credit cards to detect errors in account numbers. Using this method, a check digit is calculated as follows:

Assume that the part number is 138209:

Step 1. Starting with the right hand units digit and proceeding from

right to left, double every other digit, ignoring intermediate digits and handling carryover quantities exactly as in normal multiplication.

1	3	8	2	0	9
	6		5		8

Step 2. Insert the original digits that have not been doubled:

1	6	8	5	0	8
---	---	---	---	---	---

Step 3. Add these digits. Total = 28

Step 4. Subtract the units digit (8) of the sum from 10 to obtain the check digit.

10	-	8	=	2
----	---	---	---	---

Part number, including check digit is then 1382092.

Data Control Systems has calculated a check digit for each of their part numbers. That digit appears on the bin separate from the part number. When the stock man picks material from a bin, he writes the check digit on the requisition when he posts the quantity withdrawn. The check digit normally doesn't appear on requisitions or on the master parts list that he would use to make out a requisition for an unplanned transaction. When the part number is keypunched, a check digit is calculated by the machine and compared to the digit that was on the bin. If these do not coincide, an error is indicated and immediately followed up to determine what happened and get the record corrected. Data Control Systems concludes this has reduced the number of part identity mistakes by better than 90%.

To control unplanned transactions, Data Control Systems gives the supervisor of the stockroom a copy of the requirements plan. If someone in the plant requests material indicated as available on the requirements plan, he can issue it. If there are planned requirements against that material, the requester must obtain the approval of the inventory planner before the material can be released.

F. Bill of Material Structure

Most of the companies represented at this workshop had satisfactorily structured their bills of material and were no longer concerned with the problem so this was not a major topic. In at least one company, sales statistics are maintained for Level 0 assemblies. It was recognized that forecast accuracy is less than it would be if they based it on history of Level 1 assemblies because of the tremendous number of Level 0 assemblies made from a relatively few at

u. Engineering Change Control

All participating companies recognized the need for good control of engineering changes as necessary to maintaining accurate bills of material and minimizing inventory write-offs for obsolete material. The problems become more acute when using requirements planning because the bills of material are a vital element of the planning system in addition to describing how the product is put together.

Black & Decker has a well-designed and operated engineering change control system under the direction of an Engineering Change Coordinator, reporting to the Inventory Manager. Changes are classified as:

E (immediate) - to be made as soon as tooling, purchased components and physical ability of plant permit.

E - to be made as scheduled, tied to a specific order for finished product.

P - to be made at the convenience of Manufacturing, to achieve minimum cost and obsolete inventory.

For all but E (immediate) changes, the ECN (engineering change notice) number is linked to a specific order for finished product in a time period in the computer. A weekly engineering change analysis program in the computer checks to determine whether planned finished product requirements have actually materialized; if not, the ECN "effectivity date" or "fence" is moved ahead or back to make the best use of available components.

Twin Disc utilizes an ingenious approach to handle the timing of optional changes. If Part A is a single-item component replaced by Part B in an engineering change, B is set up in the bills of material of all products using A. The system is told that "A is made from B" and the lead time and order quantity for "A" are set at zero. As requirements planning explodes a master schedule to determine total demands for A, available quantities of A will be used up. When gone, net requirements for A will trigger gross requirements for B, a clear signal indicating the time period in which B will be required and that A should be deleted from bills of material.

If A is a sub-assembly made of several components, B is chained into the bills of material as the item from which the component having the lowest available quantity is made. The system then calls for B only when all possible quantities of A have been assembled and used.

Twin Disc's is, therefore, a *quantity-based* control, compared to Black & Decker's *time-based* control. The Emerson Motor Division of the Emerson Electric Company uses a "phase in / phase out" control similar to Twin Disc's where feasible; in other areas, they use a tie-in to a specific manufacturing lot, like Black and Decker.

Companies having experience with engineering change control programs emphasized the need for intelligent human direction. The deeper they got into such programs, the more obvious it became that questions relating to disposition of obsolete parts, rework possibilities, tooling availability, vendor capabilities,

Level 1.

Most of the companies represented did not try to maintain bills of material for Level 0 items. Their bill of material records covered the major sub-assemblies but not the top level assembly since, in most cases, the product shipped to the customer is quite modular and an almost infinite number of Level 1 combinations is possible.

Some of the companies have carefully structured their bills so that the common components used in many bills of material are grouped under a "kit" number so that the individual components appear only once. The unique components are combined with the kit number to make up the actual bill of material used to manufacture the end product.

A bill of material in a computer system doesn't have to represent an actual sub-assembly; it can represent a set of parts to be combined with other components to make a true assembly. This approach can make forecasting more accurate since the common component "kit" will tend to have more stable demand than the many sub-assemblies that use these components in combination with many unique components. "Kits" can also reduce the work of maintaining bills of material files for engineering changes, shorten computer processing time, reduce the storage space required in the product structure file and simplify the calculation of safety stock (discussed later in Section I - Safety Stock).

Fisher Controls structuring problem typifies that of any company whose product is extremely modular, sold in very small quantities per order with thousands of individual orders received each week. In a single product line the number of combinations of valve bodies, gaskets, springs, fittings, pilot valve assemblies, etc., could give them well over a million possible final product configurations. It is extremely unlikely they will sell some of each of the possible configurations just as automobile manufacturers are unlikely to sell every possible combination of transmission, body, radio, engine, etc., that could be made. Trying to anticipate which bills of material are required to describe likely combinations is an impossible task.

Using the technique of "superstructuring", they have developed an order entry matrix that allows them to specify the end product by calling out of the system bills of material of the modules at Level 1 needed to put together a valve assembly meeting their customer's specifications. The result actually is a unique bill of material for each order. In one product line alone, restructuring their bills of material to include only Level 1 assemblies and putting common parts on a separate bill of material to avoid repeating them throughout the product line has resulted in reducing the number of bills of material from 288 to 48 and the number of product structure records from 8,640 to 335.¹

¹ "Stop: Before You Use the Bill Processor," Dave Garwood - Production & Inventory Management - APICS Journal, 2nd. Q., 1970

quality and other factors could not be programmed into the computer.

H. Lot-Sizing

The consensus of the group was that "part-period balancing" with the "look-ahead / look-back" feature is over-sophisticated. Theoretical economies may be possible using this technique, but the forecasts and cost estimates that go into the calculation hardly justify the pseudo-precision that such techniques appear to produce. In addition to this, the group felt that the difficulty in giving a clear explanation of the look-ahead / look-back feature to inventory planners might well offset any potential benefits. One of the principles of system design recognized by the participants was, "Make the logic obvious" and this was violated by the look-ahead / look-back feature. The least total cost or part-period algorithm without look-ahead / look-back appears more reasonable. Most of the experienced companies had modified even this technique in their programs. Only two companies were using the full technique and did not have sufficient experience to draw firm conclusions. One other used part-period balancing but imposed a ceiling of eight weeks' supply on the lot sizes. Two companies used Period Order Quantities; the rest used fixed lot-sizes, modified by purchase discounts and shop restrictions.

Using pre-determined lot sizes in a requirements plan tends to generate lots that do not match component requirements. This problem was discussed in Section D – Lot Sizing. In addition, a small increase in requirements at the top level can generate an order for a full lot size and as this generates other orders down through the levels of sub-assemblies and parts, it can result in a greatly amplified demand.

Using any dynamic lot-sizing technique, even POQ or square root EOQ recalculated with requirements planning, poses some serious problems. The problems relate to rescheduling orders and are demonstrated by the following example:

1. At Level 1 the requirements plan generated a planned order for 1000 units, the lot-size of the sub-assembly. This gross requirement generated a net requirement for 1000 at Level 2 and a manufacturing order was released to the shop for 1000 on which work was started.
2. The following week requirements at the top level are changed; as a result a dynamic lot sizing technique recomputes the lot size at Level 1 and changes it from 1000 to 1150. The problem is what to do about the open order for 1000 of the Level 2 component?

Dynamic lot sizing at Level 2 might even combine this requirement with other Level 1 requirements to set a much larger lot-size than is needed to cover the 150 additional, all based on lot-sizing economies.

The company with the longest experience with Period Order Quantity verified that recalculations of lot sizes on a dynamic basis did create a number of emergency orders and was a serious problem. The problem is simply stated –

dynamic lot sizing at one level can properly combine and recombine *planned* orders, but, if actual orders have been released, dynamic lot-sizing "economies" at Level 1 can create very heavy additional rescheduling costs at Level 2. To avoid this problem, this general approach was recommended:

1. At the top level, use a fixed order quantity. If requirements change, vary the *timing*, not the *order quantity*.
2. At intermediate levels, order one-for-one. This is generally acceptable, since sub-assemblies' set-up times tend to be very low.
3. At the lower levels of the bill of material use as a discrete lot-sizing technique such as POQ or Least Total Cost. Since these will be exploded down to a few lower level items, mainly purchased raw materials, the rescheduling problem is minimized.

Another potential solution to this problem is to determine for an inventory item the cumulative lead time down through all its lower levels and, as much as is practical, use the rule: "No planned order within cumulative lead time can have its quantity changed". No one is using this approach, but it sounded feasible to the group.

Only one conclusion emerged clearly from this discussion – that dynamic lot-sizing techniques were easier to develop and program than to use in the real world. Most of the more sophisticated techniques have yet to prove that they make possible real-life benefits.

I. Safety Stock

Of the three approaches to setting safety stocks discussed in the workshop (see Section II – Safety Stock), none appeared to be fully developed as yet. The objections to using "safety time", lying to the system, inflating work-in-process, etc., have already been stated. This approach should be used very judiciously, if at all.

The third method, an interesting new approach, was being tested by New Britain Machine Company, measuring requirements variations at critical component levels to set statistical safety stocks like those used with order points. They had not yet had sufficient experience to draw firm conclusions, but early indications were not promising.

The second method had the most practical application. Statistical analysis of demand variation can be made at the end product level. Forecast error can be determined and safety stocks related to the probability of meeting a given total demand. For example, if end item (or Level 1) demand averages 10 units per month, analysis of forecast error may indicate that only 10% of the time will demand exceed 15 units. A 90% service level goal would then require 5 units of safety stock, and 15 units would be entered into the plan for the current month with ten units in each succeeding month.

Increasing the top level input by "over-forecasting" in this manner seemed to be the most practical approach but it introduces the problem of avoiding

pyramiding safety stocks of common components. Assume, for example, three assemblies A, B and C with demand forecast and error as indicated:

Assembly	Forecast	95% Service Forecast Error
A	10	3
B	20	7
C	15	5

There will be no problem with unique components going into these assemblies; they will have safety stock requirements exploded down to their level only for the assembly in which they are used. For example, 3 sets of unique components should be ordered to protect against demand in excess of forecast for Item A. The safety stock for a common component going into Assemblies A, B and C would be 15, however. Since the maximum demand for all assemblies is extremely unlikely to occur simultaneously, 15 units of safety stock of common parts would be excessive.

A formula widely used in quality control to handle "interference fit" problems arising from the cumulative effect of tolerance variables, known as the "square root of the sum of the squares", can be applied to this problem also. Using this formula, safety stock for a component common to Assemblies A, B and C would be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Safety stock} &= \sqrt{(3)^2 + (7)^2 + (5)^2} \\
 &= \sqrt{9 + 49 + 25} = \sqrt{83} \\
 &= 9 \text{ units}
 \end{aligned}$$

This formula is being used in an off-line, periodic calculation by Data Control Systems to determine safety stock quantities to be planned for common components. Use of this formula has enabled them to reduce safety stock investment by about 40% with no reduction in service. Another company intends to calculate the safety stock in this way, but to add it to the next order quantity outside the system so that safety stocks will not generate new requirements at lower levels.

It is important to note that many companies do overforecast but do not recognize the safety stock quantities separately. By doing this, they will get excessive quantities of safety stock on common components. It is also important to note that with this approach, safety stock should be carried at one level only. For example, if safety stocks of sub-assembly "a" are calculated this will automatically generate safety stocks for the components going into "a" and no further safety stocks should be calculated. If parts going into sub-assembly "a" have additional direct usages in assembly A, B or C, the safety stocks for these

requirements would be carried at the parts level.

Much work remains to be done to perfect this most promising technique for calculating safety stocks. Effects of lead time and lot-size on service levels have not been explored but the technique while approximate is practical and appears superior to other approaches.

Obviously, safety stock has to be used with great caution in requirements planning. The basic idea is to get as precise a date as possible on an order and to update it through periodic recalculation. Requirements planning also permits inventory to drop to zero between requirements. Adding safety stocks will tend to defeat both of these capabilities and should be done only after careful analysis and with clearly defined benefits.

J. Rescheduling and Priorities

Figure 4 shows a rescheduling problem with a requirements plan. Following the ordering rules given it, the computer has found that the projected On Hand Inventory will drop below the Safety stock level of 17 in Week 6, requiring a planned order to be started in Week 1. Checking further, it finds that there is material already on order and due in Week 7. Data Control Systems uses the double asterisk to call the planner's attention to the option of creating a new order or rescheduling the old one. Should he reschedule? In this case, obviously not because the amount below Safety Stock is trivial and it is carried for just this reason.

Pt 17534		OQ = 35		SS = 17		LT = 5		
		W1	W2	W3	W4	W5	W6	W7
REQ'T		12	4	14	1	0	21	4
ON HAND	33	21	17	38	37	37	16	47
ON ORDER				35				35
PLANNED ORDER		**						

Figure 4

A difficult question was whether or not to let the system reschedule orders "automatically", responding to changing end product master schedules, excess scrap, record error corrections, unplanned withdrawals and the like. There was general agreement that rescheduling orders out in time automatically would not

cause any great difficulty. Rescheduling orders in earlier could be harmful, particularly when, as in Figure 4, it caused a reschedule that wasn't really necessary thus aggravating the "credibility" problem.

One of the important considerations in rescheduling is the ability of the environment to respond. A computerized daily dispatch list would react to automatic reschedules even if they were trivial but few shops can "turn on a dime". Automatic rescheduling could result in the purchasing department being flooded with computer generated order revisions that neither they nor the vendors could respond to. A real dilemma exists here and no company represented had sufficient experience with automatic rescheduling to resolve it. General agreement was reached among the more experienced users of requirements planning that a good rule might be: "Planned orders can be rescheduled automatically by the system; actual orders can be rescheduled only by the planner".

There was general agreement, however, that changing the *timing* of an order is much more desirable than changing the *quantity*. It was also recognized that the rescheduling load would be spread out by a weekly regeneration planning system since reschedules approved during one week would not trigger other reschedules at lower component levels until the following week. This would, of course, also delay reaction time.

K. Net Change Versus Regeneration

The discussion of net change versus regeneration brought out the following general conclusions:

1. Batch net change generally requires less computer operating time and produces less paperwork than regeneration.
2. Net change can be more responsive to changing requirements through daily processing.
3. Net change requires a great deal more discipline and maintenance of records.

The first two points are fairly evident; the third is perhaps not so obvious. Consider, for example, how a net change system would react for an item whose lead time was six weeks but is now reduced to four weeks. Subsequently, because of master schedule changes, an order or requirement at a high level is removed from the system. The computer will explode the change down through the component levels, offsetting the revised four weeks to indicate the effect on this item. Previously planned orders in the system based on the original six weeks lead time would be missed and remain unchanged. To be used effectively, all planned orders in a net change system must be realigned when lead times are changed.

The same problem arises when an engineering change alters the product structure record. If existing requirements based on the old product structure record have not been corrected and a net change run is made, the system will not

be ordering the right material. Net change also requires tight maintenance routines to be sure that small over and underruns, record adjustments, etc., are balanced out correctly at all levels. A regeneration system recreates all requirements periodically and tends to be self-purging.

Net change seems to be the more demanding, yet more precise explosion technique, capable of producing more specific and useful output. The more experienced companies at this workshop used a net change system and felt strongly that net change was the only way to go, regenerating a new plan only at long intervals. Others felt that they would prefer to regenerate more often than they had been in order to purge the system and remove annoying errors.

L. Allocation

Although there seemed to be many interpretations of "allocation" as used in requirements planning, it was agreed that the best definition of an allocated order is one that has been released for picking by the stockroom but components have not yet been withdrawn from the stockroom. A synonym is "uncashed requisition". Data Control Systems reduces requirements by the quantity on an order released to the stockroom and then puts this quantity into their allocation record. When the components are pulled from the stockroom, both allocation and on-hand are relieved. If any parts shortages exist, backorders are created for each individual component and these continue to show as allocations. Black & Decker uses a somewhat different approach. When the system places a planned order in the current time period, indicating it should now be released, its component parts are automatically allocated at the next lower level. They are relieved from allocation and from on-hand when actually issued from stores.

The advantage of having an allocation record lies in the ability to show separately the quantity of parts on hand in the stockroom and the portion of these committed to orders in the stockroom calling for these parts in specific time periods. Set up as described here, there was general agreement that allocation was a most useful tool. The more common approach of showing all allocations without time-period identification buries much useful information which might influence rescheduling, expediting and altering assembly schedules.

M. Pegged Requirements

A requirement at one component level that can be traced to the next higher level component that caused it is called "pegged". A Level 2 component requirement, for example, would be pegged to show the Level 1 item that actually generated it. Black & Decker pegs requirements to an order number rather than a part number. General Railway Signal Company, using the IBM PICS packages, has chained their open order files to the item master to permit them to do the same thing. Data Control Systems and Dictaphone show only the identity of the higher level item that created the requirement; during

provided by Bruno Jobin, Manager of Programming, Markem Corporation, Keene, New Hampshire.

3. The PICS program allows for regeneration or net change (requirements alteration). There seemed to be no serious problems with either approach; however, care must be exercised when using net change since there is no provision in the requirements alteration program to insure that component changes resulting from an engineering change will be handled properly. The problem arises because there are no program steps to remove old requirements and reinstate new ones automatically when an engineering change affects the bill of material. An engineering change affecting the product structure record would, of course, be handled correctly with regeneration.
4. Safety stock is not calculated in the PICS program, but there are program exits so that sub-routines developed by the user can be tied in properly.
5. The lot-sizing techniques provided in the PICS program raise some problems as discussed in Section H above. There are, however, user exits by which the POQ or least total cost techniques without "look-ahead / look-back" could be programmed and tied in fairly easily.
6. The PICS program facing a situation like that shown in Figure 4 would print out an exception report indicating the need for rescheduling the order. However, it should be clearly understood that it would develop a new planned order and proceed from there to the next level down assuming that the open order *had not been rescheduled*.
7. "Conversational planning" which permits stepping down through the plan one level at a time, had not been used by any of the companies and they didn't see it as a particularly useful tool, even for education.

In general, the users of the PICS package were quite pleased with it. They felt that it had helped them to develop and implement their requirements planning program in considerably less time than would have been required if they had to write all programs themselves. New Britain Machine installed the Bill of Material Processor, the Inventory Control package and the Requirements Planning module and completed all of this in less than seven months. This is a very commendable achievement; many companies have spent a year or even more just getting the Bill of Material Processor program operating. In view of the large potential savings, any means like PICS to reduce the systems design and programming time is worth very serious consideration. Additional dividends result because use of the package prevents gross errors, omissions, or useless sophistication likely in "home-grown" programs designed by inexperienced people.

V. Conclusions

This Special Report does not cover all aspects of requirements planning. Many topics, such as detailed exception reports, and methods of structuring bills of material were not covered in the workshop because they were of relatively little interest to this particular group. Other topics, such as many potential areas of saving, the use of "phantom bills of material" to handle sub-assemblies produced but not stocked, and techniques for allocating common components against assembly requirements were also omitted from this report because time did not permit them to be covered during the workshop in sufficient depth. This does not mean that such subjects are unimportant when developing a requirements planning system. This report is intended only to distill and make available to others the practical experiences exchanged at this workshop, together with explanatory material necessary for an adequate understanding by practitioners without previous experience in using requirements planning.

The general conclusions that can be drawn from this workshop are:

1. Requirements planning is a powerful tool useful in a company making products that have components with dependent demand.
2. The tool has proven its power and usefulness by successful application in a number of companies.
3. The number of companies using the tool is a very small fraction of those who could benefit from such use.
4. There is still much to be learned about some of the finer points of requirements planning.
5. The literature published in this field contains little on the subject, almost nothing on practical applications.
6. Because previous inventory systems were not capable of keeping priorities up to date most companies relied very heavily on their "informal" systems — the shortage and hot lists. Requirements planning has the potential to provide more realistic, useful priority information as part of the "formal" system. Most companies experience difficulty in realizing this potential — primarily because of a tendency to overstate requirements in the master schedule.

The attendees at the workshop felt that the two and a half days were not long enough to cover the important topics in the depth they would have liked. All recognized there is much more involved in learning to use requirements planning effectively than is apparent at first exposure. This type of workshop, obviously, will have to be repeated.

VI. Recommendations

While a great deal of research and development effort has been expended in some areas of production and inventory control, little has been related to requirements planning. Areas requiring further research are:

1. Development of requirements planning simulator to demonstrate the obvious power of the technique and provide a teaching medium.
2. Testing in a real-world environment the various approaches to lot-sizing in a multi-level product structure to realize the benefits and minimize the problems of dynamic lot-sizing.
3. Development of methods for determining optimum safety stocks for lower level components in a requirements plan and the definition of service levels insured by these safety stocks.
4. Identification and definition of the important factors to be considered in structuring bills of material to achieve maximum benefits.
5. Development of engineering change control procedures to minimize potential losses.
6. Study of best methods of linking requirements planning, capacity planning, scheduling and costing systems to use common data sources and provide needed checks and balances in an operating environment.

VII. Bibliography

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- III. Wight, O. W., "To Order Point or Not To Order Point", *Journal of Production and Inventory Management*, November, 1968.
- IV. Garwood, Dave, "Stop, Before You Use The Bill Processor", *Journal of Production and Inventory Management*, Second Quarter, 1970.

EXHIBIT

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLAN

DATA-CONTROL SYSTEMS, INC.

PURCHASING COPY

AS OF 04/04/69

CURRENT WEEK NO. 66

REPORT DATE

04/08/69

TR NO. 776

PAGE NO. 15

PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		UNIT		QUANTITY		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		TOTALS
AD 011430		RIGHT RAIL		EA		3.		0.		3.		8		8		8		8		15.
PAST DUE	CURRENT	04/11	04/18	04/25	05/02	05/09	05/16	05/23	05/30	06/06	06/13	06/20	06/27	07/04	07/11	07/18				TOTALS
0.	0.	5.	0.	10.	0.	0.	10.	0.	0.	0.	0.	5.	5.	0.	0.	0.				35.
0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				0.
3.	21.	16.	16.	6.	6.	6.	16.	16.	16.	16.	16.	11.	6.	6.	6.	6.				6.
0.	15.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	20.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				38.
0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				0.
ITEMS IN FORECAST: 231 327																				
ITEMS IN ALLOCATION:																				

PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		UNIT		QUANTITY		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		TOTALS
AD 011431		CHASSIS		EA		20.		0.		20.		3		1		8		3		105.
PAST DUE	CURRENT	04/11	04/18	04/25	05/02	05/09	05/16	05/23	05/30	06/06	06/13	06/20	06/27	07/04	07/11	07/18				TOTALS
0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	10.	10.	0.	0.	0.	0.	6.				26.
0.	5.	1.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				6.
20.	15.	14.	14.	14.	14.	14.	14.	14.	14.	4.	-6.	-6.	-6.	-6.	-6.	-12.				-12.
0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				0.
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ITEMS IN ALLOCATION: 315 282																				

PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		UNIT		QUANTITY		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		TOTALS
AD 011433		VCO BOARD		EA		33.		0.		33.		17		1		5		5		36.
PAST DUE	CURRENT	04/11	04/18	04/25	05/02	05/09	05/16	05/23	05/30	06/06	06/13	06/20	06/27	07/04	07/11	07/18				TOTALS
0.	0.	12.	0.	14.	1.	0.	21.	4.	0.	0.	0.	15.	5.	0.	6.	0.				78.
0.	0.	0.	4.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				4.
33.	33.	27.	17.	38.	37.	37.	16.	47.	47.	47.	47.	32.	27.	27.	27.	21.				21.
0.	0.	0.	35.	0.	0.	0.	35.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				70.
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ITEMS IN ALLOCATION: 009																				

PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		UNIT		QUANTITY		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		DATE		TOTALS
AD 011451		FRONT PANEL		EA		0.		55.		55.		16		1		8		2		102.
PAST DUE	CURRENT	04/11	04/18	04/25	05/02	05/09	05/16	05/23	05/30	06/06	06/13	06/20	06/27	07/04	07/11	07/18				TOTALS
0.	0.	0.	0.	15.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				15.
3.	6.	2.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				18.
55.	46.	44.	44.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.	29.				29.
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0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.				0.
ITEMS IN FORECAST: 246																				
ITEMS IN ALLOCATION: 246																				

AA = OPEN ORDER IN THE PAST DUE PERIOD.
 BB = PLANNED ORDER IN ADDITION TO AN EXISTING ORDER IN A FUTURE PERIOD.
 CC = MATERIAL ON ORDER THAT IS NOT REQUIRED IN ANY PERIOD.
 DD = MATERIAL ON ORDER THAT EXCEEDS 16 WEEK REQUIREMENTS (MATERIAL ADDED TO 16TH PERIOD.)

EE = LEAD TIME IS ZERO OR SAFETY STOCK IS ZERO.
 FF = PLANNED ORDER RELEASE.
 GG = ON HAND IS BELOW SAFETY HOWEVER MATERIAL IN M.W.R.

DATE 3/22/58 WEEK 40

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PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		QUANTITY		UNIT PRICE		TOTAL PRICE		COST		STATUS	
1195-POORALL STEEL		C100000		12270		0		100000.0		280400		2220	
1195-POORALL STEEL		C100000		12270		0		100000.0		280400		2220	

DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL
1958															
077	1000	1000	1000	08	1500	1500	1500	107	110	110	110	126	126	126	126
279	1000	1000	1000	1900	1500	1500	1500	3585	110	110	110	6154	126	126	126
1178				49											
0000				6510											
															1500
															6510
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PART NUMBER		DESCRIPTION		QUANTITY		UNIT PRICE		TOTAL PRICE		COST		STATUS	
1209-127 RESISTOR		C100000		0		0		100000.0		000		0	
1209-127 RESISTOR		C100000		0		0		100000.0		000		0	

DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL	DATE	QTY	PRICE	TOTAL
1958															
077															
08	50	1502	1502												
															1502

1. Part change report per form
 2. Part not in stock - check status
 3. Part in stock - check status
 4. Part in stock - check status
 5. Part in stock - check status
 6. Part in stock - check status
 7. Part in stock - check status
 8. Part in stock - check status
 9. Part in stock - check status
 10. Part in stock - check status
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 56. Part in stock - check status
 57. Part in stock - check status
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 89. Part in stock - check status
 90. Part in stock - check status
 91. Part in stock - check status
 92. Part in stock - check status
 93. Part in stock - check status
 94. Part in stock - check status
 95. Part in stock - check status
 96. Part in stock - check status
 97. Part in stock - check status
 98. Part in stock - check status
 99. Part in stock - check status
 100. Part in stock - check status

40543

01/06/70

MARKIN CORPORATION
REQUIREMENTS GENERATION

EXHIBIT V

PAGE 326

PART NO. 0282301 POLICY CODE G DESCRIPTION - TURNOVER GEAR BKT

ITEM TYPE 2 INV. CLASS B SOURCE M UNIT OF MEASURE EACH ORDER QUANTITY 80 SAFETY STOCK LEAD TIME 8

UNIT COST INVENTORY BALANCE 41 MIN. MAX. MULT. ALLOC. 1ST AVE. 0

GROSS OPEN ORD 609 614 619 624 629 634 639 644 649
10 10 9 8 8 10 8 8 7

NET OFFSET BALANCE 31 21 12 12 12 62 62 80 55
654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
10 20

GROSS OPEN ORD 654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
10 20 17 22 14

NET OFFSET BALANCE 45 25 25 25 25 8 66 66 66
699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739

GROSS OPEN ORD 699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739
35 2

NET OFFSET BALANCE 56 56 31 31 29 29 29 29 29

PART NO. 0282315 POLICY CODE G DESCRIPTION - BLOCK

ITEM TYPE 2 INV. CLASS D SOURCE M UNIT OF MEASURE EACH ORDER QUANTITY SAFETY STOCK LEAD TIME 8

UNIT COST INVENTORY BALANCE 7 MIN. MAX. MULT. ALLOC. 1ST AVE. 0

GROSS OPEN ORD 609 614 619 624 629 634 639 644 649
3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

NET OFFSET BALANCE 4 4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
4 2

GROSS OPEN ORD 654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

NET OFFSET BALANCE 6 6 6 6 6 4 4 2 2
699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739

GROSS OPEN ORD 699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739
2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

PART NO. 0282317 POLICY CODE G DESCRIPTION - BRACKET

ITEM TYPE 2 INV. CLASS D SOURCE M UNIT OF MEASURE EACH ORDER QUANTITY SAFETY STOCK LEAD TIME 8

UNIT COST INVENTORY BALANCE 10 MIN. MAX. MULT. ALLOC. 1ST AVE. 0

GROSS OPEN ORD 609 614 619 624 629 634 639 644 649
4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3

NET OFFSET BALANCE 6 6 3 3 3 12 12 12 12
654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3

GROSS OPEN ORD 654 659 664 669 674 679 684 689 694
3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3

NET OFFSET BALANCE 12 9 9 9 8 6 6 3 3
699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739

GROSS OPEN ORD 699 704 709 714 719 724 729 734 739
3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3

MATERIAL REQUIREMENTS PLAN—PARTS AS OF 07/15/70 WEEK DAY PAGE 1

011623 100A SCR REGULATOR MODULE ASSY		COMPONENT PART																
011623100A		908 35 998 6 862 28 120 74																
GROSS REQUIREMENTS	NET AVAILABLE	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	
		7/20	8/10	8/17	8/24	8/31	9/07	9/14	9/21	9/28	10/05	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/02	11/09	11/16	11/23
44	43	44	24	24	14	19	20	11	83	83	75	226	151	141	141	143	210	211
150																		
		60		60		60		60		60		60		60		60		60

011623 255A POWER RELAY MODULE		COMPONENT PART																
011623255A		33 10 83 1 49 10 6 4																
GROSS REQUIREMENTS	NET AVAILABLE	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF
		7/20	8/10	8/17	8/24	8/31	9/07	9/14	9/21	9/28	10/05	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/02	11/09	11/16	11/23
4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1	1	6	6	6	6	10	11	21	11	19	15

011623 57 DIODE PCA 200 PIV 174-28 5110 4730		COMPONENT PART																	
01162357A		235 203 168 14 101																	
GROSS REQUIREMENTS	NET AVAILABLE	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	
		7/20	8/10	8/17	8/24	8/31	9/07	9/14	9/21	9/28	10/05	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/02	11/09	11/16	11/23	
343	339	311	465	463	461	339	331	317	315	193	122	121	51	49	47	53	103	105	111
150		250																	
		740				240				240		240				240			240

011624 247A 1/2 DIODE		COMPONENT PART																	
011624247A		5545 300 5055 25 813 536 70 368																	
GROSS REQUIREMENTS	NET AVAILABLE	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF
		7/20	8/10	8/17	8/24	8/31	9/07	9/14	9/21	9/28	10/05	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/02	11/09	11/16	11/23	
388	340	277	6	11	22	164	78	216	68	56	81	306	31	17	163	243	260	483	370
							1000												
		360					360			360		360		360		360		360	360

011622 SCR CELL T10 2 245 400V		COMPONENT PART																	
0116222A		333 159 233 24 30																	
GROSS REQUIREMENTS	NET AVAILABLE	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF	WEEK OF
		7/20	8/10	8/17	8/24	8/31	9/07	9/14	9/21	9/28	10/05	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/02	11/09	11/16	11/23	
6	5	6	24	24	24	24	30	6	6	6	6	30	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
			30																
			26				26					26					26		26

PLANNING STATUS REPORT

MTD: 264 JOB: 1143 W. DAY: 426

DATE: 09/12/70 PAGE: 27

PART NO.	DESCRIPTION	UNIT COST	REV	UM P/R	UM USE	LOC	TYPE	SAP	ENC	EST	OC	LT	CLT	POO	REQ PT.	REQ QTY	SAFE STK	SH. INH						
1000030318120	INSERT BEBULIZER					08		716430	M		1	10	40											
REF. PT.	MIN. Q. Q.	MAX. Q. Q.	OR HAND	ON ORDER	ALOC	REQUISITIONS	EACH ORD	EACH LOC	TOTAL USE	SPO USE	SERV USE	REPL USE	PPO USE	OTHER USE										
			762		125				60974															
	PAST DUE	907	926	931	936	941	946	951	956	961	966	971	976	992	11	31	51	70	90	109	128	148	167	172
	SALES PLAN	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	EXP PLAN	237	587	128	0	0	210	105	0	0	121	100	0	420	236	270	292	273	205	305	110	0	0	0
	OTHER PLAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	TOTAL PLAN	239	490	128	0	0	210	105	0	0	121	103	0	420	236	270	292	273	205	305	110	0	0	0
	RELEASED ORD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	PROJ. ON HAND	523	33	-98	-98	-98	-108	-416	-416	-416	-537	-630	-640	-1063	-1302	-1572	-1864	-2137	-2342	-2647	-2757	-2757	-2757	-2757
	PLANNED ORD	0	387	0	0	0	194	0	0	0	333	0	0	314	325	311	256	230	205	205	0	0	0	0
WHERE USED	1000030304750-1 1000030303540-1																							
ORDER NO	NO ORDERS-																							
ALLOCATIONS	K05953700- 260-907 K06716500- 125-546																							

PART NO.	DESCRIPTION	UNIT COST	REV	UM P/R	UM USE	LOC	TYPE	SAP	ENC	EST	OC	LT	CLT	POO	REQ PT.	REQ QTY	SAFE STK	SH. INH						
1000030318420	IVOT CHOPPER MOUNT					08		11430	M		1	20	20	10										
REF. PT.	MIN. Q. Q.	MAX. Q. Q.	OR HAND	ON ORDER	ALOC	REQUISITIONS	EACH ORD	EACH LOC	TOTAL USE	SPO USE	SERV USE	REPL USE	PPO USE	OTHER USE										
			328		215	100			151					26										
	PAST DUE	907	926	931	936	941	946	951	956	961	966	971	976	992	11	31	51	70	90	109	128	148	167	172
	SALES PLAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	EXP PLAN	134	55	143	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	77	47	87	42	80	0	0	0	0	0	0
	OTHER PLAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	TOTAL PLAN	134	55	143	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	77	47	87	42	80	0	0	0	0	0	0
	RELEASED ORD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	PROJ. ON HAND	194	139	211	211	211	211	211	161	161	161	161	161	84	37	-30	-92	-172	-172	-172	-172	-172	-172	-172
	PLANNED ORD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	172	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WHERE USED	1000030300080-1																							
ORDER NO	K06430600- 215-931																							
ALLOCATIONS	K06413700- 100-918																							

PART NO.	DESCRIPTION	UNIT COST	REV	UM P/R	UM USE	LOC	TYPE	SAP	ENC	EST	OC	LT	CLT	POO	REQ PT.	REQ QTY	SAFE STK	SH. INH						
1000030300080	PLATE ADJUSTING					08		311430	M		1	20	20	10										
REF. PT.	MIN. Q. Q.	MAX. Q. Q.	OR HAND	ON ORDER	ALOC	REQUISITIONS	EACH ORD	EACH LOC	TOTAL USE	SPO USE	SERV USE	REPL USE	PPO USE	OTHER USE										
			530		100				127															
	PAST DUE	907	926	931	936	941	946	951	956	961	966	971	976	992	11	31	51	70	90	109	128	148	167	172
	SALES PLAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	EXP PLAN	134	55	143	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	77	47	87	42	80	0	0	0	0	0	0
	OTHER PLAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	TOTAL PLAN	134	55	143	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	77	47	87	42	80	0	0	0	0	0	0
	RELEASED ORD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	PROJ. ON HAND	396	341	198	198	198	198	198	148	148	148	148	148	71	24	-63	-105	-185	-185	-185	-185	-185	-185	-185
	PLANNED ORD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	185	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WHERE USED	1000030300080-1																							
ORDER NO	NO ORDERS-																							
ALLOCATIONS	K06413700- 100-918																							

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FORM 100 REV 10-64

TWIN DISC, INCORPORATED

EXHIBIT IX

MATERIAL STATUS - PRODUCTION SCHEDULE



PART NUMBER	NAME	FORECAST QUANTITY	USED LAST YEAR	USED TO DATE	USED THIS PERIOD	YEAR TO DATE SCRAP	SAFETY STOCK	LEAD TIME	S.O.O.	IN COME	REQ. THIS PERIOD	SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS	MODEL USED ON	LOWER LEVEL OR OTHER PART NUMBER		PRINT DATE
														PART NUMBER	QUANTITY	
201392 X	SPACER	25	2250	307			90	3	500	15	4	C-OND.	6F13	404	2352	09/12/69
UNREL. W. D.	AIRC. NOT IN PROGRESS															
ACTION REQUIRED																
SERVICE DELIVERY PER YEAR																
SERVICE DELIVERY LAST YEAR																
W/OFFICE QUANTITY																
MATERIAL COST																
LABOR COST																

	PAST DUE	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281	282	283	284	285	286	287	288
REQUIREMENTS	433	120	10	11	152	105	60	80	193	47	20	10	166	152	98	25	107	107
SCHED. PICKUPS	61																	
AVAILABLE	1553	971	961	950	798	675	434	359	381	314	289	264	98	54	144	109	276	383
PLANNED ORDERS										500								
											10	25	107	107		20	99	187
INVENTORY	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296	297	298	299	300	301	302	303	304	305	306
INVENTORY		20	99	187	2	25	54	43	40	30	20	73	44					10
AVAILABLE	608	433	532	719	754	769	821	866	996	936	961	1034	1078	1103	1128	1153	1178	1203
PLANNED ORDERS										500								
	2	25	54	43	40	30	20	73	44				10					
REQUIREMENTS	307	308	309	310	311	312	313	314	315	316	317	318	319	320	321	322	323	TOTALS
REQUIREMENTS																		2534
AVAILABLE	1228	1253	1278	1303	1328	1353	1378	1403	1428	1453	1478	1503	1528	1553	1578	1603	1628	1628
PLANNED ORDERS										500								2000

APPENDIX I

Dynamic Order Quantities

The subject of lot sizing where requirements are discrete rather than continuous has just come into its own. A great many of the recent articles in the APICS Journal have covered the subject, none is more definitive than this article by Tom Gorham. We are including it in its entirety because it is in our opinion one of the basic reference works for lot sizing as used with a requirements planning program.

DYNAMIC ORDER QUANTITIES

Thomas Gorham

Outboard Marine Corp., Waukegan, Illinois

Computer capacity and techniques have now reached the point where more and more companies are developing time series requirements planning systems. In these systems the requirements for a part will be expressed not as a rate per day, but rather as an array of varying requirements scattered out through time. Components of stocked assemblies will show intermittent usage based on the expected building of the assembly. A seasonal part would show a fluctuating usage. It is apparent that such erratic requirements could not be validly expressed as a rate per day nor could they be ordered economically with either a fixed quantity or fixed time period order quantity calculation. An ordering system is required which will develop economical orders in spite of this changing and intermittent usage.

Two methods of calculating dynamic order quantities are discussed in this article. Both are non-iterative in that they step through the array of requirements only a single time, calculating a series of orders. These methods are considerably faster than iterative methods which must try several alternative strategies before deciding on an ordering pattern.

The first method which is more well known and the most commonly used, searches for the least unit cost. In developing an order it steps through the requirements calculating the cost of inventory and setup per piece and it orders at the point where the unit cost is lowest. This method, in spite of its apparently unassailable logic, turns out upon analysis and comparison with other methods of ordering, to be a very uneconomical way of determining order quantities. It develops ordering patterns which result in excessive inventory and also excessive setup charges.

The second method is newer and not so commonly known. It is based on the same theory as the classic EOQ formula, i.e., that the least total cost is at the point where the inventory cost and setup cost are equal. This method consistently develops ordering patterns which result in considerably smaller inventory and setup charges than does the least unit cost method.

*Reprinted from the First Quarter 1968 issue of the APICS *Production and Inventory Management Journal*.

The following examples show the difference in the way the two methods would order. They show a very simple array of requirements and the computation of order quantities using the least unit cost method. Throughout these examples we are assuming:

Unit cost = $C = \$1.00$

Setup cost = $S = \$40.00$

Inventory carrying cost = $I = .5\%$ per week (25% per year)

The inventory cost is figured as follows:

The first requirement of 1000 is assumed to come to stock and be drawn for the next usage in the same week. Therefore it would not acquire any inventory cost.

The second requirement of 6000 would be held in inventory for three weeks which is equivalent to carrying 18000 parts for one week. The 15000 at .5% gives an inventory cost of \$90.00.

Week	Requirements	Cum Reqs. In Inv.	Weeks In Inv.	Repts. x Weeks	Inv. Cost @ .5%	Setup Cost	Total Cost	Unit Cost
1	1000	1000	0	0	0	40.00	40.00	.040
2			1					
3			2					
4	6000	7000	3	18000	90.00		130.00	.0186
5	1000	8000	4	4000	20.00		150.00	.0187

Figure 1

In the example of Figure 1, the least unit cost is at a quantity of 7000 where the unit cost is .0186 with a total cost of \$130. An inspection of the costs, however, reveals that it would be less expensive to setup and make the requirements for 6000 separately since then there would be a setup charge for \$40 rather than an inventory charge of \$90. This would result in \$50 less expense. The least total cost method would order this way because the inventory charge of \$0 is closer to the setup charge than is \$90. (There is no advantage to making part of the 6000 in order to achieve an exact balance of \$40 inventory and \$40 setup, since that would increase inventory but would not reduce setups.)

In Figure 2 the requirements have been switched around.

Week	Requirements	Cum Reqs. In Inv.	Weeks In Inv.	Repts. x Weeks	Inv. Cost @ .5%	Setup Cost	Total Cost	Unit Cost
1	6000	6000	0	0	0	40.00	40.00	.0067
2			1	0	0			
3			2	0	0			
4	1000	7000	3	3000	15.00		55.00	.0078
5	1000	8000	4	4000	20.00		75.00	.0094

Figure 2

Here the least unit cost is at a quantity of 6000 with a total cost of \$40. Again, an analysis of the costs reveals that it would cost \$40 to set up to make the 1000 in period 4 whereas if that quantity were combined with the initial requirement it would only cost \$15 in inventory charges. This would be a savings of \$25. The least total cost system would combine the 6000 in period 1 and the 1000 in period 4 (and more) because the cumulative inventory charges had not written off the setup charges.

These two examples, though admittedly rigged, do show the radical differences between these two methods. Many tests of these have been made using long arrays of requirements. A series of orders was developed and the resulting cost of inventory and setup was computed. The least unit cost method was very erratic in its behavior. On one set of requirements it would develop low setup costs and high inventory costs, and on another set it might do just the reverse. However it never could obtain the balance between the two which resulted in lower total costs than were being achieved by the least total cost method.

About the author —

THOMAS CORHAM is Production and Inventory Control Specialist on the corporate systems staff of Outboard Marine Corporation. He has been working in the area of computer applications for approximately ten years. Prior to that he worked in many areas of production planning and control as well as related fields such as methods engineering and tool making. He attended Harvard University and is a member of the Milwaukee Chapter of APICS.

From a more mathematical point of view the following are generalized expressions of the two methods. (The derivations of these are in the appendix.) In these

S = Setup cost

C = Unit cost of part

I = Inventory carrying charge per period

R_n = Requirement quantity in period n

n = Number of periods ordered or period number

Least unit cost:

The unit cost at period $n + 1$ will be less if

$$nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{IC}$$

Therefore order cut through time periods until the expression on the left becomes greater than S/IC .

Least Total cost:

$$0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n = \frac{S}{IC}$$

Order at the point where the expression on the left is most nearly equal to S/IC .

Before going on, it might be a good idea to look at the expression S/IC which is the control factor in both formulas. This, in effect, defines a part from an economic standpoint since it contains setup cost, unit cost and the inventory carrying cost. Since this is a new concept, there has been no generally acceptable name developed for the expression, although "quantity factor" and "part-period" seem to be fairly well established. What this factor boils down to is the number of parts which if carried in inventory for one period would result in an inventory charge equal to the setup cost. In the previous examples S/IC would be $\$40.00/0.005 \times \$1.00 = 8000$, meaning that 8000 parts carried for one week (or 4000 parts for 2 weeks, etc.) would result in an inventory charge equal to the setup charge. This, I suspect, will become a very useful number in various inventory control applications.

To get back to the formulas, both expressions are related to S/IC . However, the weighting the requirements is completely reverse. Assume four time periods ($n=4$) in order to make the two expressions easier to read:

Least unit cost $- 4R_1 + 3R_2 + 2R_3 + 1R_4$,

Least total cost $- 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + 3R_4$.

The least unit cost puts a higher weight on the first requirement which is held in stock for much shorter time period than is the requirement for period five. This is not at all logical from a cost of inventory standpoint. On the other hand the weightings for the least total cost do seem to be more logical.

Another, probably even more disturbing, thing about the least unit cost formula is that it says that if the total at period n is less than S/IC , then the unit cost at $n + 1$ will be less regardless of quantity or inventory charges. This helps to understand why some of the orders developed by the least unit cost method are illogical as they were in Figures 1 and 2. As long as unit cost decreases it will order regardless of what it does to total cost.

In conclusion, the least unit cost method, in spite of its extremely attractive name and easily understood logic, actually does not develop orders which result in a low over-all cost. On the other hand, mathematical analysis and extensive comparative tests show that the least total cost system results in substantially lower costs of both inventory and setup. Although it is a little more complex in concept, it is equally simple to administer and use, and it certainly gives better results.

APPENDIX

Derivation of Formulas

1. Formula for Least Unit Cost

$$\text{Unit cost} = \frac{\text{Setup Cost} + \text{Inventory Cost}}{\text{Quantity}}$$

$$\text{Setup cost} = S$$

$$\text{Inventory Cost} = \text{Requirement qty} \times \text{weeks in Inventory} \times \text{Cost of part} \times \text{Inventory carrying cost.}$$

Assuming that the first requirement is used as soon as it is received, the weeks in inventory would be zero. Then

$$0R_1IC = \text{cost of inventory for the first requirement}$$

$$1R_2IC = \text{cost of inventory for the second requirement}$$

$$(n-1)R_nIC = \text{cost of inventory for the } n^{\text{th}} \text{ requirement}$$

$$nR_{n+1}IC = \text{cost of inventory for the } n+1 \text{ requirement}$$

The total cost of inventory would be

$$0R_1IC + 1R_2IC + 2R_3IC + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1}IC + (n-1)R_nIC$$

or

$$[0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n]IC$$

$$\text{let } R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n$$

Quantity is the sum of the requirements,

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_{n-1} + R_n$$

$$\text{Thus unit cost at } n = \frac{S + R_TIC}{R_T}$$

$$\text{Unit cost at } n+1 = \frac{S + R_TIC + nR_{n+1}IC}{R_T + R_{n+1}}$$

Order R_{n+1} if unit cost is less than at R_n

Order R_{n+1} if

$$\frac{S + R_TIC + nR_{n+1}IC}{R_T + R_{n+1}} < \frac{S + R_TIC}{R_T}$$

This simplifies to

$$nR_TIC < S + R_TIC$$

$$nR_TIC - R_TIC < S$$

$$nR_T - R_T < \frac{S}{IC}$$

Substituting for R_T

$$nR_T = n(R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_{n-1} + R_n)$$

$$nR_T = nR_1 + nR_2 + nR_3 + \dots + nR_{n-1} + nR_n$$

$$R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n$$

$$nR_T - R_T = nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{IC}$$

Order R_{n+1} if

$$nR_1 + (n-1)R_2 + (n-2)R_3 + \dots + 2R_{n-1} + 1R_n < \frac{S}{IC}$$

2. Least Total Cost

This balances the cost of inventory with cost of setup.

Cost of Inv. = Cost of setup

$$R_TIC = S$$

$$R_T = \frac{S}{IC}$$

$$R_T = 0R_1 + 1R_2 + 2R_3 + \dots + (n-2)R_{n-1} + (n-1)R_n = \frac{S}{IC}$$

APPENDIX II

Modifications to the IBM PICS Program

Modifying the IBM PICS Program
to Print a Projected Available
Balance.

Acknowledgment

We'd like to thank Bruno Jobin, the Manager of Programming at Markem Corporation, Keene, New Hampshire, for supplying the following program steps for making modifications to the IBM System 360 PICS Requirements Planning Package so that it will print a projected available balance. We'd also like to thank Richard Danner, Manager of Systems Administration, for General Railway Signal Company, for his independent comments on this printout.

Modifying the IBM PICS Program to print a Projected Available Balance.

The MACRO listings from Markem Corporation are provided so that an experienced programmer can look at them and see what modifications must be made to produce a projected "On Hand Balance" print line. To achieve this, two MACROs must be altered. The MACROs are RPS3M (Phase-3 Mainline) and RPSCP (print routine). The Coding modifications flagged in RPSCP (print routine) are straight forward and efficient. They can be included exactly as they appear. These instructions accommodate the extra line to be printed, which is identified by a print parameter code passed to the print routine by the RPS3M (Mainline MACRO).

The RPS3M MACRO is also straightforward and reasonably efficient. The purpose of these modifications is to calculate the projected on-hand balance line and to call the RPSCP (print MACRO) at the time the line is desired to print. The actual calculation of the projected on-hand balance is accomplished in lines RAE04830 through RAE05050. This code would have to be modified by each user to suit his own need.

Note that Markem carries their raw material on-hand balance (signified by MTYPN = 1 or 3) with more decimal position than the other material types. These instructions are included in their routine to compensate for this - lines RAE04941 - RAE04948. These instructions may not be of use to other companies.

It may be mentioned that the printer used to display the two MACROs did not have a Universal Character Set print chain. Therefore, it substituted the following:

```
( printed as %  
' printed as @  
) printed as =  
= printed as #
```

It's important in looking at these MACROs that the programmer see where in the IBM program the modifications were made to make specific modifications to suit his own company's requirements rather than trying to duplicate the modifications that have been satisfactory for Markem Corporation.

```
// JOB DISPLAY ->RPGS OF SYS/360 REQUIREMENTS PLANNING PROGRAMS 40000010  
// EXEC ASSEMB 40000020
```


B	WS1100	AFTER PRINT NR TO END OF ROUTINE	RAE01890
ANDP			RAE01900
ANDP			RAE01910
ANDP			RAE01920
ANDP			RAE01930
ANDP			RAE01940
ANDP			RAE01950
ANDP			RAE01960
ANDP			RAE01970
ANDP			RAE01980
ANDP			RAE01990
ANDP			RAE02000
ANDP			RAE02010
ANDP			RAE02020
ANDP			RAE02030
ANDP			RAE02040
ANDP			RAE02050
ANDP			RAE02060
ANDP			RAE02070
ANDP			RAE02080
ANDP			RAE02090
ANDP			RAE02100
ANDP			RAE02110
ANDP			RAE02120
ANDP			RAE02130
ANDP			RAE02140
ANDP			RAE02150
ANDP			RAE02160
ANDP			RAE02170
ANDP			RAE02180
ANDP			RAE02190
ANDP			RAE02200
ANDP			RAE02210

B	WS1076	IF NO, GO TO CALC OFFSET	RAE02220
AGO	WS1076		RAE02230
ANDP			RAE02240
ANDP			RAE02250
ANDP			RAE02260
ANDP			RAE02270
ANDP			RAE02280
ANDP			RAE02290
ANDP			RAE02300
ANDP			RAE02310
ANDP			RAE02320
ANDP			RAE02330
ANDP			RAE02340
ANDP			RAE02350
ANDP			RAE02360
ANDP			RAE02370
ANDP			RAE02380
ANDP			RAE02390
ANDP			RAE02400
ANDP			RAE02410
ANDP			RAE02420
ANDP			RAE02430
ANDP			RAE02440
ANDP			RAE02450
ANDP			RAE02460
ANDP			RAE02470
ANDP			RAE02480
ANDP			RAE02490
ANDP			RAE02500
ANDP			RAE02510
ANDP			RAE02520
ANDP			RAE02530
ANDP			RAE02540
ANDP			RAE02550
ANDP			RAE02560
ANDP			RAE02570
ANDP			RAE02580
ANDP			RAE02590
ANDP			RAE02600
ANDP			RAE02610
ANDP			RAE02620
ANDP			RAE02630
ANDP			RAE02640
ANDP			RAE02650
ANDP			RAE02660
ANDP			RAE02670
ANDP			RAE02680
ANDP			RAE02690
ANDP			RAE02700
ANDP			RAE02710
ANDP			RAE02720
ANDP			RAE02730
ANDP			RAE02740
ANDP			RAE02750
ANDP			RAE02760
ANDP			RAE02770


```

MVC SMP1,HTCLOSE
L (1,ARPCALL)
BALR 14,11
SKIP31 ANOP
3. CLOSE EXCEPTION FILE
L 11,AREXCEM
BALR 14,11
4. CLOSE PRINTER
CLOSE APPRINT
TYPE OUT END-OF-JOB MESSAGE
MVI EMAREA,EMAOB (CLEAR TYPE MSG AREA)
MVC EMAREA+1(1)EMAREA+1R,EMARFA
MVC EMARE+2(1)EMARE+2R,EMEOJ (MOVE EOJ MSG TO AREA)
L 11,ATYREOUT (LD ADDR OF TYPE ROUTINE)
BALR 14,11 (BRANCH AND LINK TO TYPEOUT)
EOJ
CONSTANTS ASSOCIATED WITH ROUTINE 3
LENGTH ATTRIBUTE CHANGED FROM 172.
APRPTJOB DS CL170 PRINTER OUTPUT AREA
MSTRJOB DC RAO000 SM TO INDICATE WRITE HAS BEEN PERFORMED
MSERR1 DC C031A ERROR FOUND WHILE WRITING ITEM MASTER
MSERR2 DC C032A ERROR FOUND WHILE READING ITEM MASTER
MSERR3 DC C033A SUBORDINATE MASTER ERROR, READ NEXT RECORD
HOLD AREAS AND CONSTANTS. REFER TO RAO0170 THRU 1109.
HOLD AREA 1 REFER TO RAO0170 THRU 0770.
H1 DC H0510
HOLDF1 DC PL1000 TO HOLD FIRST AVERAGE
P1SAVE1 DS F TO HOLD REG 7
P1SAVE2 DS F TO HOLD REG 8
SUNKRF DC X0FF0 TO TEST FOR EXCEPTION NOTICE
HOLD14 DS F TO HOLD REG 14
TABLE OF ADDRESS CONSTANTS - FOR LINKAGE TO I/O AND PROCESSING
ROUTINES IN PHASE 3 ONLY
TEST IF S/M FILE EXISTS
APRPRND DC X2C0HEXIST0 ME 0100,0101
APRPRNDW DC X2C0HEXIST0W READ S/M
APRPRNDW DC X2C0HEXIST0W WRITE S/M
M101 ANOP
M1000 DC X21G1001W INITIALIZE GROSS ROUTINE
M1001 DC X2P1001W PRINT INDICATIVE ROUTINE

```

```

MVC SMP1,HTCLOSE
L (1,ARPCALL)
BALR 14,11
SKIP31 ANOP
3. CLOSE EXCEPTION FILE
L 11,AREXCEM
BALR 14,11
4. CLOSE PRINTER
CLOSE APPRINT
TYPE OUT END-OF-JOB MESSAGE
MVI EMAREA,EMAOB (CLEAR TYPE MSG AREA)
MVC EMAREA+1(1)EMAREA+1R,EMARFA
MVC EMARE+2(1)EMARE+2R,EMEOJ (MOVE EOJ MSG TO AREA)
L 11,ATYREOUT (LD ADDR OF TYPE ROUTINE)
BALR 14,11 (BRANCH AND LINK TO TYPEOUT)
EOJ
CONSTANTS ASSOCIATED WITH ROUTINE 3
LENGTH ATTRIBUTE CHANGED FROM 172.
APRPTJOB DS CL170 PRINTER OUTPUT AREA
MSTRJOB DC RAO000 SM TO INDICATE WRITE HAS BEEN PERFORMED
MSERR1 DC C031A ERROR FOUND WHILE WRITING ITEM MASTER
MSERR2 DC C032A ERROR FOUND WHILE READING ITEM MASTER
MSERR3 DC C033A SUBORDINATE MASTER ERROR, READ NEXT RECORD
HOLD AREAS AND CONSTANTS. REFER TO RAO0170 THRU 1109.
HOLD AREA 1 REFER TO RAO0170 THRU 0770.
H1 DC H0510
HOLDF1 DC PL1000 TO HOLD FIRST AVERAGE
P1SAVE1 DS F TO HOLD REG 7
P1SAVE2 DS F TO HOLD REG 8
SUNKRF DC X0FF0 TO TEST FOR EXCEPTION NOTICE
HOLD14 DS F TO HOLD REG 14
TABLE OF ADDRESS CONSTANTS - FOR LINKAGE TO I/O AND PROCESSING
ROUTINES IN PHASE 3 ONLY
TEST IF S/M FILE EXISTS
APRPRND DC X2C0HEXIST0 ME 0100,0101
APRPRNDW DC X2C0HEXIST0W READ S/M
APRPRNDW DC X2C0HEXIST0W WRITE S/M
M101 ANOP
M1000 DC X21G1001W INITIALIZE GROSS ROUTINE
M1001 DC X2P1001W PRINT INDICATIVE ROUTINE

```

MSTRJOB


```

*CPB
LA 7,CALSHOP SET DATE POINTER FOR SHOP R4000530
LA 10,CALSHOP+1AL2 OBTAIN LAST SHOP DATE R4000540
R4000550
R4000560
R4000570
R4000580
R4000590
R4000600
R4000610
R400061T
R400061B
R400061R
R400061R
R4000620
R4000630
R4000631
R4000632
R4000633
R4000634
R4000640
R4000640
R4000670
R4000680
R4000690
R4000700
R4000710
R4000720
R4000730
R4000740
R4000750
R4000760
R4000770
R4000780
R4000790
R4000800
R4000810
R4000820
R4000830
R4000840
R4000850
R4000860
R4000870
R4000880
R4000890
R4000900
R4000910
R4000920
R4000930
R4000940
R4000950
R4000960
R4000970
R4000980

```

```

AP CPFGTOLINESET LINES(1, PLACE IN PAGE 10) R4000990
CP CPFGTOLINEPAGE -ILL THIS SET SET ON PAGE R4001000
DN CP1005 NO OVERFLOW R4001010
B CP1006 R4001020
LR 10,11 SAVE BASE REG R4001030
ST 1,CPRINTENT SAVE INIT COUNT R4001040
L 11,CPOFAOR LOAD ADDR OF OVERFLOW R4001050
BALM 14,11 BRANCH TO OVERFLOW R4001060
R4001070
R4001080
R4001090
R4001100
R4001110
R4001120
R4001130
R4001140
R4001150
R4001160
R4001170
R4001180
R4001190
R4001200
R4001210
R4001220
R4001230
R4001240
R4001250
R4001260
R4001270
R4001280
R4001290
R4001300
R4001310
R4001320
R4001330
R4001340
R4001350
R4001360
R4001370
R4001380
R4001390
R4001400
R4001410
R4001420
R4001430
R4001440
R4001450
R4001460
R4001470
R4001480
R4001490
R4001500
R4001510
R4001520
R4001530
R4001540
R4001550
R4001560
R4001570
R4001580
R4001590
R4001600

```

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

*CPB

* BEING PRINTED AND SET THEM OFF IF NOT. THIS IS TO ENABLE THE FLAGGING OF THESE QUANTITIES - * FOR OPEN ORDERS * FOR OFFSET PLANNED ORDERS.	R4001518
CP2001A LA S,CROSSDITY SELECT GROSS DTY W/A	R4001519
MVC APPRI02A80,CPGROSS MOVE ADDRESS TO PRINT	R4001520
MVI SWDSET,2000 NOT PRINTING OFFSET	R4001533
MVI SWOPEN,2000 NOT PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001534
B CP2002	R4001540
ATF ZDOPENORDS TO 2ND00,CPG	R4001550
CP2001B LA S,RELORDD SELECT RELEASED ORDERS W/A	R4001560
MVC APPRI02A80,CPOPEN MOVE OPENING TO PRINT	R4001570
MVI SWDSET,2000 NOT PRINTING OFFSET	R4001574
MVI SWOPEN,2000 PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001578
B CP2002	R4001580
ADD .CPM	R4001590
ANOP	R4001600
* OPEN ORDERS NOT INCLUDED	R4001610
CPM ATF ZDCHRG04 TO 2ND00,CPJ	R4001620
CP2001C LA S,NETDIT SELECT NET DTY W/A	R4001630
MVC APPRI02A80,NET MOVE NETDIT TO PRINT	R4001640
MVI SWDSET,2000 NOT PRINTING OFFSET	R4001643
MVI SWOPEN,2000 NOT PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001644
B CP2002	R4001650
ADD .CPM	R4001660
ANOP	R4001670
* NET NOT INCLUDED	R4001680
CPM ATF ZDPLAN05 TO 2ND00,CPK	R4001690
CP2001D LA S,PL0ADDIT SELECT PLANNED ORDERS W/A	R4001700
MVC APPRI02A80,CPPL0M MOVE PL0M TO PRINT	R4001710
MVI SWDSET,2000 NOT PRINTING OFFSET	R4001715
MVI SWOPEN,2000 NOT PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001716
B CP2002	R4001720
ADD .CPM	R4001730
ANOP	R4001740
* PLANNED ORDERS NOT INCLUDED	R4001750
CPM ATF ZD0FFSET0 TO 2ND00,CPB	R4001760
CP2001E LA S,05FF0TY SELECT OFFSET DTY W/A	R4001770
MVC APPRI02A80,CP05TY MOVE 05TY TO PRINT	R4001780
MVI SWDSET,2000 PRINTING OFFSET	R4001785
MVI SWOPEN,2000 NOT PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001788
B CP2002	R4001790
ADD .CPM	R4001800
ANOP	R4001810
* OFFSET NOT INCLUDED	R4001820
CPM ATF ZDRE0ALTD NE 0YES00,CPAB	R4001830
CP2001G LA S,NC002TY ADJUSTED ORDERS ARE FOUND HERE	R4001840
MVC APPRI02A80,CPADJ0R MOVE ADJ D0R TO PRINT	R4001850
MVI SWDSET,2000 NOT PRINTING OFFSET	R4001855
MVI SWOPEN,2000 NOT PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4001858
B CP2002	R4001860
ADD .CPM	R4001870
ANOP	R4001880
* RIGHT ALIGATION NOT INCLUDED	R4001890
CPM ATF ZD00IT23 TO 0F0500,CP5	R4001900
CP2001F CNTR0 APPRINT,SP,1 SPACE ONE BEFORE PRINT SET	R4001910
LP LINECNT,CPADNE ADD ONE TO LINE COUNT	R4001920

ADD .CPM	R4001930
ANOP	R4001940
CP2001H FOU	R4001950
MVI LNDPSW,2000 PLAN ON DISPLACEMENT SW	R4001960
MVC CPDISP,CPNTR RESET DISPLACEMENT	R4001970
MVI ZD00IT23 TO 0F0500,CPM	R4001980
B CP1004	R4001990
ADD .CPV	R4002000
ANOP	R4002010
CP2002 SA 10,10	R4002020
L 10,CP-NOISP	R4002030
AR 10,5 LAST WORK AREA ADDR	R4002040
B S,CPDISP ADD DISPLACEMENT TO W/A POINTER	R4002070
SA 9,9 CLEAR COLUMN COUNTER	R4002080
LA 9,1 PLACE A ONE IN COL COUNTER	R4002090
CP2003 ZAP CPACK,CP0500SS0TY,50 DTY TO FOUR BYTE FIELD	R4002100
* LENGTH ATTRIBUTE ON R400210 AND 2120 CHANGED FROM 12 TO ACCOMMODATE PRINTING A FLAG FOR OPEN ORDERS AND OFFSET PLANNED ORDERS.	R4002104
MVC ZD10,00,CPPRIND DTY PATTERN TO PRINT	R4002110
ED ZD10,00,CPPACK EDIT DTY IN PRINT AREA	R4002120
* TEST SWITCHES FOR PRINTING OPEN ORDERS OR OFFSET PLANNED ORDERS. GO TO PRINT FLAG ROUTINE IF ON. R4002125 THRU 2128.	R4002125
CLI SWDSET,2000 PRINTING OFFSET PLANNED ORDERS	R4002125
BE TESTDTY YES - TEST FOR ZERO OFFSET DTY	R4002126
CLI SWOPEN,2000 PRINTING OPEN ORDERS	R4002127
BE TESTDTY YES - TEST FOR ZERO OPEN ORDER DTY	R4002128
* TO TEST IF RUNNING ON HAND BALANCE IS A CREDIT AND IF SO TO PRINT A CREDIT SYMBOL. R4002134 THRU R4002139.	R4002134
CLI APPRI02A80,CP0BALANCER PRINTING RUNNING D/H BALANCE	R4002134
BNE TESTEND NO	R4002135
CP CPACK,0000000000 IS DTY A CREDIT	R4002136
BNE TESTEND NO	R4002137
MVC TEST,00,010000 CREDIT SYMBOL TO PRINT	R4002138
TESTEND CR 9,10	R4002138
BE CP1010 YES, GO TO PRINT	R4002140
CH W,CPLINE IS PRINT AREA AT END	R4002136
BE CP7004 YES	R4002140
LA S,CROSSDITYESD INCR W/A MOVING POINTER	R4002170
LA 0,1200 INCR PRINT POINTER	R4002180
LA 9,1004 INCR COLUMN COUNTER	R4002190
B CP2003	R4002200
CP2004 LA S,CROSSDITYESD INCR W/A POINTER TO NEXT POSITION	R4002210
CLI CPDPSW,2000	R4002220
BNE CP1010	R4002230
MVC CPDPSW,2000	R4002240
LA S,CROSSDITY	R4002250
SA 9,6 OBTAIN DISPLACEMENT	R4002260
ST S,CPNTA SAVE DISPLACEMENT	R4002270

B	CP1010		R4002275	* SIZE OF PATTERN CHANGED FROM 12 CHARACTERS TO ACCOMMODATE FLAG.	R4002247	
			R4002277	* R4002250 AND 2480.	R4002248	
			R4002278		R4002249	
			R4002279		R4002250	
			R4002280		R4002251	
TESTOFT	CLL	CPFRACK, R400066002	R4002281	CPFRAND	DC	R4002252
	RE	NOFLAG	R4002282	CPIN51	ANOP	R4002253
	CLL	SWOFFSET, R400FB	R4002283	CPIN50	DC	R4002254
	RE	PATAS1	R4002284	CPIN52	ANDP	R4002255
	MVC	TESTEND, R400780	R4002285	CPIN51	DC	R4002256
	R	TESTEND	R4002286	CPIN52	DC	R4002257
PATAS7	MVC	TESTEND, R400780	R4002287	CPIN51	DC	R4002258
	R	TESTEND	R4002288	CPIN52	DC	R4002259
NOFLAG	MVC	TESTEND, R400780	R4002289	CPIN51	DC	R4002260
	R	TESTEND	R4002290	CPIN52	DC	R4002261
			R4002291	CPIN51	DC	R4002262
			R4002292	CPIN52	DC	R4002263
			R4002293	CPIN51	DC	R4002264
			R4002294	CPIN52	DC	R4002265
CP2001H	LA	S, P4000R	R4002295	CPIN51	DC	R4002266
	MVC	R400710, R4000R	R4002296	CPIN52	DC	R4002267
	MVI	SWOFFSET, R400R	R4002297	CPIN51	DC	R4002268
	MVI	SWOFFSET, R400R	R4002298	CPIN52	DC	R4002269
	B	CP2002	R4002299	CPIN51	DC	R4002270
	DS	OF	R4002300	CPIN52	DC	R4002271
CPCALEND	DC	R400	R4002301	CPIN51	DC	R4002272
CPCALADR	DC	F400	R4002302	CPIN52	DC	R4002273
CP4ADISP	DC	F400	R4002303	CPIN51	DC	R4002274
CPDISP	DC	F400	R4002304	CPIN52	DC	R4002275
CPNTR	DC	F400	R4002305	CPIN51	DC	R4002276
CPSAVE1	DC	F400	R4002306	CPIN52	DC	R4002277
CPSAVE2	DC	F400	R4002307	CPIN51	DC	R4002278
	ATF	R400710, R4000R	R4002308	CPIN52	DC	R4002279
CPDATE	DS	M4	R4002309	CPIN51	DC	R4002280
CPATAND	DC	R4002021, R400710, R4000R	R4002310	CPIN52	DC	R4002281
CPKX	ATF	R400710, R4000R	R4002311	CPIN51	DC	R4002282
CP0FADDR	DC	R400710, R4000R	R4002312	CPIN52	DC	R4002283
CPINTCNT	DC	R400	R4002313	CPIN51	DC	R4002284
CPAGC01	DC	R400	R4002314	CPIN52	DC	R4002285
CPADME	DC	R400	R4002315	CPIN51	DC	R4002286
CPITEND	DC	R400	R4002316	CPIN52	DC	R4002287
	AGO	CP1	R4002317	CPIN51	DC	R4002288
	ANOP	CP1	R4002318	CPIN52	DC	R4002289
ASIT23	DC	AT1R1230	R4002319	CPIN51	DC	R4002290
CP1	ANOP		R4002320	CPIN52	DC	R4002291
			R4002321	CPIN51	DC	R4002292
			R4002322	CPIN52	DC	R4002293
			R4002323	CPIN51	DC	R4002294
			R4002324	CPIN52	DC	R4002295
			R4002325	CPIN51	DC	R4002296
			R4002326	CPIN52	DC	R4002297
			R4002327	CPIN51	DC	R4002298
			R4002328	CPIN52	DC	R4002299
			R4002329	CPIN51	DC	R4002300
			R4002330	CPIN52	DC	R4002301
			R4002331	CPIN51	DC	R4002302
			R4002332	CPIN52	DC	R4002303
			R4002333	CPIN51	DC	R4002304
			R4002334	CPIN52	DC	R4002305
			R4002335	CPIN51	DC	R4002306
			R4002336	CPIN52	DC	R4002307
			R4002337	CPIN51	DC	R4002308
			R4002338	CPIN52	DC	R4002309
			R4002339	CPIN51	DC	R4002310
			R4002340	CPIN52	DC	R4002311
			R4002341	CPIN51	DC	R4002312
			R4002342	CPIN52	DC	R4002313
			R4002343	CPIN51	DC	R4002314
			R4002344	CPIN52	DC	R4002315
			R4002345	CPIN51	DC	R4002316
			R4002346	CPIN52	DC	R4002317
			R4002347	CPIN51	DC	R4002318
			R4002348	CPIN52	DC	R4002319
			R4002349	CPIN51	DC	R4002320
			R4002350	CPIN52	DC	R4002321
			R4002351	CPIN51	DC	R4002322
			R4002352	CPIN52	DC	R4002323
			R4002353	CPIN51	DC	R4002324
			R4002354	CPIN52	DC	R4002325
			R4002355	CPIN51	DC	R4002326
			R4002356	CPIN52	DC	R4002327
			R4002357	CPIN51	DC	R4002328
			R4002358	CPIN52	DC	R4002329
			R4002359	CPIN51	DC	R4002330
			R4002360	CPIN52	DC	R4002331
			R4002361	CPIN51	DC	R4002332
			R4002362	CPIN52	DC	R4002333
			R4002363	CPIN51	DC	R4002334
			R4002364	CPIN52	DC	R4002335
			R4002365	CPIN51	DC	R4002336
			R4002366	CPIN52	DC	R4002337
			R4002367	CPIN51	DC	R4002338
			R4002368	CPIN52	DC	R4002339
			R4002369	CPIN51	DC	R4002340
			R4002370	CPIN52	DC	R4002341
			R4002371	CPIN51	DC	R4002342
			R4002372	CPIN52	DC	R4002343
			R4002373	CPIN51	DC	R4002344
			R4002374	CPIN52	DC	R4002345
			R4002375	CPIN51	DC	R4002346
			R4002376	CPIN52	DC	R4002347
			R4002377	CPIN51	DC	R4002348
			R4002378	CPIN52	DC	R4002349
			R4002379	CPIN51	DC	R4002350
			R4002380	CPIN52	DC	R4002351
			R4002381	CPIN51	DC	R4002352
			R4002382	CPIN52	DC	R4002353
			R4002383	CPIN51	DC	R4002354
			R4002384	CPIN52	DC	R4002355
			R4002385	CPIN51	DC	R4002356
			R4002386	CPIN52	DC	R4002357
			R4002387	CPIN51	DC	R4002358
			R4002388	CPIN52	DC	R4002359
			R4002389	CPIN51	DC	R4002360
			R4002390	CPIN52	DC	R4002361
			R4002391	CPIN51	DC	R4002362
			R4002392	CPIN52	DC	R4002363
			R4002393	CPIN51	DC	R4002364
			R4002394	CPIN52	DC	R4002365
			R4002395	CPIN51	DC	R4002366
			R4002396	CPIN52	DC	R4002367
			R4002397	CPIN51	DC	R4002368
			R4002398	CPIN52	DC	R4002369
			R4002399	CPIN51	DC	R4002370
			R4002400	CPIN52	DC	R4002371
			R4002401	CPIN51	DC	R4002372
			R4002402	CPIN52	DC	R4002373
			R4002403	CPIN51	DC	R4002374
			R4002404	CPIN52	DC	R4002375
			R4002405	CPIN51	DC	R4002376
			R4002406	CPIN52	DC	R4002377
			R4002407	CPIN51	DC	R4002378
			R4002408	CPIN52	DC	R4002379
			R4002409	CPIN51	DC	R4002380
			R4002410	CPIN52	DC	R4002381
			R4002411	CPIN51	DC	R4002382
			R4002412	CPIN52	DC	R4002383
			R4002413	CPIN51	DC	R4002384
			R4002414	CPIN52	DC	R4002385
			R4002415	CPIN51	DC	R4002386
			R4002416	CPIN52	DC	R4002387
			R4002417	CPIN51	DC	R4002388
			R4002418	CPIN52	DC	R4002389
			R4002419	CPIN51	DC	R4002390
			R4002420	CPIN52	DC	R4002391
			R4002421	CPIN51	DC	R4002392
			R4002422	CPIN52	DC	R4002393
			R4002423	CPIN51	DC	R4002394
			R4002424	CPIN52	DC	R4002395
			R4002425	CPIN51	DC	R4002396
			R4002426	CPIN52	DC	R4002397
			R4002427	CPIN51	DC	R4002398
			R4002428	CPIN52	DC	R4002399
			R4002429	CPIN51	DC	R4002400
			R4002430	CPIN52	DC	R4002401
			R4002431	CPIN51	DC	R4002402
			R4002432	CPIN52	DC	R4002403
			R4002433	CPIN51	DC	R4002404
			R4002434	CPIN52	DC	R4002405
			R4002435	CPIN51	DC	R4002406
			R4002436	CPIN52	DC	R4002407
			R4002437	CPIN51	DC	R4002408
			R4002438	CPIN52	DC	R4002409
			R4002439	CPIN51	DC	R4002410
			R4002440	CPIN52	DC	R4002411
			R4002441	CPIN51	DC	R4002412
			R4002442	CPIN52	DC	R4002413
			R4002443	CPIN51	DC	R4002414
			R4002444	CPIN52	DC	R4002415
			R4002445	CPIN51	DC	R4002416
			R4002446	CPIN52	DC	R4002417
			R4002447	CPIN51	DC	R4002418
			R4002448	CPIN52	DC	R4002419
			R4002449	CPIN51	DC	R4002420
			R4002450	CPIN52	DC	R4002421
			R4002451	CPIN51	DC	R4002422
			R4002452	CPIN52	DC	R4002423
			R4002453	CPIN51	DC	R4002424
			R4002454	CPIN52	DC	R4002425
			R4002455	CPIN51	DC	R4002426
			R4002456	CPIN52	DC	R4002427
			R4002457	CPIN51	DC	R4002428
			R4002458	CPIN52	DC	R4002429
			R4002459	CPIN51	DC	R40024

4. RACV V.M 0.0 NO BLOCKS SYSTEM SOURCE-STATEMENT LIBRARY

MACRO	4. RACV		
MACRO	4. RACV	DATA AREAS COMMON TO PHASES 1,2,3	3000-RF-043 MI-LO
MACRO	4. RACV	DATA AREAS COMMON TO OVERLAYS 1,2,3	
MACRO	4. RACV	ALSO TABLE OF ADDRESS CONSTANTS REQUIRED TO HANDLE LINKAGE BY THE SUBROUTINES TO THE I/O ROUTINES.	
MACRO	4. RACV	REGISTER USAGE - NONE-GENERATES COMMON AREA.	
MACRO	4. RACV	1. REQUIREMENTS GENERATION WORK AREAS	
GROSSQTY DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	GROSS REQ WORK AREA	
RELORDS DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	OPEN ORDERS WORK AREA	
NETQTY DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	NET REQ. WORK AREA	
PLORDQTY DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	PLAN ORDERS WORK AREA	
OFFSETQTY DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	OFFSET WORK AREA	
COMPQTY DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	COMPONENT GROSS WORK AREA	
NETCHG DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	NET CHNG PLAN ORDERS WORK AREA	
RPSWORN DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?	RPS TIME SERIES WORK AREA	
WORKDOCT OC	NOCLANDNO,3	NUMBER OF DATE/QTY FIELDS PER CARD	
WORKDOCT IF	NOCLANDNO,3	NUMBER OF DATE/QTY FIELDS INPUT PER ITEM	
GROSSSUM DC	NOCLANDNO,3	NUMBER OF DATE/QTY FIELDS OF GROSS REQTS	
GROSSSUM DC	NOENUNTPR,3	NUMBER OF TIME PERIODS OF GROSS REQTS	
PLANDNUM DC	NOCLANDNO,3	NUMBER OF OPEN ORDER DATE/QTY FIELDS	
PLANDNUM DC	NOCLANDNO,3	NUMBER OF PLANNED ORDER DATE/QTY FIELDS	
OSPSQTY DC	PLEOTYFDS?,000	REQUIREMENTS OFFSET 1ST PERIOD	
MACRO DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?		
MACRO DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?		
MACRO DS	ENUNTPR,PLEOTYFDS?		

2. SWITCHES AND CONSTANTS ETC			
RPIQSVLO DC	100	SAVE ACGIO STORAGE FOR I/O ROUTINES ON BOMP FILES	
RPIQSAVR DS	100	B/M TO DIVISION REQS SAVE AREA	
APDLEONV DS	0	DATA CONVERSION WORK AREA	
RENINYSV DC	KL1000	RE-ENTRY SWITCH	
RPERRESN DC	1000	VA PREFIX ERROR BYTES SWITCH OF R0002, ON R000	
RPERRESV DS	CL2	VA FOR ALL VA PREFIX ERROR BYTES	
RPERRESN DS	R	VA FOR COMPRESSED DISK ADDRESS FOR B/M RECORDS	
RPIHND DC	R000	LEAD PACKED FIELD	
RPIHND DC	CREAPND	?? FOR EXPANDING ADDRS	
RPIHND DC	CRENDJ	END OF CHAIN MARKER	
RPIHND DC	CRORPN	?? FOR OPENING B/M FILES	
RPIHND DC	CRCLSD	?? FOR CLOSING B/M FILES	
RPIHND DC	CRCHPR	?? FOR COMPRESSING ADDRS	
RPIHND DC	CRCHNR	?? FOR RANDOM RETRIEVAL BY KEY	
RPIHND DC	CRDIRA	?? FOR DIRECT META BY DISK ADDR	
RPIHND DC	CRUPDR	?? FOR UPDATE OF RECORD ON DISK	
RPIHND DC	CRSPATNK	PARENT P/M SAVE AREA	
RPIHND DC	R000	NET SWITCH	
RPIHND DC	PLA	PLAN ORDER WORK BUCKET, ALSO REMAINING PLAN ORDER BUCKET	
RPIHND DC	PLA	REMAINING REQUIREMENT BUCKET FOR PLAN ORDER SUBROUTINE	
TEST FOR DUMMY SECTION			
TABLE OF ADDRESS CONSTANTS - FOR LINKAGE TO I/O ROUTINES IN COMMON TO ALL PHASES			
ARPPRINT DC	ARPPRINT	CONSOLE ERROR MESSAGE ROUTINE	
ARPRANK DC	ARPRANK	READ I/M BY KEY	
ARPHDIRA DC	ARPHDIRA	READ I/M BY O/A	
ARPHUPDR DC	ARPHUPDR	WRITE I/M	
ARPHCALI DC	ARPHCALI	CALL BOMP TO DIV RECALL RACV FOR I/M	
ARPHSTGE DC	ARPHSTGE	READ P/S	
ARPHCALI DC	ARPHCALI	CALL BOMP TO DIV RECALL RACV FOR P/S	
ARPHSEQ DC	ARPHSEQ	READ SEQ. I/M	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	TEST I/M IN ERROR BYTES ROUTINE	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	ADMN TO ERROR MESSAGE ROUTINE	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	OPEN DISK EXCEPTION NOTICE FILE	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	WRITE DISK EXCEPTION NOTICE FILE	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	CLOSE DISK EXCEPTION NOTICE FILE	
TEST IF S/M FILE EXISTS			
ARPHCALI DC	ARPHCALI	CALL BOMP TO DIV RECALL RACV FOR S/M	
ARPHSEQ DC	ARPHSEQ	READ SEQ. S/M	
ARPHSEQ DC	ARPHSEQ	WRITE SEQ. S/M	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	TEST S/M IN ERROR BYTES ROUTINE	
TEST FOR CONVENTIONAL PLANNING LOGIC USED			
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	OPEN, WRITE, CLOSE 1STCRFLEVEL TABLE FILE	
ARPHBY DC	ARPHBY	OPEN, LOAD, CLOSE BLOAD=LEVEL TABLE FILE	

11010	ANDP	PARMTEG,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR REQUIREMENTS ALTERATION	RPG00530	CLC	PARGROSS,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR GROSS AND PLAN ORD.	RPG01090	
11015	CLC	IR1010	IF NOT REC ALT. BRANCH.	RPG00540	BNE	IR1020		RPG01100	
	RNE	ASWITCH,KAPFB	REQ ALT RUN; TURN ON A SWITCH	RPG00550	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER17	INVALID GROSS OR PLAN ORD. PARAM	RPG01110	
	MVI	IR1017		RPG00560	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01120	
	B	IR1018		RPG00570	B	IR1020	IF PARGROSS ALANG TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01130	
11016	CLC	PARMTEG,IRPLAM1	TEST FOR NO REQ. ALTERATION	RPG00580	11026	CLC	PARPLAN,IRBLANK	TEST FOR NO PLAN ORD.	RPG01140
	BE	IR1017		RPG00590	BE	IR1027	TAKE BRANCH IF BLANK.	RPG01150	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER05	INVALID REQ ALT. PARAMETER CODE	RPG00600	CLC	PARPLAN,IRCHAM2	TEST FOR PLAN ORDER NO STORE.	RPG01160	
	BAL	9,IR1059	BRANCH TO COMMON ERROR HANDLING	RPG00610	RNE	IR1027		RPG01170	
11017	CLC	PARINTR,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR AN INTERRUPT RUN.	RPG00620	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER14	INVALID PLAN ORDER PARAMETER	RPG01180	
	RNE	IR1010		RPG00630	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01190	
	CLC	PARPLAN,IRCHAM1	IS INT. TEST FOR STORE PLAN ORD.	RPG00640	11027	CLI	ASWITCH,KAPFB	TEST IF SWITCH IS ON	RPG01200
	BE	IR1010		RPG00650	RNE	IR1028	IF NOT ON TAKE BRANCH	RPG01210	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER04	INVALID INTERRUPT OR PLAN ORDER	RPG00660	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER15	INVALID REQ ALT. OR REENTRY OR	RPG01220	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG00670	BAL	9,IR1059	PLAN ORDER PARAMETER	RPG01230	
	B	IR1010		RPG00680	11028	CLC	PAROFFST,IRCHAM1	TEST IF OFFSET THIS RUN	RPG01240
11018	CLC	PARINTR,IRBLANK	TEST FOR NO INTERRUPT THIS RUN.	RPG00690	RNE	IR1029	IF NO TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01250	
	BE	IR1010		RPG00700	CLC	PARGROSS,IRCHAM1	TEST IF GROSS ONLY	RPG01260	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER07	INVALID INTERRUPT PARAMETER CODE	RPG00710	RNE	IR1030		RPG01270	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG00720	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER16	INVALID GROSS OR OFFSET PARAM	RPG01280	
11019	CLC	PARRENTY,IRBLANK	TEST FOR NO REENTRY THIS RUN	RPG00730	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01290	
	BE	IR1021	TAKE BRANCH IF NO REENTRY.	RPG00740	B	IR1010	GROSS PARAM OR TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01300	
	CLC	PARRENTY,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR REENTRY NO OFFSET	RPG00750	11029	CLC	PAROFFST,IRBLANK	TEST FOR NO OFFSET THIS RUN.	RPG01310
	BE	IR1020	IF YES TAKE BRANCH	RPG00760	BE	IR1030		RPG01320	
	CLC	PARRENTY,IRCHAM2	TEST FOR REENTRY OFF SET REENTRY	RPG00770	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER17	INVALID OFFSET PARAMETER	RPG01330	
	BE	IR1020		RPG00780	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01340	
	CLC	PARRENTY,IRCHAM3	TEST FOR RE-ENTRY ALREADY OFFSET	RPG00790	11030	CLC	PARPRINT,IRBLANK	TEST FOR PRINT AS PROCESS.	RPG01350
	BE	IR1020	IF YES BRANCH	RPG00800	BE	IR1010	IF YES TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01360	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER08	INVALID RE-ENTRY PARAMETER	RPG00810	CLC	PARPRINT,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR PRINT SEQ. ACTIVE ONLY.	RPG01370	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG00820	BE	IR1030A	IF YES TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01380	
11020	MVI	ASWITCH,KAPFB	REENTRY RUN TURN ON A SWITCH.	RPG00830	CLC	PARPRINT,IRCHAM2	TEST FOR PRINT SEQ TOTAL FILE.	RPG01390	
11021	CLC	PARPHAS1,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR PHASE ONE ONLY.	RPG00840	BE	IR1030A		RPG01400	
	BE	IR1022	IF YES TAKE BRANCH	RPG00850	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER18	INVALID PRINT PARAMETER	RPG01410	
	CLC	PARPHAS2,IRBLANK	TEST FOR PHASE ONE AND TWO.	RPG00860	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01420	
	BE	IR1022		RPG00870	11030A	B	IR1030B	GO TEST REST OF PRINT PARAMETER.	RPG01430
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER09	INVALID PHASE PARAMETER	RPG00880	*		TEST VALIDITY OF RUN PARAMETERS	RPG01440	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG00890				RPG01450	
11022	CLC	PARGROSS,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR GROSS ONLY.	RPG00900	11032	CLI	PARMTEG,CALB	IS THIS A REQ. ALT. RUN.	RPG01460
	BE	IR1023	IF YES TAKE BRANCH.	RPG00910	RNE	MOA		NO. CONTINUE	RPG01470
	CLC	PARGROSS,IRBLANK	TEST FOR GROSS THIS RUN.	RPG00920	CLI	ISTHRO,KAPFB	IS REQUIREMENTS ALTN REQUESTED	RPG01480	
	BE	IR1023		RPG00930	BE	MOA	YES. CONTINUE	RPG01490	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER10	INVALID GROSS PARAMETER	RPG00940	MVC	ERRCODE,MOER01	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	RPG01500	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG00950	BAL	9,MOBPERR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	RPG01510	
11023	CLC	PARNET,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR NET THIS RUN.	RPG00960				RPG01520	
	BE	IR1025	IF YES TAKE BRANCH.	RPG00970	MOA	CLI	PARNET,CALB	IS NET TO BE PERFORMED	RPG01530
	CLC	PARNET,IRBLANK	TEST FOR NO NET THIS RUN.	RPG00980	RNE	MOB		NO. CONTINUE	RPG01540
	BE	IR1025		RPG00990	CLI	ISTHRO,KAPFB	IS NET REQUESTED	RPG01550	
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER12	INVALID NET PARAMETER	RPG01000	BE	MOB	YES. CONTINUE	RPG01560	
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01010	MVC	ERRCODE,MOER02	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	RPG01570	
	B	IR1025		RPG01020	BAL	9,MOBPERR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	RPG01580	
11024	CLC	PARGROSS,IRCHAM1		RPG01030	*			RPG01590	
	RNE	IR1025		RPG01040	MOB	CLI	PARPLAN,C020	IS P/D TO BE PERFORMED	RPG01600
	MVC	ERRCODE,IRER11	INVALID GROSS OR NET PARAMETER	RPG01050	RNE	MVC		NO. CONTINUE	RPG01610
	BAL	9,IR1059		RPG01060	CLI	ISTHRO,KAPFB	IS P/D REQUESTED	RPG01620	
11025	CLC	PARPLAN,IRCHAM1	TEST FOR PLAN ORDERS AND STOMP.	RPG01070	BE	MOA		YES. CONTINUE	RPG01630
	RNE	IR1028	IF NOT CODE 1 TAKE BRANCH.	RPG01080					RPG01640

MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG01950
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG01960
MDC	CLI PARPLAN,C21A	IS P/D TO BE STORED	ABG01970
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG01980
CLI	TSTSTP,XOFFA	IS STORE P/D REQUESTED	ABG01990
BE	MDR	YES, CONT	ABG02000
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02010
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02020
MDC	CLI PAROFFS1,C21A	IS OFFSET TO BE PERFORMED	ABG02030
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02040
CLI	ISTDST,XOFFA	IS OFFSET REQUESTED	ABG02050
BE	MDR	YES, CONT	ABG02060
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02070
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02080
MDC	CLI PARINTA,C21A	IS INTERRUPT TO BE PERFORMED	ABG02090
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02100
CLI	ISTANTY,XOFFA	IS INTERRUPT REQUESTED	ABG02110
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02120
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02130
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02140
MDC	CLI PARRENTY,C21A	IS P/D, NO D/S, TO BE PERFORMED	ABG02150
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02160
CLI	PARRENTY,C21A	IS P/D ALREADY OFFSET	ABG02170
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02180
MDC	CLI TSTANTY,XOFFA	WAS P/D STORED FOR CONV PLNG	ABG02190
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02200
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02210
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02220
MDC	CLI PARRENTY,C21A	IS P/D WITH D/S TO BE PERFORMED	ABG02230
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02240
CLI	ISTANTY,XOFFA	WAS REENTRY REQUESTED	ABG02250
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02260
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02270
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02280
MDC	CLI PARPRINT,C21A	PRINT SEQ ACTIVE ITEMS TO BE DONE	ABG02290
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02300
CLI	PARPRINT,C21A	PRINT SEQ ITEMS IN LHM TO BE DONE	ABG02310
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02320
MDC	CLI TSTPSEQ,XOFFA	PRINT SEQ REQUESTED	ABG02330
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02340
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02350
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02360
MDC	CLI PARPARAC,C21A	PRINT SEQ CURR ITEMS TO BE DONE	ABG02370
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02380
CLI	TSTPCUR,XOFFA	PRINT SEQ PRINT ITEMS REQUESTED	ABG02390
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02400
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02410
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02420

MDC	CLI PARPARAC,C21A	IGNORE PRINTING PREV INTERRUPTS	ABG02210
RNE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02220
CLI	TSTPCUR,XOFFA	PRINT SEQ PREV INTERRUPTS REQUESTED	ABG02230
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02240
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02250
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02260
MDC	CLI PARPOND,C21A	PRINT Q/D TO BE PERFORMED	ABG02270
RNE	MDR	NO. CONTINUE	ABG02280
CLI	TSTPOND,XOFFA	PRINT Q/D REQUESTED	ABG02290
BE	MDR	YES, CONTINUE	ABG02300
MVC	ERRCODE,MDERRAD	NO. LOAD ERROR CODE	ABG02310
BAL	9,MDPREAR	BRANCH TO TYPE ERROR	ABG02320
MDC	CLI MDERRSH,XOFFA	TEST FOR RUN PARAMETER ERRORS	ABG02330
RNE	MDR	NO ERRORS, CONTINUE	ABG02340
CLI	IIANPAND	YES, GO TO ANOMAL EQJ	ABG02350
BE	MDR		ABG02360
MDC	CLI PARNUM,PARNUM	PACK NUM SHOW DAYS PER TIME PER	ABG02400
RNE	MDR	PACK NUM SHOW DAYS PER TIME PER	ABG02410
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	IF USER WAS NOT SPECIFIED PRINT	ABG02420
BE	MDR	INDICATIVE, IS ASSURED NO PRINT	ABG02430
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	INDICATIVE, IS ASSURED NO PRINT	ABG02440
RNE	MDR	ADD ONE FOR DATE HEADING.	ABG02450
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	ADD ONE TO LINE COUNT TO PRINT RUNNING ON HAND BALANCE.	ABG02455
BE	MDR		ABG02460
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	TEST IF PRINT CROSS.	ABG02465
RNE	MDR	NO PRINT, BRANCH TO NEXT TEST.	ABG02470
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	ADD ONE FOR PRINT CROSS.	ABG02480
BE	MDR		ABG02490
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	TEST IF PRINT OPEN ORDERS.	ABG02500
RNE	MDR	NO PRINT, BRANCH TO NEXT TEST.	ABG02510
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	ADD ONE FOR PRINT OPEN ORDERS.	ABG02520
BE	MDR	TEST IF PRINT NOT.	ABG02530
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	NO PRINT, BRANCH TO NEXT TEST.	ABG02540
RNE	MDR	ADD ONE FOR PRINT NET.	ABG02550
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	TEST IF PRINT PLAN ORDERS.	ABG02560
BE	MDR	NO PRINT, BRANCH TO NEXT TEST.	ABG02570
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	ADD ONE FOR PRINT PLAN ORDERS.	ABG02580
RNE	MDR	TEST IF PRINT OFFSET.	ABG02590
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	NO PRINT, BRANCH TO LAST ADD	ABG02600
BE	MDR	ADD ONE FOR PRINT OFFSET	ABG02610
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	ADD ONE FOR SPACE AFTER SET	ABG02620
RNE	MDR	CONTINUE INITIALIZATION.	ABG02630
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI	SAVE A/PAS FOR REGISTERS USED	ABG02640
BE	MDR	IN THIS PORTION OF ALIEN TIME	ABG02650
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	NOUPTIME.	ABG02660
RNE	MDR		ABG02670
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI		ABG02680
BE	MDR		ABG02690
MDC	CLI PARIND,INDMARI	MOVE BLANKS TO ERROR PART NUMBER	ABG02700
RNE	MDR	TURN ON VALIDITY ERROR SWITCH	ABG02710
CLI	PARIND,INDMARI		ABG02720
BE	MDR		ABG02730

LA	10.11	SAVE BASE REGISTER FOR RETURN	RPG02730	RF	101010K	DD PRINT OFFSET	RPG03290
L	11.11PDDOT	ADDRESS OF TYPE ERROR	RPG02740	HVC	PARCODE, IREAR32	PRI OFFSET PARAMETER WRONG.	RPG03300
PALM	11.11		RPG02750	ALL	9.101059		RPG03310
LA	11.10	RETURN FROM FROM MESSAGE	RPG02760	CLC	PARINDST, IRECHAI	PRI OFFSET, TEST FOR CALC. OFFSET	RPG03320
SA	0	RETURN TO PROGRAM VALIDITY TESTS	RPG02770	DE	101032	PRI OFFSET PARAM. O.K.	RPG03330
MSPLERA	100		RPG02780	HVC	PARCODE, IREAR31	HAVE SPECIFIED PRI OFFSET BUT	RPG03340
			RPG02790	PAL	9.101059	NOT CALC. OFFSET. ERROR.	RPG03350
*****COLLECTING CODE TESTS THE PRINT PARAMETERS*****							
			RPG02800	B	101032		RPG03360
			RPG02810	ZMCLAN	DC	C000	RPG03370
1010300	CLC	PARPARACT, IRECLAN	RPG02820	IACHAN2	DC	C020	RPG03380
BE	101030C	EQUAL. DO NOT PRINT ALL BRANCH.	RPG02830	IREAR05	DC	C050	RPG03390
CLC	PARPFAC, IRECHAI		RPG02840	IREAR06	DC	C060	RPG03400
BE	101030C	DO PRINT ALL EQUAL RUN NUMBER.	RPG02850	IREAR07	DC	C070	RPG03410
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR26	PRINT ALL ITEMS WITH SAME RUN	RPG02860	IREAR08	DC	C080	RPG03420
PAL	9.101059	NUMBER PARAMETER WRONG.	RPG02870	IREAR10	DC	C100	RPG03430
1010302	CLC	PARIND, IRECLAN	RPG02880	IREAR11	DC	C110	RPG03440
BE	101030D	DO NOT PRI INDICATIVE.	RPG02890	IREAR12	DC	C120	RPG03450
CLC	PARIND, IRECHAI	TEST PRI INDICATIVE PARAMETER.	RPG02900	IREAR13	DC	C130	RPG03460
BE	101030D	TEST PRI INDICATIVE PARAMETER.	RPG02910	IREAR14	DC	C140	RPG03470
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR25	PRI INDICATIVE PARAMETER WRONG.	RPG02920	IREAR15	DC	C150	RPG03480
PAL	9.101059		RPG02930	IREAR16	DE	C160	RPG03490
1010303	CLC	PARCROSS, IRECLAN	RPG02940	IREAR17	DE	C170	RPG03500
BE	101030E	DO NOT PRINT CROSS.	RPG02950	IREAR18	DC	C180	RPG03510
CLC	PARCROSS, IRECHAI		RPG02960	IREAR24	DC	C240	RPG03520
BE	101030E	DO PRINT CROSS	RPG02970	IREAR25	DC	C250	RPG03530
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR26	PRI CROSS PARAM. WRONG.	RPG02980	IREAR26	DC	C260	RPG03540
PAL	9.101059		RPG02990	IREAR27	DC	C270	RPG03550
1010306	CLC	PARSPORD, IRECLAN	RPG03000	IREAR28	DC	C280	RPG03560
BE	101030F	DO NOT PRI OPEN ORDERS.	RPG03010	IREAR29	DC	C290	RPG03570
CLC	PARSPORD, IRECHAI		RPG03020	IREAR30	DC	C300	RPG03580
BE	101030F	DO PRINT OPEN ORDERS.	RPG03030	IREAR31	DC	C310	RPG03590
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR27	PRI OPEN ORDER PARAM. WRONG.	RPG03040	IREAR32	DC	C320	RPG03600
PAL	9.101059		RPG03050	IREAR33	DC	C330	RPG03610
1010307	CLC	PARNET, IRECLAN	RPG03060	IREAR34	DC	C340	RPG03620
BE	101030H	DO NOT PRINT NET	RPG03070	IREAR35	DC	C350	RPG03630
CLC	PARNET, IRECHAI		RPG03080	IREAR36	DC	C360	RPG03640
BE	101030G	DO PRINT NET	RPG03090	IREAR37	DC	C370	RPG03650
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR28	PRI NET PARAM. WRONG.	RPG03100	IREAR38	DC	C380	RPG03660
PAL	9.101059		RPG03110	IREAR39	DC	C390	RPG03670
1010308	CLC	PARNET, IRECHAI	RPG03120	IREAR40	DC	C400	RPG03680
BE	101030H	PRI NET TEST IF CALC. NET	RPG03130	IREAR41	DC	C410	RPG03690
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR29	HAVE SPECIFIED PRINT NET BUT NOT	RPG03140	IREAR42	DC	C420	RPG03700
PAL	9.101059	CALC. NET ERROR.	RPG03150	IREAR43	DC	C430	RPG03710
101030H	CLC	PARPLORD, IRECLAN	RPG03160	IREAR44	DC	C440	RPG03720
BE	101030J	DO NOT PRINT PLAN ORDERS.	RPG03170	IREAR45	DC	C450	RPG03730
CLC	PARPLORD, IRECHAI		RPG03180	IREAR46	DC	C460	RPG03740
BE	101030I	DO PRINT PLAN ORDERS.	RPG03190	IREAR47	DC	C470	RPG03750
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR30	PRI PLAN ORDER PARAM. WRONG.	RPG03200	IREAR48	DC	C480	RPG03760
PAL	9.101059		RPG03210	IREAR49	DC	C490	RPG03770
101030I	CLC	PARPLAN, IRECLAN	RPG03220	IREAR50	DC	C500	RPG03780
BE	101030J	PRI PLAN ORDER TEST IF CALC PLAN	RPG03230	IREAR51	DC	C510	RPG03790
HVC	PARCODE, IREAR31	HAVE SPECIFIED PRI PLAN ORDER	RPG03240	IREAR52	DC	C520	RPG03800
PAL	9.101059	BUT NOT CALC. PLAN ORDER. ERROR.	RPG03250	IREAR53	DC	C530	RPG03810
101030J	CLC	PAROFFSET, IRECLAN	RPG03260	IREAR54	DC	C540	RPG03820
BE	101032	DO NOT PRINT OFFSET.	RPG03270	IREAR55	DC	C550	RPG03830
CLC	PAROFFSET, IRECHAI		RPG03280	IREAR56	DC	C560	RPG03840
*****SWITCHES TO TEST VALIDITY OF RUN PARAMS VS. CUSTOMIZED PARAMS*****							
			RPG03290	IREAR57	DC	C570	RPG03850
			RPG03300	IREAR58	DC	C580	RPG03860
			RPG03310	IREAR59	DC	C590	RPG03870
			RPG03320	IREAR60	DC	C600	RPG03880
			RPG03330	IREAR61	DC	C610	RPG03890
			RPG03340	IREAR62	DC	C620	RPG03900
			RPG03350	IREAR63	DC	C630	RPG03910
			RPG03360	IREAR64	DC	C640	RPG03920
			RPG03370	IREAR65	DC	C650	RPG03930
			RPG03380	IREAR66	DC	C660	RPG03940
			RPG03390	IREAR67	DC	C670	RPG03950
			RPG03400	IREAR68	DC	C680	RPG03960
			RPG03410	IREAR69	DC	C690	RPG03970
			RPG03420	IREAR70	DC	C700	RPG03980
			RPG03430	IREAR71	DC	C710	RPG03990
			RPG03440	IREAR72	DC	C720	RPG04000
			RPG03450	IREAR73	DC	C730	RPG04010
			RPG03460	IREAR74	DC	C740	RPG04020
			RPG03470	IREAR75	DC	C750	RPG04030
			RPG03480	IREAR76	DC	C760	RPG04040
			RPG03490	IREAR77	DC	C770	RPG04050
			RPG03500	IREAR78	DC	C780	RPG04060
			RPG03510	IREAR79	DC	C790	RPG04070
			RPG03520	IREAR80	DC	C800	RPG04080
			RPG03530	IREAR81	DC	C810	RPG04090
			RPG03540	IREAR82	DC	C820	RPG04100
			RPG03550	IREAR83	DC	C830	RPG04110
			RPG03560	IREAR84	DC	C840	RPG04120
			RPG03570	IREAR85	DC	C850	RPG04130
			RPG03580	IREAR86	DC	C860	RPG04140
			RPG03590	IREAR87	DC	C870	RPG04150
			RPG03600	IREAR88	DC	C880	RPG04160
			RPG03610	IREAR89	DC	C890	RPG04170
			RPG03620	IREAR90	DC	C900	RPG04180
			RPG03630	IREAR91	DC	C910	RPG04190
			RPG03640	IREAR92	DC	C920	RPG04200
			RPG03650	IREAR93	DC	C930	RPG04210
			RPG03660	IREAR94	DC	C940	RPG04220
			RPG03670	IREAR95	DC	C950	RPG04230
			RPG03680	IREAR96	DC	C960	RPG04240
			RPG03690	IREAR97	DC	C970	RPG04250
			RPG03700	IREAR98	DC	C980	RPG04260
			RPG03710	IREAR99	DC	C990	RPG04270
			RPG03720	IREAR00	DC	C000	RPG04280
			RPG03730	IREAR01	DC	C010	RPG04290
			RPG03740	IREAR02	DC	C020	RPG04300
			RPG03750	IREAR03	DC	C030	RPG04310
			RPG03760	IREAR04	DC	C040	RPG04320
			RPG03770	IREAR05	DC	C050	RPG04330
			RPG03780	IREAR06	DC	C060	RPG04340
			RPG03790	IREAR07	DC	C070	RPG04350
			RPG03800	IREAR08	DC	C080	RPG04360
			RPG03810	IREAR09	DC	C090	RPG04370
			RPG03820	IREAR10	DC	C100	RPG04380
			RPG03830	IREAR11	DC	C110	RPG04390
			RPG03840	IREAR12	DC	C120	RPG04400
			RPG03850	IREAR13	DC	C130	RPG04410
			RPG03860	IREAR14	DC	C140	RPG04420
			RPG03870	IREAR15	DC	C150	RPG04430
			RPG03880	IREAR16	DC	C160	RPG04440
			RPG03890	IREAR17	DC	C170	RPG04450
			RPG03900	IREAR18	DC	C180	RPG04460
			RPG03910	IREAR19	DC	C190	RPG04470
			RPG03920	IREAR20	DC	C200	RPG04480
			RPG03930	IREAR21	DC	C210	RPG04490
			RPG03940	IREAR22	DC	C220	RPG04500
			RPG03950	IREAR23	DC	C230	RPG04510
			RPG03960	IREAR24	DC	C240	RPG04520
			RPG03970	IREAR25	DC	C250	RPG04530
			RPG03980	IREAR26	DC	C260	RPG04540
			RPG03990	IREAR27	DC	C270	RPG04550
			RPG04000	IREAR28	DC	C280	RPG04560
			RPG04010	IREAR29	DC	C290	RPG04570
			RPG04020	IREAR30	DC	C300	RPG04580
			RPG04030	IREAR31	DC	C310	RPG04590
			RPG04040	IREAR32	DC	C320	RPG04600
			RPG04050	IREAR33	DC	C330	RPG04610
			RPG04060	IREAR34	DC	C340	RPG04620
			RPG04070	IREAR35	DC	C350	RPG04630
			RPG04080	IREAR36	DC	C360	RPG04640
			RPG04090	IREAR37	DC	C370	RPG04650
			RPG04100	IREAR38	DC	C380	RPG04660
			RPG04110	IREAR39	DC	C390	RPG04670
			RPG04120	IREAR40	DC	C400	RPG04680
			RPG04130	IREAR41	DC	C410	RPG04690
			RPG04140	IREAR42	DC	C420	RPG04700
			RPG04150	IREAR43	DC	C430	RPG04710
			RPG04160	IREAR44	DC	C440	RPG04720
			RPG04170	IREAR45	DC	C450	RPG04730
			RPG04180	IREAR46	DC	C460	RPG04740
			RPG04190	IREAR47	DC	C470	RPG04750
			RPG04200	IREAR48	DC	C480	RPG04760
			RPG04210	IREAR49	DC	C490	RPG04770
			RPG04220	IREAR50	DC	C500	RPG04780
			RPG04230	IREAR51	DC	C510	RPG04790
			RPG04240	IREAR52	DC	C520	RPG04800
			RPG04250	IREAR53	DC	C530	RPG04810
			RPG04260	IREAR54	DC	C540	RPG04820
			RPG04270	IREAR55	DC	C550	RPG04830
			RPG04280	IREAR56	DC	C560	RPG04840
			RPG04290	IREAR57	DC	C570	RPG04850
			RPG04300	IREAR58	DC	C580	RPG04860
			RPG04310	IREAR59			

1315100	DC	10000	STORE PLANNED ORDERS	R0001850	NO	101075	DONT CLEAR - GO TO ROUTINE EXIT	R0004410
1315101	DC	10000	OFFSET	R0001860	* CLEAR	GROSS	REQ. AND STORED PLANNED ORDERS FROM RECORDS AS REQ.	R0004420
1315102	DC	10000	RE-ENTRY	R0001870	ALP	101080	101080	R0004421
1315103	DC	10000	OFFSET RE-ENTRY	R0001880	ALP	101080	101080	R0004422
1315104	DC	10000	PRINT SEQUENTIAL	R0001890	AGO	101080	101080	R0004423
1315105	DC	10000	PRINT SEQ ALL PREVIOUS INTERACTIONS	R0001900	101080	ALP	101080	R0004424
1315106	DC	10000	PRINT OPEN ORDERS	R0001910	ALP	101080	101080	R0004425
1315107	DC	10000		R0001920	AGO	101080	101080	R0004426
				R0001930				R0004427
				R0001940				R0004428
				R0001950				R0004429
				R0001960				R0004430
				R0001970				R0004431
				R0001980				R0004432
				R0001990				R0004433
				R0002000				R0004434
				R0002010				R0004435
				R0002020				R0004436
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				R0002100				R0004444
				R0002110				R0004445
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				R0002230				R0004457
				R0002240				R0004458
				R0002250				R0004459
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				R0002380				R0004472
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				R0002400				R0004474
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				R0003560				R0004590
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				R0003580				R0004592
				R0003590				R0004593
				R0003600				R0004594
				R0003610				R0004595
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1106A	ANOP		8804900	* TEST FOR PLANNED ORDERS STORED	8804940
	SEQUENTIAL RETRIEVAL OF SYM RECORD		8804910	AIF 12PLANNED TO 2ND000.1176	8804950
	L 11,ARRPSEOR		8804920	* CLEAR RECORDS PLANNED ORDERS FIELDS	8804980
	BACK 14,11		8804930	11073 L 6,2PLANNED	8804990
	R 14,075	EOF RETURN	8804940	L 5,1MPPM	8805000
	LR 11,10	NORMAL RETURN - RESTORE BASE REG	8804950	11074 MVC 02L2MPPM,50,DANDBLK	8805010
	CLI 2P2P2P2P,2000	TEST FOR I/O ERROR	8804960	L 5,1L2MPPM250	8805020
	RE 11,000	NO ERROR	8804970	ACT 6,11074	8805030
	L 11,ARRPANNED	ERROR - GO TO ABNORMAL EOF	8804980	RR 14	8805040
	BR 11		8804990	RETURN TO CALLER	8805050
			8805000		8805060
1106B	EOU		8805010		8805070
	* TEST FOR SYM USED FOR STORING CROSS REQUIREMENTS		8805020	1107A ANOP	8805080
	AIF 22CROSSREQ NE 2500.1170		8805030	* END OF ROUTINE - RETURN TO MAINLINE PROGRAM	8805090
	* TEST FOR USER EXIT ELECTED TO SAVE RECORDS CROSS REQ.		8805040	11075 L 14,1R5VE14	8805100
	AIF 20EXIT012 NE 21520.1169		8805050	BR 15	8805110
	* USER EXIT TO SAVE RECORDS CROSS REQ.		8805060		8805120
	L 11,AXIT07		8805070		8805130
	NALB 14,11		8805080		8805140
	LR 11,10	RESTORE BASE REGISTER	8805090		8805150
			8805100		8805160
1106C	BAL 14,11071	GO TO CLEAR RECORDS CROSS REQ.	8805110	11076 DC 400	8805170
	* TEST FOR SYM USED FOR STORING PLANNED ORDERS		8805120	11078 DC 400	8805180
	11070 AIF 22PLANNED NE 2500.1172		8805130	AIF 20EXIT012 NE 21520.1171	8805190
	* TEST FOR USER EXIT ELECTED TO SAVE RECORDS PLANNED ORDERS		8805140	AXIT07 DC AXIT070	8805200
	AIF 20EXIT112 NE 21520.1171		8805150	11077 AIF 20EXIT112 NE 21520.1170	8805210
	* USER EXIT TO SAVE RECORDS PLANNED ORDERS		8805160	AXIT12 DC AXIT120	8805220
	L 11,AXIT12		8805170	11078 ANOP	8805230
	BACK 14,11		8805180	DROP 11	8805240
	LR 11,10	RESTORE BASE REGISTER	8805190	MEND	8805250
			8805200		8805260
1107	BAL 14,11071	GO TO CLEAR RECORDS PLANNED ORD	8805210		8805270
11072	ANOP		8805220		8805280
	* UPDATE SYM RECORD ON DISK		8805230		8805290
11070	L 11,ARRPSEOR		8805240		8805300
	BACK 14,11		8805250		8805310
	LR 11,10	RESTORE BASE REGISTER	8805260		8805320
	CLI 2P2P2P2P,2000	TEST FOR I/O ERROR	8805270		8805330
	RE 11,000	NO ERROR - GO GET NEXT RECORD	8805280		8805340
	L 11,ARRPANNED	ERROR - GO TO ABNORMAL EOF	8805290		8805350
	BR 11		8805300		8805360
			8805310		8805370
11073	ANOP		8805320		8805380
	* CLEAR RECORDS CROSS REQ. FIELDS		8805330		8805390
11071	EOU		8805340		8805400
	* TEST FOR CN. REQ. DATE FORMAT		8805350		8805410
	AIF 22CROSSREQ EQ 21000.1174		8805360		8805420
	L 6,CROSSREQ		8805370		8805430
	ADD 1,1175		8805380		8805440
11074	L 2,CROSSREQ		8805390		8805450
11075	L 2,CROSSREQ		8805400		8805460
11072	MVC 02L2MPPM,50,DANDBLK		8805410		8805470
	L 5,1L2MPPM250		8805420		8805480
	ACT 6,11072		8805430		8805490
	RR 14	RETURN TO CALLER	8805440		8805450
			8805450		

DIRECTORIO DE ALUMNOS DEL CURSO: "SEMINARIO SOBRE PLANEACION DE REQUERIMIENTOS DE MATERIAL" , DEL 4 AL 8 DE SEPTIEMBRE.

1. SR. DANIEL ACOSTA CASIAN
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