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COST ESTIMATING & COST CONTROL

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BY -

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INTRODUCTION

The word "Cost Engineering" was coined as an engineering discipline only 2 decades ago. Already it has found common usage in the engineering and construction industry throughout North America and indeed in Europe and other parts of the world. Spearheaded by this newly formed "Cost Engineering Profession" great progress has been made in that area of engineering where engineering judgement and experience are utilized in the application of scientific principles and techniques to problems of cost estimating, cost control, economic evaluation, business planning and management.

This seminar will concentrate on cost estimating and cost control, reflecting the general concepts and practices that have developed on the North American continent in recent years. Broadly speaking, the seminar concerns the capital costs of process plants such as chemicals, petrochemicals, nuclear plants, and all similar type projects. It should be of interest to management and supervisory technical personnel concerned with capital costs and cost control in construction, engineering and process industries.

In today's dynamic economy, the accent in capital cost estimating is on short cuts and speed. Not only is the speed required, but there must be a high degree of confidence in the reliability of the figures. Emphasis will be placed on new developments and sophistication that have emerged through a more scientific study of the anatomy of capital costs, breaking them down into like components and finding cost patterns and relationships which reflect their individual behaviour.

Estimate types and techniques will be discussed starting at an early stage when scope is limited and few drawings (if any) are available, and progressing through to the method of building up detailed estimates.

In recent years, some form of factor estimating has come to dominate the entire "front end" in the estimating of project costs. In fact, in its broadest meaning, all forms of estimating, except detailed estimating of manhours, making material take-offs or obtaining quotations, may be classified as factor estimating. The presentation is oriented towards this fact, placing emphasis on the various application of "front end" techniques starting with the so called "Broad Factors" and progressing towards the use of detailed factor estimating.

Under the heading of Time & Scale Factors, a section on Cost Indexes will review various U.S. indexes, illustrating their differences, uses and pitfalls.

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The 4 area concept of building up capital cost estimates will be presented to demonstrate their different cost patterns and the advantages of such an approach. This will lead into size factors and discussion of the much touted sixth tenths factor. The sixth tenths factor will be reviewed in considerable detail to highlight discrepancies and pitfalls. Discussion of economy of scale will focus attention on economic size plants.

Capital costs will be broken down into specific components of direct and indirect costs. Emphasis will be placed on precise definitions and good semantics and on the importance , of a good cost code. An excellent modern code with complete flexibility for use on small projects or large projects will be presented. Using the cost code, a standard format will be used to show how to build up a complete estimate to get the bottom line number and be confident that everything is in.

A thoroughly tested, reliable Factor Estimating System will be presented in detail. A complete set of factors will be included. Coupled with certain refinements, it will be shown how this factor system has reached a degree of reliability that it is used frequently for the appropriation of funds.

A session on "Cost Control" will be presented covering the basic principles, application and organization.

Cost control involves more than cost. It also concerns "time" i.e. planning and scheduling. In its full ramifications, the words "Project Control" may be a better title.

Cost Control starts with a "Management Directive". The role of management is stressed followed by discussion of 11 basic requirements for good cost control.

The cost control cycle of Realistic Targets, Monitoring, Trending & Forecasting, and Analysis & Action is discussed in detail. The application of each one of these functions is reviewed under the separate headings of Design, Procurement and Construction.

Sample procedures and formats are provided to illustrate methods of trending and forecasting in each of the 3 areas. The use of S curves and similar graphs are highlighted in

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their many applications in the cost control system. Emphasis is placed on trouble spots.

By way of illustration, a complete written procedure for controlling draughting manhours is presented along with sample graphical depictions used for trending and forecasting.

Similarly, recommended documents which contribute greatly to the Procurement Control are discussed in detail.

Field Control on Construction projects is a never ending challenge. It involves field work orders, material control, manhour control, indirect costs, physical progress, etc. It will be demonstrated that whether it is concrete work, equipment, piping, electrical, etc. each one can be attacked through the basic principles of cost control.

Effective cost control calls for integration or unification. It must be all one system, not a multiplicity of separate systems. The cost code is the unifying factor and finally the computer becomes essential to complete the integration.

Ultimately, cost control requires an organizational set-up designed with cost control in mind. This will be discussed with particular emphasis on the cost engineer and his responsibilities.

Notes will be supplied, including certain data applicable to. North American operations and time will be provided for workshops.

COST ESTIMATING AND COST CONTROL

ON ENGINEERING AND CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS

PROGRAM

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TYPES

In practice, the many types of cost estimates can be categorized into about five general types. The type to use necessarily depends on:

> its purpose the time and manpower available the data available, and the accuracy required

Table "A" illustrates the five types, their purpose, the techniques used, the time requirement and depicts graphically the information required and the expected accuracy. Table "B" elaborates on the specific requirement for each type of estimate. Refer to both Table A and Table B for the foregoing discussion.

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Ball Park Estimates (Type "E")

Based on little information, has poor accuracy but serves the purpose of the executive who may only want to have some indication of how many million dollars are involved.

"Ball Park" estimates are generally based of figures of \$/lb. or \$/ton of capacity, or frequently graphs are used which plot the capital cost versus capacity. Such graphs take into account the variation in unit cost with size and hence are better than simple \$/ton type of estimates.

Study Estimates (Type "D")

Made by using factor techniques or a combination of factor and large component techniques. Used for early feasibility studies and to justify funds for further study. It requires enough information to provide the general scope of the project, and depending on how much of this information is known, its accuracy may range from $\pm 25\%$ to $\pm 40\%$ and it is generally done in less than a month.

Preliminary Estimates (Type "C")

An elaboration of type "D" using the same techniques along with refinement due to the addition of some unit costs and some quotes. Scope of work is better defined and accuracy ranges between 110% to 125%.

Definitive Estimates (Type "B") (Appropriation of Funds)

A definitive estimate may take months to make. It involves some factor techniques but relies greatly on large components and unit cost techniques and many quotes. The scope of the project is required in considerable detail, engineering design will need to be fairly well advanced and the accuracy will improve to a range of 15% to 10%. This type of estimate is normally used for the appropriation of funds and is expected to have an accuracy of 10%. A well defined good quality estimate in this category is used during the subsequent project life for cost control purposes.

Bid Estimates (Type "A")

Used by contractors in making a competitive bid. Requires considerable time to produce more or less complete drawings and specifications. Also requires another 2 to 6 weeks, depending on size of project, for the contractors to make their bids. Theoretically the accuracy of this type of estimate should be within 5% but because of special factors such as contractors' profits, contractors' overheads and the competitive climate, bid estimates may spread as much as 20% and sometimes more. Regardless of the spread a successful contractor is probably estimating his 'direct' costs within 5%.

TECHNIQUES

Reference has been made to 3 estimating techniques:

Factor estimating Large component unit costs Detailed unit costs

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Factor estimating - arrives at a total cost by assessing the cost of unknown items as a factor or percentage of specific known costs. Usually the known cost is the process equipment.

This technique is used mainly in making 'Study and Preliminary' estimates but may be used at times for the appropriation of funds.

Large Component Unit Cost's are based on the theory that many specific components of a plant follow a definite cost pattern in relation to size or capacity. Hence there are large components such as buildings based on \$/sq. ft. of floor or per cu. ft., refrigeration plants based on \$/ton, compressor installations on \$/CFM etc.

Detailed unit costs - imply that a plant is broken down into many minute construction items and each one is individually assessed as to unit cost and quantity. Hence there is concrete in \$/cu. yd., form lumber in cents/sg. ft. reinforcing steel in .cents/lb., piping in \$/lin. ft. and \$/fitting, etc.

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TIME & S'CALE FACTORS

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COST INDEXES

The great inflationary spiral which has hit economies all over the world has made estimating more challenging than ever and has added at least one more dimension to all previous considerations. Because of inflation, cost feedback goes out of date guickly and must be continuously up-dated.

Cost indexes are factors which reflect the effect of inflation. They are used to update the past to the present. I Since most estimates are based on data from the past, the inflationary effect through time must be considered and cost indexes are being widely used for this purpose.

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There are many cost indexes and many applications. Further, since all of them are classified as approximations, for maximum reliability it is important to understand exactly what they do and be able to select the one which is most suitable for the application.

Definition

A cost index may be defined as a series of factors that represent the change in cost with time. (See Figure-1).

Most cost indexes are based on the weighted cost of selected items which constitute a major part of the subject being covered with the belief that the total cost will follow more or less the same general trend as the selected components. In other words they are based on a principle that says, "as goes a selected sampling, so goes the entire whole". By their very nature then, cost indexes only approximate the truth and in no way should they be taken as precise. This fact should never be forgotten. A great many indexes are published to cover many subjects. A general index covers a broad field and has limited accuracy for a specific topic within the broad field. A special index directed at a narrow field of subjects becomes more reliable but is limited in its application.

Applications

What are the applications of cost indexes in the Engineering function?

- The main application is in updating the capital cost of plants, or updating cost data.
- To a lesser degree they are used in contract price adjustment.
- Updating the fixed asset ledger.

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- ¹4. Establishing the replacement value of plant and equipment for insurance purposes.
- 5. Placing the capital cost of 2 or more plants on an equal time basis so that proper comparisons may be made.

Generally speaking, if an index or indexes can satisfy all the requirements for item 1, they will also be adequate for all the other items.

Following is a sample list of questions that might arise in a capital cost estimate:

- A certain compressor, vessel, or other piece of equipment was purchased 7 years ago for a certain price. What will it cost today?
- 2. The entire electrical installation for a specific project cost "\$X" when the plant was built. What will it cost now on a similar project?
- A large warehouse and process building cost SX in Houston, Texas in 1968. What will it cost today in Chicago?
- 4. A complete project erected in 1965 to manufacture "Y" lbs/yr. of ABC product cost \$X. What will it cost today to double the j size of the plant.
- 5. In item 4, \$2 was spent on construction labour for the original project. What will the labour cost be for the expansion project? Does this estimate allow for the change in labour productivity that has taken place?

A little thought will indicate that the results are not likely to have much reliability if the same index is used for all examples. At the same time it is not practical to have an endless supply of cost indexes to satisfy each and every demand.

Thus in selecting an index, one must be careful to choose one which has a combination of material and/or labour which most nearly represents the real life situation.

Such an index may be very good over a short period of time, but should a long period of time be involved, 2 additional factors may prevent the index from providing a good answer. One is the effect of labour productivity which is not incorporated into many indexes. The other is the effect on costs due to technological improvements which are rarely ever built into an index. A selling price type of index (i.e. one based on the actual selling price of representative items) compensates to some extent for both of these factors, while an input type of index (i.e. one based on the cost of primary materials) does not compensate for them unless a specific adjustment is made.

at sea a star a f I do not know of any index which makes a specific allowance for technological improvements. Because the effect of technological improvements on costs is so erratic over the years, it is necessary to consider them as a separate entity.

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Indexes in the Process Industries

At this stage we can discuss various indexes, all of which have found use in the process industries.

Our memarks will be limited to U.S. indexes, which are used extensively in the process industries, mainly because of our familiarity with them. However the main purpose of this section is to illustrate differences in cost indexes and to highlight those issues which should be considered in selecting the best index for a particular application. Thus the same reasoning can be applied in considering indexes in any country.

Table 1 is a listing of several U.S. indexes and a compilation of their pertinent features:

	(3) Boeckh Index	INE Const'n, Index	(1) Mailmary Const's. Index	CHEMICAL ENGINEERING	And (2) STEVERS
Publisher	Gen. Appreise] Company	Eng. News Record NoGraw Iili	-Oil and Gam Journal	Chemical Eng. McGrav Bill	Marshall and Swift
Index for complete chemical plants	Po .	NO	TH	¥28 -	TES excl. Didge.
Index for General process squipment	ca.	P 0	714	714	2 70
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Correction for technical improvement	Ca	. 10	(1) 🗝	10	¥O

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TABLE 1

Oil and Gas Journal bas published various other indexes and articles on the subject of productivity and technological improvements which require considerable study is order to apply them with any confidence.
Wame Marshall and Stevens recently changed to Marshall and Swift. M & S also includes building indexes for 45 Canadian cities.
Boackh is strictly a Building Index and includes coparate indexes for 20 Canadian cities

The Boechk Index is strictly a building cost index and for this application we have found it to be very good. The overall system' includes indexes for 10 different types of buildings and provides them for about 200 cities in North America. These indexes not only indicate the change in cost with time for all the cities listed, but are also claimed to show the relative cost between any of the cities at any given time. Of specific interest to the Chemical Process Industries is their index for brick and steel factory buildings. (See Figure-2).

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A further scrutiny of Table 1 quickly raises the question: What is the ENR Index used for? .

Our reason for raising this question is because we believe that the ENR Construction Index is the most misunderstood and most misused index in the process industries. This index, developed and published by the Engineering News Record, seems to be used at times for up-dating the cost of plants, updating the cost of equipment and for various other applications when costs are involved.

The entire index consists of 4 items which are costed out at j current rates. Thus the following illustrates the entire index? when it was equal to 1800:

- 1ê - dê

1,800.00

6 bbls. of cement @ approx. \$5.00	= 30.00
1088 fbm of lumber @ approx. \$185.00	= 1 (200.00
2500 lbs, of steel @ approx. 6¢	: <mark>=</mark> ' 150.00
200 manhours of common labour @ approx	\$7.10:=1, 1,420.00

Total



NOTE

The above costs are approximate throughout, merely to indicate the development of the index. There is no labour productivity correction. Note also that the labour component at this time was 79% of the index.

It becomes clear that the ENR Index is heavily dominated by construction labour costs in a far greater proportion than the normal percentage of labour on chemical plant projects. Obviously it has no valid [application in reflecting the costs of chemical plant projects.

In essence the ENR Index was designed to assess the change in the cost of civil engineering works of the type that uses large quantities of unskilled labour. It was never intended for the process industries. (Nevertheless, because it is one of the oldest and most well known indexes, it has been used incorrectly for many applications).

For process plants the other 3 indexes are much more suitable. (See Figure-3).

• The Nelson Refinery (inflation) Construction Index has been published by the Oil and Gas Journal since 1949 and is basically an overall plant index aimed at pertroleum refining. It has no labour productivity correction as such except for the built-in effect due to various equipment components of the index being developed from manufacturer's selling prices.

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As far as the cost of run-of-the-mill chemical plants are concerned the Nelson Refinery (inflation) Index is a reasonably good guide, and is used extensively by the U.S. process industries.

Nelson also publishes a variety of equipment cost indexes, many being selling price indexes. Of particular interest is the Nelson "Miscellaneous Equipment" Index which is a good index reflecting the overall average price change of process equipment.

The Marshall and Swift Index (Figure-4) consists of two main indexes, one for buildings and the other for equipment (which in this application means the cost of a complete plant excluding buildings). The main index is a composite of many industries and separate indexes are provided for each industry.entering into the composite. Two of these are 'chemical plants' and 'petrochemical plants'. These indexes provide a fairly good reflection of the change in plant costs. It may have a slight downward bias.

The chemical engineering plant cost index is an attempt to tailor make an index specifically for chemical plant construction. It is a rather sophisticated index composed of many sub indexes for the various components of a chemical plant, all of which utimately contribute to the overall plant index.

It has a built-in labour productivity adjustment which has been escablished at 2-1/2% per year. Unfortunately, it appears that the value of 2-1/2% is over-correcting so that the index is biased downwards.

It also appears that the material/labour weightings used for the fabricated equipment and process machinery components may not be in the right proportion to allow for overhead and profit in a fabricating shop. This again could create a slight downward bias when labour rates are rising faster than material costs.

Nevertheless, the Chemical Engineering Index is an excellent one inasmuch at it has been thoroughly researched to reflect the composition of a chemical plant, and is well documented and easy to understand. With the multiplicity of sub-indexes and their weightings, which are published, it has great flexibility and enables the user to modify it to suit his own purposes.

If it were not for the certain lack of confidence over the productivity correction this index could be ideally suited for the process industries in the U.S. In fact, with a little bit of effort, one could delete the 2-1/2% productivity correction and build in one's own.

<u>Pitfalls</u>

In using cost indexes one should beware of certain pitfalls:

Labour productivity changes and technological improvements have been mentioned already. Most indexes don't incorporate labour productivity changes and this fact should be recognized and considered separately. If an index does incorporate a labour productivity correction - it is well to remember that this is a very difficult area to evaluate and hence the index could be over or under corrected.

Technological breakthroughs are not normally incorporated into indexes. Again, this fact should be recognized and a separate allowance made for it if need be.

Cost indexes represent averages and trends and it is very difficult for them to incorporate the effect of competition in the market place. A selling price type of index is more likely to catch swings from a buyers' market to a seller's market or vice versa than an input type of index. However, none are likely to recognize a very competitive situation since the data flowing to the index maker is not likely to include the competitive price. Figure-5 is an extreme example of what can happen at times.

Lastly an index will not reflect special situations in a specific locality and therefore it should be adjusted to reflect local conditions.

For example:

A local union could negotiate a very large increase in wage rates in a specific locality while a construction labour index may be reflecting an overall average for a large region or an entire country.

In summary, cost indexes are tools in producing estimates. All indexes require some background knowledge before application, and for best results it is desirable to use an index tailored to one's specific needs.

Like all cost estimates cost indexes are merely "Estimates". They are not an exact science and whoever uses them needs to understand them. However, when properly selected they produce reasonably good answers with great rapidity. No other technique offers the same speed and versatility for assessing the effect to "Time" on capital costs.



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FIGURE 2

Page 12



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Page 13

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FIGURE 4

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FIGURE 5

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AREA RELATIONSHIPS

A basic requirement for successful factor estimating is an orderly, methodical and consistent method of breaking down a process plant into logical components

A first impression of a process plant may be a chaotic maze of equipment, piping, buildings, etc. No two plants appear to be the same.

Nevertheless there are certain components that are common to any and all process plants. This is demonstrated in Figure-6.

All chemical plants have a process area, storage and handling facilities for raw materials and finished product, an electrical system, steam system, air system, water system, sewers and effluent treatment, etc. and in all probability a laboratory, an office, roads, etc.

For some time now the process area has taken on a specific title with the name 'Battery Limit' while the balance of the plant has been named the 'Off Sites' or the 'Auxiliaries'.

More recently the off-sites have been broken down into 3 components, namely the Storage and Handling Facilities, the Utilities and the Services. Thus we have what might be called the '4 area concept' of capital costs. This is illustrated in Figure-7.



FIGURE 6







These areas are defined as follows:

Battery Limit (Referred to as B/L)

This area represents all the process operations. It can be defined as the boundaries enclosing a plant or process unit so as to include those facilities directly involved in the conversion of raw material to finished product. It applies to all buildings, equipment, piping, instruments, etc., which specifically involve the process or manufacturing operation and includes that portion of the compressed air, electrical, refrigeration, steam, water, plumbing, fire protection, process waste disposal, and air conditioning systems, etc. that are inside the process area, but does not include the outside lines, etc. which convey such utilities or services to or from the 'Battery Limit' buildings. Where practical the wall of a 'Battery Limit' building forms a suitable boundary, but where outside process facilities exist the boundary should include these facilities.

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Storage and Handling (Referred to as 5 & H)

This area consists of all warehouses, storage tanks, loading, unloading and handling facilities, etc. required for raw materials and finished products associated directly with the product being made. It includes the necessary pipelines from the point of storage to the walls or boundaries of the battery limit. It does not include storage and handling of raw materials for utilities, such as coal, fuel oil, etc., which are included with the cost of the utility. Similarly it does not include 'in process' storage, which is normally charged to the battery limit, unless it is a large intermediate storage station.

Utilities (Referred to as U)

Utilities refer in general to the production of energy and its transportation to and from the battery limit as well as to other buildings on the site. They consist of:

Compressed air plant if located outside the battery limit and outside air lines.

Electric power supply consisting of substation, outside lines, and yard and fence lighting.

Refrigeration system if located outside the battery limit consisting of refrigeration machines, and outside refrigerant lines.

Steam plant and outside steam lines.

Water supply, pumphouses, main cooling tower, and outside water lines.

Drains and sewers including normal sewerage treatment systems, Note: process waste treatment systems are part of battery limit up to point where the discharge is safe to enter a main effluent sewer.

Storage and handling facilities for raw materials used in the production of utilities.

Services (Referred to as S)

This area represents all the remaining items of investment that are necessary to round out the plant into a fully operating unit. They include items such as offices, laboratories, shops, lunchrooms, change houses, gatehouses, roads, ditches, railways, fences, communication system, service equipment, track scales, etc.

It is these last three areas that are referred to as the 'off sites' or 'Auxiliaries' or as the 'outside battery limits'.

What is the value of having this type of breakdown?

Table-2 will start to indicate the potential of attacking the costs on this basis.

The cost of some 13 chemical plants were broken down into 4 areas and each one was then determined as a percent of the total cost. With the exception of the storage and handling facilities the correlation between each major area is remarkable.

COST BREAKDOWN OF 4 AREAS

PLANT	B/L	<u>S 6 H</u>	<u>u</u>	<u>s</u>
A	47	33	11	9
6-1	38	35	13	14
B+2	56	23	9	12
ē	56	2	24	13
D	65*	-	22	13
Ē	55*	-	22	13
F	64*	-	23	13
Ĝ	65	10	11	· 14
Ĥ	52	16	16	16
1	54	6	26	14
	70	. 6	18	
3-2	63	5	23	ġ
ĸ	71	2	13	14

* INCLUDES STORAGE AND HANDLING

TABLE-2

Page 19

Area Factors

This knowledge provides another basis for <u>Factor Estimating</u>, i.e. if the cost of the battery limit is known, other areas can be determined as a factor of the battery limit cost.

Table-3 provides the first broad set of cost data which can be used in preliminary types of estimates. If the cost of the battery limit is known, a reasonably close approximation of the plant auxiliaries can be determined by applying the percentages in this table with good judgement.

In this table it will be noted that the Storage & Handling and the Utilities are factored as a percent of the Battery Limit Cost while Services are factored as a percent of (B/L + S + U).

Services tend to be a function of the 'Storage and Handling' facilities and the 'Utilities', as well as the 'Battery Limit': hence a better correlation is obtained when the Services are expressed as a percentatge of the (B/L + S & H + U).

COST OF PROCESS PLANT AUXILIARIES

			·····	
			, GRASS ROOTS PLANT	B/L ADDITION ON EXISTING - SITE
<u></u>			¥ OF	B/L COST
			ľ	
STORAGE	low -	Raw Material by pipeline. Little warehouse space.	2	0
6 6	AVG -	Average raw material Storage & Finish product Warehousing	15 - 25	2 ~ 6
HANDLING	HIGH -	Tank farm for R.M. Substantial warehousing for finished product	70	20
	LOW -	Steam, water & power, more or less available for purchase with little investment required.	10,	3
UTILITIÊS	AVG -	Average Situations	20 - 30	6 - 14
	RIGH -	Investment required in Boiler plant, pump house & Sub-stations, etc.	50	30
		**********************	\$ OF	(B/L + S6H + U)
SERVICES	LOW -	Minimum investment required for offices, personnel facilities laboratories, machine shop etc.	5	0
	AVG -	Average conditions	10 - 16	2 - 6
	HIGH -	Substantial provisions	20	15

TABLE-3

Page 21

COST PATTERNS AND SIZE FACTORS

The 4 area concept can lead to some interesting cost relationships. For example if we study the cost pattern of the 4 different areas we find that each one has a different cost versus capacity curve. Thus Figure-8 is a typical set of cost graphs for 4 different areas of a process plant plotted on log/log paper.

4 AREA CONCEPT

ILLUSTRATING DIFFERENT COST PATTERNS



FIGURE 8

Page 22

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COST ESTIMATING

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C. A. MILLER

FACTOR ESTIMATING SEMINAP.

Group 1 Problems Based on US locations & costs

 A 500 metric ton/day medium sized battery limit chemical plant consisting of reactors, fractionating towers, heat exchangers, pumps, tanks, etc. cost \$ "A" in the U.S.A. in 1960?

What will it cost today in 1978 dollars?

- Referring to question No. 1 what will be the cost of a very large plant with a capacity of 3,000 metric tons/day in 1978 dollars?
- 3. Assuming that you have very little additional information except that the plant would be erected on a site adjacent to the Company which supplied the raw material and that the finished product was shipped out by tank car and only required one week of storage, what would be the approximate cost of a complete grass roots plant at 3,000 tons/day? Be prepared to explain how you arrived at it.
- 4. If the B/L plant were built on an existing site which could provide a lot of existing services but had no excess capacity available in electricity or water what would be the expected cost?
- 5. Given the total direct cost of an average type chemical plant as \$10 million. What would you expect the total cost of the entire project to be?
- 6. If your boss stated that the XY Company had just given him a budget price of \$10 million to design and build the battery limit for an average type of chemical plant and that he was going into a meeting in 10 minutes and wanted to report the possible cost of a complete grass roots plant - what would your answer be? Show how you arrived at your answer.
- 7. If your boss also asked you to determine the total number of direct construction manhours required to build the plant, and bring the answer to his meeting as soon as you got it, how would you go about it? Assume composite base wage rate in the USA to be \$10. per hour.

Pactor Estimating Seminar Problems Continued

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8. Referring to the attached graph, the cost of the cellroom of a mercury cell chlorine plant consisting of 50 cells is "X" dollars. Draw a cost graph to reflect the expected cost of chlorine plant cellrooms ranging in capacity from a small plant of 50 cells to 1,000 cells.

Plot directly above the cellroom cost curve, the shape of the expected cost curve for grass roots chlorine plants ranging in capacity from 50 cells to 1,000 cells when the cost of the 50 cells grass roots plant is "Y" dollars.

Be prepared to explain why you think your graph is correct?

9. Using the same graph as in question No. 6 the cost of the B/L of a 50 ton/day chemical plant consisting essentially of centrifugal compressors, reactors, fractionating columns,heat exchangers and mixing tanks is "X" dollars. Draw a cost graph to reflect the expected battery limit cost for plants ranging in capacity from a small plant of 50 tons/day to 1,000 tons/day.

(As in Question No. 8) Plot directly above the battery limit cost curve, the shape of the expected cost for grass roots chemical plants when the cost of the 50 ton/day grass roots plant is "Y" dollars.



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Problems 8 & 9

GROUP 2

FACTOR ESTIMATING PROBLEM

 Develop a factor estimate for the cost of a 1200 metric ton/day metallurgical sulphuric acid plant in 1978 dollars to be erected on an existing site.

The following information is provided:

Battery Limit

Flow sheet attached.

Roaster gas from a smelter is supplied to the plant in a large diameter mild steel duct approximately 2 meters in diameter and is fed into a stainless steel scrubbing section. The solid impurities are then removed in lead lined electrolytic precipitators.

The resulting wot gas is passed through S. S. piping to brick lined drying towers and the dried gas is then passed through a system of heat exchangers to a converter where the SO, gases are converted to SO, gas.

The SO₃ gases in turn pass through the heat exchange system and are absorbed to H_2SO_4 in a brick lined absorbing tower.

The resulting product is passed through a stripping tower which yields high strength H_2SO_A .

The plant operates at atmospheric pressure.

All vessels are regarded as relatively large, the converter being approximately 10 meters in diameter.

The acid plant will be erected on an existing sulphuric acid plant site and where possible will take advantage of any existing facilities that may be available. The site is somewhat congested and practically all foundation work requires rock excavation.

The process equipment consists of a high percentage of mild steel acid brick lined vessels and a combination of large mild steel and stainless steel heat exchange equipment much of which is bought on an "erected basis".

The heat exchangers, towers and converter are insulated including the interconnecting piping.

Process control is straight forward and simple with instruments mounted on a panel in a small control room plus some local instruments. Overall the little instrumentation is simple compared to most Chemical plant operations.
- 2 -

Battery Limit Continued

The main electrical load in the process area consists of one motor @ 1400 HP, about 15 motors ranging from 5 to 75 HP, the electrolytic precipitators plus miscellaneous minor motors.

The Battery Limit consists of 64 main plant items which have been estimated to cost $$4,300,000 \pm 5$ % in 1978 dollars.

The catalyst required for the converter is estimated to cost \$400,000.

Storage and Handling

Provide for 10 days' storage, the necessary additional product pipelines and a new loading station. About 300 meters of 2mØ pipeline are required to feed the supply gas direct to the battery limit.

Otilities

Allow for main substation, cooling tower to handle 65 $m^3/$ minute, cooling tower pumphouse, waterlines, fire protection, a 2,000 kg/hour standby steam boiler including necessary steam piping, plus minor additions to effluent treatment system.

Main power supply consists of 5,900 volts, 3 phase, 50 cycle and the estimated total load 4,000 H.P.

Services

New railway spur line about 500 meters long New road to site of B/L Relocate 150 meters of fencing and install 300 meters of new fencing. Provide small welfare building of approximately 30m² complete with lockers, washroom and lunch room.

No investment is required for offices, maintenance shops, stores facilities or laboratories.

Allow \$100,000 for spare equipment.

Problem 2

What would the Battery Limit cost in 1978 dollars if the capacity were 600 metric tons/day?

If the capacity were 2,500 metric tons/day?



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Table 4 has been developed from these graphs and records the costs and percentages for a small plant taken at a capacity of 3 and for a large plant taken at a capacity of 20.

	LOW CAP	PACITY		HIGH CAPACITY					
AREA	Cost from Graph	% of B∕L	% of B∕L+S&H+U	Cost from Graph	% of B/L	€ of B/L+S≰H+U			
B/L	13	100		47 .	100				
S & H	3.2	24.6		8.5	18				
ប	3.5	26.9		12	25.5				
5	3.1	23.8	15.7	6.4	13.6	9.5			

TABLE-4

It is interesting to note how these compare with the set of factors in Table 3. It is also interesting to note that the factors are different for a large plant than for a small plant - especially those of the \$ & H and Services.

This occurs because the various cost curves have different slopes.

The B/L curve may have a curve with a slope of 0.7, the utilities 0.6, the Storage and Handling 0.5 and the Services 0.4 Specific knowledge of these cost patterns enable you to synthesize the total cost of a complete plant at any capacity.

Six Tenths and Other Pactors

Since we are discussing cost graphs and their slopes, this brings us to the much-talked-about six tenths factor. Simply stated, the factor refers to the relationship between cost and capacity and is explained by the equation:

$$\frac{SB}{SA} = \left(\frac{C_B}{C_A}\right)^n$$

Where: C_{k} = Capacity of plant A

 $C_{\rm p}$ = Capacity of plant B

The six tenths factor refers to the exponent 'n' and implies that its value is 0.6. If the cost graph is plotted on log log paper it forms a straight line and the slope of this line is the value of the exponent 'n'. See Figure 9.



Capacity Tons/Day

C. H. Chilton was probably the first to publish comprehensive information and data on the six tenths factor. He provided data on some 35 complete plants which indicated that the cost curves for process plants were straight lines on log log paper. Their slopes ranged from 0.33 to 1.02 but the bulk of them were closer to 0.6 and their overall average was close to 0.6. This became a good rule of thumb. However, one never knew how reliable it was, and there was conflict in the published data. One article would state 0.75 or 0.8 for some process while another article would state 0.5 or 0.6. Further, a person with some experience with the same process may disagree with both.

The problem lies in the fact that these lines are not straight lines. Rether they are slightly curved, turning upwards as the capacity increases. See Figure 10.



It will be seen now, that where the exponent 'n' may be given as 0.7, in reality it may vary from 0.5 to 0.9 depending on capacity. It is obvious that a straight application of the 0.7 exponent could produce an error at either end of the scale. Further, if the 0.7 is not the true average slope of the curve or if the capacity, at which the 0.7 slope was originally established, is not known, then it will not be readily apparent where the point of greatest error is likely to occur.

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This may be illustrated as follows:





Referring to Figure 11; if 2 straight lines are drawn on log log paper at different slopes the sum of the 2 will have slight curvature.

Further if the 2 original lines are curved then their sum will be another curve of even greater curvature. See Figure 12.



FIGURE 12 SUM OF 2 CURVED LINES ----GREATER CURVATURE

A complete plant is the summation of many items such as equipment, piping, electrical materials, buildings, etc. all of which follow some power rule.

It is safe to say that they all form a curve sloping upwards, and in no case do they turn downwards. It can be concluded that their summation, which becomes the cost of a complete plant, is a curve sloping upwards and not a straight line. Knowledge of this fact represents a significant improvement in accuracy when developing cost graphs and cannot be overly emphasized.

To illustrate this Figure 13 is an approximate cost graph for battery limit sulphuric acid plants.





Note that in the range of 100 to 200 tons per day the curve is extremely flat with a slope of 0.2 or 0.3, while in the range of 1,500 to 2,500 tons per day, the slope is .85. The average slope of the entire curve is approximately .65. If the cost is projected up from A to C, on the average slope of 0.65 to give a capacity increase of 5 times, the forecast cost at C would be approximately 20% low. On the contrary if the cost at B were known and it was projected down to D on the 0.65 power rule to give a capacity reduction of 5 times, then the forecast cost at D would be high by 20%. The next time reference is made to a process having a specific exponent, 'beware'.

Recognizing this fact, Figure..14 now illustrates a new set of corrected graphs for the 4 different areas. Note that we have also included a graph for indirect costs and another for engineering and design costs. (These will be discussed in more detail, later.) Thus there is a separate cost graph for every major component of cost. Each one has a different cost pattern and their summation at any capacity will provide the total cost of a complete plant.

It will also be noted that as the plant becomes progressively larger the slope of the cost curve keeps increasing until at some point it reaches 45°. Once this point is reached, the exponent 'n' becomes 1.0 and from here on there is no further reduction in the unit cost of a plant with increasing capacity. This is known as the economic size of the plant meaning that there is no particular economic advantage in terms of capital costs by building bigger. (Other things being equal.)



Figure 14

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In actual practice these curves are not necessarily smooth. They may be 'stepped' along the way or at the point of economic size. For example: in a large single stream plant the point of economic size is reached at the capacity limit of the major equipment involved. A further increase in capacity means 2 trains or at least twinning of the major equipment. This immediately creates an upward step in the curve at the point of economic size.

However, one cannot feel secure even with an economic size plant since there are 2 more points to consider and these concern the dynamics of change in a technological society with an inflationary economy.

Assume that we have a standard curve for a process in which 100 tons/day is a small plant and 1,000 tons/day is a very large plant at which the slope has become 45°. See Figure 15.





The 1,000 t/d plant is thus at economic size and other things being equal, it should be able to compete with all comers. However, with a rapidly advancing technology someone scon finds a way to make a major breakthrough either by way of process improvement or equipment improvement. This immediately enables a larger plant to be built for the same price, or the same size plant to be built for less money. The cost pattern for this process immediately shifts from curve A to curve B and all plants built along curve A move rapidly into obsolescence. Ammonia plants are a typical example and the most significant breakthrough which brought this about was the centrifugal compressor.

The other point concerns the effect of labour escalation.





TONS / DAY

In Figure 16, curve A represents the cost pattern for a complete range of plants built several years ago, in which the slope at a capacity of 1000 t/d has reached 45. Since then, the cost of construction labour has increased by a factor of about 2-1/2. Thus the labour portion of the plant at a capacity of 100 t/d has increased by 2-1/2 and similarly the labour portion at 1000 t/d has increased by 2-1/2. However, the labour content of the small plant will be a greater percentage of the total cost than for the large plant. Thus, it can be reasoned that a new cost curve B will develop for which the slope at 1000 t/d is no longer 45° but rather something like 40°. We may have exaggerated somewhat to illustrate this point - but nevertheless, it is valid to say that the rapidly increasing labour rates are causing the cost curves to become flatter with time, thereby forcing an economic size plant into larger and larger capacities.

It can now be concluded that cost patterns for complete plants do not remain static; they become progressively flatter with time, and the economic size is getting larger and larger.

An intimate knowledge of all the above issues will enable one to exercise good judgement in applying factor estimating techniques and will contribute to greater accuracy. DIRECT AND INDIRECT COSTS

The factors discussed so far, relate to complete plants or to large components of a plant (i.e. the plant areas).

Such factors are invaluable for order of magnitude estimating. However, the time comes when a much higher degree of accuracy is desired and for this purpose we progress to more detailed factor estimating. The system to be discussed later involves a broad range of detailed factors which can be selected with judgement to suit a wide range of applications. This is where maximum accuracy comes into play and for this purpose it is very important that you have a clear understanding of the scope of the factors. This cannot be understood without knowing the composition of capital costs. This is especially important because the practice in building up the components varies from one country to another and also from the precise way in which they are built up in this presentation. Hence to clearly understand and apply the factor system being presented it is essential to know how the costs are built-up.

The first major separation in costs for this system is "direct costs" and "indirect cost",

DEFINITIONS

Direct Costs are those costs associated with the actual erection or assembly of the physical part of the plant. They include all material which enters into and becomes a physical part of the plant, along with the labour and supervision (at base wage rates) associated with its installation.

Examples:

The cost of all equipment delivered to the site plus the labour to install it. Ditto for piping, electrical, instrumentation, buildings, etc.

Indirect Costs represent those additional costs which are not directly associated with or readily traceable to a specific physical part of the plant itself but which are still essential to enable the plant to be built. Under this heading are construction field expenses, contractors' fees, temporary buildings and services including snow removal and winter protection, insurance, security and safety, fire protection, travelling expenses, construction equipment, small tools, etc.

Note: There is mixed practice in where payroll burdens are charged. Some companies include them z. part of the direct labour cost and others treat them as an indirect cost. In this presentation payroll burdens are part of the indirect costs. Engineering is also an indirect cost but is generally assessed as a separate item by itself.

A study of the direct and indirect costs for a great many plants provides another set of useful factors. See Table-5.

Direct & Indirect Cost Factors

Α.	Total Direct Cost	100
в.	Indirect Costs	20 to 35% of A
c.	Eng'g and Administration	12 to 22% of (A + B)
D .	Contingencies	5 to 15% of (A + B + C)
TOT	AL COST =	A + B + C + D

TABLE-5

By separating the direct labour from the direct material we get another useful breakdown of the cost of a plant. See Table-6.

	Dire L	ectM	Indirect	Eng'g Admin.	Total
Range	12-20	45-62	12-25	10-20	100
Average	14	54	16	16	100

TABLE-6

Note: In applying these factors it is important to know the exact definition of each column, e.g. in this illustration the labour component represents the labour cost at "base wage rates" while payroll burdens are included under the "indirect" column.

Knowledge of this distribution is invaluable in coping with day to day problems in estimating. A breakdown for a specific project may be developed by starting with the typical distribution and then modifying each number in accordance with the nature of the project and the ranges indicated for each component. If the direct costs are broken down into their various equipment classes, another set of factors evolve. (See Table 7).

Battery Limit Cost Factors

Direct Costs:

	Rang	e	k A	leighted verage
Process equipment f.o.b. site	100			100
Labour to install the process equipment	5	to	20	12
Buildings - installed	20	to	100	40
Civil Work - installed	5	to	25	12
Piping - installed	10	to	100	45
Insulation - installed	5	to	30	19
Electrical - installed	5	to	25	15
Instrumentation - installed	10	to	90	30
All remaining items - installed	1	to	5	3
Total direct cost of B/L - Installed	230	 to	325	275
TOPET OILERS ADDO OF DUE THOTATION	200			

TABLE 7

If these data are coupled with the Indirect cost factors as in Table 5, the overall total cost of the battery limit can be estimated.

From the above, two conclusions can be reached:

- If the cost of the process equipment is known, the cost of a complete battery limit project can be built up from factors.
- Ranges are fairly wide and to get maximum accuracy there must be some way of arriving at more precise factors for the buildings, civil work, piping, electrical, etc.

This requires a study of those issues which affect the specific factor for each of the above items.

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COST CODE

Refinement of detailed factors calls for good reliable cost keeping. A good cost code properly applied is the mechanism for collecting the cost feedback in a consistent manner, in the form desired. For this reason it is desirable to refer briefly to cost codes.

It is probably safe to say that all companies are concerned with collecting costs and cost data; not only do they collect cost data but most of them collect similar cost data and collect it for the same purposes.

In spite of this few companies have identical cost code systems.

The need for standardization was recognized by the AACE at its founding meeting. The subject has received a great deal of discussion and there have been attempts to develop a standard code. Unfortunately there are numerous hurdles to overcome and while there has been progress in thinking there is still no standard cost code which has widespread acceptance.

The modern cost code must satisfy both the Owner or producing company as well as the general contractor, and it must be adaptable to computers and machine accounting. It-must-provide the cost feedback necessary for proper cost accounting and cost control, for researching the cost patterns of the 4 areas mentioned previously as well as many sub-components and it must also provide the detailed data required by contractors in the language of the contractor.

A standard cost code is not actually a part of this presentation and is such a large subject that it could be a complete talk in itself. Consequently, without going into details the next two pages provide a summary of the objectives of a modern construction cost code and a summary outline of a code which fulfills these objectives.

The code serves as an excellent check list of all items that must be considered in making an estimate. Also note that the first column of the code is a summary picture of all the main components of a project including the 4 area concept.

OBJECTIVES OF A MODERN CONSTRUCTION COST CODE

- Provide cost feedback for estimating purposes in the most efficient form.
- Provide a framework for good cost accounting and good cost control. Thus it will facilitate the control of engineering, of construction labour, the control of material and the control of contracts.
- Facilitate the payment and refund of Taxes.
- Provide information required for insurance purposes.
- 5. Provide a basis for compiling the capital assets ledger.
- Provide the type of cost breakdown that will be useful to Companies in developing both reliable product costing as well as reliable distributive costs.
- 7. On one hand it must provide the information required by the owner; on the other hand the data is developed and accounted for by a contractor. Therefore, to guarantee the maximum accuracy in cost keeping it must be easy to understand and apply to a contractor.
- It must be easily expandable and contractable to provide the simplest accounting or extreme details according to the requirements of each project.
- 9. It must have consistency, i.e. the accounts must be well defined and charges applied in the same way on all projects.
- 10. It should be oriented to machine and computer accounting.

Page 38

CONSTRUCTION COST CODE

	PLANT /	AREA AND FUNCTION C (Columne 1 to 3)	00ES	CONSTRUCTION ELEMENT CODES CONTRACT CODE (Columns 4 to 7) (Columns B)
DIRECT COSTS	D Gpen 1 Battery Limits 2 Storegs and Herolting 3 Utilities 4 Services	Numbers 0 to 9 to be used to identify Function Codes	Numbers () (a 9 to he used to kleatify Sub- Function Codes	0000 to 0999 Vessels C S & E / LS / Up Contracts 1000 to 1999 Heat Transfer Equipment Up Contracts 2000 to 2999 Mechanical Equipment L Up Contracts 2000 to 3999 Buildings L Labour Only 4000 to 3999 Electrical C C C 6000 to 6999 Electrical C C C C 6000 to 6999 Electrical C C C C 7000 to 7999 Electrical C C C C Contracts 8000 to 6999 Electrical E Purchaeed Equipment 8000 to 7999 Protective Coverings E Ruitheed Equipment 8000 to 8999 Catalysts and Chemicals C C Contracts O Operations & Start-Up
-	5 Construction Indicates	† Owner's Field Indiracts 2 Plant Forces 3 Contractors	Numbers 0 to 9 to be used to identify Sub- Function Corles	9000 to 9099 Contractor, H.O. & alt field staff salaries 9100 to 9199 Temporary Facilities 9208 to 9299 Construction Services and Supplies 9300 to 9399 Payroll Burden 9400 to 9593 Open
DIRECT COSTS	d Engineering	t H.O. Eng. 2 Plant Eng. 3 Purchaged	Numbers D to 9 to be used to identify Sub- Function Codes	9600 to 9693 Engineering
ž	7 Special Indirect Accounts	Open	Open	9700 to 9799 Special Indirect Accounts 9800 to 9899 Open
COUNTS	8 Operations and Start-Up	Numbers 0 to 9 may be used to identify Accounts	Numbers 0 to 9 niev be used to identity Sub- Accounts	May use either Direct Or Indirect Accounts on Bequired
SUPPORT AC	B Reserves	Navabers 0 to 9 to be used ro Identify Reserve Types	Numbers 0 to 9 may be used to identify Sub- Resurve Accounts	9900 to 9999 Reserves

7

Page 39

Basic Concept

The code is essentially an 8 digit code in which the 1st three digits are used to classify fixed assets into specific "Functions and Areas" while the next four digits classify the work content into the normal construction elements familiar to contractors. The 8th digit classifies the work into labour, material and methods of contracting.

Following the above concept, the first digit of the code breaks the total cost of a plant into the most significant components of "Direct" and "Indirect" costs followed by any special items that don't fit logically into the above. (e.g.: Charges to Operations and Reserves).

Functional Codes

The Functional Codes, as discussed above, consist of the 1st three digits of the Code (Columns 1 through 3) as illustrated below:

000	Open	
100	Battery Limits	
200	Storage and Handling	
300	Utilities	
400	Services	
		Total Direct Costs
500	Construction Indirects	
300	Engineering	
700	Special Indirect Accounts	
		Total Indirect Costs
900	Reserves	

800 New Money to Operations (Including Start-Up if Applicable)

Total New Money

Total Fixed Capital

NOTE: The above breakdown provides the desired summary sheet breakdown for all cost estimates and final cost reports. (See Section 2.0). The second digit (Column No. 2) of this grouping identifies the <u>Prime Function</u>. Each number within this column is not unique, but is dependent on the number to its left. This would identify specific Battery Limits, Storage and Handling facilities, etc. that would exist at a CIL location, e.g.

Chloralkali Plant

110 Battery Limit - Chlorine
120 Battery Limit - Brine
130 Battery Limit - Caustic
330 Utilities - Water System

The third digit (Column No. 3) is used to identify the <u>System</u> or <u>Sub-Function</u>. Each number within this column is not unique but is dependent on the number to its left. e.g.

Chloralkali Plant

Battery Limits Chlorine Sulphuric Acid System

Battery Limits Chlorine HC1 System

Each element of the first two columns has the possibility of 10 sub-elements being identified in the column immediately to its right. On major projects, a chance exists where 10 numbers may be insufficient. In these instances, letters "A" to "2" may be introduced.

Construction Element Code

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The next four digits (Columns 4 through 7) denote the elements (e.g. piping, pumps, vessels, etc.) that are used in the design and construction of a project. Codes 0000 to 8999 are used for 'Direct Cost' elements and codes 9000 to 9899 are used for 'Indirect Cost' elements. The series 9900 to 9999 are utilized in the control of Reserves.

The main concept of this code is that any number on the left is the number which has priority over all other numbers to the right, as follows:



Column 7 is used to identify extreme detail, if required, as indicated below:

e.g. Chloralkali Plant



Contract Code

When construction work is planned, column 8 provides the means of re-casting the estimate to reflect the way in which the actual construct ion is carried out. Thus, contracts may be identified and related to all the preceding codes. Similarly for equipment purchases by the owner, or cost plus labour contracts, etc. This column is used as an alpha code and is illustrated by the following:

To be used with both Direct & Indirect Costs:

- C * Supply & erect lump sum or unit price contracts. Different contracts can use another alpha letter or a numerical subscript to the C.
- E = Owner purchased equipment.
- L = Labour only type of contract.
- M = Contractor material on a cost plus contract.

Etc.

This code offers great flexibility for adapting to various ways of executing construction work, can be contracted and simplified for small projects or expanded for large projects. It fulfills the objectives as outlined on P.38. The cost code provides a framework on which a system of detailed factors can be built. Taking the main components from the cost code we can develop a format for a complete estimate composed of every significant item that can be factored. See Table 9.7

Collecting costs in a consistent manner in accordance with some such standardized breakdown will eventually yield a wealth of data for factor estimating.

TABLE 9

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CAPITAL COST SUMMARY OF ESTIMATED COSTS

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(*) See Core Case Manual

DETAILED FACTOR ESTIMATING

At this stage we are ready to discuss the development of detailed factors to yield the "total direct cost" from the basic cost of the equipment.

Referring back to the direct cost factors in Table 7, we now propose to discuss how these ranges can be narrowed down to more precise factors.

THEORY

Basic Theory: Total cost = f(x)where x is a known independent variable.

In general terms, 'x' is the total cost of equipment. Thus we have:

Cost of a Plant = a Factor x Total Equipment Cost.

OR Cost of a Plant Component = a Factor x Total Equipment Cost.

Our method applies this theory and is called the 'Average Unit Cost' technique. This method highlights 3 variables which have a significant effect on the accuracy of factor estimates and provides a system for taking them into account.

These 3 variable are:

Size of equipment Materials of construction Operating pressure.

If the size of the equipment gets larger, the overall factor becomes smaller.

If the equipment is made from more expensive material such as stainless steel, glass lined vessels, etc. the factors again become smaller.

If the operating pressures increase, it is also known that the overall factor will decrease.

To a considerable degree all these items can be taken into account by one single number, i.e. the 'Average Unit Cost' of the process equipment.

By 'Average Unit Cost' of the equipment, is meant

Total Cost of Process Equipment No. of Equipment Items Figure 17 illustrates a plot y = f(x) where x is the average unit cost and y is the corresponding factor. It will be seen that as the average unit cost increases, the 'factor' decreases.



FIGURE 17

Thus:

- If the size of a plant is increased, the equipment becomes larger and the average cost per item increases. Thus our point on the curve will be farther to the right and the corresponding factor will be lower.
- Alternatively, if the equipment has been carbon steel and is changed to stainless steel, the average cost of each item will increase and again the point on the curve will be farther to the right and the factor will be reduced.
- 3. Similarly, if the operating pressure is increased from atmospheric to a high pressure operation, the average cost per item will again increase and the resulting factor will go down.

It follows, that regardless of what issues are causing variations in the 'factors', the principle of basing them on 'Average Unit Cost' of the equipment will have a narrowing effect on the differences.

In practice, the curve becomes a band, as indicated in Figure 18.



AVERAGE UNIT COST

FIGURE 18

Page 43

Thus for any 'Average Unit Cost', the problem is to select the right position in the width of the band at that point.

In overly simplified terms, it may be stated that point "A" indicates the factor for a very small plant, operating at atmospheric pressure and with mild steel equipment, while point "B" represents the factor for a very large high pressure plant with stainless or other similar equipment.

Based on these principles a large selection of factors have been developed from a study of a wide range of plants including ethylene, fertilizers, caustic/chlorine, polyethylene, TNT and other miscellaneous chemicals. The factors provide the direct cost of the foundations, piping, insulation, electrical, instrumentation, etc. all as a percent of the cost of the process equipment. (See Table 10).

Each column represents a value for Average Unit Cost of process equipment and all factors are given as a range. The precise selection must be based on knowledge of the project and experience of the estimator. In practice, a 3-number selection (as in PERT) has been used, thus picking a high, probable and low. An experienced estimator with a detailed appreciation of the system should be able to select ranges such that there is little likelihood of them being exceeded. Further, there is little probability of all the 'lows' or all the 'highs' occuring at the same time. Thus in establishing the range of cost the sum of the lows can be increased, while the sum of the highs can be decreased. This may be done by the method of least squares or it may be regarded as an interesting problem in probabilities. On average we have found that the sum of the 'lows' can be increased by 10% to 15% and the sum of the 'highs' can be decreased by 10% to 15%. In any event the method used in applying the 'highs' and 'lows' will provide an upper and lower figure for the estimate in which there will be a high degree of confidence.

If the process equipment estimate is order-of-magnitude, the total cost will be order-of-magnitude. However, if a good estimate has been made for the process equipment and scope of work is fairly well defined, then this type of estimate is frequently satisfactory for the appropriation of funds.

Note: One must remember that these factors only provide the "direct cost" of "battery limit" plants.

For a complete estimate, allowance must still be made for indirect costs, engineering, etc. and if the estimate is for a grass roots project, the offsites must be estimated.

TABLE 10

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FACTORS FOR ESTIMATING BATTERY - LIMIT COSTS

RANGE OF PACTORS AS PERCENT OF BASIC EQUIPMENT

.

		AVERAGE UNIT COST OF M P IN 1978 DOLLARS					5	
)	UNDER	9,500	16,000	22,500	32,000	41,500	OVER
		\$9,500	000.31	22,500	37,000	41,500	54,500	54,500
		<u> </u>		+			1	
	M.P.L. (Main Dian; Isema)							
	MUE (Miscellaneous utilisted Items)	1 ^) ^ '	1 *		×	×	Y X
	Early flowsheet stage	29 10	182 of M P	l 's in all date	egories .			.
BASIC COLUMNENT	Scope of work well defines	1 1 10	14 er M P I	" in all care	portes :		1	
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	BASIC EQUIPMENT . MAIT UE	100	100	300	100	100	360	1 100
	High percentage of equipment involving	1						1 .
FIELD	high field labor	29/22	27/22	25/20	24/19	22.5/14	21/11	20/16.5
OF	AVERAGE (Mild steer soulpment)	23/16	\$2/15	20.5/14	19/12	10/12	17.3/11	16.7710.1
EQUIPMENT	other high unfi-cost equipment involving				j l			4
	fittle field erection	16/9.6	34.578.6	13.0/7.7	12.4/7	31.475.7	10.9/8.4	10.2/6.2
		·	[<u>+</u>	i — ····		i	
	MIGH - Predominance of compressors or mild steel equipment requiring heavy for	1		1	 			
t Assistant State	AVERAGE - For mild stool tabricated			in artea	15.5/ 10.3	44.776.7	112/13	10.6/6.2
FOUNDATIONS	equipment .	{	ĺ	12.3/22	[11.376.2]	94/52	42/4.2	72/3.1
ANO STRUCTURAL	AVERAGE - For predominance of alloy and other thin unit-office fabricated		ļ					1
SUPPORTS	aquipment	72/3.1	12/34	4.4/3.1	1.7/3.3	6.7/2.6	5.7/2	44/15
	LOW - Equipment more of less sitting on the	5.2/6	4.370	3.170	24/8	2.370	15/0	1/0
	PILING OR ROCK EXCAVATION	Increa	ise above vei I	ives by 25 to 1	100%			
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				t		<u>·</u> ·		i
PIPINC	plants with substantial ductwork	115/71	\$1/63	175/575	76.5/44	43/37	55733	46/27
includes	AVERAGE FOR CHEMICAL PLANTS	_		,				
ELCIVOR	Liquids, eactrolylic plants	71/35	43/29.5	\$2.5/24	44/17.5	\$7/13	33743	27/30
Mulation		16/6.5	3174.5	24/9	17.5/6.6	23/5.5	31/4.5	10/3.3
	······································						• 370	3
	VERY HIGH - Substantial mild steel		}	1				
INCH ATION	Equipment requiring logging and very low							
OF	High - Subdagital equipment requiring	14/11	127/87	11/4	10/6-4	\$3/\$3	7.4/4.7	6.3/34 9
ONLY	logging and high (amperatures (Petrochem's)	11.1/1.2	10/7	45/50	7.3/4.6	6.2/2.7	\$3/1	4.1/2.2
	AVERAGE FOR CHEMICAL PLANTS	44/33	7.1/3.4	\$72.4	4.971.8	3.9/1.5	1.2/1.2	2.4/0.9
	LOW	3.\$/6	2.7/0	2.2/0	14/0	1.5/0	12/4	1/0 7
				[
	, VERY MIGH - Substantial mild steel Dide requiring lossing and very low		ļ	í -				
INSULATION DE	temperatures	24/17.5	21/14	17.5/12	15/10	12/7.7	10/1.5	6.6/3.0
PIPING	HIGH - Substantial piping requiring logging			1				İ
ONLY	AVERAGE FOR CHEMICAL PLANTS	20/15	164/11	14/11	22/03	10/65	7.7/44	5/2.7
	LOW	15.4/9	13/6.6	13/5	9/14	6.6/3.3	44/22	2.2/1.1
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·							
	ELECTROLYTIC PLANTS							
	(includes rectification equipment)		\$\$7.42	50/34	45/33	40/30	35/26	
ALL	Fiants with mild steel equipment, Reavy drives, solids	76/13	22.5716	14 4 / 14 4	1,7/14	14/84		10/4
Except building	Plants with alloy or high unit-cost equipm's.				11710	4.4.4.3	1471	••••
ighting and instrumentation	chemical and petrochemical blants	14795	15.4/1.5	13/4.5	11/15	1/45	1.3/13	6/2.5
	B/L outside lighting which is not covered							1
. 1	In Building Services		{			l l		

TABLE 10 cont'd

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FACTORS FOR ESTIMATING BATTERY-LIMIT COSTS

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	cont/	or panels, petrochemicalaus	sonisticated	107/2	. +11	47 41	1/36	\$6/27	-44/21	35/15	(17/1	ا ه
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						<u> </u>	<u>110 H</u>	NORMAL	LQ <u>W</u>			
		Compte	sect air for	penacal se	rvice only	/ [+	1 %	5			
	í i	Electric	Lighting				14	1	5			1
		Sorinki	41				10	6	3			
	Į	Plumble	9			ł	20	17	3	1		
	[Heating					21	16	1	l.		
SERVICES		Ventila	ion: withou	t alt cond	sitioning		10 j	•	0	1		
			enth a	ir conditi:	auju 🕯		45	25	25			
	Ì	7074	OVERA						20	1		i
1	L		UVEN-AL			L				1		
	The	above tectors apply to thos	e Remt Nori	maily clas	1140 at b	VIIC)ng 🗰	WHOMES.	ney Go not				
	1. 5 con-	arvices located butside the	nanging sub tiony i (mit	an art sub-d an webi se	nevoni, (soutuide	the buildle	WETL DL NG.	itsige water i	1196, 235., 9 1			
	2.0	TOCALL SETVICES										
	ать 1 т.	a totals provide the ranses	lor the fune		ng invote	ed and are	i upa fat	when the let	dividual ser-	ice montree	nents ef	•
1	not	known. Note that the over-		are not th		the indiv	duel ce	Diamper.				·

Tables 5 & 6 provide data for indirect costs & engineering.

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 If a "grass roots" plant estimate is required Table 3 provides a set of factors for a quick assessment of the Storage and Handling, Utilities and Services.

However, these factors may be considered too broad for the accuracy desired in the estimate. Further refinement can still be carried out without resorting to detailed estimating. Thus Table 11 provides a set of factors for the various components that make up the utilities and Table 12 provides more detailed factors for building up the cost of Services.

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'UTILITIES IN PERCENT OF BATTERY LIMIT COST'

(See notes for definition of 'Utilities')

•

		Range for Grass (Roots
UTILITIES BUILDINGS		3-10
Arch'l and Struct'l Mechanical Serv.	2+7 .5-4,	
COMPRESSED AIR SYSTEM		. 1 - 4
ELECTRICAL SYSTEMS		1.5+6
Substation Distribution Outside Lighting	.5-3.5 .5-3 .15-1.5	
GAS SYSTEM		06
SEWERS AND DRAINAGE SYSTE	ж	1.3-3.5
STEAM SYSTEM		1.5-11
Generation Distribution	1-9 .5-3	
WATER SYSTEM		1-10
Pumphouse Cool. Towers & Recirc. Distribution Fire Protection Water treatment	1-8 .5-5 .15-3 .2-1 .2-1.5	
MISCELLENEOUS		.5-3
	<u>Grass Roots</u> Low <u>Avg.</u> High	B/L Additions Low Avg. High
Overal) Averages for all Utilities	10 20-30 50	3 6-14 30

```
TABLE 11
```

SERVICES IN PERCENT OF (B/L + S & H + U)

		Range for Grass Roots
Main Office		1 - 5
Laboratories		0 - 2.8
Shops & Stores		1 - 8
Lunch Rooms		0 - 2.2
Change Houses		0 - 2.2
Personnel & Gateshouses		0 - 1
Roads, Railroads & Fences		1.3 - 5.5
Service Equipment		.5 - 4.5
Miscellaneous		.5 - 2
	<u>Grass Roots</u> Low Avg. High	<u>B/L Additions</u> Low <u>Avg. High</u>
Overall Averages for Total Serv.	5 10-16 20	0 2-6 15

(See notes for definition of Services)

TABLE 12

DEVELOPMENT OF ESTIMATES

.

Armed with the foregoing data, we can now develop a complete factor estimate for a battery limit or a grass roots plant. Tables 13 and 14 provide sample estimating forms for developing the estimates.

NO. of M.F.).to AVEBAGE UNIT CO IN In P.1. (Main plant in	Proj		CAPACITT	FACTOR OR ACCURACY	L0#		DATE
NO. of M.P.J.Co AVERAGE UNIT CO IM M.P.L. (Main plant II	Янц	(by	CAPACITT	FACTOR OR ACCURACY	LOw		
NO. of M.F.).'s AVEBAGE UNIT CO IN M.P.L. (Main plant II	057 DF M P 3978001L		CUT RE NT	FACTOR OR ACCURACY	LOW		
AVEBAGE UNIT CO	1975 DST DF M P 1978 OOLL	.1.*s	CU# 2E NT	OR ACCURACY	LOW		
AVERAGE UNIT CO 19 In P.1. (Main plant in)))))))))))))))))))			ACCURACY		PROBABLE	NIGH
AVERAGE UNIT CO 19 In P. L. (Main plant in	DST DF M P 117400LL Imms)			1			
la P.I. (Mein plant II	1=m1)						
		la P.I. (Main plant Itams)		Estimated	2		
M.1.E. Miscullanus	ion anticad	**** *** ***			:		
BASIC EDUPMENT (Excluding nules in	1 (4 P.I. 4 M	1.U.E.) (1927)		100 † _			
	- T-	REMA	Res			·	
Fiaid aression at Ba Equ	11 ia Alpana						
Equipment Foundati Structural supports							
Pleing							1
INSULATION Equipment					1		
Piping							i '
ELECTRICAL							
INSTRUMENTATIO	s						
4"SCELLANEOUS							
BUILDINGS Architecture1 & St	******				1		
DUILDING SERVICE	Struet (
Comprovered an Electrical Aughtin Sprinklars	.						
Plumbing Hunting Vanis & Alf Cand	djandeg						
TOTAL SERVIC	٤٥	1_					
SUB TOTAL-FACTO	ORE D ITEM	5					
ADADSTREATS	£0#\$+		HIGHS _		µ		
TOTAL FACTORE	D ITEMS A	DJUSTED					
DIRECT COST OF I	1/L	,					

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Pepe

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Division & Loc's	Proj. or Study No.	TITLE				OATE
	Requested by	CAPACITY				
			FACTOR OR ACCURACY	LOW	PROSABLE	МІБН
DIRECT COST OF	B/L					
STORAGE AND HANDLING			:			
UTILITIES						
SERVICES (In per cent of	(B/L + 58H + U)					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
TOTAL 8/L + AU	KILJARIES			:		
TAXES			-			
TOTAL DIRECT (:0\$1					
INDIRECT COSTS	TION FIELD, O.H.	& ≠ROFIT				
CATALYST						
ROYALTIE	S, LICENCES AND	PATENTS				
ENGINEER	ING					
TOTAL INDIREC	T COSTS					
TOTAL DIRECT	AND INDIRECT					
CONTINGENCIES	.	-				
TOTAL COST IN						
ESCALATION FO	B COMPLETION IN	- idate				
TOTAL CAPITAL	. COST					
Procedure

- Estimate cost of the process equipment. (This is not within the scope of this paper).
- 2. Estimate cost of B/L from the process equipment. (Table 10)
- 3. Estimate S & H by factors from the B/L cost. (Table 3)
- 4. Estimate Utilities as a function of B/L. (Table 3 & 11)
- Estimate Services as a function of (B/L + S & H + U). (Tables 3 & 12)
- Note: It should be noted that the above procedure applies to grass roots plants or to battery limit additions. Although the factors can be applied to less than a battery limit project their reliability diminishes greatly.

Estimating The Battery Limit (Table 13)

Starting with the B/L, it is necessary to break it down into its major components so that all items are included and the summation adds up to the total cost of the entire B/L. Strict definition and understanding of process equipment is particularly important since this is the base for all the factors.

The process equipment is called "Basic Equipment" and it is defined as the cost of ALL process equipment, delivered to the site. It does not include foundations or structural supports, insulation, painting or erection.

For practical purposes: Basic Equipment = Main Plant Items + Miscellaneous Unlisted Equipment.

Where: <u>Main Plant Items</u> (M.P.I.) represent all the usual major items of equipment that would be indicated on a flow sheet down to and including pumps.

<u>Miscellaneous Unlisted Equipment</u> (M.U.E.) represents the minor miscellanous equipment that turns up on all projects, but rarely gains a position on the flow sheet or on the early equipment lists.

The cost of these two together, delivered to the site, represents the "Basic Equipment" cost which will be the basis of the Factor Estimating System.

Since the complete factor estimate depends on the cost of the "Basic Equipment", it is most important that this cost be estimated as accurately as possible.

The "average unit cost" is based on the M.P.I.'s only, and does not include the M.U.E., i.e the total number of M.P.I.'s are counted and divided into the total delivered cost of the M.P.I.'s.

It is the Basic Equipment, however, which represents "100" when applying the factors.

To compensate for inflationary effects, the "Average Unit Cost" of the M.P.I.'s should be in constant 1978 dollars.

The factors are selected from the data in Table 10 and the estimate can be completed easily by following the format of Table 13. The following trouble spots, however, are worthy of mention:

Sales taxes are treated as a separate item later on in the estimate and should not be included in the cost of the "Basic Equipment". Similarly, for catalyst. Based on the specific knowledge of the project, an accuracy evaluation is placed on the Basic Equipment. Subsequently, when factoring the various components, the low factor is applied against the low Basic Equipment cost, and the high factor is applied against the high Basic Equipment cost.

Reference to Table 10 shows that buildings can constitute the largest single component of cost next to the process equipment, and it is also known that its correlation with Basic Equipment is not too reliable.

If such a significant item of cost could be assessed with greater accuracy than that attainable with factors, it would make a considerable improvement in the accuracy of the overall estimate. With the fast techniques now available for estimating building costs it is only necessary to have the main building dimensions and general specifications in order to refine this portion of a factor estimate.

Piping is also a significant cost item, but unfortunately, unless a very substantial amount of piping design is available, there are no quick methods for estimating its cost that will provide any greater accuracy than the factor method.

One warning is necessary on instrumentation because it is not a true variant of process equipment cost. For example, the cost of instrumentation on a fully instrumented distillation system is approx. the same whether the towers are 18 inches in diameter or 5 feet in diameter. The factors provided more or less cope with this situation but it is well to remember that the cost of instrumentation on a fully instrumented sophisticated plant of small capacity could conceivably exceed 100% of the process equipment cost.

Building Services are estimated as a function of the Architectural and Structural cost of the buildings. Once established, these can then be converted to a factor of the Basic Equipment so that all factors placed in the 'Factor' column refer to Basic Equipment. When the total of all the factored items is determined, the range is extremely wide since the extreme factors have been applied against the extremes of the Basic Equipment. Since all the 'lows' or all the 'highs' will not occur at the same time, an adjustment may be made by adding 10 to 15% to the lows and deducting 10 to 15% from the highs. (See previous comments).

Estimating The Auxiliaties (Table 13)

Table 14 provides the estimate for the outside battery limit facilities. Referring to tables 3, 11 and 12 suitable factors are selected for Storage and Handlings, Utilities and Services.

Use of high or low factors again poses a problem inasmuch as all the lows will not occur at the same time nor all the highs at the same time. In this case, because the B/L estimate is significantly larger than the auxiliaries and is, generally more accurate, the 3 factors for each auxiliary are applied against the 'Probable' cost of the B/L. The values so obtained are then added without any other adjustment.

This total provides the total cost of the B/L + Auxiliaries before taxes and indirects.

Sales Taxes

Sales taxes are calculated individually for the B/L & Auxiliaries and will vary from country to country.

Estimating The Indirects

- Normal Indirects (construction field, O.H. & Profit): Can be estimated using one or both of the following rule-of-thumbs, one based on total direct cost and the other based on construction labour.
 - (a) = 20 to 35% of total direct cost (excluding catalyst) (See Table 5).
 - (b) = 90 to 150% of total direct labour.
- Note: If (b) is used, the total direct labour is estimated first as a per cent of the total direct cost from the ranges given in Table 6.
- Catalyst: This is treated separately and includes the cost of installation and any other costs associated with catalyst.
- If applicable, add in cost of land, royalties, licences, and patents.

Note: None of these items should enter into any of the factoring processes. . 4. Engineering & Administration can be assessed from the ranges in Table 6.

Contingencies

Contingencies may be in the range of 10% to 20% and 10% is a common allowance.

However, it is preferable to assess contingencies in the light of 'high' or 'low' estimates. For example, it can be said with a fair degree of confidence that the 'High" figure has already provided for all the contingencies. That is why it is high. On the contrary, the 'Low' figure has no allowance for contingencies and all the lows are not likely to occur on one project. Hence there is ample good reason to provide a contingency. Thus, when determining how much money should be appropriated, there seems to be a valid reason to assess it in the range of the ('Low' + 10% to the 'High').

Escalation

The factors provide an estimate in current dollars corresponding to the time frame of the basic equipment costs.

A final addition to the estimate is an allowance for escalation based on the proposed schedule for the project and the forecast inflation rates in the countries involved.

ACCURACIES

One of the problems in assessing the accuracy of the foregoing system has been the lack of the precise project definition at the time of the estimate and subsequently identifying what was a change in scope.

Nevertheless a broad scope definition is generally available with some portions very precise. In the light of our experience we believe that Table 15 reflects the type of accuracies that may be expected and Table 16 records the actual performance on a number of projects.

TABLE 15

ACCURACY CONSIDERATIONS

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URACY ON IIPMENT	ACCUR/ ESTI	ACY ON MATE	ACCURACY WITH CONTINGENCY ALLOWANCE		
PCC FOU	BZL PLANT	GRASS ROOTS	\$/L PLANT	GRASS ROOTS	
± 10%	± 15%	± 19 %	±11%	± 14 %	
<u>+</u> 5%	± 10%	±15%	Ŧ e%	± 10%	

TABLE 16

PERFORMANCE ON FACTOR ESTIMATES

PROJECT	ESTIMATED COST OF EQUIPMENT	FACTOR ESTIMATE	CONVEN- TIONAL ESTIMATE	ACTUAL COST	REMARKS
A	\$ 3,397,100	# 8,370,990	\$ 6,476,500	8 ,014,000	
B	99,000	263,000	288,000	—	BUILT WITH SCOPE CHANGED
, c	122,600	357,800	3 54,000	_	BUILT WITH SCOPE CHANGED
Ð	202,780	456,400	-433,720	<u> </u>	BUILT WITH SCOPE CHANGED
£	1,360,000	4,400,000	4,592,000	4,229,479	
Ŧ	693,000	1,894,000	1,716,000	<u> </u>	NOT BUILT
G	474,000	985,000	922,300	—	NOT BUILT
н		6,624,000	6,709,000	6,421,500	
1	257,000	-407,000 T0 497,000	450,000		NOT BUILT
J	1,869,000	4796,000	4,310,000	4,610,100	

REFINEMENTS

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Certain vulnerable and significant parts of a factor estimate can be improved through refinement without resorting to burdensome detailed estimating, as illustrated by the following examples:

Buildings

The factor approach to buildings can be replaced by large component techniques such as square foot costs. Thus data like Table 17 can be developed to apply to buildings of various types, qualities and sizes.

A further refinement of greater accuracy for buildings involves a high speed "square foot of construction" (SFC) technique as illustrated by Tables 18 and 19.

In this method, square feet of construction refers to surface area of construction i.e. square feet of foundation wall from bottom of footing to top of concrete, square feet of walls, square feet of floors, square feet of floors, etc.

Structural steel is estimated by the ton, which in turn is assessed quickly on the basis of lbs. per cubic foot of building for various types of buildings.

The costs given in Table 18 provide a range of SFC costs for Canadian conditions, and Table 19 provides a quick means of assessing the corresponding indirect costs with improved accuracy, taking into account the type of contract which applies.

Note that the unit SFC costs provided in Table 18 include payroll burdens and that the Indirect Costs given in Table 19 are based on this fact.

"Building Services" are assessed using the percentages given in Table 10 page 46.

Thus the total cost of a building is built up as follows:

Direct Cost	-	as per	Table	17 or 18.
Building Services	-	as per	Table	10, Page 46
Indirect Cost }	-	as per	Table	19
Total Cost	-	Sum of	Above	

Inter Battery Piping

On large grass roots plants consisting of several distinct battery limit operations, the factors in Table 10 don't provide for the substantial amount of piping on pipe racks which is necessary to connect up the various battery limit plants. Such piping which may be called "inter battery piping" can normally be quantified in lineal feet at an early stage of a project and specific estimates made to add on to the factored estimate.

Indirect Costs

Indirect costs are a very significant item of cost, especially on large general contracts. Where the ranges given in Table 5 are of insufficient accuracy, then Table 20 may be used and, in this case, the various components are determined as a percent of the total direct field labour cost (excludes shop fabrication labour), Ranges given are for Canadian conditions and are different for different countries. Where suggested ranges are omitted, they must be assessed on their individual merits.

DIRECT COST OF

PROCESS BUILDINGS EXCLUDING SERVICES

IN \$ PER SQUARE FOOT OF FLOOR (1979)

.

		SMALL BLD'G. 5000 S.F.	LARGE BLD'G. 25000 S.F.
1 STOREY PROCESS	STD. BUILDING	15.00 TO 30.00	12.00 TO 25.00
LOW RANGE = WAREHOUSE	HIGH QUALITY	30.00 TO 55.00	20.00 TO 40.00
SEVERAL STOREY	STD. BUILDING	20.00 TO 40.00	15.00 TO 30.00
PROCESS	HIGH QUALITY	40.00 TO 60.00	25.00 TO 45.00

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Proj.	64	

South My _____ Des Prices-1st. Quarter 1979.

Request 8 y _____

Bidg. No. & Name _____

Orgins & Location

0.5 water _____ Sq. Ft. of Floor ____

0/5 (Langth _____ Overall Ht. _____ Height write: Chord ____

Year of Construction _____ Volume of Co. Ft. _____

Type of Building ______

\$.F.C.____

	OMPONENT SPECIFICATION	077		Dene	
COMPONENT		- WIT, -	SMIT	UNIT COST AMOUNT	
POUNDATIONS	Std. Fdns. 5'-6" overall		SFC	102 40125	
Lacs fill, forms, reint, pancrets and interior plefs	Retaining Fdns. 5-4" overall		SFC	12= + 14=	
GROUND FLOOR	6" Floor slab on 12" Fill }		SFC	2 4 to 2 75	
& concrets finish or haveched steb	As above but 4'-0' Fill		SFC	30 +. 315	
FRAME (I & or time)	Struct. Steel-primed		Ton	800= to 1000=	
L/S joins &	и и сроку		Ton	1000 \$ 1300 *	
SUSP FLOORS	Grating		5.5	69++2=	
stee: grating, etc.	6 concrete . 80 hard.		S.F	5 16 7 1	
ROOF Including deck, Including deck, Ilighting, and covering	22 ga Q Decn 2" Fiberboard Built-up reafing & Flashing }		SF	259 10 35	
EXTERIDE WALLS including saint and doors	12" Cent. block		5F 1F 2F	2 15 +0 4 15 2 58 +0 3 15 5 8 +0 7 19	
INTERIOR PARTITIONS INC. 40015. FC.	4. Conc. block	d	ļ	1 2 40 2 59 2 5 40 2 72 2 75 40 3 9 1 70 40 2 50	
MISCELLANEOUS	Steel stairs incl. stringers, inandrauls, etc.		Riser	75= +. 120=	
SUB-TOTAL	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			<u> </u>	
INTERIOR FINISH Ind. floor tale painting, stc.			1 1		

TOTAL DIRECT COST OF BUILDING

<u> </u>	<u>k N I</u>		
DIRECT COST OF BUILDING			
Lighting	F ''		
Plumbing] [
Fire Protection	l		
Harting))		
Ventilation			
Air Conditioning			
DIRECT COST OF SERVICES	!·!		
TOTAL DIRECT COST			
INDIRECT COST			
PROFIT			
TOTAL ESTIN	ATED COST		
	PER CU. FT.	PER S.F.C.	FLOOR
Difect Building			
Diffect Services	ļ		
TOTAL incl, indirects & profit			
T. P	able 18 age 60		•

CONTRACTORS INDIREL ON CIVIL TYPE PROJECTS (NOTE: FRINGE BENEFITS ARE INCLUDED IN DIRECT COST)

.



TOTAL DIRECT COST OF PROJECT IN \$ (x 1000) INCL, FRINGES

Page 61

1.5

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Table 19

ESTIMATED INDIRECT CONSTRUCTION COSTS

(INDICATE FUNCTION Constantion Constantion Management Citi Const

r

Preject AN O.	Ma./	
Dere		
Property Batt		

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TOTAL DIRECT LABOUR lines for new forement & _____

	CONST.	CONTRACTED	1.0	% OF TOTAL DIRECT LAP			S DI TOTA
	609t		CONTRACTS	Low	AVER	HIGH	DIPECT LAL
	9,301	CARTING & Head Office (Skither Laving O.H. Profe of Fails		5	10	15	
51110 01114	90012	Contrartor a Freid Office - Supervision Irnel: Burgen, Tranz: & Excing Albunghing, For Drucing Son means of Fund Supervision and Support Personnel See Rename of The Form		20	25	30	
[9007	Substatul Field Office	1	l			
1 -	8110	Temporary Buildings	Τ		1 — T		
l≩≘'	9170	Tampony Pacilitat		10	24	30	
	81 K	Tensoran Usakas	7				
Ì₫Ĕ.	÷140	Tamporphy Office Equipment & Supplier		3	5	7	
L_	8100	Eublion: Temporary Facility	Ţ]]		
	8210	Canal ruction Supplies		7		13	Į
Į5 ,	8220	Construction Environment and Tapit	Ţ	2.0	25	30	
lê:	973X	Construction between		[{
18E	\$ 340	Jan Marine Contraction of the Co	·				
	17%	1	1	<u> </u> _	<u>{ </u>		
Ēž	1764	Earliety					
ł	1792	Permits Likelises and Pala		ļ			
ļ							1
<u>i</u>	0700	Sub-1018 Construction Service & Supplem					
	8012	Hearly Faid Galata Faraman			· · ·		
Ξŧ	8310	Direct Support Phyroll Burller		29	32	35	
毷	\$320	Indian Labour Payadi Burdan	1	Z.5	5	6.5	i
Ľž	(10C	Sub-total Normal Payrell Overheads]			
		TOTAL HORMAL INDIRECTS]			
	8336	Nan-troductive Labour		4	17	10	!
5	1343	Schedulas Quenima Provinces		0		1.00	
Į į	8342	Unschotung Oversing Premiums	{		2	3	1
	6146	Shift Differential					
į Į	8361	inny anounce 15 to 25" (Boy		0	<u> </u>	30	
ĮĮ	\$157	Trans Allowercan 20+/mile					
1	Ŀ	1					
	9,000	Sub-max Abnormal Induncta			ļ		<u></u>
	<u> •</u>	Additional Supervision & appliques Almo: Surgan & C. M. S. (Te Supervise S.& E. Itema					
1		TOTAL		135	1500	160	

() Excludes OT, Living & travel.

Table 20

ESTIMATING ENGINEERING COSTS

NOTE: The following system is predicated on the basis of a single engineering dept. executing the entire engineering design function in house. However, provision is made for a situation where some outside engineering may be purchased.

In general, engineering estimates are developed in three stages:

- 1. At early study stage i.e. for Class E or D estimate
- 2. At Preliminary Estimate and i.e. for Class C & B estimates Sppropriation Request stage
- 3. At definitive stage i.e. when a class B estimate is made for control purposes

Each stage involves a different estimating technique.

Method 1. Early Study Stage

At this stage, the cost of engineering is estimated as a percent of total project cost and relies a great deal on past experience. Basic reference is Appendix "A". The dotted lines indicate the range of the swings which take place, and experience will indicate if one should select a value different from the average line.

Method 2. At Preliminary Estimate Stage and Frequently the Appropriation Request Stage

This method develops the engineering cost from the manhours which in turn are developed from the estimate which has been made.

The manhours are related to the total delivered cost of all construction material required for the project. Because material cost is constantly changing due to inflation, the cost of the project material must be brought to constant dollars, and for this evaluation, all material costs have been equated to 4th Quarter 1978 dollars.

To develop the engineering cost from this point, a clear understanding of the composition of engineering costs (as required for this application) is essential. Thus Appendix "B" illustrates the composition or building blocks which are used. Referring to Appendix "B".

D + D represents the total Design and Draughting manhours required to engineer the project. It includes all engineering manhours required to develop the design up to and including the project engineer, and all draughting manhours and its supervision to provide the drawings. The total D + D manhours represent the "Base" on which the entire engineering estimate is developed.

Other components of Engineering are:

Project Management

This represents the time input from any Supervising Engineers plus that of a Project Manager.

Support

Consists of all manhours required by the following groups:

Cost Estimating Accounting Contracts and construction supervision Project control i.e.,P & S, cost control, expediting Inspection Drafting support and drawing records

<u>Liaison</u>

Only applies when an outside engineering firm is used. In this event, it represents the "additional" manhours which become necessary to direct the outside work, maintain good communications and monitor the progress. This is intended to cover only those manhours which would be additional to a complete "in house" type of engineering job.

Expenses

This item is assessed in dollars and provides for travelling expenses and other miscellaneous expense items associated with all engineering work.

Profit re Outside Engineering

For purposes of this estimate, we are assuming that all engineering whether done in-house or by an outside firm, or part of both, will require the same number of manhours and at the same unit costs.

Thus there would be an additional cost to provide profit to the outside firm.

However, if the outside firm were known and exact charge out rates were known and used in the estimate, then this item would not apply.

With this understanding of the various components of engineering, the total engineering cost may be built up as follows:

Procedure

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A manhour graph vs material cost in 4th Quarter 1978 dollars, provides the BASE D + D manhours. (See Appendix "D").

The Base manhours are corrected by a Project Evaluation Factor as described in Appendix "E" which provides an "Adjusted Base".

Note: The Project Evaluation Factor provides a unique way of allowing for very important variables which have a significant effect on engineering costs.

All remaining components are developed from the "Adjusted Base". The step by step procedure is as follows:

- 1. Use Appendix "C" for reference.
- Determine the total delivered cost of all material required for the project and then convert it to 4th Quarter 1975 dollars.
- From graph in Appendix "D", select Base D + D manhours.
- Develop Project Evaluation Factor as per Appendix "E".
- Adjusted Base = Project Evaluation Factor x base manhours.
- Split the adjusted base (i.e. total D + D manhours) into Engineers and Draftsmen using the graph in Appendixes "F" and "G".

Note: The total D + D graph in Appendix "D" is more reliable than the individual engineers and draftsmen graphs.

 Calculate manhours for Project Management, Support and Liaison by percentages as indicated in Appendix "C".

Note: That the overall average for support is 23% of the adjusted base. This could be somewhat higher if a large amount of foreign inspection is visualized.

- Extend manhours by applicable unit rates. Rates used should be "all in" rates to embrace salaries, burdens, and all overheads such as rent, lighting, heating, etc.
- Calculate travel, miscellaneous, and profit using percentages as in Appendix "C".

 The overall total provides the estimated total cost of engineering.

Method 3. At Definitive Stage

At this stage, all scope is well defined and a complete detailed count of drawings required will be available.

As a result, a detailed estimate of all engineering, draughting, technician and clerical manhours is required and Appendix "H" is to be used for this purpose with extensions at current "all-in" unit rates.

At this stage, a specific estimate might be made for expenses or in its absence the percentages given for the "Preliminary Estimate Stage" may be used.

Further, specific arrangements would be known regarding purchased engineering and thus a specific estimate or quote would be expected at this stage.

Note: This form also makes provision for Purchasing Department costs and Field Supervision and Support which are not normally regarded as an Engineering Department cost.

A general guide for the overall total of draughting manhours is:

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S.F.	M	.F.	
dwg.	Low	Average	Яigh
6	11	14	16
2.	3.5	4.5	5.5
	S.F. per dwg. 6 2	S.F. M per dwg. Low 6 11 2 3.5	S.F. Manhours per S per dwg. Low Average 6 11 14 2 3.5 4.5

Unit manhours for each discipline varies considerably from the overall average. However, the above guide provides fairly reliable overall averages.

This table could be used in conjunction with Method 2 to get a better estimate than would otherwise be obtained.

Appendix "H" is both an "Estimate Form" as well as a "Recapitulation Form" to record all essential data re engineering on completion of the project. When completely filled in with the various percentages and ratios, it provides valuable feedback on performance and for future estimating.





APFENDIX A

ENGINEERING COSTS



COST OF ENGINEERING

D + D MANHOURS VS MATERIAL COST



IN THOUSANDS OF DOLLARS

ENGINEERING COSTS



APPENDIX C

APPENDIX "E"

PROJECT EVALUATION FACTORS

Select suitable factors within the limits given.

STUDY AND DEVELOPMENT FACTOR

Expectation of extensive study and development work, many preliminary designs, etc. prior to final design, plus expectation of even further changes after the so-called final design. Charging a large amount of work to a project which is normally charged to a study.

Average amount of study and development work

Minimum amount of study and development work. Process engineering studies done by others thereby enabling the Engineering Department to commence final design with a minimum of preliminary work. Good scope and no changes.

EXPERIENCE AND REPETITION FACTOR

First project of this nature to be designed by Engineering Department. Engineering Department personnel not familiar with it. Expected start-up difficulties. +30

Similar to previous designs and well within the experience and capabilities of Engineering Department personnel.

Maximum gain from past experience and by duplicating previous designs and taking advantage of existing drawings. -15

COMPLEXITY FACTOR

Very Complex	+ 30
Average	0
Very Simple	-15

Page 72

PANGE

+ 40

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- 10

Page 2 of 2 APPENDIX "E" cont'd

Project Evaluation Factors Continued

CLIENT INPUT FACTOR

RANGE

Considerable interference and changes by Client. Client slow in making decisions and changing	
mind frequently.	+30
Normal	0

Client knows what it wants. Scope is well defined and no expectation of changes. Rapid decisions. High degree of Client co-operation. -10

SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES FACTOR

In addition to the above factors, this provides for abnormal or unusual circumstances which are known and do not fit into the above classifications and for which an allowance should be made.

This is strictly an arbitrary judgement factor. It should not be used if the circumstances clearly belong to one of the foregoing classifications. +25

Project Evaluation Factor =

100+ ≤ individual evaluations
100

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COST OF ENGINEERING.

DRAUGHTING MANHOURS



in Thousands of Dollars,





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CONTINGENCIES

N There are many opinions on what a contingency is and what it includes. Table 21 is a clear graphical depiction of contingencies with explanations. Note that it does not include Major Changes in Scope.

Major Changes in Scope are a common and significant contributor to project overruns and are not intended to be provided for under the standard meaning of contingencies.



12

ESCALATION

In recent years, inflation rates have become so great that separate allowances must be made for the escalation of costs during the project life.

The general practice is to develop the estimate in current dollars on the basis that the entire project could be purchased and erected at 1 point in time. This provides a "Base Cost". An escalation allowance is then added to recognize the forecast project schedule and forecast inflation rates.

Three techniques are used, each one becoming more detailed and more accurate.

Method 1

Establish the center of gravity of spending for the entire project i.e. the point in time when 50% of the entire project cost is spent. The total escalation is then calculated against the total project cost and based on the expected inflation over the period. Forecast projections of a suitable cost index is used for this purpose.

Figure 19 illustrates an overall project cash flow graph showing the escalation period to be 1 year.

Method 2

An improvement in accuracy is accomplished by breaking a project into major components and applying Method 1 to each component. Thus, the cost of a project could be broken down into engineering, procurement of material, and construction and separate escalation periods and rates would be assessed for each component. This is illustrated by the cash flow curves in Figure 20.

Method 3

Table 22 provides a format and procedure for calculating escalation in considerable detail, including separate assessments of equipment imported from various countries and also incorporating an assessment of the effect of changing rates of exchange. ESCALATION





Page 80





Figure 20

[Am't in	Bano	Expected	Escalation	Annuai	Excelation	Retes of	Exchange	Rate of	Overall	Amit of
ltem	5000	Date in Estimate	Date of Expend. or C/G Spending	Period	Escalation Rate % or Cost Index Ratio	Fector	Current Estimate Basis (2)	Forecast Aute of Exch, at Time of	Eich. Fertor	Factor	Escalation \$900
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Material from: UK-Equipment	- 3810	Jan.'79	taid '80	1.5 yrs.	<u>390</u> 330	1.18	\$2.4025/2	\$2. <u>15/7</u>	. 895	1.056	213.5
Italy "	1479.7	u		• •	Mare same	1.18	A0.001435/	0-001265	- 882	1.04	59.5
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ESCALATION CALCULATION

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COST CONTROL

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COST CONTROL PROGRAM

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Exhibit 1 Drawing Progress and Control Procedures 14

This paper concerns cost control as it applies to the capital cost of process plants and similar projects.

DEFINITION

Cost Control may be defined as the execution of a project so as to minimize the cost which is generally measured against a budget.

Any project must be defined by scope and quality. Hence, Cost Control may be defined as the optimization of quality and cost in executing a plan.

More broadly speaking, it may be defined as the most efficient use of money, men, materials and time to attain an overall objective at the most advantageous cost. Thus, cost control reaches out far beyond a specific budget and embraces every facet of the engineering procurement and construction function.

BROAD PRINCIPLES

Consider the purchase of an automobile.

Some people always buy top quality and are convinced that it pays off. Others buy on price and are equally convinced that it pays off. One person buys a Rolls Royce to get the very best in quality. Another person may buy a standard, relatively low price automobile on the basis that it will perform reasonably well, and will take him where he wants to go and bring him back again with few breakdowns. A third person may buy a standard type car, but insists on loading it up with chrome, push buttons, radio, power steering, etc.

If we relate this to a plant project, we find there are engineers who promote a good sound and reliable design that has many builtin extras which provide for future modifications far into the future; another wants the plant buildings to be all dressed up to create a special public image; another may want to provide a stripped down plant to keep first costs to a minimum and let someone else worry about subsequent costs; and ultimately the person charged with the responsibility of operating the plant after it is built, will strive to obtain every conceivable item that could reduce his operating costs and minimize his operating problems.

Each person may be sincere in what he is promoting, but it is obvious that there must be a uniform consistent policy, so that all persons involved understand it and apply it. Thus, cost control starts with a "Management Directive". Such a directive will outline the policy to follow as regards:

> quality design philosophy basic objectives responsibilities

Operating within this policy, a cost control system must operate and be effective.

In its broad concepts, cost control in any organization is an integral part of a management system. It cannot be readily separated from other management functions. Management must believe in it and want it.

Management must bear responsibility for it.

Management must be accountable for it.

Essentials of Good Control

Looking at the broad picture, what then are the essentials of good cost control?

The following requirements are all significant:

- 1. Good management leadership; hence, good morale.
- Good capable and experienced personnel.
- 3. Good organization.
- Good approval system.
- 5. Good procedures.
- 6. Good scope definition.
- 7. Good planning and scheduling.
- Good estimating.
- 9. Good cost control system.
- 10. Good reporting.
- 11. Good communications.
- 1. Good Management Leadership

Cost control starts at the top.

Management must want it. Management must demonstrate that it wants it. Management must organize for it. Management must understand the system set-up for it. Management must understand the system work. Management must manage so as to make the system work. Management must give credit and develop pride when such is justified. Management must instill in its personnel a positive approach to cost control and foster a climate of cost consciousness and awareness of the cost impact of every significant decision.

Unless Management is prepared to lead in the above manner, it should not expect its subordinates to perform with top efficiency.

Good Capable & Experienced Personnel

It's an old adage: If you want a good job, use good experienced personnel. Don't send a boy on a man's errand. There is no substitute for good personnel. A cost control system
2. Good Capable & Experienced Personnel (cont'd)

will provide support and assistance to enable good personnel to perform well + but a good system cannot make up for the shortcomings of inexperienced or incompetent personnel.

. ..

Good Organization

Good personnel cannot perform at peak efficiency if they are operating in a poor organization.

Management must set up an organization geared to the requirements of the project with responsibilities clearly defined so that each person understands where he fits into the organization and what his responsibilities are.

<u>Good</u> Approval System

A firm hand is required on expenditures at all times. Hence, an approval system.

For good control no one person should have free licence to spend unlimited funds. All persons in responsible positions should be given limits in spending or scope for which they alone are accountable. Beyond the limit or scope, some other person of higher rank must give his approval before the funds can be committed. Thus, the greater the sum of money involved, the higher the approval body. This process must be practiced right up to the Project Manager. The Project Manager in turn is held accountable for the entire project within a precise scope and a precise cost. If any departure from the limits are anticipated, then he in turn should require the approval of a higher authority before the change or expenditure can be made.

A good approval system would also incorporate specific cost reviews at certain periods in the project life. These would occur in addition to the regular reporting procedures.

5. Good Procedures

Not only are procedures required to spell out the requirements and operation of the cost control system, but similar procedures are required to embrace all facets of design, project operation, responsibilities, documentation etc. A project team must work together to attain common goals and procedures are essential for unifying this purpose. Procedures should be clearly written, complete with examples and sample forms. Such procedures provide excellent check lists and reference lists.

Good Scope Definition

One of the greatest contributors to overruns is changes in scope. The first requirement for any project is to define the scope in as much detail as possible and most certainly at the time that an appropriation type estimate is submitted for sanction, a very detailed scope definition is essential. Only too often are estimates submitted for sanction of funds when the scope has not been adequately detailed or adequately investigated. Whenever this occurs, it is a red warning flag - even before the project has scarcely begun.

7. Good Planning & Scheduling

Planning starts at the early estimate stage and intensifies as the project progresses. Management should recognize that planning and scheduling is a very important function on any project, and provide proper and adequate planning and scheduling staff to suit the project in question.

Failure to maintain schedules is another large contributor to overruns. Hence, schedules must be well planned, realistic, and maintained.

8. Good Estimating

A cost estimate should reflect within a reasonable degree of accuracy exactly what the project or item in question <u>ought</u> to cost. If the estimate is too high, it fails to provide proper target guidelines and, in all faithfulness to Parkinson's Law - all costs rise to meet the amount of money available. If the estimate is too low - sooner or later the persons involved will realize that it is unrealistic, become discouraged and lose their enthusiasm to equal the challenge.

Estimates are a major part of the control system and must, therefore, be realistic in terms of attainability with good productivity. When an estimate is used for cost control, net only should the bottom number be realistic, but all individual items of any significance should also be realistic.

9. Good Cost Control System

The cost control system embraces the procedures, documentation, responsibilities, activities, etc. required to enable the Project Manager to answer the questions:

> where he's been where he's at where he's going what action he needs to take.

In recent years, the execution of this function has become a specialized discipline under the title of "Cost Control Engineer". On large projects, the title may be Project Control Manager or Project Services Manager, etc. Regardless of title,

9. Good Cost Control System (cont'd)

the function has become so important that the person responsible for it is often regarded as the Project Manager's right arm.

10. Good Reporting

To be on top of any project, those responsible must have reliable information on the status of the project at all times. Reports must be timely, they must be reliable and they must reflect the type of information that is required. All reporting is an integral part of the cost control system.

11. Good Communications

The best report system in the world will have little value if the persons involved are not aware of the information in them. The general procedures should spell out the desired distribution of all reports and documents which should be distributed promptly. Similarly, for attendance at meetings.

To maintain good morale and team effectiveness, there must be good communcations. The left hand must know what the right hand is doing.

If we consider all the foregoing items, it becomes apparent that cost control in its broader sense, embraces nearly every facet of the engineering function.

It doesn't matter whether we are talking about contractors, or engineering companies or owners, the same principles apply and they are all essential for good control.

At this point, let us discuss in more detail the "Specific Principles" of the Cost Control System.

COST CONTROL CYCLE

Assuming a company has all the prerequisites for good cost control, established quality and philosophy, good management, good personnel, good organization, etc. what then is necessary to have effective cost control?

Figure 1 depicts the cost control system.



In very simple form, it is a 4 stage system with an approval system superimposed on it. There needs to be a realistic target to shoot at. There needs to be a way of measuring the progress, i.e. monitoring.

Based on the feedback from the monitoring process, a trend can be established and from this trend a forecast of the final picture. The forecast will indicate if a potential overrun exists and, if so, it must be analysed to determine what action can be taken to bring it back to plan.

Thus, cost control has been likened to an instrumentation system. A control point is established, a sensing device measures the current status, if a departure from the control point is indicated, a control valve or similar device is altered to make the correction and then the cycle repeats itself.

All cost control, no matter how complex a project may seem, boils down to this simple process. Thus, in attacking the complexities of a large project, this simple system should be the framework on which to relate all activities. All future discussion will relate back to this simple principle.

Thus, Figure 2 is an elaboration of Figure 1.

BASIC COST CONTROL SYSTEM



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Realistic Targets

This calls for good reliable estimates and schedules tailored to the purpose for which they are made and, in the final stages, a definitive estimate and detailed schedule which are used specifically for control purposes. The breakdown of the estimate must be kept up-to-date to reflect the changing dynamics of the project; similarly for the schedule.

Estimates were discussed previously.

Generally, the progression is from an "E" or "D" type estimate to a "B" type definitive estimate which becomes the project control estimate. At this stage, the scope is thoroughly defined through the detailed items of the definitive estimate plus a memo or document which complements the estimate and provides a descriptive outline of the scope.

On a large project, initial approval may be required in advance of when such a control estimate can be produced. In this event, a 2 stage approval is followed. The first approval is based on probably a good quality "C" type estimate and authorizes engineering to proceed to complete a "B" type definitive estimate and possibly to order long delivery equipment. When engineering is approximately 25 to 35% complete, a good definitive estimate can be produced. Final approval is based on this estimate and this ϵ tablishes the realistic control estimate for the project. In. practice, the actual control is exercised through the medium of various quantities as well as cost. Hence, it may be based on numbers of drawings, manhours of engineering and draughting, construction manhours, yards of concrete, tons of steel, etc. etc. In every case, the principle is to establish realistic quantities all related to the costs in the definitive estimate.

The approval also applies to the Master Project Schedule, which has been developed in conjunction with the definitive estimate. This schedule becomes a control document of equal importance to the control estimate. It represents the precise plan for the project, pinpointing the time frame and all key dates that apply to the control estimate. Failure to attain the schedule generally results in higher project costs and hence may be a significant contributor to an overrun. The late project completion could also have a bearing on the marketing of the product and hence the profitability of the operation. An extension of the schedule could thus have a double barrel effect on the profitability.

Clearly, the definitive estimate and the master schedule represent the base against which all performance and progress is measured and compared. They must be generally tight, but yet attainable.

Monitoring

The monitoring process concerns the entire system documentation and reporting which is necessary to indicate the progress to date. Thus, there are cost reports, manhour reports, quantity reports and schedule reports. The heart of the system is the cost code and the master schedule. The process starts at the conceptual stage and continues through engineering, draughting, procurement and construction.

Monitoring provides an up-to-date record of the financial and time picture of the project on a regular basis, consistent with the requirements of the various levels of management.

In recent years, computerized techniques coupled with the cost codes have made a tremendous contribution to this function, improving the number of reports that can be made, increasing the flex+ ibility of reports that can be requested and improving communcations.

Trending & Forecasting

Data from the Monitoring System plus progress to-date and detailed knowledge of the project scope enables trends to be developed and hence, a forecast of the final picture. This process is applied to many selected components of engineering, procurement and construction, all related through the cost code or the schedule to the basic targets that were initially established. Where manpower is involved, it will include trends in productivities.

In this area, graphical depictions are commonly used, generally involving "actual vs. plan". Thus:

Actual cost vs. planned cost Actual manhours vs. planned manhours Actual quantities vs. planned quantities Actual progress vs. scheduled progress.

Based on the above data forecasts of final costs or final completion dates are developed which can be compared with the original targets.

Analysis & Action

Significant deviations from the targets can be investigated and action taken wherever practical to bring the issue back onto plan.

Obviously, all departures from plan cannot always be corrected. The success of the system depends on the speed at which problems can be detected and the speed at which a corrective action can be taken. Management must be on top of the problem areas at all times and this, in turn, depends on the efficiency of the system and its effectiveness.

Approval System

The Approval System is an ever present process superimposed on the overall system. It starts with approval of the project itself. It comes into play for "changes in scope". A work order system may be used as a means of controlling engineering. Field Work Orders are essential on construction work and require tight control.

Some construction companies execute all work on a work order system with specific approvals. Contingencies should be controlled through certain approvals. Changes on lump sum contracts require approvals, etc. etc.

The entire approval system is based on the principle that responsibility for a complete project be divided into many components, that responsibility for each component be delegated to specific individuals, that the individual be given authority to carry out the responsibility and also be held accountable for it. The approval system is a formal procedure to assist him to stay on top of the issues and his approval is a constant reminder of his accountability.

The foregoing principles apply to:

Engineering Procurement Construction

They apply to:

Small projects Large projects

They apply to:

Lump sum contracts Unit price contracts Cost plus contracts General contracts Sub-contracts

The only difference is in the details and how they are adapted to specific applications.

APPLICATION AND DOCUMENTATION

The following sections describe and illustrate some of the forms and documents which are used in applying the foregoing principles.

Project Cost Statement

The Project Cost Statement compiled in keeping with the Cost Code, provides the financial picture of the project. It is the ultimate and official financial document which reflects the fruits of the overall cost control system.

It must be fully integrated with the cost estimate, the cost code and with all the supporting back-up documents which collectively contribute to the cost control on the project and generate data for the statement.

Consistent with the flexibility of the Cost Code, the Cost Statement must also be flexible to provide the information required by various levels of Management. Thus, senior management may require a condensed summary to reflect the general financial status, project supervision will require more detailed breakdowns especially in their areas of responsibility, while the cost engineer and accountants will want the most comprehensive, detailed extension of the entire report.

The ideal system will have the flexibility to provide two types of reports:

- The first will provide the cost breakdown exactly the same as the cost estimate and essentially in the form as desired by the owner. (i.e. based on the breakdowns in Column 1 of the Cost Code).
- 2) The second will be based on a re-cast of the estimate to reflect the various construction contracts and the manner in which the construction work is executed. Thus, in re-casting the estimate, Column 8 of the Cost Code would take priority.

Table 1 is an example of a typical format for such a report.

Table 2 is a sample summary of an actual project which is suitable for senior management. Note that Column 12 is dynamic and incorporates justified changes in order to reflect the "realistic targets". Thus, valid comparisons can be made with the Forecast Final Cost in Column 11. Also, note the comments which indicate the status of the reserves and the extent to which they have already been allocated.

The Cost Statement is generally issued on a monthly basis and on large projects is computerized. Numerous back up reports and

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supporting documents are necessary in order to compile it, mostly involving the accounting and cost engineering groups. The accounting group takes responsibility for generating all data up to and including Column 9, i.e. Expenditures + Commitments to date. The Cost Engineer is responsible for generating the data for Columns 10, 11, 12 & 13.

Regardless of whether it is engineering, procurement or construction, the same cost control cycle is followed, using specific documents suitable to the particular need or situation and these provide the data which generate the input for the Cost Statement.

The comprehensive detailed copy of the Cost Statement will be the most detailed cost breakdown of the entire project. It will include each individual equipment item, all bulk materials, construction labour, components of indirect costs, etc. all properly coded and in a form which can be identified, charged and forecast consistently. Thus, each item can be assessed individually by the Cost Engineer to forecast the expected final cost - using various techniques and trending documents (to be discussed later) plus experience and good judgment.

Where lump sum contracts are let, they may be recorded on one line or by agreed breakdown, but an on-going assessment of extras and potential extras must be added in order to develop the forecast final cost.

Design

The definitive estimate provides target figures for:

Engineering Costs Engineering Manhours Draughting Costs Draughting Manhours No. Drawings Master Schedule

Engineering costs and manhours can be monitored and trended using typical "S" curves. The shape of the "S" curves is generally based on experience in relation to the schedules and it is advisable to first develop a set of "S" curves for the complete project. Figure 3 illustrates a typical set of "S" curves for a complete project showing separate graphs for engineering, procurement and construction. The start of project, start of construction and completion of construction provide the framework on which the graphs are built. Thereafter the following "rules of thumb" are recommended for developing the "S" curves.

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FIGURE 3

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- Start of construction Draughting 40 to 50% complete Engineers 30 to 40% complete Material Commitments 35 to 50% complete
- Construction 50% complete Draughting 90 to 95% complete Engineers 75 to 85% complete Material Commitments 90% complete
- Construction 75% complete Draughting 95 to 98% complete Engineers 92 to 97% complete Material Commitments 90 to 95% complete
- Construction 90% complete Draughting 99% complete Engineers 98% complete Material Commitments 99% complete
- Mechanical Completion Construction 95 to 98% complete.

These rules of thumb, coupled with the Master Schedule for the engineering, enable the "S" curves to be developed.

Figure 4 is a typical Master Schedule drawn up to highlight the "front end" of a project.

The above rules of thumb, coupled with this schedule, enable a general set of "S" curves to be developed.

Thus, "S" curves may be developed for engineering manhours or dollars, draughting manhours or dollars, number of drawings, etc. Such graphs may be developed for "Total" manhours, or for individual disciplines such as civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, etc.

These "S" curves are refined as more precise details of scope and schedules are developed.

A decision as to what graphs to develop is a judgmental one depending on the size of the project and the significance of the specific items on total project cost. Thus, for a small project, separate "S" curves for total engineering manhours and total draughting manhours may be sufficient, while for a large project, it would be advisable to develop separate curves for each discipline.

Figure 5 illustrates a typical "S" curve for "Engineering Manhours versus Time". Note the tables which are convenient for recording the month to month data.

		•									Figure 3
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EXHIBIT 1

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EXHIBIT 1 which follows contains a complete procedure for the control of draughting. Note particularly the Productivity Report, which contains an "S" curve of "Drawings versus Manhours" and the corresponding "Productivity". These graphs include tables for recording data and developing the forecast final manhours and forecast final cost on a monthly basis. They become the source of the forecast final cost to be incorporated into the overall Cost Report for the project. Similar graphs can be used for many applications in the cost control function.

Such "S" curves are the documents which show up quickly a departure from the plan. They provide the red warning flags which call for immediate investigations into the causo, followed up by a decision as to what action can be taken to correct it. Some times, in order to maintain the desired schedule, additional costs must be incurred. This is a decision for the Project Manager, always remembering that Cost Control is the optimization of cost and time.

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		DRAWING PROGRESS AND	EP No. DRG 1 Page 1 of 9
DF	AUGHTING	CONTROL PROCEDURES	Responsibility <u>Cost</u> <u>Engineering</u> Date
	This Engineering	Procedure contains six append	lices.
1.	SUMMARY		
	This Engineering to use and proce Draughting Manho	Procedure provides information dures to follow in the plannin urs and Drawing Units.	on concerning documents ng and control of Design/
2.	FURPOSE		
	The purpose of t of the procedure Selected use of a useful means o relating activit	his Engineering Procedure is t s used in the Department for a the procedures and documents o f measuring drafting progress y in this area to the project	to advise project engineers project design control. described herein can be and performance and schedule and budget.
3.	PRINCIPLE		
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	a. Drawing List	and Control	EDF-54 Appendix "A"
	b. Drawing Prog	ress and Control	EDF-79 Appendix "E"
	d. Productivity	Report	EDF-81 Appendix "U" EDF-82 Appendix "D"
5	e. Draughting/2	ngineering Summary Manhour	art of Appendix D
	Report f. Draughting/E	ngineering Summary Cost	EDF-99 Appendix "E"
	Report		EDF-83 Appendix "F"
3.1	RESPONSIBILITY F	OR PREPARATION	
	The Supervisior maintenance of t Control Reports. remaining charts Cost Engineering Project Engineer Section the exac procedures for t paration of this	- Draughting is responsible for the Drawing List & Control, and The Project Engineer is resp and reports but may obtain the Section. At the commencement is required to arrange with the t responsibility in developing the particular project. Assiste data may also be obtained from	or the preparation and d Drawing Progress & ponsible for all the his service from the t of each project, the the Cost Engineering hg the various control tance on the detail pre- bm the Cost Engineering Section.
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DRAUGHTING	DRAWING PROGRESS AND CONTROL PROCEDURES	EP No. DRG 1 Page 2 of 3 Author Responsibility Cost Engineering Date
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3.3 DRAWING PROGRESS	AND CONTROL (APPENDIX "B") FO	RM EDF-79
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3.4 PROGRESS REPORTS FORMS EDF-31 AND	AND PRODUCTIVITY REPORTS (APP EDF-82	ENDICES "C" AND "D")
These documents applications in output, progress control and moni longer duration work being done	provide standard forms which s depicting quickly and graphica and productivity. They are p toring and have their greatest projects. They are also very by consultants.	hould be used for various lly the status of manhours, rimarily for internal application on the larger, valuable in monitoring
These two docume Progress Report package being mo of the latter to with forecast fi	nts are used in conjunction wi identifies forecast completion nitored. The Productivity Rep gether with manhour data to pr nul manhours and forecast fina	th one another. The dates of the drawing ort summarized the statistics oduce a productivity factor l costs.
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DRAUGHTING	DRAWING PROGRESS AND CONTROL PROCEDURES	EP No. <u>DRG 1</u> Page 3 of <u>1</u> Author Responsibility <u>Cost</u> Engineering Date
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Procurement

Long delivery stems must be ordered early and frequently are the key to the final completion date. Thus, it may be desirable to place orders for such equipment as soon as the project is approved.

A breakdown of the equipment by code, an appreciation of the long delivery items, numerous quotations and the period during which delivery at the site is required, are all available from the definitive estimate and the master schedule.

This information is expanded into a comprehensive detailed procurement table which lists in detail all key items and the key dates for getting them to the site on time. Table 3 entitled "Equipment List & Material Status Report" is an excellent form for this purpose. Every purchase order must be entered on this form and every column filled in eventually. The report must be updated continuously and reviewed on a regular basis (e.g. monthly or bi-weekly) by the project manager or his delegate for action decisions re items that are off schedule.

Similarly, this report is integrated with the "Cost Statement" where the individual equipment items are costed out and their final cost forecasted. For all significant equipment items such forecasts are required prior to commitment so that overruns can be spotted and action taken in terms of alternative choices or designs.

Thus, this one form is very important in providing data for the complete cost control cycle of targets, monitoring, forecasting and action with respect to Procurement.

On large projects, the document is computerized and in some cases the information may be on line.

Despite the excellence of this form, it has a weakness inasmuch as its first key date is the issuing of a requisition. What must be

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Jone to assure that the work required to have the requisition ready on time is being done? This concerns the activities of engineers and their creativity which is varied and difficult to equate.

Table 4, entitled "Procurement Control Report" was developed to provide a control for this purpose. This form provides a means of indicating the progress and status of engineering as well as the procurement status. Under "Engineering Status" a tick mark is entered in the appropriate box each time the specific milestone has been attained. As with Table 1, this form is updated continuously and reviewed for action decisions on a regular basis.

This form is not particularly suitable for computerization since the complete document would be ready for reproduction by the time the input data was available. Thus, there would be loss of time in computerizing it and in essence the computer would function mainly as a printing machine.

It should not be necessary to use both forms on the same project. Depending on the way a project is being handled, one form may be preferred over the other.

While attention is often centered on procurement of equipment, bulk materials, especially piping and electrical supplies, are sometimes overlooked. Bulk Materials pose a special problem and represent a sensitive area where overruns often occur. This is due to the difficulty of providing a good estimate at the time the definitive estimate is made and the subsequent failure to keep abreast of developments as the project progresses.

A "bulk material control" should be set up for every project which starts with the estimate used in the definitive estimate. As P&I diagrams and drawings are completed, a continuous program of quantity take-offs and re-assessments should be made for comparisons with the budget estimate. This data serves three purposes:

- It provides an on-going check against quantities in the definitive estimate, thereby identifying a potential overrun at the earliest possible date.
- 2) It provides an on-going check against bulk materials on order and hence identifies any shortages in ordering which could have a significant effect on the schedule.
- to is valuable in estimating construction manhours and scheduling work in the field.

The latest trend is to handle bulk material control on computer programs and there are various software programs on the market. PLANUREMENT OF FROM REPORT



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Construction

Construction is the most vulnerable and most difficult of all functions in the control of projects. It's a major study in itself and hence we propose to limit our remarks to certain items which we consider to be important and significant. Thus, I propose to comment on the following:

> General Policy Planning & Scheduling Labour Control Firm Price Lump Som Contracts Field Indirects

General Policy:

This concerns the method of handling work in the field. For good control in the field:

Accurate charging of all work to its specific cost code is imperative.

Supervision must know where the men are at all times and what they are doing.

Work should be done in blocks of work that are like in nature (mostly by trade and confined to one foreman), small enough to be manageable, and such that charges can be made reliably so that feedback can be analysed quickly to assess progress; productivity, expected final completion and expected final cost.

Prequently, a work order system is used. The coding on the work order ties it in with the cost code and estimate and foremen are assigned one work order at a time. The best principle here is "No work order - no work". In other words, a work order becomes a "must" for all work on the site and thereby provides a mechanism for good reliable feedback, and a knowledge that work is not going on which supervision is unaware of.

The ultimate in this system is known as "Pre Planning". In this 'system, all work is broken down into work orders in advance of construction. A pracise estimate of the manhours is made, all material and equipment required is listed, information sketches may be made, a copy of the bill of material is sent to the site stores to have it checked for availability and readiness for use, and only after this is done is the work order assigned to a foregan. Some work assignments are evaluated, estimated and written up in much more detail than others, e.g. erection of special equipment, or pipe fabrication and erection. This system requires a substantial staff of planners and estimators but excellent claims have been made for its overall effectiveness. Savings in direct costs equal to 400% of the money invested in the system have been claimed.

A common method for charging time is for the foremen to record all their men on a daily timesheet, identify the work and cost code and submit this on a daily or weekly basis. With cost codes as complicated as they are to-day, this system often results in incorrect charging. A means of compensating for this has evolved in the use of "Time Checkers". The time checkers have thorough training in the cost code, work closely with the cost engineers and scheduling engineers and visit their assigned area on the site 2 to 4 times each day - identifying each worker in his area, checking what job he is working on and recording the proper cost code.

In all cases, the feedback flows to the field cost engineer who maintains an ongoing procedure for following the cost control cycle. Thus, he marshalls the data under the basic headings of target and monitoring and then develops the trend curves that have been developed for the project and forecasts a final cost. All such data is used to compile the final figures that go into the overall Project Cost Statement.

Planning & Scheduling:

No construction job will be executed efficiently without good planning and scheduling. The larger the project, the greater its importance. Qualified, capable planning and scheduling personnel should carry out the function and it should start long before the start of construction.

The Critical Path Method is used widely by scheduling personnel, but actual work in the field is more likely to be related to bar chart schedules, i.e. the professional schedulers develop the CPM diagrams, analyse the results, and highlight the priorities. Then the resulting field work is drawn up on bar graphs which are more readily understood by construction personnel in the field.

The schedules should be closely related to the cost code and the definitive estimate so that costs can be collected correctly against specific codes and so cost control mechanisms can function properly.

Attempts have been made at complete integration of cost and schedule. i.e. the schedule is completely married to the cost estimate through the cost code. Such an integration is a complex and costly challenge to the planning, scheduling, costing and computerization operations. As yet, it must be regarded as in its infancy.

Regular Field Scheduling Meetings, independent of regular Construction Job Meetings, should be organized on a weekly basis to review progress and problems, and make decisions for the coming week. These meetings should be attended by the key construction supervision as well as the Project Manager, Scheduling Engineer and Cost Engineer. In other words, the power to make decisions should be present at the meetings. Note that the prime purpose of this meeting is to review and make decisions pertaining to scheduling. The agenda for the meeting would be set up by the Scheduling Engineer with prior discussion with the Construction Superintendent. This meeting must not be allowed to be side tracked into a regular Job Meeting involving lengthy discussions on other construction problems that are not related to scheduling.

Labour Contrbl

Except in those periods of completely unpredicted high inflation rates, such as those that struck North America in 1973-75, construction labour may be regarded as the greatest single contributor to project overruns.

Thus, the cost control cycle is extremely important on construction work and it must be applied to quantities, manhours and costs. The Cost Engineer, in conjunction with the Project Manager, will establish what graphs and controls will be maintained.

Forms similar to that already discussed for the control of draughting can be used universally in the cost control cycle.

Thus, Figures 6 to 8 all illustrate the type of graphs that are useful in construction coutrol. Figure 6 is a typical, commonly used plot of the monthly construction forces and the corresponding accumulated manhours. This graph is a guideline in seeing how actual labour build-up and manhours to-date compare with the plan. However, a project could be right on plan in staff build-up and manhour expenditure but could be cut of control in terms of progress. Thus, the following 2 figures are much more useful as cost control documents.

Figure 7 illustrates construction progress vs. time, while Pigure 8 illustrates progress vs. mannours. The illustration is for pipe erection and progress is assessed in terms of equivalent fact or equivalent units crected. In this method, each elbow, tee, valve or length of pipe, etc. has an equivalent value in terms of manhours required to erect. The same chart can be used for conciete in yards of concrete, or structural steel in tons, etc.

In all applications, the above two comparisons are highly desirable to obtain good control, i.e.

- 1) Progress vs. Time to determine the forecast completion date.
- Progress vs. Manhours to determine the forecast final manhours and hance the forecast final cost.

These forms can be developed for total project progress and total direct manhours and they can be equally applicable to individual disciplines and trades. Note that these specific control documents by trade provide the input data for graphs such as those in Figure 7 and ultimately the data that goes into the Project Cost Statement.



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Firm Price Lump Sum Contracts

The Contractor who offers a lump sum bid obviously must practice every aspect of good cost control.

On the contrary, the person who has a lump sum contract would be remise to assume that he has a guarantee of his final cost. The record is full of experiences where lump sum contracts have overrun substantially due to "extras". This is the area where a contractor is inclined to charge excessively and make his profit. Hence, the need to have a set of good contract documents with the scope fully and precisely defined and the subsequent challence not to make changes.

If changes must be made, two practices should be followed to keep costs to a minimum:

- Contract documents should request a unit price for deletions or additions of all items which might be involved, e.g. excavation, concrete, structural steel, etc. This will establish in advance of awarding the contract, the cost of a great many potential extras and will be part of the contract bid analysis in determining the successful contractor.
- 2) All other extras should be established on the basis of negotiating a firm bid with the contractor. In essence, this is saying that no work can be done on extras to a contract withour an authorized approval. The method of obtaining this approval should be established by a rigid procedure and the company awarding the contract should be fully prepared and capable of negotiating.

Figure 9 illustrates a procedure for controlling costs on such changes. The procedure could be called a Change Notice/Change Order System. In summary, it consists of issuing two documents to the contractor through the cost engineer or estimating unit.

The first document, a "Change Notice", is a formal notice that a change is desired and requests the Contractor to submit a firm price. Included with the Change Notice are the drawings and other documents which identify the changes. This is strictly a request for a bid and is not a request to do work.

Nhen the bid is submitted, it is compared with the estimate which has been made by the owner and if there is a reasonable check between the two estimates, a "Change Order" is then issued to the Contractor which authorizes him to proceed with the change.

If the two estimates do not agree, the owner must be prepared to negotiate a revised price with the Contractor. To execute this function effectively, his estimators must be fully qualified in detailed estimating and knowledgeable in construction work and contractor practices. Sometimes the above procedure results in a delay to the schedule which cannot be tolerated. This applies especially to day to day construction problems on the site. For this purpose, a Field Work Order System (FWO) is employed. Under this system, the resident representative of the owner (Resident Engineer) has authority to issue a FWO to the contractor which gives him immediate authority to proceed with the work.

This is a necessary expediency but is not a good means of controlling costs. Thus, in the interest of cost control and in keeping with the philosophy of an approval system, the Resident Engineer should have a clear directive as to the type of work he , may approve and a limit on the amount of money he may authorize. Beyond these limits, the procedure would call for a higher approval tefore proceeding with the work.



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Field Indirects

Indirect construction costs represent another sensitive area where excessive costs often contribute to overruns. This concerns those items referred to on Table 20 P-62 under Cost Estimating.

It has been long established that indirect construction costs are related more or less directly to direct labour costs, i.e. as goes labour, so goes the indirect costs. It may be concluded that if direct labour is under control, so are the indirects. This relationship may be useful for estimating but not for cost control.

A look at Table 20 will indicate that temporary construction and construction equipment both represent significant cost items under indirects. Both can go completely out of control, especially when a contractor is operating on a cost plus type of contract.

Temporary construction should be fully appraised and justified before embarking on the expenditures.

Rental of construction equipment is costly and hence requires ongoing control throughout the construction period. It requires good planning so that when expensive equipment is required to perform several operations, every effort should be made to schedule them at the same period and then release the equipment as quickly as possible. If many items are in use on the site, such as five cherry picker cranes or 25 welding machines, etc., a regular review of their "active vs. idle" time is required so that those not needed can be released as soon as possible. The starting point would be a planned schedule such as illustrated in Figure 10 and this should be reviewed on a regular basis.

Construction equipment must not be brought to the field and then forgotten. Its need must be under regular surveillance.

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SAMPLE COST CONTROL PROCEDURE

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The importance of good procedures and the need to have them embrace all facets of design, procurement, responsibilities, etc. has already been stressed.

The following is a sample illustration of a Cost Control Procedure.

SANFLE

COST CONTROL PROCEDURE

- 1. The procedure outlined herein describes the various operations that will ensure effective Project Cost Control. It is important that the key personnel on the project team be aware of and guided by this procedure to enable the Cost Engineer to work affectively and better assist the Project Manager, accomplish his responsibility for the Cost Control of the project.
 - J.1 SUB-PROCEDURES GUTLINED IN DETAIL
 - 1.1.1 Establishment of the Project Code of Accounts
 - 1.1.2 Establishment of the Project Budget
 - 1.1.3 Commitments and Expenditures *
 - 1.1.4 Cost Variation Procedure
 - 1.1.5 Forecast Final Cost Calculations
 - 1.1.6 Sackcharges
 - 1.1.7 Monthly Cost Report
 - 1.1.8 Final Cost Analysis

* As per Project Accounting procedure, manual systems for recording commitments and expenditures will be run concurrently with the system outlined herein. Such systems are not included within this procedure.

1.2 ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PROJECT CODE OF ACCOUNTS

The responsibility for production of the Project Code of Accounts rests with the Project Cost Engineerand will be accomplished as follows.

- 1.2.1 The Cost Engineer will review the Code of Accounts used before the Project Approval stage, with the Estimating Department and compare with the latest equipment list.
- 1.2.2 The Project Code of Accounts will be prepared with identification of all anticipated cost components, whether or not they appeared in the A.R. Estimate. The base guide will be the revised Construction Cost Code.

Page 2

- 1.2.3 The Project Code of Accounts will then be reviewed with the Project Managar, the Manager of Cost Engineering and the Project Accounting Supervisor to ensure,
 - (i) adequacy for cost control purposes,
 - (ii) that historical data required for inture projects will be readily available,
 - (iii) compatability with accounting requirements,

 - (v) that a practical level of coding is environged.

1.2.4 The Cost Engineer will then distribute the Code of Accounts as directed by the Project Manager.

1.3 ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PROMECT BUDGET

- 1.3.1 The purpose of the Project Budget is to list all the funds allocated against the approved Code of Accounts. This funds listing is essentially the breakout provided by the Appropriation Request Estimate, modified to reflect changes to the equipment list and revisions to battery limits which have occurred since the A.R. Estimate was compiled. <u>The total</u> <u>Project Budget figure will not be altered unless a Supplementary Appropriation is granted</u>.
- 1.3.2 The preparation of the Project Eudget listing is the responsibility of the Cost Engineer. He does this for and under the guidance of the Project Manager and Manager of Cost Engineering. Input from the Estimating group is required to ensure the Budget breakdown reflects the intent of the A.R. Estimate.
- 1.3.3 Tonnediately upon issue of the Code of Accounts, preparation of the Project Budget will be initiated. For all items except Engineering, Sales Taxes, Services, Indirects, Contingencies and Inflation allowance, the Budget will be broken down by area. (Battery limit areas). The following areas apply on this project.

Area

Description

- . 110 Raw Materials Preparation Building
 - 120 Mixing and Cartridging Building
 - 130 Cartridge Conveyor
 - 140 Case House
 - 210 Raw Material Unloading (Dries)

Area	Description

220	Raw Material	Storage	(Dries)
230	Raw Material	Storage	(Liquidc)
300	Utilitles		

Funds not allocated to these areas are coded as follows.

400	Services
500	Indirects
0 0 0	Engineering
700	Legal
900	Contingencies and Reserves

Within each of the above areas, the Budget will further be allocated as per the Project Code of Accounts Construction, Elements of the Code, and by Cost Component (Mtl, S&E, etc.).

- 1.3.4 Funds set aside in the A.K. Estimate for Escalation will be allocated across the 100~700 code accounts.
- 1.3.5 Upon completion of 1.3.3, the Cost Engineer will obtain concurrence from the Estimating group of the distribution of costs. The budget will then be reviewed by the Project Manager and Manager of Cost Engineering and their approval obtained. Distribution of this Budget, or elements contained therein will be determined by the Project Manager.
- 1.3.6 The pefinitive Estimate referred to In 1.6 will form the basis for forecasting the Final Project Costs.
- 1.3.7 It has been decided that a computerised Cost Report will be produced for this Project. Concequently, the Budget Allocation will be input to the computer using pre-printed forms. A printout will subsequently be produced tabulating the Budget by Area, Construction Element and Cost Component Codes. It is the responsibility of the Cost Engineer to review this print-out and ensure compatibility with the initial input.

1.4 PROCESSING OF EXPENDITURES AND COMMITMENTS

1.4.1 To ensure proper control all Expenditures and Commitments will be analysed by the Cost Engineer and Project Accountant before being absorbed into the Project Cost Report. Expenditures and commitments fall into the following categories.

(i) —	Head Office Manhour Costs
(fi)	Head Office Expenses
(iii)	Purchased Engineering
(Jv)	Purchased Materials (Incl. S. & E.
(v)	Contracts
(vi)	Contract Extras
(vii)	Plant Purchases or Labour
(viii)	Field Office Manhour Costs
(ix)	Field Office Expenses

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1.4.2 H.O. Manhour Costs

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Within the Engineering Department "Time Analysis System" manhours spent by personnel on each Project are listed. These manhours are subsequently priced at rates pre-determined by the Project Accounting Section and the computerised Report EN9 produced around the end of the 3rd week of every month. As a backup to this Report, the C7 Audit Trail is also produced by the E.D.P. Department.

The Cost Engineer will analyse these reports simultaneously and produce a written report for the Project Manager listing substantial bookings by employee. The Project Manager then has the option to query any substantial bookings and, if they are found to be in error, the Cost Engineer will oform the Project Accounting Section.

Computer input sheets will then be prepared to rectify any misbookings.

J.4.3 H.O. Expenses

Employees will submit expense reports promptly for approval by their Engineering Departmental head. The Cost Engineer will analyse these expenditures monthly from the C7 Audit Trail and bring any incorrect entries to the Project Manager. Should any corrections be necessary, the procedure outlined in 1.4.2 will be followed.

1.4.4 Purchased Engineering

Should it become necessary, due to work overload, to utilise the services of consultant engineering groups, adherence to E.D.P. ADM 3 is required.

Although recommendation of the use of outside Consultant services rests with Specialist Engineering Managers, the responsibility for Project costs rests with the Project Manager. For this reason, the Project Manager needs to be kept closely informed of all such developments in order that any cost variations may be reflected in the Project Cost Statement.

It is the responsibility of the Specialist Department Managers to approve manhours spent by Consultant Engineering Groups <u>and</u> to monitor their progress.

The Project Accountant will check invoices approved by Specialist Engineering Managers for compatability with agreed rates etcetera.

The Cost Engineerwill ensure that the C7 Audit Trail reflects only invoices as approved above.

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1.4.5 Atl the expenditures approved in 1.4.2, 1.4.3 and 1.4.4 above will subsequently be input to the E.D.P. Department by the Project Accountant for production of the Nonthly Cost Report. There will be a separate input for Engineering, Drafting, Support, Expenses and Purchased Engineering.

1.4.6 Purchased Materials

(i) <u>Commitments</u>

Upon receipt of a Furchase Order, the Project Accountant will check the coding and cost to ensure compatibility with the Code of Accounts and Purchase Requisition. The Accounting Supervisor, who also sees all Furchase Grders, will advise the Project Accountant if F.S.T. and P.S.T. are applicable. If so, these additional costs will be calculated by the Project Accountant and committed along with the item(s) being purchased.

If the Purchase Order is placed outside Canada, the Project Accountant will, after discussion with the Distribution Department, commit applicable duty along with the item(s) being purchased. A copy of all Purchase Orders will be transmitted to the Distribution Department who will negotiate duty remissions. with the Government Department of Industry Trade and Commerce. Any funds remitted will be deducted from the Purchase Order Commitment value.

A separate account will be set up to cover freight charges <u>not</u> included in Vendors quotations.

(11) Expenditures

The Project Accountant will check involces to ensure compatfbility with Purchase Orders (costs, coding, retentions, etc.). A cheque requisition is then prepared and authorised by the Project Manager. Once the payment has been made and appears in the Accounts Payable Voucher computer print-out, it is entered into the Project Cost Report as an expenditure.

1.4.7 Contracts

(i) <u>Commitments</u>

It is proposed that all Contracts let on this Project will be lump-sum. Upon receipt of the approved contractual documents, the Project Accountant will check for a correct cuding breakdown, enlisting the Cost Engineer's help, if necessary. The dollar value of the Contract will then be input by area, construction element and cost component onto computer input sheets as a commitment.

(ii) Expenditures

As the Contractor completes work, he will submit invoices to the Project Accounting Section on a pre-specified format. (See EDP. ACC 2). Invoiced amounts will be related to Contractor's progress which will have been agreed with the <u>Resident Engineer</u>. These invoices will be checked by the Project Accountant and Cost Engineer for compatability with the Contractual Agreement. A cheque requisition will then be made out by the Project Accountant and approved by the Project Manager. The expenditure is subsequently input into the Cost Report as specified in 1.4.6 (11).

1.4.8 Contract Extras

At the bid quotation stage, Contractors will be asked to provide unit prices for undefined work. As subsequent additional work becomes apparent, the Contractor will be asked to:

(i) undertake the work on unit rates,
(ii) undertake the work on dayworks,
(iii) submit a lump sum price for the extra works.

Option (i) will be used largely for work which is undefinable, such as rock blasting. Unit rates for such work and for the plant equipment will be specified in the quotation. The Site Representative will sign for plant, equipment usage on a daily basis. Upon completion of such work, the Contractor,

Site Representative and Engineering Department Quantity Surveying Section will agree the total scope of work for payment. A Change Order listing the work will be raised by the Q.S. Section on form EDF-52 (See EDP COS 1).

Option (ii) will be used largely at the discretion of the Site Representative, for work of an urgent nature or minor additional work not included in the lump sum scope and for which unit tates are not available. A Field Extra Work Order will be raised by the Site Representative to cover this work and an Extimated Final Cost of the work added to the Work Order. Time Sheets will be signed for on a daily basis by Representative and material purchases and plant equipthe ment costs also signed for. It is imperative that the F.E.W.O. number, allocated by the Representative, be written onto all time sheets, material purchase orders and plant equipment sheats, to allow calculation of the final cost of the Work Order. The F.W.O. is subsequently confirmed by a Construction Change Notice (Form EDF 51) and Change Orders (EDF 52). EDF COS) Section 4D clarifies this procedure in more detail.

Option (iii) will be used for extra work wherever passible. Again, the Engineering Department Q.S. Section will check and appraise such lump-sum quotations and raise a Change Order for final approval by the Project Manager.

Invoices from Contractors will quote the applicable Change Order number in order that the Project Accountant can identify the cost source and gain the Project Manager's approval for payment. Invoices for extra works should only be submitted and approved at the 50% or 100% of extra works completion stage unless otherwise reflected in contractual documents. - The attached diagram extracted from EDF COS I graphically illustrates the Extra Works procedure. (Appendix 1.4.5.1). To allow extras to be coded correctly, the Q.S. Section is also asked to use the form (Appendix 1.4.8.2) to split down costs.

1.4.9 Plant Furchases/Labour

Use of Flant resources is at the distriction of the Field Representative, but should be kept to a minimum. Should such work be necessary, the Field Representative will issue a Plant Work Order Authorisation carrying an estimate of material and labour costs. This will allow the Cost Engineer to reflect these costs in the Estimated Final of the Project Cost Report.

Subsequently, the Plant will submit a J.E.V. which will be picked up by the Project Accountant from the A.P.V. printout. Once the Project Accountant has identified the cost and gained Project Manager approval, it is input into the Project Cost Report as an expenditure.

1.4.10 Field Manhour Costs

Timesheets are submitted to the Project Accounting Section of the Englueering Department and input into the Time Analysis system. Subsequent approval of these timesheets is given by the Manager of Construction.

From the EN9 printout, these costs will subsequently be entered into the Project Cost Report as expenditures.

1.4.11 Field Expenses

Expense Reports submitted are approved by the Monager of Construction before input into the Time Analysis System. Subsequent input into the Project Cost Report follows the same pattern as in 1.4.10.

1.5 COST VARIATION PROCEDURE

1.5.1 Differences between Budget (A.R. Estimate) costs and Estimated Final Costs are termed Cost Variations. Although Cost Variations occur for many different reasons, they may be split into two categories.

(i) those which occur as a change to Project Scope (EDP COS 2).(ii) the remainder.

1.5.2 Changes in Scope

These may be further subdivided into:

- those which change the Project Scope of work,
- (ii) those which change a Contractor's scope of work.

These changes identified in (11) above are covered under 1.4.8. They are not necessarily changes to Project Scope and will normally be allowed for in the Project Estimated Final Costs.

1.5.3 Changes to Project Scope will be controlled and monitored by adherence to the network attached. (Appendix 1.5.3.1). This network allows the speedy identification of Cost Variation and outlines the actions required to control then.

> As can be seen, the network incorporates a Holding Account into which Cost Variation* will be logged until they are identified as a cost deviation or approved as changes in scope.

* This Holding Account will only be used for Cose Variations which exceed the Budget (A.R. Escimate) by \$3,000 or 52, whichever is the greater.

Cost Variations must be defined, costed and approved as quickly as possible after they become evident in order to

- allow management the option of negating the proposed change before any financial commitment,
- (ii) ensure that all parties involved are still familiar with the change and the clearest picture can be presented,
- (iii) ensure that in the event of a Supplementary Appropriation Request, all valid documentation outlining the reasons for the increase is available.

Once identified, the Cost Variation is built into the Estimated Final Cost of the Project. The Q.S. Section is asked to use the Form attached (Appendix 1.4.8.2) to allocate costs over the various cost codes.

- 1.5.4 For this project, a Major Change in Scope is one exceeding \$25,000 and a llinor Change in Scope is one costing less than this figure. Preparation of Major Changes in Scope documentation is covered by EDP COS 2. No commitments should be made to Major Scope Changes until approval for the change is forthcoming.
- 1.5.5 Cost Deviations

These are changes from the Budget costs due to variations from wonder original quotations etcetera. They can be defined as changes to costs occurring within the intent from which the A.R. Estimate was prepared.

These deviations are flagged to the Project Manager for actica as outlined in the network attached. (Appendix 1.5.3.1).

1.5.6 It is the responsibility of the Cost Engineer to keep a file on all cost variations from project inception. A reconciliation of differences between the A.R. Estimaté and the Estimated Final Costs can subsequently be prepared quickly, and in detail.

- 1.6 ESTIMATED FINAL COST CALCULATIONS
 - 1.6.1 All cost variations, unless negated by alternative Engineering, additional bid quotations etcetera, will affect the Estimated Final Cost of the Project.
 - 1.6.2 From the Cost Engineer's file on Cost Variations, new Estimated Final Costs will be input into the Cost Report. These forecasts will be input by area, construction element and cost component.
 - 1.6.3 The Cost Engineer is responsible for keeping the Estimated Final Costs of the Project up to date. Enless additional information is at hand, Budget costs will be used as an Estimated Final Cost.
 - 1.6.4 A Definative Estimate prepared by the Q.S. department will form the basis for Forecasting Costs. Cost Variations will subsequently supplement this Definitive Estimate as the Project progresses.
 - 1.6.5 The Cost Engineer will maintain control curves for the following:

(i) 👘	Total	Head Office Costs
(ii)		Engineering Manhours
(111)		Support Engineering Manhours
(1v)		Design/Drafting Manhours (by discipline)
(v)		Design/Drafting Progress
(vi) 👘		Field Costs
(vii)		Field Manhours
(viii)		Printing Costs
(ix)		Head Office Expenses (plus Cost per Mh. index),
(x)	Contra	ctors Progress vs. Extra Work Costs
(xi)	Constr	uction Overall Progress

Constant monitoring of these curves will allow the Cost Engineer to forecast Final Costs accurately and quickly.

- 1.7 BACKCHARGES
 - 1.7.1 Backebarges which may occur on this project fall into two main categories.
 - deficiencies or errors in purchased engineered equipment such as pumps, conveyors, etc.
 - (ii) construction errors by contractors.
 - 1.7.2 Purchased Equipment

A thorough and detailed inspection of all equipment received on site will be undertaken by a nominated contractor immediately upon arrival. Any damages or deficiency should be reported to the Site Representative immediately. Failure to inspect and report immediately may result in the source of damage or deficiency being disputed later. Any damage or deficiency should be recorded on the Delivery Notice and Material Received Notice. A copy of all Material Received Notices will be forwarded to the Project Accounting section in the Engineering Department.

Should damage or definiency be evident, the Site Representative will phone the Project Manager immediately, and subsequently prepare a written report. A copy of this report with the Material Received Notice will be sent to the Project Accounting Section, where appropriate claims procedures will be initiated.

On no account will damage be repaired by any contractor other than the supplier without Project Manager approval.

1.7.3 <u>Contractor Construction Errors</u> (incl. incomplete work)

Any work undertaken which is defective or not as per drawings and specification will be noted by the Resident Engineer.

The contractor will then be requested to undertake the rework and conform to his Contract. If he fails to do so, he will be informed in writing that the work will be undertaken by others and backcharged to his account. The Project Manager will be kept informed of all such developments. A detailed account of all costs incurred on a contractor's behalf should be submitted to the Head Office and will be deducted from the contractor's future invoices as directed by the Project Manager.

1.7.4 When the Field Office is closed down, backcharge files which have been kept by the Field Representative will be sent to the Head Office. The Project Accountant will then solicit the Project Manager's aid in clearing any outstanding claims.

1.8 MONTHLY COST REPORT

- 1.8.1 As information related to commitments, expenditures, forecast final costs and Budgets is received by the Cost Engineer and Project Accountant, computer input sheets are infilled and filed. These sheets will be checked and batched by the Project Accountant and Cost Engineer jointly at month end and transmitted to the E.D.P. Department after copies have been taken off. They will be punched and processed by the E.D.P. Department and a computerized Cost Statement printout produced. Copies will be transmitted to the Cost Engineer who will check for compatability with input and collate.
- 1.8.2 All changes to underron/overron will then be analysed by the Cost Engineer and summarised for the Project Manager. A change order register, listing <u>approved</u> changes will then be prepared by the Cost Engineer.

- 1.8.3 The Project Manager will produce a written covering news which will explain changes in overrun/underrun since the last report.
- 1.5.4 Any costs appearing in the 'Holding Account' file will be noted as a separate hand written entry on the front sheet of the Gaut Statement at the Project Manager's discretion.
- 1.8.5 The monthly Cost Statement will then be distributed as per the Project Nanager's direction.
- 1.9 FINAL COST ANALYSIS
 - 1.9.1 At the completion of the Project, the Cost Engineer will prepare a final Cost Report and Analysis of the total Project. The analysis will include a complete record of Cost Variations.
 - 1.9.2 The Cost Engineer must be aware that a declaration by the Project Manager that the Project is physically or mechanically 1007 complete does not signal the end of his responsibilities. Until the Project is <u>fiscally</u> complete, his involvement is still necessary.

SYSTEM FOR CONTROLLING CHANGES IN PROJECT SCOPE

Following is a sample detailed procedure illustrating a system for controlling changes in Project Scope. It is included here because changes in project scope is one of the major causes of overruns.

Important features of this system are:

It clearly defines what changes in scope are.

It clarifies where contingencies fit in.

It practices faithfully the principle of the approval system, i.e. putting the onus on higher officers in a company as the amounts increase.

It reminds the authorizing officer that the cost of the change is not really a claim against the money in the project and that in signing the change, he must accept responsibility for finding the funds. SYSTEM FOR CONTROLLING CHANGES IN PROJECT SCOPE

This Engineering Procedure contains 2 appendices.

1. SUMMARY

This Engineering Procedure describes the procedure for approving and recording costs associated with changes in scope and clarifies the differences between major changes in scope and minor changes in scope. As a certain amount of confusion exists in the true meaning of a change in scope, several items which are not changes in scope are identified and defined. There is also clarification in the use of contingencies with regard to changes in scope.

PURPOSE

A "Change in Scope" procedure is used to enable cost control to be executed in a more effective manner by highlighting and recording the variances from the Estimate resulting from changes in scope. It is aired at controlling the expenditures within the authorized amount for the project. The purpose of this Engineering Procedure is to instruct Project Engineers in their responsibilities in this area and guide them with regard to the documentation and authorizations required.

PROJECTS AFFECTED

This Engineering Procedure applies to all projects.

- DEFINITION OF TERMS
 - A. Scope of Work

The Scope of Work is a description of the work which is necessary to carry out the intent of the proposal in a viable manner. The description is delineated by the details of the Appropriation Estimate, the associated drawings and the accompanying memorandum. The complete detailed Scope of Work is not established until the estimate is a definitive estimate (type B = 102).

On smaller projects, the authorized estimate attached to the Appropriation. Request may establish the detailed Scope of Work.

In the case of major projects, the definitive estimate will not be completed until some time after the initial approval and hence the detailed Scope of Work can not be fully established until that time. (See E.P. BRM 7* for more detailed information on Scope of Work definition).

Considerations such as overtime allowances, project schedules, atc. are all part of and help define the Scope of Work.

B. Definitive Estimate

A Definitive Estimate is the capital cost estimate prepared when the design is advanced to the stage where the scope can be accurately defined for all disciplines, and recent quotations are available for all significant items based on current design specifications. The accuracy of this estimate should be 110%. (See S.P. COS 4*, Estimate Types).

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SYSTEM FOR CONTROLLING

	•	CRANGES IN PR	OJECT SCOPE		
4, Đế:	FINITION OF TERMS	(Continued)			
C,	Change in Scope				•
	A Change in Scop scope of work th	oe 1s any modif hat affects pro	ication, additio ject costs and/o	on or deletion to the or schedules.	
	Changes in scope defined as follo	e are classífie Sws:	d as either "Min	nor" or "Major" and are	
	(a) Minor Chang	g∈ 1n Scope:	For Projects w Not greater th contingencies,	p to \$10,000,000: aan \$5,000 or 51 of , whichever is greater,	
			For Projects o To be arranged contingencies. will be develo project at les	over \$10,000,000: 1 at less than 5% of Specific procedures oped for the particular as than 5% of contingencies	÷ş.
	(b) Major Chang	ge in Scope:	Estimated cost	exceeds the above limits	۱.
	Note: Significa and chang can be eff	ent changes in ges to project ther "Minor" o	overtime, living schedule are all r "Major" depend	, and travelling expenses, "Changes in Scope" and ling on the dollar amount.	,
	"Extras" to a lu unless they conf	mp sum project form to the abo	are not classif ve definition.	ied as a Change in Scope	Ŧ
э.	Start-up Modifie	ations			
Ś	Start-up Modific the project viab are not included provided in the These items are	ations which a ble are not Char 1.) On larger main body of t not classified	re <u>essential</u> st nges in Scope. (projects, a sepa he estimate for as "Changes in	time of start-up to make [Non-essential changes trate allowance should be start-up modifications. Scope".	NN -
£.	Cost Deviations				
	Cost Deviations the amount in th cost effects due etc. Cost devia	are variances : le jefinitive e e to extended de ltions are not e	in the cost of i stimate due to i eliveries, atnor changes in scope	ndividual items from noorrect estimates, mal bad weather effects.	
\$.	Field Emergencie	s			
	Field energencie Construction sit under the author Work Order. Suc and are not part	es refer to emer e and requires ity of the Res th emergencies a of this Engine	rgency work whic prompt action ident Engineer b are not classifi eering Procedure	h arises at the These are processed by means of a Field ed as changes in scope	

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SYSTEM FOR CONTROLLING CHANGES IN PRC 'ECT SCOPE

4. DEFINITION OF TERMS (Continued)

G. Contingencies

Contingencies in a project cost estimate are allowances for cost deviations, emergencies and minor changes in scope. It is not intended that "Contingencies" provide for Major changes in scope. Depending, however, on the final cost of the project and on the approval of the appropriate authorizing authority, contingency funds may be used for Major Changes in Scope.

H. Reserves

Reserves constitute an arbitrary designation of certain items in an estimate that are generally indeterminate and may or may not occuri as such they are administered for control purposes in a different manner than regular project items. Normally, they consist of the contingencies, but for major projects they may also include items such as overtime allowances, start-up modifications, escalation, etc. The exact content and amount of Reserves will vary with the nature and size of each project and are to be established for each project individually.

5. PESPONSIBILITY

The Engineering Department is responsible for the execution of the prift of in accordance with the described scope and for controlling the costs within the amount authorized. As such, it is responsible for controlling the contingencies, and hence for Minor Changes in Scope.

On projects up to \$10,000,000 the Project Engineer is responsible for controlling Minor Changes in Scope. For projects over \$10,000,000 see paragraph 4.C.

Approval of a project does not give the Engineering Department authority to initiate Major Changes in Scope. The Engineering Department must have a specific authorization from the Division or Department involved or highly 200 authority in order to proceed with such a change.

The above is accomplished by a Major Change in Scope Form (Appendig "A" issued by the Project Manager in accordance with the following procedure:

6. AUTHORIZATIONS AND LINETS

Minor Changes in Scope are handled as per EP COS 1 3 3.

Set Note: If the comulative amount of Minor Changes in Scope reaches 200 of the contingencies, a major project review must be undertaken.

Suppor Changes in Scope must be recommended and approved as indicated on some Appendix "A", then processed through the appropriate division or department..." and finally authorized by the following persons according to their authorized limits. (As per Guidance Manual for Capital Expenditures).

Page_4_ of _4

SYSTER FOR CONTROLLING CHANCES IN PROJECT SCOPE

5. AUTHORIZATIONS AND LIMITS (Centinued)

AUTHORIZATION OF MAJOR CHANGES IN SCOPE (Individual and cumulative changes)

Departmental Projects		Divisional Projects	
Changes up to \$15,000	Changes up to \$50,000	Changes up to \$100,000	Changes over \$100,000
Authorized by Dept. Managers	Authorized by Distribution and Purchasing Manager	Authorized by Division Maneger	Authorized by Vice President or higher authority

". FUNDING OF MAJOR CHANGES IN SCOPE

Major Changes In Scope usually occur during the design/construction period of a project. It is not always possible to identify at that time whether or not there will be an overtun in excess of ten percent of the authorized second. Therefore, those who authorize Major Changes in Scope must be propared to provide the funds by means of a new or supplementary project. should funds not prove to be available at the project completion.

A note to this effect is included on the form used to document scope changes (Sae Appendix "A").

5. REFORTING SYSTEM

Froject cost statements are to incorporate information as to Major Changes in scope as indicated in Appendix "B". This method of presentation allows valid comparisons of the impact of Major Changes in Scope on the overall capital cost of a project. A summary of such data is also reproduced on the Major Change of Scope submission form to enable the persons authorizing such changes to visualize the financial status of the project.

		F	Project No.:
ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT		(nange No.:
PR	OJECT SCOPE	CHANGE	nevision (No.:
Project Title.	, E	Estimated Cost of this C	hange S
Area/Discipline:		Date:	·
Description of Change: Attachments	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	
1			
Justification for Change:			
<u>.</u>			
ect on Related Portion of Schedule:			
Etters on 3			<u></u>
Start-up Date j Advanced by	days. R	etarded by <u> </u> days.	No Change :
Total Forecast of "All" Changes To-date	s		% of Cont.
Nut Cost of This Coange	<u></u>		et Cont
	J		
(Excluding this change)	s	·	% (Over) Under
Current Figal Cost Foreast	5		% (Over) Upper
(Including this change)	-		
Authorized Amount	s		
Recomm/		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Appr. by(P. Eng. or P. Mer.)	Recomm by _	(Chief Engineer)	Date
Recomm/	Such here	(0	Dete
(Steering Gr. Chairman)	_ Auto, by:	(Div. Mgr. or Exec.	Date
`		Committee Chairma	n}
acted by:			
Reason for Rejection:			
	to make a new or	supplemental request for th	e funds indicated if the linal cost

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GENERAL COST STATEMENT FORMAT

COST CENTRE	FINAL COST FORECAST	AUTHORIZED ANOUNT	(OVER) UNDER
DIPECT COSTS			
INDIRECT COSTS			
ENGINEERING			
CONTINGENCIES: DESIGN CHANGES			
: START-UP CHANGES			
: OTHER CONTINGENCIES			
INFLATION ALLOWANCE (IF ANY)			
			i i
		_	
TOTAL (Incl. Changes in Scope)			
NET COST OF MAJOR CHANGES IN SCOPE INCLUDED IN THE ABOVE			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
TOTAL COST (Excluding Major Changes)			

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Computers

As projects become larger, (and the size of projects seem to be continuously increasing) computers can make a tremendous contribution to the systems being used to document and control the projects. On the very large projects, they are becoming indispensable.

In general, computers:

Handle large masses of data quickly. Produce reports faster (but can also delay them). Can be very versatile, offering a large choice of reports and reporting levels. Are consistent in processing data.

The market is flooded with all kinds of computer software programs all aimed at making some type of improvement to the overall engineering function.

The Computer Applications Committee of the American Association of Cost Engineers has published a report entitled "Cost Engineering Related Computer Software" containing a list of programs on the market along with a brief description of the scope and cost of each program.

Some of these programs are very comprehensive with claims that they will provide a fully integrated system for handling every requirement for the accounting and control of engineering projects.

However, a word of caution. Computerization is costly and large sums of money are spent before results can be obtained. Selection of a wrong system could be a costly mistake.

A computer should be used as a tool to assist an organization in accomplishing its objectives. The organization must not be a tool of the computer.

It is well to remember that cost control occurs through people. It concerns their attitude, their commitment, their involvement and is so broad in its application that it embraces more or less every facet of design, procurement and construction.

Most companies start with computer programs for individual operations such as doing data processing for manhours, payroll, purchase order control, etc. Expansion of the programs may result in computerizing the Project Cost Statement. Another program may be used for CPM scheduling. The overall aim may be to integrate all operations into one comprehensive program and ultimately the long range objective may be to have the system operating "on line".

Although the principles of cost control may be universally spplicable to all functions, no two companies are exactly the same.

For example: is the Company concerned with design and draughting, or procurement, or construction or #11 three?

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- 2. All cost plus contracts are "red warning flags".
- 3. Cut-off dates for all reports and documents should be consistent and well understood. One cut-off date for "cost + commitment to date" and a different date for "labour costs to date" can be very misleading.
- 4. Beware of "documents in progress". This refers to commitments which have occurred but for some reason have not yet been officially recorded as commitments and have also been overlooked in arriving at the "estimate to complete". Examples are unpaid equipment rentals due to tardiness in submitting invoices, purchase order requisitions not yet placed, unit price work actually completed but not yet invoiced, any labour accruals not yet invoiced, slow accounting of Field Work Orders, known claims acknowledged but not yet approved, etc., etc.
- Anticipate factors that could affect labour costs, e.g. bad weather effects.
- 6. Too much reliance on trending and averaging principle to arrive at forecast final cost. The pattern of trending curves varies, depending on the item being trended e.g. concrete, piping, etc. An intimate knowledge of these patterns can help in making better forecasts.
- The price on a purchase order at the time it is issued is rarely the final cost. Many add-ons are frequently overlooked such as freight, sales taxes, changes, escalation, etc.
- Close out all Work Orders as soon as possible after completion. Otherwise someone will manage to get additional time charged against them.
- 9. When assessing progress and forecasting & complete, remember that the last mile is the slowest and most difficult.

ORGANIZATION

The organizational structures vary depending on the method of execution. For example, at one extreme various companies may be involved, each one having a different responsibility, while at the other extreme one company may be totally responsible for the design, procurement and construction. For example:

- 0 represents an Owner's engineering dept. which may carry out the design, procurement of major equipment, and has construction carried out by contractors. In some cases, an owner will have a complete construction section which carries out construction by direct hire.
- DC represents Design Consultants who carry out the same functions as above.
- CM represents Construction Management Consultants who specialize in taking the drawings and specifications from others such as 0 or DC above and undertake to have them constructed by letting contracts and overseeing the work of the contractors.
- PM represents Project Managers who specialize in managing the entire project on behalf of an owner and let contracts with design consultants and contractors and oversee the work.
- GC & SC represents General Contractors and Sub-Contractors who carry out the construction work whether it be on the basis of lump sum contracts, unit price basis or some form of cost plus.
- D9 represents Design Build constructors who provide a complete service to design, procure and construct a plant, sometimes using their own construction personnel with direct hire and sometimes by letting construction contracts.

Thus, a project may be executed in any one of the following ways as illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5

Case	Overall Direction		Procurement			
		Engineering Design by	Major Equip. by	Balance by	Constn. Mgt. by	Construction by
1	0	O and/or DC	0	GC/SC	0	GC/SC
2	o	0 and/or DC	o	GC/SC	СМ	GC/SC
3	о	• o	0	о	• o	o
4	0	DC	DC	GC/SC	, DC	cc/sc
5	O or PM	nc	DC	GC/SC	O or PM	GC/SC
6	' 0	DB	DB	. DB	DB	DB or GC/SC

The above table is still only a partial indication of the combinations which occur.

There are many factors to consider in selecting the method of execution and these would include the eleven essentials for good cost control as discussed previously. Although other factors may be more significant in making the final decision, it is well to remember that as the number of participating organizations increase:

Management becomes more difficult.
Procedures become more important than ever and
 more voluminous.
Responsibilities are less clear and tend to
 overlap.
Communications become more difficult and often
 break down.
Overall control becomes more difficult.

Regardless of the method of execution, the foregoing principles of cost control apply. The only difference is the extent to which they are applied and this will vary with the responsibility.

Thus, there are certain key functions which must be performed for good cost control and these must be given a place of importance in the organizational structure. Thus:

> Estimating Planning & Scheduling Cost Control Activities Project Accounting

A central organizational structure may look something like:



or it may look like:



The field organization would be an extension of this, such as:



In a minimum size organization, for a very small project, one cost engineer may carry out the entire function of cost control and planning and scheduling with back-up from an estimating group. A project accountant would spend part time directing the clerical staff regarding the normal accounting requirements.

As the project got larger, there might be one cost engineer on control, one planning and scheduling engineer, back-up from an estimating group and one project accountant. These persons would service the entire project at head office as well as in the field.

As the project got larger, it would require a cost control engineer, a planning and scheduling engineer and an accountant in the field.

Each of these persons would respond to the resident angineer, but would take functional direction from their counterparts in the central organization.

As projects became larger, it would be a case of adding to the staff under these functions to match the requirements.

RECAPITOLATION

To sum it up:

Cost control starts with management and must pervade the entire project organization. Management must want it, understand it, and provide the organization and staff to make it function. This applies to the engineering function, the procurement function and the contractors.

Good experienced staff are required and they must be dedicated to the overall philosophy of cost control.

The universal cost control cycle of realistic targets, monitoring, trending, forecasting, identifying problems and taking action was highlighted and underlies the entire concept of cost control.

The system must be dynamic and always pointed to the future. Historical data in itself is of limited value in cost control. Reporting must be prompt and timely.

In a nutshell, the Project Manager must know:

Where he's been. Where he's at. Where he's going. What action he should take.

There's no easy route to good cost control. In essence, if you have it, it means your entire organization is a very efficient and effective well run operation.

RECOMMENDED REFERENCE MATERIAL

	Data			
Title	<u>ín</u>	Author	Publisher	
Yardsticks for Costing	\$	The Canadian Architect	Southam Business Publications Ltd. 1450 Don Mills Road Don Mills, Ontario	
Building Construction Cost Data	\$	Robert S. Means	Robert Snow Means Co. Inc., 100 Construction Plaza Duxbury, Massachusetts 02332	
Commercial-Industrial Construction Estimating and Engineering Standards Volumes 1 and 2				
Light Construction Estimating and Engineering Standards Volume 3	S & Mhrs.	International Construc- tion Analysts	Richardson Engineering Services Ltd 10021 Tecum P.C. Box 726 Decree California 20241	
cocess Plant Construction stimating and Engineering andards Volumes 4 and 5			U.S.A.	
The Building Estimator's Reference Book	\$ δ Mhrs.	Frank R. Walker	Frank R. Walker Co. Chicago, Illinois	
Fundamentals of Cost Engineering		H.C. Bauman	Reinhold Publishing Corp. New York	
Control & Management of Capital Projects		J.W. Hackney	John Wiley & Sons, Inc. New York	
Cost Engineers Notebook		Various	American Assoc. of Cost Engineers Morgantown, West Virginia	

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Title	Data <u>in</u>	Author	Publisher	
Estimator's Piping Manhour Manual	Mhrs.	J.S. Page & J.G. Nation		
Estimator's General Con- struction Manhour Manual	Mhrs.	J.S. Page		
Estimator's Electrical Manhour Manual	Mhrs.	J.S. Page & J.G. Nation	Gulf Publishing Company Houston, Texas	
Estimator's Manual of Equipment & Installation Costs	Ş & Mhrs.	J.S. Page		
Estimator's Manhour Manual - Heating, A/C, Ventila- ting & Plumbing	Mhrs.	J.S. Paçe		
Process Plant Estimating, Evaluation & Control		K.M. Guthrie	des Sterren Back Co. of American	
Managing Capital Expendi- tures for Construction Projects		K.M. Guthrie	Craftsman Book Co. of America Solana Beach, California	

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TRIAL SOUTIONS

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		5%		1	0%	15	5%	20)%
<u>30</u> irs)	Cash Flow	Discount Factor	Present Value	Discount Factor	Present Value	Discount Factor	Presont Valuo	Discount Factor	Presen Value
-1		.9754		9516		.9286		.9063	·····
-2		.9278		.3611		. 7993		7421	
-3		.8826		.7791		.6879		.6075	
- 4		1.8395		.7050		.5921		4974	
- 5		.7986		6379 1		.5096		.4072	<u> </u>
-8	-	.7596		.5772		.4386		.3334	
-7	<u></u>	.7226		.5223		.3775		.2730	
-8		6874		.4726		.3250		. 2235	
-9		.6538		1.4276		.2797		1830	
-10		.6219		.3869	· ·	.2407		.1498	
0-11		.5916		.3501		.2072		.1227	
1-12		.5628		.3168		.1783		1.1004	
2-13	· ·	.5353	<u> </u>	.2866		.1535		.0822	
3-14		.5092		.2593		.1321		.0673 1	
4		.4844		,2347		.1137		.0551	
.5-,		.4608		.2123		.0979		.0431	
6-17		.4333		.1921		.0842		.0369	
7-18	[.4169		.1739		.0725		1,0303 1	
8-19		.3966		.1573		.0624		.0248	
9-20		.3772		1423	·	.0537		0203	
0-21		.3588		.1288		1.0462		.0156	

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I. Market Environment

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The business environment is that of 1961. Plastic A has been important commercially since 1948 and Plastic B since 1958. Plots of the historic and forecast industry demand and price trends for each product are shown in Exhibits A-1 and A-2.

Over the past 10 years, Plastic A sales increased 220 per cent. from 210 MM lb in 1952 to 465 MM lb in 1961. Over the same period, prices duclined 33 per cent from 30¢/lb. in 1952 to 20¢/lb. in 1961, as industry demand growth slowed from 33%/yr to 5%/yr. Future growth is projected at 4%/yr over the next five years and 3%/yr thereafter. Industry capacity has continually exceeded demand, and in 1961, there was 25 per cent surplus capacity. At forecast growth rates, no new capacity additions will be required until the end of 1967. Loco's 30 MM lb/yr plant represented 14 per cent of installed capacity when it came on stream in 1950 and only 5 per cent in 1961. The plant has not been sold out since 1955, presumably because of gradual obsolescence, and in 1961 operated at only 50 per cent of capacity.

In contrast, Plastic B is a relatively new commercial commodity and is still growing rapidly. Its 1961 sales are 105 MM Ib, or only 22 per cent of Plastic A. Demand growth is expected to drop gradually from the current 40%/yr rate to 10%/yr in 1966 and beyond. If Loco builds it's 50 MM lb/yr Plastic B unit to come on stream in 1964, it will enter the market with a plant capable of supplying 24 per cent of the forecast demand with first year sales of 21 MM lb, or 10 per cent of total demand, and an initial price of 31%/Ib. If it defers commercialization three years, as probably will happen if it continues the development of its own process, then it will enter with a nameplate capacity equal to 17 per cent of the 1967 markot, but because of increased competition is expected to achieve firstyear sales of only 12 MM lb, or 4 per cent of demand, and an initial net back of only 25%/lb.

Solution to Case Problem

I. Market Environment

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The business environment is that of 1961. Plastic A has been important commercially since 1948 and Plastic B since 1958. Plots of the historic and forecast industry demand and price trends for each product are shown in Exhibits A-1 and A-2.

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In contrast, Plastic B is a relatively new commercial commodity and is still growing rapidly. Its 1961 sales are 105 MM lb, or only 22 per cent of Plastic A. Demand growth is expected to drop gradually from the current 40%/yr rate to 10%/yr in 1966 and beyond. If Loco builds it's 50 MM lb/yr Plastic B unit to come on stream in 1964, it will enter the market with a plant capable of supplying 24 per cent of the forecast demand with first year sales of 21 MM lb, or 10 per cent of total demand, and an initial price of 31%/lb. If it defers commercialization three years, as probably will happen if it continues the development of its own process, then it will enter with a nameplate capacity equal to 17 per cent of the 1967 market, but because of increased competition is expected to achieve firstyear sales of only 12 MM lb, or 4 per cent of demand, and an initial net back of only 25%/lb.

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II. Cash Flow Tables

The five basic cases are:

Plastic A (Existing business)

Plastic B (New business)

Continue as is Present Plant-aggressive marketing 10 MM 15./yr. expansion Purchase Knowhow Develop Knowhow

Possible combination cases will be discussed later.

The pro-forms P&L statements and cash flow tables for these five cases are given Tables A-3 and A-4. Each table summarizes the forecast revenues, expenses, and investment effects, by year. The table form is exactly comparable to that shown in the case description for the Plastic A post-installation appraisal.

The tables have a typical, useful format, which is automatically self-checking; specifically, the cumulative net profit after taxes must equal the cumulative cash proceeds from the project. The calculated annual cash proceeds are then discounted to determine the present values and interest rates of returns, or PI's, for the alternatives compared in these tables.

These tables will be discussed on a case-by-case basis followed by sample calculations. Those working this case should be able to check most numbers exactly. In certain instances, as in the working capital and depreciation calculations, some assumptions have to be made and some variability is acceptable.

What Alternate is the Case compared Against? Since all economics are relative, each cash flow table really summarizes the difference in cash flows between two alternates. It is important to explicitly recognize what these alternates are.

Product	Case	(Base Case)
A	A ₁ , Continue As-Is A ₂ , Present Plant-Agressive Mktg. A ₃ , 10 MM Lb./Yr. Expansion	Get Out of business Get Out of business Present Plant-Aggressive Mktg.
B	B ₁ , Purchase Knowhow B ₂ , Develop Knowhow	Do nothing Do nothing

This selection of the base case is to some degree arbitrary, but should be logical. In real life, changes are often made, after preliminary calculations show the relative attractiveness of the several alternates. For example, if the 10 MM lb./yr. plastic A expansion were shown to be an attractive addition to the aggressive marketing plan for the present plant, but the aggressive marketing plan itself was unattractive, then the expansion costs and benefits II. Cash Flow Tables

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The five basic cases are:

Plastic A (Existing business)

<u>Plastic B</u> (New business)

Continue as is Present Plant-aggressive marketing 10 MM lb./yr. expansion Purchase Knowhow Develop Knowhow

Possible combination cases will be discussed later.

The pro-forms P&L statements and cash flow tables for these five cases are given Tables A-3 and A-4. Each table summarizes the forecast revenues, expenses, and investment effects, by year. The table form is exactly comparable to that shown in the case description for the Plastic A post-installation appraisal.

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These tables will be discussed on a case-by-case basis followed by sample calculations. Those working this case should be able to check most numbers exactly. In certain instances, as in the working capital and depreciation calculations, some assumptions have to be .made and some variability is acceptable.

What Alternate is the Case compared Against? Since all economics are relative, each cash flow table really summarizes the difference in cash flows between two alternates. It is important to explicitly recognize what these alternates are.

Product	Case	(Base Case)
A	A ₁ , Continue As-Is A ₂ , Present Plant-Agressive Mktg. A ₃ , 10 HM Lb./Yr. Expansion,	Get Out of business Get Out of business Present Plant-Aggressive Mktg.
В	B ₁ , Purchase Knowhow B ₂ , Develop Knowhow	Do nothing Do nothing

This selection of the base case is to some degree arbitrary, but should be logical. In real life, changes are often made, after preliminary calculations show the relative attractiveness of the several alternates. For example, if the 10 MM lb./yr. plastic A expansion were shown to be an attractive addition to the aggressive marketing plan for the present plant, but the aggressive marketing plan itself was unattractive, then the expansion costs and benefits

:

Alternate A₁--The current operating costs for Plastic A are supplied for two levels of operation. At one-third of capacity, the manufacturing costs are 45 per cent of capacity costs, with even the so-called fixed costs showing some variability over this wide range of operating conditions. The values shown in the cash flow table were obtained by linear interpolation:

<u>1962</u> 50	<u>1963</u> 43	<u>1964</u> 40	<u>1965</u> 37	$\frac{1966}{33}$
52 5	460	420	385	350
450	380	360	330	300
225	200	180	165	150
1,200	1,040	960	880	800
1,040	970	935	900	865
225	206	198	189	185
194	193	192	191	185
1,459	1,369	1,325	1,280	1,235
	1962 50 525 450 225 1,200 1,040 225 194 1,459	$ \begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

The selling price and marketing expenses are taken directly from Table 4 of the case. Straight line depreciation is used since the investment was made before 1954. (In 1954 the tax regulations were changed, permitting accelerated depreciation of new investments for tax purposes.) The plant is fully depreciated in 1965.

<u>Alternate A</u>--Under the aggressive marketing plan, technical service and product improvement investments totalling \$450 M, and increased marketing expenses, enable the plant to increase sales and reach capacity in two years. Table 4 in the case gave the yearly sales volumes and marketing expenses. Manufacturing costs are estimated by interpolation, as before.

Accelerated depreciation is possible for the future fixed investments. The four investments must be considered separately, in order to recognize differences in amount, timing, depreciation method, and tax credits on project termination:

Element	Existing Plant	Tech Service Lab	Product Improvement	Future Modernization
Value, \$M	1,228	350	100	750
Depreciation Life	4 years	15 years	10 years	10 years
Depreciation Begins	1/1/62	1/1/62	1/1/62	1/1/66
Method	SL	SYD	SYD	SYD
Sample Calculation				
1962 Total, \$369 M	\$307 M	\$44 M	\$18 M	-
1966 Total, \$179 M	-	\$32 M	\$11 M	\$136 M

It was assumed that the small technical service lab and product improvement investments took little time to complete, and depreciation could begin in the year they were made. The modernization investment is assumed to take a year to complete, with depreciation beginning in the following year.

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<u>Alternate A</u>--The current operating costs for Plastic A are supplied for two levels of operation. At one-third of capacity, the manufacturing costs are 45 per cent of capacity costs, with even the so-called fixed costs showing some variability over this wide range of operating conditions. The values shown in the cash flow table were obtained by linear interpolation:

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Per Cunt of Capacity	$\frac{1962}{50}$	$\frac{1963}{43}$	<u>1964</u> 40	$\frac{1965}{37}$	$\frac{1966}{33}$
Expenses					
Raw Materials	525	460	420	385	350
Utilities	450	380	360	330	300
Catalyst & Chemicals	225	200	180	165	150
	1,200	1,040	960	880	800
Labor	1,040	970	935	900	865
Maintenance	225	206	198	189	185
Overhead	194	193	192	191	185
	1,459	1,369	1,325	1,280	1,235

The selling price and marketing expenses are taken directly from Table 4 of the case. Straight line depreciation is used since the investment was made before 1954. (In 1954 the tax regulations were changed, permitting accelerated depreciation of new investments for tax purposes.) The plant is fully depreciated in 1965.

<u>Alternate A₂</u>--Under the aggressive marketing plan, technical service and product improvement investments totalling \$450 M, and increased marketing expenses, enable the plant to increase sales and reach capacity in two years. Table 4 in the case gave the yearly sales volumes and marketing expenses. Manufacturing costs are estimated by interpolation, as before.

Accelerated depreciation is possible for the future fixed investments. The four investments must be considered separately, in order to recognize differences in amount, timing, depreciation method, and tax credits on project termination:

Element	Existing Plant	Tech Service Lab	Product Improvement	Future Modernization
Value, \$M	1,228	350	100	750
Depreciation Life	4 years	15 years	10 years	10 years
Depreciation Begins	1/1/62	1/1/62	1/1/62	1/1/66
Method	SL	SYD	SYD	SYD
Sample Calculation				,
1962 Total, \$369 M	\$307 M	\$44 M	\$18 M	-
1966 Total, \$179 M	-	\$32 M	\$11 M	\$136 M

It was assumed that the small technical service lab and product improvement investments took little time to complete, and depreciation could begin in the year they were made. The modernization investment is assumed to take a year to complete, with depreciation beginning in the following year.

III. Discounted Cash Flow Results (Five Alternates)

The DCP results are presented here for the five original cases along with a discussion of related areas of special interest. Combination cases will be covered later. The cash flows are taken directly from Tables A-3 and A-4.

Alternate AL, Continue As Is

The standard trial and error DCF analysis shows only a 0.75 PI for continuing operation five more years. If this were the only choice, the plant would have to be shut down now. The present value calculations follow, using the cash flows obtained in the previous section:

			Trial	Trial Rate10%		
<u>Time</u>	Cash Flow,	Factor	Table	Present Value	Factor	PV
0	(1,595)	1.000	-	(1,595)	1.000	(1,595)
0-1	267	.9950	B	266 *	.9516	254
1-2	201	.9851	8	198	,8611	173
2-3	166	.9753	в	162	,7791	129
3-4	134	.9656	в	129	,7050	94
4-5	(67)	.9560	B	(64)	.6379	(43)
51	935	.9512	A	889	.6065	567
	41			(15)		(421)

The solution rate is obtained by interpolation between 0 per cent and 1 per cent. Discounting the cash flow only at 10 per cent, the cost of capital, would also confirm the project is unattractive showing a negative present value of (\$421 M). However, this does not give as clear a picture as to how poor performance really is, as to quote a 0.75 per cent return.

This analysis is incomplete, although correct as far as it goes. Since project performance is continuing to deteriorate, it might be attractive to operate the plant one or two more years, for example, and then shut it down. The best approach is to analyze the shortest life first, i.e., one year, as this should be the most attractive. When this short time span is being considered, it is important to determine the timing of cash flows as accurately as possible. For example, the calculated PI for continuing one more year ranges from 13.1 per cent to 5.4 per cent, with changes in the timing of cash flows from terminating the project.

Recovery Assumption	<u>PI for Continuing l Year</u>
Uniformly in 1962 (Year 1)	13.1
Uniformly in 1963 (Year 2)	5.4
At End of 1962	7.0

Recovery of working capital (\$935 M) normally would occur at or very close to time of plant shutdown, as it would mainly cover sale of final inventories and collection of outstanding receivables. The timing of the \$500 M tax credit on the undepreciated balance may

III. Discounted Cash Flow Results (Five Alternates)

The DCF results are presented here for the five original cases along with a discussion of related areas of special interest. Combination cases will be covered later. The cash flows are taken directly from Tables A-3 and A-4.

Alternate Al, Continue As Is

The standard trial and error DCF analysis shows only a 0.75 PI for continuing operation five more years. If this were the only choice, the plant would have to be shut down now. The present value calculations follow, using the cash flows obtained in the previous section:

		_	Trial	Rate1%	Trial Rate10%	
<u>Time</u>	Cash Flow,	Factor	Table	Present Value	Factor	PV
0	(1,595)	1.000	-	(1,595)	1.000	(1,595)
0-1	267	.9950	В	266	.9516	254
1-2	201	.9851	B	198	.8611	173
2-3	166	.9753	Ð	162	.7791	129
3-4	134	.9656	В	129	.7050	94
4-5	(67)	.9560	в	(64)	.6379	(43)
5'	935	.9512	A	889	,6065	567
	41			(15)		(421)

The solution rate is obtained by interpolation between 0 per cent and 1 per cent. Discounting the cash flow only at 10 per cent, the cost of capital, would also confirm the project is unattractive showing a negative present value of (\$421 M). However, this does not give as clear a picture as to how poor performance really is, as to quote a 0.75 per cent return.

This analysis is incomplete, although correct as far as it goes. Since project performance is continuing to deteriorate, it might be attractive to operate the plant one or two more years, for example, and then shut it down. The best approach is to analyze the shortest life first, i.e., one year, as this should be the most attractive. When this short time span is being considered, it is important to determine the timing of cash flows as accurately as possible. For example, the calculated PI for continuing one more year ranges from 13.1 per cent to 5.4 per cent, with changes in the timing of cash flows from terminating the project.

Recovery Assumption	<u>PI for Continuing 1 Year</u>
Uniformly in 1962 (Year 1)	13.1
Uniformly in 1963 (Year 2)	5.4
At End of 1962	7.0

Recovery of working capital (\$935 M) normally would occur at or very close to time of plant shutdown, as it would mainly cover sale of final inventories and collection of outstanding receivables. The timing of the \$500 M tax credit on the undepreciated balance may

ance, and illustrate the considerable variability in slopes which are commonly obtained. The three curves shown are:

	P1
A1+-Continue as is, 5 more years	0.75
A2Aggressive Marketing	7.8
A2+A3Total Program, Aggressive Marketing, plus	
30 per cent Expansion	6.5

Alternate B1--Purchase Knowhow

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Plastic B Cases

The PI for Alternate B_1 (purchase knowhow) is 13.1, and for Alternate B_2 (develop our knowhow) is 11.6. Purchased knowhow is preferred to the continued development of Loco's process in spite of higher investment and operating costs. Successful completion of Loco's process development is expected to take at least three more years, and would force a market entry under much more competitive conditions, with significantly lower sales prices and a slower sales buildup. There is a 16.4 PI incentive for investing in B_1 instead of B_2 . This assumes the plant built with purchased knowhow, since it started production three years before the B_2 alternate, will also terminate three years sconer. To eliminate the problem of different lives, assume product is still offered to customers for the B_1 case, but on a resale basis, without profit or loss. This treatment could understate the purchase knowhow incentive by as much as one unit.

Exhibit A-6 shows PI present value curves for B_1 , B_2 , and the difference case. The B_1 and B_2 curves are normal in appearance, while the difference curve is very unusual. The present values for this are:

		Present Value, \$M							
		08	51	10%	15%	201			
B ₁ vs. B ₂	•	36	2197	1647	366	(936)			

This shape is typical of a multiple solution problem. To determine whether or not there is a multiple solution, it is necessary to determine the number of sign changes in the cumulative cash position. The data are:



ance, and illustrate the considerable variability in slopes which are commonly obtained. The three curves shown are:

•		Pl
A ₁ Continue as is, 5 more years		0.75
A ₂ Aggressive Markating		7.8
A2+A3Total Program, Aggressive Marketing, plus		
30 per cent Expansion	•	6.5

Alternate B1--Purchase Knowhow

Plastic 8 Cases

The PI for Alternate B_1 (purchase knowhow) is 13.1, and for Alternate B_2 (develop our knowhow) is 11.6. Purchased knowhow is preferred to the continued development of Loco's process in spite of higher investment and operating costs. Successful completion of Loco's process development is expected to take at least three more years, and would force a market entry under much more competitive conditions, with significantly lower sales prices and a slower sales buildup. There is a 16.4 PI incentive for investing in B_1 instead of B_2 . This assumes the plant built with purchased knowhow, since it started production three years before the B_2 alternate, will also terminate three years sconer. To eliminate the problem of different lives, assume product is still offered to customers for the B_1 case, but on a resale basis, without profit or loss. This treatment could understate the purchase knowhow incentive by as much as one unit.

Exhibit A-6 shows PI present value curves for B_1 , B_2 , and the difference case. The B_1 and B_2 curves are normal in appearance, while the difference curve is very unusual. The present values for this are:

	Present Value, SM						
	0%	59	10%	151	20%		
B ₁ vs. B ₂	36	2197	1647	366	(936)		

This shape is typical of a multiple solution problem. To determine whether or not there is a multiple solution, it is necessary to determine the number of sign changes in the cumulative cash position. The data are:

	Tech. Service Lab. Avoided	Deprec. Tax <u>Credit Lost</u>	Marketing Expense Savings	Total
1962	350	(24)	-	326
1963		(22)	-	(22)
1964		(20)	69	49
1965		(19)	87	68
1966		(17)	109	91
1967		(16)	129	113
1968		(14)	130	124
1969		(13)	139	125
1970		(11)	130	127
1971		(9)	138	129
Enđ		(24)	-	(24)
	350	(189)	945	1,106

The yearly marketing cost effects credited to Alternate A₂, after 54 per cent taxes, are:

The discounted cash flows for these savings are added to those calculated for A_2 , to get the new PI of 13.5.

		Trial Discount Rate						
	80	51	10%	15%	PI			
A ₂ , Base Case	1,564	424	(311)	(787)	7.8			
Marketing Savings	1,106	881	720	<u>606</u>				
Revised A2	2,670	1,305	409	(181)	13.5			

The PI for the total new investment in A_2 and B_1 is 13.2.

V. Sensitivity Analysia

Results

Once the basic cash flows have been determined, a sensitivity analysis is fairly easy to perform, as cash flow adjustments are required only for the factors that change. The results for A_2 alone, B_1 alone, and the combination case are:

		Sensitivity				
	Base		+ 10%	-20% in		
	Case PI	+ 1¢/Lb.	Fixed Capital	Volume		
A.2	7,8	6.1	-0.3	-3.4		
BI	13.1	1.2	-0.6	<u>-1.6</u>		
$\overline{A_2} + B_1$	13.2	1.7	-0.5	-1.8		

Exhibit A-S gives the present values used to develop these sensitivities. The calculations supporting these present values immediately follow this discussion of results. The price sensitivity is the easiest to calculate, as only one item changes-- the yearly revenue. The investment sensitivity is slightly more complicated as both the investment and the depreciation tax credits are affected. The volume sensitivity is the most involved, taking into account the years the plant has idle capacity, and for this period, the effects on revenues, expenses, and working capital. For Plastic A, there are lost sales in the first three years of operation; for Plastic B, the sales loss covers five years.

	Tech. Service Lab. Avoided	Deprec. Tax Credit Lost	Marketing Expense Savings	<u>Total</u>
1962	350	(24)	-	326
1963		(22)	-	(22)
1964		(20)	69	49
1965		- (19)	87	68
1966		(17)	108	91
1967		(16)	129	113
1968		(14)	130	124
1969		(13)	139	125
1970		(11)	138	127
1971		(9)	138	129
End		(24)	_	(24)
••	350	(189)	945	1,106

The yearly marketing cost effects credited to Alternate A_2 , after 54 per cent taxes, are:

ł

The discounted cash flows for these savings are added to those calculated for A_2 , to get the new PI of 13.5.

	09	51	10%	15%	PI
λ ₂ , Base Case	1,564	424	(311)	(787)	7.8
Marketing Savings	1,105	.801	720	606	
Revised A ₂	2,670	1,305	409	(181)	13.5

The PI for the total new investment in A_2 and B_1 is 13.2.

V. Sensitivity Analysis

Results

Once the basic cash flows have been determined, a sensitivity analysis is fairly easy to perform, as cash flow adjustments are required only for the factors that change. The results for A_2 alone, B_1 alone, and the combination case are:

	Sensitivity					
	Base		+ 10%	-20% in		
	Case PI	+ 1¢/Lb.	Pixed Capital	Volume		
٨	7.8	6.1	-0.3	-3.4		
BT	13.1	1.2	-0.6	-1.6		
A2 + B1	13.2	1.7	-0.5	-1.8		

Exhibit A-5 gives the present values used to develop these sensitivities. The calculations supporting these present values immediately follow this discussion of results. The price sensitivity is the easiest to calculate, as only one item changes-- the yearly revenue. The investment sensitivity is slightly more complicated as both the investment and the depreciation tax credits are affected. The volume sensitivity is the most involved, taking into account the years the plant has idle capacity, and for this period, the effects on revenues, expenses, and working capital. For Plastic A, there are lost sales in the first three years of operation, for Plastic B, the sales loss covers five years.

	Cash	59		10	108		15%	
	Flow	Pactor	PV	Factor	PV	Factor	PV	
0-1	83	.9754	81	.9516	79	.9286	77	
1-2	115	.9278	107	.8611	99	.7993	92	
2-3	138	.8826	122	.7791	108	.6879	95	
3-4	138	.8395	116	.7050	97	.5921	82	
4-5	138	.7986	110	.6379	88	.5096	70	
5-6	138	.7596	105	. 5772	80	.4386	61	
6-7	138	.7226	100	.5223	72	.3775	52	
7-8	138	.6874	95	.4726	65	.3250	45	
6-9	138	.6538	90	.4276	59	. 2797	39	
9-10	138	.6219	86	.3869	53 `	.2407	33	
	1,302		1,012		800		646	

;

(2) Discounted Cash Plow (10 year life); $T_0 = 1/1/62^{-1}$

b. 10% in fixed capital

This variation applies only to future fixed capital, and associated depreciation tax credits. There is no uncertainty in the initial tax book value and existing depreciation credits. The future investments are \$350M in 1962 for a technical service laboratory, and \$100M for plant modernization. An additional \$750M plant modernization is required in 1965. Assume these new investments are depreciated using 10-year SYD. Ignore the half-year convention sometimes used in determining first year depreciation.

(1) Cash Flow Changes, \$M

	Fixed	Depreciation 7	Depreciation Tax Credits		
	<u>Capital</u>	1962 Invest.	1965 Invest.	Cash Flow	
0-1 (1962)	(450)	44		(406)	
1-2		40		40	
2-3		35		35	
3-4 (1965)	(750)	31	74	(645)	
4-5		27	66	93	
5~6		22	59	61	
6-7		18	52	70	
7-8		13	44	57	
8-9		9	37	46	
9-10		4	73*		
		243	405	(552)	

*Tax Credit on undepreciated balance, at project termination.

⁽²⁾ Discounted Cash Flow Using Table B₁ as before gives the following present value results, based on a 10% change in the above cash flow, and summation of the yearly present values.

	Cash	5%		10%		15%	
	Flow	Pactor	_ PV	Pactor	ÞV	Factor	PV
0⊶1	83	.9754	81	.9516	79	.9286	77
1-2	115	.9278	107	.8611	99	.7993	92
2-3	138	.8826	122	.7791	108	.6879	95
3-4	138	.8395	116	.7050	97	.5921	82
4-5	138	.7986	110	.6379	88	.5096	70
5-6	138	.7596	105	. 5772	80	.4386	61
6-7	138	.7226	100	, 5223	72	.3775	52
7-8	138	.6874	95	.4726	65	.3250	45
6-9	138	.6538	90	.4276	59	.2797	39
9-10	138	.6219	86	. 3869	53	.2407	33
	1,302		1,012		800		646

(2) Discounted Cash Flow (10 year life); $T_0 = 1/1/62$

b. 10% in fixed capital

This variation applies only to future fixed capital, and associated depreciation tax credits. There is no uncertainty in the initial tax book value and existing depreciation credits. The future investments are \$350M in 1962 for a technical service laboratory, and \$100M for plant modernization. An additional \$750M plant modernization is required in 1965. Assume these new investments are depreciated using 10-year SYD. Ignore the half-year convention sometimes used in determining first year depreciation.

(1) Cash Flow Changes, \$N

	Fixed	Depreciation	Tax Credits	Net
	<u>Capital</u>	1962 Invest.	1965 Invest.	<u>Cash Flow</u>
0-1 (1962)	(450)	44		(406)
1-2		40		40
2-3		35		35
3-4 (1965)	(750)	31	74	(645)
45		27	66	93
5-6		22	59	81
6-7		18	52	70
7-8		13	44	57
8-9		9	37	46
9-10		. 4	73*	77
		243	405	(552)

*Tax Credit on undepreciated balance, at project termination.

Using Table B_1 as before gives the following present value results, based on a 10% change in the above cash flow, and summation of the yearly present values.

⁽²⁾ Discounted Cash Flow

II. Development of B₁ Sensitivities

- a. +1¢/Lb. margin increase
 - (1) Cash Plow Changes

21 MM CD.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= \$ 97 M
28 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= \$129 м
37 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= \$170 M
46 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= 212 M
50 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= 230 M
	21 MM Lb. 28 MM Lb. 37 MM Lb. 46 MM Lb. 50 MM Lb.	21 MM Lb. x 1¢/Lb. x .46 28 MM Lb. x 1¢/Lb. x .46 37 MM Lb. x 1¢/Lb. x .46 46 MM Lb. x 1¢/Lb. x .46 50 MM Lb. x 1¢/Lb. x .46

(2) Discounted Cash Flow Note: $t_0 = 1/1/62$ Use Table B as before, with the same reference point as for Plastic A, to permit adding sensitivity present values for both plastics use a 15 year economic life. The resultant present values are:

_	01	<u></u>	10%	154
SM 3	139	1930 '	1250	825

b. +10% of fixed capital.

In order to show the maximum effect, it is also assumed that the initial \$1,500 MM royalty payment is subject to this uncertainty, and has been included. In real life the analyst could check to see if the license terms were firm or not. Calculating of this sensitivity and excluding the royalty payment is also acceptable.

(1) Cash Flow Changes

The fixed capital and depreciation allowance are therefore taken directly from the pro forma P&L for Plastic B_1 . In any year the investment cash flow is the algebraic sum of the fixed investment outlay and 54 per cent of the depreciation.

(2) Discounted Cash Flow
 Use Table B₁ and 17 years of cash flow effects.
 Por a 10 per cent change, the resultant present values are:

			06	54			15%	P <u>o</u> : di	<u>iticient</u> fficient		
		\$M	(545)	(671)) (741)	ť	779)	194 (5) (6)	» origin uning th		
c.	-20% in	vol	ume.	(Plant	capacity is	50MM	Lb./Yr.)	-) 3	heighter scessed	54 18	
					<u>1964</u>	<u>1965</u>	<u>1966</u>	1967	. 1 <u>968</u> m	2 <u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>
Origi	lnal Sal	65 P	orecast,	MM Lb.	21	28	37	46	50	50	
Slow.	Growth	Fore	cast, MM	Lb.	17	22	30	37	46	50	
Lost	Sales				4	6	7	9	- 4	0	
Memo:	: Origi W/O C	nal apac	Porecast ity Limi	t	21	28	37	46	57	70	

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Page J5

II. Development of B1 Sensitivities

- a. +1¢/Lb. margin increase
 - (1) Cash Flow Changes

1964	21 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= \$ 97 M
1965	28 MM Lb.	x 1¢/Lb. x .46	= \$129 M
1966	37 MM Lb.	x 10/Lb. x .46	= \$170 M
1967	46 MM Lb.	x 10/Lb. x .46	= 212 M
1968+	50 MM Lb.	x 10/Lb. x .46	¥ 230 M

(2) Discounted Cash Flow Note: $t_0 = 1/1/62$ Use Table B as before, with the same reference point as for Plastic A, to permit adding sensitivity present values for both plastics use a 15 year economic life. The resultant present values are:

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	0.	51	101	15%
¢м	2120	1020	1260	0.75
9 M	3130	1320	1430	823

b. +10% of fixed capital.

In order to show the maximum effect, it is also assumed that the initial \$1,500 MM royalty payment is subject to this uncertainty, and has been included. In real life the analyst could check to see if the license terms were firm or not. Calculating of this sensitivity and excluding the royalty payment is also acceptable.

(1) Cash Flow Changes

5M

The fixed capital and depreciation allowance are therefore taken directly from the pro forma P&L for Plastic B_1 . In any year the investment cash flow is the algebraic sum of the fixed investment outlay and 54 per cent of the depreciation.

(2) Discounted Cash Flow
 Use Table B₁ and 17 years of cash flow effects.
 For a 10 per cent change, the resultant present values are:

0	5%	101	15%	
(545)	(671)	(741)	(779)	

c. -20% in volume. (Plant capacity is 50MM Lb./Yr.)

		<u>1964</u>	<u>1965</u>	1966	<u>1967</u>	<u>1968</u>	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>
Original Sales Forecast,	MM Lb.	21	28	37	46	50	50	
Slow Growth Forecast, M	A LD.	17	22	30	37	46	50	
Lost Sales		4	6	7	. 9		0	
Memo: Original Forecasi W/O Capacity Limi	t Lt	21	28	37	46	57	70	

The results are:

	<u>Change in Return</u>	<u>Rate of Return</u>
Original Evaluation		46.7
Higher Tax Rate	1.9	
4-year shorter life	0.1	
Revised Original Evaluation		44.7
Increased Costs	1.9	
Idle Capacity	5.7	
Price Decline	5,5	
Actual Result		31.6

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The original Plastic A project was justified by a calculated 1.5 year payout. Although no discounted cash flow calculation was made at the time, enough data exist to estimate an approximate value. The rate of return calculation is very sensitive to the investment pattern assumed, at the high discount rates involved. The original evaluation, as calculated here with a 46.7 PI assumes the same one and one-half year investment pattern as actually reported. Other reasonable investment patterns are also acceptable. The extreme and erroneous assumption of all investment at time zero gives a 74 per cent PI.

Two adjustments are made to the original evaluation before calculating the impact of operating performance. First, the tax rate increased from 30 per ent to 54 per cent in the fourth year of operation. Also, the PIA calculation assumes the original project, without aggressive marketing, would be abandoned by January 1, 1962, giving an 11-year life instead of the 15 years originally expected. (This assumption is justified by the previous economic analysis which showed only a 7.0 PI for continuing as is, for one year.) The effects of the higher tax rate and shorter life are very small at these high discount rates as future years are less important to project profitability.

The very high original estimates with their assumptions of constant price and capacity sales, do not conform to real life, in a normal competitive environment. In fact, the actual result is still very good and was possible primarily because of a high price in the early years. It appears that the original decision to produce Plastic A was a good one, and historic profitability is excellent in spite of the subsequent mistakes made by management.

The order used in making the adjustments to the original evaluation will have no effect on the calculated actual result, but does to some extent affect the change in return calculated for each element. Thus, if effect of price declines was calculated first, and increase in costs, last, the change in return because of price declines would have been slightly greater and the effect of increased costs, correspondingly less.

The cash flow tables for each of the new cases are shown in Appendix Tables A-6 through A-10.

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Table A-7

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Plastic A-+Post Installation Appraisal

Condensed Profit & Loss Statement, \$M

Step 2 -- Original Evaluation with Tax Rate Changes

					Taxable		Net		invest.	ment		
	Time	Net	Cesh		Net	Tax	Profit	Cesh	Fixed	Norking	Cas <u>h</u> P	roceeds
<u>Y ear</u>	Period	Sales	Costs	Deprec.	Income	Rate, %	<u>_ A/T</u>	Return	Cep.	Ctp.	Annuel	Cumulative
1949	0-1								(3,063)		(3,063)	(3,063)
1950	1-2								(1,537)		(1,537)	(4,600)
1951	2-3	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	38%	4,021	4.328		(1,315)	3,013	(1,587)
1952	3-4	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	38%	4,021	4,328			4.328	2,741
1953	4-5	10,500	3,708	307	6,415	38%	4,021	4 128			4,325	7,059
1954	5-6	10,500	3,708	307	6.435	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	10,359
1955	6-7	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	13,64\$
1956	7-8	10,500	3.704	307	6.485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	16,939
1957	. 8-9	10,500	3.708	307	6.485	54%	2,983	3,290			3.290	20.229
1958	9-10	10.500	3,708	307	6.485	5496	2,983	3,190			3,290	23.519
1959	10-11	10,500	3.70	307	6.485	54%	2,983	3,290			3.290	26,809
1960	11-12	10.500	3,208	307	6.465	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	30.099
1961	12-13	10.500	3.708	307	6.485	54%	2.983	3,290	-		3.290	33,389
1962	13-14	10.500	3,709	307	6.485	54%	2.983	3,290			3.290	36.679
1963	14-15	10.500	3,708	307	6.485	54%	2.983	3,290			3.790	39,969
1984	15-16	10,500	3,708	307	6.485	54%	2.983	3 290			3.290	43.259
1965	16-17	10.500	3.768	302	6.490	54%	2.985	3,287			3.287	48.546
End										1,315	1,315	47,861
		157,500	55,620	4,600	97,280		47,861	52,461	(4,600)	¢	47,861	

Note Keep all assumptions the same as in original evaluation, except for tax rate change.

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Table A-7

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Plastic A -- Post Instattation Appraisal

Condensed Profit & Loss Statement, \$M

Step 2--Original Evaluation with Tax Rate Changes

					Taxable		Net		Invest	ment		
	Time	Net	Cash		Net	Tax	Profit	Cash	Fixed	working	Cash_P	roceeds
Year	Period	Sales	Costs	Depree.	Income	Rate, %	<u>A/T</u>	Return	<u>Cep</u>	Cep.	Annual	Complative
1949	0-1								(3,063)		(3,063)	(3,063)
1950	1-2								(1.537)		(1,537)	(4,600)
1951	2-3	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	38%	4,021	4,328		(1,315)	3,013	(1,587)
1952	3-4	10,500	3,708	307	. 6,485	38%	4,021	4,328			4,328	2,741
1953	4-5	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	38%	4,021	4,328			4,328	7,069
1954	5-6	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,961	3,290			3,290	10,359
1955	6-7	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	13,649
1956	7-8	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	18,939
1957	· 8-9	10,500	J ,708	307	6.485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	20,229 -
1958	9-10	10.500	3.TD8	307	6.485	54%	1,983	3,290			3,290	23,529
1959	10-11	10.500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	26,809
1960	11-12	10.500	3.708	307	8,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	30,099
1961	12-13	10,500	3,768	397	6,465	54%	2,983	3,290	-		3,200	33,369
1962	13-14	10,500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	36,679
1963	14-15	10.500	3,708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,290	39,969
1964	13-16	10,500	3.708	307	6,485	54%	2,983	3,290			3,280	43,259
1965	16-17	10,500	3,708	302	6,490	54%	2,985	3,287			3,287	46,548
End										1,3)5	1,315	47,861
		1\$7,500	55 ,620	4,600	97 ,280		47,861	52,461	(4,600)	0	47,861	

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Note Keep all assumptions the same as in original evaluation, except for tax rate change.

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Effect of Timing Assumption on PI

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Continuing Plastic A Manufacture One More Year

			Trial F	Rate	With Linear Interpolation
Time	Cash Flow	Table	5%	10%	. (Approx.)
			F PV	F PV	
-0	(1595)	-	1.000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	PI = 13.1
1962	1702	С	.9754 1660	.9516 1620	
1963	·_				
	107		65	25	
0	(1595)	_	1.000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	
1962	267	С	.9754 260	. 9516 254	PI = 5.4
1963	1435	В	.9278 <u>1</u> 331	.8611 1236	=
	107		(4)	(105)	
0	(1595)	-	1,000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	
1962	267	С	.9754 260	.9516 254	
L	1435	A	.9512 1364	.9048 1298	PI = 7.0
	107		29	(43)	

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Effect of Timing Assumption on PI

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Continuing Plastic A Manufacture One More Year

	Cash Flow	Table	Trial Rate		With Linear Interpolation
<u>Time</u>			5%	108	(Approx.)
			F PV	F PV	
0	(1595)	-	1.000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	PI = 13.1
1962	1702	С	.9754 1660	.9516 1620	
1963	107		65		
0	(1595)	-	1.000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	
1962	267	С	.9754 260	.9516 254	PI = 5.4
1963	1435	8	.9278 1331	.8611 1236	
	107		(4)	(105)	
0	(1595)	-	1,000 (1595)	1.000 (1595)	
1962	267	С	.9754 260	.9516 254	
1	1435	A	.9512 1364	.9048 1298	PI = 7.0 ·
	107		29	(43)	





Beever due (upreur)	36						
Requesting Approval	The second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second se						
Negulast for Request for	Appropriation Dite						
	Appa. AG.						
Ser Gen. Off. Capitai Investo	ents (0a, b, c) S 11, 900 ESt. NO.						
ixtg. Fleid Mgr. Loans	(od) <u>s</u> Requesting Location						
ALD [] Other [] Lease Commitmen	ts (6f) \$						
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
1. Project Title							
and Location Plastic A & B Expansion Program							
2. Description							
of Construct 50 MM 1b./yr. Plastic B Plant using purchased know-how							
Proposal . Construct Technical Service Lab	o for Plastic A and Plastic B						
3. Purpose of I case Profits X By: B	Intering new market						
Expenditure Maintain Profits X N	lodernize existing plant and improve						
Other . F	wrketing						
4. Tiping:	5. Effect of Delay in Approval:						
Construction Period <u>18</u> aos.							
Estimated Start-up Date	Lost competitive position and profits						
Sotimated Useful Life 15 yrs.							
Term of Lease or Loan yrs.	<u> </u>						
6. Funds Appropriated:	9. Description of Base Case Against Which						
a. Depreciable Capital \$ 11,950	PI is Calculated:						
b. Non-Depreciable Fixed Capital \$0							
c. Costs Expensed \$	A - Versus getting out of business						
d. Loans 5 0	B - Versus Doing Nothing						
e. Total Initial Investment \$ 11,950							
f. Lease Commitments (Disc. @ 5%) \$	10. Profitability Index: B 13.1						
7. Associated Investments:	a. Sensitivities A <u>14.3</u>						
a. Change in Current Assets 💲	· Likely Total 13.2						
b. Change in Current Liabilities \$	Variation Change in Pl						
:. Change in Net Working Capital \$ 2,880	in Value <u>A B</u> TOTAL						
d. Other Commitments (Disc. @ 5%) \$	Investment $+102 -0.3(-0.6)(-0.5)$						
e. Contingent Liabilities \$	Price $+1c/1b$, $+6,1+1,2+1,7$						
f. Possible Future Investments \$ /SUM	Volume -207 -3.4 -1.6 -1.8						
d. Present Facilities:	Savings						
a. Approximate Age 11 yrs.	· Project Life						
b. Approximate Original Cost \$ 4,600 M							
c. Salvage Value \$ 1,228 M	• 1 'r;						
d. Dismantling Cost \$ 0							
11. Lifect on P&L and Rate of Return:	·						
(M Dollars except as noted)	Project Year						
Pre-Start 1	2 3 4 5 6-10 11-15 16-20 20+						
Profit After Taxes							
Cumulative Cash Position							
Average Investment							
Book Rate of Return - 5							
R of R w/Disc. Commit %	NOT APPLICABLE						
12. Related Appropriations Either Recently Autho	prized 13. Budget Status:						
or to be Requested:							
None] Item L-6. \$10 MM						
14. Becarks: Plastic B is attractive in its own right Bunchased browbart is an formal							
continue development of Loco's process in suite of bistor formation and and the							
i							
3 more years, forcing a market entry under much more competitive serviciant. Based of							
significantly lower sales prices and a close	or sales builden the actions. Because of						
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Requesting Approval	· · · · ·						
Dept.: Required: Request for a	Appropriation Dite						
Mrg. X Board	Арря. No						
S&T Gen. Off Capital Investme	ents (6a, 5, c) \$ 11,950M Est. No						
Yktg. Field Mgr. Loans	(pd) \$ Requesting Location						
ALD [Other Lease Commitment	ts (6f) \$						
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
1. Project Title	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
and Location Plustic A & B Expansion Program							
2. Description							
of Construct 50 MM lb./yr. Plastic B Plant using purchased know-how							
Proposal , Construct Technical Service Lab for Plastic A and Plastic B							
3. Purpose of I. case Profits X By: Entering new market							
Expenditure Maintain Profits X M	odernize existing plant and improve						
Other . m	arketing						
4. Tining:	5. Effect of Delay in Approval:						
Construction Period 18 mos.							
Estimated Start-up Date 1/1/64	Lost competitive position and profits						
Estimated Userul Life <u>15</u> yrs.	Į						
Term of Lease or Loan yrs.							
o. runis Appropriated:	9. Description of Base Case Against Which						
a. Lepreciable Capital \$ 11,950	PI is Calculated:						
b. Non-Depreciable Fixed Capital \$ 0	•						
c. Costs Expensed \$_0	A - Versus getting out of business						
d. Loans <u>5</u> 0	B - Versus Doing Nothing .						
e. Total Initial Investment							
1. Lease Commitments (Disc. 8 51) \$	10. Profitability Index: B 13.1						
7. Associated Investments:	a. Sensitivities A $\frac{14.3}{11}$						
a. Change in Current Assets	Likely Total 13,2						
b. Change in Current Liabilities \$	Variation Change in Pl						
. Change in Net Working Capital \$ 2,880	$\frac{1n \text{ Value}}{2}$ $\frac{A}{2}$ $\frac{B}{2}$ $\frac{B}{2}$ $\frac{B}{2}$						
d. Other Commitments (Disc. @ 5%) \$	Investment $+10\%$ $-0.31-0.6(-0.5)$						
e. Contingent Liabilities S	$\frac{+1c/1b}{-+1c/1b} + \frac{+b}{-1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac$						
f. Possible Future Investments 3 750M	Volume -20π $-3.4[-1,6]-1.8$						
O. Present Facilities:	Savings						
a. Approximate Ageyrs.	Project Life						
5. Approximate Original Cost \$ 4,600 M	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
c. Salvage Value 5 1,228 M							
a. 015mantling Cost 5 0							
(K Dalland and Rate of Return;	linet-at York						
(" tortals except as noted}	2 2 4 5 5 10 11-15 15-20 30-						
Profit After Taxes							
Curulative Cash Position							
Suprage Towastmant							
Brok Bata of Baturn of							
B of B w/Disc Compite d							
10 Palanad interested in Make Breather Inthe	NUT AFFEILABLE						
12. Related Appropriations Either Recently Authorized 15. Budget Status:							
	I tom 1-6 \$10.300						
	110m 1-0, \$10 m						
1/ Porte Plantin I in attraction of the							
continue development of Loop's encoded in the own right. Furchased knowhow is preferred to							
vosta. Successful completion of Loco's process development is successful completion of Loco's process development is successful to the successful completion of Loco's process development is successful to the su							
more years for the a market answer when a	as development is expected to take at least						
significantly lower sales prices, and a slower value builder, the patients by fer							
Surrequire, rower sales prices, and a slower sales buildup, the estimated PI for							

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