

ANALYSIS OF MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS  
BY SIMULATION

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by

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Information, both internal and external, provides the basis for management decisions in planning, directing, and controlling the functions of a business. In today's dynamic and complex business world, management has an increasing need for effective management information systems to improve their decision-making capability.

In an article entitled "Management in the 1980's," Harold Leavitt and Thomas Whisler speculate on the effect of what they call "information technology" on management.

To quote:

Over the last decade a new technology has begun to take hold in American business, one so new that its significance is still difficult to evaluate. While many aspects of this technology are uncertain, it seems clear that it will move into the managerial scene rapidly, with definite and far-reaching impact on managerial organization. . . .

The new technology does not yet have a single established name. We shall call it information technology. It is composed of several related parts. One includes techniques for processing large amounts of information rapidly, and it is epitomized by the high-speed computer. A second part centers around the application of statistical and mathematical methods to decision-making problems; it is represented by techniques like mathematical programming, and by methodologies like operations research. A third



part is in the offing, though its applications have not yet emerged very clearly; it consists of the simulation of higher-order thinking through computer programs.<sup>1</sup>

They conclude that management today is entering into a new and third industrial technology of the twentieth century. The first technology, scientific management, was instrumental in shaping to a great extent the design of industrial organizations. The second influential technology, participative management, came about after World War II, overtaking and displacing scientific management to a great extent. These two technologies have both survived for the reason that scientific management concentrated on the hourly worker, while participative management is generally aimed one level higher, at middle managers. Now, the new information technology has direct implications for middle management as well as top management.

A management information system is necessarily tailored to the specific requirements of the individual firm. Such an endeavor requires the application of information technology and systems methodology. The theory of systems planning or systems engineering has developed, in the last two decades, in recognition of the importance of the interaction between the components of a system. In systems

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<sup>1</sup>Harold Leavitt and Thomas Whisler, "Management In The 1980's," Harvard Business Review, XXXVI, No. 5 (November-December, 1958), pp. 41-42.

theory as applied to business systems, the firm cannot be studied merely as a collection of independent functional activities, but as a system of interconnected and related subsystems. The over-all performance of the business system is related to the degree of integration and control achieved between subsystems.<sup>2</sup>

The ultimate goal of a management information system is to provide all levels of management with adequate information for planning and decision-making needs. The information requirements for any one level of management are determined both by the organizational structure and the over-all goals of the firm.

A successful management information system is dependent upon careful analyzing, designing, and planning under the leadership of top management.

#### Statement of the Problem

In the past, management has largely failed to exploit the capabilities of modern data processing equipment and the technology of operations research and systems planning. It has been the experience of many companies that the potential of data processing equipment, especially the computer, has consistently surpassed their ability to use

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<sup>2</sup>Stanford L. Optner, Systems Analysis for Business Management (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 12-13.

it. The potential of quantitative techniques from operations research and systems planning has been realized only in limited cases, due largely to the lack of communication between the technician and management. ✓

Historically, management has considered the use of data processing systems only for cost displacement, the replacement of clerks to save money. A very common goal of such an "application" is the implementation of a mechanization program within a functional area with minimum investment of time, effort, and money. The potential benefits of a management information system would never be realized if cost-reduction were to remain the dominant criteria for the use of data processing systems. Measures of performance of an information system that assists management in the control of a business as it operates in a dynamic environment are intangible and not directly related to cost. The important measure is the effect of the information system on the over-all operation of the business. Management must rely on the techniques of the systems designer to provide a basis for analysis and evaluation of performance. ✓

This study is designed to provide information about the basic characteristics of a management information system and to present a technique for the analysis of such a system. One of the basic tools of operations research and systems engineering is simulation which has already

found numerous business applications.<sup>3</sup>

Simulation of a management information system and its related operating system promises to provide a method for the analysis and evaluation of many of the "intangible" aspects of the information system in terms of its contribution to the dynamic control of the business.

#### Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the consideration of management information systems typically found in the manufacturing industry. The model used to illustrate the simulation technique is limited to a simple, hypothetical manufacturing firm. The detailed analysis required by modeling and the computer time required to simulate the model made it infeasible to attempt a broader scope of study in the available time.

#### Importance of the Problem

The increasing complexity of modern business demands the development of better techniques for managerial decision-making. There is a pressing need to shift the emphasis in data processing from volume record keeping to the development of management information for planning and

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<sup>3</sup>Elwood S. Buffa, Models for Production and Operations Management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1963), pp. 505-506.

control.

Management information necessary to evaluate alternative paths of action can be very costly. In fact, management information systems can be a major portion of a company's operating cost. It is estimated that in American industry today, the gathering, storing, manipulating, and organizing of information for management costs as much or more than does direct factory labor.<sup>4</sup>

The effectiveness of management decision-making is dependent upon the quality and timeliness of information. Therefore, the performance of the information system is of importance to the economic health of a business.

#### Methodology

The methods for obtaining the information utilized in the preparation of this thesis were two: (1) a search through the available literature; and (2) the design and simulation of a manufacturing information model.

The review of the literature disclosed that there are few books written specifically on the subject of management information systems. The notable exception is the work of James D. Gallagher with the American Management Association which analyzes the organizational problems in

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<sup>4</sup>Marshall K. Evans and Lou H. Hague, "Master Plan for Information Systems," Harvard Business Review, XL, No. 1 (January-February, 1962), p. 92.

installing an electronic management information system.<sup>5</sup>

The American Management Association has made additional contributions to the subject in the form of special reports and bulletins. Periodicals, particularly the technical journals such as *Management Science* and *Operations Research*, were excellent sources of information on techniques of simulation and decision-making.

The manufacturing information model developed in this study was based in part on the model described by Boyd and Krasnow.<sup>6</sup> The parameters and decision rules used in the model were arbitrarily conceived as to achieve a "reasonable" operating situation that would demonstrate the use of simulation in the analysis of an information system. Simulation of the model was accomplished by the use of the IBM General Purpose Systems Simulator which was chosen as a matter of convenience over any other possible simulator. The description of the model in simulator language is shown in Appendix A.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>See James D. Gallagher, Management Information Systems and the Computer (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1961).

<sup>6</sup>D. F. Boyd and H. S. Krasnow, "Economic Evaluation of Management Information Systems," *IBM Systems Journal*, II (March, 1963), pp. 2-23.

<sup>7</sup>For a detailed description of the simulator language, see International Business Machines Corporation, General Purpose Systems Simulator, a reference manual (1963).

The actual simulation runs were made on a IBM 7044 Computer and required approximately twenty to thirty minutes of machine time to complete each run. Output from the simulator has not been included as part of the thesis due to volume and lack of readability.

#### Definition of Terms

Due to the broad usage of words and terms found in the literature, it is necessary to provide some definitions for clarity and understanding.

#### Data

Howard Levin defines data as facts or statistics which are unrelated and uninterpreted.<sup>8</sup> In an information system, data are the source documents entering the system that have not yet been processed or interpreted by the data processing system for management reporting.

#### Data Processing

The term "Data Processing" is used to denote the system of equipment, including the computer and all of its associated peripheral equipment, and people required to process data for management reporting. Data processing is an integral part of the management information system.

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<sup>8</sup>Howard S. Levin, Office Work and Automation (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 122.

### Decision-making

Management decision-making is commonly accepted as the process of selecting between alternate paths of action. Its importance in the information system depends on the characteristic of being programmable; a decision may be programmable or nonprogrammable. In reality, the decision process is a spectrum from one extreme to the other. Decisions are programmed to the extent that they are repetitive and routine, to the extent that a definite procedure has been worked out for handling them. Decisions are nonprogrammed to the extent that they are novel, unstructured, and consequential.<sup>9</sup>

### Feedback

In systems theory the concept of servo-mechanisms (or information-feedback) is a most important foundation for the analysis of the effect of time delays, amplification, and structure in a system such as a manufacturing firm. An information-feedback system exists whenever the environment leads to a decision that results in action which affects the environment and thereby influences future decisions.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Herbert A. Simon, The New Science of Management Decision (New York: Harper & Row, 1960), pp. 5-6.

<sup>10</sup>Jay W. Forrester, Industrial Dynamics (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961), p. 14.



### Forecasting

The term "forecast" is used to indicate the process of projecting the past (historical data) into the future. In contrast, management's evaluation of the factors that modify the forecast is considered "prediction."<sup>11</sup> Forecasting techniques are routine procedures that are easily programmed while predictions are judgement procedures that are not so programmable.

### Information

Mr. Levin has also defined "information" as the knowledge derived from the organization and analysis of data.<sup>12</sup> Information for management decision-making, then, is generated in the information system by data processing from source data and files of historical data and information.

### Model

The concept of a "model" as well as that of "feedback" is a most important foundation of systems theory. A well stated definition of a model by Mr. Deacon, Jr., is:

A "model" is an artificial representation of a system, process, organism, or environment designed to incorporate certain features of that system,

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<sup>11</sup>Robert G. Brown, Statistical Forecasting for Inventory Control (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1959), p. 3.

<sup>12</sup>Levin, loc. cit.

process, organism or environment according to the purposes which it is intended to serve.<sup>13</sup>

For this study the model is an artificial representation of a manufacturing firm.

### Simulation

The wide use of simulation in different fields of endeavor has given various interpretations to its meaning. For the purpose of this thesis, the definition by Deacon is used:

"Simulation," as a general field of activity, has to do with the design, building, manipulation and study of models. "A simulation" or "simulation exercise" is an experiment performed upon a model.<sup>14</sup>

In this study an analysis of the information system is made by the simulation of the manufacturing model.

### Systems Planning

In the past two decades, the formal awareness of the interactions between the parts of physical systems has led to the development of the field of "systems engineering." However, there seems to be no widely accepted field of general systems theory as applied to the complex business systems. The term "systems planning" as defined by

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<sup>13</sup>Amos R. Deacon, Jr., "Introduction," Simulation and Gaming: A Symposium, American Management Association Report No. 55 (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1961), p. 6.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid.

Ream is used to denote the application of systems theory in the analysis, design, and development of business operating systems.<sup>15</sup>

### Organization of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organized in the following manner.

In Chapter II, the basic characteristics of management information systems are presented. First, the impact of the growth of data processing on the development of integrated information systems is discussed. This is followed by the effect on the organizational structure of a business as it develops larger and more costly business information systems. Next, the effect of decision theory on management decision-making is covered. Emphasis is placed on the expected impact of "programming" lower-level management decisions. Then, the importance of the roles played by systems planning and operations research is discussed in relation to their contribution to the development of management information systems. Finally, the use of simulation as a tool of the systems planner for the design, analysis, and evaluation of business systems is described.

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<sup>15</sup>Norman J. Ream, "The Organizational Relationships of Operations Research, Systems Planning, and Data Processing," The Changing Dimension of Office Management, American Management Association Report No. 41 (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1961), p. 98.

Chapter III describes the method of creating a model of a business system under study. The concept of the information-feedback system is discussed as a basis for an underlying structure to integrate the separate facets of the management process. Next, the factory as a system is described in terms of its subsystems; (1) physical, (2) informational, and (3) environmental. Lastly, the role of the systems planner as the experimenter making the analysis or evaluation of the model is discussed.

Chapter IV describes the specific model used in this thesis to illustrate the analysis of an information system by simulation. First, the physical manufacturing system is examined in terms of its products, facilities, and resources. The information system is next described according to the functional areas composing the system. Finally, the interaction of the environment with the physical and informational systems is covered.

In Chapter V, the two simulation runs that were made to analyze and evaluate the manufacturing model are discussed in detail. Several measures of performance are shown graphically. First, the parameters of the model are covered. Then, the use of variations in the demand pattern to test the control capabilities of the information is discussed. Lastly, the results from the two simulation runs are presented.

Chapter VI essentially summarizes the findings of previous chapters. Some conclusions concerning the future of management information systems and the use of simulation are advanced.

## CHAPTER II

### BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF A MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM

The dynamics of modern business, shorter lead-time requirements, increased number and complexity of products, wider geographic distribution of products, and larger potential risks in decision-making have given rise to the need for information which quickly shows management the impact of decisions and provides the means for rapid response to changing conditions. The growing complexity both of the business enterprise and its internal management environment, and of economic, governmental, and social climate in which it exists have provided impetus to the development of "information technology."

Management informational needs cannot be answered by mechanization or data processing alone. The basic problem is the development of an integrated management structure to realize overall corporate objectives. This was emphasized by Peter F. Drucker when he wrote:

We need to know how to 'translate' from business needs, business results and business decisions into functional capacity and specialized effort. There

is, after all, no functional decision, there is not even functional data, just as there is not functional profit, no functional loss, no functional investment, no functional risk, no functional customer, no functional product and no functional image of a company. There is only a unified company product, risk, investment, and so on, hence only company performance and company results. Yet at the same time the work obviously has to be done by people each of whom has to be specialized. Hence for a decision to be possible, we must be able to integrate divergent individual knowledges and capacities into one organization potential; and for a decision to be effective, we must be able to translate it into a diversity of individual and expert, yet focused effort.<sup>1</sup>

To adequately discuss the characteristics of a management information system, the impact of data processing, the changing corporate organizational structure, the increasingly complex management decision-making problem, and the role of the systems planner and operations research must be described.

#### Impact of Data Processing

The impact of data processing can best be shown by reviewing its growth in the past decade. During the period from April, 1951, when the world's first large-scale data processing system was installed by the United States Bureau of the Census, to the first of 1961, over 10,000 computer systems were installed for the use of government and industry. At the same time related peripheral input-output,

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<sup>1</sup>Peter F. Drucker, "Long-Range Planning, Challenge to Management Science," Management Science, V, No. 3 (April, 1959), pp. 247-248.

display, and communication equipment were installed.

For the most part, these computer systems were installed for "specific applications" within a functional area of a business; their use was identified and justified to handle a specified functional task. The use of data processing equipment has historically been for clerical cost-reduction by the application of the equipment to the same problem by handling the data more rapidly, accurately and at a lower cost.

Faced with increasingly more complex operating problems, management has recently paid more concern to the integration of old applications into a single processing system. This has introduced new concepts of organization structure, reduced duplication of effort, and generated sizable cost savings, and, perhaps the most important of all, provided the capability of programming low-level managerial decision-making. In industry, the emphasis has been on the development of inventory and production control systems. Such systems, though limited in scope, begin to approximate management information systems, since they do produce documents for the use in current operations and also information for planning and control. The use of data processing for operational control purposes does represent an advantageous use of equipment and personnel and can provide the base for developing and implementing a more



sophisticated management information system.<sup>2</sup>

As data processing has grown in its use, management has begun to visualize the opportunity to reduce to orderly relationships the functions of the business and to provide integrated information systems to handle many of the activities which involve not only clerical work but also some lower-level managerial decisions.

The impact of data processing on management and on organizational structures has been of major consequence. Hardly ever before has there been a single factor that has had the powerful effect on the business world that data processing has had over the past decade and is expected to have in the coming decade.<sup>3</sup>

#### The Changing Organizational Structure ✓

The structure of an organization and its information requirements are closely linked as the structure reflects the organizational processes of decision-making and flows of information used to make decisions. The technology of working out decisions on predetermined and programmed rules implies changes in content of many managerial

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<sup>2</sup>James D. Gallagher, Management Information Systems and the Computer (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1961), p. 34.

<sup>3</sup>Gabriel N. Stilian, "EDP and Profit Making," Control Through Information, American Management Association Bulletin No. 24 (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1963), pp. 42-44.

jobs and in structural characteristics of the business organization.

When one considers the impact of a management information system across all functional areas of a business, it becomes evident that it is necessary that a top management function has to be added to the corporate organization structure which can implement, direct, coordinate, communicate, and integrate the informational flow to all levels of the corporate structure. In addition, the development of the top management function is a most important factor in influencing others within the corporate body to think in terms of an ultimate management information system. ✓  
✓  
✓  
✓

When data processing was first used in industry, the equipment was almost invariably placed under the control of the financial officer for accounting applications. However, the range of applications were soon found to far exceed the limits of the accounting system. The management of the data processing service within a company has extended far beyond the technical problems of converting older methods to a computer or of providing machine time for various parts of the corporation that have their own programs. The attention of management has begun to shift from data processing itself to the integrated systems that data processing equipment make possible.

In companies with extensive computer experience,

several shifts in organizational structure have typically occurred. Almost without exception, responsibility for the data processing function has risen in importance within the accounting organization. The establishment of a separate data processing department has been only the first step. Usually the increasingly technical capability required to take advantage of the rapidly growing potential in integrated information systems has soon led to the creation of a key position near the top of the financial structure.

Lately, some corporations have decided that the task of designing and operating the management information system is one that deserves a top level position outside the financial organization structure. There is emerging a new kind of corporate staff concerned exclusively with systems and analytical methods for decision-making. "Management service" is a name frequently used to describe this new function.<sup>4</sup>

#### Improved Management Decision-Making

The primary function of management is to make the decisions that determine the future course of action for the business over the short and long term. These decisions have to do with every conceivable organizational and

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<sup>4</sup>Douglas J. Axsmith, "A Management Look at Data Processing: Promise, Problem, and Profit," Total Systems (Detroit: American Data Processing, Inc., 1962), p. 10.

physical problem; they may deal with markets and marketing channels, financial planning, personnel procurement policies, alternative plans for expanding production facilities, policies for material procurement, labor control and so on. More often than not the decisions involved cut across functional lines.

Decision theory is directed toward determining how rational decisions ought to be made. It attempts to establish a logical framework for decision that correlates science and the world of models with the real world for various alternative lines of action. These decisions are concerned with every thing that takes place in the organization. For day-to-day operating or repetitive decisions, a set of decision rules make possible continuity and smooth operations, for example the decision rule which determines the amount of material to be ordered at one time. Larger-scale decisions, such as the determination of an over-all plan for expansion, or the decision to float a new bond issue, employ the same general concepts of decision theory, but occur only occasionally.

In making decisions, the manager selects from a set of alternatives what is considered to be the best course of action. To judge which of the alternatives is best, however, he must have criteria and values that measure the relative worth of the alternatives, and a system for

forecasting the performance of the alternative courses of action. These elements, taken together, form the basis for a decision criterion which balances the desirable and undesirable characteristics of the alternatives. The difficulties come in establishing the comparability of the various criteria that may conflict and in determining the future performance of the alternate paths of action.

Science in management has grown rapidly, yet poor communication between the management scientist and the operating management tends to introduce a lag in the actual use of known methods, as in the case of decision theory.

One strong branch of management science view management in its decision-making function, attempting to reduce as many decisions as possible to a set of automatic decision rules programmable on a computer. This development is directed toward the determination of how decisions ought to be made.

Models and model building are integral parts of formal decision theory. Models are the mechanism by which predictions of performance of a process or system are made and they may be the basis of valuable control mechanisms. When criteria and values tend to be objective and when the models are good predictors, decisions based on them seem scientific, almost automatic. On the other hand, when criteria and values are vague and where quantitative aspects of models can account for only a portion of the

problem, decisions rest heavily on judgement and experience.<sup>5</sup>

The nature of managerial decision-making, the degree to which it can be programmed, is a major consideration in the design of an information system. Low-level, repetitive, and routine decisions have already been replaced in the information system by computer programmed instructions. It is in the area of novel, unstructured decisions that procedural techniques have yet to be developed.

An effective management information system improves the managerial decision-making by: (1) timeliness of information, (2) quality of information, (3) wider range of alternatives, and (4) paths of action oriented to the over-all goals of the business.

#### The Role of Systems Planning and Operations Research

In the past few years there has been rapid and extensive progress in the application of quantitative techniques to the analysis of management information problems. Considerable confusion does exist today as to the role of systems planning and operations research as they relate to

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<sup>5</sup>Elwood S. Buffa, Models for Production and Operations Management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1963), pp. 6-12.

the development of information systems. Are systems planning (often referred to as systems engineering or systems analysis) and operations research the same or are they different?

"Operations research" has been defined as "a scientific methodology--analytical, experimental, quantitative--which, by assessing the over-all implications of various alternative courses of action in a management system, provides an improved basis for management decisions."<sup>6</sup> In contrast, "systems planning" has been defined as "that staff work which is concerned with research, analysis, development, simplification, and establishment of operating systems and procedures."<sup>7</sup>

Systems planning at the very least employs the techniques of operations research. It has adopted many of the statistical techniques of operations research and as a result a large number of business problems have been exposed to solution via the "scientific method."

Systems planning tends to be business oriented to

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<sup>6</sup>John W. Pocock, "Operations Research: A Challenge to Management," Operations Research: A Basic Approach, American Management Association Special Report No. 13 (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1956), p. 9.

<sup>7</sup>Norman J. Ream, "The Organizational Relationships of Operations Research, Systems Planning, and Data Processing," The Changing Dimensions of Office Management, American Management Association Report No. 41 (New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1961), p. 98.

better communicate with management. The great expectations of operations research have to some extent fallen into the gulf that exists between the scientific and business worlds. The complexity of problem solving tools, the vocabulary of mathematics, and the inability to translate these into simple ideas has contributed to lower realization of operations research programs. Thus, the business trained systems planner may be called upon to bring the tools of operations research to management's attention, to bridge the gap of communication.<sup>8</sup>

Systems planning in business may or may not be applied through the use of mathematical techniques. Systems planning and operations research share a common methodology by defining an objective method of problem solving. However, though they may seem quite similar in many respects there are distinct differences.

Operations research is usually concerned with the operation of an existing system, including both men and machines. Typically, operations research looks at military operations, supermarkets, factories, farms, etc., and examines specific functions within these operations such as inventory control, distribution of raw and finished materials, waiting lines and advertising. The objective is to

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<sup>8</sup>Stanford L. Optner, Systems Analysis for Business Management (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 162-166.



optimize, or to make better use of materials, energies, people and machines already in existence and at hand.

In contrast, systems planning emphasizes the planning and design of new systems to better perform existing operations or to implement operations, functions or services never before performed. The concern is with the system as a whole and not particularly the optimization of any one part. In recent years, the systems planner has gained considerable skill and experience in the development and installation of source data-acquisition, data-transmission, and data processing systems.

For the development of the complete, integrated management information system, the team approach with top management, operations research, and systems planning working effectively together presents the most promising method to attack and solve the informational problem.<sup>9</sup>

#### Use of Simulation for Analysis

Simulation is a powerful technique for the study of management systems, whether of their design and evaluation or in search for fundamental principles. The use of simulation has grown rapidly in recent years largely because of the availability of electronic computers.

Some operations research people make a sharp

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<sup>9</sup>Gallagher, loc. cit., p. 39.

distinction between simulation and mathematical analysis. Mathematical analysis has proven to be a powerful technique for many problem areas. Yet it has been found to be inadequate for general analytical solutions to situations as complex as are encountered in business. The alternative is the experimental approach or the use of simulation.

To use simulation it is necessary to construct a detailed model of the business system to be studied. Such a model is a detailed description that tells how the conditions at one point in time lead to subsequent conditions at later points in time. The behavior of the model is observed, and experiments are conducted to answer specific questions about the system that is represented by the model.

With simulation models, the effects of many alternate policies can be determined without tampering with the actual physical system. The result is that there is no risk of upsetting the existing system with changes that have no assurance they would be beneficial. In a very real sense then, the common reference to simulation as management's laboratory is true.

Simulation models of operations systems have been growing rapidly and promise to become a dominant technique for assisting management in the decision-making process for day-to-day problems, as well as for comparing basic

alternatives of operating policy.<sup>10</sup>

Business and industry have already made important applications of the simulation technique, ranging from models of relatively simple waiting line situations, to models of integrated systems of production. In general, simulation is useful in situations where mathematical analysis is either too complex or too costly. Quite often, however, it is found that the problem faced is incredibly complex, because of a maze of interacting variables, or where the problem itself may be relatively simple in structure, but involves a projection of mathematical analysis into unknown areas. An example of the latter would be a simple waiting line model where the nature of the distribution of arrivals for service times does not fit the standard ones for which analytical solutions have been worked out. Simulation, then, provides an approach to many problems which could not be solved by other known techniques.

Simulation models lend themselves most readily to large, very complex problems involving subtle interrelationships that are difficult to visualize and measure. They are most applicable when the cost and profit implications of a given situation are large, and when the mass of information needed to make a decision can be quantified,

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<sup>10</sup>Buffa, loc. cit., p. 505.

put into numbers, or set within limits.

Simulation has already been demonstrated as a most valuable technique in the analysis of the dynamic behavior of a firm.<sup>11</sup> Simulation also promises to be an extremely valuable technique in the analysis and evaluation of a management information system maintaining control over the firm as it operates in a changing environment.

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<sup>11</sup>Jay W. Forrester, Industrial Dynamics (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961), pp. 13-19.

## CHAPTER III

### DESCRIPTION OF THE METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Historically, the use of data processing has been directed at mechanizing a specific functional area such as a payroll application in the accounting department. The same approach can be found in the manufacturing area where material control, inventory control, and scheduling are often treated as independent applications. In the development of an integrated information system, each functional area cannot be considered as individual and independent applications, but they must be conceived as a total integrated system. First, input data must be converted into information necessary for the planning of materials, manpower, and facilities. Second, the planning information must be communicated to the operating levels for action. Finally, the performance of the functional areas must be processed for evaluation and decision-making to feedback into the planning cycle for dynamic response to changing conditions.

Because of the dynamic character of a business, it is extremely difficult to measure the contribution of its information system in assisting management to maintain

control over the firm while operating in a changing environment. A basic premise for the analysis and evaluation of an information system is that better information will lead to better control which in turn will yield improved performance of the business. The control objective of the firm is to respond to the environmental demands in an economically efficient but competitive manner. The effectiveness of the information system in satisfying this objective may be based on the analysis of:

1. The accuracy, completeness, and timeliness with which the demand is satisfied.
2. An accounting measurement of the financial performance of the firm over a period of time in the face of changing demand.

Such measures, being more complex, are more difficult to estimate than the notion of cost displacement and requires an adequate model of the firm itself. Through simulation of the model the intangible contributions of the information system can be estimated.

The feasibility of using simulation for the analysis of an information system is best demonstrated by its application to a hypothetical firm. For this purpose a model of a manufacturing firm, which includes the basic functions of forecasting, material control, inventory control, and scheduling, is proposed. It is assumed that the

data processing part of the information system processes data in "batches" as opposed to "on-line" processing where the data are processed as they occur. In other words, the processing of data is done on a cycle (e.g., one, two, or four weeks) and the data for the cycle are processed at one time in a batch.

### The Information-Feedback System

The concept of an information-feedback system is a principal basis for an underlying structure to integrate the separate facets of the management process. It deals with the effect of time delays, amplification and structure as they relate to the dynamic behavior of a system.

Forrester defines an information-feedback system as:

An information-feedback system exists when-ever the environment leads to a decision that results in action which affects the environment and thereby influences future decisions.<sup>1</sup>

The study of feedback systems deals with the way information is used for the purpose of control. It helps to understand how the amount of corrective action and the time delays in interconnected subsystems can lead to ineffective operating performance.

Information-feedback systems owe their behavior to three characteristics--structure, delays and amplification.

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<sup>1</sup>Jay W. Forrester, Industrial Dynamics (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961), p. 14.

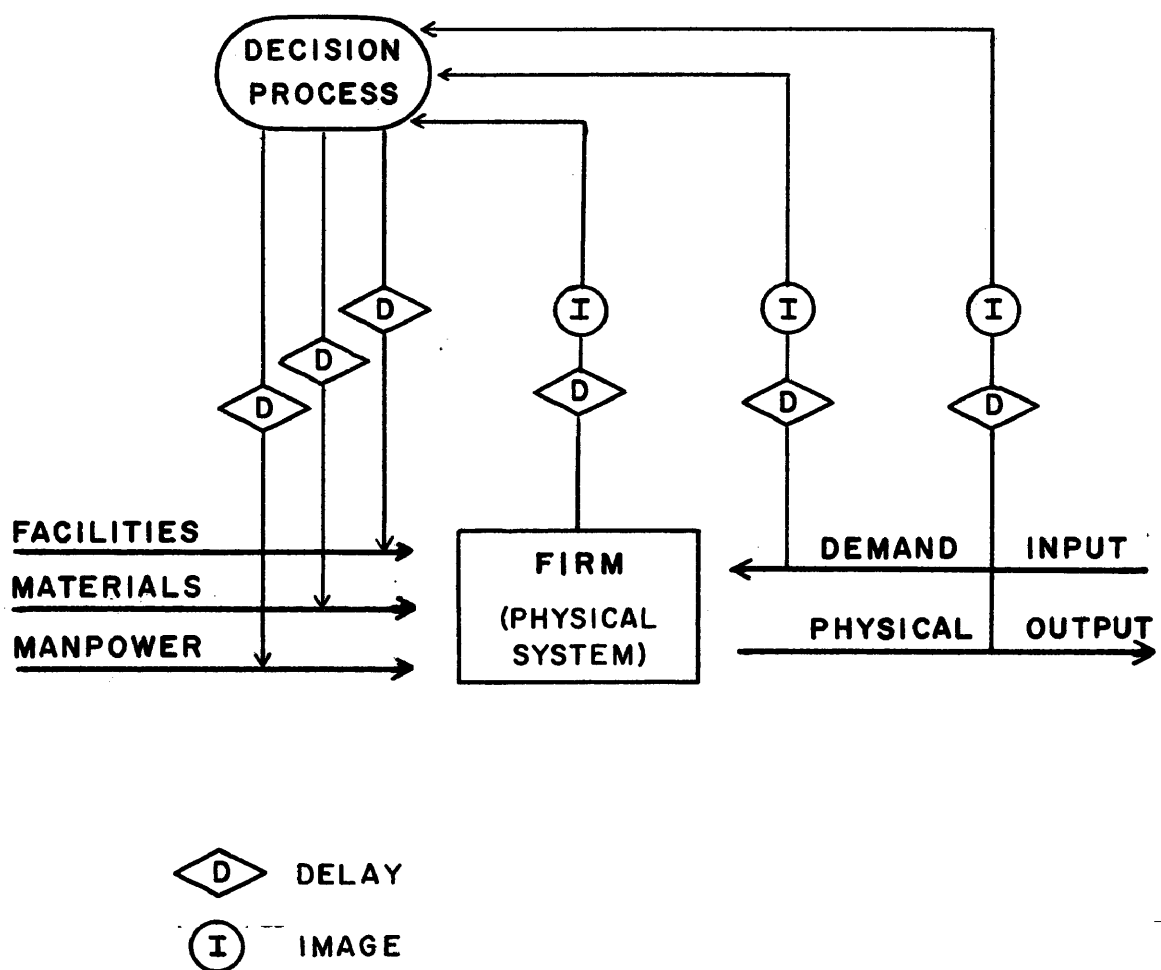
The structure of a system tells how the parts are related to one another. Delays always exist in the availability of information, in making decisions based on the information, and in taking action on the decisions. Amplification usually exists throughout such systems, especially in the decision-making processes of industrial systems. Amplification is manifested when an action is more forceful than might at first seem to be implied by the information inputs to the decision process.

In the operation of a manufacturing firm there are many feedback mechanisms employed. An example of a physical feedback system is a thermostat that receives temperature information and decides to start the furnace; this causes the temperature to rise until the temperature information tells the thermostat to stop the furnace. An example of a business feedback system is where orders and inventory levels initiate manufacturing decisions that fill the orders, correct inventories, and lead to new manufacturing decisions based on new orders. Both of the examples are information-feedback control loops. The regenerative process is continuous, and new results lead to new decisions which keep the system in continuous motion.

The diagram in Figure 1 illustrates the concept of an information-feedback system as applied to a manufacturing firm. Management decisions are based on information



FIGURE 1  
THE INFORMATION-FEEDBACK SYSTEM



regarding the rate of demand, the rate of output, and the performance of the firm. The decision process, after some time delay, makes changes in the facilities, materials and manpower available to the firm which affect the physical output. The loop is closed with the demand to the firm reacting to both the change in output and external environmental factors.

The general concepts of information-feedback systems are essential because such systems exhibit behavior as a whole which is not evident from examination of the parts separately. The pattern of system interconnection, the amplification caused by decisions and policy, the delays in actions, and the distortion in information flows combine to determine the over-all performance.<sup>2</sup>

#### The Manufacturing System

A model is defined by stating its boundaries and its subsystems. The boundary concept makes it possible to define any on-going (non-static) process as a system. It further enables the systems planner to look at the problem as a whole, and set the framework for later looking at the parts (the subsystems) in something close to their correct relationship. A model is only useful when it accurately

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<sup>2</sup>Stanford L. Optner, Systems Analysis for Business Management (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 17-19.

duplicates the behavior of the real world system. If a model does not accomplish this, it is useful only insofar as it provides information and insight into the development of a new model.

To define the boundaries of the manufacturing information model, its subsystems must be discussed.

#### Physical System

A basic manufacturing firm performs an economic function upon which its existence is based. A minimal set of activities is required in order to perform this function. The set of activities and its interrelationships compose the "physical system" which is the physical subsystem of the model.

In a manufacturing firm the elements of the physical system are the production processes and the resources which produce the end product. Typically, the manufacturing production process is "job shop" in nature, where products are fabricated and assembled intermittently in batches. The resources include all the facilities, materials and manpower required to affect the physical output from the production process.

A total representation of the manufacturing firm requires, in addition to the physical system, a second part defined as the "information system."

## Information System

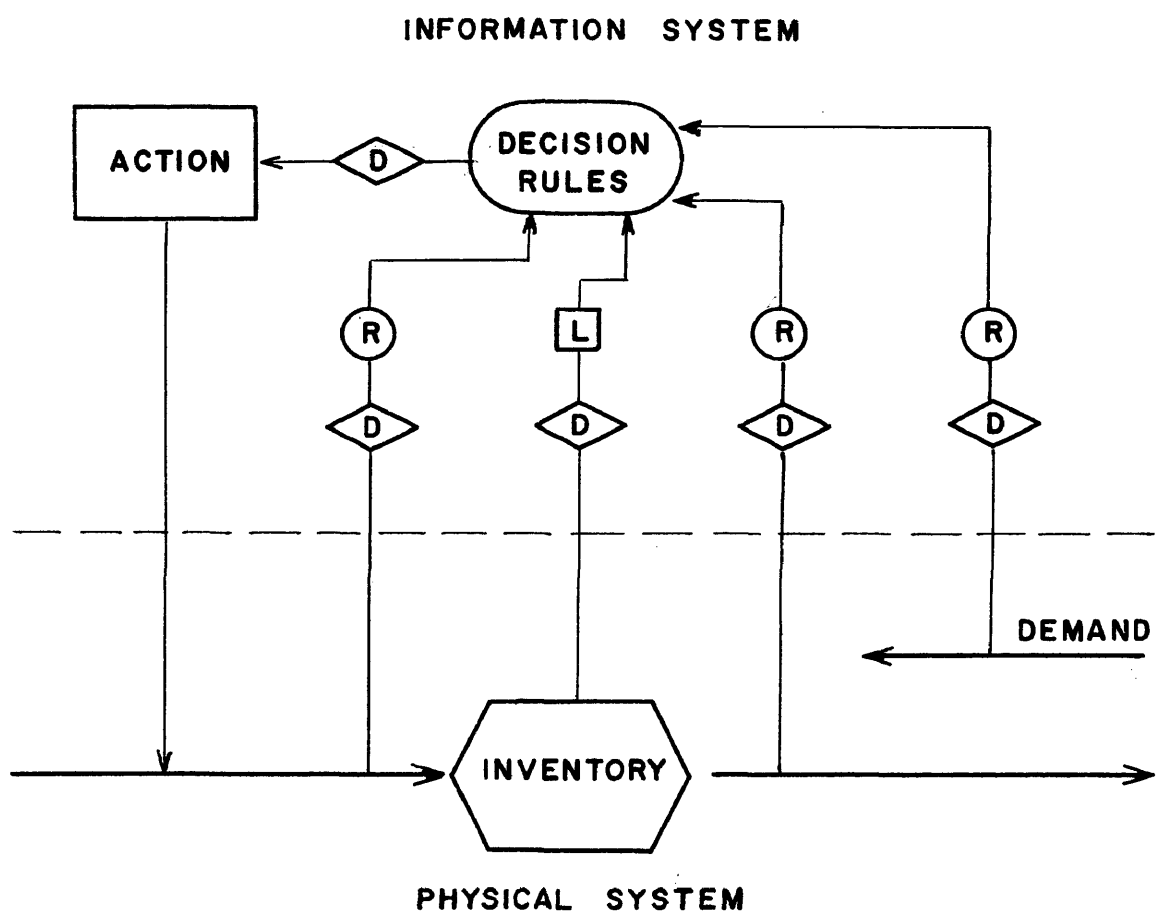
The information system encompasses all activities of the physical system whose direct or indirect function is to control the physical system. The information system is broader in concept than any existing data processing system, the latter serving as a component of the former. The information system can be represented by the following basic elements and their interrelationships.




Sensor.--This type of element originates all data input to the information system. It includes both manual and machine-generated input. It reports the occurrence of an event within the physical system (or perhaps within the environment). A segment of a physical system is shown in Figure 2. Sensors record all possible events, the receipt of material into inventory, disbursements from inventory, and the receipt of orders (demand) for inventory.

Input transmission.--Sensed data are subject to delay and/or distortion during transmission. All delays associated with input are assumed to occur at this point (i.e., sensing alone is complete, accurate and instantaneous).

Image.--The end result of data input and most conventional processing, whether machine or manual, is an image. In Figure 2, the image of the true inventory is the

FIGURE 2  
SEGMENT OF THE MANUFACTURING MODEL



-  DELAY
-  RATE IMAGE
-  LEVEL IMAGE

inventory record. Images can be classified as levels (e.g., inventory) or rates (e.g., the arrival rate of inventory requisitions). With appropriate sensors, images can be provided which describe any activity within the physical system. However, they are distorted as a result of input transmission delays and may be biased by the random or systematic loss of sensed data during transmission.

Decision process.--The decision process is a crucial element of the information system. The term is used in the broadest possible sense to encompass all management decision-making related to the control of the physical system. Decision process can function with the aid of much or little information; with information which is accurate or distorted, timely or outdated. The information upon which the decision process depends (all of the information available to it) is contained in images. The decision process has no direct contact either with the physical system or the environment. In Figure 2, the decision to order additional material for inventory utilizes images of current demand rates and the level of inventory. Some part of the decision process may be "programmable" as computer instructions.

Output transmission.--The result of a decision is a command which will ultimately produce some change in the

activities of the physical system. A single time delay is associated with both the decision-making process and the transmission of its commands. In Figure 2, the command is in the form of an order for additional material. More generally, commands take the form of an adjustment to the resources committed within the physical system. Typically, manpower would be reassigned to compensate for a change in the demand mix.

### Environment System

In addition to representing the firm in terms of the physical and information subsystems, a complete model requires explicit recognition of the interaction with its environment. In particular, it recognizes certain basic requirements (demands) which the environment places upon it and which it undertakes to satisfy. One basic measurement of the performance of the firm is the adequacy with which it satisfies these demands. The environment may also provide information inputs to the information system relevant to the future demand pattern.

For the purposes of model building, the boundary between the firm and its environment is somewhat arbitrary. The crucial distinction is between that which can and that which cannot be controlled by the firm. The former is classified within the physical system; the latter within the environment.

The environment, in the case of a manufacturing model, represents the broad economic, social, governmental, and physical factors which have an effect (input) on the business system.

#### The Role of the Experimenter

It is the function of the experimenter (usually the systems planner) to define the system, build the model, and perform the simulation studies. The experimenter exerts control over the simulation by setting the parameters for the physical system, the information system and the environment.

There are any number of measures of the performance of an operating firm and its information system (e.g., inventory levels, manpower utilization, shipments, customer order cycle time). In order to record the results of each simulation run, comprehensive observations regarding the performance of the simulated firm must be made. The reporting mechanism for accomplishing the observations has been designated the "accounting reports" because of the parallel to the role of financial accounting for performance evaluation. Cost is an important element of performance and must necessarily be considered in any over-all analysis and evaluation of the business system.

Conventional accounting procedures have been introduced for the purpose of measuring the performance of both



the physical system and its information system. The model is designed to produce reports that show data concerning the operation of the model, including data which are entirely independent of cost. It is assumed that no errors or time delays are introduced by the reporting scheme. In this sense the accounting report is perfect and provides an accurate and unbiased appraisal of the performance of the firm.

The final evaluation of the performance of the information system must include the cost of changing the parameters of the system. In other words, an improvement in the performance of the information system will normally cost more because of increased usage of data processing equipment and personnel. This cost must be balanced by the increased performance of the firm both in profit and better service.

## CHAPTER IV

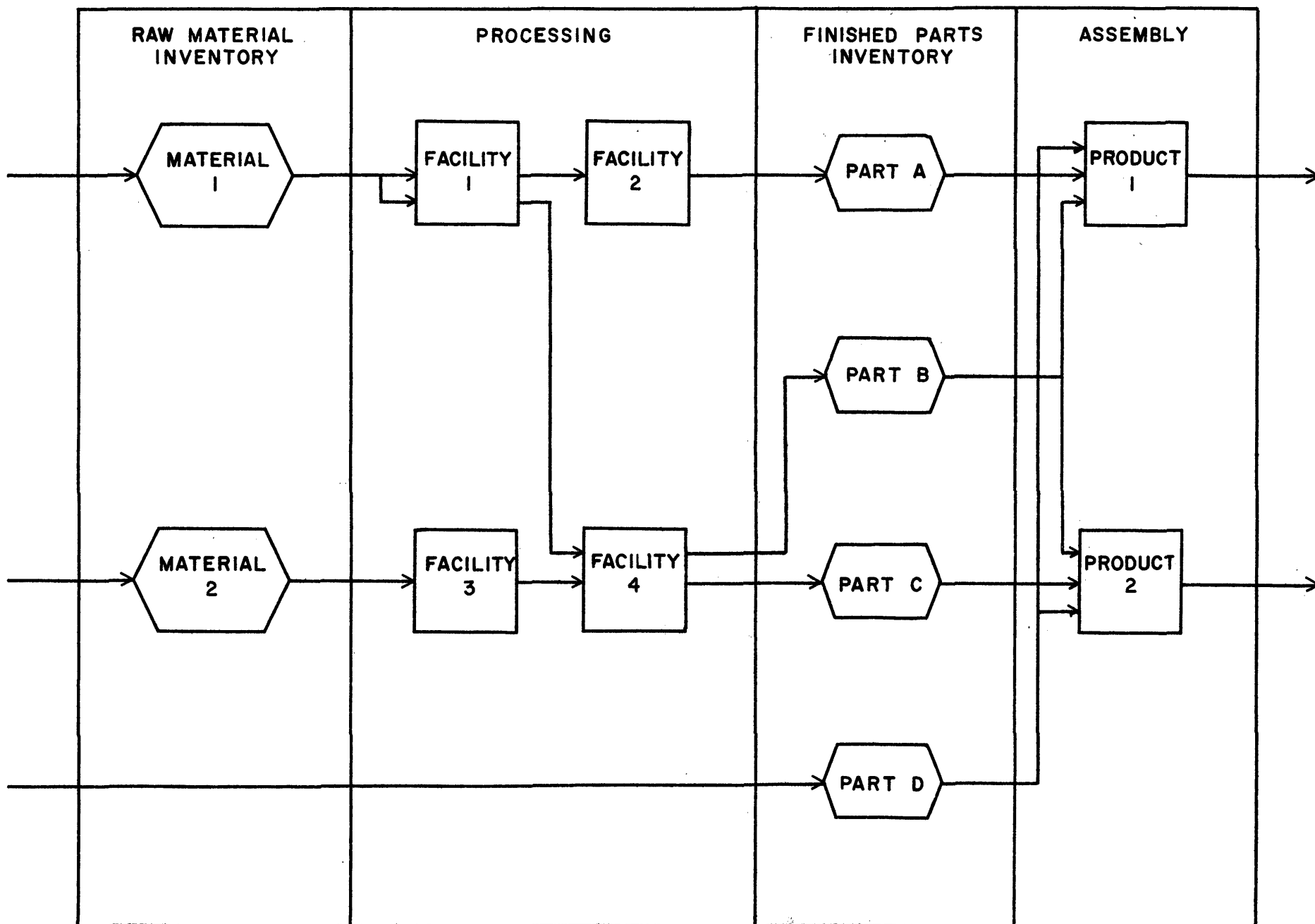
### A HYPOTHETICAL MANUFACTURING INFORMATION MODEL

To demonstrate the technique of using simulation for the analysis and evaluation of an information system, a model of a simple, hypothetical manufacturing firm was created. The model incorporates the typical data processing applications of forecasting, inventory planning, material planning, and scheduling. The model is completely arbitrary and could be readily extended or curtailed. The information delays and implementation delays are typically those found in a data processing system where data are processed in "batches."

#### The Physical System

The simple manufacturing firm shown in Figure 3 incorporates as much as possible of the dynamic complexity found in a typical manufacturing operation within a nominally simple model. Thus a basic assumption is made that the general dynamic characteristics of a system can be adequately represented without the introduction of the large number of individual elements actually present.

FIGURE 3  
THE PHYSICAL SYSTEM



The specific firm manufactures two end products, designated as Products 1 and 2. The firm assembles and ships both products to customer order. Four finished parts (Parts A, B, C, D) provide all of the components for the assembled products, in accordance with the Bills of Material shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
BILLS OF MATERIAL

Part	A	B	C	D
Product 1	1	1		1
Product 2		1	2	1

Parts B and D are common to both products, introducing a conflict situation (with its related decision problems) of the type often found in practice.

The activities of the physical system are distributed over four stages of manufacturing: (1) material control, (2) parts processing (fabrication), (3) inventory control, and (4) assembly and shipping. This introduces much of the dynamic complexity of the model, since overall response is dependent upon actions taken somewhat independently within each stage. Effective control does require planning to coordinate the activities with different stages.

The scale of an activity (e.g., time to perform, rate of occurrence, etc.) is either dependent upon other

activities and therefore determined by the simulation (for example, the number of parts in inventory); or it is a parameter of the physical system controllable by the systems planner (for example, the time to assemble one unit of Product 1). In the latter case, the value may be specified determinately as a constant or a function, or stochastically as a random function.

The performance of an activity requires the commitment of one or more resources. Several activities have been structured so that they compete for the same resources, thereby creating typical conflict situations which can only be resolved by rational decisions. The resources available in the model are:

Processing manpower.--Men within the process stage are entirely interchangeable, and may work on any valid operation or remain idle.

Assembly manpower.--Men within the assembly stage may assemble orders for either product. However, no transfer of men between the assembly and processing stage is permitted.

Processing facilities.--Each facility within the processing operation commits one man and one unit of facility to the process of one part. The facility units require setup time each time a different part is to be processed on that unit.

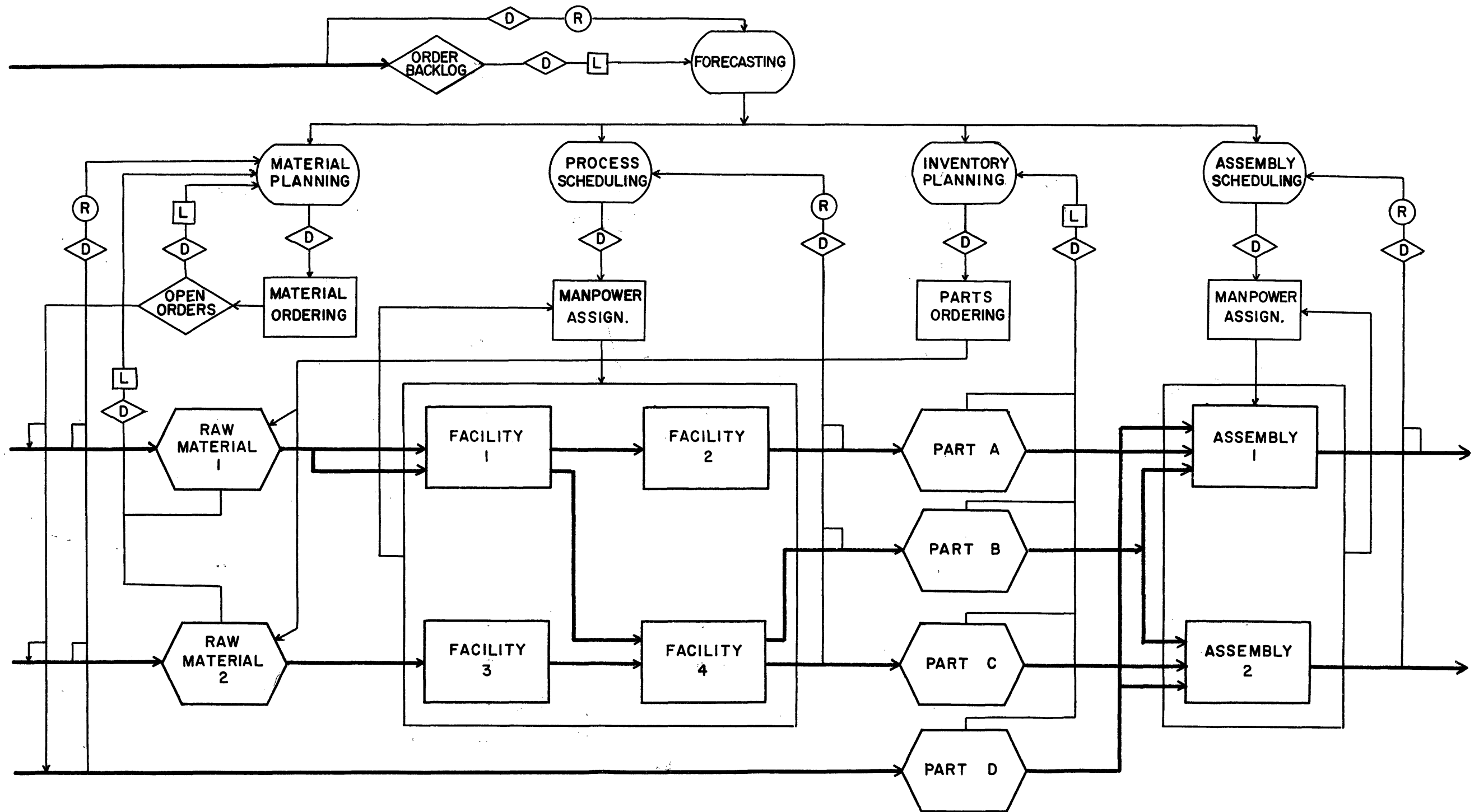
Material.--The finished parts used in the assembly of the two products are fabricated from two raw materials and one purchased part. Two of the finished parts (Part A and Part B) compete for Raw Material 1. Part C is fabricated from Raw Material 2. Part D is purchased in bulk quantity as a finished part.

#### The Information System

The prime objective in constructing the information system is to provide sufficient capability to permit effective dynamic control over the physical system. Within this context, the emphasis is placed upon building a conventional structure which could plausibly incorporate a range of data processing equipment. Since each data processing system has its own information processing capabilities, the degree of effective control that could be attained would vary with the range of equipment. In Figure 4, a schematic of the complete model depicting, among other things, all of the major features of a basic manufacturing information system.

Hierarchical aspects of an information system in the large firm are included. Decision-making occurs at various levels within the organization with considerable interaction between levels. Operational control, at the lowest level, responds to events on a fairly rapid time scale, in a highly constrained manner. At a higher level,

FIGURE 4  
SCHEMATIC OF THE MODEL



tactical decisions are taken whose effect may be only indirect, leading to direct action at the operational level. These decisions are less frequent than those at the operational level, as well as more complex.

The physical system, as previously described, is also included in Figure 4. In the model, sensors are included at all points on the interfaces between the four stages of manufacture, and on the interface within the environment. The sensors are assumed to exert no direct influence on the physical system. It is indicated that this generates a reasonable amount of data for this type of system. Additional sensors, placed within each stage (e.g., recording material movement between operations in processing), would suggest a rather highly advanced information system involving the use of source data-acquisition equipment. Fewer sensors, placed only at the interface with the environment (e.g., recording orders and shipments) would probably not permit effective control over the physical system.

The precise configuration shown in Figure 4 is arbitrary, and could be readily extended or curtailed. When a real model is developed, it is needless to say that the sensors would be placed to reflect the actual occurrence of data input into the information system.

Figure 4 also indicates delays associated with the



information transmission and processing, the resulting images of the sensed data, and the decision processes which utilize these images.

Decision rules are themselves parameters of the information system, in the sense that they can be individually detached and replaced. However, only one set of decision rules are used in the model. These are designed to achieve reasonable control even under fairly poor information flow conditions. In practice, of course, the decision processes and the quality of the information flow are highly related. Improved flow may be ineffective if not accompanied by improvements in decision-making (e.g., utilization of mathematical techniques) may well be impractical without parallel improvements in information flow.

The set of decision rules formulated for the model relate to forecasting, material planning, inventory planning, and manpower assignment (scheduling).

### Forecasting

Forecasting is the process which permits the model to adjust to, and perhaps anticipate, systematic changes in the demand for a product. Forecasting involves the use of historical data and a management judgement factor to produce new forecasts. Exponential smoothing is the method employed in the model to generate forecasts of future product demand. It is a special form of moving average

developed by operations research for use in computer processing.<sup>1</sup>

The crucial element in creating a plan for the use of materials and resources is a projection of shipping requirements for the next planning period, based on the forecast of product demand and the current backlog of orders. Shipping requirements are established by distributing the backlog in an exponential manner to the scheduling periods. This places most of the backlog in the current scheduling period with decreasing proportions in succeeding scheduling periods.

Once shipping requirements have been established, they are used as the planning base for material planning, inventory planning, and scheduling. An assembly plan for manpower is produced from the shipping requirements by adjusting for assembly lead time. The plans for material planning, inventory planning, and scheduling are generated from the assembly plan by the necessary parts explosions, lead times, and scrap loss adjustments.

### Material Planning

The raw material and purchased part requirements provide the basis for ordering raw material and purchased

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<sup>1</sup>R. G. Brown, Statistical Forecasting for Inventory Control (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1959), p. 13.

part. Orders are placed periodically, at a time determined by the availability of a new forecast. This time is later than the nominal date of the forecast, due to the delays found in the information system. Before ordering, therefore, the forecast must be updated for material and parts received since the start of the period, and for any currently open orders.

For raw material, allowance is made for the possibility of receiving defective material. The actual order quantity is determined so as to cover requirements through an entire period plus safety stock.

Purchased Part D is ordered in bulk quantities of 500 parts in order to take advantage of quantity pricing. The decision to order more of Part D is based on availability of a new forecast, lead time, parts on order, and the current number of parts in stock.

### Inventory Planning

Although the firm assembles and ships products to customer order, parts are fabricated to inventory requirements. From the forecast and lead time for each part, the model calculates the minimum stock level, the reorder point, and the reorder quantity. This information is used in the inventory control function to maintain the inventory of parts at a minimum level and yet service the customer. In addition, the inventory control function adjusts the order

quantity for scrap allowance.

### Scheduling

In the processing stage, the shipping requirements are used once each week to generate a scheduled load. The requirements are first adjusted for parts produced since the beginning of the planning cycle, and are then extended in accordance with the work content (standard processing time) remaining in the period for each production operation. The available work force is then assigned to each operation (part to be processed on a facility) in proportion to the computed work loads and subject to the physical limitations set by the facility capacities.

Existing setups are not considered in arriving at the scheduling decision. The implementation of the decision permits reassigned men to complete the operation on which they are currently engaged before moving to a new assignment.

In the assembly stage, the assignment procedure is identical except that there are no facility constraints to be observed. Idle men are transferred to the alternate product unless idleness is observed for both products.

### Environment System

The interactions between the firm and its environment within the model are limited. This is far from a

practical situation where many environmental influences such as governmental, social, economic, and competition to a large degree restrain the performance of the business. However, the experimenter must define the boundaries of the system to be studied. Boundaries include or limit the area of feasible study which, for this model, have been defined as:

Customer orders.--Orders are the demand input to the physical system. The properties of an order are: it is for a single product; it is held within the system until filled; it specifies the quantity (number of units) required.

Product shipments.--Shipments are an output of the physical system. No partial shipments are made. Orders are shipped as soon as completed.

Purchase orders.--A purchase order is an output of the information system. Each order is for a single raw material or purchased part, specifying the quantity of material or parts desired.

Receipt of material and parts.--The raw material and purchased part are inputs to the physical system. The environment imposes a delay (lead time) upon the filling of purchase orders. At the end of this delay, the material

or part is entered into the physical system where it is inspected for defective material or parts. The defectives are removed and the remaining material or parts are entered into their respective inventories.

#### The Selection of Parameters

A model of a firm has two interfaces: (1) one with its environment, and (2) one with the experimenter (the systems planner). The experimenter exerts control over the simulation by setting parameters for the physical system, the information system, and the environment. He is also free to independently set the cost elements (e.g., labor rates, material prices, product prices) of the accounting structure, which govern the level of financial results. The major controllable variables of the model are summarized in Table 2. For stochastic variables the parameters are in the form of probability distributions.

In addition to direct variation of system parameters, the experimenter may introduce more basic changes. Decision rules can be modified or entirely replaced without disturbing other parts of the model. It is also possible, though not quite as straight-forward, to modify the structure of the physical system. For example, the flow of parts in the processing stage could be changed, or the material usage specifications could be altered.

TABLE 2  
PARAMETERS CONTROLLED BY THE EXPERIMENTER

Subsystem	Parameter	Stochastic
Physical	Setup times	Yes
	Processing times	Yes
	Assembly times	Yes
	Rejection rates	Yes
	Size of work force	No
	Facility capacities	No
Information	Input transmission delay	Yes
	Command delays	Yes
	Length of planning period	No
	Forecasting smoothing constant	No
	Backlog distribution constant	No
	Processing lead time	No
	Assembly lead time	No
	Inventory safety stock	No
	Direct labor standards	No
Scrap allowance	No	
Environment	Purchase order lead time	Yes
	Customer order arrival rate	Yes
	Customer order quantity	Yes

In the analysis of an information system, the parameters that are of concern are those which have been chosen to be modified to measure their effect on the model. The actual numerical values of both the parameters and the measures of performance are relatively unimportant since the concern is not with absolute values (simulation is a probabilistic technique), but rather the concern is with the change that occurs from one simulation run to another.



## CHAPTER V

### SIMULATION OF THE HYPOTHETICAL MODEL

In simulation, the experimental approach that is chosen depends entirely upon what one desires to learn about the model. It is possible to vary the parameters of the information processing system in order to evaluate the relative worth of a spectrum of data processing capabilities; or evaluate alternative decision processes. Alternatively, one can vary the parameters of the physical system to suggest the range of industry characteristics for which a given information handling capability is worth while. As in all simulation work, a systematic approach to experimentation is desirable. In particular, statistically designed experiments offer the best prospect of achieving soundly based conclusions at minimum cost in computer time.

For this study it is assumed that the systems planner is analysing a proposed improvement (the procurement of additional or new data processing equipment) in the information system. Essentially, the question to be answered is whether the anticipated change would significantly

improve the performance of the business. If a significant improvement in performance is indicated, it is then necessary to compare the cost of the proposed change against the predicted performance.

The final evaluation of the results from simulation is a management function. Such a management decision would necessarily include their evaluation of outside factors (largely environmental) as well as the simulated improvement in service to the customer, control of facilities and resources, and cost of operation. However, the knowledge gained by the systems planner from the simulation study would provide a sound base for management's decision.

To demonstrate the technique of analyzing an information system through simulation, actual simulation of the manufacturing model was accomplished by the use of the IBM General Purpose Systems Simulator. The model as described in the simulator language is shown in Appendix A. It is indicated from the detail necessary to describe the relatively simple model that the systems planner must intimately know the business system to model it. Output from the simulation has not been included as part of this thesis due to the large volume and lack of a readable format.

Simulation of the manufacturing model was accomplished in two runs. The output from the first run represents the performance of the existing information system

while the output from the second run represents that of the proposed system.

#### The Information Parameters

The two simulation runs are based on manipulating two aspects of the information system; (1) the length of the planning cycle together with a related implementation delay; and (2) the magnitude of information transmission delays.

The model contains a series of decision rule algorithms beginning with the generation of a demand forecast and continuing on through material planning, inventory planning, and scheduling. These algorithms are applied periodically and new plans and schedules are generated based on the sensing of new demand information as well as the performance information of the physical system. These algorithms closely parallel typical planning and scheduling sequences in a real manufacturing firm.

TABLE 3  
FORECASTING CYCLES

Characteristic	Run 1	Run 2
Length of period	4 weeks	2 weeks
Implementation delay	5 days	3 days

Table 3 shows the characteristics of the two

forecasting cycles used in the two simulation runs. The slow cycle (Run 1) corresponds to every-four-weeks, and the fast cycle (Run 2) to every-two-weeks forecasting and planning. The implementation delay (output transmission delay) represents the time lags between the availability of the new forecast information and actually putting the plan into action.

The second aspect of the information system chosen for manipulation was that of information time lags (input transmission delay). The information system senses through more or less distorted images. A principal distorting influence is that of information delays. For example, it may be necessary to write today's purchase orders based on last week's inventory figures.

TABLE 4  
INFORMATION DELAYS

Information category	Run 1	Run 2
Incoming orders for products	5 days	2 days
Product shipments	2	1
Raw material receipts	3	1
Raw material into process	2	1
Finished parts movement into inventory	2	1
Finished parts movement into assembly	3	1

Two sets of such delays were used in the simulation runs as indicated in Table 4. In the first run, incoming

orders and shipping and receiving status are sensed through a one-week time lag. The in-plant movements are sensed through a two- and three-day delay as shown. In the second run, the one-week delay for incoming orders is reduced to two days. The in-plant delays are reduced to one day.

Thus, it can be seen that the second simulation run represents a major improvement in the delays of the information system. On the surface, one would expect a corresponding improvement in the over-all performance of the firm. The actual improvement is predicted from the output of the simulation runs.

#### Varying the Demand Pattern

The activity which initiates the internal functioning of the model is the stream of incoming orders for the two products. This demand pattern provides the means for loading and testing the management control capabilities of the model. One of the prime functions of management is, in a broad sense, to respond in an effective way to the demand pattern. As previously noted, the purpose of this study is to determine whether significant differences in performance would result from changes in selected parameters of the information system. In order to amplify any such differences, a severe response requirement is placed on the model by the demand pattern. This is accomplished by imposing an abrupt change in the product demand levels.

The initial demand level for Product 1 is established at the average rate of seventeen units per week, and for Product 2, fifty-five units per week. At the end of the first four weeks of simulated operation, Product 1 demand is raised abruptly to an average of fifty-one per week, while Product 2 demand is dropped to nineteen per week. The demands are left at these levels for the remainder of the run.

The model is initialized by providing an initial stock of raw materials and finished parts and simulating the operation of the firm for several weeks. This allows the model to adjust itself to the parameters in use.

The forecasting function is initialized by providing "historical" demand levels which reflect the initial demand mix. The effect of the initializing is to put the model in a condition of having operated for an extended period of time at the initial demand mix and of having no expectation the levels would change.

The abrupt change in the demand mix presents three major problems:

1. The nature of the change in demand must be assessed and extrapolated in the form of new forecasts.
2. Raw material orders must be initiated to re-balance the raw material inventory to meet

the new demand mix.

3. Manpower assignments in the facilities must be shifted in order to supply the finished parts inventory with the new mix of finished parts for assembly.

It seems apparent that the logistics of Product 1 present a more critical problem than those of Product 2. At the time of abrupt change in demand levels, the supply of stocks necessary to support Product 1 is effectively tripled whereas the supply of stocks necessary to support Product 2 is reduced to about a third.

#### The Accounting Parameters

The output from the model results in a very complete set of data describing the behavior of the physical system during the course of the simulation. At the end of each weekly reporting cycle, all pertinent physical data are produced including manpower distribution, facility queues, order backlogs, and product shipments.

The parameters of the accounting framework include a set of standard costs for the evaluation of finished products and all raw material and in-process inventories. The values of the accounting parameters selected for the simulation runs are shown in Table 5.

At the end of the weekly reporting cycle, the pertinent physical rates and levels are reported for use in

TABLE 5  
ACCOUNTING PARAMETERS

Category	Detail	Value
Product selling prices	Product 1	\$250
	Product 2	375
Raw material costs	Raw Material 1	\$ 25
	Raw Material 2	40
Purchased part cost	Part D	\$ 1
Direct labor standards	Wage rate	\$3.00/hr.
	Standard hours	
	Facility 1, Part A	5 hrs.
	Facility 1, Part B	4 hrs.
	Facility 2, Part A	10 hrs.
	Facility 3, Part C	1 hr.
	Facility 4, Part B	2 hrs.
	Facility 4, Part C	3 hrs.
Standard burden	Burden rate	70%
Fixed costs	Depreciation charge	\$4,000/mo.
	Selling and admin.	5,000/mo.

creating a financial statement. For the two simulation runs, only the profit and loss statement has been prepared for graphical presentation. Other accounting reports (cash flow, balance sheet) could readily be prepared for management's analysis and evaluation.

Table 6 shows the form of the financial statement used to produce weekly profit and loss statements from the output of the two simulation runs. Accounting statements are not readily produced as direct output from the simula-



TABLE 6  
THE FINANCIAL STATEMENT

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Manufacturing expense statement

Raw material purchased.....	\$ xxxx
Purchased part expense.....	xxxx
Direct labor expense.....	xxxx
Indirect expense.....	xxxx
Depreciation.....	<u>xxxx</u>
Total expense.....	\$xxxxxx
Deduct inventory changes	
Change in raw material inventory....	\$ xxxx
Change in in-process inventory.....	xxxx
Change in finished parts inventory..	xxxx
Change in assembly inventory.....	<u>xxxx</u>
Net change in inventories.....	<u>xxxxxx</u>
Cost of goods sold.....	<u><u>\$xxxxxx</u></u>
Income statement	
Sales.....	\$xxxxxx
Deduct:	
Standard cost of goods sold.....	\$ xxxx
Manufacturing cost variance.....	<u>xxx</u>
Cost of goods sold.....	<u>xxxxxx</u>
Gross profit on sales.....	xxxxxx
Less selling and admin. expense.....	<u>xxxxxx</u>
Net profit/loss on operations.....	<u><u>\$xxxxxx</u></u>

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tor due to the lack of report generating capability.

### Results of the Simulation Runs

Due to the fact that there are many possible measures of the performance of an operating firm and that the hypothetical model is only for illustration purposes, a few of the more important measures have been chosen to be presented. These are shown in graphical form.

#### Physical Performance

One of the more direct indications of the response of the physical system to the variation in product demand is shown by a comparison of the actual shipments of the finished products with their demand pattern. Figures 5 and 6 show the comparisons for Runs 1 and 2, respectively. The product demand patterns are shown as distributions with average demand and associated limits. The distributions appear skewed which can be attributed to the variation of the number of units per customer order.

In both runs the form of the shipment curves are quite similar. In the fifth week, when the abrupt change in demand pattern is applied, shipments for Product 1 respond rapidly to the increased demand level. This rapid response reflects the fact that for this firm assembly is done on a "to-order" basis. However, the response level cannot be maintained due to the depletion of finished parts

FIGURE 5  
PRODUCT DEMAND AND SHIPMENT  
(Run 1)

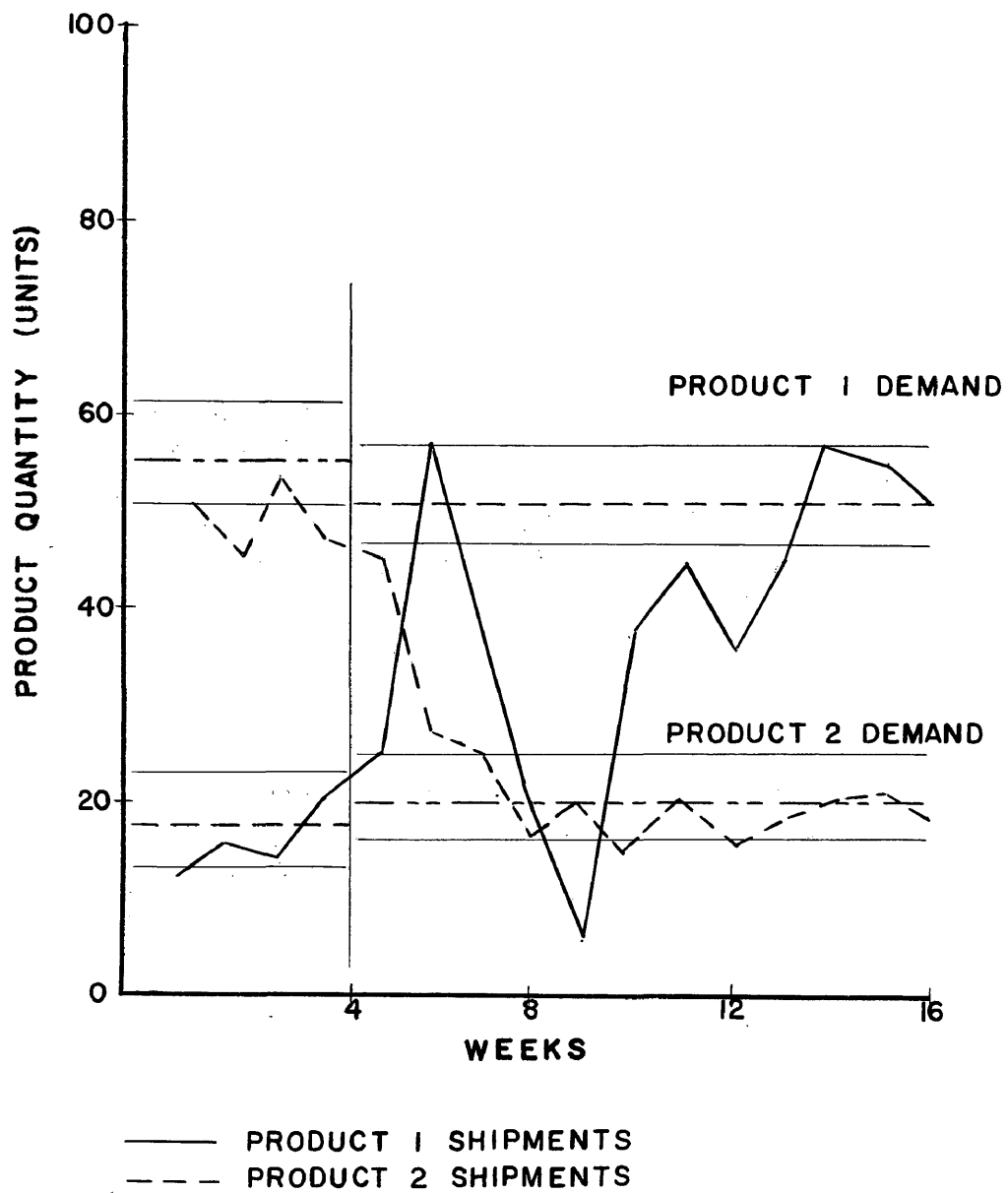
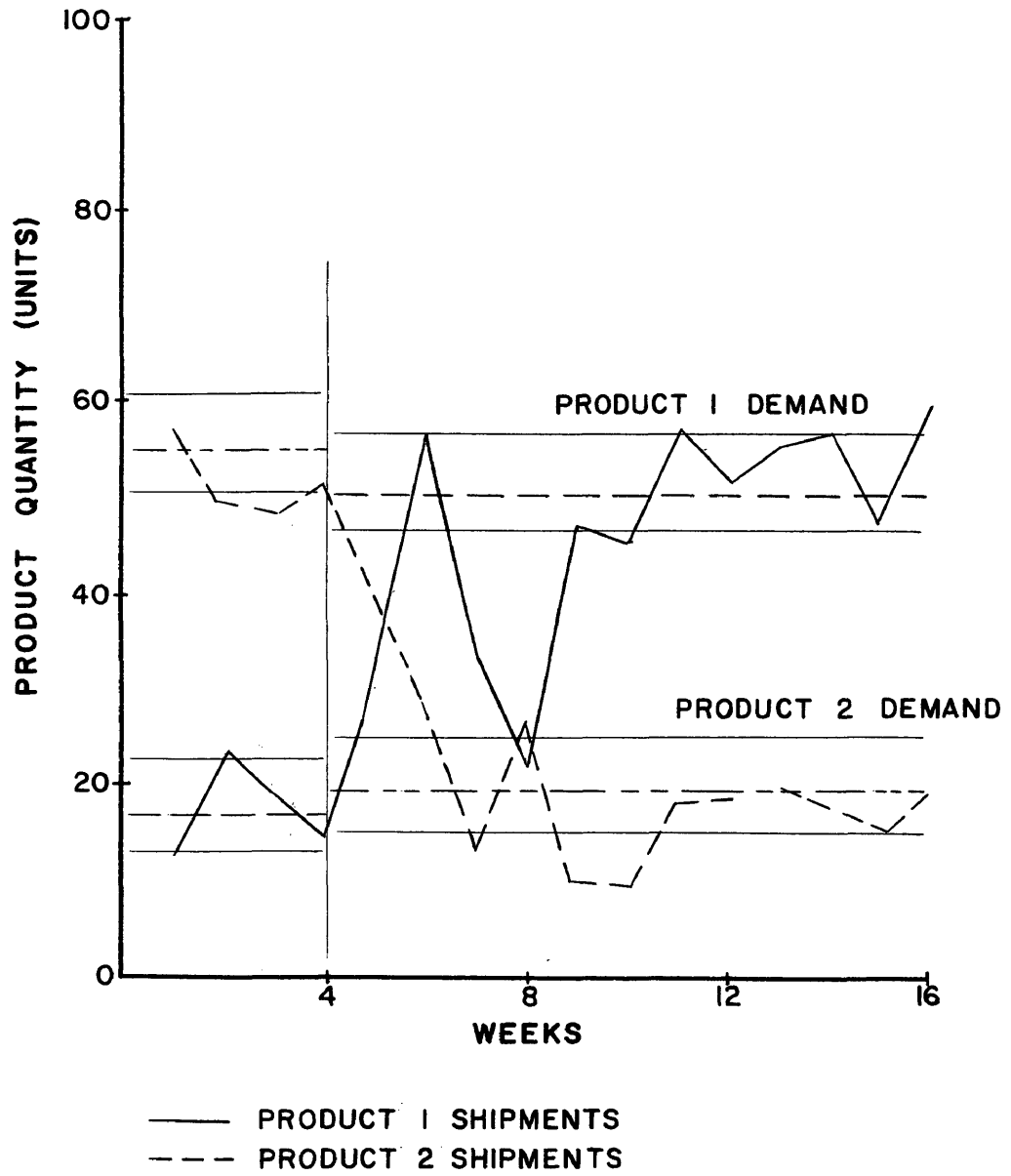


FIGURE 6  
PRODUCT DEMAND AND SHIPMENT  
(Run 2)



and raw material inventory which is pointed out in subsequent graphs. Shipments build up again after the eighth and ninth weeks as the forecasting and planning decision rules adjust to the new demand levels.

The pattern of Product 2 shipments reflect the easier response problem posed by the decrease in its demand.

Product 1 shipments in Run 2 indicate a faster response to the change in demand which is reflected by a significant difference between Product 1 backlogs of Runs 1 and 2. Figures 7 and 8 display the backlogs for Products 1 and 2 as created in Runs 1 and 2. These indicate the relationship between the demand and the shipping patterns.

The backlog, unfilled orders, for Run 1 show a rather stable pattern for the four week period before the change in demand levels. At the end of the fifth week, an abrupt rise in unfilled orders for Product 1 is started and continues until the thirteenth week. At that time the backlog begins to decrease. In contrast, the backlog for Product 2 decreases until it levels off at about ten units which represents a near minimum level for the assembly time built in the model. Essentially the same curves are observed in Run 2 with the exception that the backlog for Product 1 levels off sooner indicating a more rapid response to changing demand.

For a manufacturing firm of the type represented,

FIGURE 7  
BACKLOG OF ORDERS  
(Run 1)

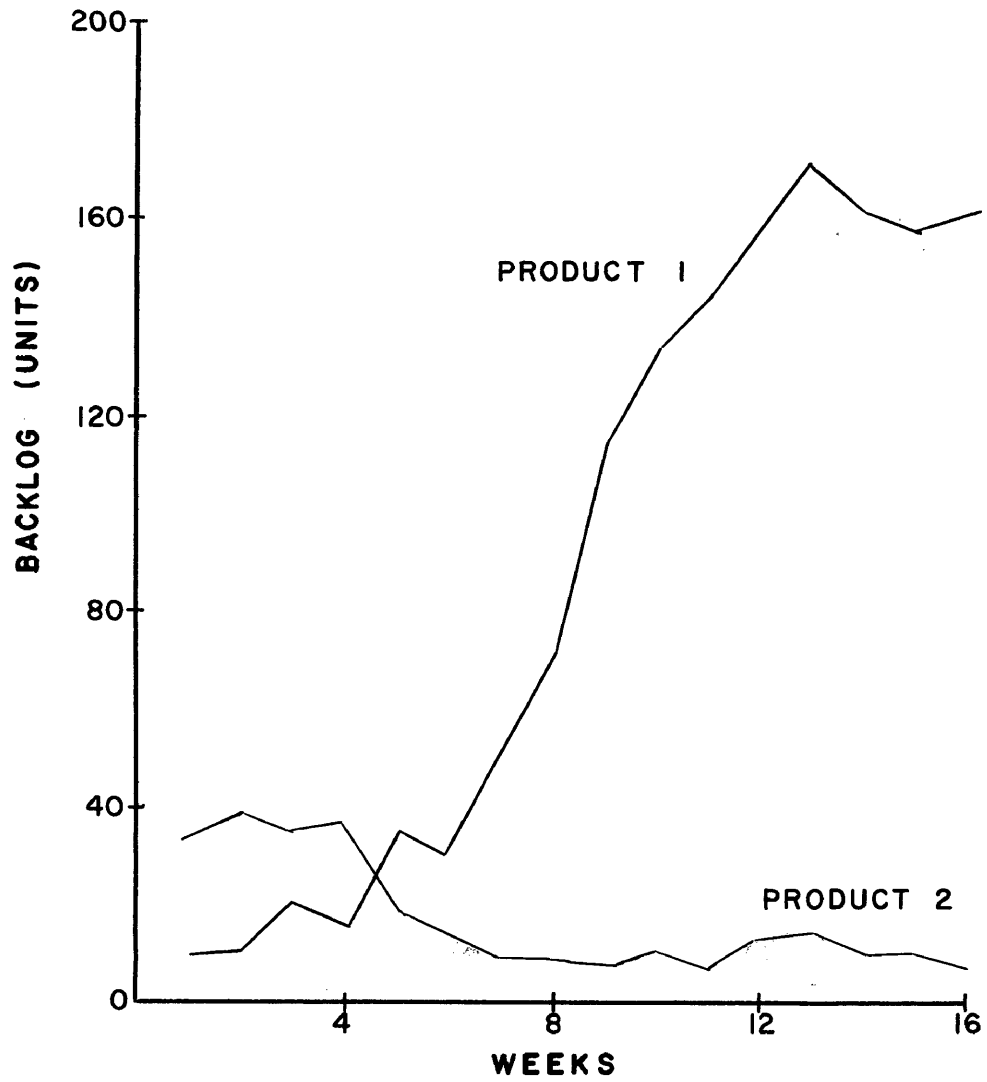
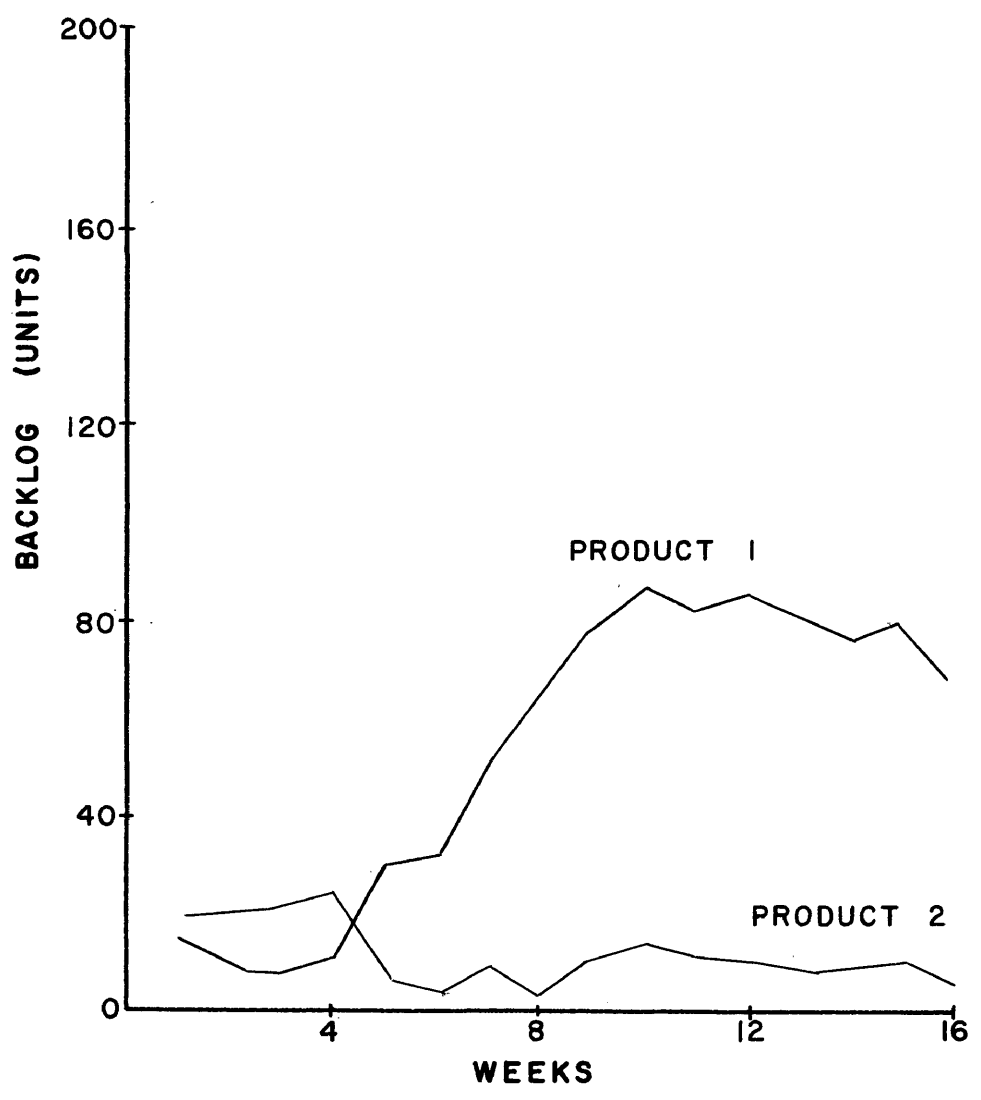


FIGURE 8  
BACKLOG OF ORDERS  
(Run 2)



one of the best single measurements of performance is that of customer order cycle time, i.e., time from receipt of an order to the shipment of the order. Figures 9 and 10 show in histogram form the order cycle times for the 16-week period of simulation of both runs. In Run 1, the average cycle time for Product 1 is 13.4 days. The distribution, however, is a bimodal one with the left portion representing delivery performance during the first four weeks. The right portion, with an average of about 17 days, represents the performance after the change in demand pattern occurred. Such a distribution reflects the deterioration in delivery performance that is related to the increasing backlog level. If one were to plot the average delivery time for each week, a significant trend to the right (longer delivery) would be observed. In contrast, the average order cycle time for Product 2 is 5.2 days which represents close to maximum delivery performance for the assembly processing and material moving times specified in the model.

In Run 2, Figure 10, the histograms for both Products are quite similar to Run 1 except that the bimodal distribution for Product 1 is not as distinct. The average cycle time for Product 1 is 12.1 days and 4.4 days for Product 2 which represents a significant improvement over the cycle times of Run 1.

The explanation for the decline in Product 1



FIGURE 9  
ORDER LIFE CYCLE  
(Run 1)

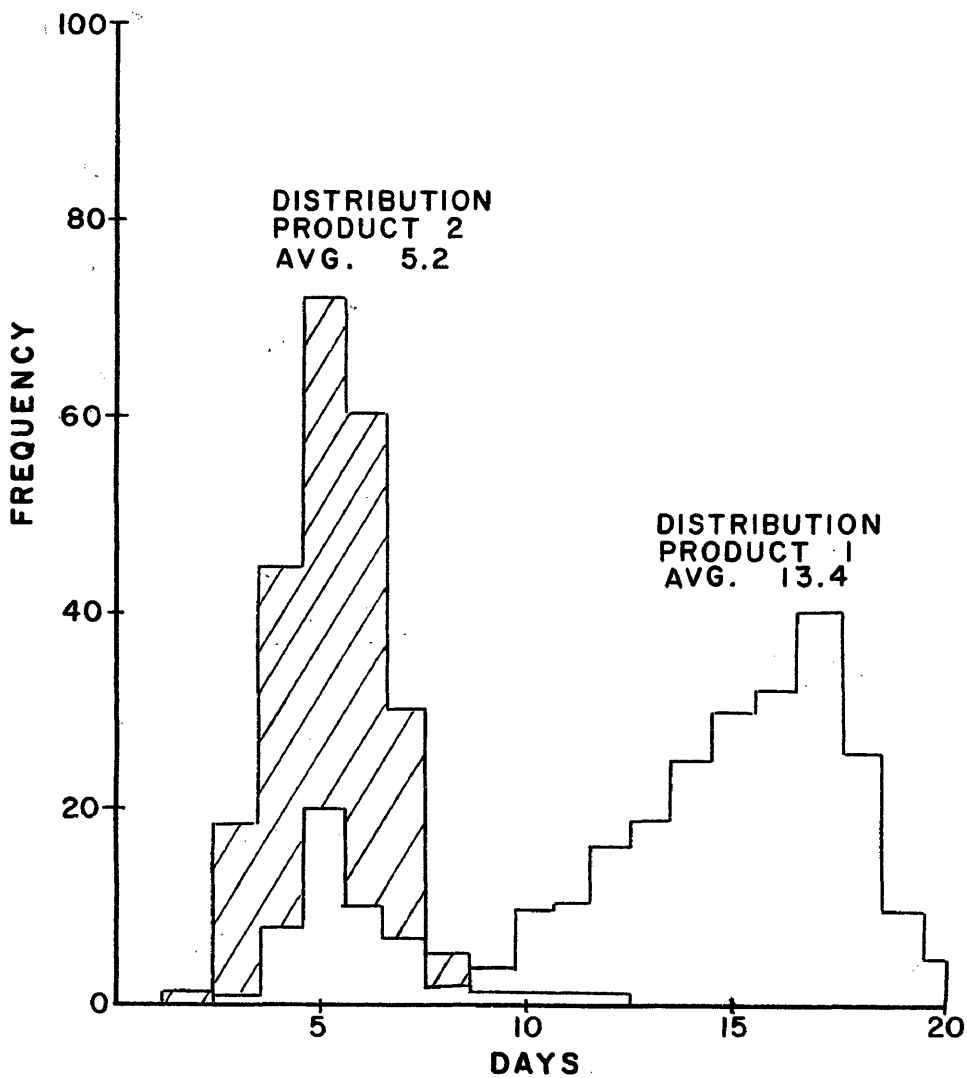
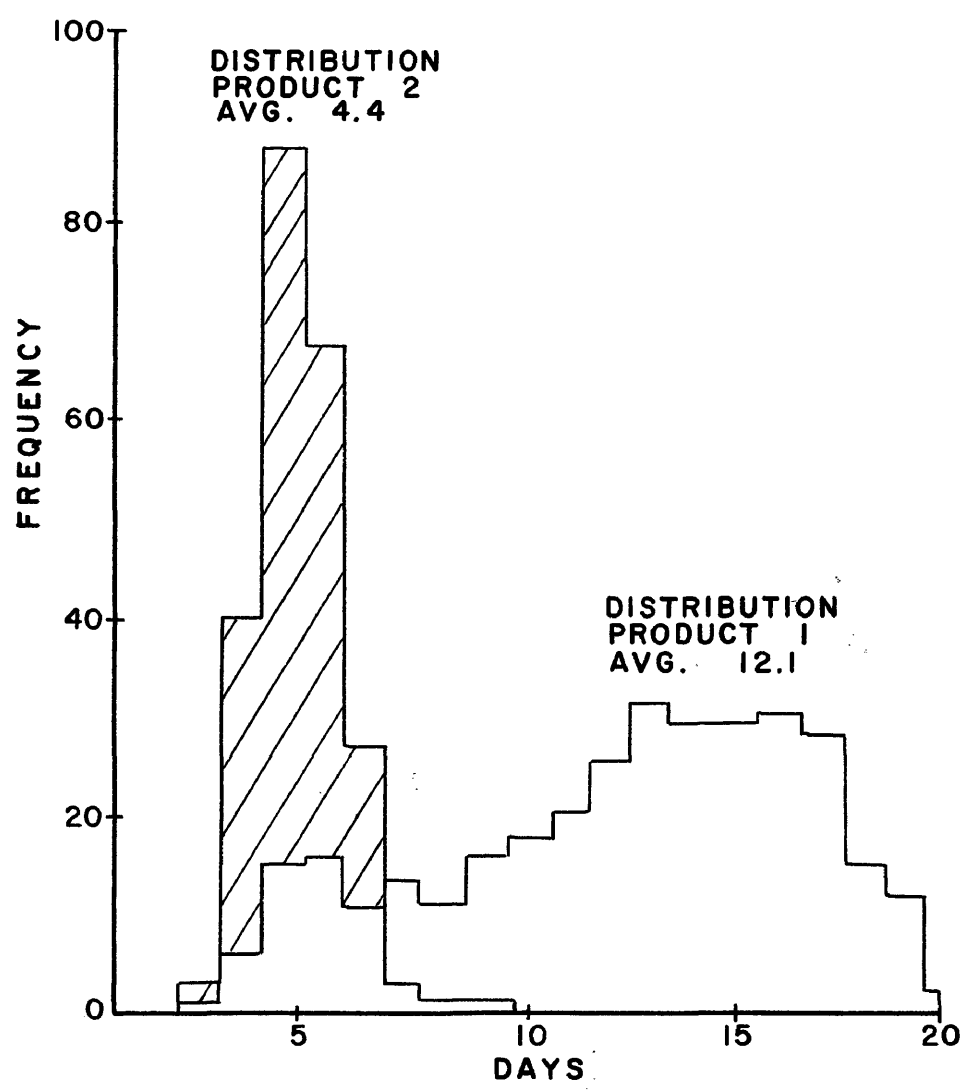


FIGURE 10  
ORDER LIFE CYCLE  
(Run 2)



shipments (after responding to the demand change) can be found by observing the finished parts and raw material inventories as shown in Figures 11, 12, 13, and 14. During Run 1, as shown in Figure 11, the inventory of Part A is rapidly reduced to zero after the fourth week when the demand change is applied. The increase in demand level for Product 1 effectively triples the consumption of Part A. The impact of such "stock-outage" is to reduce shipments of Product 1 (see Figure 5) and increase the backlog (see Figure 7). Part B inventory remains stable since a significant change has not taken place in the demand for this part. Part C inventory rapidly increases after the fourth week due to the greatly reduced demand level for Product 2. Part D, which is ordered in bulk quantities, exhibits an inventory pattern typical of parts purchased in fixed amounts.

During Run 2, as shown in Figure 12, the inventories follow much the same pattern as in Run 1 with the exception of Parts A and C. The higher inventory level for Part A and the lower inventory level for Part C reflect the better control response of the information system for the second run. In other words, the more rapid recovery of Part A inventory during Run 2 provides a significant improvement in Product 1 shipments while the more rapid adjustment to Part C demand reduces the inventory level and

FIGURE 11  
FINISHED PARTS INVENTORIES  
(Run 1)

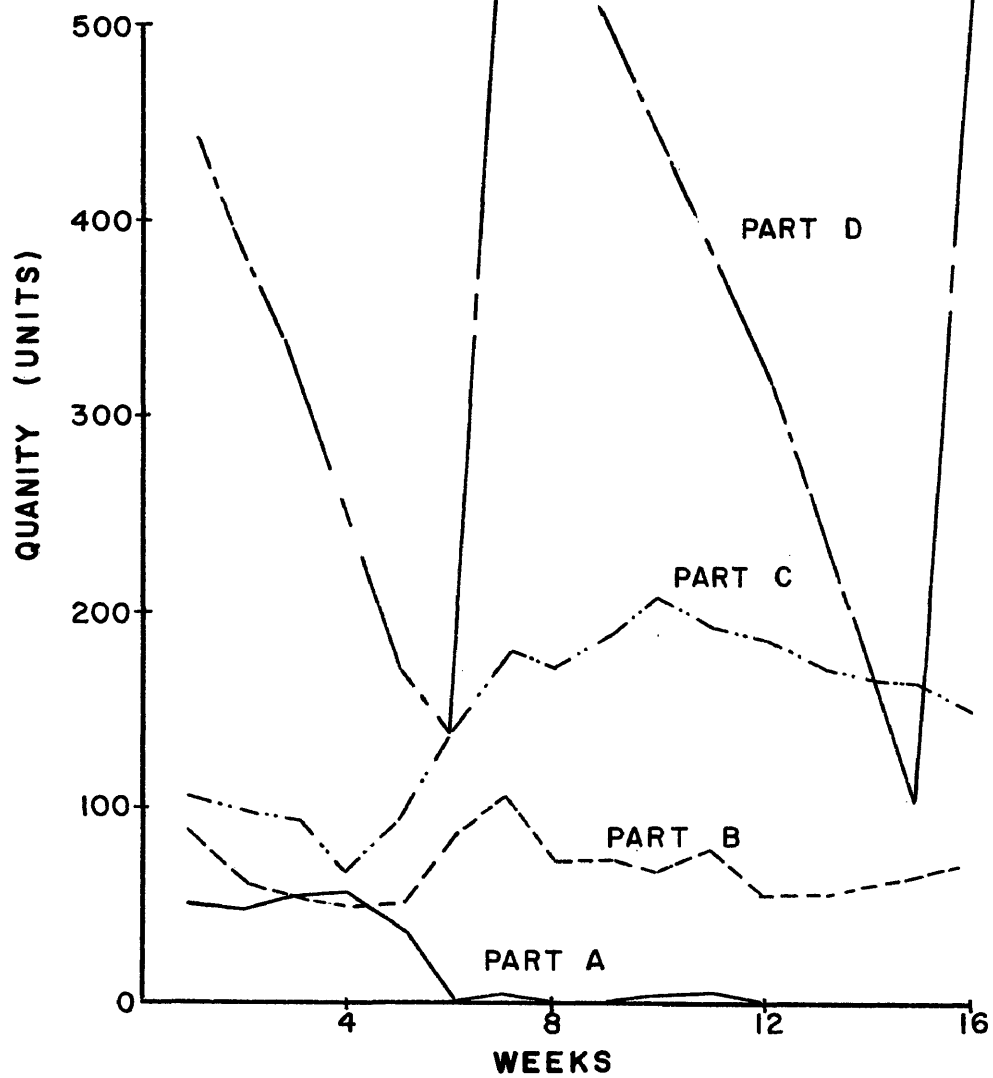


FIGURE 12  
FINISHED PARTS INVENTORIES  
(Run 2)

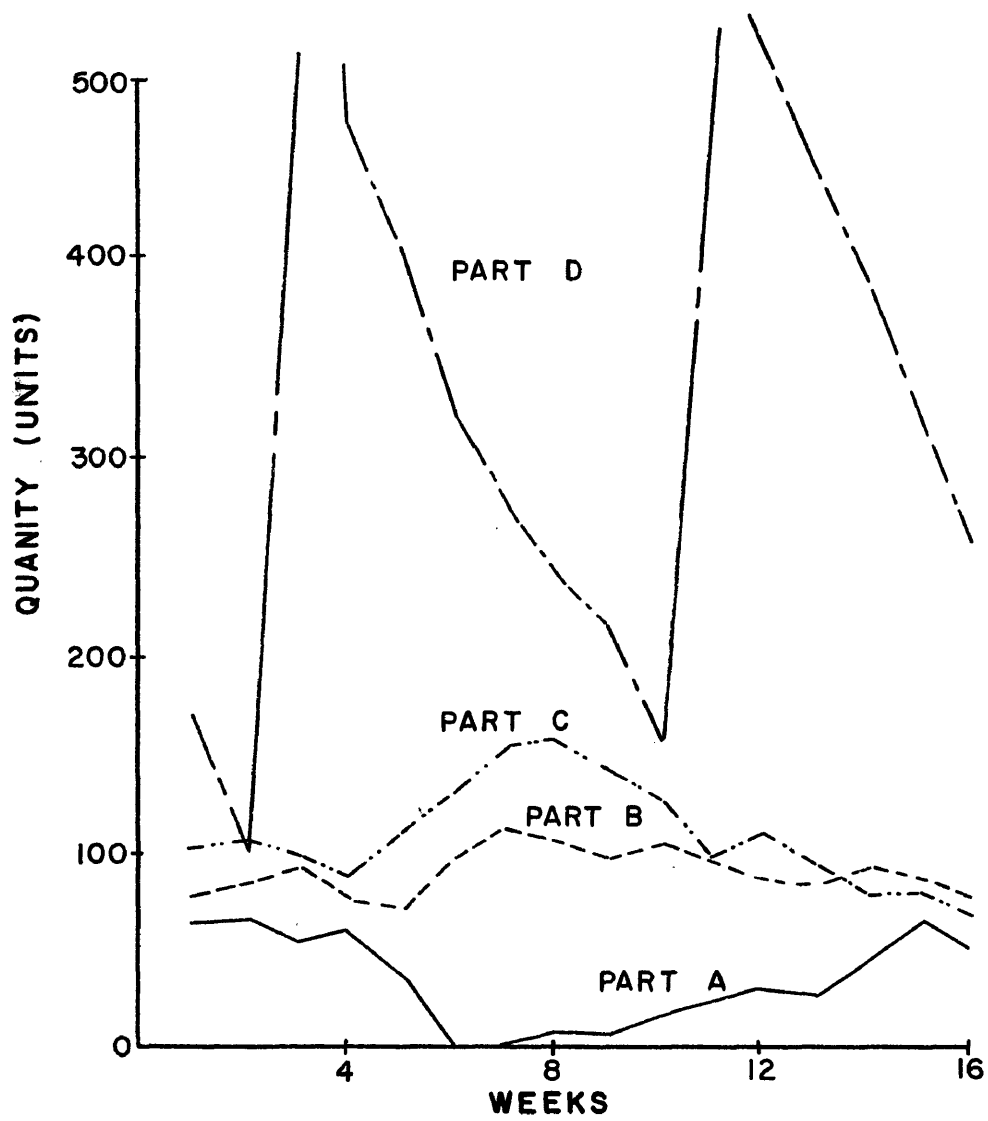


FIGURE 13  
RAW MATERIAL INVENTORIES  
(Run 1)

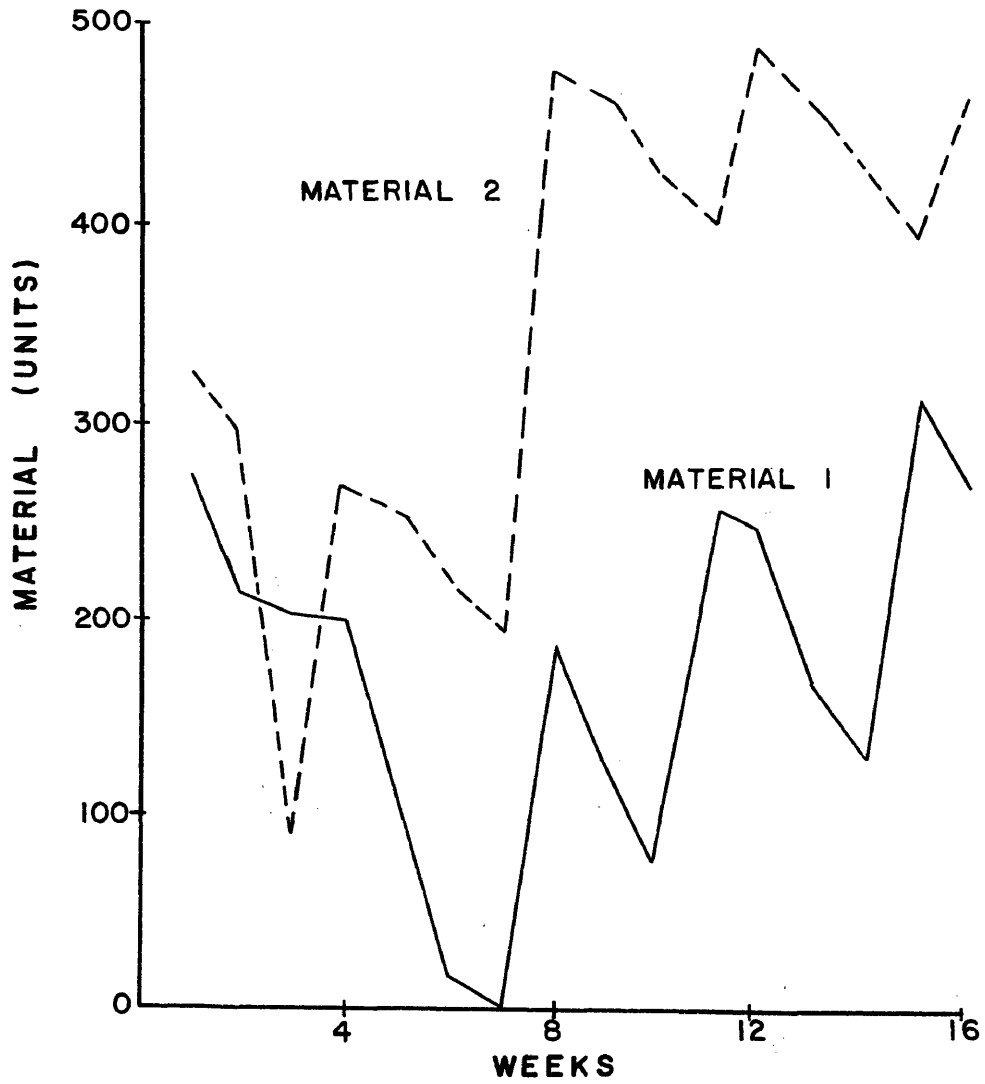
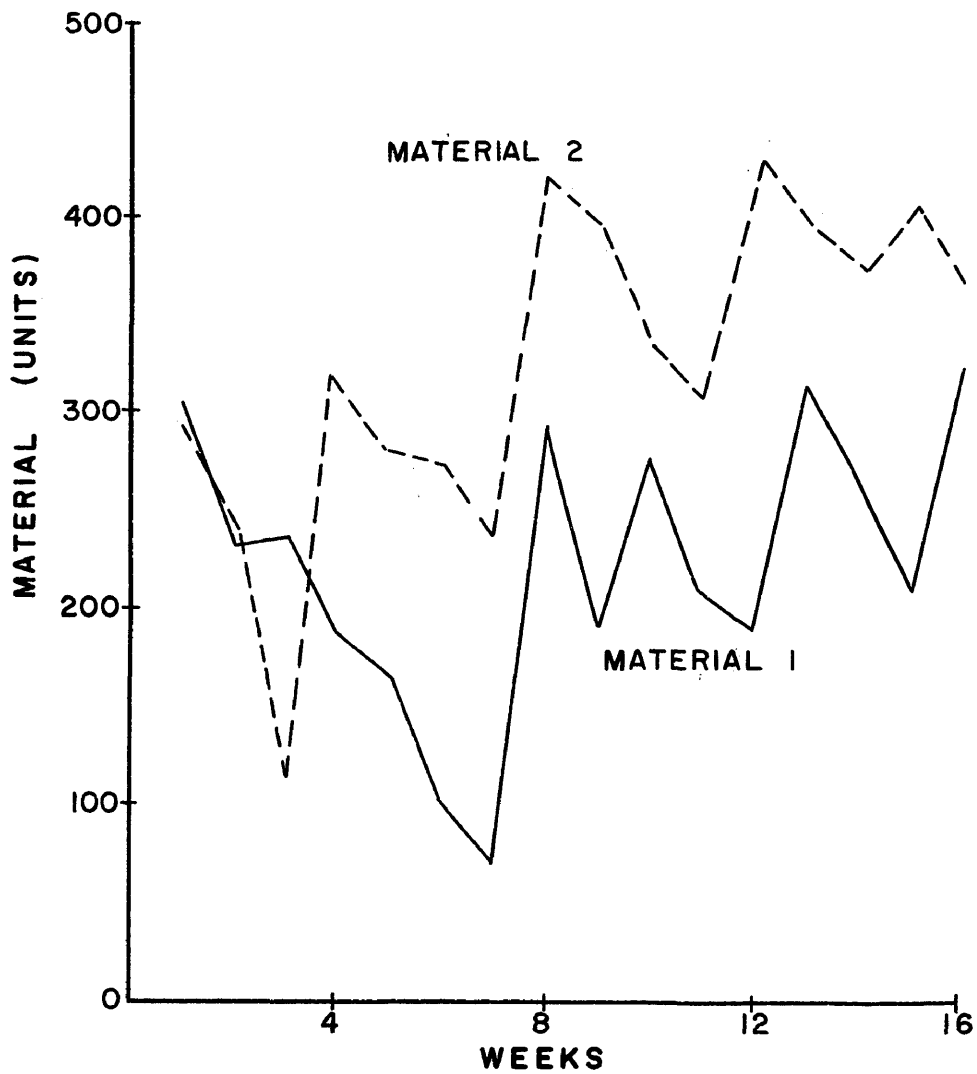


FIGURE 14  
RAW MATERIAL INVENTORIES  
(Run 2)



associated cost.

A second factor which hinders the shipments of Product 1 during Run 1 is the depletion of Raw Material 1 in the sixth and seventh weeks, as shown in Figure 13. The effect of exhausting the raw material inventory is to starve the facilities of work with resulting idle manpower, reduce the inventory of Part A to zero and starve the assembly area of work, and build up the backlog for Product 1 due to the inability to meet the demand. This is reflected in the very poor shipping performance for Product 1 in the eighth and ninth weeks (see Figure 5). The material outage causes substantial idleness of manpower with the result that manpower utilization for the run is 63%.

Raw Material 2 inventory builds up rapidly after the eighth week when a large shipment of material is delivered. The inventory level remains excessive thru the remainder of the run with two additional deliveries of material. The receipt of material is easily identified by the peaks in the inventory level.

During Run 2, see Figure 14, Raw Material 1 inventory dropped to its lowest level in the seventh week, but it did not reach zero as in Run 1. This provided a much better performance in terms of manpower utilization, 79% during the run, and in terms of Product 1 shipments (see Figure 6) which did not drop as severely as in Run 1. Raw



Material 2 inventory becomes excessive as in Run 1, but the level is significantly lower.

### Economic Performance

The outputs from the simulation runs discussed thus far represent only selected measures of performance out of the many possible from the simulator program. These serve to illustrate the very comprehensive picture of the physical behavior of the firm which is available from the model. In addition to the weekly values, data on manpower utilization and customer order cycle time were discussed. None of these data provide a direct economic evaluation of the information system as it controls the performance of the physical system. It is necessary to refer to the accounting framework in order to provide this type of data.

Figures 15 and 16 show the profit and loss performance of the firm for the two simulation runs. During the sixteen weeks of simulation for Run 1, the firm incurred an operating loss of \$29,200. Such a loss can be attributed in large to the inadequate control of inventories, both raw material and finished parts. Excessive inventories in raw material (see Raw Material 2 in Figure 13) and in finished parts (see Part C in Figure 11) greatly increased the operating costs during the run. Inadequate inventories in raw material (see Raw Material 1 in Figure 13) and finished parts (see Part A in Figure 11) curtailed

FIGURE 15  
PROFIT AND LOSS  
(Run 1)

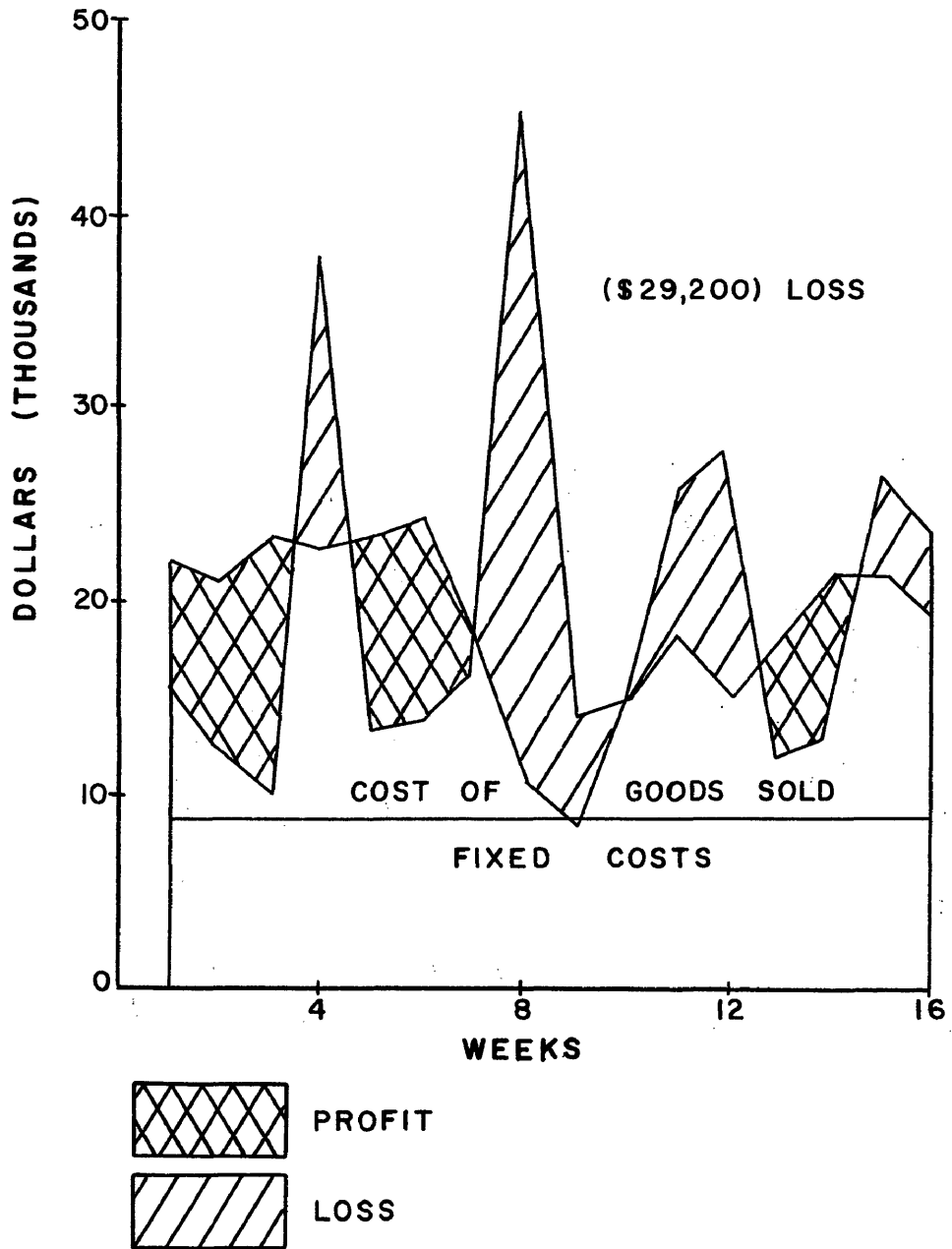
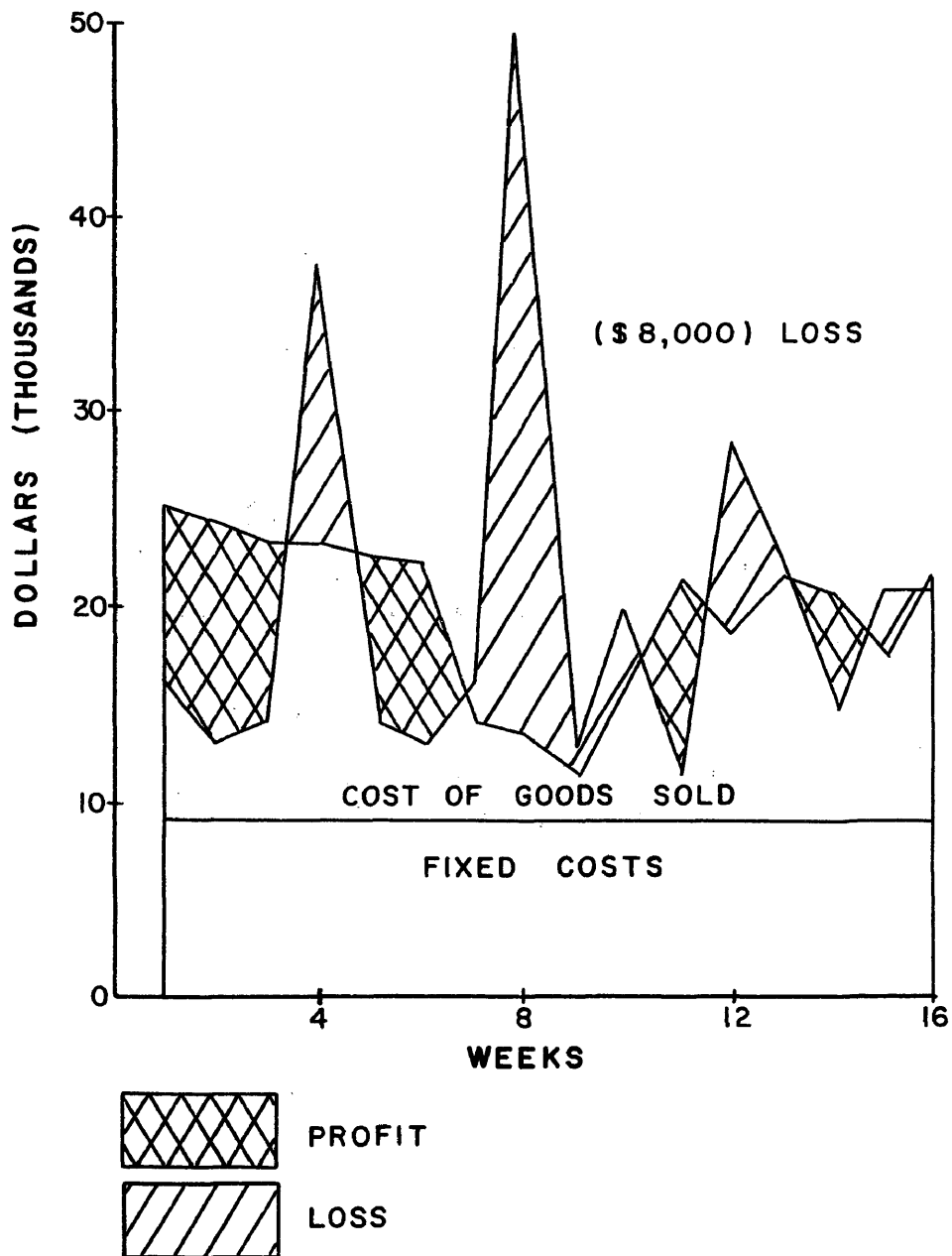


FIGURE 16  
PROFIT AND LOSS  
(Run 2)



product shipments and associated income as well as decreased the manpower utilization.

The financial performance realized in Run 2, as shown in Figure 16, reduced the operating loss to \$8,000. Again, inadequate control of the inventories largely contributed to the loss.

### Summary of Results

The results of the simulation runs indicate very significant improvements in both the physical and economic performance of the model. Although the change in the information system parameters from Run 1 to Run 2 appeared major on the surface, simulation of the model made it possible to "actually" measure the interactions between the subsystems of the firm and predict its performance.

It should be pointed out that the only parameter change between Runs 1 and 2 was in the planning cycle with a two-week cycle being substituted for the slower four-week cycle and in the information time lags. The forecasting technique remained the same as did all the other decision rules. The demand pattern was essentially identical for both runs, and thus it presented the same hazards and opportunities. The management in Run 2 was no more "intelligent" (the decision rules were unchanged), but was simply made more effective through the improved response capability permitted by the shorter planning cycle and time lags.

As stated previously, the purpose of the simulation study is to analyze and evaluate a proposed change or improvement in the information system of the firm. For the accounting parameters employed, it is indicated that the economic value of the change from a four-week to a two-week planning cycle is of the order of \$21,200 (the reduction in loss from Run 1 to Run 2). In addition, the somewhat intangible benefit of improved customer service (order cycle time) was realized. These results provide the basis for sound management evaluation of the proposed changes in the information system.

However, it must be cautioned that outputs from a simulation study cannot necessarily be accepted on "face value." Since there exists stochastic "noise" (variations) in simulation results, statistical significance must be tested by introducing different random numbers in repeat runs. The variations in performance between repeat runs establish the level of confidence that one can place in the predictive quality of the model. Statistical significance was not established in this study.

The results also indicate that further improvements in performance could be realized by changing some decision rules. The act of processing data faster has a limited effect on the performance of the firm, and further improvements must come from how the data are used.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Summary

Management's need for information to make effective decisions in today's dynamic market is well established. The importance of a management information system to meet this need only recently has come to be recognized.

The complex task of developing an integrated management information system poses a major problem for top management. A survey of companies with extensive computer experience has indicated that the basic requirement for achieving a successful computer-based information system is more heavily dependent on executive leadership than any other factor.<sup>1</sup> The conflicting interests of individual functional areas within a business make it imperative that top management provide the over-all direction (also authority) to the implementation of the information system that must necessarily cross the boundaries of all functional units.

Historically, a business enterprise has been

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<sup>1</sup>McKinsey & Company, Inc., Getting the Most Out of Your Computer, a brochure, p. 13.

regarded as a composite of various specialized "functions" where the whole was considered to be nothing more than the sum of these functional parts. Today, however, it is generally recognized that the corporate whole is something more than the sum of the parts. It is the corporate objectives that establish the over-all goals for all functions. The need for functional specialists is not diminished. No one person can possibly know all there is to know about any single business function much less all the functions of a business.

The basic problem confronting management today is to find some effective means of transmitting specialized functional knowledge and functional contributions into the general direction that will produce profitable over-all results. This is a problem of integration. Achieving a true integration is not an easy task, for it is necessary to develop some effective means of measuring and controlling the decision-making activities of a complex assortment of groups of variously motivated individuals that make up a modern business firm.

It is possible to integrate the functional knowledge and functional contribution of the various levels of management in accordance with their individual responsibility requirements by means of a compact body of management intelligence as the output of an integrated management

information system. However, little progress has been made in the development of a compact body of management intelligence. Almost without exception, companies have focused their attention solely on cost reduction for individual applications. Data processing equipment has, generally, been used as a substitute for clerical paperwork operations. Few companies have undertaken a dynamic analysis of the entire management structure to determine the decision-making interrelationships of its various components and their information requirements.

As a result, the information flowing to the various levels of management in most companies today does not meet management's needs. The "information" made available is usually a conglomerate of usable and unusable data which complicates rather than simplifies the decision-making task. The tendency has been, and continues to be, to increase the flow of information rather than to refine it through the establishment of the necessary decision criteria. The basic question of "what real worth is information" is not answered.

Data processing has made a major impact on the organizational structure of many companies. The specialized characteristics of a cross functional service and a large dollar investment in equipment has led to the creation of new positions in the organization structure. Typically,



the responsibility for the data processing function has risen in importance within the organizational structure of business firms until recently a new kind of corporate staff concerned exclusively with systems planning has emerged. This staff position is concerned with the design and operation of the management information systems of which the data processing function is an integral part. Systems Planning and Management Services are names often used to describe this new corporate position.

With the development and growth of the data processing function, it can be noted that the planning, analysis, and design of management systems have substantially broadened in scope and complexity. The successful development of a management information system in today's complex business environment requires a systems planner of the highest order. He must possess, with his knowledge of the analytical techniques available from operations research, a knowledge of business structure and management which was held by few systems specialists until only a few years ago. The development of data processing, with its subelements of data acquisition, data transmission, and computer programming; operations research, with its emphasis on advanced mathematical and analytical techniques; and other related advances have created new dimensions which many systems planners have found and will find beyond their capability.

In particular, the use of the simulation technique as a tool of systems planning presents a most powerful approach to the design, analysis, and evaluation of management information systems. The great potential of simulation lies in its use as a research tool for the study of the relationships between the variables (subsystems) of the total business system. Unlike engineering or the physical sciences, there are no convenient laboratories for testing new ideas and methods in systems planning. Experimentation directly in an actual business operation can only cause confusion and present unreliable results. The required time and cost of testing new methods is often prohibitive.

Computer simulation, on the other hand, provides an effective and rapid means for examining complex systems' problems, since the computer is capable of examining a year of simulated activity in a matter of minutes. In addition, data on system performance can be obtained which are unavailable in actual situations.

It must be pointed out that the use of simulation is not an easy task. Detailed knowledge of all the aspects of the business must be gained by the systems planner in order to model the business system. The development of a model that truly reflects the real systems is a most difficult accomplishment. In addition, the actual simulation process is difficult to debug and achieve valid results.

The potential rewards from the use of simulation, however, are expected to far exceed the problems and the difficulties encountered in its use.

This study has defined a method for the analysis and evaluation of some major "intangible" aspects of an information processing system in terms of its contribution to the dynamic control of a firm as measured by the over-all performance. Application of the method has been demonstrated by the comparison of the results from two simulation runs using a specific model of a hypothetical firm. The feasibility of the method has been tested to the extent that selected parameter changes which are representative of "improved" information processing have been reflected in significant improvements in both physical and economic performance of the modeled firm.

### Conclusions

Progress has been made in the development of integrated management information system. Experience to date indicates that such progress has been and will be a slow evolution of management understanding and development of new techniques.<sup>2</sup>

The development of management information systems

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<sup>2</sup>James D. Gallagher, Management Information Systems and the Computer (New York: American Management Assn., 1961), p. 50.

should profoundly affect the content of managerial jobs, as decision-making responsibilities are redefined. It is expected that decision-making functions will be improved throughout the business organization, with the earliest and greatest progress in the lower and middle levels--the areas where computer programs can be the most effective. Ultimately, both the number and content of middle management jobs should be affected, particularly in the area of planning. If machine tools can be better loaded by a computer program than the manager, then production scheduling decisions of this nature will no longer be a normal part of the manager's job.

Another far-reaching impact of the management information system should involve the time span of executive decisions. It is indicated that there will be increased responsiveness to internal and external change. Top executives will be aware of changes more quickly and will be in a position to react far more rapidly. Also, they should be better able to look further into the future. Their ability to forecast more accurately and to explore alternatives with greater precision should permit longer term planning and decision-making.

The systems planning activity can be expected, in the future, to assume an increasingly important organizational role in most companies. The technical requirements

placed on the systems planning function should create considerable demand for the talents of the systems planner. Such people will be hard to find, hard to train, and sometimes very hard to keep.

Modeling and simulation techniques should become increasingly important as tools of the systems planner. They can provide a method for bringing order and predictability out of a seeming chaos of multiple variables. Together, they offer the ability of gaining experience about real-life business systems without paying the penalties associated with real-life errors.

Simulation results such as described in this study, together with the current rapid rate of development in modeling and simulation techniques, serve to strengthen the author's belief that the analysis and evaluation of management information systems by simulation shows significant promise for eventual extension to useful evaluation of real systems.

The major effect of a management information system on management functions should be to facilitate the decision making process. This would be accomplished by giving the manager accurate and timely information with which to measure more precisely the economic and operational consequences of a decision. The manager's judgment, and the responsibility for the consequences, most likely will not

be transferred to a data-processing system, at least not in the foreseeable future.

To conclude, Peter F. Drucker has summed up the expected impact of "information technology" on management as well as it might be stated:

In dealing with their new tasks, the managers of the 1960's will, to a large extent, have to employ the same tools they are using today. But managers will also find, increasingly, that they are expected to know, understand, and handle new concepts and tools of management. Increasingly, they will find that they are expected to use systematic methods of analysis and decision making, supplemented by new tools of communication, computation and presentation.

Executives can safely disregard all the faciful talk about the computer "replacing managers" and "making decisions." Manager's work, it can be said with confidence, is going to become more important and their numbers larger. But the "management sciences"--such as operations resarch or decision-making logic--and the new electronic tools and systems are going to make a difference, even to the manager in the small business.

And the manager of 1970 will need all the help he can get from such concepts and tools. For his job is going to be so complex, so big, so demanding as to require all the tools of simplification and systematization that can possibly be obtained.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Peter F. Drucker, "The Next Decade in Management," Dun's Review and Modern Industry, LXXIV, No. 6 (December, 1959), pp. 60-61.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

THE MANUFACTURING MODEL AS DESCRIBED IN  
IBM GENERAL PURPOSE SYSTEMS SIMULATOR  
LANGUAGE

JOB ANALYSIS OF A MANUFACTURING INFORMATION SYSTEM (RUN 1)

\*\*\*\*\* ENVIRONMENT SYSTEM \*\*\*\*\*

INCOMING SALES ORDER LOOP

*		PRODUCT 1			
*	1	GENERATE		8	
*	2	HOLD	99	3	*7
*	3	ASSIGN	2 V1	4	
*	4	ASSIGN	8 K1	5	
*	5	ENTER	1 P2	6	
*	6	SAVEX	161+ P2	7	
*	7	QUEUE	1	350	
*	8	GATE	NU99	9	
*	9	ASSIGN	7 V35	2	
*		PRODUCT 2			
*	11	GENERATE		18	
*	12	HOLD	199	13	*7
*	13	ASSIGN	2 V1	14	
*	14	ASSIGN	8 K2	15	
*	15	ENTER	2 P2	16	
*	16	SAVEX	162+ P2	17	
*	17	QUEUE	2	385	
*	18	GATE	NU199	19	
*	19	ASSIGN	7 V36	12	

MATERIAL INPUT LOOP

*		RAW MATERIAL 1			
*	21	GENERATE		22	
*	22	GATE	LS1	23	
*	23	LOGIC	R1	24	
*	24	ASSIGN	2 X24	25	
*	25	SAVEX	21+ P2	26	
*	26	ADVANCE		27	80 32
*	27	SAVEX	21- P2	28	
*	28	ASSIGN	3 V2	29	
*	29	ENTER	7 P3	451	
*		RAW MATERIAL 2			
*	31	GENERATE		32	
*	32	GATE	LS2	33	



33	LOGIC	R2		34				SHUT GATE
34	ASSIGN	2	X25	35				ORDER QUANT.
35	SAVEX	22+	P2	36				ADD ON-ORDER
36	ADVANCE			37	80	32		DEL. DELAY
37	SAVEX	22-	P2	38				SUB ON-ORDER
38	ASSIGN	3	V2	39				CALC. REJECTS
39	ENTER	8	P3	453				ENTER INVENT.
*		PURCHASED PART D LOOP						
41	GENERATE			42				GEN. PART ORDR
42	GATE	LS3		43				DELAY FOR REL.
43	LOGIC	R3		44				SHUT GATE
44	ASSIGN	2	X26	45				ORDER QUANT.
45	SAVEX	23+	P2	46				ADD ON-ORDER
46	ADVANCE			47	120	40		DEL. DELAY
47	ASSIGN	3	V3	48				CALC. REJECTS
48	SPLIT			49	455			TO INFO SYSTEM
49	ADVANCE			50		16		MOVE TO INVEN.
50	SAVEX	23-	P2	51				SUB ON-ORDER
51	ENTER	6	P3	800				ENTER INVEN.

\*\*\*\*\* PHYSICAL SYSTEM \*\*\*\*\*

RAW MATERIAL RELEASE

MATERIAL 1 FOR PART A

101	GENERATE			102				GEN. ORDER, A
102	GATE	LS4		103				RELEASE DELAY
103	LOGIC	R4		104				SHUT GATE
104	ASSIGN	7	K1	105				PART A I.D.
105	ASSIGN	6	K5	106				
106	ASSIGN	8	C1	107				SAVE CLOCK
107	GATE	SNE7		108				ANY STOCK
108	LEAVE	7	K1	109				YES- DRAW OUT
109	SAVEX	163+	K1	110				INFO DATA
110	ADVANCE			151	8			MOVE DELAY

RAW MATERIAL 1 FOR PART B

111	GENERATE			112				GEN. ORDER, B
112	GATE	LS5		113				RELEASE DELAY
113	LOGIC	R5		114				SHUT GATE
114	ASSIGN	7	K2	115				PART B I.D.
115	ASSIGN	6	K4	106				

RAW MATERIAL 2 FOR PART C



188	SAVEX	78-	K1			800			
190	SAVEX	79-	K1			800			
*		FACILITY 2							
201	QUEUE	4				202			FAC. 2 QUEUE
202	GATE	LR30				203			DELAY GATE
203	ASSIGN	1	K21			204			LOC.- MANPOWER
204	ASSIGN	2	K120			205			UNITS
205	ASSIGN	2+	K1			206	220		
206	GATE	LR*1			BOTH	207	220		
207	GATE	NU*1			BOTH	208			MAN ASSIGNED
208	HOLD	*1				209		10	1
209	LOGIC	R30				210			UNIT AVAILABLE
210	ASSIGN	3	FN6		BOTH	211	182		USE UNIT
211	COMPARE	P3	E	K0		212			RESET GATE
212	ADVANCE					213			ANY REJE3TS
214	ENTER	3	K1			214			ANY REJECTS
215	SAVEX	13+	C1			215			MOVE TO INVEN.
216	SAVEX	13-	P8			216			ENTER INVEN.
217	SAVEX	14+	K1			217			ACCUM. LEAD
218	SAVEX	77-	K1			218			TIME
219	SAVEX	165+	K1			219			DATA
220	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	800			INFO. DATA
221	COMPARE	P1	GE	K26		221	205		STEP LOCATOR
222	LOGIC	S30				222			LAST UNIT
*		FACILITY 3							
250	QUEUE	5				251			FAC. 3 QUEUE
251	GATE	LR40				252			DELAY GATE
252	ASSIGN	1	K31			253			LOC.-MANPOWER
253	ASSIGN	2	K130			254			UNITS
254	ASSIGN	2+	K1			255	270		
255	GATE	LR*1			BOTH	256	270		
256	GATE	NU*1			BOTH	257			ANY MEN
257	HOLD	*1				258		1	UNIT AVAILABLE
258	LOGIC	R40				259			USE UNIT
259	ASSIGN	3	FN7		BOTH	260	182		SHUT GATE
260	COMPARE	P3	E	K0		261			CALC. REJECTS
261	ASSIGN	6	K3			301			ANY REJECTS
270	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	271	254		
271	COMPARE	P1	GE	K36		272			STEP LOCATOR
272	LOGIC	S40				251			LAST UNIT
*		FACILITY 4							
301	QUEUE	6				302			FAC. 4 QUEUE
302	GATE	LR154				303			DELAY GATE



354	COMPARE	V31	L	X33	355				REORDER
355	ASSIGN	1	X37		356				YES- ISSUE
356	SAVEX	77+	P1		357				
357	LOGIC	S4			358				ORDER TO
358	GATE	LR4			359				MATL 1 REL.
359	LCOP	1			357	360			
360	QUEUE	12			361				
361	COMPARE	P2	LE	S4	362				ANY B PARTS
362	SAVEX	169+	P2		363				INFO. DATA
363	LEAVE	4	P2		364	372			
364	COMPARE	V32	L	X34	365				REORDER
365	ASSIGN	1	X38		366				YES- ISSUE
366	SAVEX	78+	P1		367				
367	LOGIC*	S5			368				ORDER TO
368	GATE	LR5			369				MATL 1 REL.
369	LOOP	1			367	372			
372	QUEUE	14			373				
373	COMPARE	P2	LE	S6	374				ANY D PARTS
374	SAVEX	171+	P2		375				INFO. DATA
375	LEAVE	6	P2		398				
377	ASSIGN	6	K6		386				
376	ASSIGN	6	K4		352				
*		PRODUCT 2							
384	QUEUE	13			387				
385	ASSIGN	3	P2		377				CALC. REQUIRE
386	ASSIGN	3+	P2		384				PART C
387	COMPARE	P3	LE	S5	388				ANY C PARTS
388	SAVEX	170+	P3		389				INFO. DATA
389	LEAVE	5	P3		390	360			YES- PULL PART
390	COMPARE	V33	L	X35	391				REORDER
391	ASSIGN	1	X39		392				YES- ISSURE
392	SAVEX	79+	P1		393				ORDER TO
393	LOGIC	S6			394				MATL 2 REL.
394	GATE	LR6			395				
395	LOOP	1			393	360			
*		ASSEMBLY LOOP							
*									
*									
398	ASSIGN	5	V38		399				CALC. T9M5
399	ADVANCE				400	24	8		DELAY - MOVE
400	QUEUE	7			401				QUEUE UP
401	GATE	LR53			402				DELAY GATE
402	ASSIGN	1	K150		403				SET LOCATOR

403	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	404	430		
404	GATE	NU*1				405			
405	HOLD	*1				406		*5	2
406	LOGIC	R53			BOTH	407	421		
407	COMPARE	P8	E	K1		408			
408	LEAVE	1	P2			409			
409	SPLIT					410	496		
410	TABULATE	1				411			
411	TABULATE	3				800			
421	LEAVE	2	P2			422			
422	SPLIT					423	499		
423	TABULATE	2				424			
424	TABULATE	4				800			
430	ADVANCE				BOTH	431	403		
431	COMPARE	P1	GE	K159		432			
432	LOGIC	S53				401			

MAN AVAILABLE  
 USE HIM  
 RESET GATE  
 WHICH PART  
 PROD. 1  
 TO INFO SYSTEM

PROD. 2  
 TO INFO SYSTEM

MAN BUSY- NEXT  
 LAST MAN  
 YES- WAIT

\*\*\*\*\* INFORMATION SYSTEM \*\*\*\*\*

INFORMATION DELAY LOOPS

INCOMING ORDERS DELAY LOOP

439	ORIGINATE					440	8		
440	ASSIGN	1	X161			441			
441	ASSIGN	2	X162			442			
442	SPLIT					443	457		
443	ADVANCE					444			
444	SAVEX	1+	P1			445	40		
445	SAVEX	2+	P2		BOTH	446	448		
446	COMPARE	P1	E	KO	BOTH	447	449		
447	COMPARE	P2	E	KO		800			
448	ENTER	13	P1		BOTH	447	449		
449	ENTER	14	P2			800			

ADD ORDERS TO  
 BACKLOG

5 DAY DELAY  
 MATL 1 INVEN.

3 DAY DELAY  
 MATL 2 INVEN.

4 DAY DELAY  
 PART D INVEN.

BATCH MATL  
 MOVE DAILY

MATERIAL RECEIPTS DELAY

MATERIAL MOVE INTO PROCESS DELAY

459	SPLIT					460	466		
460	ADVANCE				BOTH	461	506	16	2 DAY DELAY
461	COMPARE	P1	E	KO		462			
462	ADVANCE				BOTH	463	507		
463	COMPARE	P2	E	KO		800			
464	LEAVE	15	P1			462			DECREASE
465	LEAVE	16	P2			800			MATL INVEN.
*						FINISHED PARTS MOVE INTO INVENTORY DELAY			
466	ASSIGN	1	X165			467			BATCH PARTS
467	ASSIGN	2	X166			468			DAILY
468	ASSIGN	3	X167			469			
469	SPLIT					470	481		
470	ADVANCE					471		16	2 DAY DELAY
471	SAVEX	30+	P1			472			ACCUM.
472	SAVEX	31+	P2			473			COMPLETED
473	SAVEX	32+	P3		BOTH	474	477		PARTS
474	COMPARE	P1	E	KO	BOTH	475	478		
475	COMPARE	P2	E	KO	BOTH	476	479		
476	COMPARE	P3	E	KO		800			
477	ENTER	18	P1		BOTH	475	478		ENTER PARTS
478	ENTER	19	P2		BOTH	476	479		INVENTORY
479	ENTER	20	P3			800			
*						FINISHED PARTS MOVE TO ASSEMBLY DELAY			
481	ASSIGN	1	X168			482			BATCH PARTS
482	ASSIGN	2	X169			483			DAILY
483	ASSIGN	3	X170			484			
484	ASSIGN	4	X171			485			
485	SPLIT					486	491		
486	ADVANCE				BOTH	502	487	24	3 DAY DELAY
487	LEAVE	18	P1		BOTH	503	488		WITHDRAW
488	LEAVE	19	P2		BOTH	504	489		PARTS
489	LEAVE	20	P3		BOTH	505	490		FROM
490	LEAVE	21	P4			800			INVENTORY
502	COMPARE	P1	E	KO	BOTH	503	488		
503	COMPARE	P2	E	KO	BOTH	504	489		
504	COMPARE	P3	E	KO	BOTH	505	490		
505	COMPARE	P4	E	KO		800			
506	COMPARE	P1	LE	S15		464			
507	COMPARE	P2	LE	S16		465			
*									
491	ASSIGN	1	K161			492			
492	ASSIGN	2	K11			493			
493	SAVEX	*1	KO			494			

494	INDEX	1	1		495		
495	LOOP	2			493	800	
*							
		PRODUCT SHIPMENT DELAY					
496	ADVANCE				497	24	3 DAY DELAY
497	COMPARE	S13	GE	P2	498		
498	LEAVE	13	P2		800		PROD. 1 SHIP.
499	ADVANCE				500	24	3 DAY DELAY
500	COMPARE	S14	GE	P2	501		
501	LEAVE	14	P2		800		PROD. 2 SHIP.
*							
*		FORECASTING LOOP					
*							
511	ORIGINATE				512	160	CYCLE- 4 WEEKS
512	ASSIGN	8	S13		513		SAVE ORDER
513	SAVEX	3	P8		514		BACKLOG
514	ASSIGN	7	S14		515		LEVELS
515	SAVEX	4	P7		520		
520	ASSIGN	6	K1		521		SET LOCATOR
521	ASSIGN	1	K5		522		
522	ASSIGN	3	X*6		523		ACTUAL ORDERS
523	SAVEX	*6	K0		524	528	ZERO COUNT
524	COMPARE	P3	G	X*1	525		COMP TO FORECT
525	ASSIGN	4	V4		526		INCREASE
526	ASSIGN	5	V5		531		
528	ASSIGN	4	V6		529		DECREASE
529	ASSIGN	5	V7		531		
*		PARTS EXPLOSION					
531	SAVEX	*1	P5		532		NEW FORECAST
532	ASSIGN	1	K6		533	544	
533	COMPARE	P6	E	K1	534		WHICH PART
534	SAVEX	7	P5		535		FORECST- A
535	SAVEX	9	P5		536		B
536	SAVEX	19	P5		537		D
537	SAVEX	8	P8		538		BACKLOG- A
538	SAVEX	10	P8		539		B
539	SAVEX	20	P8		540		D
540	ASSIGN	6	K2		522		
544	SAVEX	9+	P5		545		FORECST- B
545	SAVEX	11	P5		546		C
546	SAVEX	11+	P5		547		C
547	SAVEX	19+	P5		548		D
548	SAVEX	10+	P7		549		BACKLOG- B
549	SAVEX	12	P7		550		C



550	SAVEX	12+	P7		551			
551	SAVEX	20+	P7		552	562		C
552	COMPARE	C1	G	K2	561			
*			IMPLEMENTATION DELAY					
561	ADVANCE				562	40		5 DAY DELAY
562	ASSIGN	8	X8		563			
563	ASSIGN	7	X7		564			
564	ASSIGN	6	V8		565			
565	SAVEX	41	K42		566			
566	SAVEX	42	V9		567			
567	SAVEX	43	V10		568			
568	SAVEX	44	V11		569			
569	SAVEX	45	V12		570			
570	SAVEX	46	P6		571			
571	SAVEX	47	P6		575			
575	ASSIGN	8	X10		576			
576	ASSIGN	7	X9		577			
577	ASSIGN	6	V8		578			
578	SAVEX	48	K49		579			
579	SAVEX	49	V9		580			
580	SAVEX	50	V10		581			
581	SAVEX	51	V11		582			
582	SAVEX	52	V12		583			
583	SAVEX	53	P6		584			
584	SAVEX	54	P6		585			
585	ASSIGN	8	X12		586			
586	ASSIGN	7	X11		587			
587	ASSIGN	6	V8		588			
588	SAVEX	55	K56		589			
589	SAVEX	56	V9		590			
590	SAVEX	57	V10		591			
591	SAVEX	58	V11		592			
592	SAVEX	59	V12		593			
593	SAVEX	60	P6		594			
594	SAVEX	61	P6		610			
*								
*	MATERIAL PLANNING							
*								
610	ASSIGN	2	V13		611			MATL 1
611	ASSIGN	5	X21		612			CALC.
612	ASSIGN	4	V14		613	620		REQ.
613	COMPARE	P4	G	P5	614			MATL
614	ASSIGN	3	V18		627	620		



\*  
\*  
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SCHEDULING LOOP

	ORIGINATE	PROCESS				
701	ORIGINATE				702	40
702	ASSIGN	1	X41		703	
703	ASSIGN	2	X48		704	
704	ASSIGN	3	X55		705	
705	ASSIGN	7	V24		706	
706	ASSIGN	8	P7		707	
707	SAVEX	62	P7		708	
708	ASSIGN	7	V25		709	
709	ASSIGN	8+	P7		710	
710	SAVEX	63	P7		711	
711	ASSIGN	7	X*3		712	
712	ASSIGN	8+	P7		713	
713	SAVEX	64	P7		714	
714	ASSIGN	7	V26		715	
715	ASSIGN	8+	P7		716	
716	SAVEX	65	P7		717	
717	SAVEX	66	P8		721	
721	ASSIGN	2	X62		722	
722	ASSIGN	3	V27		723	
723	ASSIGN	4	V28		724	
724	SAVEX	67	P4		725	
725	ASSIGN	2	X63		726	
726	ASSIGN	3	V27		727	
727	ASSIGN	4	V28		728	
728	SAVEX	68	P4		729	
729	ASSIGN	2	X64		730	
730	ASSIGN	3	V27		731	
731	ASSIGN	4	V28		732	
732	SAVEX	69	P4		733	
733	ASSIGN	2	X65		734	
734	ASSIGN	3	V27		735	
735	ASSIGN	4	V28		736	
736	SAVEX	70	P4		740	
740	ASSIGN	1	K9		741	
741	ASSIGN	2	V40		742	
742	LOGIC	R*1			743	
743	INDEX	1	1	BOTH	744	750
744	COMPARE	P1	L	K21	745	
745	LOOP	2			746	

746	LOGIC	S*1				747	
747	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	748	746
748	COMPARE	P1	GE	K21		750	
750	ASSIGN	1	K21			751	
751	ASSIGN	2	V41			752	
752	LOGIC	R*1				753	
753	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	754	760
754	COMPARE	P1	L	K26		755	
755	LOOP	2				752	756
756	LOGIC	S*1				757	
757	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	758	756
758	COMPARE	P1	GE	K26		760	
760	ASSIGN	1	K31			761	
761	ASSIGN	2	V42			762	
762	LOGIC	R*1				763	
763	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	764	770
764	COMPARE	P1	L	K36		765	
765	LOOP	2				762	766
766	LOGIC	S*1				767	
767	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	768	766
768	COMPARE	P1	GE	K36		770	
770	ASSIGN	1	K39			771	
771	ASSIGN	2	V43			772	
772	LOGIC	R*1				773	
773	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	774	780
774	COMPARE	P1	L	K51		775	
775	LOOP	2				772	776
776	LOGIC	S*1				777	
777	INDEX	1	1		BOTH	778	776
778	COMPARE	P1	GE	K51		780	
*		ASSEMBLY					
780	ASSIGN	2	V29			781	
781	ASSIGN	3	V30			782	
782	SAVEX	71	P2			783	
783	SAVEX	72	P3			784	
784	SAVEX	41+	K1			785	
785	SAVEX	48+	K1			779	
779	SAVEX	55+	K1			800	
*							
*							
*							
		INITIALIZE LOOP					
786	GENERATE		1			787	
787	ENTER	3	K40			788	

788	ENTER	4	K200	789		
789	ENTER	5	K200	790		
790	ENTER	6	K450	791		
791	SAVEX	5	K60	792		
792	SAVEX	6	K250	793		
793	ENTER	7	K500	794		
794	ENTER	8	K500	795		
795	ENTER	15	K500	796		
796	ENTER	16	K500	797		
797	ENTER	18	K40	798		
798	ENTER	19	K200	799		
799	ENTER	20	K200	690		
690	ENTER	21	K450	691		
691	SAVEX	75	K1	692		
692	SAVEX	1	K60	693		
693	SAVEX	2	K250	694		
694	SPLIT			512	696	
696	ADVANCE			702		1
75	ORIGINATE			76		40
76	SAVEX	75+	K1	800		
800	TERMINATE					

\*  
\*                   VARIABLES  
\*

1	VARIABLE	FN10
2	VARIABLE	P2-P2/FN3
3	VARIABLE	P2-P2/FN4
4	VARIABLE	P3-X*1
5	VARIABLE	X*1+P4/K2
6	VARIABLE	X*1-P3
7	VARIABLE	X*1-P4/K2
8	VARIABLE	P7/K4
9	VARIABLE	P8/K3+P8/K3+P6
10	VARIABLE	P8/K8+P6
11	VARIABLE	P8/K14+P6
12	VARIABLE	P8/K25+P6
13	VARIABLE	X7+X8+X9+X10
14	VARIABLE	P2/K2+P2
15	VARIABLE	P3-S15
16	VARIABLE	P4+P4/K10
17	VARIABLE	X11+X12
18	VARIABLE	P4-P5
19	VARIABLE	P3-S16

20	VARIABLE	$X19+X20+X23$
21	VARIABLE	$X47*K3$
22	VARIABLE	$X54*K3$
23	VARIABLE	$X61*K3$
24	VARIABLE	$X*1*K5+X*2*K4$
25	VARIABLE	$X*1*K10$
26	VARIABLE	$X*2*K2+X*3*K2$
27	VARIABLE	$P2*K1000/P8$
28	VARIABLE	$K1088*P3/K100/K40+K5$
29	VARIABLE	$X1*K4+X3*K4$
30	VARIABLE	$X2*K6+X4*K6$
31	VARIABLE	$S3+X77$
32	VARIABLE	$S4+X78$
33	VARIABLE	$S5+X79$
35	VARIABLE	$FN1/FN11$
36	VARIABLE	$FN2*FN11$
37	VARIABLE	$X75$
38	VARIABLE	$P2*P6$
39	VARIABLE	$P2-S21$
40	VARIABLE	$X67/K10$
41	VARIABLE	$X68/K10$
42	VARIABLE	$X69/K10$
43	VARIABLE	$X70/K10$
44	VARIABLE	$X42+X47$
45	VARIABLE	$X49+X54$
46	VARIABLE	$X56+X61$

\*  
\*                    STORAGE CAPACITY  
\*

1	CAPACITY	2000
2	CAPACITY	2000
3	CAPACITY	2000
4	CAPACITY	2000
5	CAPACITY	2000
6	CAPACITY	2000
7	CAPACITY	2000
8	CAPACITY	2000
9	CAPACITY	2000
10	CAPACITY	2000
11	CAPACITY	2000
12	CAPACITY	2000
13	CAPACITY	2000
14	CAPACITY	2000

15 CAPACITY 2000  
 16 CAPACITY 2000  
 17 CAPACITY 2000  
 18 CAPACITY 2000  
 19 CAPACITY 2000  
 20 CAPACITY 2000  
 21 CAPACITY 2000

\*  
 \*  
 \*

DISTRIBUTIONS

1	FUNCTION	RN1	D4											
.25	3	.5	4	.75	5	1.	6							
2	FUNCTION	RN1	D3											
.80	1	.95	2	1.	3									
3	FUNCTION	RN1	C2											
0	10	1.	100											
4	FUNCTION	RN1	C2											
0	8	1.	100											
5	FUNCTION	RN1	D2											
.95	0	1.	1											
6	FUNCTION	RN1	D2											
.92	0	1.	1											
7	FUNCTION	RN1	D2											
.94	0	1.	1											
8	FUNCTION	RN1	D2											
.97	0	1.	1											
9	FUNCTION	RN1	D2											
.9	1.	1.	2											
10	FUNCTION	RN1	D4											
.5	1.	.75	2.	.95	3.	1.	4.							
11	FUNCTION	V37	D2											
8	1	30	3.											
99	FUNCTION	RN1	D12											
.20	.22	.34	.42	.46	.63	.56	.82	.63	1.0	.70	1.2			
.75	1.4	.82	1.7	.87	2.1	.94	2.8	.97	3.5	1.0	7.0			

\*  
 \*  
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TABLES

1	TABLE	M1	8	8	30
2	TABLE	M1	8	8	30
3	TABLE	P2	1	1	10
4	TABLE	P2	1	1	10
	START			160	