Inventory Management and more

PART IV





Demand management

- forecasting
- Order processing

Characteristics

- Demand patterns to be identified
- Trend
- Seasonality
- Random variation
- Stable versus dynamic
- Dependent versus independent demand

Collection and preparation of data

Forecasting techniques

- Qualitative...on judgment
- Extrinsic : external factors
- Intrinsic
 - Average demand if quite steady
 - Moving averages with little seasonality
 - Exponential smoothing : the new data can be given any weight wanted

- Seasonality
 - Index
 - Forecasts and annual demand average
 - Deseasonalized demand
 - Forecast error
 - Mean absolute deviation
 - Normal distribution
 - Production lead time / Demand lead time ratio



Figure 13.1

(a) Horizontal: Data cluster about a horizontal line.

Patterns of Demand



(b) Trend: Data consistently increase or decrease.



FUTURE TIME HORIZON

• Short-range forecast

- This forecast has a time span of up to 1 year but is generally less than 3 months. It is used for planning purchasing, job scheduling, workforce levels, job assignments, and production levels.
- Medium-range forecast
 - A medium-range, or intermediate, forecast generally spans from 3 months to 3 years. It is useful in sales planning, production planning and budgeting, cash budgeting, and analysis of various operating plans.
- Long-range forecast
 - Generally 3 years or more in time span, long-range forecasts are used in planning for new products, capital expenditures, facility location or expansion, and research and development.



Demand forecast application

Economic forecasts

 Planning indicators that are valuable in helping organizations prepare mediumto long-range forecasts.

Technological forecasts

• Long-term forecasts concerned with the rates of technological progress.

Demand forecasts

• Projections of a company's sales for each time period in the planning horizon.

Connection with techniques

TABLE 13.1 DEMAND FORECAST APPLICATIONS

	Time Horizon		
Application	Short Term (0–3 months)	Medium Term (3 months– 2 years)	Long Term (more than 2 years)
Forecast quantity	Individual products or services	Total sales Groups or families of products or services	Total sales
Decision area	Inventory management Final assembly scheduling Workforce scheduling Master production scheduling	Staff planning Production planning Master production scheduling Purchasing Distribution	Facility location Capacity planning Process management
Forecasting technique	Time series Causal Judgment	Causal Judgment	Causal Judgment

Jury of executive opinion

• A forecasting technique that uses the opinion of a small group of high-level managers to form a group estimate of demand.

Delphi method

• A forecasting technique using a group process that allows experts to make forecasts.

Sales force composite

• A forecasting technique based on salespersons' estimates of expected sales.

Market survey

• A forecasting method that solicits input from customers or potential customers regarding future purchasing plans.

• Principles

- Forecasts are usually wrong
- Every forecast should include an estimate of error
- Forecasts are more accurate for families or groups
- Forecasts are more accurate for nearer time periods

Collection and preparation of data

Forecasting techniques

- Qualitative...on judgment
- Extrinsic : external factors
- Intrinsic
 - Average demand if quite steady
 - Moving averages with little seasonality
 - Exponential smoothing : the new data can be given any weight wanted

Sum up

ABOUT FORECASTS TRENDS

ABOUT TIME

WHAT KIND OF MEASURES' APPROACH

Naive approach



Moving averages

• A forecasting method that uses an average of the n most recent periods of data to forecast the next period.

Donna's Garden Supply wants a 3-month moving-average forecast, including a forecast for next January, for shed sales.

APPROACH Storage shed sales are shown in the middle column of the following table. A 3-month moving average appears on the right.

MONTH	ACTUAL SHED SALES	3-MONTH MOVING AVERAGE
January	10	<u> </u>
February	12	
March	13	
April	16	$(10 + 12 + 13)/3 = 11\frac{2}{3}$
May	19	$(12 + 13 + 16)/3 = 13\frac{2}{3}$
June	23	(13 + 16 + 19)/3 = 16
July	26	$(16 + 19 + 23)/3 = 19\frac{1}{3}$
August	30	$(19 + 23 + 26)/3 = 22\frac{2}{3}$
September	28	$(23 + 26 + 30)/3 = 26\frac{1}{3}$
October	18	(26 + 30 + 28)/3 = 28
November	16	$(30 + 28 + 18)/3 = 25\frac{1}{3}$
December	14	$(28 + 18 + 16)/3 = 20\frac{2}{3}$



where n is the number of periods in the moving average—for example, 4, 5, or 6 m respectively, for a 4-, 5-, or 6-period moving average.





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DETERMINING THE WEIGHTED MOVING AVERAGE

Donna's Garden Supply (see Example 1) wants to forecast storage shed sales by weighting the past 3 months, with more weight given to recent data to make them more significant.





SOLUTION ► The results of this weighted-average forecast are as follows:

MONTH	ACTUAL SHED SALES	3-MONTH WEIGHTED MOVING AVERAGE
January	10	
February	12	
March	13	
April	16	$[(3 \times 13) + (2 \times 12) + (10)]/6 = 12\frac{1}{6}$
May	19	$[(3 \times 16) + (2 \times 13) + (12)]/6 = 14\frac{1}{3}$
June	23	$[(3 \times 19) + (2 \times 16) + (13)]/6 = 17$
July	26	$[(3 \times 23) + (2 \times 19) + (16)]/6 = 20\frac{1}{2}$
August	30	$[(3 \times 26) + (2 \times 23) + (19)]/6 = 23\frac{5}{6}$
September	28	$[(3 \times 30) + (2 \times 26) + (23)]/6 = 27\frac{1}{2}$
October	18	$[(3 \times 28) + (2 \times 30) + (26)]/6 = 28\frac{1}{3}$
November	16	$[(3 \times 18) + (2 \times 28) + (30)]/6 = 23\frac{1}{3}$
December	14	$[(3 \times 16) + (2 \times 18) + (28)]/6 = 18\frac{2}{3}$

WEIGHTED MOVING AVERAGE

Comparison

 Moving-average methods always lag behind when there is a trend present, as shown by the blue line (actual sales) for January through August.



Exponential Smoothing

Exponential smoothing is another weighted-moving-average forecasting method. It involves ver *little* record keeping of past data and is fairly easy to use. The basic exponential smoothin formula can be shown as follows:

New forecast = Last period's forecast + α (Last period's actual demand – Last period's forecast) (4-3

where α is a weight, or smoothing constant, chosen by the forecaster, that has a value greate than or equal to 0 and less than or equal to 1. Equation (4-3) can also be written mathemati cally as:

$$F_t = F_{t-1} + \alpha (A_{t-1} - F_{t-1}) \tag{4-4}$$

where

 $F_{t} = \text{new forecast}$

 F_{t-1} = previous period's forecast

 α = smoothing (or weighting) constant ($0 \le \alpha \le 1$)

 A_{t-1} = previous period's actual demand

Exponential Smoothing

Weighted exponential smoothing

It can be changed to give more weight to recent data (when a is high) or more weight to past data (when a is low).

WEIGHT ASSIGNED TO					
SMOOTHING CONSTANT	MOST RECENT PERIOD (a)	2ND MOST RECENT PERIOD ac(1-ac)	3RD MOST RECENT PERIOD a(1-a) ²	4TH MOST RECENT PERIOD α(1-α) ²	5TH MOST RECENT PERIOD ar(1-a) ⁴
$\alpha = .1$.1	.09	.081	.073	.066
$\alpha = .5$.5	.25	.125	.063	.031



- Better trend identification
- Demand and forecasts are smoothed

To improve our forecast, let us illustrate a more complex exponential smoothing model, one that adjusts for trend. The idea is to compute an exponentially smoothed average of the data and then adjust for positive or negative lag in trend. The new formula is:

Forecast including trend (FIT_t) = Exponentially smoothed forecast average (F_t) + Exponentially smoothed trend (T_t) (4-8)

With trend-adjusted exponential smoothing, estimates for both the average and the trend are smoothed. This procedure requires two smoothing constants: α for the average and β for the trend. We then compute the average and trend each period:

 $F_t = \alpha$ (Actual demand last period) + $(1 - \alpha)$ (Forecast last period + Trend estimate last period)

or:

$$F_t = \alpha(A_{t-1}) + (1 - \alpha)(F_{t-1} + T_{t-1})$$
(4-9)

 $T_t = \beta$ (Forecast this period – Forecast last period) + $(1 - \beta)$ (Trend estimate last period)

or:

$$T_t = \beta(F_t - F_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta)T_{t-1}$$
(4-10)

where F_t = exponentially smoothed forecast average of the data series in period t T_t = exponentially smoothed trend in period t A_t = actual demand in period t α = smoothing constant for the average ($0 \le \alpha \le 1$) β = smoothing constant for the trend ($0 \le \beta \le 1$)

MONTH	ACTUAL DEMAND	FORECAST (F _t) FOR MONTHS 1–5
1	100	$F_1 = 100$ (given)
2	200	$F_2 = F_1 + \alpha (A_1 - F_1) = 100 + .4(100 - 100) = 100$
3	300	$F_3 = F_2 + \alpha (A_2 - F_2) = 100 + .4(200 - 100) = 140$
4	400	$F_4 = F_3 + \alpha (A_3 - F_3) = 140 + .4(300 - 140) = 204$
5	500	$F_5 = F_4 + \alpha(A_4 - F_4) = 204 + .4(400 - 204) = 282$

To improve our forecast, let us illustrate a more complex exponential smoothing model, one that adjusts for trend. The idea is to compute an exponentially smoothed average of the data and then adjust for positive or negative lag in trend. The new formula is:

Forecast including trend (*FIT_t*) = Exponentially smoothed forecast average (F_t)

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(4-9)

 $T_t = \beta$ (Forecast this period – Forecast last period) + $(1 - \beta)$ (Trend estimate last period) or:

$$T_t = \beta(F_t - F_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta)T_{t-1}$$
(4-10)

where F_t = exponentially smoothed forecast average of the data series in period t

 T_t = exponentially smoothed trend in period t

- $A_t =$ actual demand in period t
- α = smoothing constant for the average ($0 \le \alpha \le 1$)
- β = smoothing constant for the trend ($0 \le \beta \le 1$)

Changing trend



Exponential Smoothing with Trend Adjustment Example

MONTH (t)	ACTUAL DEMAND (A_t)	MONTH (<i>t</i>)	ACTUAL DEMAND (A_t)
1	12	6	21
2	17	7	31
3	20	8	28
4	19	9	36
5	24	10	?

$$\alpha$$
 = .2 β = .4

Exponential Smoothing with Trend Adjustment Example (1 of 5)

Table 4.2 Forecast with α = .2 and β = .4


Exponential Smoothing with Trend Adjustment Example (2 of 5)

Table 4.2 Forecast with α = .2 and β = .4

MONTH		SMOOTHED FORECAST ID AVERAGE, <i>F_t</i>	SMOOTHED TREND, <i>T_t</i>	FORECAST INCLUDING TREND, <i>FIT_t</i>
1	12	11	2	13.00
2	17	12.80	1.92	
3	20			
4	19			
5	24	Step 2: Trer	nd for Montl	n
6	21	T of F		
7	31	$I_2 = \beta(F)$	′ ₂ 🔸 – ₁) 💺 (1	$- \beta) /_{1}$
8	28	$T_{2} = (.4)$	(12.8 - 11)	+(14)(2)
9	36	.2 ()		
10	—	= .72	+ 1.2 = 1.9	2 units

Exponential Smoothing with Trend Adjustment Example (3 of 5)

Table 4.2 Forecast with α = .2 and β = .4



Exponential Smoothing with Trend Adjustment Example (4 of 5)

Table 4.2 Forecast with α = .2 and β = .4

MONTH	ACTUAL DEMAND	SMOOTHED FORECAST AVERAGE, <i>F_t</i>	SMOOTHED TREND, <i>T_t</i>	FORECAST INCLUDING TREND, <i>FIT_t</i>
1	12	11	2	13.00
2	17	12.80	1.92	14.72
3	20	15.18	2.10	17.28
4	19	17.82	2.32	20.14
5	24	19.91	2.23	22.14
6	21	22.51	2.38	24.89
7	31	24.11	2.07	26.18
8	28	27.14	2.45	29.59
9	36	29.28	2.32	31.60
10		32.48	2.68	35.16

Seasonal indices

- 1. Find the *average historical demand each season* (or month in this case) by summing the demand for that month in each year and dividing by the number of years of data available. For example, if, in January, we have seen sales of 8, 6, and 10 over the past 3 years, average January demand equals (8 + 6 + 10)/3 = 8 units.
- 2. Compute the *average demand over all months* by dividing the total average annual demand by the number of seasons. For example, if the total average demand for a year is 120 units and there are 12 seasons (each month), the average monthly demand is 120/12 = 10 units.
- **3.** Compute a *seasonal index* for each season by dividing that *month's* historical average demand (from Step 1) by the average demand over all months (from Step 2). For example, if the average historical January demand over the past 3 years is 8 units and the average demand over all months is 10 units, the seasonal index for January is 8/10 = .80. Likewise, a seasonal index of 1.20 for February would mean that February's demand is 20% larger than the average demand over all months.
- 4. Estimate next year's total annual demand.
- 5. Divide this estimate of total annual demand by the number of seasons, then multiply it by the seasonal index for each month. This provides the *seasonal forecast*.

Time-Series Methods Seasonal Influences



Quarter	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
1	45	70	100	100
2	335	370	585	725
3	520	590	830	1160
4	100	170	285	215
То	tal 1000	1200	1800	2200

Seasonal variations

Regular upward or downward movements in a time series that tie to recurring events.

Time-Series Methods Seasonal Influences



Period	Quarters	•			
Starting Year	1	Years	4		
Computed Fore	2600				
User-supplied Forecast Demand for Year 5 2600					

			Year	
Quarter	1	2	3	4
1	45	70	100	100
2	335	370	585	725
3	520	590	830	1160
4	100	170	285	215

Time-Series Methods Seasonal Influences



Period	Qua	a .		s	easonal		-	
Starting Year		Quarter	1		0.2043		Horecast 132.795 843.635	i
Computed Forecast I			2 3 4		2.0001 0.4977		1300.065 323.505	
User-supplied Foreca					0.1011		010.000	
					Year			
Quarter		1		2		3		4
1		45		70		100		100
2		335		370		585		725
3		520		590		830	1	160
4		100		170		285		<mark>215</mark>

Seasonal Patterns



Seasonal Patterns



Seasonal Index Example (1 of 6)

		DEMAND						
MONTH	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	AVERAGE PERIOD DEMAND	AVERAGE MONTHLY DEMAND	SEASONAL INDEX		
Jan	80	85	105	90				
Feb	70	85	85	80				
Mar	80	93	82	85				
Apr	90	95	115	100				
Мау	113	125	131	123				
June	110	115	120	115				
July	100	102	113	105				
Aug	88	102	110	100				
Sept	85	90	95	90				
Oct	77	78	85	80				
Nov	75	82	83	80				
Dec	82	78	80	80				
	Total average annual demand = 1,128							

Seasonal Index Example (2 of 6)

		DEMAND					
MONTH	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	AVERAGE PERIOD DEMAND	AVERAGE MONTHLY DEMAND	SEASONAL INDEX	
Jan	80	85	105	90	94		
Feb	70	85	85	ရ	94		
Mar	A			5	94		
Apr	Average	'1	,128	- 04	94		
Мау	monthly = $\frac{12 \text{ months}}{12 \text{ months}}$			- - 94 β	94		
June	demand			5	94		
July	100	TUZ	115	105	94		
Aug	88	102	110	100	94		
Sept	85	90	95	90	94		
Oct	77	78	85	80	94		
Nov	75	82	83	80	94		
Dec	82	78	80	80	94		
	Total average annual demand = 1,128						

Seasonal Index Example (3 of 6)

		DEMAND				
MONTH	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	AVERAGE PERIOD DEMAND	AVERAGE MONTHLY DEMAND	SEASONAL INDEX
Jan	80	85	105	90	94	.957 (= 90/94)
Feb	70	85	85	80	94	
Mar	80	93	82	85	94	
Apr	۹n	95	115	100	Q/I	
Seasonal = Average monthly demand for past 3 years index Average monthly demand						
Sept	85	90	95	90	94	
Oct	77	78	85	80	94	
Nov	75	82	83	80	94	
Dec	82	78	80	80	94	
Total average annual demand = 1,128						

Seasonal Index Example (4 of 6)

		DEMAND				
MONTH	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	AVERAGE PERIOD DEMAND	AVERAGE MONTHLY DEMAND	SEASONAL INDEX
Jan	80	85	105	90	94	.957 (= 90/94)
Feb	70	85	85	80	94	.851 (= 80/94)
Mar	80	93	82	85	94	.904 (= 85/94)
Apr	90	95	115	100	94	1.064 (= 100/94)
May	113	125	131	123	94	1.309 (= 123/94)
June	110	115	120	115	94	1.223 (= 115/94)
July	100	102	113	105	94	1.117 (= 105/94)
Aug	88	102	110	100	94	1.064 (= 100/94)
Sept	85	90	95	90	94	.957 (= 90/94)
Oct	77	78	85	80	94	.851 (= 80/94)
Nov	75	82	83	80	94	.851 (= 80/94)
Dec	82	78	80	80	94	.851 (= 80/94)
	Tota	al average a	annual dema	and = 1,128		

Seasonal Index Example (5 of 6)

Seasonal forecast for Year 4

MONTH	DEMAND	MONTH	DEMAND
Jan	<u>1,200</u> × .957 = 96	July	$\frac{1,200}{12}$ × 1.117 = 112
Feb	<u>1,200</u> × .851 = 85	Aug	$\frac{1,200}{12}$ × 1.064 = 106
Mar	<u>1,200</u> × .904 = 90	Sept	<u>1,200</u> × .957 = 96
Apr	<u>1,200</u> × 1.064 = 106	Oct	<u>1,200</u> × .851 = 85
May	<u>1,200</u> × 1.309 = 131	Nov	<u>1,200</u> × .851 = 85
June	<u>1,200</u> × 1.223 = 122	Dec	<u>1,200</u> × .851 = 85

USING REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR FORECASTING

- We can use the same mathematical model that we employed in the least-squares method of trend projection to perform a linear-regression analysis.
- The dependent variables that we want to forecast will still be n y. But now the independent variable, x, need no longer be time.
- We use the equation: n y = a + bx where n y = value of the dependent variable (in our example, sales) a = y axis intercept b = slope of the regression line x = independent variable

We now deal with the same mathematical model that we saw earlier, the least-squares method. But we use any potential "cause-and-effect"

Trend projections

And a is = (average y) - b (average x)

 $\hat{y} = a + bx$ $b = \frac{\sum xy - nxy}{\sum x^2 - n\overline{x}^2}$



Figure **4.4**

The Least-Squares Method for Finding the Best-Fitting Straight Line, Where the Asterisks Are the Locations of the Seven Actual Observations or Data Points

Least Squares Example

YEAR	ELECTRICAL POWER DEMAND	YEAR	ELECTRICAL POWER DEMAND
1	74	5	105
2	79	6	142
3	80	7	122
4	90		

Least Squares Example

YEAR (x)	ELECTRICAL POWER DEMAND (y)	x ²	xy
1	74	1	74
2	79	4	158
3	80	9	240
4	90	16	360
5	105	25	525
6	142	36	852
7	122	49	854
$\Sigma x = 28$	$\Sigma y = 692$	$\Sigma x^2 = 140$	$\Sigma xy = 3,063$

$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\sum \mathbf{x}}{n} = \frac{28}{7} = 4$$
 $\overline{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\sum \mathbf{y}}{n} = \frac{692}{7} = 98.86$

Least Squares Example

$$b = \frac{\sum xy - n\overline{xy}}{\sum x^2 - n\overline{x}^2} = \frac{3,063 - (7)(4)(98.86)}{140 - (7)(4^2)} = \frac{295}{28} = 10.54$$

$$a = \overline{y} - b\overline{x} = 98.86 - 10.54(4) = 56.70$$

Thus, $\hat{y} = 56.70 + 10.54x$

$$\overline{y} = 56.70 + 10.54x$$

Demand in year 8 = 56.70 + 10.54(8)
= 141.02, or 141 megawatts

Figure 4.5

Least Squares Example



Least Squares Requirements

- We always plot the data to insure a linear relationship
- We do not predict time periods far beyond the database
- Deviations around the least squares line are assumed to be random

Forecast errors



Monitoring and controling forecast

Using a tracking signal is a good way to make sure the forecasting system is continuing to do a good job

even negative or positive

Choosing a Method Forecast Error



Measures of Forecast Error

 $E_t = D_t - F_t$



Forecast error = Actual demand – Forecast value = $A_t - F_t$

Several measures are used in practice to calculate the overall forecast error. These measures can be used to compare different forecasting models, as well as to monitor forecasts to ensure they are performing well. Three of the most popular measures are mean absolute deviation (MAD), mean squared error (MSE), and mean absolute percent error (MAPE). We now describe and give an example of each.

Mean Absolute Deviation The first measure of the overall forecast error for a model is the mean absolute deviation (MAD). This value is computed by taking the sum of the absolute values of the individual forecast errors (deviations) and dividing by the number of periods of data (n):

$$MAD = \frac{\sum |Actual - Forecast|}{n}$$
(4-5)

FORECAST ERRORS MAD

MAPE

DETERMINING THE MEAN ABSOLUTE PERCENT ERROR (MAPE)

The Port of Baltimore wants to now calculate the MAPE when $\alpha = .10$.

APPROACH ► Equation (4-7) is applied to the forecast data computed in Example 4.

SOLUTION >

QUARTER	ACTUAL TONNAGE UNLOADED	FORECAST FOR at = .10	ABSOLUTE PERCENT ERROR 100 (JERRORI/ACTUAL)
1	180	175.00	100(5/180) - 2.78%
2	168	175.50	100(7.5/168) = 4.46%
3	159	174.75	100(15.75/159) - 9.90%
4	175	173.18	100(1.82/175) = 1.05%
5	190	173.36	100(16.64/190) = 8.76%
6	205	175.02	100(29.98/205) = 14.62%
7	180	178.02	100(1.98/180) = 1.10%
8	182	178.22	$\frac{100(3.78/182) - 2.08\%}{\text{Sum of % errors} = 44.75\%}$

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum absolute percent error}{n} = \frac{44.75\%}{8} = 5.59\%$$

INSIGHT MAPE expresses the error as a percent of the actual values, undistorted by a single large value.

Monitoring and Controlling Forecasts

- Tracking Signal
- Measures how well the forecast is predicting actual values
- Ratio of cumulative forecast errors to mean absolute deviation (MAD)
 - Good tracking signal has low values
 - If forecasts are continually high or low, the forecast has a bias error

Monitoring and Controlling Forecasts (2 of 2)

Tracking signal = $\frac{\text{Cumulative error}}{\text{MAD}}$

 $= \frac{\sum (\text{Actual demand in period i - Forecast demad in period i})}{\sum |\text{Actual - Forecast}|}$

n



Standard Error of the Estimate

The forecast of \$3,250,000 for Nodel's sales in Example 12 is called a *point estimate* of y. The point estimate is really the *mean*, or *expected value*, of a distribution of possible values of sales. Figure 4.9 illustrates this concept.

To measure the accuracy of the regression estimates, we must compute the standard error of the estimate, $S_{y,x}$. This computation is called the *standard deviation of the regression*: It measures the error from the dependent variable, y, to the regression line, rather than to the mean. Equation (4-14) is a similar expression to that found in most statistics books for computing the standard deviation of an arithmetic mean:

$$S_{y,x} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(y - y_c)^2}{n - 2}}$$
(4-14)

where

y = y-value of each data point





Standard Error of the estimate

Forecasting in the service sector Forecasting at McDonald's, FedEx, and Walmart is as important and complex as it is for manufacturers such as Toyota and Dell.

Specialty retail facilities, such as flower shops, may have other unusual demand patterns, and those patterns will differ depending on the holiday

Fast-food restaurants are well aware not only of weekly, daily, and hourly but even 15minute variations in demands that influence sales. Therefore, detailed forecasts of demand are needed

Services again

- Taco Bell now use point-of-sale computers that track sales every quarter hour. Taco Bell found that a 6-week moving average was the forecasting technique that minimized its mean squared error (MSE) of these quarter-hour forecasts.
- Projections of customer transactions. These in turn are used by store managers to schedule staff, who begin in 15-minute increments, not 1-hour blocks as in other industries. The forecasting model has been so successful that Taco Bell has increased customer service while documenting more than \$50 million in labor cost savings in 4 years of use.





Application

COMPUTING THE TRACKING SIGNAL AT CARLSON'S BAKERY

Carlson's Bakery wants to evaluate performance of its croissant forecast.

APPROACH \blacktriangleright Develop a tracking signal for the forecast, and see if it stays within acceptable limits, which we define as ± 4 MADs.

SOLUTION \blacktriangleright Using the forecast and demand data for the past 6 quarters for croissant sales, we develop a tracking signal in the following table:

QUARTER	ACTUAL DEMAND	FORECAST DEMAND	ERROR		ABSOLUTE FORECAST ERROR	CUMULATIVE ABSOLUTE FORECAST ERROR	MAD	TRACKING SIGNAL (CUMULATIVE ERROR/MAD)
1	90	100	-10	-10	10	10	10.0	-10/10 = -1
2	95	100	-5	-15	5	15	7.5	-15/7.5 = -2
3	115	100	+15	0	15	30	10.0	0/10 = 0
4	100	110	-10	-10	10	40	10.0	-10/10 = -1
5	125	110	+15	+5	15	55	11.0	+5/11 = +0.5
6	140	110	+30	+35	30	85	14.2	+35/14.2 = +2.5

At the end of quarter 6, MAD =
$$\frac{\sum |\text{Forecast errors}|}{n} = \frac{85}{6} = 14.2$$

and Tracking signal = $\frac{\text{Cumulative error}}{\text{MAD}} = \frac{35}{14.2} = 2.5 \text{ MADs}$

Exercice

The following data come from regression line projections:

PERIOD	FORECAST VALUES	ACTUAL VALUES
1	410	406
2	419	423
3	428	423
4	435	440

Compute the MAD and MSE.

Another

Room registrations in the Toronto Towers Plaza Hotel have been recorded for the past 9 years. To project future occupancy, management would like to determine the mathematical trend of guest registration. This estimate will help the hotel determine whether future expansion will be needed. Given the following time-series data, develop a regression equation relating registrations to time (e.g., a trend equation). Then forecast year 11 registrations. Room registrations are in the thousands:

Year 1: 17	Year 2: 16	Year 3: 16	Year 4: 21	Year 5: 20
Year 6: 20	Year 7: 23	Year 8: 25	Year 9: 24	

Seasonal

Quarterly demand for Ford F150 pickups at a New York auto dealer is forecast with the equation:

 $\hat{y} = 10 + 3x$ where x = quarters, and: Quarter I of year 1 = 0Quarter II of year 1 = 1Quarter III of year 1 = 2Quarter IV of year 1 = 3Quarter I of year 2 = 4and so on

and:

 $\hat{y} =$ quarterly demand

The demand for trucks is seasonal, and the indices for Quarters I, II, III, and IV are 0.80, 1.00, 1.30, and 0.90, respectively. Forecast demand for each quarter of year 3. Then, seasonalize each forecast to adjust for quarterly variations.


Inventory Management



Inventory management why ?

- When Jeff Bezos opened his revolutionary business in 1995, Amazon.com was intended to be a "virtual" retailer—no inventory, no warehouses, no overhead just a bunch of computers taking orders for books and authorizing others to fill them.
- Now, Amazon stocks millions of items of inventory, amid hundreds of thousands of bins on shelves in over 150 warehouses around the world.



Why inventory ?

1. To provide a selection of goods for anticipated customer demand and to separate the firm from fluctuations in that demand. Such inventories are typical in retail establishments. 2. To decouple various parts of the production process. For example, if a firm's supplies fluctuate, extra inventory may be necessary to decouple the production process from suppliers.

3. To take advantage of quantity discounts, because purchases in larger quantities may reduce the cost of goods or their delivery.

4. To hedge **against** inflation and upward price **changes**

Types of inventory

- Raw material inventory Materials that are usually purchased but have yet to enter the manufacturing process.
- Work-in-process (WIP) inventory Products or components that are no longer raw materials but have yet to become finished products.
- Maintenance/repair/operatin g (MRO) inventory Maintenance, repair, and operating materials.



Material Flow Cycle st of the time that work is in-process (95% of the cycle time) is not productive time.

Inventory Costs

- Interest or Opportunity Cost
- Storage and Handling Costs
- Taxes, Insurance, and Shrinkage



Inventory Costs

- Customer Service
- Ordering Cost
- Setup Cost
- Labor and Equipment Utilization
- Transportation Costs
- Payments to Suppliers



Types of Inventory

Cycle Inventory

Average cycle inventory =

<u>Q + 0</u>

Safety Stock Inventory Anticipation Inventory Pipeline Inventory

Pipeline inventory = $D_L = dL$

Types of Inventory Cycle inventory = Q/2 = 280/2

= 140 drills



Pipeline inventory

= \overline{D}_{L} = dL = (70 drills/week)(3 weeks) = 210 drills

ABC Analysis





Record accuracy

And Cycle counting

 A continuing reconciliation of inventory with inventory records



In this hospital, these vertically rotating storage carousels provide rapid access to hundreds of critical items and at the same tim save floor space. This Omnicell inventory management carousel is also secure and has the added advantage of printing bar code labels.

Cycle counting example (pipeline)

- CYCLE COUNTING AT COLE'S TRUCKS, INC. Cole's Trucks, Inc., a builder of high-quality refuse trucks, has about 5,000 items in its inventory. It wants to determine how many items to cycle count each day.
- APPROACH After hiring Matt Clark, a bright young OM student, for the summer, the firm determined that it has
 - 500 A items, 1,750 B items, and 2,750 C items.
- Company policy is to count all A items every month (every 20 working days), all B items every quarter (every 60 working days), and all C items every 6 months (every 120 working days). The firm then allocates some items to be counted each day.



Assumptions

- 1. Demand rate is constant
- 2. No constraints on lot size
- 3. Only relevant costs are holding and ordering/setup
- 4. Decisions for items are independent from other items
- 5. No uncertainty in lead time or supply







Figure 15.4

Lot Size (Q)

• Costing Out a Lot-Sizing Policy

• A museum of natural history opened a gift shop two years ago. Managing inventories has become a problem. Low inventory turnover is squeezing profit margins and causing cash-flow *problems*.

• One of the top-selling items in the container group at the museum's gift shop is a bird feeder. Sales are 18 units per week, and the supplier charges \$60 per unit. The cost of placing an order with the supplier is \$45. Annual holding cost is 25 percent of a feeder's value, and the museum operates 52 weeks per year. Management chose a 390-unit lot size so that new orders could be placed less frequently. What is the annual cost of the current policy of using a 390-unit lot size? Would a lot size of 468 be better?







Economic Order Quantity Current cost Example 15.2 3000 Total cost = $\frac{Q}{2}(H) + \frac{D}{Q}(S)$ (รา **Bird feeder costs** <u>О</u>(Н) Holding cost = *D* = (18 /week)(52 weeks) = 936 units *H* = 0.25 (\$60/unit) = \$15 S = \$45 Q = 390 units Ordering cost = $C=\frac{Q}{2}(H)+\frac{D}{Q}(S)$ C = \$2925 + \$108 = \$3033300 350 400 Current

Economic Order Quantity Current cost Example 15.2 3000 Total cost = $\frac{Q}{2}(H) + \frac{D}{Q}(S)$ (รา **Bird feeder costs** <u>О</u>(Н) Holding cost = D = (18 / week)(52 weeks) = 936 unitsH = 0.25 (\$60/unit) = \$15 S = \$45 Q = 468 units $\frac{D}{O}(S)$ Ordering cost = $C=\frac{Q}{2}(H)+\frac{D}{Q}(S)$ C = \$3510 + \$90 = \$3600300 350 400 Current















Time between orders $TBO_{EOQ} = \frac{EOQ}{D} = 75/936 = 0.080$ year $TBO_{FOQ} = (75/936)(12) = 0.96$ months $TBO_{FOQ} = (75/936)(52) = 4.17$ weeks $TBO_{FOQ} = (75/936)(365) = 29.25 \text{ days}$ 250 300 350 400 Current

O





EXAMPLE

Determining Whether to Place an Order

Demand for chicken soup at a supermarket is always 25 cases a day and the lead time is always four days. The shelves were just restocked with chicken soup, leaving an on-hand inventory of only 10 cases. There are no backorders, but there is one open order for 200 cases. What is the inventory position? Should a new order be placed?



Special Inventory Models

Quantity Discounts



Special Inventory Models

Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3







Special Inventory Models

Quantity Discounts

C for P = \$4.00

C for P = \$3.50

C for P = \$3.00

Figure E.3






Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



(a) Total cost curves with purchased materials added

Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



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Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



Quantity Discounts

Figure E.3



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Quantity Discounts



Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price



Quantity Discounts



$$EOQ_{57.00} = \sqrt{\frac{2DS}{H}}$$

Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price





Quantity Discounts

Order Quantity	Price per Unit			
0 – 299	\$60.00			
300 – 499	\$58.80			
500 or more	\$57.00			

$$\mathsf{EOQ}_{57.00} = \sqrt{\frac{2(936)(45)}{0.25(57.00)}}$$



Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price

Quantity Discounts



Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price

EOQ_{57.00} = 77 units







Quantity Discounts

Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price









Quantity Discounts



Order Quantity	Price per Unit
0 – 299	\$60.00
300 – 499	\$58.80
500 or more	\$57.00

Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price



 $EOQ_{58.80} = 76$ units





Quantity Discounts



Order Quantity	Price per Unit
0 – 299	\$60.00
300 – 499	\$58.80
500 or more	\$57.00

Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45 Holding cost = 25% of unit price





Order Quantity	Price per Unit	
0 – 299	\$60.00	Annual demand = 936 units
300 – 499	\$58.80	Ordering cost = \$45
500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit price









Order Quantity	Price per Unit	
0 – 299	\$60.00	Annual demand = 936 units
300 – 499	\$58.80	Ordering cost = \$45
500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit price





Order Quantity	Price per Unit		
0 – 299	\$60.00	А	nnual demand = 936 units
300 – 499	\$58.80		Ordering cost = \$45
500 or more	\$57.00	Holdir	ng cost = 25% of unit price
EOQ-T	units EOQ _{59.60}	-o units	EOQ _{60.00} = 75 units
$C = \frac{Q}{2} (H) + \frac{L}{Q}$	<u>)</u> (S) + PD		





Quantity Discounts



Order Quantity	Price per Unit	
0 – 299	\$60.00	Annual demand = 936 units
300 – 499	\$58.80	Ordering cost = \$45
500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit price
	V 01100	



 $C_{75} = $57,284$







Order Quantity	Price per Unit				
0 – 299	\$60.00	А	nnual demand = 936 units		
300 – 499	\$58.80		Ordering cost = \$45		
500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit pri			
EOQ _{FT.00} -// u	nits EOQ _{59.50}	40 Units	EOQ _{60.00} = 75 units		
$C_{75} = $57,284$					
$C_{300} = $57,382$					







Order Quantity	Price per Unit				
0 - 299	\$60.00 \$58.80	Annual demand = 936 units Ordering cost = \$45			
500 – 499 500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit price			
	units EOQ _{59.00}	to units $EOQ_{60.00} = 75$ units			
C ₇₅ = \$57,284					
$C_{300} = $57,382$					
$C_{300} = $56,999$		Evenue E 2			
		Example E.Z			



Order Quantity	Price per Unit		
0 – 299	\$60.00	Annual demand = 936 units	S
300 – 499	\$58.80	Ordering cost = \$45	5
500 or more	\$57.00	Holding cost = 25% of unit price	9
EOQ-7.00	inits EOQ _{59.50}	to units $EOQ_{60.00} = 75$ units	
$C_{75} = $57,284$			
$C_{300} = $57,382$			
$C_{500} = $56,999$		Example I	E.2

Discount

Whole Nature Foods sells a gluten-free product for which the annual demand is 5,000 boxes. At the moment, it is paying \$6.40 for each box; carrying cost is 25% of the unit cost; ordering costs are \$25. A new supplier has offered to sell the same item for \$6.00 if Whole Nature Foods buys at least 3,000 boxes per order. Should the firm stick with the old supplier, or take advantage of the new quantity discount?

One-Period Decisions



One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
	_				

Profit per ornament during season = \$10 Loss per ornament after season = \$5

One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Profit per ornament during season = \$10					

Loss per ornament after season = \$5

			D			
Q	10	20	30	40	50	
10						
20						For $\Omega = D$
30						Pavoff = pQ
40						
50						

One-Period Decisions





Example E.3

One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1

Profit per ornament during season = \$10 Loss per ornament after season = \$5



Example E.3

One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50		
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1		
Profit per ornament during season = \$10							

			D			
Q	10	20	30	40	50	
10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	
20						For $0 < D$
30						$Payoff = n\Omega$
40						rayon – po
50						
One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	5				
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.				
Profit per ornament during season = $$10$									

Loss per ornament after season = \$10

			D			
Q	10	20	30	40	50	
10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	
20		200	200	200	200	For $0 < D$
30			300	300	300	Payoff = nO
40				400	400	rayon – pœ
50					500	

One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
			* * •		

Profit per ornament during season = \$10 Loss per ornament after season = \$5

			D			
Q	10	20	30	40	50	
10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	
20		200	200	200	200	For $\Omega > D$
30			300	300	300	Payoff = $pD - l(Q - D)$
40				400	400	1 ayon = pD = I(Q = D)
50					500	





One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50				
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.				
Profit per ornament during season $=$ \$10									

Loss per ornament after season = \$10

			D			
Q	10	20	30	40	50	
10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	
20		200	200	200	200	For $\Omega > D$
30			300	300	300	Payoff = $$250$
40				400	400	1 ayon - 4200
50					500	

One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50			
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.			
Drofit par areament during access - \$10								

Loss per ornament during season = \$10



One-Period Decisions



Demand	10	20	30	40	50
Demand Probability	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
			• • •		

Profit per ornament during season = \$10 Loss per ornament after season = \$5

			D			
	50	40	30	20	10	Q
	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	10
For $\Omega > D$	200	200	200	200	50	20
Payoff = $nD - l(O - D)$	300	300	300	150	0	30
$f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$	400	400	250	100	-50	40
	500	350	200	50	-100	50



De	Demand			10	20	30	40	50	
De	man	d Proba	bility	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	
F F	Expe	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	: 					
	•			D			-		
	Q	10	20	30	40	50	-		
	10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100			
	20	50	200	200	200	200			
	30	0	150	300	300	300			
	40	-50	100	250	400	400			
	50	-100	50	200	350	500			







D	emano	d		10	20	30	40	50	
D	eman	d Proba	bility	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	
FL	Expe	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	0.2(\$	0) + 0.	3(\$15	0)		
				D			_		
	Q	10	20	30	40	50			
	10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$10)		
	20	50	200	200	200	200	0		
	30	0	150	300	300	300)		
	40	-50	100	250	400	400)		
	50	-100	50	200	350	500	0		



De	Demand				20	30	40	50
De	Demand Probability				0.3	0.3 -	01	0.1
FL	Expe	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	0.2(\$	60) + 0.5	3(\$150	0) + 0	.3(\$300)
				D			_	
	Q	10	20	30	40	50		
	10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100		
	20	50	200	200	200	200		
	30	0	150	300	300	300)	
	40	-50	100	250	400	400)	
	50	-100	50	200	350	500)	

One-Period Decisions



D	eman	d		10	20	30	40	50	
D	eman	d Proba	bility	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.1	
FL	Expe	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	0.2(<mark>9</mark> + 0.1	0) + ((\$300).3(\$150)))) + 0	.3(\$30	0)
				D			-		
	Q	10	20	30	40	50	-		
	10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$1 <mark>)</mark> () \$100			
	20	50	200	200	20) 200			
	30	0	150	300	300) 300			
	40	-50	100	250	400) 400			
	50	-100	50	200	350	500			

Example E.3



D	eman	d		10	20	30	40	50	
D	eman	d Proba	bility	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	
FL	Expe	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	0.2(\$ + 0.1	50) + 0.5 (\$300)	3(\$1) 0 + 0.1()) + 0 \$300	.3(\$300))	
				D			7		
	Q	10	20	30	40	50			
	10	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$10			
	20	50	200	200	200	200)		
	30	0	150	300	300	300			
	40	-50	100	250	400	400			
	50	-100	50	200	350	500)		



Dem	anc	1		10	20	30	40	50	
Dem	anc	l Proba	bility	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	
F Ex	pea	cted pa	yoff ₃₀ =	\$195					
				D			-		
(Q	10	20	30	40	50	-		
1	0	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100	\$100			
2	20	50	200	200	200	200			
3	0	0	150	300	300	300			
4	0	-50	100	250	400	400			
5	0	-100	50	200	350	500			





Uncertain Demand

Figure 15.8



Reorder Point / Safety Stock



Figure 15.9

EXAMPLE

Records show that the demand for dishwasher detergent during the lead time is normally distributed, with an average of 250 boxes and *variance* l = 22. *What safety stock should be carried for a 99 percent cycle-service level? What is R?*

Reorder Point / Safety Stock



Example 15.5



Example Finding the safety stock and R When the Demand Distribution for Lead Time must Be Developped

- Let us return to the bird feeder example. Suppose that the average demand is 18 units per week \
- with a standard deviation of 5 units. The lead time is constant at two weeks. Determine the safety stock and reorder point if management wants a 90 percent cycle-service level. What is the j total cost of the Q system?



	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
.0	.5000	.5040	.5080	.5120	.5160	.5199	.5239	.5279	.5319	.5359
.1	.5398	.5438	.5478	.5517	.5557	.5596	.5636	.5675	.5714	.5753
.2	.5793	.5832	.5871	.5910	.5948	.5987	.6026	.6064	.6103	.6141
.3	.6179	.6217	.6255	.6293	.6331	.6368	.6406	.6443	.6480	.6517
.4	.6554	.6591	.6628	.6664	.6700	.6736	.6772	.6808	.6844	.6879
.5	.6915	.6950	.6985	.7019	.7054	.7088	.7123	.7157	.7190	.7224
.6	.7257	.7291	.7324	.7357	.7389	.7422	.7454	.7486	.7517	.7549
.1	.7580	.7611	.7642	.7673	.7704	.7734	.7764	.7794	.7823	.7852
.8	.7881	7910	.7939	.7967	.7995	.8023	.8051	.8078	.8106	.8133
.9	.8159	.8186	.8212	.8238	.8264	.8289	.8315	.8340	.8365	.8389
1.0	.8413	.8438	.8461	.8485	.8508	.8531	.8554	.8577	.8599	.8621
1.1	.8643	.8665	.8686	.8708	.8729	.8749	.8770	.8790	.8810	.8830
1.2	.8849	.8869	.8888	.8907	.8925	.8944	.8962	.8980	.8997	.9015
1.3	.9032	.9049	.9066	.9082	.9099	.9115	.9131	.9147	.9162	.9177
1.4	.9192	.9207	.9222	.9236	.9251	.9265	.9279	.9292	.9306	.9319
15	.9332	.9345	.9357	.9370	.9382	.9394	.9406	.9418	.9429	.9441
1.6	.9452	.9463	.9474	.9484	.9495	.9505	.9515	.9525	.9535	.9545
1.7	.9554	.9564	.9573	.9582	.9591	.9599	.9608	.9616	.9625	.9633
1.8	.9641	.9649	.9656	.9664	.9671	.9678	.9686	.9693	.9699	.9706
1.9	.9713	.9719	.9726	.9732	.9738	.9744	.9750	.9756	.9761	.9767
2.0	.9772	.9778	.9783	.9788	.9793	.9798	.9803	.9808	.9812	.9817
21	.9821	.9826	.9830	.9834	.9838	.9842	.9846	.9850	.9854	.9857
22	.9861	.9864	.9868	.9871	.9875	.9878	.9881	.9884	.9887	.9890
23	.9893	.9896	.9898	.9901	.9904	.9906	.9909	.9911	.9913	.9916
2.4	.9918	.9920	.9922	.9925	.9927	.9929	.9931	.9932	.9934	.9936
2.5	.9938	.9940	.9941	.9943	.9945	.9946	.9948	.9949	.9951	.9952
2.6	.9953	.9955	.9956	.9957	.9959	.9960	.9961	.9962	.9963	.9964
2.7	.9965	.9966	.9967	.9968	.9969	.9970	.9971	.9972	.9973	.9974
2.8	.9974	.9975	.9976	.9977	.9977	.9978	.9979	.9979	.9980	.9981
2.9	.9981	.9982	.9982	.9983	.9984	.9984	.9985	.9985	.9986	.9986
3.0	.9987	.9987	.9987	.9988	.9988	.9989	.9989	.9989	.9990	.9990
3.1	.9990	.9991	.9991	.9991	.9992	.9992	.9992	.9992	.9993	.9993
3.2	.9993	.9993	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9995	.9995	.9995
33	.9995	.9995	.9995	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9997
3.4	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9998



TABLE 15.1 PROBABILITY	DISTRIBUTION FOR LEAD TIME
Lead Time (weeks)	Probability for Lead Time
1	0.35
2	0.45
3	0.10
4	0.05
5	0.05

TABLE 15.2 PROBABILITY D	DISTRIBUTION FOR DEMAND
Demand (units per week)	Probability of Demand
10	0.10
13	0.20
18	0.40
23	0.20
26	0.10

	R)	Aicrosoft E	Excel - F	ig 15.1	1 Master	_2											
-9		<u>F</u> ile <u>E</u> dit	⊻iew	Insert	F <u>o</u> rmat	<u>T</u> ools [<u>D</u> ata <u>W</u> ir	ndow <u>H</u>	elp				Туре	e a questio	n for help		₽×
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		054	-	fx													
		A	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н		J	К	L	M	N	0	
	1	Demand Pr	obability i	Distributio	0.0		Random	Numbers									
	2	(Linits	Per Period	7						D	emand Pe	r Period i	in Protect	tion Interv	al		_
			Lower														
			Range														
4		Probability of	Probabilit	Demand			1	Destant	Desire da	Destado	Destants	Devie d E	Desired	Devie 47	Desire da	Desired	
	3	Demand	y 0.00	(Units)			Lead Time	Period 1	Period Z	Period 3	Period 4	Periodis	Period 6	Period /	Period 8	Period 3	Pe
1	4	0.10	0.00	10			0.1637	0.0833	0.0102	0.2518	0.5184	0.2025	0.7836	0.1628	0.0987	0.3116	0
	0	0.20	0.10	10			0.6763	0.0404	0.0072	0.0135	0.1333	0.6371	0.3746	0.4323	0.4031	0.1020	0.
	7	0.40	0.30	22			0.0047	0.7307	0.7280	0.3020	0.0071	0.5750	0.0333	0.1021	0.0400	0.1341	0.
e	8	0.10	0.70	26			0.2123	0.0000	0.7243	10.7030	0.2043	0.0002	0.0100	0.0473	0.7433	0.0000	0.
	a l	0.10	0.00	20			0.5016	0.6766	0.4200	0.3291	0.6489	0.4644	0.6653	0.5601	0.9461	0.5983	ő
	10	Lead Time	Prohahilil	in Distrihu	tion		n g Band	om number:	s are genera	ted by using	0.7195	0.0047	8063.0	0.5194	0.0401	0.1357	0
	11	2000 7 //// 7					0.2 the B	andom Nur	nber general	tor function	0.3818	0.7743	0.9017	0.2498	0.8027	0.1885	0
	12	Probability of	Lower	Protectio			0.1 BAN	D (). These r	numbers are	frozen by	0.2327	0.6862	0.2880	0.2900	0.1826	0.0995	0
	13	Lead Time	Bange	n Interval			0.5 copyi	ng the numb	pers and pas	ting them	0.9474	0.1487	0.0656	0.8645	0.4554	0.1548	0
	14	0.35	0.00	1			0.) as va	lues from co	ell F4:P503.		0.6635	0.1279	0.5530	0.1295	0.0743	0.8928	0.
	15	0.45	0.35	2			0.8				0.7150	0.6383	0.4391	0.5368	0.7860	0.0648	0
	16	0.10	0.80	3			0.7255	0.8283	0.0344	0.8689	0.2304	0.4721	0.5777	0.0694	0.0299	0.4083	0
	17	0.05	0.90	4			0.0536	0.3992	0.1281	0.8438	0.1844	0.7781	0.6994	0.8040	0.5647	0.2609	0
	18	0.05	0.95	5			0.7607	0.6912	0.8048	0.3671	0.8267	0.8732	0.2523	0.0433	0.2588	0.4854	0.
	19						0.2107	0.7238	0.9769	0.4767	0.4132	0.0630	0.7979	0.6091	0.5206	0.8320	0
	20	Demand Du	ring Prot	ection Int	erval Dist	ribution	0.2335	0.4533	0.6874	0.9631	0.6808	0.8151	0.3555	0.5553	0.7274	0.4522	0
	21				Cumulative		0.0386	0.3003	0.4065	0.3505	0.9062	0.5987	0.4494	0.8158	0.4851	0.2432	0.
	22	BINS	Demand	Frequency	Percentage		0.5019	0.9661	0.2541	0.6851	0.2483	0.0343	0.4933	0.2734	0.1725	0.7055	0.
	23	10	10	24	0.05		0.4108	0.8023	0.0978	0.0657	0.9296	0.6807	0.9976	0.2785	0.5228	0.2677	0.
	24	22	16	84	0.22		0.3744	0.5385	0.7282	0.7645	0.8855	0.0943	0.6941	0.2202	0.0919	0.0393	0
	25	34	28	141	0.50		0.2122	0.7615	0.7820	0.0261	0.1679	0.0716	0.2459	0.2291	0.6456	0.6446	0
	26	46	40	145	0.79		0.0925	0.8525	0.2320	0.0427	0.7376	0.6809	0.4502	0.7044	0.5545	0.8276	0.
	27	58	52	49	0.89		0.8343	0.6395	0.7648	0.8997	0.3425	0.3840	0.6041	0.8482	0.3168	0.8569	0. 🗸
	H 4	() → M\Sł	neet1 / :	Sheet2 /	(Sheet3	/					 •						•
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24	22	16	84	0.22		0.3744	0.5385	0.7282	0.7645	0.8855	0.0943	0.6941	0.2202	0.0919	0.0393	0
25	34	28	141	0.50		0.2122	0.7615	0.7820	0.0261	0.1679	0.0716	0.2459	0.2291	0.6456	0.6446	0
26	46	40	145	0.79		0.0925	0.8525	0.2320	0.0427	0.7376	0.6809	0.4502	0.7044	0.5545	0.8276	0.
27	58	52	49	0.89		0.8343	0.6395	0.7648	0.8997	0.3425	0.3840	0.6041	0.8482	0.3168	0.8569	0
28	70	64	23	0.93		Frequenci	es are calcu	lated by usi	ng the FREG	UENCY AR	BAY	0.9964	0.9124	0.9332	0.0995	0
29	82	76	17	0.97		function: =	FREQUE	NCY(AD4	AD503,A	23:A33)		0.2084	0.4818	0.2383	0.0342	0
30	94	88	10	0.99		Cells AD4	kAD503 are	the data an	ay inputs an	d cells A23:	A33 are	0.2432	0.6588	0.2063	0.1991	0
31	106	100	5	1.00	1	the bin arra	ay input of th	ne function.				0.5117	0.1409	0.9094	0.3037	0
32	118	112	2	1,90								0.1725	0.3838	0.6962	0.9058	10
33	130	More	0	/1.00		0.6475	0.7993	0.6954	0.2517	0.8252	0.0122	0.2091	0.0821	0.2956	0.7970	0
34				· · · · ·		0.2870	0.2413	0.1980	0.9134	0.7304	0.5016	0.5433	0.5863	0.9347	0.7322	0
35		Tòtại	500			0.1155	0.4369	0.6033	0.6577	0.9506	0.6063	0.8189	0.2593	0.5367	0.7205	0
36		`			-	0.8156	0.0910	0.8654	0.3667	0.7712	0.5901	0.1183	0.2655	0.1137	0.7680	
37	Lower Bound	10	_ "Bins" a	ire the upper	bounds of t	he intervals	that we need	dito 🔓	0.5130	0.9228	0.5766	0.9350	0.9113	0.5257	0.7750	
38	Upper Bound	130	group th	ie total dema	and during th	he protection	interval.	2	0.0563	0.4335	0.2733	0.4960	0.8591	0.6733	0.7491	
39	_	400	-					6	0.0315	0.7549	0.6415	0.0524	0.6159	0.9905	0.7097	
40	Hange	120	They are	e obtained by	subtracting	; the lower bo	ound from th	he 👎	0.0015	0.4733	0.8386	0.3708	0.7001	0.1249	0.6756	
41	Dia a	10	upper bo	ound and divi	iding it by 10.	This will be I	the range of	each P	0.3777	0.0219	0.3343	0.2587	0.8397	0.3581	0.4197	1 2
42	Bins	10	bin, thus	allowing 10 t	oins of the s	ame size. Sii	mply_start w	ith the	0.0735	0.4363	0.7587	0.3205	0.9638	0.7741	0.9900	1 8
43 44	Dia Danas	10	lower bo	ound and add	to it the Bir	n Range (cell	B44, which	is cell	0.1646	0.4335	0.0004	0.1325	0.2012	0.0349	0.0922	1 2
45	Diffinaliye	12	B407 ce	II B42, in this	s case).			2	0.2310	0.4212	0.0333	0.0322	0.7572	0.3000	0.2002	۲÷
46						0.1301	0.9502	0.0732	0.0070	0.1202	0.5056	0.0327	0.1010	0.3300	0.01070	t à
47						0.5814	0.5982	0.5455	0.7837	0.0014	0.5398	0.8612	0.4024	0.3948	0.6403	ti
48						0.3771	0.2760	0.9884	0.8313	0.5897	0.6728	0.4663	0.5004	0.2913	0.9015	
49						0.5908	0.0590	0,9685	0.5804	0.6699	0,1646	0.7692	0.0806	0.0125	0.9738	l n
50						0.2372	0.9485	0.5195	0.7511	0.8443	0.9717	0.7558	0.3766	0.7742	0.9726	Ť
51						0.3940	0.2100	0.6704	0.9830	0.9646	0.7404	0.4632	0.6322	0.1916	0.4382	Ō
52																1
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Figure 15.11(b)

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	1			Simulati	ion											
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	3	Period 9	Period 10	Inventory Cucle	Lead Time (# Periods)	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3	Period 4	Period 5	Period 6	Period 7	Period 8	Period 9	Period 10	Total during Protectio
	4	0.3116	0.4781	1	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
	5	0.1828	0.5277	2	2	23	\ 18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41 /
	6	0.1341	0.3566	3	2	23	\ 26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49/
e	7	0.5985	0.0808	4	1	18	To obta	in the demai	n n n n n n n n n n n n n n n n n n n	d it is peces	o sau to use	ho u aluo l	oot up fu	netion Mi		19
	8	0.7052	0.0513	5	1	10	this func	tion the cor	rresponding	demand val	ue will he ha	sed on the r	andom num	ober and the	⁰⁰ 0	/0
	9	0.5983	0.6157	6	2	18	matchu	p of that nur	mber with th	e probabilitu	distribution	of demand.		iber and the	0	/36
	10	0.1357	0.9932			10	Enter the	e formula: IF	F(\$S4>=1,	VLOOKUP	(G4.\$B\$4	:\$C\$8,2)	.0) into cel	I T4.	0	1/ 10
	12	0.1885	0.7843	8		10	This for	mula will loo	k up the val	ue in Lower I	Range Prob	ability and th	he units of D	Demand	0	10
	13	0.0555	0.6615	10	2	13	assigne	d to each pr	obability. Th	e units dem	anded will be	assigned b	ased on the	value of the		36
	14	0.8928	0.2884	11	1	13	Random	n Number in	the specific	period. Ente	er the formu	la:			ů /	13
	15	0.0648	0.5368	12	3	23	IF(\$S4	>=2,VLOC)KUP(H4.:	\$B\$4:\$C\$:8,2),0) int	o cell U4. C	opy this rel	ationship in	0/	54
	16	0.4083	0.1546	13	2	23	cells T4:	AC503.							ø	33
	17	0.2609	0.2157	14	1	18	0	0	0	0	U	U	U	0	- /0	18
	18	0.4854	0.2447	15	2	18	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	/0	41
	19	0.8320	0.5991	16	1	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	/ 0	23
	20	0.4522	0.3312	17		18	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	γ o	18
ł	21	0.2432	0.2846	18		18	12	0		The total der	mand is sim	ply the sumr	nation of th	e demand	0	18
ł	22	0.2677	0.5667	20	2	20	10	0		at every indiv	vidual period	, which can	be obtained	by using	0	33
	24	0.0393	0.0124	21	2	18	23	0	0	he sumation	function:				0	41
	25	0.6446	0.5195	22	1	23	0	0	i o ,	SUM[14:	AC4j	(manula dia	مريحا ممالي		0	23
	26	0.8276	0.4048	23	1	23	0	0	0	Sopy it and p	laste it as a	rormula thr	ough ceils A	AD4:AD503	0	23
	27	0.8569	0.2660	24	3	18	23	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	64
	H 4	• • •	Sheet1,	(Sheet2)	(Sheet3	7					•	•	1	1		· (
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	č a	ta		a 🍝		₽ @	₩ ∂ Repl	ly with <u>(</u>	_hanges	E <u>n</u> d Re	eview	··· •							
ľ		004	P		JX B	C	т		1 5	1	34	×	V	7	00	۵B	<u>ە</u> ر	۵D	
	22	0 7055	0.5897		19	2	26	1	3 0		0	the total act	hana è ang	ay and Same	Hannungi a	a a constant	0	29	
	23	0.2677	0.6724	+	20	2	23				ů.	at every indiv	idual period	, which can	be obtained	l by using	ů n	33	
	24	0.0393	0.0124	+	20	2	18				ů.	the sumation	function:				ů n	41	
	25	0.6446	0.5195	+	22	1	23				ů.	=SUM(T4:	AC4)				ů 0	23	
	26	0.8276	0.4048	++	23	1	23				ů.	Copy it and p	aste it as a l	formula thr	ough cells <i>i</i>	AD4:AD503	ů Ú	23	
1	27	0.8569	0.2660	++	24	3	18		3 2	3	- I					<u> </u>	ů Ú	64	
	28	0.0995	0.1204		25	2	18	1	8 0		0	0	0 O	0	0	0	0	36	
	29	0.0342	0.9235		26	1	13				0	0	0 U	0	0	0	0	13	
	30	0.1991	0.6926		27	3	18	2	6 18	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	62	
e	31	0.3037	0.1828		28	3	18	1	8 18	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	54	
	32	0.9058	0.6118		29	1	18) 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	
	33	0.7970	0.6666		30	2	23	1	8 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	
	34	0.7322	0.9262		31	1	13) 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	
	35	0.7205	0.6265		32	1	18) 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	
	36	0.7680	0.2330		33	3	10	2	3 18	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	
	37	0.7750	0.9551		34	3	13	1	8 18	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	
	38	0.7491	0.8072		35	2	26	1	8 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	
	39	0.7097	0.1597		36	1	23) 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	
	40	0.6756	0.9454		37	2	13	2	3 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	
	41	0.4197	0.1695		38	2	18	1	8 0	I	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	
	42	0.4405	0.2971		39	4	18	1	3 10		18	0	0	0	0	0	0	59	
	43	0.0922	0.6232		40	2	23	2	6 0	ı –	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	
	44	0.2052	0.2047		41	2	13	1	8 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	
	45	0.0188	0.2281		42	2	18	1	0 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	
	46	0.1070	0.0724		43	1	26	() 0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	
	47	0.6403	0.1019		44	2	18	1	8 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	
	48	0.9015	0.6352		45	2	13	2	6 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	
	49	0.9738	0.2065		46	2	10	2	6 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	
	50	0.9726	0.5137		47	1	26	() 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	
	51	0.4382	0.5567		48	2	13	1	8 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	
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OTHER QUESTION

• The demand at Arnold Palmer Hospital for a specialized surgery pack is 60 per week, virtually every week. The lead time from McKesson, its main supplier, is normally distributed, with a mean of 6 weeks for this product and a standard deviation of 2 weeks. A 90% weekly service level is desired. Find the ROP.

Safety stock



- ROP = d * L + ss
- The amount of safety stock maintained depends on the cost of incurring a stockout and the cost of holding the extra inventory. Annual stockout cost is computed as follows:
- Annual stockout costs =
 - The sum of the units short for each demand level * The probability of that demand level * The stockout cost / unit * The number of orders per year



Example Calculating P and T

• Again, let us return to the bird feeder example. Recall that demand for the bird feeder is normally distributed with a mean of 18 units per week and a standard deviation in weekly demand of 5 units. The lead time is 2 weeks, and the business operates 52 weeks per year. The Q system developed in Example 15.6 called for an EOQ of 75 units and a safety stock of 9 units for a cycle-service level of 90 percent. What is the equivalent *P system?* What is the total cost ? Answers are to be rounded to the nearest integer.

Periodic Review Systems



Bird feeder— Calculating P and T

 σ_t = 5 units *L* = 2 weeks cycle/service level = 90% EOQ = 75 units *D* = (18 units/week)(52 weeks) = 936 units

$$P = \frac{EOQ}{D} (52) = \frac{75}{936} (52) = 4.2 \text{ or } 4 \text{ weeks}$$
$$\sigma_{P+L} = \sigma_{\tau} \sqrt{P + L} = 5 \sqrt{6} = 12 \text{ units}$$

T = Average demand during the protection interval + Safety stock $= d(P + L) + z\sigma_{P+L}$ = (18 units/week)(6 weeks) + 1.28(12 units) = 123 units

Example 15.8

Periodic Review Systems

On-hand inventory



Bird feeder— Calculating P and T



Comparison of Q and P Systems

P Systems

- Convenient to administer
- Orders may be combined
- IP only required at review

Q Systems

- Individual review frequencies
- Possible quantity discounts
- Lower, less-expensive safety stocks
Problem 1

Booker's Book Bindery divides inventory items into three classes, according to their dollar usage. Calculate the usage values of the following inventory items and determine which is most likely to be classified as an A item.

PART NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	QUANTITY USED PER YEAR	UNIT VALUE (\$)
1	Boxes	500	3.00
2	Cardboard (square feet)	18,000	0.02
373	Cover stock	10,000	0.75
4	Glue (gallons)	75	40.00
5	Inside covers	20,000	0.05
6	Reinforcing tape (meters)	3,000	0.15
7	Signatures	150,000	0.45

Problem 2

A regional warehouse purchases hand tools from various suppliers and then distributes them on demand to retailers in the region. The warehouse operates five days per week, 52 weeks per year. Only when it is open can orders be received. The following data are estimated for 3/8-inch hand drills with double insulation and variable speeds:

Average daily demand = 100 drills Standard deviation of daily demand (σ_t) = 30 drills Lead time (L) = 3 days Holding cost (H) = \$9.40/unit/year Ordering cost (S) = \$35/order Cycle-service level = 92 percent

The warehouse uses a continuous review (Q) system.

- a. What order quantity, Q and reorder point, R, should be used?
- b. If on-hand inventory is 40 units, there is one open order for 440 drills, and there are no backorders, should a new order be placed?

Problem 3

Suppose that a periodic review (P) system is used at the warehouse, but otherwise the data are the same as in Solved Problem 5.

- a. Calculate the P (in workdays, rounded to the nearest day) that gives approximately the same number of orders per year as the EOQ.
- b. What is the value of the target inventory level, T? Compare the P system to the Q system in Solved Problem 5.
- c. It is time to review the item. On-hand inventory is 40 drills; there is a scheduled receipt of 440 drills and no backorders. How much should be reordered?

David Rivera Optical has determined that its reorder point for eyeglass frames is 50 ($d \times L$) units. Its carrying cost per frame per year is \$5, and stockout (or lost sale) cost is \$40 per frame. The store has experienced the following probability distribution for inventory demand during the lead time (reorder period). The optimum number of orders per year is six.

NUMBER OF UNITS	PROBABILITY
30	.2
40	.2
$ROP \rightarrow 50$.3
60	.2
70	.1
	1.0

How much safety stock should David Rivera keep on hand?

APPROACH ► The objective is to find the amount of safety stock that minimizes the sum of the additional inventory holding costs and stockout costs. The annual holding cost is simply the holding cost per unit multiplied by the units added to the ROP. For example, a safety stock of 20 frames, which implies that the new ROP, with safety stock, is 70 (- 50 + 20), raises the annual carrying cost by \$5(20) - \$100.

However, computing annual stockout cost is more interesting. For any level of safety stock, stockout cost is the expected cost of stocking out. We can compute it, as in Equation (12-12), by multiplying the number of frames short (Demand – ROP) by the probability of demand at that level, by the stockout cost, by the number of times per year the stockout can occur (which in our case is the number of orders per year). Then we add stockout costs for each possible stockout level for a given ROP.⁴ SOLUTION ► We begin by looking at zero safety stock. For this safety stock, a shortage of 10 frames will occur if demand is 60, and a shortage of 20 frames will occur if the demand is 70. Thus the stockout costs for zero safety stock are:

> (10 frames short)(.2)(\$40 per stockout)(6 possible stockouts per year) + (20 frames short)(.1)(\$40)(6) = \$960

The following table summarizes the total costs for each of the three alternatives:

SAFETY STOCK	ADDITIONAL HOLDING COST	STOCKOUT COST	TOTAL COST
20	(20)(\$5) - \$100	\$ 0	\$100
10	(10)(\$5) = \$ 50	(10) (.1) (\$40) (6) = \$240	\$290
0	\$ 0	(10) (.2) (\$40) (6) + (20) (.1) (\$40) (6) - \$960	\$960

The safety stock with the lowest total cost is 20 frames. Therefore, this safety stock changes the reorder point to 50 + 20 - 70 frames.

INSIGHT The optical company now knows that a safety stock of 20 frames will be the most economical decision.



