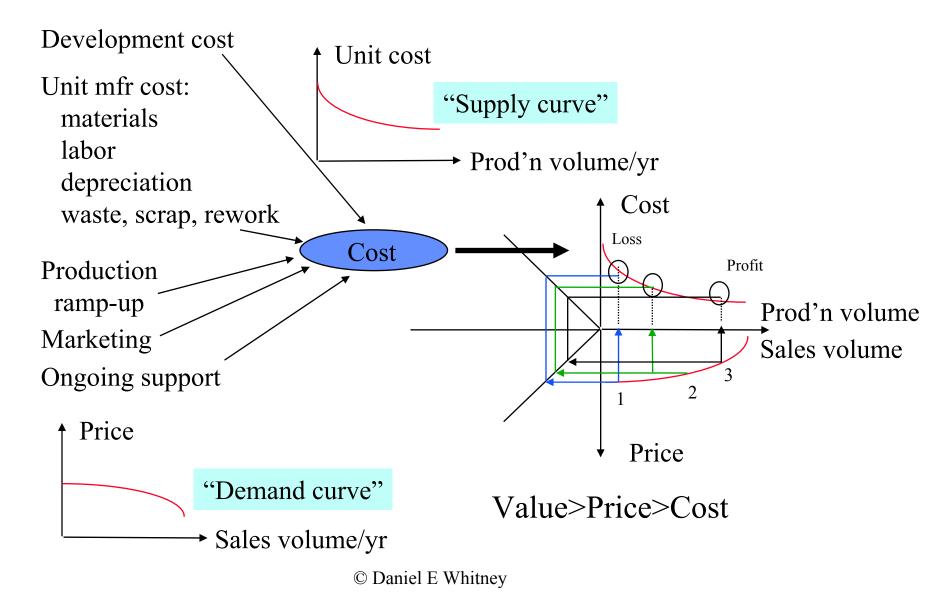
Economic Analysis of Assembly Systems

- Goals of this class
 - understand the basics of economic analysis
 - unit cost of assembly by different resources
 - return on investment
 - particular properties of assembly systems

Cost and Price Considerations



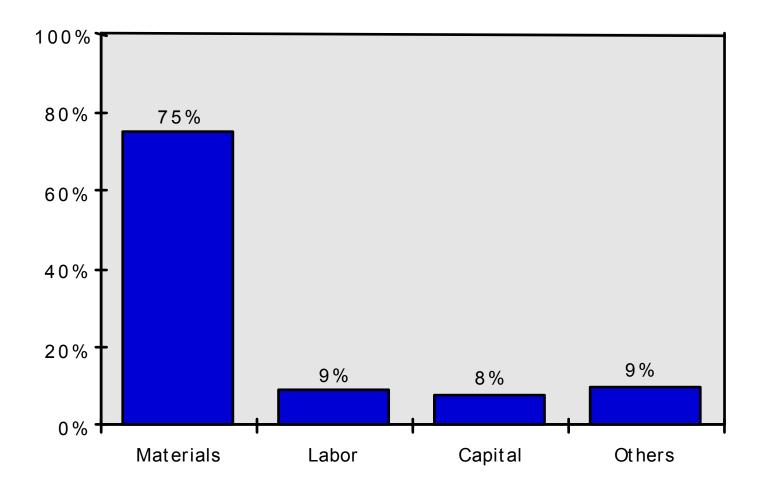
Cost Analysis is a Murky Area

- Engineers need to know the basics of cost analysis for three reasons
 - so they can make sound technological choices
 - so they can judge the suitability of a supplier's bid
 so they can argue effectively with accountants
- "Don't ask us how we do investment justification. We just fill out a form and after a while an answer comes back Yes or No."
- "MAPI means 'makes a project impossible"
 MAPI = Manufacturing and Allied Processes Institute

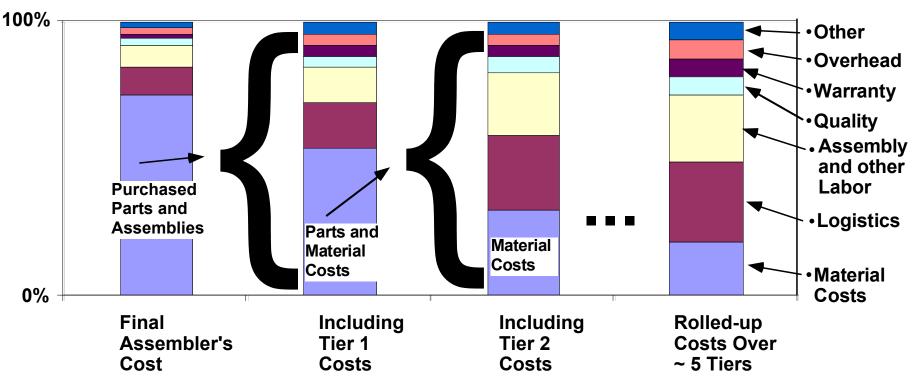
Kinds of Cost Categories

- Fixed cost = what you pay to set up (usually investment in facilities)
- Variable cost = what you pay that depends on how many you make per unit time
 - Labor, both direct and indirect (maintenance, supervisors)
 - Materials cost: what you buy that you add value to
 - Expendables: energy, lubricants, tool bits, etc
 - Scrap, rework
- Institutional cost = all other costs of doing business

Cost Distribution in Engine Plants



Sources of Cost in the Supply Chain



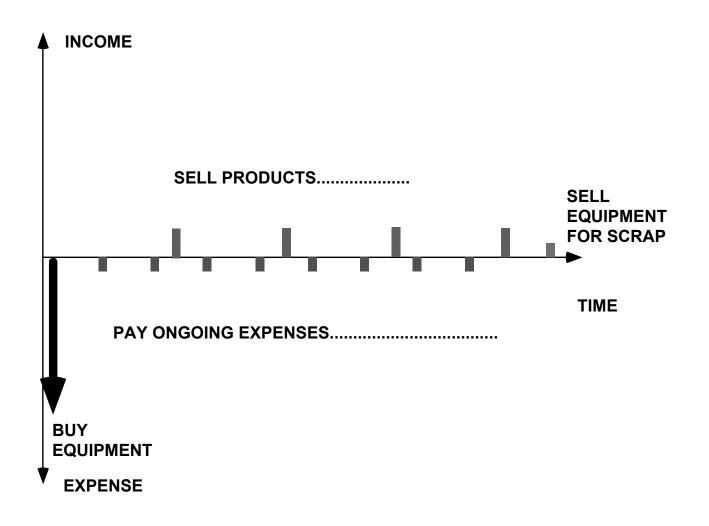
Source: Daimler Chrysler via Munro and Associates

A Small Problem

- Fixed costs are usually expended all at once, usually before production starts
- Variable costs are incurred as production runs
- How should these two kinds of costs be combined to provide a true picture of the cost per unit?
- The usual method is to allocate the fixed costs to the units by choosing a time period during which the investment is "recovered"
- unit cost = variable cost

+ Some_Fct (fixed cost, # of units made in some time period)

Cash Flows Over Time



Payback Period Method

- A payback period P is selected (arbitrarily?)
- The fixed cost is allocated equally to each unit made during P:
- unit cost = variable cost

+ fixed cost / (P Q)

where Q = quantity made per year

P = a number of years

Internal Rate of Return Method

- The payback period is replaced by an investment horizon H and an interest rate r
- This is equivalent to a mortgage for H years at interest rate r
- The annual payment A and the annual cost factor f_{AC} for an initial investment I_o are (for zero salvage value)

$$A = I_0 \left[\frac{r(1 + r^H)}{(1 + r^H) - 1} \right] \qquad f_{AC} = \frac{A}{I_0} = \left[\frac{r(1 + r^H)}{(1 + r^H) - 1} \right]$$

Unit Cost Based on IRoR

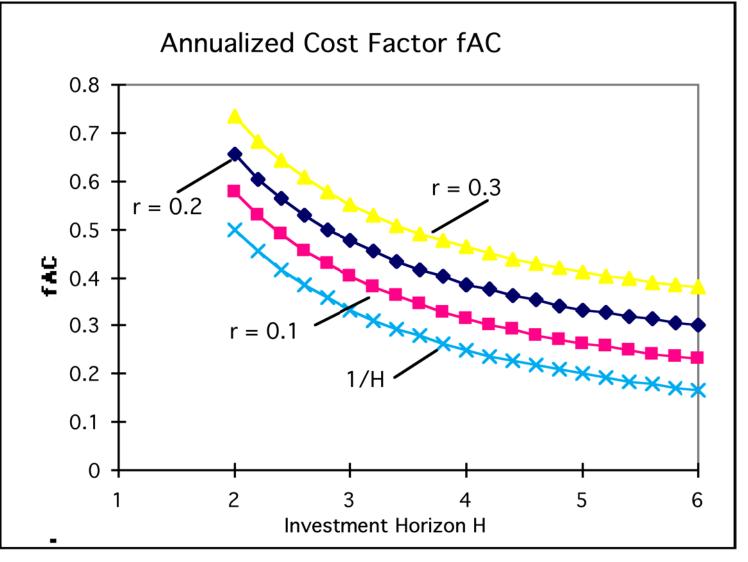
+ f_{AC} fixed cost /Q

where Q = quantity made per year

 f_{AC} = fraction of fixed cost paid per year, based on:

r = IRoR (ranges from 15% to 35%) H = investment horizon (ranges from 2 to 5 years or more)

Annualized Cost Factor vs r

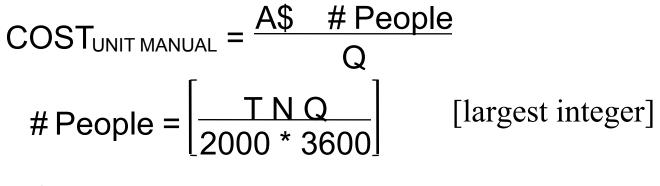


Note:

ignores

depreciation

Simplified Unit Cost for Manual Assembly



Q = annual production volume

T = assembly time per part, sec

N = number of parts per unit

A\$ = annual cost of a person

$$A$$
 = $\overline{L_{H}}$ * 2000

$$L_{H} = labor \cos t$$
, \$ / hr

2000 = hours per shift year

3600 = sec / hr

(assumes no investment required)

Simplified Unit Cost for Fixed Automation

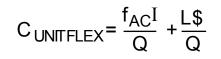
$$C_{\text{UNITFIXED}} = \frac{f_{AC} N S}{Q}$$

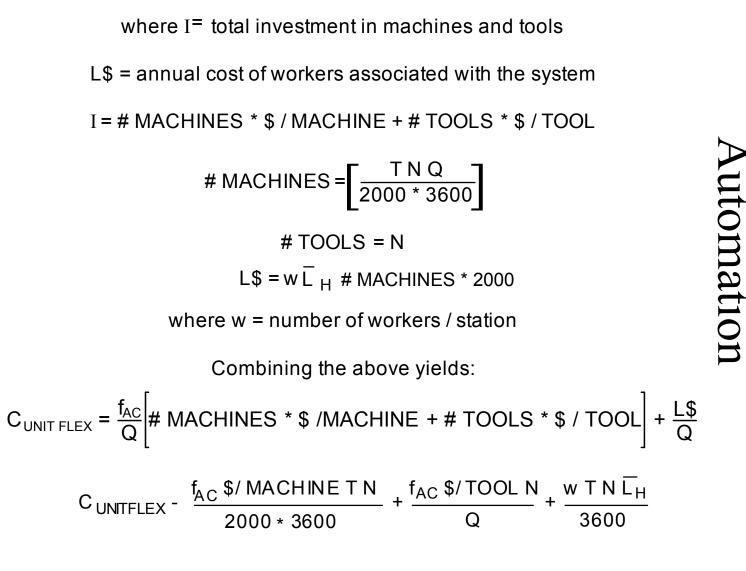
where Q = annual production volume, units / year

 f_{AC} =fraction of machine cost paid for per year

S\$ = cost of one station in the machine

(assumes one station per part)(also assumes no people required)





© Daniel E Whitney

Conclusions from Unit Cost Models*

- Cost is linearly proportional to number of parts N

 one reason for fixation on part count reduction
- Cost of flexible automation grows with the "pricetime product": \$/machine * T

– shows that cost and time can be traded

- Other costs grow as part, station, and tool count grow
 - floor space
 - support staff
 - line downtime (see Boothroyd chapter)
 - *P. M. Lynch, "Economic-Technological Modeling and Design Criteria for Programmable Assembly Machines," MIT ME Dept PhD Thesis, June 1976

Basic Nominal Capacity Equations

operations/unit * # units/year = # ops/yr

ops/sec = # ops/yr * (1 shift/28800 sec)*(1 day/n shifts)*(1 yr/280 days)

cycle time = 1/(ops/sec) = required sec/op

equipment capability = actual sec/op (including all stops)

```
actual sec/op < required sec/op -> happiness
```

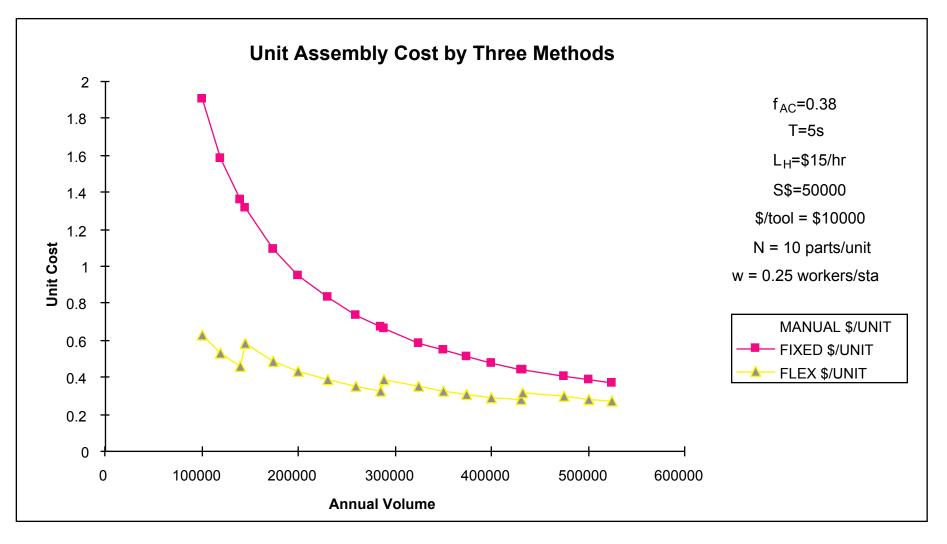
required sec/op < actual sec/op -> misery (or multiple resources)

Typical cycle times: 3-5 sec manual small parts 5-10 sec small robot 1-4 sec small fixed automation 10-60 sec large robot or manual large parts © Daniel E Whitney

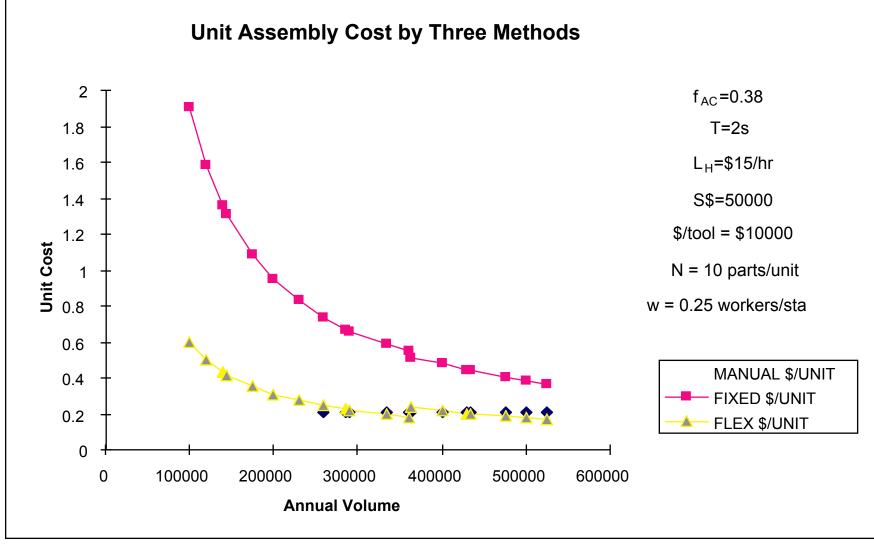
Basic Cycle Time Equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cycle time} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left[\text{assy time} + \frac{\text{in} - \text{out time}}{\# \text{ units / pallet}} + \frac{\text{tool ch. time * \#ch. / unit}}{\# \text{ units / tool ch.}} \right] \\ &\text{cycle time = net avg time per assembly} \\ &\text{in} - \text{out time = time to move one pallet out and another in} \\ &\text{tool ch. time = time to put away one tool and pick up another} \\ &\# \text{ ch. / unit = number of tool changes needed to make one unit} \\ &\# \text{ units / tool ch. = number of units worked on before tool is} \\ &\text{changed (cannot be larger than number units / pallet)} \\ &\epsilon = \text{station uptime fraction: } 0 < \epsilon < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Unit Cost Example

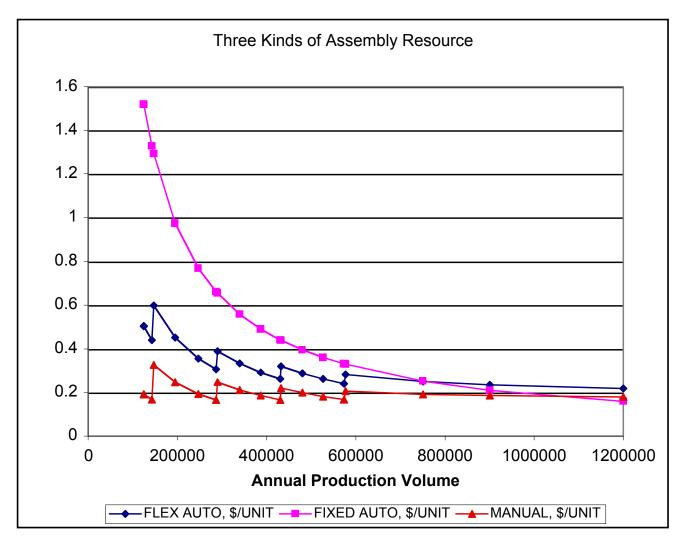


Unit Cost Example - 2



[©] Daniel E Whitney

More Detailed Cost Model



© Daniel E Whitney

Caveats About Examples

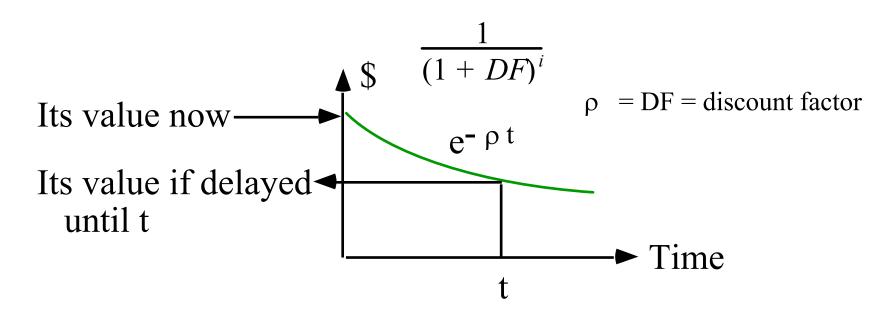
- If T = 2 s, then Q = 3.6 million, or else the line runs only part of one shift
- If # people > # of parts or operations, then extra people are needed for one shift operation
- If Q > 7.2 Million / T, then a 2nd or 3rd shift is needed

Discounted Cash Flow Analysis

- AKA net present value calculation
- More detailed and sophisticated than unit cost comparisons
- Seeks to determine if an investment is "good"
- Based on comparing return on investment
 - a base case is compared to an alternate
 - the alternate requires upfront investment
 - it creates a saving stream over time, which is discounted to "present value"
 - do the savings justify the investment?

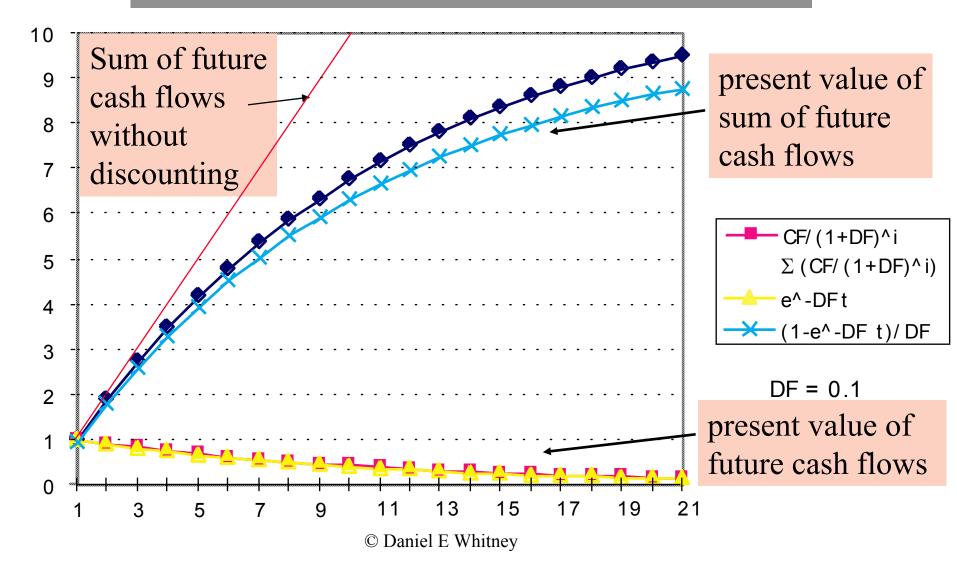
Discounting Future Cash Flows

Money is a two-dimensional quantity (\$,t)



Two Cash Flow Formulas

Takaway: The early cash flows contribute the most.



Comparison Analysis

- Base case
 - fixed costs
 - labor costs
 - material costs

- Alternate case
 - fixed costs
 - labor costs
 - material costs

Comparison:

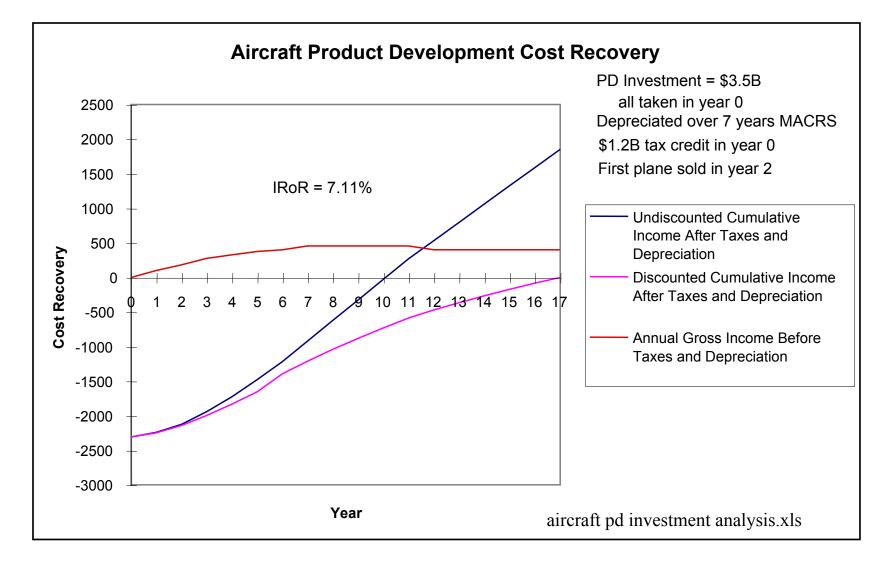
What discount rate makes the discounted sum of future savings in labor and material costs equal the difference in fixed cost between base and alternate?

Investment_{alt} – Investment_{base} = $\sum_{i=1}^{H}$ Net savings_i / $(1 + DF)^{i}$. Alternatively: set discount rate = cost of borrowing Choose the alternate investment if NPV > 0

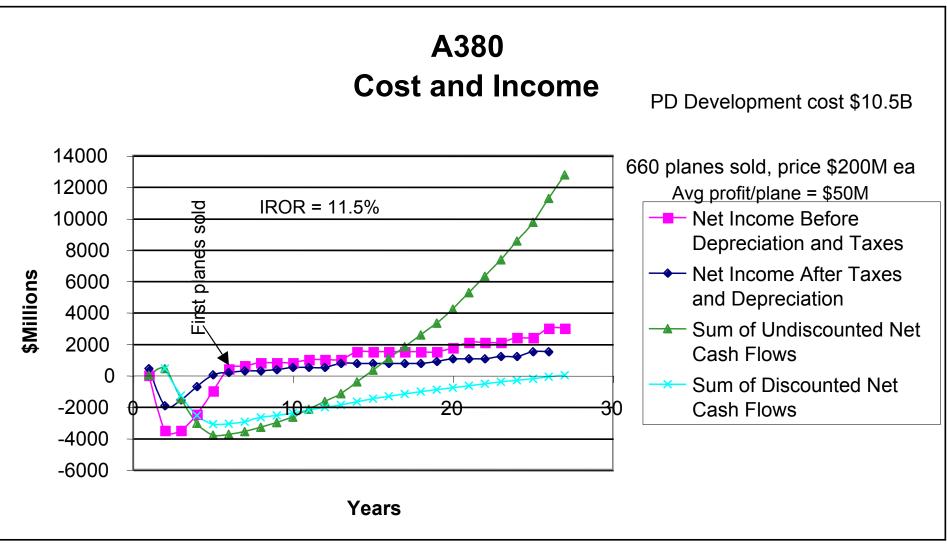
Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) and Economic Value Added (EVA)

- EVA is very similar to DCF. The discount rate used in EVA is the weighted average cost of capital (WACC)
 - Cost of capital includes interest rate on debt plus expected rate of return on stock (not easy to compute)
- EVA is usually used to value the whole company but is being used more and more to value individual investments
- See <u>http://www.pitt.edu/~roztocki/abc/abc.htm</u>
- See Econ DEMO-Stanley Hammer.xls on SloanSpace

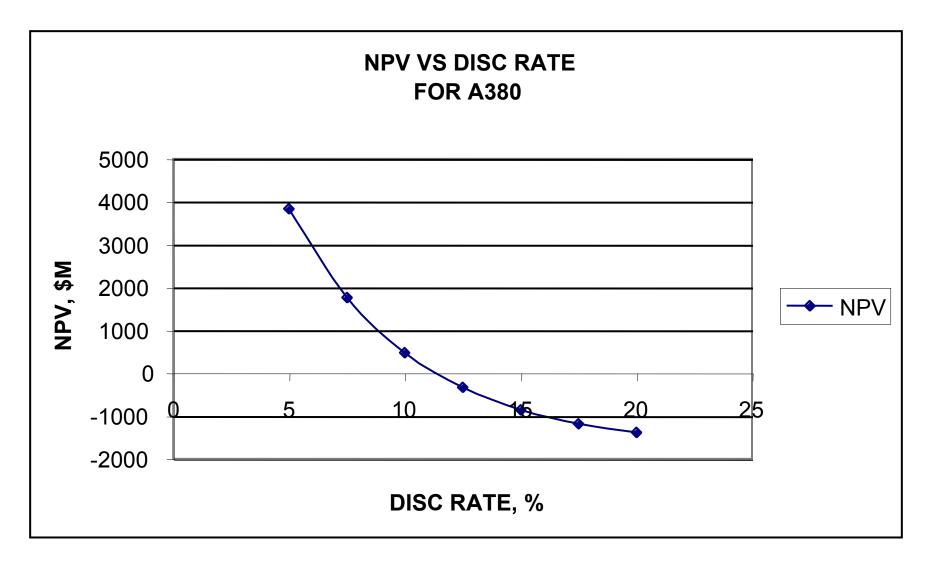
Aircraft Development Cost Quandry



A380 Business Case



NPV vs Discount Rate for A380



Zero or Net Present Value Calculations

- Comparing two investments, the savings Sv are considered income
- You pay taxes on the income at tax rate Tx, yielding your net income Ni
- You can claim depreciation Dp on your investment, decreasing your taxable income and lowering your taxes
- The IRS specifies how much you can claim in depreciation each year

- the net income is: Ni = Sv - Tx(Sv - Dp)

- "present value analysis" spreadsheet on SloanSpace finds the discount rate that gives NPV = 0
- Can be used to find NPV for any discount rate

Zero Present Value Analysis

		ZERO PRESENT W	ORTH CASH FLOW	V ANALYSIS				
7	YEARS ECO		0%	SALVAGE V	ALUE % OF COST /	<u>AT END OF E</u> T	<u>CONOMIC LIFE</u>	
EXPENSE FO				INCOME FO			<u> </u>	
YEAR	RATIO	TAX RATE	DEPRECIABLE	SAVINGS	DEPRECIATION	TAX RATE	CREDIT	
0	100.00%	34.00%	66.67%					
1				\$100	14.29%	34.00%		
2				\$181	24.49%	34.00%		
3				\$198	17.49%	34.00%		
4				\$150	12.49%	34.00%		
5					8.92%	34.00%		
					8.92%	SUM OF UN	IUSED YRS	
7					8.92%	DEPR=	31.22%	
8					4.46%	USED FOR S	SALVAGE VALUE	
						OF REMAIN	ING DEPRECIABLE INVESTMENT	
			TOTAL INVESTMENT		\$400		TAX CREDIT IN	VR00N
			DEPRECIABLE INVESTMENT		\$267		UNDEPRECIATED INVESTMEN	
			INTERNAL RATE OF RETURN		18.41%	RESULT OF	ĺ	
					GOAL SEEK			
					ON CELL G38 = 0			
			PRO FORMA CAS	H FLOW				
	NICOME	DEDDEOLATION	TAXEO					
YEAR		DEPRECIATION	TAXES	CREDITS	NET	DISC NET	SUM OF UNDIS	
0	(\$400)		(\$45)	\$0 \$0	(\$355)	(\$355)		
1	\$100	\$38	\$21	\$0 \$0	\$79	\$67	\$79	
2	\$181 \$100	\$65	\$39	\$0 \$0	\$142	\$101	\$221	
3	\$198 \$150	\$47	\$51	\$0 \$0	\$147	\$88	\$368	
4	\$150	\$33	\$40	\$0 ©	\$110	\$56	\$478	FOR EX IN FIG
	\$83 F	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$83	\$42	\$561	
SALVAGE VALU IN YEAR 4								
GROSS INCOM	£ \$713	\$183	\$152	\$0	\$561	\$355		
	ψ/13	ψ105	ψ132	ψυ	φ	<u> </u>		
NET INCOME	\$313	\$183	\$106	\$0	1	(\$0)		

How to Use this Spreadsheet

- Enter savings, tax rate, depreciation rate
- Goal seek to get zero NPV
- Or
- Put in various discount rates and observe NPV
- NPV > 0 is desired

Critiques of DCF

- Target IROR is arbitrary
- The calculations can be gamed
- "Cost" is a slippery quantity
 - People know their expenditures and assume that they know their costs, but these are different even if they add up to the same amount
 - Overheads are allocated arbitrarily and can distort the calculations
 - Activity-based costing is intended to overcome this
 - Robert Kaplan is an EE!

