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**Managing Quality and Delivery Reliability
of Suppliers by Using Incentives
and Simulation Models**



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1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation and Objectives

The environment of today's production enterprises is characterized by shortened product life cycles, a rapidly growing number of products and variants, and fast technological advancements (REINHART 2003, p. 139; CISEK et al. 2002; p. 441). The resulting complexity in production has led manufacturing companies of various industries towards a continuous reduction in the amount of in-house value creation (HAMPRECHT 2003, p. 12; KALMBACH & KEINHANS 2004, p. 5; WILDEMANN 2004, p. 7; DELOITTE 2005, p. 2). Components, subassembly groups, or even entire products are increasingly provided by suppliers (MILBERG 2000, p. 320). As a consequence, vendors are seeking identical actions, which has led to complex networks or supply chains (ZÄH 2003, p. 1). Thus, many researchers (e. g. CHILD 1998, p. 322; CHRISTOPHER 2005, p. 5) emphasize competition between supply chains rather than rivalry among individual firms. This leads to strong interdependencies, as the capabilities of suppliers significantly determine the success of the buyer respectively the procuring production enterprise.

The results of a survey of 50 companies (from HABICHT & NEISE 2004) from the aerospace, automotive, electronics, and mechanical engineering industries, which was conducted during the course of this research, show that the ability of a potential supplier to deliver products in the specified quality as well as the delivery reliability are the priorities when a vendor is chosen. Figure 1 summarizes this finding in terms of the percentage of respondents who specified one of five levels of importance for each of six supplier selection priorities. This is further elaborated upon in Section 6.3.

In this thesis, quality is defined as the fulfillment of "the totality of characteristics of an entity (product) that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs" of the customer (GEIGER 1994; ANDERNACH 2005, p. 5 et seq.). The quality level of a supplier is characterized by the percentage of parts that meet the quality definition. In turn, delivery reliability may be expressed as the amount/percentage of orders that are delivered to the customer in the right quantity at the promised point in time (VDI 4400 ; ZSIDISIN 2003, p. 16).

To achieve the desired supplier quality, many companies have a supplier certification program in place to pre-assess a potential supplier's capabilities, especially when the duration of the contract between the parties is long (PARK et al.

1996). Empirical research has shown that this measure has considerable effect (> 30% reduction in defects, according to PARK et al. 1996, p. 111), but does not lead to perfect vendor quality (ACCENTURE 2005, p. 18). The remaining quality fluctuations are meant to be offset through various, sometimes contractually specified measures, such as inspection frequencies, which the supplier must carry out. Furthermore, suppliers often incur the cost of defective parts and additionally pay a quality penalty when faulty parts are delivered. Nevertheless, as discussed in Section 2.3, perfect quality is seldom achieved in most industries.

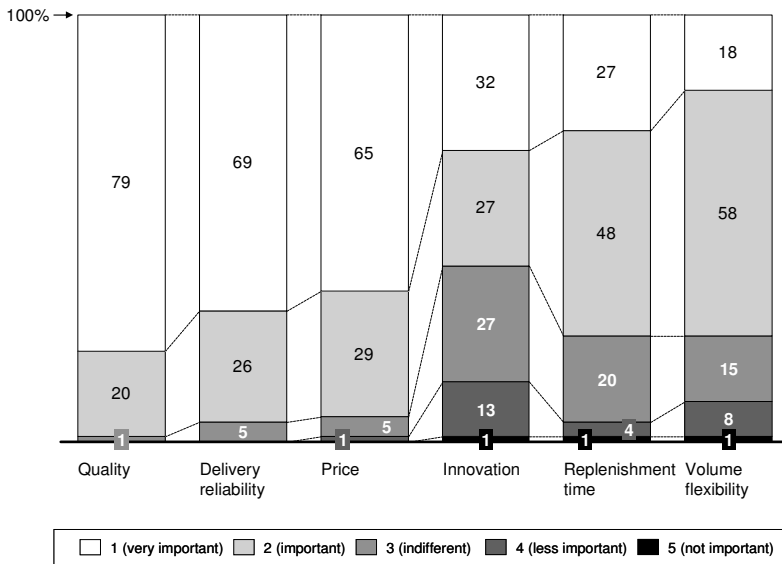


Figure 1: Supplier selection priorities based on a survey with 50 companies (ZÄH et al. 2005, p. 123)

In the view of this thesis, a significant increase in supplier quality can sometimes be achieved through offering the supplier a financial incentive when perfect quality is delivered, rather than solely employing incoming inspection and penalties as a threat. Therefore, the first objective of this thesis is

1. to assist the management of supplier quality by deriving the conditions under which a supplier is at least indifferent for delivering perfect or imperfect quality, to enhance the quality levels in the industry.

Achieving high delivery reliability is often equated to the term Supply Chain Management (SCM), which has been defined in many ways, for example: the scope of the supply chain “encompasses all activities associated with the flow and transformation of goods from the raw materials stage, through to the end-user, as well as the associated information flows” and SCM “is the integration of these activities through improved supply chain relationships, to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage” (HANDFIELD & NICHOLS 1999, p. 2). The goals of this integration are to reduce uncertainty and risks in the supply chain, thereby positively affecting lead time, inventory levels, and, ultimately, end-customer service levels (adapted from CHASE et al. 1998, p. 466; STEVENS 1989, p. 3).

To achieve this close interaction between supply chain partners and high delivery reliability, most companies have concentrated on implementing costly information technology (IT) (VON STEINÄCKER & KÜHNER 2001, p. 61). Nevertheless, the results of a global investigation with 196 participants from diverse industries, conducted by Booz Allen & Hamilton, found that the implemented IT-solutions had not complied with their expectations (HECKMANN et al. 2003, p. 2). For instance, this could be illustrated with the study by ACCENTURE (2005), that found that average delivery reliability was 84.6% in the capital goods industry.

Hence, many authors (PFOHL et al. 1998, p. 30; VON STEINÄCKER & KÜHNER 2001, p. 61; BAUMGARTEN et al. 2003 p. 10; DYER 2004, p. 76, HAMMER 2001, p. 81; BULLINGER & KÜHNER 2002, p. 257) agree with Booz Allen & Hamilton’s supplementary finding (HECKMANN et al. 2003, p. 4) that available information must be complemented by an organizational design of the involved production systems for a supply chain to unfold its full potential. Nevertheless, a series of surveys in regard to the contemporary level of integration among supply chain partners, published by the Supply Chain Management Review (POIRIER & QUINN 2003, p. 44; POIRIER & QUINN 2004, p. 27) illustrate that most companies are still optimizing their networks on a local basis and have not yet profoundly embarked on viewing the supply chain as a whole. FROHLICH & WESTBROOK (2001, p. 190) concluded that only about 14% of the 322 analyzed firms practice extensive optimization efforts in cooperation with their suppliers.

The reason for this disintegration may be that, as opposed to a proposition by FISHER (1998), most supply chains are not designed specifically for a given product, but “evolve on a somewhat ad hoc basis” (TOMLIN 2000, p. 14) and an ex post reorganization of the involved production systems is highly complex (KLEER 2005, p. 6). This industrial practice may be explained through the results

of a study carried out by the Center for Enterprise Sciences (BWI) of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich, which revealed that 50% of the 200 participating companies felt that they lack a structured approach for implementing SCM (NIENHAUS et al. 2003, p. 14) and thus, lack the ability to configure reliable supply chains.

Thus, the second objective of this thesis is

2. to provide the means for buyers to efficiently and effectively ascertain the delivery reliability of potential suppliers by accounting for the organizational integration of the production systems of the supply chain.

1.2 Focus and Delimitation

To achieve the above objectives, this thesis focuses on supply chains involved in the production of discrete products (as in the automotive, mechanical engineering, electronics, and aerospace industries) that have a convergent product structure, or consist of multiple sub-assembly groups or components, requiring multiple process steps and are subject to continuous but not necessarily constant demand (for a classification of products, see SCHÖNSLEBEN 2004, pp. 110).

Consequently, permanent (see GUDEHUS 1999, p. 37), multi-site and/or company networks are investigated, as opposed to temporary, cross plant activities, that are common to competence networks (see BROSER 2002, p. 5; NEISE 2002, p. 161). Collaboration forms (see DATHE 1998, p. 85) such as fusions, consortia, strategic alliances or joint ventures, etc. will not be considered, since these constructs are primarily concerned with legal issues (for a differentiation of network relationships see SCHLIFFENBACHER 2000, p. 22 et. seq.).

Even though various descriptions of SCM exist, this thesis employs the definition provided in Section 1.1. Alternative descriptions “may differ in terminology, but are reasonably consistent in meaning” (TOMLIN 2000, p. 13). One exception is a differentiation criterion, pointed out by SEURING (2001, p. 4), who distinguishes two groups of authors in this regard. The first group views SCM as the cross-enterprise coordination of material and information flows (e.g., KOPCZAK 1997, p. 226; FIALA 2005, p. 1), whereas, the second group emphasizes that product design processes must additionally be included into the scope of SCM, since the product structure significantly affects the supply chain design (e.g., FEITZINGER & LEE 1997, p. 117). The latter view fully corresponds to the understanding pre-

vailing in this thesis. Nevertheless, this research is mainly concerned with deriving organizational guidelines for a given product type and for this reason, the initially proposed definition is sufficient for this investigation.

A further delimitation of the focus of this thesis can be derived from the SCM task reference model (Figure 2), developed by the SCM Competence and Transfer Center (SCM-CTC), an independent research group consisting of the Fraunhofer Institutes in Dortmund (IML) and Stuttgart (IPA) and the BWI of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich (see SCM-COMPETENCE-AND-TRANSFER-CENTER 2005). As are many models for describing SCM tasks (see e.g., GANESHAN et al. 1999, p. 848) it is also subdivided into strategic, tactical, and operational levels.

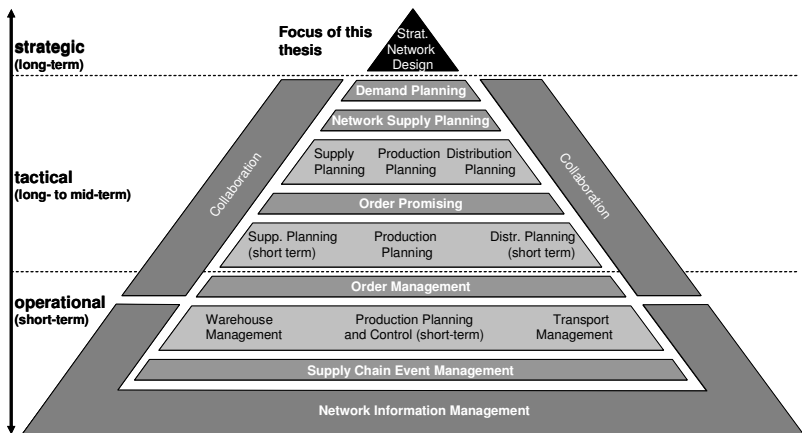


Figure 2: *SCM task reference model of the SCM-CTC (adapted from HIEBER 2005, p. 24)*

In representing the strategic level, *strategic network design* is primarily concerned with the cost efficient configuration and design of the network over the long-term (KUHN & HELLINGRATH 2002, p. 156). According to FLEISCHMANN et al. (2000, p. 63) long-term decisions involve strategic sales planning, definition of the product and material program, determination of plant locations, specification of the physical distribution structure, supplier selection, cooperation arrangements, and design of the production systems (see also ROHDE et al. 2000, p. 10).

The main focus of the tactical level is on the allocation of resources (such as personnel, materials, and production capacities) within the production network, to meet the expected and forecasted demand. Thus, *demand planning* represents the basis for *network supply planning*, which disaggregates end product demand, according to the responsibilities of the supply chain partners that, in turn, conduct long- to mid-term supply, production, and distribution planning. The *order promising* task is the interface between the tactical and the operational levels. It serves to respond to customer inquiries by determining the earliest possible delivery date and by confirming the demanded product configuration.

The operational level is concerned with customer *order management*, including all related (short-term) planning and control functions (GÜNTHER & LAAKMANN 2002, p. 4). These tasks encompass warehouse management, short-term production planning and control, as well as transportation planning and execution. *Supply chain event management* is concerned with monitoring these supply chain activities to identify and control potential deviations in regard to such items as inventory levels or customer due dates. The above stated assignments are supported through *network information management* that can be summarized as the integration and communication of operational data, which is administered through information systems (e.g., Enterprise Resource Planning) within and across the participating firms or sites (KUHN & HELLINGRATH 2002, p. 156).

As depicted in Figure 2, the focus of this thesis lies within the strategic network design, which is mainly intended to support the subtasks of the supplier selection as well as the cooperation arrangement.

As HIRSCHMANN (1998, p. 9 et. seq.) has shown, a single definition of the term “cooperation” is not easily derived. Thus, this thesis concentrates on an aspect of cooperation arrangement, as discussed by TSAY et al. (1999, p. 304). They highlight the impact that supply chain contracts, which define the rights, responsibilities, and financial duties of supply chain partners, have on inventory and service levels, and, especially relevant for this thesis, quality. Thus the increase of supplier quality will be mitigated through the design of a robust contractual agreement between the buyer and the supplier.

Regarding supplier selection, the focus of this investigation is on the interplay between the structural and the process organization of the involved production systems, as many researchers emphasize the importance of this interaction for reducing inventory levels and reaching the desired delivery reliability (see e.g.,

WIENDAHL 2002, p. 83). In this context, the structural organization refers to the assembly and fabrication units of the supply chain partners and the process organization prescribes the rules for the (spatial and) temporal conduct of activities within the supply chain (see FRESE 1999, p. 3-1 et. seq.; REFA 1990, p. 27). Warehouse and transport management will not be considered specifically, as the first task is mainly concerned with the efficient monitoring, storage, and retrieval of materials within warehouses and has little effect on the overall supply chain organization. The second task is primarily a combinatorial problem, for which efficient algorithms have been identified and are implemented in off-the-shelf SCM software.

1.3 Thesis Structure

The preceding sections provide a general understanding of the objectives of this thesis. Further, the elements of supply chain management, the industries with respect to range of products, and the network attributes relevant to the investigation have been specified.

As depicted in Figure 3, the remainder of this thesis is arranged as follows: Chapters 2 to 4 deal with the increase of supplier quality. As a basis for this research, current industrial practices and concepts in the literature are reviewed and their implications are discussed in Chapter 2. Using these insights, an incentive structure, based on two different strategies in repeated games, namely the Grimm Trigger and the Limited Retaliation strategies, is derived Chapter 3. These ideas are applied to two industrial case studies in Chapter 4 and the chapter concludes with a presentation of managerial implications, based on the analysis of enhanced supplier quality.

Chapters 5 through 8 are dedicated to the increase in delivery reliability of suppliers. In Chapter 5, a review and discussion of the current literature gives an overview of the qualitative and quantitative models used for describing supply chains and the increase in delivery reliability. The insights of the qualitative literature review are then used as a basis for deriving a determinant model for describing the supply chains in Chapter 6. This model is employed for the design of a survey of companies in the mechanical engineering, automotive, and aircraft industries. The data collected during this investigation is used in a statistical analysis to show that supply chains are often organizationally disintegrated.

Chapter 6 is concluded with a list of requirements for deriving simulation models for selecting reliable suppliers.

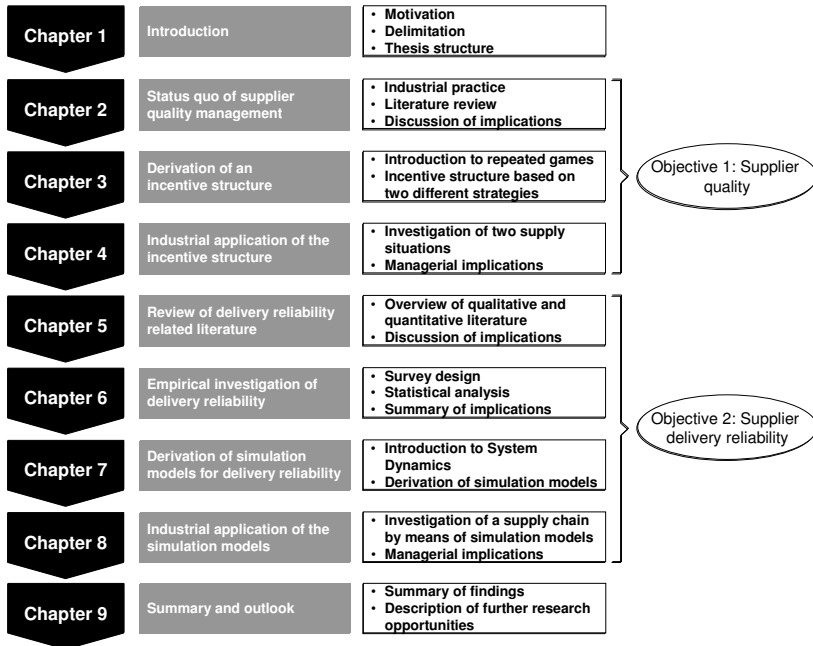


Figure 3: Thesis structure

In Chapter 7, the concept of systems dynamics modeling is introduced. Subsequently, a model for assessing the value of organizational integration in terms of delivery reliability is derived, which is based on the determinant model developed in Chapter 6. An industrial case study is described in Chapter 8, which demonstrates the applicability of the developed System Dynamics models. A summary of the presented research, as well as a recommendation for future investigations are given in Chapter 9.

2 Review of Supplier Quality Management in Practice and Literature

2.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the previous section, the following chapters focus on the first objective of this thesis, which is to assist the management of supplier quality through deriving conditions under which a supplier is at least indifferent between delivering perfect or imperfect quality, to enhance quality levels in industry.

To achieve this, the research process depicted in Figure 4 has been applied, and will be elaborated upon in the following chapters.

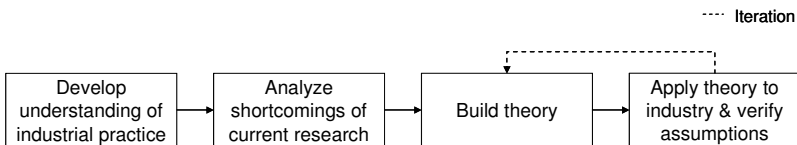


Figure 4: Research process applied for enhancing supplier quality

In the first step, informal interviews with production managers and a study of supplier quality management guidelines were used to understand industrial practice. This knowledge was then applied to analyze the shortcomings of current research and to resolve these through building an advanced theory. The application of the newly found concepts to an industrial case study was conducted to probe for a need for possible refinements of the theoretical considerations.

2.2 Supplier Quality Management in Industrial Practice

As indicated in the previous section, four companies were interviewed (one from aerospace, two from automotive, and one from mechanical engineering) and ten vendor quality guidelines published by firms of the aerospace (AEROJET 2005, AVIBANK 2005, EATON 2005), automotive (BOSCH 2005, SOUTHCO 2005, TOWER-AUTOMOTIVE 2005, WEBASTO 2005) and electronics (OPTEK-TECHNOLOGIES 2005, PACIFIC-SCIENTIFIC 2005, SATURNEE 2005) industries were reviewed to better understand supplier quality management practices. As a result of this analysis, six supplier quality management activity clusters were identified, which are summarized in Figure 5.

Activity clusters		Measures
1	General supplier selection measures	Quality management system certification, supplier reduction, onsite process audits, guideline enforcements at suppliers' vendors
2	Process & product change measures	Support in product design, product change approval, process change approval (machines, tools, material, packaging, maintenance)
3	Quality assurance measures	Statistical process control required, rework authorizations, approval of testing methods, onsite quality inspection (buyer, 3 rd party), delivery of test reports, corrective action request and approval
4	Performance feedback measures	Performance measurement and rating, penalties, cost of defectives at buyer's site / final customer are paid by supplier
5	Preventive measure	Safety stock, recording of lot numbers for traceability, incoming inspection or sampling
6	Product and process cost reduction	Continuous improvement prescribed (labor and material cost reduction)

Figure 5: *Supplier quality management activity clusters based on current industrial practice*

The first group of quality management activity contains general measures for the supplier selection process, such as reducing the supplier base and defining the required quality management standards for the vendor (e.g. ISO 9001: 2000 or buyer specific standards). These standards are assessed by the buyer during on-site process audits of the supplier's overall manufacturing system. Some companies have organized their procurement employees so that their staff is responsible for certain parts, rather than for a number of suppliers. With this organizational structure, these companies achieve close monitoring. One difference among the various industries is that the aircraft manufacturers emphasize that standards must not only be fulfilled by the vendor, but must also be implemented at the supplier's vendors.

The second group of quality management activity focuses on changes in the product and the supplier's production facility. All of the analyzed companies require an approval request by the supplier in case of a change in the product design, production processes, or tools. Some of these companies also require notice when the testing and calibration method (mainly in the aircraft industry), the maintenance program, or specified shipping and packaging procedures are modified. Few firms provide their suppliers with extensive support in regard to product and process design prior to the product launch.

The third group of quality management activity focuses on measures that ensure product quality during the product life cycle. For example, suppliers are expected to conduct statistical process control (measured by the Process Capability or the Process Performance Indexes, Cpk or Ppk, respectively), inspect parts and carry

out 6-sigma initiatives. In this group, a distinct feature of the aircraft industry is that parts are sometimes inspected through the buyer or a third party at the supplier's premises, and test reports must be delivered with the part for them to be accepted.

The fourth group of quality activity addresses actual supplier quality through actions such as performance measurement reports (e.g., ppm) and supplier rankings. Upon detecting quality problems, buyers issue corrective action requests, to which suppliers must respond in the form of action plans within a certain time window. Some companies (except the aircraft industry) convey the quality cost to their suppliers and let them incur a penalty according to the reviewed supplier quality guidelines. A procurement manager from the automotive industry reported that some of his suppliers are charged a flat rate of 1.1 times the part price, if defects are identified. This factor may increase significantly for vendors that have severe quality issues. Penalties may not be enforced, however, especially when the buyer depends on a supplier with considerable market power, as discussions with four production managers revealed.

From the interviews, a fifth group of quality activities was identified, consisting of preventive measures that include incoming quality inspection or sampling, and quality-related safety stock. Some buyers record lot numbers to detect the root causes of deficiencies and to identify other potentially defective parts.

The last group of quality management measures comprises the prescription of continuous improvement activities to reduce the supplier's failure rate and required internal quality cost. All of the interviewed companies emphasized that they are willing to pay a higher part price, if quality levels rise to their expectations.

2.3 Implications from Industrial Practice

With reference to the preceding section, the aerospace industry is assumed to have the strictest quality management measures, which could stem from the high safety regulations required to ensure a reliable product. This assumption may also be based on an aerospace industry report by CAPS-RESEARCH (2005), which states that the 17 analyzed companies have a mean supplier quality of 100%. Aircraft manufacturers require evidence of quality tests from their suppliers and some of the industry OEMs inspect the products quality conformance at the sup-

3 Incentive Structures for the Management of Supplier Quality

3.1 Introduction to Game Theory

Game theory attempts to mathematically capture behavior in strategic situations, in which an individual's or a company's success in making choices depends on the choices of others. This is also the case in supplier quality management, as the quality choice of the supplier strongly influences e.g., the price the buyer is willing to pay for the good, the level of incoming quality inspection and, most importantly, his ability to deliver the end product to the final customer on time.

Traditional applications of game theory attempt to find Nash Equilibria in these games, which may be described as sets of strategies in which individuals are unlikely to change their behavior. Thus, a game must be designed in such a way that the desired outcome is the best choice for each player and no player will unilaterally deviate from the according strategy.

Contrary to one stage games, players have the opportunity of conditioning their behavior on past actions of the other players in a repetitive game. This means that in repeated games, players have the opportunity of building trust by acting in a cooperative way, but also punishing other players for non cooperative actions.

To capture the repetitive nature of the procurement process and to establish cooperation as a best choice for the supplier and the buyer, the theory of repeated games (refer to FUDENBERG & TIROLE 2000, GIBBONS 2004, RATLIFF 2004) is utilized to derive an incentive structure for suppliers in this thesis.

3.2 Repeated Games and Quality Management

A repeated game consists of a finite or infinite series of stage games G , which involve a player set $I = \{1, \dots, n\}$. Hence, two players are in the supplier-buyer relationship and every delivery of parts represents a stage game.

In each stage, each player's actions are a choice from their action space A_i . The space of possible action profiles is thus $A = \prod_{i \in I} A_i$. For each player, the set of actions available, in any period of the game, is the same regardless of which period it is and which actions have taken place in the past. Following the discussion in Section 2.5, the supplier's actions are to deliver imperfect (q) or perfect quality (q_{100}), while the buyer can pay a price that includes a quality premium (w^* , i.e.

w^* - w equals the quality premium) or just the common market price (w) combined with a penalty (see group 4 in the industrial practices in Section 2.2).

Each player has a von Neumann-Morgenstern utility function⁷ defined by the outcomes of G , and every player's ultimate payoff is an additively separable function of the discounted per-period payoffs, if G is played several times. The payoffs to the players from the stage game in any period depend only on the action profile played in that period and, therefore, on the quality level of the supplier and the part price paid by the buyer.

In repeated games, the typical "standard signaling" assumption is made. This means that the play which occurred in each repetition of the stage game is revealed to all players before the next stage game. Combined with perfect recall, this allows subsequent choices to be conditioned on the past actions of other players. These properties of repeated games fit particularly well with the nature of the quality management process, because the buyer learns the quality level of the supplier each time parts are delivered. The buyer records this knowledge in the form of performance reports and can decide upon quality management actions based on these metrics (see group 4 in section 2.2, Figure 5).

The first period of the game is labeled $t = 0$, whereas the final period, if it exists, is period T . Thus, the repeated game comprises a total of $T+1$ periods. Since a supplier will usually seek to deliver parts to a buyer for longer than a single product life cycle, the game is reasonably assumed to be played for an infinite number of stages (n), as the supplier does not know when the game will end.

An action, which player i executes in period t , is referred to as a_i^t . The action profile played in period t then is the n -tuple of the individuals' stage game actions $a^t = (a_1^t, \dots, a_n^t)$. As the players are allowed to condition their stage game action choices in later periods upon actions taken earlier by other players, they base their decisions on the history of the game. The history, at time t , is defined as $h^t = (a^0, a^1, \dots, a^{t-1})$ and the specification of h^t thus includes within it a definition of all previous histories. For instance, the history h^t is a concatenation of h^{t-1} with the action profile a^{t-1} . The set of all possible histories is thus the t -fold Cartesian product of the space of stage game action profiles A .

⁷ A player possesses a von Neumann-Morgenstern utility function if he is indifferent between receiving a given bundle or participating in a game with the same expected value.

As mentioned above, player i 's period- t stage game strategy s_i^t is a function of this history, where $a_i^t = s_i^t(h^t)$ is the action profile that would be played in period t if the previous play had followed h^t . A player's stage game action in any period and after any history must be drawn from the player's action space for that period, but because the game is stationary, the stage game action space A_i does not change with time, which may be expressed as $(\forall i \in I)(\forall t)(\forall h^t \in A) s_i^t(h^t) \in A_i$. The period- t stage game strategy profile is thus described as $s_i^t = (s_i^t, \dots, s_n^t)$. Using stage game strategies as building blocks, player i 's strategy for the repeated game is expressed as $s_i = (s_i^0, s_i^1, \dots, s_i^T)$. When the repeated game strategy profile s is played, the payoff to player i is defined as:

$$u_i(s) = \sum_{t=0}^T \delta^t g_i(s_i^t(h^t)) \quad (5)$$

where δ is the common discount factor, which may be interpreted as an expression of time preference, and g_i is the stage game payoff resulting from the strategy profile. A repeated game strategy profile is a Nash Equilibrium for all players i when

$$\bar{s}_i \in \arg \max_{s_i \in S_i} u_i(s_i, \bar{s}_{-i}).^8 \quad (6)$$

A subgame-perfect equilibrium strategy profile is one where the restriction of \bar{s} to any subgame is a Nash Equilibrium strategy profile in that subgame⁹.

3.3 Incentive Structure based on a Grimm Trigger Strategy

To derive conditions under which a supplier will deliver perfect quality, a Grimm Trigger strategy is employed (for a model of the efficiency of employment, see SHAPIRO & STIGLITZ 1984). This strategy prescribes cooperating in the initial period and then cooperating as long as both players have cooperated in previous periods. Following the action spaces A_i of the supplier and the buyer, defined in

⁸ $\arg \max$ is the value of the given argument for which the value of the given expression attains its maximum value.

⁹ A subset or piece of a sequential game beginning at some node such that each player knows every action of the players that moved before him at every point

4 Industrial Application of the Incentive Structure

4.1 Introduction

The Grimm Trigger strategy was applied in an industrial case study, which was conducted in cooperation with a manufacturer of credit cards and UICC's (Universal Integrated Circuit Card), chip cards used in mobile phones for GSM and for UMTS networks, respectively. For each of the products, a supplier of components was analyzed.

4.2 Foil Supplier

In the first case, the investigated vendor provides foils that are used to manufacture so-called multi-layer credit cards, which consist of between four and nine colored and transparent foils, often with a magnetic and a signature strip. At the manufacturer's site, the required amounts of foils and strips are stacked and geometrically adjusted by a fixation machine, where the top and the bottom foils are transparent. The underlying layers contain the foils with the card's design elements and a certain number of white foils for stabilization purposes. The foil stack, from which 48 cards are obtained, is then joined through laser technology. Finally, the foils are baked, cut, deflashed, and the cards are stamped with the user's personal data.

The manufacturer procures an estimated 867,020 foils per year from the supplier and incurs a part price (w) of 0.0145 €. The foils are delivered to the manufacturer between one and five times per month, depending on the level of demand. From the ERP-system (SAP® R/3) data, the probability (p) that a delivery contains zero defects is assumed to equal 0.34.

The problems that occur with defective foils mostly stem from the mixture of ingredients used in the foil production process, which result in insufficient coloring or translate to deficiencies in the lamination process.

The first quality issue requires a preventive inspection of the colored foils through which a yearly labor cost of 14,450 € arises for the manufacturer. The scrap cost for lamination failures equals 20,000 € per year. Taking this cost into account, a per part quality cost (q_m) of 0.039 € can be calculated for the manufacturer. Surprisingly, this amount represents more than double the part price, yet the manufacturer presently does not penalize the supplier for defective units.

To overcome these shortcomings, the supplier would have to invest 50,000 € for a test lamination machine and an additional 175,000 € for a chemical mixture analyzing device. Analogous to the manufacturer, the supplier would also have to incur a yearly labor cost of 14,450 €. Assuming that the testing devices can be employed for 8 years, the supplier's quality cost (q_s) of 0.049 € per part may be calculated. Using formula (10) and the manufacturer's commonly used interest rate of 4%, a discount factor of 0.9615 is calculated and a part price (w^*) of 0.066 € is obtained, which includes the full quality premium and presumes a setting where the supplier is not penalized.

As it can be already anticipated from a comparison of q_m and q_s , the cost resulting from the higher part price exceeds the manufacturer's yearly quality cost and the manufacturer would have to incur an extra 10,704.1 € to obtain perfect quality by paying a part price that includes a quality premium. Hence, formula (11) is not satisfied. For an overview of this data refer to Figure 12.

Input parameters – current setting	
• Market price (w):	0.0145000 €
• Per part quality cost of the supplier (q_s):	0.0491050 €
• Discount factor based on an interest rate of 4% (δ):	0.9615
• Probability of zero defects (p):	0.34
• Penalty per defective part (r):	0 €
• Expected penalty ($E(r)$):	0 €
• Per part quality cost of the manufacturer (q_m):	0.0397338 €

Management choices	
• Part price including quality premium (w^*):	0.0665797 €
• Savings per year (case V):	- 10,704.1 €
• Required penalty (r) for constant market price (w):	0.1533142 €
• Savings per year (case IV):	34,450 €

Figure 12: Overview of parameters and results for the foil supplier for the Grimm Trigger strategy

In this case, the only management choice that increases the supplier's quality level and reduces the manufacturer's cost is to penalize the supplier, if defective parts are delivered. To create a setting in which the supplier is indifferent between perfect and imperfect quality, the manufacturer would have to penalize the supplier with at least 0.153 € per defect. To fully eliminate the manufacturer's quality cost (q_m) of 34,450 €, the manufacturer would have to charge the supplier a penalty of 0.153 € per faulty unit. Thus, case IV (depicted in Figure 9, p. 26) is

the manufacturer's best choice. Since the probability of zero defects has been drawn from historical data, Figure 13 plots a sensitivity curve for the penalty level where the supplier is indifferent between good and insufficient quality as well as for the case where the buyer's quality cost is fully eliminated.

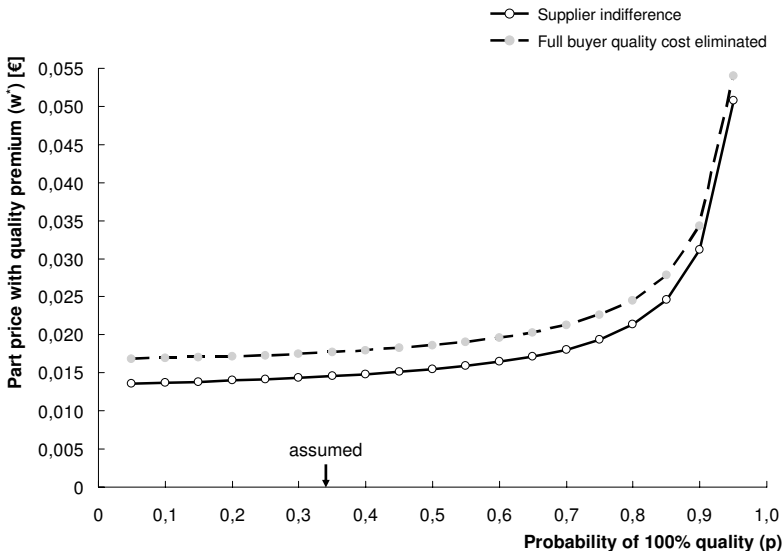


Figure 13: Sensitivity analysis of the part price vs. the probability of high quality for the foil supplier

4.3 Plastic Card Supplier

The second supplier analyzed in the course of the industrial case study provides plastic cards that have a similar size as credit cards and are used to produce UICC's. Upon arrival at the manufacturer's factory, these injection molded parts are fed into a printing machine, which applies the customer-specific design to the card. Subsequently, the UICC-bodies are stamped into the plastic while they are still connected to the card, though they can easily be detached from it by the end-user. In the next step, the chip is planted onto the UICC-body, and the so-called operating system and the customer information (e.g., the user's PIN) is installed. Finally, the cards are conveyed to the mailing center, where they are packaged and sent to the end-users together with an information kit.

5 Review of Literature on Delivery Reliability

5.1 Introduction

Subsequent to the design of an incentive structure for the management of supplier quality, the remaining chapters focus on the second objective of this thesis, which is to provide the means through which buyers can efficiently and effectively ascertain the delivery reliability of potential suppliers.

To understand the current state of knowledge on this topic, this chapter focuses on research about managing delivery reliability and on its limitations. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches are examined: First, models that describe supply chains are elaborated to capture the full set of parameters for formalizing them.

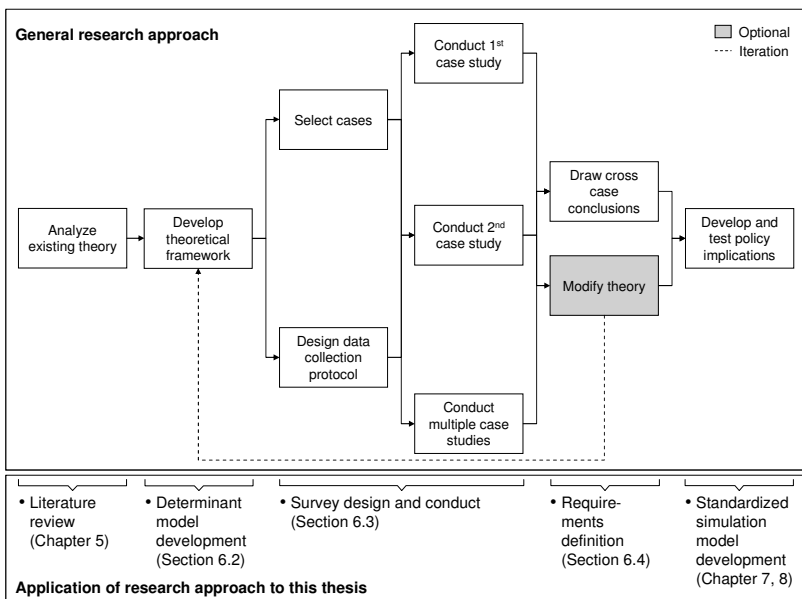


Figure 17: Research process applied for increasing delivery reliability

Subsequently, these parameters are discussed in regards to their influence on delivery reliability of the supply chains investigated by this thesis. Next, different

quantitative models for supply chain management are introduced, and their strengths and weaknesses are examined.

As depicted in Figure 17, the literature review elaborated in this chapter serves as the basis for the research process described in the following chapters (see YIN 1994, p. 49; LINCK 2001, p. 87; LEEDY 1985). The delivery reliability relevant parameters identified in the literature review (Chapter 5) are utilized to develop a qualitative determinant model for describing supply chains in Section 6.2. This determinant model is then used as the structuring element for a survey in Section 6.3. The gained data is employed to draw cross-case conclusions in regards to the main requirements and levers for increasing supplier delivery reliability in Section 6.4. Depending on the outcome of the cross case conclusions, the theory developed in Section 6.2 may optionally be modified, if any additions or changes are required. This may be necessary, if new insights are gained during the analysis of the survey data and the research process should thus be iterated. The simulation models developed in Chapter 7 follow from the discussion of the quantitative models in the literature review and the requirements defined in Section 6.4, and are applied to an industrial case study in Chapter 8 to demonstrate how policy implications can be derived from the simulation results.

5.2 Qualitative Description of Supply Chains

Many qualitative descriptions or classifications of supply chain or network arrangements can be found in the SCM literature (SYDOW 1992, p. 85). These schemes encompass a wide range of foci. In the following sections, typologies are introduced that analyze supply chains on the basis of: structure, products, trust, influence, operations, and supply chain partner integration.

5.2.1 Structural Supply Chains

Concerning the structure, BEAMON & CHEN (2001) differentiate supply chains through four network classes (Figure 18). *Convergent* structures are assembly-type networks where each node (or facility) in the chain has at most one successor, but may have any number of predecessors. A supply chain is classified as *divergent* if each node has at most one predecessor, but any number of successors, and may thus be thought of as the structural opposite of a convergent supply chain. A *conjoined* structure is a combination of a convergent and a divergent supply chain, where each substructure (convergent and divergent) is combined in

sequence to form a single, connected network. The *general* supply chain does not fall into any of the preceding three classes. Networks exhibiting a general structure are neither strictly convergent, nor divergent, nor conjoined. According to BEAMON & CHEN (2001, p. 3195 et seq.) examples of supply chains that commonly display a general structure include those for automobile and electronics manufacturing. Convergent structures are common to the aircraft industry, whereas divergent and conjoined forms may be found in mineral and food supply chains, respectively.

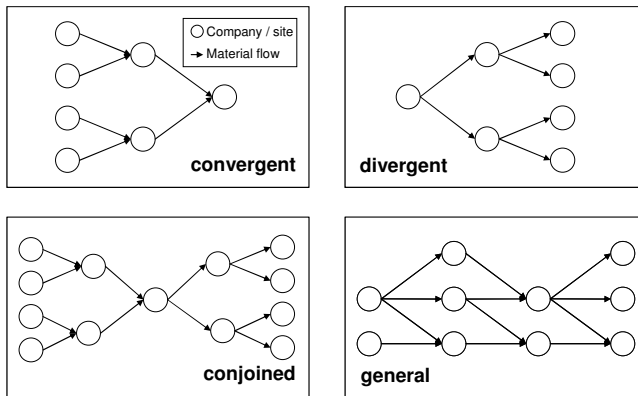


Figure 18: Structural classification of supply chains (BEAMON & CHEN 2001, p. 3196)

HUANG 2004 (2004, p. 13 et seq.) utilizes a similar classification scheme for distinguishing supply chains, which is based on the ideas of THOMPSON (1967). The concept differentiates *serial*, *pooled*, and *reciprocal* interdependencies between two plants. Serial interdependencies are related to situations where the output of one manufacturing system is the input to the next. In pooled dependence, the activities of more than one system serve as inputs for another. Thus, any of the constructs suggested by BEAMON & CHEN (2001) may be assembled through pooled and serial interdependencies. Reciprocal relationships may be summarized as “a mutual exchange of inputs and outputs between two or more parties” (HUANG 2004, p. 14), which is not addressed by the models suggested by BEAMON & CHEN (2001).

A further structural classification was derived through a Delphi study conducted by the Integrated Supply Chain Management (ISCM) program of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). Its results (RICE & HOPPE 2001, p. 50) sug-

gest *completely disconnected*, *completely overlapping*, and *partially overlapping* supply chains to characterize the level of competition between the networks of a given industry. The highest form of rivalry among supply chains is inherent to the first network type, since companies that constitute such chains exclusively serve firms involved in the creation of one specific end product. In completely or partially overlapping networks, however, a partner may supply products to various companies within the same industry. The latter two forms may be found, for example, in the automotive industry, where it is difficult to separate singular supply chains that compete against each other.

5.2.2 Product-Based Supply Chains

In the SCM literature, a product-based differentiation of supply chains has been described by FISHER (1997). To define the requirements of such networks, products are classified into *functional* and *innovative* products. The first group is subject to a known and nearly constant demand (e.g., dairy products), while the latter has little forecasting accuracy (e.g., computers). Moreover, FISHER (1997) states that functional products have long product life cycles and a small contribution margin, in contrast to innovative products. Additional product characteristics refer to lead times, mark downs, and stock out rates (Figure 19).

Product characteristics	Functional products	Innovative products
Demand	constant	variable
Product life cycles	more than 2 years	3 months to 1 year
Contribution margin	5 to 20%	20 to 60 %
Product variety	low (10 to 20 variants)	high (10 ⁶ of variants)
Average margin error	10%	40 to 100 %
Average stock out rate	1 to 2%	10 to 40 %
Average end-of-season mark-down as percentage of full price	0%	10 to 25 %
Lead time required for make-to-order product	6 months to 1 year	1 day to 2 weeks

Figure 19: Characteristics of functional and innovative products (FISHER 1997, p. 107)

7 Simulation Models for Assessing Delivery Risk

7.1 Introduction

To fulfill the requirements listed in the previous section, this chapter focuses on deriving a supplier assessment tool. A brief discussion of the methodology used for creating the tool is given at the beginning of this chapter. Next, the general structure of the developed tool is elaborated and the tests to ensure the model's functionality are detailed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the guideline for the practical application of the supplier assessment tool.

7.2 Basics of System Dynamics

As a basis for creating a tool for assessing supplier delivery reliability, the System Dynamics methodology (see Forrester 1958, Forrester 1996) was selected. Considering the generic structure of System Dynamics models, it became evident that the requirement for easy adaptability and extendibility is well satisfied.

The requirement for a low aboriginal cost of the SD software is met, since the purchase price of the required software is around 10% of the cost of standard discrete event simulation packages.

To ensure easy applicability of the model for end-users, System Dynamics software in addition to a modeling layer encompasses an operating layer that can be designed to accommodate any potential user.

As shown in Figure 30, a System Dynamics (SD) model (modeling layer) consists of stocks and flows, and information feedback. In the model structure, a clear distinction is made between the physical flows through the stock-and-flow network and the information feedback that couples the stocks to the flows and closes the loops in the system by passing information from one element to other relevant elements.

Stocks are generic and can represent tangible quantities such as people, money or material, but also resemble intangible variables such as employee morale or perceived inventory, which are important characteristics when considering the extendibility of the supplier assessment tool. Inflows and outflows can be controlled by other stocks, flows, auxiliary variables, external inputs, or constants, where auxiliary variables are calculated from a constant and a flow or stock

value, and external inputs are variables that are intentionally excluded from the model. The mathematical representation of a stock level, at time t , is thus:

$$Stock(t) = \int_{t_0}^t (Inflow(s) - Outflow(s))ds + Stock(t_0).$$

The derivatives of the stocks are nonlinear functions of the stocks with which they are interconnected, as well as exogenous variables and any relevant constants.

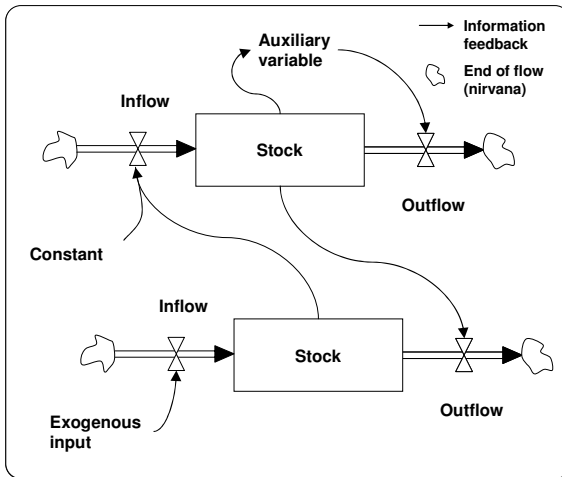


Figure 30: *Elements of a System Dynamics model (adapted from STERMAN 2000, p. 204)*

To visualize the relationships between the variables (stocks, flows, or auxiliary variables) casual loop diagrams are employed, as purely visual representations of the model itself (i.e. stocks and flows) would not be sufficient for the understanding of the reader. As shown in Table 7, the main symbols used in casual loop diagrams are the arrows, indicating link polarity between the variables. The first describes a relation where variable Y increases with variable X , which is a positive link polarity. The second symbol describes the opposite situation. In casual loop diagrams, loops can be reinforcing (indicated by an R) or balancing (indicated by a B), depending on how a small change within one variable propagates within the loop. If the feedback loop enforces the polarity of the change, then it is a reinforcing loop, if the polarity changes, it can be considered a balancing loop.

When causal loop diagrams are translated into a stock and flow model (and thus the actual SD model) the modeler must decide, how the elements of the diagram are best modeled. In general, variables serving as an input in the casual loop diagram are modeled as auxiliary variables (e.g., the buyer order rate in Figure 31), whereas variables with many interconnections to other variables in the casual loop diagram are modeled as a combination of stocks and flows (e.g., production rate of the supplier in Figure 31).



Symbol	Interpretation	Mathematical formulation
	<p>If all else remains equal and X increases (decreases) then Y increases (decreases) above (below) what it would have been.</p> <p>In the case of accumulations, X adds to Y.</p>	<p>$\partial Y / \partial X > 0$</p> <p>In the case of accumulations</p> $Y = \int_{t_0}^t (X + \dots) ds + Y_{t_0}$
	<p>If all else remains equal and X increases (decreases) then Y decreases (increases) below (above) what it would have been.</p> <p>In the case of accumulations, X adds to Y.</p>	<p>$\partial Y / \partial X < 0$</p> <p>In the case of accumulations</p> $Y = \int_{t_0}^t (-X + \dots) ds + Y_{t_0}$

Table 7: Link polarity in casual loop diagrams

As far as the most important criteria mentioned in section 6.4 are concerned, the following paragraphs elaborate on how the determinants are integrated into the design of the model. Furthermore, an explanation is given for how the model can be used to assess the current state of the supplier's manufacturing system and how potential improvement measures can be tested.

7.3 Description of the Developed SD Model

7.3.1 Model Elements

The determinant set, defined in Section 6.2, is composed of three categories: exchanged good, associated enterprises, and the entities' fit. To assess the per-

8 Industrial Assessment of Delivery Reliability

8.1 Supplier of Magnetic Valves

To evaluate the applicability of the ideas developed in the preceding chapter, an industrial system was analyzed by means of the standardized System Dynamics models, and guidelines were derived for improving the system.

The investigated plant supplies various parts, including magnetic valves to an inter-company-buyer who produces train equipment. These valves are essential components of the pneumatic brake control system of track vehicles. In order to enable a deeper understanding on the analyzed Supply Chain, the value stream (refer to ROTHER & SHOOK 2003) of the analyzed dyad is depicted in Figure 39.

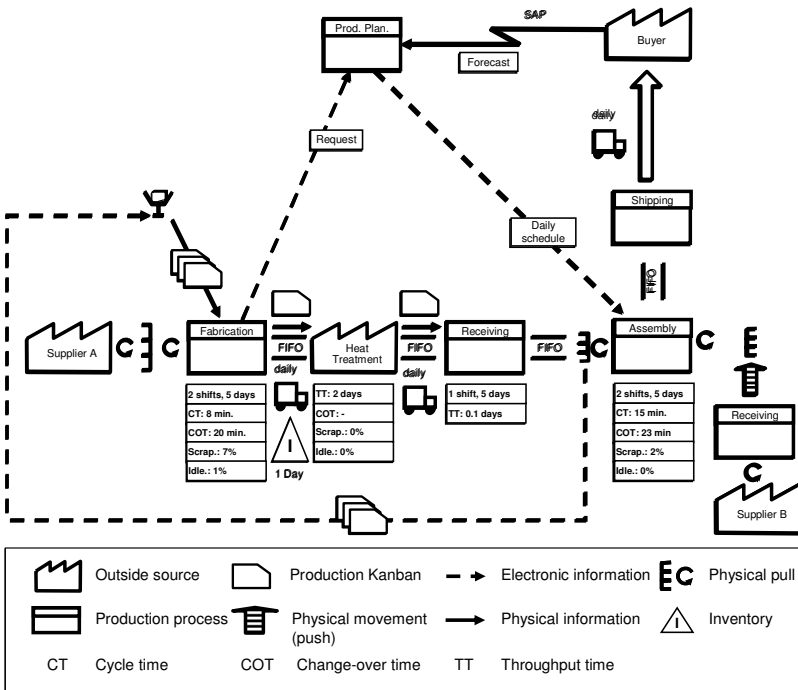


Figure 39: Value stream map of the supply chain for the magnetic valve

The buyer orders the parts via the common ERP system (SAP®) and also provides a forecast to the supplier to enable a timely response to demand peaks. The

orders are converted to a daily production schedule by the supplier's production planning and control department.

Accordingly, magnetic valves, consisting of an aluminium body and a certain number of standard parts, are assembled, tested, and packaged in one of the assembly department's cells, which is also dedicated to other products. Assembly cells operate five days a week, two shifts a day.

Standard parts are drawn from a supermarket that is situated in the assembly and replenished by the vendor-managed inventory principle by supplier B. Similarly, the valve bodies are picked from the stock that is available in the assembly area. Empty containers are conveyed to the fabrication department together with a Kanban.

During fabrication, the Kanban enters the production queue and the sequence in which orders are processed is determined by the production manager. The machining center, for the fabrication, is responsible for an entire product group, which differs from the products processed in the assembly cell. It operates an equal number of shifts for the assembly. The cycle time for the magnetic valve is 8 minutes and the required changeover time for setting up production for the magnetic valve is 20 minutes. When the valves are fabricated, the necessary raw material is picked from a supermarket as aluminium blocks that are replenished by supplier A based on the same principle employed by supplier B.

After production, parts are collected and transferred to a supplier for heat treatment at the end of each day. After 48 hours, the parts are then returned to the site of the supplier, irrespective of the quantity, where they are accepted by the receiving department and transferred to the material stock in assembly.

Once orders have been completed, they are forwarded to the shipping department, where the required documents are attached to the orders. Finally, orders are conveyed to the buyer via a truck that commutes between the supplier and the buyer on a daily basis.

8.2 Simulative Investigation

As delivery reliability of the supplier varied between 80 and 85%, under the buyer's order profile, a simulative investigation was conducted utilizing the make-to-order simulation model. For the specification of the simulation parameters, the buyer's order profile was calculated from the order data for 105 days, which is depicted in Figure 40. As illustrated, the mean demand is 102 parts per

9 Summary and Outlook

9.1 Summary

The complexity of products is continuously rising, and product life-cycles are becoming increasingly shorter. Thus, Original Equipment Manufacturers increasingly rely on their suppliers. In turn, these vendors supply a large percentage of the components and sub-assembly groups constituting the final product. From the results of the survey conducted in the course of this research, however, supplier quality and on-time delivery rates are considerable concerns of the buyers and the Original Equipment Manufacturers.

In today's industry, supplier quality is mostly addressed by supplier certification programs that are to ensure the suppliers' technical capabilities of producing high quality products. These programs have limited effectiveness. The quality problems that remain are often addressed through prescribing costly measures such as high inspection frequencies on the supplier side or increasing incoming quality checks on the buyer side. Additionally, suppliers sometimes must incur the buyer's cost of poor supplier quality and pay penalties.

To provide a means through which the quality of suppliers can be increased in a sustainable manner, which would be beneficial for both parties, incentive structures were derived in this thesis. Under certain circumstances, these offer a financial incentive to suppliers when high quality is delivered. These structures were found by applying repeated games to the quality management problem and are based on Grimm-Trigger and Limited Retaliation strategies. The results were tested in two case studies and the industrial application showed that the offering of a higher part price can enable the supplier to invest in technology that results in higher quality while, at the same time, reduces the buyer's overall cost. This is explained by the fact that the price increase is less costly to the buyer than is the cost for incoming inspection to ensure high supplier quality.

Hence, the first objective of this thesis, to assist the management of supplier quality through deriving conditions under which a supplier is at least indifferent to delivering perfect or imperfect quality, to enhance the quality levels in industry, has been fulfilled.

In terms of insufficient delivery reliability of suppliers, a review of quantitative models for supply chain management showed that a great number of measures have been proposed and adopted by industry to increase the effectiveness of de-

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