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GENERAL USE OF THE ROUTING CONCEPT FOR SUPPLY CHAIN MODELING PURPOSES: THE CASE OF OCP S.A.

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Abstract. This paper proposes a modeling and formalizing approach to fieldwork-collected data in order to develop a set of tools to both direct and increase industrial production. The OCP (“Cherifian Office of Phosphate”) provided authentic data for the construction and use of an inductive approach. After describing the context of this study, the formalization of the data obtained was introduced in terms of a generalization of the concept of routing. This approach enabled us not only to give details about the problems encountered but also to have the necessary level of granularity required for a number of ex ante management decisions. Several instances of the suggested modeling applications are given in the real context of the OCP’s supply chain reengineering. They equally allow the reader to obtain a feedback on the implementation of a twofold modeling generated by a unique collection of knowledge.

1 Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the solutions to the methodological problems that arose in the first phase of our research aiming to create a dual decision-making support system (DMS) dedicated to Supply Chain management and management control system. This phase has to do with gathering and formalizing the required knowledge to design simulation models on which to base the DMSs. Supply Chain (SC) normally refers to the logistics chain of multinationals. The different subsidiaries of these companies participate in the SC, both from within the organization, and as « satellites » involving multiple third party providers of logistics services and sub-contractors whose operations are coordinated by the multinational company [1]. This approach of an organization’s Supply Chain corresponds to the aggregation of several internal SCs run by a key organization enjoying a dominant market position that gives it ... the

power to implement change. The SC object of our study is that of Cherifian Office of Phosphates (OCP S.A.), owned by the State of Morocco. It is made up of a complete industrial sector (described in figure 5) from ore extraction (more than half of world reserves belong to OCP S.A.), to production of phosphoric acid and fertilizers. The Jorf site located at the end of this SC is characterized by its production plants, owned by OCP as well as by a number of technically similar plants, jointly managed by OCP and its foreign partners under joint ventures (JV). Moreover, the adjunction of 300 km of pipeline (for minerals transfer) will entirely change the SC to enable implementation of production to orders. Both the DMSs rely on complementary models of the SC, used to simulate its activities dynamically. In this context, management is focusing i) on the tactical decisions to negotiate the terms of new agreements (limited number of customers) and so maximize the margin generated by the SC and ii) on the operational decisions to fulfill its obligations under the current agreements while keeping costs down. This paper focuses mainly on the operational management aspect. Highlighting the consequences in terms of time and space of the contemplated operational decisions is largely achieved through the simulation tool, which of course does not preclude recourse to complementary approaches (optimization...) to identify the best course of action. Ex ante assessment of the decisions should be complemented by an ex post assessment by management control, through a tailored management accounting scheme to make a proper economic analysis of the decisions. In the context of production to orders, the management control referential cannot be efficient if it only refers to legacy data. Indeed, one needs to use simulation techniques in order to obtain a truly relevant referential, one that is built dynamically. We will start by delimiting the context of this work (§ 2), and then consider (§ 3) the key concept of routing in order to present (§ 4) some principles of collecting and using the gathered data that we will illustrate (§ 5) with examples before making any conclusion.

2. Research context

Any modeling / simulation (M / S) research on production systems is determined by the objectives sought and by the general characteristics of the system. We shall therefore begin (§2.1) with a description of the objectives of the research as they determine the choice of relevant information to be gathered and the level at which the model is to be designed. We will go on (§2.2) to identify the information to be gathered, before conducting (§2.3) an analysis of the information gathering approaches proposed in extent literature showing their limits for the purposes of this research.

2.1 Objectives of the “dual” modeling

The Figure 1 summarizes our chosen approach. The combined gathering of field information by SC management experts and management control / management accounting players should make for two consistent and complementary representations of the SC's activities. The basic inputs are technical documents used in the field, complemented by observation, particularly of decision-making practices, where the required information is not set out in writing. Such basic inputs (which are not available in the public domain (and therefore not listed in the bibliography)) are processed in order to design a dual model of SC activities, with an adequate granularity for the DMS to be designed. The desired model is intended for use by a discrete event simulator, which is a relevant technical solution for our purpose. The primary data gathering process and its processing in order to build the foundations of a simulation model poses a

number of difficult methodological problems. We make a detailed review of these problems before discussing the technical solutions selected by us.

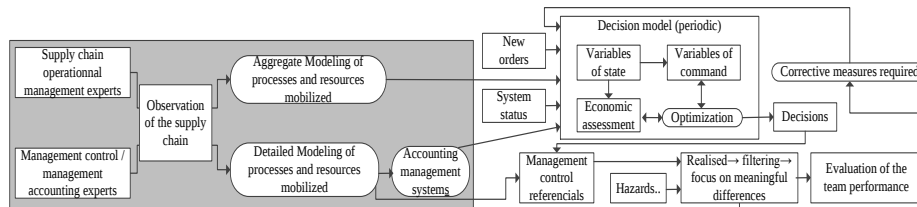


Fig. 1 Complementarity and use of Operational Management and Management Control Models
Articulation and Use

The M / S created for the operational DMS does not call for a fine detail of SC process mapping; on the other hand, it presupposes a good understanding of the main levers available to decision-makers and a proper model-ing of the domino effect of consequences of these decisions in time and space. The first step, therefore, consists in an accurate plotting of the physical activities con-cerned. In order to further inform the decision-making process, beyond the anticipation of consequences of alternative decisions, one needs to measure their economic impact. This implies recourse to a management accounting scheme based on the second M / S.

The M / S created for the Management Control DMS stems from a detailed mapping of the productive entities of the SC, using a rather local focus. This should enable a better assessment of cost factors and therefore the design of a relevant management accounting scheme, for use both for decision-making purposes to assess the economic aspects and for subsequent control purposes. The economic assessment aspect is not the focus of this paper which will only implicitly refer to costs inducers. It is to be used at a later stage in the operational management DMS to fine tune operational decisions and for tactical decision-making purposes. Moreover, the fact of being able to produce to order should drive the development of a dynamic referential for use by the Management Control DMS. The analysis of substantial gaps between physical forecasts and actual achievements shall complement the analysis performed by management control and be used to refine the DMS so as to improve the quality of the decisions taken following all kinds of incidents as they arise.

2.2 Pre-requisite information for this modeling/simulation

In order to model and simulate supply chain activities, one requires technical, management and procedural information.

2.2.1 Technical Information

Technical information describes the products that are made or procured by the productive system under review, the resources available and the operating procedures, in the form of routings that are more or less detailed.

The products manufactured or procured are referenced under a bill of materials. A bill of materials features all of the components and/or raw materials required to produce a particular reference, together with the quantities required in production. In order to produce the system relies on multiple *resources*: plant, machinery and workforce. One draws a distinction [2]

between the storable and the non-storable resources, (useful distinction to define the nature of the management information required to steer production):

- The *storable resources* are those which, if not consumed during a period, can be used in the next period. They correspond to materials and components consumed by the manufacturing process and are stored.

- The *non-storable resources* deliver services that are potentially used during a period failing which they are wasted. For example, operator working time, if unused between 9 am and 10 am, cannot be stored for later use. Human resources and machinery and equipment belong to this category.

Routings are step-by-step lists of the operations contributing to the production (or shipment or inspection, or procurement) of a reference, and detailing the resources consumed and processing time. A single reference may be associated with several routings, called *alternative routings*. Where possible, certain routing variables may be mapped in order to describe the production process of a group of references; this is called *mapped routing*. This will be dealt with in section II as relevant for data gathering purposes with a view to modeling / simulation.

2.2.2 Management Information

Management information describes production system status at a point in time, as well as the status of work in progress. Gathering and analyzing this information as well as its availability for decision-making purposes pose a number of methodological problems that should be addressed. The description of system status differs according to whether one deals with storable or non-storable resources. In connection with the former, the reference is expressed in terms of available quantity, and, as the case may be, inventory level. At a point in time, a non-storable resource deemed available is either idle, or in use in production. In the latter case, the information should also state where the resource is located and whether it may be allocated to several workstations (operator, machinery), and the task underway (completion of an order). Finally, note that a resource found in the system may not be available for production, (equipment down or being maintained, operator off-time or undergoing training...).

Knowledge about the production system should be completed by information on the pending orders. At a point in time, a given system is processing multiple orders each in connection with a particular reference. At this point, therefore, an order is either in progress or pending. In the former case, the status of the order is reflected in the corresponding step of the routing being performed and by the relevant workstation. In the second case, it is materialized by the next step to be performed and the location of the relevant inventory earmarked for this order. Such information may be completed by that on the confirmed order book that the system has not yet begun to process. This body of management information is theoretically readily available for production system simulation purposes. In real life, however, it may be distorted by what are essentially imperfect information systems. Three aspects should be included in the modeling exercise to ensure an accurate representation of the information used for decision-making purposes.

- Changes in resource status are easily known in real time though with a certain delay (end of day...) or upon occurrence of a particular event (end of an operation, inventory movement...), and are possibly recorded late.

- Plotting system behavior for modeling purposes does not require as fine a level of detail as that required for micro production system operational management where one needs to know precisely "who does what, when and where?".

- The fact that this information is there does not in any way imply that it is actually used in the decision-making process, especially where it is not available to decision-makers.

Gathering field information should aim both to determine what information is actually available and which is available and used in the decision-making process. This two-pronged focus

guarantees the relevance of the final model/simulation system used. Such management information is included in the decision-making procedure.

2.2.3 Procedure Information

Procedure information describes the body of rules referred to in the decision-making process and derived from technical and management information. The events that call for a decision are multiple and have to do with a change in system status (see above): a non-storable resource has been freed that may be assigned a new role, occurrence of an incident (breakdown, supply problem...), inventory level change, new orders... operational decisions are essentially geared to allocation of resources and the choice of priority orders as part of day-to-day operations or due to disruptions putting into question previously taken decisions.

The identification of the players in charge of these decisions as well as the scope of their responsibilities is tightly bound up with the gathering of the procedure information.

The gathering of these decisional guidelines is not always easy, as they are not always formalized. Interviews with decision-makers, complemented by field observation, clearly enable one to obtain the most important guidelines used as well as the relevant management information. In the case of day-to-day decisions, one may expect to achieve an adequate understanding of practices. For the other decisions, the quality of collected information is more questionable. The simulation may rely on the available guidelines so collected or other rules likely to be more workable and/or efficient, to improve management results.

Finally, note that the body of decision-making guidelines referred to locally by a decision-maker may well evolve over time and be influenced by aspects not within the power of the local manager to control. Circumscribing these meta-rules that define the body of the rules to be applied by decision-makers is one of the problems to be addressed in the information gathering process.

2.3 Structuring the information gathering approach

In 1980's and '90s, a number of technical and managerial innovations took place simultaneously, along with sweeping economic environment changes that led to root and branch changes in the organization and management of Western businesses. These gradually shifted the traditional approach to functional line management and process *reengineering*" [3], activity costing, project management [4], management software packages were all managerial and technological breakthroughs stemming from a process approach of organization and the associated software. And the organizational approach and culture of its actors have translated, at least in the mainstream firms, into a hierarchical and functional conception of the business and of their work. Accordingly, there was a perceived need to systematically draw up models for almost every aspect of the organization so as to identify the good practices and to organize the acquisition of information concerning the organizational processes. A number of authors and actors have defined [5] the *Business Process Management* (BPM) as one which enables the modeling of the business process. Using collected information about the activities of a complex system such as a *Supply Chain* [6], a representation of the organizational processes is designed in the form of a knowledge model (KM) of this system. The KM is defined as the translation in natural or graphic language of the structure of the system's activities. A number of authors [7] suggest a definition of the system process' KM as the aggregation of information and data used to plot interactions, collaborations and associations between system entities in a *workflow* form. Concretely, the BPM is made up of three phases [5]; [8]; [9], our paper is concerned with the former two.

- the first phase has to do with **acquisition** and **validation** of the **knowledge** concerning the organizational process; this phase, whose steps will be described below, is common to knowledge management.

- the second phase is about **formalizing knowledge** (using concepts, tools and methods) which is presented as a *Business Process Model*.
- the third phase is that of **analysis** and of **use** of the **formal models** developed in the previous phase [10]. During the analytical phase, corporate actors analyze, use and expand the KM.

Four phases have been identified for knowledge acquisition through partial analysis of extant literature:

- the first phase is about the choice of knowledge acquisition mode; the choice of method is bound up with the system and with available information. Moreover, a number of approaches may be used simultaneously;
- the second phase is about translating the knowledge acquired in the form of rough basic documentation in digital format. It is key [9] to store the information in digital format so as to improve productivity and traceability;
- the third phase serves to validate the rough translation of the collected information;
- the fourth phase concerns the development of basic documentary knowledge to enable the subsequent formalization of the system's organizational process. Note some authors consider this basic documentary knowledge, often presented in natural language, as a model in itself of the corporate processes [11].

Using an iterative approach, basic process knowledge is then expanded as the process is started all over again from phase 1[12].

Research [12] on corporate use of structured and formalized basic process knowledge highlighted the following applications (figure 2):

- the knowledge model is used to design the Information System (data storage, basic data, ERP), [11]
- the knowledge model is used to design decision-making applications (*Advanced Planning and Scheduling*, optimization models, simulation models) [13]
- the knowledge model is used to design the performance assessment system (Management Control systems as part of Supply Chain Costing), [14,15]
- the knowledge model is used to design and validate the current or future corporate organizational process through interaction with target system players [3];
- the knowledge model is used for organizational process certification purposes under the quality management approach.

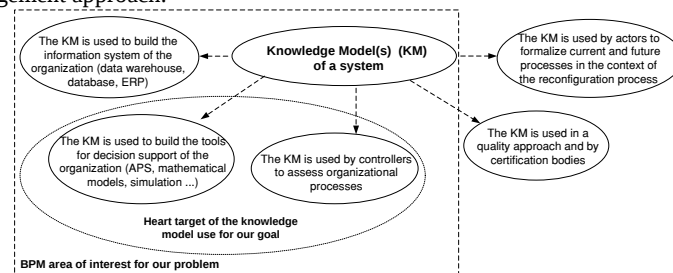


Fig. 2. Multiple use of knowledge model systems.

Research by [14] showed that a given model may be used by different users; one may suppose that the productivity of the formalization process would be greater if it were centralized and performed once and for all, since the knowledge model draws on the same basic knowledge regardless of use. Indeed, this single process mapping performed as part of the modeling exercise of a complex system may be used, for our purposes, indifferently to design the information

system, the decision-making rules and the process valuation/optimization system [7]. In light of SC complexity, introducing a BPM approach serves to formalize the logistical process between and within the systems making up the SC [12] and serves as a pre-requisite for operational collaboration in the long run. As shown in figure 2, BPM activity, which consists in formalizing process system knowledge, also involves producing a documented model useful for different purposes. Nevertheless, in light of our objectives of design of *Supply Chain Management* decision-making support applications, we will focus on use of the knowledge model geared to the routing concept of an SC, and to the creation of a DMS integrating economic metrics.

3. Formalizing knowledge: routing based modeling of logistic processes

The gathering of the technical information yields multiple items of different forms and formats, from which one must extract the relevant information for modeling/simulation purposes. Methodological considerations lead to a detailed analysis of the notion of routing (§3.1) and to break these down to identify the separate uses in connection with the different routing levels (§3.2). This will lead us to review (§3.3) the different possible projections of detailed routings, corresponding to the documents identified in the field; this typology will be shown to be relevant to the information collection strategy.

3.1 Routing Components

Routing is central to technical information. Generally speaking, production routing is defined by use of one or several products matching the required characteristics, combined in predetermined quantities, to obtain, after a certain time (processing time), with the help of multiple material (equipment, machinery...) and human resources (operators), all being viewed as components of a processor, the desired product (or products in the case of linked productions). This general definition leads to the following observations.

- The morphological and/or spatial characteristics pertaining to the output are different from that of the inputs, which serves to make the difference between processor and inventory. A transport operation changes the localization characteristics of one or several products.

- the list of inputs and quantities consumed in the transformation process define the bill of materials associated to the routing; the information about quantities defines the bill of materials coefficients. Where products of different kinds are consumed, the activity is one of assembly which, from a logical point of view, may be defined by use of an 'AND' type of relationship in the combination of these inputs. This assembly may combine one or more product(s) with another chosen in a group of different products (alternative modules, for example); from a logical point of view, such assembly operation is defined in terms of a combined use of 'AND / OR' types of relationship.

- Goods are produced with the help of physical (equipment, machinery) and human resources. The location of the equipment is normally set and defines the place of production. The human resources and, as the case may be, machinery, are considered as required throughout the operation. They may be durably attached to the production location or allocated to a number of operations.

- In the case of an ongoing process, the notion of product quantities (inputs or output) is replaced by that of rate of output and that of processing time, by that of average production time (or retention time) between entry into the processor and exit from it.

Figure 3 shows the components of a Routing and their « combination ». To every reference i of an input is associated a bill of materials coefficient q_i ; symmetrically, to every reference j of an output is associated the quantity q_j produced by the operations. These quantitative data (q_i and q_j) are structurally consistent.

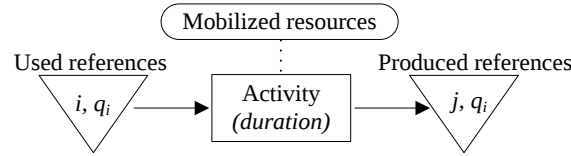


Fig. 3. Representation of a Routing

3.2 Routing Breakdown

The above general definition helps to breakdown production operations into the different elementary steps, each characterised by an elementary routing. This is referred to as a detailed routing. These elementary steps are connected by logical relationships of precedence (a downstream step may not start until the upstream step has been completed), in which a product made upon completion of an elementary upstream step is used by the next elementary step downstream.

The graph does not look like a project flowchart, where activities and time precedence relationships are also shown through detailed account of inputs and outputs.

The breakdown (zoom) may be more detailed, yielding different routing types. These different routings are generated to satisfy different needs (real time order, ordering, scheduling). Detailed routings may be viewed as a description of the production process.

The breakdown approach should not hide the fact that, in real life, basic knowledge is full of details and that the different routings are the product of a process of aggregation. On the other hand, routing disaggregation at a given level is merely returning to the original detailed routing information, which in general corresponds to the original information collected during the data collection process.

Therefore, our objectives of modeling/simulation of the SC under review are different from those from which the different routings found are stemming; the creation of routings fulfilling our objectives is based on detailed routings, a number of considerations concerning the required level of detail as well as implementation of certain aggregation rules. These will be further described in § 4.

Proper knowledge of detailed routings is basic to modeling. We shall discuss the level of detail deemed relevant to the purpose in § 4.2. Note that data items collected in the field tend to be piecemeal, and deprived of a number of the variables relevant of detailed routings. A quick review of these routing projections serves to describe the collected documentation and identify missing information. One may decide to replace an activity by the “processor” implementing it and to treat inputs or outputs as if they were the corresponding inventory, while maintaining the distinction between types of inventory that is observed in real life (which is not a pre-requisite in routing description). This yields a production process map of the product(s) making up inventory(ies) rather than a processor input map. In this representation, the distance between processors may not be reflected. Processing time information and bill of materials coefficients (q_i and q_j) are generally omitted, as is the list of shared resources. One must then identify missing information and obtain this from other sources in order to dispose of all the technical information required for modeling purposes. The superposition of a number of process maps involving a particular group of processors leads to a flow chart. In such representation, the different arcs between two flowchart knots (each corresponding to a different reference) may be merged to make for better legibility of the outcome. But in the absence of additional information concerning the flows associated to each routing, the picture is incomplete. Complementary information may take the form of a parameterized routing. Location maps are easily obtained. Such map may be viewed as a representation of flows, where the flows have been eliminated to leave only the physical location of the physical resources (equipment...). In this representation, the relative distances are normally retained. This kind of map often helps understand the workings of complex production systems.

4. Using field information collected

Detailed routings gathered in the field generally do not match the required level of detail for a dual modeling/simulation of the supply chain under review. They, however, enable one to generate the relevant information from the detailed information gathered, provided one relies on properly defined aggregation rules (see §4.1). One must also achieve, in the required model, the relevant level of detail by keeping the number of objects created in the model down to a minimum (§4.2).

4.1 Aggregation Rules

Aggregated activities encompass all of the elementary steps of the detailed routing, together with the products exchanged between these elementary steps. This reminds one of the aggregation questions that are raised in the area of project management [2], except for some specific aspects to do with the fact that one is looking at a repetitive and mature industrial production flow. Four rules are relevant to the elementary routing aggregation.

4.1.1 The rule of legacy as to time sequence

The time sequence relationship linking the different elementary steps that are merged into an aggregated activity will disappear, as does any trace of the products exchanged between these elementary steps. The aggregated activity inherits the time sequence relationship linking an elementary step to another lying upstream or downstream, but that are not included in the aggregated activity. This is illustrated by figure 4 where activities A_1 and A_2 (left-hand chart) are merged into activity A (right-hand chart).

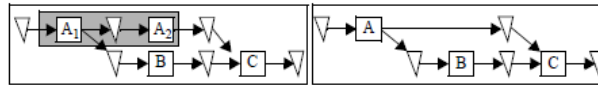


Fig 4. Rule of time sequence relationship legacy

4.1.1 Rules of consolidation duration

The above analogy with project management helps define the duration of aggregated activity as equal to the duration of the critical path calculated on the flowchart of the detailed routing, where cycles are not noted. One will note the time of the longest elementary activity in the critical path ; this information shall be useful later. This duration consolidation rule is subject to the following three constraints.

- In project management, activities are performed only once. In discrete production, the processor which performs an activity handles a single batch (or unit) at a time and only processes the next one once the first has been completed. A transposition of this principle to aggregated activity distorts the representation of reality, since the processor performing the first elementary activity of the aggregated activity is in a position to handle a new batch as soon as it has finished the previous batch, without having to wait for the batch it has processed to leave the processor performing the last elementary activity of the aggregated activity. The modeling/simulation of the sub-system under review should take this into account. A possible solution consists in representing the process performing the aggregated activity by $n = \lceil \tau / \tau_0 \rceil$ identical parallel processors: these processors, corresponding to a unit capacity, are characterized by the same duration ; they all draw the main product transformed by the relevant aggregated routing process from a single inventory at an interval (this translates into a rate of use of these parallel processors equal to $\{n \cdot \tau_0\} / \tau$). Knowing this is key to proceed at this level of aggregation.

- Adaptation to line production is straightforward if one considers that the line production process can be approximated by a discrete process handling small batches (for example, a batch corresponding to product volume manufactured in k minutes by the processor, k being the number of minutes). The processing time of the aggregated routing is calculated in a similar way and the flow rate of inputs and output of the sub-system remain unchanged. In a line production process, the number of parallel processors is $n = \lceil \tau / k \rceil$. An alternative solution would be to plot the process as an inventory capable of containing a maximum of n batches, with a minimum warehousing time and feeding by a virtual processor combining the inputs consumed in the process.

- Obviously, the duration of aggregated activity is only valid provided there is no interruption in supplies, preventing an elementary activity on the critical path from being performed. Moreover, if the intermediary inventory housing the products exchanged between the elementary activities is not initially empty, the duration associated with the aggregated routing can be viewed as unchanged, even if the processing time of a product progressively processed in the sub-system is mechanically increased. One only needs consider that the “last in – first out” rule applies to all inventory items and to treat any excess units as either back up or sleeping inventory. One may add that minimum buffer inventory may be desirable to deal with disruptions for, without this constraint, one will quickly see a pileup of inventory upstream of the activity of τ_0 duration.

4.1.2 Rules of resource consolidation

The resources mobilized by every elementary activity are all mobilized by the aggregated activity. Application of this principle in project management poses a problem as it is obvious that the mobilization of a non-storable resource by an aggregated activity does not imply its use throughout the activity.

In the context of modeling/simulation of a production process, this objection should be dropped if the proposal described above to allow the process to handle simultaneously n batches is adopted as, at any time, all the non-storable resources are simultaneously consumed by the n batches.

Taking into account the non-storable resources in the detailed routing aggregation process leads to two principles that reduce the scope for aggregation in light of the characteristics of certain unstorable resources.

- The human and equipment resources (machinery) should be dedicated to the aggregated activity as the unavailability of a resource used by an elementary activity and shared with other activities not pertaining to the aggregated activity actually interrupt the process.

- The resources in equipment operation services are subject to their availability. One should isolate the activity requiring the equipment liable to frequent breakdown in order to integrate the remedial maintenance operations in the modeling.

4.1.3 Flow Conservation Rules

The aggregation method should respect the principle of flow conservation: at cruising speed, what enters the plant (expressed in weight or otherwise...) is necessarily equal to what goes out, knowing that some output may be waste.

4.2 Definition of the granularity level

The risk of modeling is that of adopting too fine a level of detail. Two principles should guide this effort: define a model that is relevant for the decisions to be taken (§4.2.1) and limit the number of model components to a minimum (§4.2.2).

4.2.1 Modeling relevant for the decisions to be taken

The level of detail of each of the two M / S should be consistent with the objective of the DMS using it and enable the exchange of relevant information between the two DMSs. Note also the issue of a possible decoupling between certain SC sub-systems which serves to circumscribe in time and space the scope of analysis of the consequences of certain decisions. The operational management goal of the first DMS does not imply a fine description of the functioning of the SC units but only the extent necessary to assess the impact of global decisions taken on these units on input and output flows on the rest of the SC. These decisions have more to do with the choice of references and volumes to be produced, the levels of resources to channel and the adjustments required in case of major incidents (supply failure, breakdowns...). In this context, adjustment between the workload and capacity is deemed possible and the micro management decisions (equipment fine-tuning, allocation of resources and of orders...), are straightforward. The first step is to reflect faithfully the SC activities without regard as to the economic judiciousness of these decisions. The economic aspect will be looked at subsequently with reference to the management accounting scheme, which is linked to the second DMS. Its aim is to globally minimize overall costs.

The tactical management goal of the first DMS is to maximize the margin generated by the new orders, through a contribution to the negotiation process, and, in particular through provisional production capacity, possibly subject to availability of certain raw materials. This corresponds to a wider scope and different missions which may call for the mustering of other approaches, such as mathematical scheduling, to complement the simulation approach.

The level of M / S detail for management control purposes is clearly finer than that geared to operational management. The complementarity of the two DMSs implies that the basic production unit used for modeling is not shared by other units of the model on which the operational management DMS is based. Moreover, the breakdown used should enable a good understanding of the cost inducers, which is key to the development of a relevant management accounting scheme and management control.

Finally, note that one may divide the SC into a number of relatively independent sub-systems. The importance of inventory at the interface of two sub-systems may guaranty several days' autonomy for a sub-system located downstream. This enables focus on local aspects for each of those sub-systems for short-term decision-making. Such autonomy is nevertheless subject to existence of sufficient intermediary inventory (in both terms of volume and structure), a fact to keep in mind in the development of decision-making support tools.

4.2.2 Limitation of the number of components consumed in the modeling

To facilitate comprehension and maintenance, the proposed model should be as dense as possible (for a required level of detail). The M/S applications enable the design of components from basic components (processors, inventory...), which may be used as new basic components to be reused to build new components. M/S applications also enable use of parameterized routings that may be used in a particular productive sub-system to describe its use by different types of production. Finally, these enable pinpointing a single processor to describe multiple identical processors working side by side. These different possibilities shall be leveraged, taking into account the different aggregation rules proposed.

The « *plug & play* » approach chosen by OCP S.A. for future expansion of its industrial site (to set up under *joint ventures* a number of similar and inter-connectable production plants of the *flow shop* type), where some *flow shops* may be partially neutralized, is particularly well suited to this approach. In particular, this approach enables rapid simulation of an SC hosting new players as well as testing different levels of integration options that may be used to steer extended SCs.

5 Examples of application of these principles in the formalization of the gathered data

We present below the application of the principles developed in our research with examples of information gathering and processing. The scope of this paper precludes the presentation of the primary data. Note that location maps were generally supplied along with textual documentation. These are not shown either but the joint analysis of both helped to form an exhaustive view. Figure 5 describes the configuration of OCP S.A.'s SC and offers a representation of the information gathered, processed and formalized.

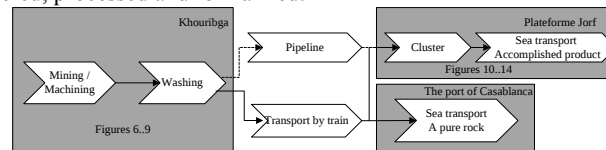


Fig 5. Macro modeling of OCP S.A.'s Supply chain

5.1 Example 1: Obtaining a Flow Map

A body of documentation has been transformed in order to attempt an initial modeling of the ore extraction side of the SC under review. The primary information is made up of textual descriptions of the process and its resources, but excludes part of the implicit routing information. Ultimately, one obtains a flowchart and a list of additional required information. In the next representation, the system processes three types of flow; a zoom is proposed on one of these. The granularity level presented here is for information purposes.

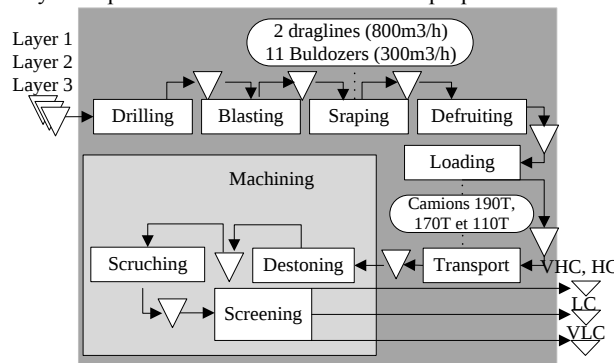


Fig 6. Phosphate extraction flowchart

5.2 Example 2 – Obtaining a nearly exhaustive detailed routings – switch to parameterized routing

The process documentation of an ore washing chain (text, tables, maps) supplied was quite exhaustive (some information was still missing) and we noted that the washing site comprises six identical washing chains. The documentation highlighted differences related to the type of ore transformed, in terms of system and resources used as well as flow path. The first phase of translation of this data was the creation of a detailed routing for each type of ore input, with the output ("wash concentrate", as it is called) being always the same. Figure 7 represents one of the 4 detailed routings. It features rate and average processing time. The principle of flow conservation is respected ($300 = 33.2 + 59.7 + 169.9 + 37.2$). Note that we did not include water input information. The average processing time is approximately of 26.4'; the fact that the process is a cycle complicates the calculation somewhat (the result was obtained by simula-

tion). Figure 8 illustrates the aggregated routing derived from the detailed routing. It should be highlighted that this information is valid in cruising speed and that this is also true for the following examples. A juxtaposition of the 4 detailed routings yields figure 9, which shows a parameterized routing model. The numbered arcs of table 1 serve to identify the rate information (for example, line C_2 corresponds to information of figure 7); the possible neutralization of an arc is noted by a dash. A similar table (not shown here) provides the average processing time for the activity for each production type option.

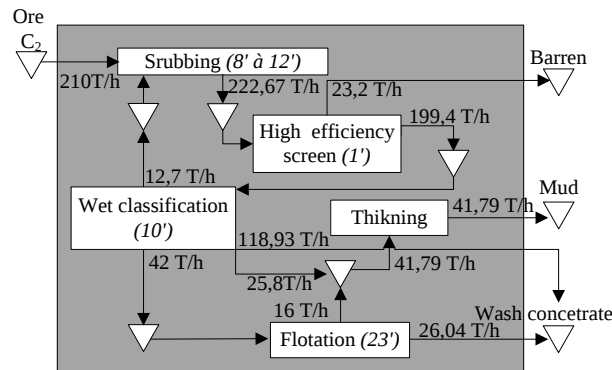


Fig 7. Example of exhaustive detailed routing - C_2 ore washing



Fig 8. Example of exhaustive aggregated routing - C_2 ore washing

Intrant \ N°Flux	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
C_2	300	330	33	285	60	170	37	-	-	-	-	37	-	23	60	18	60
C_{31}	300	335	30	305	73	77	60	137	60	77	42	71	18	44	122	35	122
C_{32}	300	327	13	314	397	95	36	178	539	882	73	120	35	?	?	27	?
C_{33}	300	335	72	328	524	103	51	145	305	94	70	94	32	?	?	35	?

Table 1 : Rates (tons/hour) of the parameterized routing of figure 8.

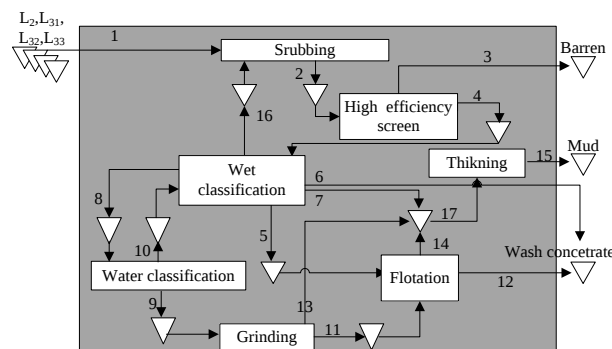


Fig 9. Example of parameterized routing (ore washing)

5.3 Example 3 - Use of the aggregation and replication principles

An analysis of the information (text, maps...) gathered on the activities of a sulfuric acid production line yields figure 10 which corresponds to an incomplete detailed routing, with average duration information missing. The rate information is available and shows that the flow conservation principle is respected ($33.4+28.9+37.8 = 0.1+100$).

Two additional comments should be made: - One may switch from a detailed routing to an aggregated one (figure 11) respecting the aggregation rules set forth under §3.1, in particular, dedicated resources and absence of significant reliability problem for certain processors. The routing remains incomplete, due to missing information on processing time. The routing can be linked to a component created in the model simulation.

- The sulfuric acid production workshop comprises six identical lines, each drawing from and feeding into the same input and output inventories. There is accordingly no need to develop separate models, and the replication to produce six the basic components suffices, as shown in figure 12.

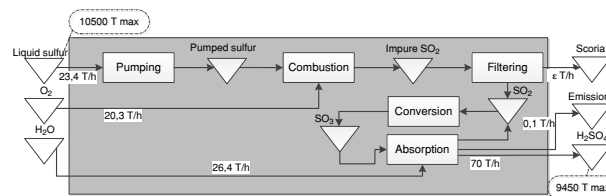


Fig. 10 - Example of incomplete detailed routing – sulfuric acid production line

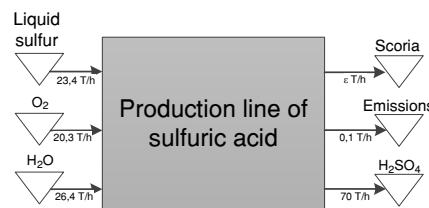


Fig 11. Example of incomplete aggregated routing and creation of a component.

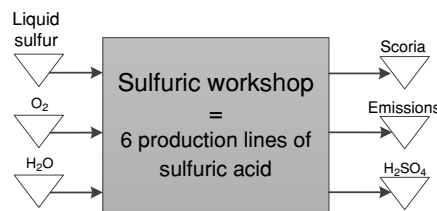


Fig 12. Example of component replication

5.4 Example 4: application of the recursive *Plug & Play* approach

Super components may be designed through recursive construction, thus appearing as a specific category of components. On the Jorf platform, COP S.A. owns three workshops organized as a *flow shop*, as described in figure 13 ; the right hand side shows the different categories of fertilizers. The phosphoric acid and fertilizers production workshops are each represented by a component obtained through the same creation process as that used to build the *sulfuric workshop* component. The sulfuric

acid and phosphoric acid productions are shown as external inventory as they may be used indifferently by the OCP S.A.'s workshops and those of Jorf's Joint Venture.

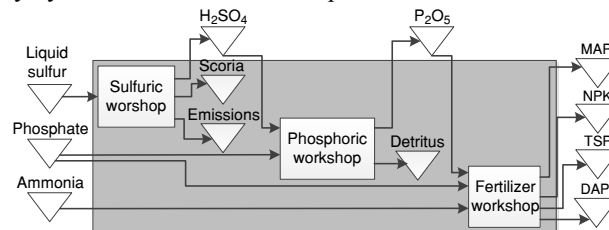


Fig 13. Example of recursive modeling

The super-component can be represented synthetically as in figure 14.

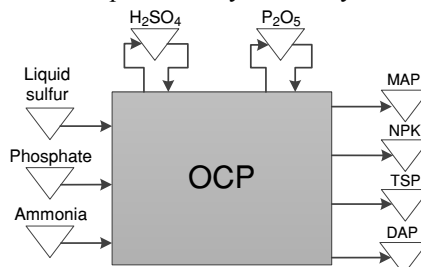


Fig 14. Example of super-component

Jorf's JVs are characterized by production units that are derived from OCP S.A.'s. They may be "grafted" onto the sulfuric acid supply, (which they do not produce) or onto the phosphoric acid supply, in which case, they only manufacture fertilizers, or onto both. The Jorf platform, therefore, is made up of the OCP S.A. production plant onto which the JV's production plants are grafted. This *plug and play* type configuration leads to the model described in figure 15, where the Indian JV (IMACID) (producing phosphoric acid), the Brazilian JV (BUNGE) (producing phosphoric acid and fertilizers) and a JV project under study are integrated, thus illustrating the modularity of the approach. In terms of modeling, it suffices to parameterize the OCP S.A. component to be able to describe the Jorf industrial complex with an adequate level of granularity for management purposes. Of course, the picture needs to be complemented with a description of the raw material inflow and end-product outflow.

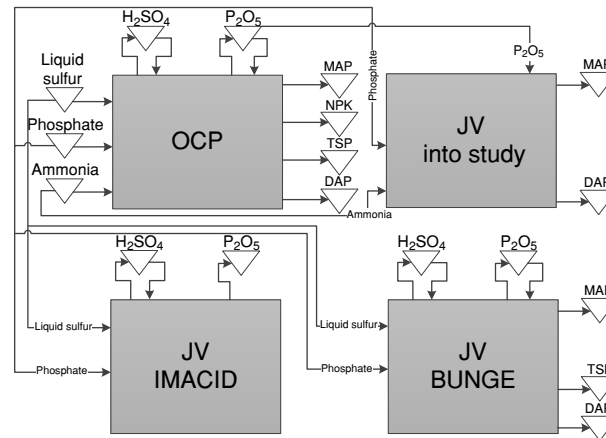


Fig 15. Plug and play configuration

6. Conclusion

This paper proposes a routing-based modeling approach to a complex logistics process. This approach forms part of a BPM but goes beyond it as the knowledge gathered may be used in different ways (both for management control and operational management purposes through a combination of the physical flows). It therefore stands out as an innovative approach with multiple scientific and management implications. Though its relevance is clearly limited to SCs of the type under review (where DMS may be modeled on activities that are interconnected and where a single totally integrated organization exercises control), our proposed approach appears promising for a wide variety of applications:

- Coupled modeling of “operational levels” should yield decision-making applications including physical and financial aspects.
- Construction of a single referential to measure logistics performance of operations throughout the production process.
- The construction of real time **activity valuation scheme** feed into industrial management control referential.

In short, there are multiple prospects for implementation of our model.

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