

1 Positive Ordering Costs

1.1 (Q, r) Policies

Up to now we have considered stochastic inventory models where decisions are made at the beginning of each period and procurement costs are linear. In this section we consider models where inventories are monitored continuously and procurement costs are fixed plus linear. We will assume constant, nonzero, lead times. The model is similar to the EOQ except that demands are random. We will first restrict our attention to the class of (Q, r) policies and then discuss (s, S) policies. Under a (Q, r) policy, the inventory manager monitors the inventory position and places an order of size Q whenever the inventory position falls to or below the reorder point r . Under an (s, S) policy, the manager monitors the inventory position and places an order to restore the inventory position to S whenever the inventory position falls to or below the reorder point s . The two policies are equivalent when demand grows continuously over time and when demand is always for a single unit. This is because the inventory position can not overshoot the reorder point in these two cases. The equivalence can be seen by setting $s = r$ and $S = r + Q$. The equivalence also holds when $Q = 1$ and all demands are non-negative integers even if not all of the demands are of size one. The case $Q = 1$ reduces to a base stock policy with base stock level $S = r + Q = r + 1$. The policies behave differently when demands can be larger than one and $Q > 1$ because a demand of more than one unit may bring the inventory position strictly below $s = r$ and in this case ordering in batches of $Q > 1$ units may fall short of restoring the inventory position to $S = r + Q$.

For example, if demands are all for one unit and arrive as a point process, e.g., as a Poisson process, then (Q, r) and (s, S) policies are equivalent. If demands form a compound process then (Q, r) and (s, S) behave differently unless $Q = 1$ and demands sizes are integer.

Let $D(t)$ denote the cumulative demand up to time t . Let L denote the known and constant leadtime. Let $D(t|L) \equiv D(t) - D(t - L)$ be the number of units demanded over the time interval $(t - L, t]$. We will assume that as $t \rightarrow \infty$, $D(t|L)$ converges in distribution to a random variable that we will denote by D . This is certainly true in the Poisson where $D(t)$ is Poisson with parameter λt and $D(t|L)$ is Poisson with parameter λL which is independent of t . As a result D is Poisson with parameter λL .

To keep track of the evolution of the system, let

- $I(t)$ inventory on hand at time t .
- $B(t)$ backorders at time t .
- $IN(t)$ net inventory at time t .
- $IO(t)$ inventory on order at time t .
- $IP(t)$ inventory position at time t .

The net inventory $IN(t) = I(t) - B(t)$, and it is equal to the inventory $I(t)$ when positive and equal to $-B(t)$ when negative. In other words, $I(t) = IN(t)_+$ and $B(t) = IN(t)_-$. The inventory on order $IO(t)$ at time t is equal to the number of orders placed during the interval $(t - L, t]$. The inventory position $IP(t)$ is defined as the inventory on hand plus the inventory on order minus the number of backorders. Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} IP(t) &= I(t) + IO(t) - B(t) \\ &= IN(t) + IO(t). \end{aligned}$$

Notice that $IO(t) = 0$ when $L = 0$, and in that case the inventory position is equal to the net inventory.

Given a stationary demand processes we will show how to compute a number of performance measures under a (Q, r) policy. These measures include probability of stockouts, the average number of units on inventory, the average number of units backordered, and the average frequency of orders.

1.2 $Q = 1$

We will start by computing performance measures for the case $Q = 1$. This mode of operation is optimal when there are no setup costs or they are small relative to the cost of holding inventory, e.g., for expensive items with low demand rates. For convenience let $S = r + Q = r + 1$. Notice that in this case the (Q, r) policy is actually a base stock policy with base stock level S . Under this policy we order to keep the inventory position equal to S . As a consequence, $IP(t) = S$ except at demand epochs when the inventory position momentarily drops below S and an order is immediately placed to restore the inventory position to S . Since

$$S = IP(t) = IN(t) + IO(t)$$

we have

$$IN(t) = S - IO(t).$$

Under a base-stock policy orders are placed to keep the inventory position constant so $IO(t) = D(t|L)$. As $t \rightarrow \infty$, the random variable $D(t|L)$ converges in distribution to the stationary lead time demand D , so $IN(t)$ converges in distribution to

$$IN = S - D$$

Thus the stationary distribution of IN is determined by the stationary distribution of the lead time demand. Similarly, $I(t)$ and $B(t)$ converge to stationary random variables I and B where $I = (S - D)_+$ and $B = (D - S)_+$.

If we want to minimize the long-run expected holding and backorder costs, we need to select S to minimize $G(S)$ where

$$G(y) = hE(y - D)_+ + pE(D - y)_+.$$

This, of course, is a Newsvendor problem, so an optimal solution is given by the smallest integer, say S^* , such that

$$Pr(D \leq S) \geq \frac{p}{h + p}.$$

Let $A = Pr(B > 0)$ be the long run probability of stockouts (i.e., of having backorders). Since $Pr(B > 0) = Pr(D > S) = 1 - Pr(D \leq S)$, at $S = S^*$, $A \leq \frac{h}{h+p}$.

1.3 Q a Positive Integer

Now, suppose that Q is a positive integer. Then, under very general conditions on the demand process¹, it can be shown that the stationary inventory position is uniform between $r + 1$, and $r + Q$. That is,

$$P(IP = j) = \frac{1}{Q} \quad j = r + 1, \dots, r + Q.$$

Moreover, it can be shown that IP is independent of D .

When the inventory position is at $y \in \{r + 1, \dots, r + Q\}$, the holding and penalty cost rate is $G(y)$. Since the inventory position is uniformly distributed over $\{r + 1, \dots, r + Q\}$, it follows that the average holding and penalty cost is given by $\frac{1}{Q} \sum_{y=r+1}^{r+Q} G(y)$. If the average demand per unit

¹Essentially all that is needed is that the probability that the demand size is one is positive.

time is λ , and a setup cost K , is incurred every time an order of size Q is placed, then the average ordering cost is given by $\frac{K\lambda}{Q}$.

The above performance measures can then be combined to form the cost function:

$$c(Q, r) = \frac{K\lambda}{Q} + \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{y=r+1}^{r+Q} G(y).$$

On the other hand, the probability of stockouts is given by $Pr(D > y)$ when the inventory position is y . Since the inventory position is uniformly distributed, it follows that

$$A = Pr(B > 0) = \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{y=r+1}^{r+Q} Pr(D > y).$$

1.4 Algorithm

We will now discuss an algorithm to find the optimal (Q, r) pair and its associated cost. The algorithm is based on three observations.

First, since $-G(y)$ is unimodal, the problem

$$c(Q) = \min_r c(Q, r)$$

is easily solved by finding the set of Q consecutive integers minimizing $G(\cdot)$. More precisely, we want to find the consecutive integers

$$\{y_1, \dots, y_Q\}$$

such that

$$y_1 = \operatorname{argmin}\{G(y) : y \in \mathcal{Z}\},$$

and, given y_1, \dots, y_k

$$y_{k+1} = \operatorname{argmin}\{G(y) : y \in \mathcal{Z}, y \neq y_i, i = 1, \dots, k\}.$$

Letting G_k denote $G(y_k)$ we can write

$$c(Q) = \frac{K\lambda + \sum_{k=1}^Q G_k}{Q}.$$

The second observation is that we can write $c(Q)$ as a convex combination of $c(Q-1)$ and G_Q . Indeed it is easy to verify that

$$c(Q) = \frac{Q-1}{Q} c(Q-1) + \frac{1}{Q} G_Q.$$

This implies that $c(Q) < c(Q-1)$ if and only if $C(Q-1) > G_Q$ which implies that

$$G_Q < c(Q) < c(Q-1).$$

The third observation is that $-c(Q)$ is unimodal, which implies that the optimal batch size is the largest value of Q for which

$$G_Q < c(Q-1).$$

Algorithm

1. Set $Q = 1$ and find y_1, G_1 and $c(1)$.

2. Let

$$L_Q = \min\{y_1, \dots, y_Q\} - 1,$$

$$R_Q = \max\{y_1, \dots, y_Q\} + 1,$$

and $G_{Q+1} = \min(G(L_Q), G(R_Q))$. If $G_{Q+1} \geq c(Q)$ then stop. Otherwise compute

$$c(Q+1) = \frac{Q}{Q+1}c(Q) + \frac{1}{Q+1}G_{Q+1}$$

and set $y_{Q+1} = L_Q$ if $G(L_Q) < G(R_Q)$ and $y_{Q+1} = R_Q$ otherwise.

3. Set $Q \leftarrow Q + 1$ and return to Step 2.

This algorithm is due to Federgruen and Zheng [3]

To facilitate the use of this algorithm it is convenient to write the increment of the $G(y)$ as

$$G(y+1) - G(y) = (h+p)P(D \leq y) - p.$$

For Poisson demands we can update $P(D = y)$ and $P(D \leq y)$

$$P(D = y+1) = \frac{\lambda L}{y+1}P(D = y),$$

starting from $P(D = 0) = e^{-\lambda L}$, and

$$P(D \leq y+1) = P(D \leq y) + P(D = y+1).$$

1.5 Sensitivity, Bounds and Heuristics

Let us consider again the cost function

$$c(Q, r) = \frac{K\lambda + \sum_{y=r+1}^{r+Q} G(y)}{Q}$$

that arises when the demand rate is λ , the ordering cost is K , the holding cost is h the backorder cost is p and the lead time demand is a random variable D with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

Notice that if the variance $\sigma^2 = 0$ the demand is deterministic and the resulting problem is essentially an economic order quantity where we need to balance the ordering holding and backorder costs. On the other hand, if the ordering cost $K = 0$ then the problem reduces to the newsvendor problem where we need to decide on the stock level to minimize the holding and backorder costs. Thus, the cost function $c(Q, r)$ reduces to well known subproblems if either $\sigma^2 = 0$, or $K = 0$.

Although we have developed a fairly deep understanding of both the EOQ and the newsvendor subproblems and have an efficient algorithm to minimize the cost function $c(Q, r)$, we don't yet have a deep understanding of the cost function $c(Q, r)$. Is it more or less sensitive than the EOQ to incorrect specifications of the batch size or the cost parameters? Is it more or less sensitive than the newsvendor problem to the specification of the distribution of the lead time demand? Can we obtain effective bounds on the average cost without having to run the algorithm? How does the average cost behave as a function of the set up cost and the variance of the lead time demand? Can we find upper and lower bounds on Q ? Are there effective heuristics for the batch size? We now provide answers to some of these questions. The results, except as noted, are due to Gallego [4].

1.5.1 Sensitivity

It can be shown that $c(Q) = \min_r c(Q, r)$ is less sensitive than the EOQ in the sense that

$$\frac{c(Q)}{c(Q^*)} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{Q}{Q^*} + \frac{Q^*}{Q} \right).$$

Notice that we have an inequality for the case of random demands, where we had an equality for the EOQ cost function. This result is due to Zheng [13].

1.5.2 Bounds

We have the following closed form bounds on the cost function

$$\sqrt{c_d^2 + G_1^2} \leq c(Q^*) \leq \sqrt{c_d^2 + \bar{G}_1^2}$$

where c_d is the average cost of the EOQ subproblem,

$$G_1 = G(y_1) = \min\{G(y) : y \in \mathcal{Z}\}$$

is the newsvendor cost, and

$$\bar{G}_1 = \sigma \sqrt{hp}$$

is Scarf's upper bound on the newsvendor cost. Recall that $c_d = \sqrt{2HK\lambda}$ where $H = \frac{hp}{h+p}$.

Closed form bounds on Q^* are given by

$$Q_d \leq Q^* \leq Q_e$$

where

$$Q_d = c_d/H$$

is the economic order quantity, and

$$Q_e = \sqrt{c_d^2 + \bar{G}_1^2}/H = \sqrt{Q_d^2 + Q_\sigma^2}$$

where

$$Q_\sigma = \frac{\bar{G}_1}{H}.$$

1.5.3 Heuristics

It can be shown that

$$\frac{c(\sqrt{2} Q_d)}{c(Q^*)} \leq 1.061,$$

so using a batch size that is $\sqrt{2}$ times the EOQ results in a cost increase of at most 6.1%. In practice, we get closed to this upper bound when G_1 is small relative to c_d . In practice, the $\sqrt{2} Q_d$ heuristic can be improved by using the batch size

$$Q_g = \min(\sqrt{2} Q_d, \sqrt{Q_d Q_e}).$$

1.6 General Demand Sizes

When demands are not for one unit at a time an order under an (Q, r) policy consists of the number of batches of size Q that are necessary to bring the inventory position to the interval $\{r+1, \dots, r+Q\}$. In this case, (Q, r) policies are no longer optimal. Managerially (Q, r) policies are still attractive because the more restricted order size facilitates packaging, transportation, and coordination. Let X denote the random demand size. Then, the long run average cost under an (Q, r) policy is given by

$$c(Q, r) = \frac{K\lambda E \min(Q, X) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{r+Q} G(y)}{Q} \quad (1)$$

To see how the ordering cost arises, notice that when the inventory position is $r+j$, a demand of size X triggers an order if and only if $X \geq j$. Since the inventory position is uniform $\{r+1, \dots, r+Q\}$ the probability, and the long run average frequency, of placing an order is $\sum_{j=1}^Q P(X \geq j)/Q$. Since $X \geq 0$ and $E \min(Q, X) = \sum_{j=1}^Q P(X \geq j)$, the cost function (1) results.

2 (s, S) Policies

Under an (s, S) policy, $s < S$, the inventory manager places an order to increase the item's inventory position to the *order-up-to level* S , whenever he finds the item's inventory position to be at or below the *reorder-level* s .

Researchers have devoted a large effort to the problem of identifying single-item stochastic inventory models for which an (s, S) policy is optimal. It turns out that (s, S) policies are optimal for a large class of single-item inventory models including the one we will study in this section. Here we will take the optimality of (s, S) policies for granted and will concern ourselves with the problem of computing an optimal (s, S) policy for a model where both the demand and the relevant costs are time stationary.

We assume that orders may be placed at the beginning of each period, orders are delivered immediately, all stockouts are backordered, period demands are independent and identically distributed, and that costs are stationary over time. Later we discuss how to extend the model to positive lead times.

The objective is to minimize the long run average cost over an infinite horizon.

Notation:

- D the one period demand,
- $p_j = Pr(D = j)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots$,
- $K > 0$ fixed cost of placing an order,
- $G(y)$ one period expected cost starting with y units.

The typical form of $G(y)$ is

$$G(y) = hE(y - D)_+ + pE(y - D)^-,$$

where h is the holding cost rate and p is the stockout penalty cost rate. However, other forms of $G(\cdot)$ may also arise. In any event, all that we will require of $G(\cdot)$ is that:

- (i) $-G(\cdot)$ is unimodal,
- (ii) $\lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} G(y) > \min_x G(x) + K$.

Let $c(s, S)$ denote the long run average cost of using the policy (s, S) . To obtain an expression for $c(s, S)$ we use the well known reward-renewal theorem that states that the long run average cost is equal to the expected cost per cycle divided by the expected cycle length. A cycle is interpreted as the time elapsed between the placement of two consecutive orders. We say that the system renews itself after each cycle because the item's inventory position immediately after an order is placed is equal to S .

We are now concerned with the determination of the expected cost per cycle, and the expected cycle length. For $y > s$, let $k(s, y)$ denote the total expected cost until the next order is placed when the starting inventory position is equal to y units. Our interest, of course, is in finding a formula for $k(s, S)$. Likewise, let $M(j)$ be the expected total time until an order is placed when starting with $s + j$ units. Our interest, of course, is to find a formula for $M(S - s)$. Once these formulas are obtained, we can write

$$c(s, S) = \frac{k(s, S)}{M(S - s)}.$$

It is clear that the functions $k(s, \cdot)$, and $M(\cdot)$ satisfy the discrete renewal equations

$$k(s, y) = G(y) + K \sum_{j=y-s}^{\infty} p_j + \sum_{j=0}^{y-s-1} p_j k(s, y - j), \quad y > s$$

and

$$M(j) = 1 + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} p_i M(j-i), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

Let $m(0) = 1/(1-p_0)$, $M(0) = 0$, and

$$m(j) = \sum_{k=0}^j p_k m(j-k), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

It follows that

$$M(j) = M(j-1) + m(j-1), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots,$$

and

$$k(s, y) = K + \sum_{j=0}^{y-s-1} m(j)G(y-j) \quad y > s.$$

Consequently,

$$c(s, S) = \frac{K + \sum_{j=0}^{S-s-1} m(j)G(S-j)}{M(S-s)}.$$

Unfortunately the cost function $c(s, S)$ is not, in general, convex. For a long time this fact precluded the development of efficient algorithms. However, Zheng and Federgruen [14] have observed that

$$c(s-1, S) = \alpha_n c(s, S) + (1-\alpha_n)G(s) \quad (2)$$

where

$$\alpha_n \equiv \frac{M(n)}{M(n+1)},$$

and $n = S - s$. Based on this observation, they have derived a very effective algorithm to compute an optimal (s, S) policy. We present here some of their key results, as well as their algorithm. From (2) we see that $c(s-1, S)$ is a convex combination of $c(s, S)$ and of $G(s)$, and consequently

$$\min\{c(s, S), G(s)\} \leq c(s-1, S) \leq \max\{c(s, S), G(s)\}.$$

We will use (??) to determine necessary and sufficient conditions on s° to be the optimal reorder-level for a fixed order-up-to level S . Then, we will obtain lower and upper bounds on an optimal reorder-level and an optimal order-up-to level.

For fixed S the reorder-level s° is optimal if

$$c(s^\circ, S) \leq c(s, S) \quad \forall s.$$

Consequently s° must satisfy

$$c(s^\circ - 1, S) \geq c(s^\circ, S) \leq c(s^\circ + 1, S),$$

but then from (??)

$$G(s^\circ + 1) \leq c(s^\circ, S) \leq G(s^\circ). \quad (3)$$

Let $y_1^* = \min\{y : G(y) = \min_x G(x)\}$, and notice that $-\infty < y_1^* < \infty$.

We will now establishing lower and upper bounds on an optimal reorder-level s^* .

Proposition 1 *Let s_l^* denote the smallest optimal reorder-level, then*

$$s_l^* \leq \bar{s} \equiv y_1^* - 1.$$

Proof: Let s_l^* be the smallest optimal value of s that minimizes $c(s, S^*)$. Suppose for a contradiction that $s_l^* \geq y_1^*$, then it follows from the form of $c(s, S)$ that $c(s_l^*, S^*) \geq G(s_l^*)$ which in turn implies that $c(s_l^* - 1, S^*) \leq c(s_l^*, S^*)$ contradicting the definition of s_l^* . \square

Proposition 2 *Let s_u^* denote the largest optimal reorder-level $< y_1^*$. Then*

$$s^o \leq s_u^*$$

where s^o is the optimal order level for some arbitrary order-up-to level S .

Because s_u^* is optimal for S^* it follows that (2) must hold. In fact, we claim that $G(s_u^* + 1) < c(s_u^*, S^*)$ holds. Suppose for a contradiction that $s_u^* < y_1^* - 1$, and that $G(s_u^* + 1) = c(s_u^*, S^*)$ holds. Then $s_u^* + 1 < y_1^*$ is also optimal, contradicting the definition of s_u^* . On the other hand, if $s_u^* = y_1^* - 1$, then, by the definition of y_1^* , $G(y_1^*) = G(s_u^* + 1) < c(s_u^*, S^*)$. Now, given any S , and an optimal reorder-level s^o for S , we have

$$G(s_u^* + 1) < c(s_u^*, S^*) \leq c(s^o, S) \leq G(s^o).$$

But then because $G(s)$ is unimodal, $G(s^o) \geq G(s_u^*) \geq G(s_u^* + 1)$, so $s^o \leq s_u^*$. \square

Corollary 3 *There exists an optimal solution s^* satisfying*

$$s^o \leq s^* \leq \bar{s}. \quad (4)$$

where s^o is an optimal reorder-level for an arbitrary order-up-to level S .

We now turn our attention to bounds on S^* . To this end, let $\underline{S} \equiv \max\{y : G(y) = \min_x G(x)\}$; notice that $y_1^* \leq \underline{S} < \infty$. Let $c^* = c(s^*, S^*)$ denote the optimal average cost value, and let $\bar{S} \equiv \max\{y \geq \underline{S} : G(y) \leq c^*\}$.

Proposition 4 *There exists an optimal policy (s^*, S^*) for which*

$$\underline{S} \leq S^* \leq \bar{S}. \quad (5)$$

Proof: We start by proving the lower bound. Let (s^*, S^*) be an optimal (s, S) policy that maximizes the value of S^* . Assume for a contradiction that $S^* < \underline{S}$. Note that for $j \geq 0$, $G(S^* + 1 - j) \leq G(S^* - j)$, so $c(s^* + 1, S^* + 1) \leq c(s^*, S^*)$ contradicting the maximality of S^* .

To show the upper bound, assume for a contradiction that $G(S^*) > c^*$. Notice that from the definition of $k(s, \cdot)$ and $M(\cdot)$ we can write

$$\begin{aligned} c^* &= \frac{G(S^*) + KPr(D \geq S^* - s^*) + \sum_{j=0}^{S^* - s^* - 1} p_j k(s^*, S^* - j)}{1 + \sum_{j=0}^{S^* - s^* - 1} p_j M(S^* - s^* - j)} \\ &> \frac{c^* + \underline{k}Pr(D < S^* - s^*)}{1 + \underline{M}Pr(D < S^* - s^* - 1)}, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{k} &= \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{S^* - s^* - 1} p_j k(s^*, S^* - j)}{Pr(D < S^* - s^*)} \\ \underline{M} &= \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{S^* - s^* - 1} p_j M(S^* - s^* - j)}{Pr(D < S^* - s^*)}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$c^* > \frac{\underline{k}}{\underline{M}}. \quad (6)$$

However, we can identify the right hand side of (5) as the average cost of a feasible policy! This contradicts the optimality of (s^*, S^*) so $G(S^*) \leq c^*$.

Corollary 5 Let $c > c^*$, and $\bar{S}_c \equiv \max\{y \geq \underline{S} : G(y) \leq c\}$, then $S^* \leq \bar{S} \leq \bar{S}_c$.

Corollary 5 can be used to identify increasingly tighter upper bounds for S^* as increasingly better (s, S) policies are found.

For any fixed order up to level S , let

$$c^*(S) = \min_{s < S} c(s, S).$$

S is said to be *improving* upon S^o , if $c^*(S) < c^*(S^o)$.

Lemma 6 For a given order-up-to level $S^o (\geq y_1^*)$, let $s^o (< y_1^*)$ be an optimal reorder-level. Then $c^*(S) < c^*(S^o)$ if and only if $c(s^o, S) < c(s^o, S^o)$.

Proof: Suppose $c(s^o, S) < c(s^o, S^o)$, then $c^*(S) \leq c(s^o, S) < c(s^o, S^o) = c^*(S^o)$.

Conversely, assume that $c^*(S) < c^*(S^o)$, and that $c(s^o, S) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$. To reach a contradiction it is enough to show that $c(s, S) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$ for all $s < y_1^*$. First, consider $s^o < s < y_1^*$, and notice that the optimality of s^o implies that $c(s^o, S^o) \geq G(s^o + 1)$, and since $-G(\cdot)$ is unimodal $G(S - j) \leq c(s^o, S^o)$ for $j = S - s, \dots, S - s^o - 1$. Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} c(s^o, S) &= \frac{K + \sum_{j=0}^{S-s-1} m(j)G(S-j) + \sum_{j=S-s}^{S-s^o-1} m(j)G(S-j)}{M(S-s^o)} \\ &= \frac{c(s, S)M(s, S) + \sum_{j=S-s}^{S-s^o-1} m(j)G(S-j)}{M(S-s^o)} \\ &\leq \frac{c(s, S)M(s, S) + \sum_{j=S-s}^{S-s^o-1} m(j)c(s^o, S^o)}{M(S-s^o)} \\ &= \beta c(s, S) + (1 - \beta)c(s^o, S^o), \end{aligned}$$

where $\beta = \frac{M(S-s)}{M(S-s^o)}$. Thus for $s^o < s < y_1^*$, $c(s^o, S)$ is dominated by a convex combination of $c(s, S)$ and $c(s^o, S^o)$. But then, $c(s^o, S) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$ implies $c(s, S) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$.

Now, for $s < s^o$, the fact that $G(S - j) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$ for $j = S - s^o, \dots, S - s - 1$, allow us to write

$$c(s, S) \geq \gamma c(s^o, S) + (1 - \gamma)c(s^o, S^o),$$

where $\gamma = \frac{M(S-s^o)}{M(S-s)}$, and consequently $c(s, S) \geq c(s^o, S^o)$. \square

Thus, given (s^o, S^o) , we can easily identify an improving S' by simply comparing $c(s^o, S^o)$ and $c(s^o, S')$. If S' improves on S^o , then we want to find an optimal reorder-level s' for S' . The following lemma restricts the search for s' to s^o, \dots, \bar{s} .

Lemma 7 Assume that $s^o \leq \bar{s}$ is an optimal reorder-level for S^o and that S' improves on S^o , then there exists an optimal reorder-level s' for S' with $s' \in \{s^o, \dots, \bar{s}\}$.

Proof: Given S' we know from Proposition 1 that there exists an optimal reorder-level $\leq \bar{s}$. Let s' be the largest optimal reorder-level ($\leq \bar{s}$) for S' . Then $G(s' + 1) < c(s', S') \leq c(s^o, S') < c(s^o, S^o) \leq G(s^o)$. Since $-G(\cdot)$ is unimodal it follows that $s^o \leq s'$. \square

We are now ready to present an algorithm to find an optimal (s^*, S^*) policy.

Algorithm.

Let y^* be a minimizer of $G(\cdot)$.

Step 0. (Initial Solution)

$$S^o = y^*;$$

$$s = y^* - 1;$$

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DO WHILE  $c(s, S^o) > G(s)$ ;
 $s = s - 1$ ;
ENDO;
 $c^o = c(s, S^o)$ ,  $S = S^o + 1$ ;
Step 1 (Main Step)
DO UNTIL  $G(S) > c^o$ ;
IF  $c(s, S) < c^o$ ;
 $S^o = S$ ;
DO WHILE  $c(s, S^o) \leq G(s + 1)$ ;
 $s = s + 1$ ;
ENDO;
 $c^o = c(s, S^o)$ ;
ENDIF;
 $S = S + 1$ ;
ENDO;
END;

```

3 Multi-echelon Systems

We present a new Dynamic Programming formulation for the infinite-horizon multiple-stage serial production/distribution system that commonly arises in Supply Chain Management. The formulation is based on local cost accounting and the intermediate cost functions have a precise interpretation as the cost of truncated sub-systems. This formulation enables an algorithm based on simple gradient update formulas that reduces the computational work. In addition, the formulation results in a natural heuristic that provides near-optimal policies by solving a single newsvendor problem for each stage in the system. We show, through an extensive numerical study, that the heuristic is very effective in identifying near-optimal base-stock levels. We conclude by providing a distribution-free approximate bound that accurately predicts the sensitivity of the optimal average cost to the system parameters.

The study of multi-stage serial inventory systems is central to the study of supply chain management both as a benchmark and as a building block for more complex supply networks. Unfortunately, existing policy evaluation and optimization algorithms (see Gallego and Zipkin 1999) are difficult to understand and communicate. In this paper, we provide a new dynamic programming formulation based on the idea of allocating a given echelon-inventory level for a sub-system between the local inventory level for the most upstream stage of the sub-system and the successor's echelon base stock level. This formulation yields a new algorithm that can be made efficient by updating the gradients to compute optimal base stock levels and costs for each of the sub-systems. Second, based on this formulation we develop simple spreadsheet-based heuristics that computes one newsvendor problem per stage and is more accessible to practitioners and to Production and Operations Management students. The need to develop accurate, spreadsheet based heuristics that are easy to understand has been correctly identified by Shang and Song (2003), who develop a spreadsheet based heuristic based on solving two newsvendor problems per stage. We evaluate our heuristic and compare it to that of Shang and Song by testing it on the set of test problems in Gallego and Zipkin (1999) and Shang and Song (2003), and in additional experiments designed to test the performance when different stages have different lead times. Our numerical results indicate that our heuristic is near optimal, with an average error that is lower than the Shang and Song heuristic. Finally, we provide an approximate distribution-free bound that accurately reflects the sensitivity of the optimal average cost to changes in system parameters.

Consider a series system that consists of J stages as illustrated in the figure. Stage $j < J$ procures from stage $j + 1$ and stage J replenishes from an outside supplier with ample stock. Customer demand occurs only at stage 1 and follows a (compound) Poisson process, $\{D(t), t \geq 0\}$. It takes $L_j, j = 1, \dots, J$, units of time for a shipment to arrive to Stage j once it is shipped from its

predecessor.

Unsatisfied demand is backordered at each stage but only Stage 1 incurs a linear backorder penalty cost b , per unit per unit time. We assume without loss of generality that each stage adds value as the item moves through the supply chain, so echelon holding costs h_j^e are positive. The local holding cost for stage j is $h_j = h^e[j, J] \equiv \sum_{i=j}^J h_i^e$, where sums over empty sets will be defined as zero. The system is operated under continuous review, so management orders every time a demand occurs. As pointed out by Zipkin (2000), this is justified for expensive and/or slow moving items.

It is known that an echelon base stock policy $\mathbf{s} = (s_J, \dots, s_1)$ is optimal for this series system (Zipkin (2000), Federgruen and Zipkin (1984) and the original work by Clark and Scarf (1960)). Under this policy, the manager continuously monitors the echelon inventory-order position at each stage and places an order from stage $j + 1$ to bring it up to s_j whenever it is below this level.

We now provide a recursive formulation based on local holding cost accounting to calculate optimal echelon base stock levels. We first construct the recursive optimization and verify that the solution of this new formulation essentially produces the same result as the traditional, echelon cost accounting algorithm explained in Gallego and Zipkin (2001).

Let D_j be the leadtime demand for Stage j in equilibrium, $j = 1, \dots, J$. When $J = 1$, the serial system reduces to a single stage model. The cost for this problem is given by

$$c_1(s) = h_1 E(s - D_1)^+ + b E(D_1 - s)^+. \quad (7)$$

Notice that $\Delta c_1(s) \equiv c_1(s + 1) - c_1(s) = (h_1 + b)Pr(D_1 \leq s) - b$ is non-decreasing in s so $c_1(s)$ is convex. The optimal base stock level is simply given by $s_1 \equiv \min\{s \in \mathcal{Z}_+ : \Delta c_1(s) > 0\}$.

When $J > 1$, the problem is more complex. Consider the sub-system consisting of Stages $\{1, \dots, j\}$. Assume that stage j replenishes its inventory from an external supplier with ample supply. We refer to this new serial system as *sub-system*- $\{1, 2, \dots, j\}$. We define $c_j(s)$ to be the expected cost of *optimally* managing this sub-system when the *echelon* base stock level for Stage j is s . In other words, this sub-system is equivalent to the original J stages series system with $D_i \equiv 0, h_i \equiv 0$ for all $i > j$.

Consider now the sub-system consisting of stages $\{1, \dots, j + 1\}$. Our goal is to compute $c_{j+1}(\cdot)$ from the knowledge of $c_j(\cdot)$. To link these two sub-systems, we decompose the echelon base stock level s over stages $\{1, \dots, j + 1\}$ into the local base stock level x for Stage $j + 1$ and the echelon base stock level $s - x$ for Stage j . If the local base stock level at Stage $j + 1$ is x , then the net inventory at Stage $j + 1$ will be $(x - D_{j+1})^+$. The net inventory of this stage accrues at cost rate h_{j+1} . The sub-system $\{1, \dots, j\}$ has echelon base stock level $s - x$ but Stage $j + 1$ now has limited inventory. Since Stage $j + 1$ faces a shortage when $D_{j+1} - x > 0$, the effective echelon inventory for sub-system $\{1, \dots, j\}$ is limited to $s - x - (D_{j+1} - x)^+ = s - \max(D_{j+1}, x) = \min(s - x, s - D_{j+1})$. Thus, a finite base stock level at Stage $j + 1$ imposes an externality to the sub-system $\{1, \dots, j\}$ whose average cost is now $E c_j(\min(s - x, s - D_{j+1}))$. Finally, to find $c_{j+1}(s)$ we need to take into account the holding cost, $h_{j+1} E D_j$, of the units in-transit from Stage $j + 1$ to Stage j . When we allocate x units of local base stock level to stage $j + 1$, the cost of managing a series system with $j + 1$ stages is, therefore, given by

$$c_{j+1}(x; s) = h_{j+1} E(x - D_{j+1})^+ + h_{j+1} E D_j + E c_j(\min(s - x, s - D_{j+1})). \quad (8)$$

Let $c_{j+1}(s)$ denote the cost of an *optimal* allocation of s units. To find its value, we minimize $c_{j+1}(x; s)$ over integer values of $x \in \{0, \dots, s\}$. Consequently,

$$c_{j+1}(s) = \min_{x \in \{0, \dots, s\}} \{c_{j+1}(x; s)\}, \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, J, \quad (9)$$

where we define $h_{J+1} \equiv 0$ and $D_{J+1} \equiv 0$. The solution to this problem prescribes how to allocate s units of echelon for the subsystem $\{1, \dots, j + 1\}$. In particular, it tells us how much local base stock to hold at stage $j + 1$ and how much echelon base stock to allocate for stage j .

We use the recursion in Equation (9), we obtain the optimal echelon base stock levels via

$$s_j = \min\{s \in \mathcal{Z}_+ : \Delta c_j(s) > h_{j+1}\}, \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, J. \quad (10)$$

We now prove that these echelon base stock levels are indeed optimal.

- Proposition 1**
1. $c_j(s)$ is convex in s for $j = 1, \dots, J$,
 2. $x_j(s) = (s - s_{j-1})^+$ minimizes $c_j(x; s)$ for $j = 2, \dots, J$,
 3. The policy is optimal with echelon base stock levels (s_1, \dots, s_J) and $c_J(s_J)$ is the expected cost for the entire system.

Proof

We base the proof on an induction argument on the number of stages in the series system. To do so, we first show that the statements are true for a two-stage series system; that is, for $J = 2$. Part 1 for $j=1$ is trivially true; that is, $c_1(s)$ in Equation (7) is convex. Let $\Delta c_j(x; s) \equiv c_j(x+1; s) - c_j(x; s)$. For $J = 2$ we have

$$\Delta c_2(x; s) = [h_2 - \Delta c_1(s - x - 1)]Pr(D_2 \leq x).$$

Notice that $\Delta c_2(x; s) = 0$ for all $x < 0$ on account of $D_2 \geq 0$. The convexity of c_1 implies that $\Delta c_1(s - x - 1)$ is decreasing in x . As a consequence, $\Delta c_2(x; s)$ has at most one sign change from $-$ to $+$ over the range $x \in \{0, \dots, s\}$. From Equation (10), s_1 is the smallest integer y such that $\Delta c_1(y) > h_2$.² This implies that $\Delta c_2(x; s)$ changes sign from $-$ to $+$ for the first time when $x = (s - s_1)^+$, hence this is a minimizer of $c_2(\cdot; s)$. Note that this result shows that allocating s_1 units of echelon base stock level to stage 1 is optimal when $s \geq s_1$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} c_2(s) &= c_2((s - s_1)^+; s) = E[h_2((s - s_1)^+ - D_2)^+ + h_2 D_1 + c_1(\min(s_1, s - D_2))] \\ &= E[h_2(s - s_1 - D_2)^+ + h_2 D_1 + c_1(\min(s_1, s - D_2))], \end{aligned}$$

where the last equation follows since $(x^+ - a)^+ = (x - a)^+$ when $a \geq 0$. Since $c_1(\min(y, s - x))$ is convex in s for all x and y and convex combinations of a convex function and convexity is preserved by sums and expectations, it follows that $c_2(s)$ is convex. So far, we proved parts 1 and 2 and the optimality of allocating s_1 units to stage one. Note that $h_3 \equiv 0$ and $D_3 \equiv 0$ for a two stage serial system. Hence the minimizer of $c_2(s)$ is given by Equation (10). With this final observation, we have shown that s_1, s_2 are the optimal echelon base stock levels, concluding the proof of part 3 for $J = 2$.

Assume now that all three statements are true for some $n < J$. In that case c_j is convex for all $j \leq n$ and an optimal echelon base stock policy is given by (s_1, \dots, s_n) . Now consider adding one more stage to the this sub-system with local holding cost h_{n+1} . Stage n will replenish from stage $n+1$ that has limited supply. Then for stage $n+1$, we need to allocate local base stock level. To find the optimal allocation, we look at the difference $c_{n+1}(x+1; s) - c_{n+1}(x; s)$, which is non-zero only when $D_{n+1} \leq x$. In this case, the difference is given by $h_{n+1} - c_n(s - x - 1) + c_n(s - x) = h_{n+1} - \Delta c_n(s - x - 1)$. Consequently,

$$\Delta c_{n+1}(x; s) = [h_{n+1} - \Delta c_n(s - x - 1)]Pr(D_{n+1} \leq x).$$

Now, since c_n is convex it follows that $\Delta c_{n+1}(x; s)$ has at most one sign change and this must be from $-$ to $+$. Since the sign change occurs at $(s - s_n)^+$, it follows that $x_{n+1}(s) = (s - s_n)^+$ minimizes $c_{n+1}(x; s)$ so $c_{n+1}(s) = c_{n+1}((s - s_n)^+; s)$. This result implies that allocating s_n units of echelon base stock level to stage n is optimal. This proves part 2 for $n+1$ and part 3. Therefore, we have

$$c_{n+1}(s) = h_{n+1}E(s - s_n - D_{n+1})^+ + h_{n+1}ED_{n+1} + Ec_n(\min(s_n, s - D_{n+1})),$$

which is convex in s , proving part 1 for $n+1$. For an $n+1$ stage series system, by definition $h_{n+2} \equiv 0$ and $D_{n+2} \equiv 0$, it follows that the minimizer of $c_{n+1}(s)$ is given by Equation (10) and $c_{n+1}(s_{n+1})$

²Or equivalently, the smallest integer y such that $Pr(D_1 \leq y) > \frac{b+h_2}{b+h_1}$. In other words, s_1 is the largest minimizer of the newsvendor problem with holding cost $h_1 - h_2$, backorder cost $b + h_2$ and demand D_1 . In particular, s_1 is independent of the distribution of D_2 .

is the optimal expected cost of managing a series system with $n + 1$ stages. This concludes the induction argument for $n + 1$ and hence the proof. \square

The optimal echelon base stock levels can also be found through solving the *traditional* recursive optimization for $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$. This formulation is based on echelon cost accounting,

$$C_j(y) = E\{h_j^e(y - D_j) + C_{j-1}(\min[y - D_j, s_{j-1}])\} \quad (11)$$

$$s_j = \max\{y : C_j(y) \leq C_j(x) \text{ for all } x \neq y\}, \quad (12)$$

where $C_0(y) = (b + h_1)[y]^-$, see Gallego and Zipkin (1999). The optimal system wide average cost is given by $C_J(s_J^*)$. We now verify that the new algorithm produces the same echelon base stock levels as the traditional algorithm.

Proposition 2 1. $C_j(s) = c_j(s) - h_{j+1}E(s - D_j)$, and 2. $C_J(s_J) = c_J(s_J)$.

Proof

The proof is based on an induction argument. For the case $j = 1$, we have $C_1(s) = E[h_1^e(s - D_1) + (b + h_1)(D_1 - s)^+] = E[h_1^e(s - D_1) - h_1(s_1 - D_1) + h_1(s - D_1) + (b + h_1)(D_1 - s)^+] = c_1(s) + E[h_1^e(s - D_1) - h_1(s_1 - D_1)] = c_1(s) - h_2E(s - D_1)$.

Suppose the result holds for j , then $C_{j+1}(s) = E[h_{j+1}^e(s - D_{j+1}) + C_j(\min(s_j, s - D_{j+1}))] = E[h_{j+1}^e(s - D_{j+1}) + c_j(\min(s_j, s - D_{j+1})) - h_{j+1}E(\min(s_j, s - D_{j+1}) - D_j)] + h_{j+1}E(s - s_j - D_{j+1})^+ = c_{j+1}(s) - h_{j+2}E(s - D_{j+1})$. The last equality can be verified easily.

Part 2 follows directly from the fact that $h_{J+1} \equiv 0$. \square

From part 1 it follows that $\Delta C_j(s) = \Delta c_j(s) - h_{j+1}$. Consequently, the largest minimizer of $C_j(s)$ will be the smallest integer s ; that is s_j , such that $\Delta c_j(s) > h_{j+1}$. Since this is consistent with the definition of s_j given by Equation (10) it follows that the two algorithms result in the same policy. The second part shows that there is also an agreement in the cost over the entire system.

3.1 A New Algorithm with Gradient Updates

To obtain optimal echelon base stock level for stage $j + 1$ using Equation (10), we need to compute $\Delta c_{j+1}(x)$. This computation requires us to first calculate $\Delta c_j(x)$, which in turn requires us to calculate $\Delta c_{j-1}(x)$. This recursive computation for $\Delta c_{j+1}(x)$ can be improved significantly if we use what we already know about Δc_j . The next proposition establishes the link among these functions.

Proposition 3 For $j = 1, \dots, J$, we have

$$\Delta c_{j+1}(s) = h_{j+1}Pr(D_{j+1} \leq (s - s_j)^+) + \sum_{k=0}^{\min(s, s_j-1)} \Delta c_j(k)Pr(D_{j+1} = s - k) - bPr(D_{j+1} > s). \quad (13)$$

Proof

We show first that Equation (13) holds when $s < s_j$. Note that for this case from Equation (9), $c_{j+1}(s) = h_{j+1}ED_j + Ec_j(s - D_{j+1})$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta c_{j+1}(s) &= E\Delta c_j(s - D_{j+1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \Delta c_j(s - k)Pr(D_{j+1} = k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^s \Delta c_j(s - k)Pr(D_{j+1} = k) - bPr(D_{j+1} > s) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^s \Delta c_j(k)Pr(D_{j+1} = s - k) - bPr(D_{j+1} > s), \end{aligned}$$

where the last two equations are a consequence of $\Delta c_j(s) = -b$ for $s < 0$. The last equation is equivalent to (13) for $s < s_j$. Next we show the result for $s \geq s_j$. For this case, we subtract

$c_{j+1}(s) = E[h_{j+1}(s - s_j - D_{j+1}) + h_{j+1}ED_j + c_j(\min(s_j, s - D_{j+1}))]$ from $c_{j+1}(s+1) = E[h_{j+1}(s+1 - s_j - D_{j+1}) + h_{j+1}ED_j + c_j(\min(s_j, s+1 - D_{j+1}))]$. After some algebra we arrive at

$$\Delta c_{j+1}(s) = h_{j+1}Pr(D_{j+1} \leq s - s_j) + \sum_{k=s-s_j+1}^{\infty} \Delta c_j(s_j - k)Pr(D_{j+1} = k).$$

By noticing that $\Delta c_j(s) = -b$ for $s < 0$, we can rewrite the gradient as

$$\Delta c_{j+1}(s) = h_{j+1}Pr(D_{j+1} \leq s - s_j) + \sum_{k=0}^{s_j-1} \Delta c_j(k)Pr(D_{j+1} = s - k) - bPr(D_{j+1} > s).$$

This is equivalent to Equation (13) for $s \geq s_j$, concluding the proof. \square

Next we describe an algorithm to obtain best echelon base stock levels and the resulting cost.

$s_1 \leftarrow \min\{y \in \mathcal{Z}_+ : \Delta c_1(y) > h_2\}$,

FOR $j = 2$ to J DO

$\Delta c_{j+1}(s) \leftarrow h_{j+1}Pr(D_{j+1} \leq (s - s_j)^+) + \sum_{k=0}^{\min(s, s_j-1)} \Delta c_j(k)Pr(D_{j+1} = s - k) - bPr(D_{j+1} > s)$.

$s_j \leftarrow \min\{y \in \mathcal{Z}_+ : \Delta c_j(y) > h_{j+1}\}$.

END

PRINT (s_1, \dots, s_J) and $c_J(s_J) = c_J(0) + \sum_{y=0}^{s_J-1} \Delta c_J(y)$.

3.2 Newsvendor Bounds and Heuristics

The new Dynamic Programming formulation in Equations (8) and (9) is intuitive and enables us to design a fast algorithm based on gradient updates. Yet, both the new and the traditional formulation are difficult to explain to non-mathematically oriented students and practitioners. We now provide a heuristic that can be implemented in a spreadsheet by solving one newsvendor problem per stage.

Consider the subsystem $\{1, \dots, j+1\}$, for some j such that $1 \leq j < J$. Assume that $h_{j+1} < h_j$ and that all the stages $\{1, \dots, j\}$ have the same holding cost $h_j = h_{j-1} = \dots = h_1 \equiv H$. Since it is equally expensive to hold stock at stages $1, \dots, j$, it is clearly optimal to hold stock only at stages $j+1$ and 1 . In other words, allocating zero local base stock levels to stages $2, \dots, j-1$ is optimal. With this allocation scheme Equation (8) simplifies to

$$c_{j+1}(x; s|H) = h_{j+1}(x - D_{j+1})^+ + h_{j+1}ED_j + H \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} ED_k + Ec_1(\min(s - x - D[2, j], s - D[2, j+1])). \quad (14)$$

Hence, the first difference is given by

$$\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|H) = [b + h_{j+1} - (H + b)Pr(D[1, j] \leq s - x - 1)]Pr(D_{j+1} \leq x). \quad (15)$$

Note that $\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|H)$ crosses from $-$ to $+$ at $x = (s - s_j^{NV}(H))^+$, where $s_j^{NV}(H)$ is the solution of a newsvendor problem with holding cost $H - h_{j+1}$, backorder cost $b + h_{j+1}$ and demand $D[1, j]$; that is,

$$\begin{aligned} G_j(s|H) &\equiv E\{(H - h_{j+1})(y - D[1, j])^+ + (b + h_{j+1})(D[1, j] - y)^+\}, \\ s_j^{NV}(H) &\equiv \min\{s \in \mathcal{Z}_+ : \Delta G_j(s|H) > 0\}. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Consider now the general case where $h_j < h_{j-1} < \dots < h_1$. Assume first that we *increase* the holding costs of stages $j = 2, \dots, j$ to h_1 . For this new series system, the cost of allocating x units to $j+1$ and s units to j is given by $c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1)$ as defined in (14). Assume now that instead of increasing, we *decrease* the holding cost of stages $1, \dots, j-1$ to h_j . The corresponding cost for this system is given by $c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$.

Proposition 4 *The following are true for all $s, x > 0$.*

1. $c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1) \geq c_{j+1}(x; s) \geq c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$
2. $\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1) \leq \Delta c_{j+1}(x; s) \leq \Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$,
3. $s_j^{NV}(h_j) \leq s_j \leq s_j^{NV}(h_1)$.

Proof

Part 1 is trivially true because we force a larger holding cost to obtain $c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1)$, hence the upper bound on the original system cost $c_{j+1}(x; s)$. We also force a smaller holding cost to obtain $c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$, hence the lower bound. To prove Part 2 observe that from Equation (15) we have $\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1) \leq \Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$, proving Part 2. To prove Part 3, observe that the function $\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_1)$ changes sign from $-$ to $+$ at $x = (s - s_j^{NV}(h_1))^+$ for the first time and that $\Delta c_{j+1}(x; s|h_j)$ changes sign from $-$ to $+$ at $x = (s - s_j^{NV}(h_j))^+$ for the first time. Together with part 2 these two observations imply Part 3. \square

This proposition suggests that instead of solving the recursive algorithm, we can approximate optimal echelon base stock levels simply by s_j^{NV} for $j = 1, \dots, J$, which are based on newsvendor solutions. We note that the bounds in Part 3 are the same newsvendor bounds as in Shang and Song (2003). They propose to solve the two newsvendor problems given in Equations with h_1 and h_j for each stage $\{1, \dots, J\}$ to obtain $s_j^{NV}(h_j)$ and $s_j^{NV}(h_1)$. Next they either truncate or round the average of the solution to these two newsvendor problems.

We now propose an approach that consists of solving a *single* newsvendor problem based on approximate holding cost rate $h_j^{GO} \in (h_j, h_1)$. The idea is based on the approximate time an item spends at each stage of the subsystem. To obtain this approximation, we set

$$h_j^{GO} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^j L_k h_k / L[1, j].$$

We solve the newsvendor problem in Equation (16) with $H = h_j^{GO}$ to approximate the optimal echelon base stock levels for each stage $j = 1, \dots, J$.

Proposition 5 *For any given j and s we have:*

1. $G_j(s|h_j) \leq G_j(s|h_j^{GO}) \leq G_j(s|h_1)$,
2. $s_j^{NV}(h_j) \leq s_j^{NV}(h_j^{GO}) \leq s_j^{NV}(h_1)$,
3. $G_j(s|h_j^{GO}) \leq \sqrt{(b + h_{j+1})(h_j^{GO} + h_{j+1})} \sqrt{\lambda L[1, j] E[X^2]}$, where X is the random demand size of the compound Poisson process.

Proof

Notice that we have $h_j \leq h_j^{GO} \leq h_1$. Part 1 follows immediately from this inequality. Since the newsvendor cost functions are convex we also have $\nabla G_j(s|h_j) \geq \nabla G_j(s|h_j^{GO}) \geq \nabla G_j(s|h_1)$ where $\nabla f(x) = f(x+1) - f(x)$. This implies Part 2. Finally Part 3 is the distribution-free bound in Gallego and Moon (1993) and Scarf (1953).

The last two propositions imply that if the bounds in Part 3 of Proposition 4 are tight then $s_j^{NV}(h_j^{GO})$ would be very close to the optimal base stock level, s_j . In the following section we illustrate how accurate this approximation is. If our approximation is close-to-optimal, the cost of managing the series system can also be bounded by a distribution-free bound, that is

$$c_J(s_J) \leq \sqrt{bh_j^{GO}} \sqrt{\lambda L[1, J] E[X^2]} + \sum_{i=1}^J h_{i+1} E D_i, \quad (17)$$

where the last term is to account for pipeline inventory. This simple form enables sensitivity analysis. In particular, (1) the system cost is proportional to \sqrt{b} , (2) downstream leadtimes have a larger

impact on system performance than upstream leadtimes, (3) upstream echelon holding cost rates have a larger impact on the system performance than downstream echelon holding cost rates, (4) the system cost is proportional to $\sqrt{\lambda}$ and proportional to $\sqrt{E[X^2]}$.

This type of parametric analysis enables a near characterization of system performance. Some system design issues may require investments in new processing plans or quicker but more expensive shipment methods. Marketing strategies could influence the demand as well as altering the cost of backlogging a customer. The closed form expression (17) facilitates gauging the benefit of any action on the inventory management costs, at least as a first cut. Our analysis suggests, for example, that management should focus on reducing the lead time at the upstream stages while reducing the holding cost at the down stream stages. If process re-sequencing is an option, the lowest value added processes with the longest processing times should be carried out sooner than later.

3.3 Numerical Study

Here we report the performance of our heuristic and of the distribution-free bound. We compare the exact solution based on equations (11) and (12) and report the percentage error $\epsilon^{i\%} = \frac{c_J(s_J^i) - c_J(s_J)}{c_J(s_J)}$ for $i = \{SS, GO\}$. Shang and Song (2003) use $s_j^{SS} \equiv \frac{s_j^{NV}(h_j) + s_j^{NV}(h_1)}{2}$ and truncate this average when $b \leq 39$ and round it otherwise. We use $s_j^{GO} \equiv s_j^{NV}(h_j^{GO})$. By considering a larger set of experiments, we complement the numerical study in Shang and Song (2002). In particular, our numerical study includes unequal leadtimes.

To manage the series system, we use an echelon base stock policy with echelon base stock levels s_j^{GO} for all j . The approximate cost is given by $G_J(s^{GO}) + \sum_{i=1}^J h_{i+1}ED_i$. Shang and Song (2003) approximate the optimal cost by $G_J(s_j^{NV}(h_j)) + \sum_{i=1}^J h_{i+1}ED_i$ instead of the average since the lower bounds become looser as the number of stages in the system increases. We study two sets of experiments: constant leadtime set and the randomized parameters set.

The first set of experiments is similar to that of Gallego and Zipkin (1999) and Shang and Song (2002). The holding cost and the lead times are normalized so $h_1 = 1$ and $L[1, J] = 1$. We consider $J \in \{2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64\}$; $\lambda \in \{16, 64\}$; and $b \in \{9, 39\}$ (corresponding to fill rates of 90%, 97.5%). Within this group we consider *linear* holding-cost form ($h_j^e = 1/J$); *affine* holding cost form ($h^e[1, j] = \alpha + (1 - \alpha)j/J$ with $\alpha = 0.25$ and 0.75); *kink* holding cost form ($h_j^e = (1 - \alpha)/J$ for $j \geq J/2 + 1$ and $h_j^e = (1 + \alpha)/J$ for $j < J/2 + 1$ with $\alpha = 0.25$ and 0.75) and *jump* holding cost form ($h_j^e = \alpha + (1 - \alpha)/J$ for $j = N/2$ and $h_j^e = (1 - \alpha)/J$ for $j \neq J/2$ with $\alpha = 0.25$ and 0.75). Notice that Shang and Song (2002) consider only the case for $\lambda = 64$ and $b = 39$.

Out of 108 problem instances, in 24 cases the s^{GO} and in 20 cases the s^{SS} heuristic resulted in the same solution as the recursive optimization. The s^{GO} (resp., s^{SS}) heuristic outperforms in 48 (resp., 44) cases and they tie in 17 cases. The average error for s^{GO} (resp., s^{SS}) heuristic is 0.195% (resp., 0.385%), while the maximum error is 3.68% and 1.24% for the GO and the SS heuristics respectively. The quality of the heuristics seems to deteriorate as the number of stages in the system exceeds 32. The SS heuristic seems to perform better for the jump holding cost case, while the GO heuristic tends to dominate in the other cases.

The second set of experiments allow for unequal leadtimes. It is here that we expect the GO heuristic to perform better. To cover a wider range of problem instances we generate the leadtimes and holding costs from uniform distributions. In particular, we use the following set of parameters:

$$h_j^e \in \{\text{Unif}(0, 1), \text{Unif}(0, 5), \text{Unif}(1, 10)\},$$

$$L_j \in \{\text{Unif}(1, 2), \text{Unif}(1, 10), \text{Unif}(1, 40)\},$$

$$J \in \{2, 4, 8, 16, 32\} \quad b \in \{1, 9, 39, 49\} \quad \lambda \in \{1, 3, 6\}.$$

We consider 25 combinations, taken at random, from the above parameters. For each subgroup we generate 40 problem instances and calculate the worst case as well as the average performances.

Out of 1000 problem instances, in 188 cases the s^{GO} and in 133 cases the s^{SS} heuristic resulted in the exact solution. In 849 cases the error term for s^{GO} heuristic is smaller or equal to that of s^{SS} heuristic. The average error for the s^{GO} (resp., s^{SS}) heuristic is 0.23% (resp., 0.83%). We observe that as the variance of the leadtimes across stages increases the average error term for s^{GO} decreases (the average error for $L_j \sim \text{Unif}(1, 10)$ is 0.14% whereas it is 0.39% for $L_j \sim \text{Unif}(1, 2)$). Similarly the s^{GO} heuristic performs even better as the variance of echelon costs across stages in a series system increases.

In light of our numerical observations we suggest the s^{GO} heuristic for a series system with up to eight stages. Caution should be used for system with a large number of stages and for systems with jump holding costs.

We have also performed a numerical study comparing the actual cost to the distribution-free bound by performing simple linear regressions of the bound to the actual cost by fixing all but one of the parameters. The coefficients of determination R^2 for the different regressions are all close to one. This observation suggests that the bound can safely be used to investigate the impact of process and design changes on the cost of managing a series system. Notice that the bound only requires knowing h_j^{GO} , b , $L[1, J]$, λ and $E[X^2]$.

The simple newsvendor heuristic and the bound enable a manager to quantify with ease, for example, the impact of re-sequencing a process. Consider, for example, a four stage series system where $h_1 = L[1, J] = 1$, $b = 1$ and $\lambda = 16$. We now compare two systems with different configurations of leadtimes. The first system has leadtimes (0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.7) and the second has leadtimes (0.7, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1). The costs based on the distribution free bound (resp., recursive optimization) are 13.29 (resp., 12.77) for the first system and 5 (resp., 4.93) for the second system. The distribution free bound predicts a cost reduction of 62.4% while the actual cost reduction based on recursive optimization is 61.39%. This indicates that the distribution free bound enables a quick, yet accurate, what if analysis. In this case, we observe that postponing the shortest and the most expensive processes to a later stage can significantly reduce inventory related costs.

We mention in passing that we also explored using the holding cost $\sum_{k=1}^j (L_k^\alpha / \sum_{i=1}^j L_i^\alpha) h_k$ for different $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. We were unable to identify an α that results in lower error terms than $\alpha = 1$. In addition, for some problem instances we have also calculated the *implied* holding costs h_j^{im} . These holding cost when used in the newsvendor problem of Equation (16) yield the optimal echelon base stock levels s_j obtained through the exact algorithm. In other words we set $h_j^{\min} \equiv \min\{h \in \mathcal{R}_+ : s_j^{NV}(h) = s_j\}$ and $h_j^{\max} \equiv \min\{h \in \mathcal{R}_+ : s_j^{NV}(h) = s_j - 1\}$. Note that using an implied holding cost $h_j^{im} \in [h_j^{\min}, h_j^{\max}]$ in Equation (16) yields the optimal echelon base stock level. The range for possible implied holding cost is typically large and frequently contains h_j^{GO} .

We end by noticing that our heuristic can also be applied to assembly systems by applying Rosling (1989)'s ideas. For distribution systems, the heuristic can be applied after using the decomposition principles in Gallego, Özer and Zipkin (1999).

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