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ADP023025

TITLE: Computer Integrated Manufacturing: A Perspective

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This paper is part of the following report:

TITLE: Proceedings of the Ship Production Symposium, held in New Orleans, Louisiana, on 2-4 September 1992

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The following component part numbers comprise the compilation report:

ADP023023 thru ADP023050
Computer Integrated Manufacturing: No. 2B-1
A Perspective

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ABSTRACT

The introduction of computer integrated manufacturing in ship production will involve more than linking of separate automated ship production processes. It will create major changes from design through delivery. This paper presents the results from a three-part project: (1) a manufacturing literature survey of Computer Integrated Manufacturing (CIM) and supporting technologies, (2) a National Science Foundation (NSF)-sponsored Workshop on CIM in ship production, and (3) research and development recommendations to facilitate CIM in ship production.

ACRONYMS
AGG Automatic Geometry Generators
AI Artificial Intelligence
APG Automatic Process Generators
CAD Computer-Aided Drafting
CAM Computer-Aided Manufacturing
CE Concurrent Engineering
CERC Concurrent Engineering Research Center
CIM Computer-Integrated Manufacturing
DARPA Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
DFM Design for Manufacturability
DFA Design for Assembly
DOD Department of Defense
EBD Electric Boat Division
EDI Electronic Data Interchange
FMS Flexible Manufacturing Systems
GMT General Motors Truck and Bus
GT Group Technology

The authors have been involved in a three-part project of technology assessment of CIM for shipbuilding:
1) manufacturing literature survey of relevant publications on supporting technologies for ship production;
2) organization of NSF-sponsored workshop on CIM in ship production.
BACKGROUND PERSPECTIVE

CIM is analogous to shipboard automation which replaced the engine room telegraph with an electronic system. Stage I involved the component automation shown in Figure 2. Stage II involved connecting them and the development in stage III of an overall computerized engine room system. The engineer's activities expanded to maintaining the machinery and the monitoring system, and the rational scheduling of maintenance work. In an analogous manner, the shipyard staff will use the CIM computer system to do traditional shipbuilding and analyze their activities to improve productivity.

LITERATURE SURVEY OF CIM TECHNOLOGIES AND METHODS

Shipbuilding is unique among the industries adopting CIM. The shipbuilding industry differs from other manufacturing industries in its structure, methods, and functions. This characterization forms a basis for cost-benefit comparisons of before- and after-CIM use.

Eight existing or emerging CIM technologies have been identified in the literature search. If the technologies relevant to CIM, these are the technologies that are also potentially relevant to shipbuilding. Most CIM systems do not employ all of these technologies, nor would they all be appropriate. These CIM technologies are:

- Artificial Intelligence (AI)/knowledge-based systems,
- Just-in-Time (JIT),
- Vendor relationships/Electronic Data Interchange (EDI),
- Concurrent Engineering (CE)
Figure 2. Development of Ship Engine Room Automation 1960-1975 and Today’s Shipyard Automation.

- Computer-Aided Design/Computer-Aided Manufacturing (CAD/CAM) systems,
- Rapid prototyping systems,
- Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS), and
- Computer Control (1990)

The literature search involved over 110 articles and abstracts (87 articles, and 25 abstracts) from 36 journals and technical publications. It covers 21 industries, including shipbuilding/repair. Specific care was taken to isolate reports of technical accomplishments from the more numerous reports of anticipated benefits.

AI/Knowledge-Based Systems

AI has been developed to capture human expertise and create automated systems that appear to be (artificially) intelligent. AI distinguishes information (data) from knowledge (rules). Knowledge is viewed in AI as rules describing behavior of the data. The classical AI approach consists of a "knowledge engineer" interviewing experts, such as skilled shipfitters, to capture their expertise, and transforming this expertise into AI rules. Such a knowledge-based system (or "expert system") consists of rules, data, and "inference engine" software, shown in Fig. 3. AI systems have been successful in static diagnostic applications such as equipment fault diagnosis/repair (11) and medical diagnosis (12).

AI systems differ from sequential algorithmic systems. The rule order in AI systems is not critical. At the International Business Machine (IBM) Burlington semi-conductor plant, an AI system was developed to examine process rules used in plant operation, to identify sequential patterns of application. These patterns were subsequently captured in algorithmic software (13).

At General Dynamics Electric Boat Division (EBD) in Groton, Connecticut, attempts were made to develop a rule-based AI system to deal with "non conformance," involving lost, defective or damaged parts that did not conform to specifications. Although case by case rules were introduced, EBD found this rule-based AI approach to be too "brittle." Ultimately, a case-based reasoning system was developed. It inquires about the nonconformance details and matches them...
Current thinking is that an expert should be encouraged to train a "naturally intelligent" successor who will advance the state of the art by adding new rules.

The Edison Welding Institute in Columbus, Ohio, is developing AI systems for welding. One 'AI system, called Preheat, is designed to avoid hydrogen cracking of thick steel plates. AI systems for welding are under development at Carnegie Mellon University and the American Welding Institute (18).

Project-based management systems (PBMS) are an AI-based approach to the task of planning and labor-assignment phase of ship repair. The cost of ship repair is roughly 60% labor and 40% material. PBMS systems are therefore organized around the labor component, as compared with material requirements planning (MRP) systems. PBMS systems tie material to labor, and schedule material to be available, based upon lead times. PBMS systems include hierarchical indices which contain information in their nodes, and use expert relations to link these nodes. Ship-repair work assignment is expressed as the establishment of a relation between a trade (a node in the
FIG. 4 PRODUCTION AND INVENTORY LEVEL

High Inventory Level

High Cost

Avoid

Production

Problems

By Excess

Inventory

Inventory Level

Reduce

Production

Problems

Reduce

Inventory

Lower costs

Figure 4. Illustration of How Excess Inventory Covers Ship Production Problems but also Results in High Production Costs.

personnel index) and a task (a node in the operation index) (20).

Just-In-Time (JIT)

JIT is a production philosophy that attempts to operate closer to deadlines, with less inventory, to reduce the cost of maintaining this form of production-delay insurance. The JIT philosophy is often expressed as in Fig. 4. Ship production is similar to navigating a ship in shallow water. Manufacturing problems are analogous to rocks, and inventory is analogous to the water that covers them. Two strategies exist: 1) add more water (inventory) to raise the ship above the rocks (problems), or 2) decrease the water (inventory) level to expose the rocks (problems) completely and ultimately remove them. Shipyards have, in the past, raised inventory levels to maintain production, hiding delivery/manufacturing problems. JIT reduces inventory and its associated costs, thus exposing inherent delivery/manufacturing problems so they can be solved. "Just-in-case" inventory is eliminated, along with "expediters," since there is no excess inventory with which to expedite production. However, without the excess inventory, navigating around manufacturing problems, requires closer relationships with vendors (21).

A comprehensive JIT program at the Minneapolis Valve Plant of Dana Corp. has yielded a 32% increase in productivity. This represents a 92% reduction in through time, a 40% reduction in paperwork, a 50% reduction in inventory costs, and a reduction of customer lead time from six months to a week (22).

At Mack Truck in Winnsboro SC, the JIT system reduces errors and insures parts are presented to assemblers in the order they are needed for assembly. Vendors are given precise delivery lists. The suppliers then load delivery trucks in inverse order so the parts arrive in the required order for assembly (21).

Vendor Relationships/Electronic Data Interchange (EDI)

Japanese shipbuilders have benefited from maintaining long term relationships with their suppliers. This has been recognized in the U.S. and adopted in a number of nonshipbuilding industries. Bose Corp. in Framingham, Massachusetts has limited its critical vendors to a full-time in-house representative who participates in design meetings by suggesting products that cut cost or better fit Bose's needs (24). In addition to material and component vendors this includes service vendors like trucking companies. The vendor benefits by "evergreen" contracts, that are not
periodically rebid, as well as reduced costs and paperwork. Vendors manage an account, rather than reacting to it. Bose benefits by a smaller supplier pool, better vendor service, and pricing flexibility since the vendor does not have to make large profits on each sale.

The Boeing Company conducts supplier "surveillance." It sends out representatives to monitor suppliers' capacity, production rates, and product work for other customers (25).

Longer contracts provide stability, reduced bidding costs, and reduced need for short-term economic gain. Some of Boeing's contracts reach 14 years into the future, assuming the vendor provides better product quality. In such long-term contracts the customer and vendor share some of the risk of expanded or specialized production, along with sharing associated benefits. McDonnell Douglas Corp. furnishes certain suppliers in business projections and strategies. It provides technical assistance as problems arise, rather than switching suppliers (25).

EDI is a CIM technology that helps industry maintain close relationships with their suppliers and customers. EDI is a combination of communication and computer hardware and software that replaces the normal flood of customer-vendor paperwork. As a significant step toward paperless JIT, EDI sends computerized "forms" containing price quotes, orders, delivery notices, invoices, bills, and account summaries. This is illustrated in Fig. 5.

In 1990, General Motors Truck and Bus (GMT) in Indianapolis was the first plant to order raw materials by EDI. The plant needs 1,980 tonnes (2,200 tons) of sheet metal to produce truck and bus panels, turns over its inventory 55 times per year. GMT transmits order schedules to steel vendors. The vendors reply with information describing the truck number, shipping company, departure and expected arrival time. This information is used throughout GMT, from the guard who directs the truck to the appropriate dock to the schedule to unload the steel. GMT monitors vendor and carrier performance and traces job status in process. Outgoing shipments are also controlled by EDI. GMT communicates with CONRAIL, ordering rail cars configured to hold specific panel types. With EDI, fewer shipments are lost or misplaced, cutting the use of premium shipments by more than 50% (26).

Commercial EDI began with sets of corporations defining communication formats and has evolved into whole industries and EDI vendors adopting standard forms. The emphasis has always been on the data formats with the EDI investment in the complex software systems that send, receive, and Process the EDI data. These systems are constantly modified to handle new types of data formats. The EDI users are developing advanced software-development methods for designing, implementing, testing, and maintaining these distributed EDI software systems. "Server networks" are software systems distributed across computing networks which cooperate to solve engineering and computing problems (27). Their primary advantage is the ease with which they can be programmed and reconfigured graphically (28). Their applicability to EDI systems is in their flexibility to meet the needs of the EDI partners.

**Concurrent Engineering (CE)**

As international markets became competitive, several approaches were developed to improve product quality, accelerate the transition from concept to manufacture, and reduce manufacturing costs. Each approach encompasses product design, process design, product development, product quality, customer satisfaction, process improvement, employee empowerment, and vendor relationships (20). Many companies have attempted to implement these approaches, and have reported varying levels of success. The Department of Defense (DOD) received many success claims attributed to these improvement programs. It tasked the Institute for Defense Analysis (IDA) to examine the evidence to predict potential benefit. In 1988, this DOD-sponsored IDA study [29] of thirteen American companies explored the use of CE, and found that CE was characterized by changes in corporate culture and management combined with adoption of a few existing methods and technologies. CE was associated with improved design quality, reduced manufacturing cost, and faster product development.

A variety of names are used to describe this approach. The names include CE, simultaneous engineering (SE), design for manufacturability (DFM), and design for assembly (DFA). In these approaches process design begins when initial assembly design is complete (Fig. 6-B). In sequential engineering the assembly design is completed before process design begins (Fig. 6-A). Experienced part and process designers have long recognized the advantages of simultaneously doing the assembly and process designs. The entire design-to-manufacture cycle is shortened, and more design problems are found and corrected at initial design
EDI DELIVERY SCHEDULE MATCHED TO SHIP PRODUCTION

Figure 5. Illustration of EDI in ship production.

stages, rather than later. This is illustrated in both Figs. 1 and 6, showing a 12-month reduction in engineering time. Difficulties with CE lie in performing downstream design work with incomplete upstream design decisions. This requires reorganizing the design process to identify downstream information dependencies and decoupling independent tasks.

In 1988 the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) awarded funding of a 5-year $100M Concurrent Engineering Research Center (CERC) to the University of West Virginia at Morgantown. This effort includes a demonstration testbed consisting of different engineering workstations networked together to illustrate the implementation of a collocated CE virtual team. The software approach adopted was to employ (without modification) an existing set of CAD, CAE, and CAM software packages interconnected via a CE communication platform. Attempts were made to employ relevant data-exchange standards such as the International Graphics Exchange Standard (IGES) and the Product Definition Exchange Standard (PDES). Effort made to integrate incompatible systems is often several times the cost of either original system (32).

At Ingersoll-Rand’s Portable Compressor Division in Mocksville, North Carolina, DFM techniques were used. In two compressor assemblies, DFM reduced the number of parts by 64%, reduced the number of fasteners by 47%, and reduced assembly operations by 75%, which cut assembly time by 60% (30).

Major shipbuilding programs such as the DDG 51 class destroyer program (32) and the SEAWOLF submarine program (33) involved concurrent engineering efforts. They demonstrated applications of model-data communication and CAD/CAM solutions.

CAD/CAM Systems

CAD/CAM is not new to shipbuilding. A variety of CAD and CAM systems have been used (1,34-39). The level of technology and the level of integration varies from shipyard to shipyard.

To increase world market share, manufacturers are aware that "rapid responsiveness" to change is critical, and depends upon accelerating the concept-to-manufacture cycle. Conventional CAD/CAM is an obstacle to this acceleration. The characteristics that enabled CAD/CAM to replace drafting and manual part programming now limit its productivity. CAD/CAM systems require numerous interactive
Figure 6. Comparison of Start-End Time for Sequential and Concurrent Engineering.

Steps or "seams" which prevent rapid responsiveness. While CAD systems produce only a CAD drawing, the major interface or seam in CAD\CAM systems exists between CAD and CAM, which are employed sequentially. First an item is designed in CAD and then the manufacturing process is developed in CAM. In conventional CAD/CAM systems, assembly design changes require redoing the CAM work. This makes such systems inflexible to changes. Conventional CAD/CAM systems do not address conceptual assembly and process design. They assume that the engineer does the conceptual assembly and process design on paper.

Seamless- Design-to-Manufacture (SDTM) is a post-CAD/CAM technology that offers rapid responsiveness by eliminating many interactive seams and by automating others (40). Figure 7 compares SDTM and traditional CAD/CAM systems. SDTM systems consist of an interactive conceptual assembly- and
process-design component, a set of Automatic Geometry Generators (AGG), and a set of Automatic Process Generators (APG) (41). The feature-based assembly- and process-design components are customized for a Group Technology (GT) family of similar assemblies. CAD/CAM's most serious flaw is overcome by SDTM's rapid responsiveness to product and process change. SDTM uses new or traditional manufacturing processes, and rapidly introduces engineering changes into production. An APG system generates process geometry and either numerical control (NC) code for manufacture, or production schedules, work assignments, production diagrams and material requirements for production, using the family of assemblies' shared process similarity. CAD/CAM is in a poor position to use reduced computer cost and higher speed to improve its responsiveness to change. SDTM is suited to intensive and well-tuned cooperative processing.

Computer and communication hardware technology developments have continued to improve computer processor and communication speeds. However, software-development productivity has made comparatively little progress. Conventional CAD/CAM systems development has been slow and costly due to the traditional low-productivity methods employed. To distribute this development cost over a larger market, generic CAD/CAM systems are marketed to design a wide range of products. Unfortunately, they are not responsive to change. Due to new high-productivity software-development methods (28), customized SDTM systems have been created quickly, at relatively low cost. These high-productivity methods make it economical to customize SDTM systems for similar GT families of assemblies. SDTM systems utilize these similarities, elevating design interaction to a highly productive parametric feature-based conceptual level. Although some companies pursued proprietary efforts to customize their CAD/CAM systems in the 1980's, those efforts have been costly and have subsequently involved those companies.
in more-costly customized upgrades. By devoting their resources to CAD/CAM customization, these companies have missed opportunities to benefit from many advances in technology. High-productivity software-development methods used to build and customize SDTM systems avoid these costs and enable the introduction of new technology.

Unlike conventional CAD/CAM systems, SDTM Automatic Geometry Generators employs "geometric integrity" to generate solid models automatically from assembly-design parameters (42). With SDTM, unlike conventional CAD/CAM, feature-based geometric assembly design, parameterization, and automatic generation of a solid model exhibiting geometric integrity are feasible.

Each SDTM system is built around a flexible process plan that suits the entire GT family of assemblies. A robust APG system is built for this flexible process plan and verified. Thereafter, the parametric design of a new assembly, in the family, produces an assembly automatically. APG eliminates the need for extensive pre-production verification for each assembly, to debug process geometry and either NC code or production schedules and material/work assignments. SDTM also eliminates the need for NC verification software included in many CAD/CAM systems, or sold separately (43). Graphical verification of NC toolpaths is imprecise, time consuming, and extremely costly, often more costly than the machining operation itself.

Within the shipbuilding industry, the SDTM concept-to-production approach can be employed to introduce CIM into shipbuilding without the adoption of NC processes, as explained further, later in this paper.

An FMS is a manufacturing system specifically designed to produce different GT families of parts together, without sacrificing efficiency, as compared with individual factories for each part. Shipbuilding and repair yards also use the same facilities and workforce to produce and repair different types of ships simultaneously. In this sense, they are tackling the same generic problem as FMS, but the technologies of FMS must be examined to determine their applicability to shipbuilding and repair.

Some critics judge existing FMS implementations to be inflexible. They cite early FMS implementations developed in the 1980’s, which manufactured a basic design with minor modifications. They also note that during economic downturns the company's capital is tied up in FMS that make unwanted quantities of products (45). These criticisms are directed to the degree of flexibility of FMS, rather than the advantages of FMS over normal automation.

In manufacturing, machining centers and turning centers are recommended as being more flexible than FMS that use customized work cells (46,47).

Caterpillar Inc., East Peoria, Illinois, used an FMS to cut lead time and in-process inventory in half, and triple productivity. Parts for elevated sprocket tractors, previously experiencing a throughput of three weeks, now take only a few hours. The part family consists of 41 steel parts fitting within a 150 cm (5 foot) cube. The FMS system includes CNC machining centers with automatic tool changers and automatic work changers, and an automated storage/retrieval system (44).

A major California-based air conditioning manufacturer replaced its five separate batch lines, each producing five component types, by a flexible new line that eliminates work in process (WIP) inventory. This line can produce all five Component types as individual units in any sequence. Now, no tooling changes are required, and only one sixth the workforce is required (21).

Rapid Prototyping Systems

In adopting CIM in shipbuilding, it will become necessary to speed up manual activities like model making. This requires adopting "rapid prototyping" technologies. Recently, several rapid prototyping technologies have emerged (48,49). These technologies have demonstrated the ability to create geometric models that roughly match part designs. However, for many applications they are unable to generate prototypes that can withstand physical testing and realistic thermal environments. Stereolithographic plastic models are suitable for judging aesthetics and fit of many consumer products. But these plastic models are inappropriate for applications such as instrumented water-tunnel testing of metal marine propulsers, to judge their structural, acoustic, and hydrodynamic response, or for engineering applications that involve appreciable heat. In addition, rapid prototyping speed and accuracy varies greatly from one geometry to another. Other problems include differential shrinkage and polymer toxicity.

Stereolithography and solid imaging selectively cure a liquid
photopolymer to build a solid object slice by slice. Selective laser sintering selectively fuses powder, to build prototypes slice by slice. Other processes, based on material deposition, include laminated object manufacture (LOM), ballistic particle manufacture, and fused deposition modeling. Stereolithography has led rapid prototyping, dominating sales.

While most of these processes are driven from standard CAD data, the slice geometries must be fully closed. Most conventional CAD systems do not preserve and a pair of position and orientation sensors. A person moving their hands and arms sees graphical depictions of their hands and arms moving in the goggle screens. By walking on a treadmill, the operator can tour workplace or a designed environment such as a ship. A pilot may see a virtual cockpit dashboard with gages and knobs. As he reaches out to touch them, he sees the image of his hands doing so and experiences the effects. This is an effective way to prototype instrument panels. The computational requirements of presenting realistic images and computing intersection of virtual objects, and the physical effects of exerting forces on these objects are enormous. Advances in computer hardware technology will supply the computational power to provide better and more convincing realistic visual and auditory images. Less progress has been made on general-purpose tactile sensory response equipment.

Quasi-realistic graphical output has already helped in many design areas. It is possible with commercial packages to visualize the simulated interior of a ship cabin. Designers can check ergonomic issues such as head clearance, or the clearance for a crew member carrying equipment. These systems differ from virtual reality systems in the nature of their input devices or interfaces, and by the use of workstation screens.

In ship production, a tradesman wearing virtual reality equipment could see an overlayed image of the correct placement of the next component to be attached superimposed over the existing assembly. Ship designers could digitally explore the final assembly interferences of large system subassemblies. Maintenance requirements and difficulties could be assessed quickly during the design stage of engines and other complex intertwined 3-D assemblies using virtual reality [50].

WORKSHOP ON APPLYING CIM TO SHIPBUILDING/SHIP REPAIR

An NSF-sponsored workshop was held at the University of New Orleans on February 6th and 7th. The objectives of this workshop were:
- to expose U.S. shipbuilders to developments in CIM,
- to develop a consensus of what bottlenecks stand in the way of realizing CIM, and
- to develop research themes which address the problems facing introduction of CIM in U.S. shipyards.

Representatives of academia, from Boston University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the University of New Orleans were in attendance. Shipyard representatives of Avondale Industries, Beth Ship, Ingalls Shipbuilding, and Swiftships participated.

Workshop Observations

Substantial implementation of CIM in shipyards will change the traditional boundaries between engineering, production, and scheduling. It will shift the sequence of these activities (Fig. 1). It will also alter the scope and conceptual level of shipyard job responsibilities, and work force job skills. This will impact supervisors, planners, designers and engineers (everyone other than the workers actually performing shipbuilding trades). Routine work will be automated, saving time for conceptual planning and comparative decision-making.

Ship production planning involves a hierarchy of planning levels and different levels of detail. The lowest level involves the foreman who examines the job, its location along the accessibility, and then accurately specifies the detailed sequence of tradesmen, equipment and the time
This allows different engineering changes to be compared to select the best. Today's manually detailed process specification will be automated to achieve SDTM in ship production.

It was noted that attempts to fully automate shipyard process planning may still yield a successful shipyard CIM system. Since many of these process planning skills are poorly understood, they are not easy to capture. Most generative process planning systems are still at the research level. The few commercially available systems have not found widespread acceptance in industry because they require manual coding of part features, and the development and maintenance of extensive databases and decision logic that is unique to each manufacturing firm (52).

Rather than automating all of process planning, the detailed shipyard process specification of well understood tasks, such as welding or outfitting, should be automated first. Then, the foremen can deal with the next-highest assemblies. In doing so they can identify any errors in the planning software and later, they can add additional tasks not previously automated. In this way, shipyard supervisory expertise is available to improve the CIM system continuously. Rather than displacing skilled shipyard foremen, their job is expanded and improved as a result of shipyard CIM.

This approach to CIM differs from the call to mechanize, automate and numerically control shipbuilding processes. Although automation has been demonstrated to be effective in the Japanese shipbuilding industry, it is linked to the Japanese shipbuilding industry's division into specialized shipyards, each building a certain type of ship. Japan enjoys sufficient volume to make mechanized assembly processes effective. Presently, American shipbuilding has too small an order book to reorganize itself in this fashion.

Rather than automating shipbuilding, the approach to realizing CIM seeks to automate the process specification. Tradesmen are needed to build ships; however, as knowledge of shipbuilding grows, more and more complex process-specification tasks will be automated, freeing those workers to consider more important productivity issues, rather than repeatedly "fighting the same fires" throughout their careers.
CONCLUSION: RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

The workshop attendees strongly endorsed the concept of a university-based Center for Advanced Marine Technology similar to an NSF Center of Excellence. In this university-affiliated center, advanced technologies would be developed and made accessible for ship production. It would be associated with a university program in naval architecture and be close to the shipyards.

The workshop attendees also indicated that the role of the Center should be focused on research and development in areas critical to the maintenance of the U.S. shipbuilding base. They suggested that the Center should conduct research in four areas that would accelerate the adoption of CIM systems, ship production and repair. These four research areas are summarized below.

1. Development of Quantitative Index of CIM-Related Improvements in Ship production/Repair

The cost for a shipyard to adopt CIM must be balanced with the projected improvements. This raises several issues which must be addressed for the CIM system to be adopted. The scope of this research would include the areas listed below.

- Identification of areas which will see:
  a. significant improvement,
  b. moderate improvement, and
  c. long-term improvement (initially small improvement).

- Development of an index to assess these gains. This index would include improvement in costs, schedule, and profitability in shipyard production.

- Application of this index to a cross-section of ships and offshore structures to identify where the highest gains will occur.

This research will also clarify the extent of benefits from incremental adoption of CIM, versus a complete switchover to CIM.

2. Characterization of Ship Production Activity and Manpower Shift with CIM Adoption

The introduction of CIM into shipyards will have far-reaching implications on present and future shipyard staff. Implications which should be explored will include:

- their required skills,
- their training,
- how their expertise will be incorporated into CIM systems,
- how they will use and supervise these CIM systems,
- what new opportunities for career growth paths are presented by their use of these CIM systems, and ultimately
- who will seize the opportunity to advance and grow with the technology or be made obsolete by it.

In the long term, shipyard jobs (above the level of tradesmen actually performing shipbuilding processes) will be integrally tied to the use of CIM systems.

This shift in personnel requirements can only be accomplished in an evolutionary manner. Many obstacles, both technical and social, obstruct the transition from present shipyard structures to CIM based shipyard. Cooperation of process-planning experts is necessary, although unlikely unless shipyard management can take serious steps to prove that their goal for CIM automation is not to displace workers.

Emerging CIM technologies are rarely presented in the context of shipbuilding. Due to differences between shipbuilding and other manufacturing industries, some of these technologies are inappropriate for use in ship production, while others are quite effective. Because of the high cost of implementing large corporate CIM efforts, the shipbuilding industry will either duplicate efforts in testing emerging CIM technologies or choose to ignore them. A computer-based ship production testbed can provide a prototyping environment to test emerging CIM technologies and demonstrate their relevance to ship production. Specific examples of individual shipyard production methods can be used to customize the application of these technologies to production activities at specific yards, helping member yards to gauge the detailed performance of the technologies on their own work through their own evaluation criteria. Once technologies have been demonstrated using the testbed, better decisions can be made regarding their benefits, costs of scale-up, expected difficulties, and technology transfer into the shipyards.
Characterization of the Costs and Scope of Engineering Changes Throughout the Production Cycle

To achieve low costs, quick delivery, and high quality, the costs and delays from engineering changes must be minimized. The CIM system provides a mechanism with which to make frequent changes easily, however, once production begins, these changes can have costs that are not readily discernible. These costs can involve not only material and services that have already been ordered, but by delaying other work, engineering changes can affect tasks along the critical path and cause delays which add significant costs. Other engineering changes actually reduce costs and positively impact the schedule.

It is imperative that the CIM system determine these cost increases/decreases and schedule improvements/delays so that decisions can be made by the production managers. Other alternatives involve 1) strictly limiting all engineering changes, with no knowledge of their implications, or 2) freely permitting all engineering changes, blindly hoping that the implications will be positive or minimal. Neither of these two alternatives is acceptable. Instead, shipyard planners must have the information with which to gauge the impact of their proposed changes, so that alternative changes can be compared to build the best ship at the lowest cost in the shortest time.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Division of Design and Manufacturing Systems of the National Science Foundation, Grant No. DDM-9116723. The opinions are those of the authors and do not represent the views of the National Science Foundation. The authors are grateful to Mrs. Latapie for typing this manuscript.

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