



A state space augmentation algorithm for the replenishment cycle inventory policy

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ARTICLE INFO

Available online 29 April 2010

Keywords:

Inventory control
Non-stationary stochastic demand
Replenishment cycle policy
Dynamic programming
State space relaxation
State space filtering
State space augmentation

ABSTRACT

In this work we propose an efficient dynamic programming approach for computing replenishment cycle policy parameters under non-stationary stochastic demand and service level constraints. The replenishment cycle policy is a popular inventory control policy typically employed for dampening planning instability. The approach proposed in this work achieves a significant computational efficiency and it can solve any relevant size instance in trivial time. Our method exploits the well known concept of state space relaxation. A filtering procedure and an augmenting procedure for the state space graph are proposed. Starting from a relaxed state space graph our method tries to remove provably suboptimal arcs and states (filtering) and then it tries to efficiently build up (augmenting) a reduced state space graph representing the original problem. Our experimental results show that the filtering procedure and the augmenting procedure often generate a small filtered state space graph, which can be easily processed using dynamic programming in order to produce a solution for the original problem.

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1. Introduction

Inventory theory provides methods for managing and controlling inventories under different constraints and environments. An interesting class of production/inventory control problems is the one that considers the single-location, single-product case under non-stationary stochastic demand and service level constraints. Such a problem has been widely studied because of its key role in practice.

Different inventory control policies can be adopted for the above mentioned problem. For a discussion of inventory control policies, see Silver et al. (1998). One of the possible policies that can be adopted is the replenishment cycle policy, (R,S) . A detailed discussion on the characteristics of (R,S) can be found in de Kok (1991). In this policy an order is placed every R periods to raise the inventory level to the order-up-to-level S . This provides an effective means of dampening planning instability (deviations in planned orders, also known as *nervousness* (de Kok and Inderfurth, 1997; Heisig, 2002) and coping with demand uncertainty. As pointed out by Silver et al. (1998, pp. 236–237), (R,S) is particularly appealing when items are ordered from the same supplier or require resource sharing. In these cases all items in a coordinated group can be given

the same replenishment period. Periodic review also allows a reasonable prediction of the level of the workload on the staff involved, and is particularly suitable for advanced planning environments and risk management (Tang, 2006).

Under the non-stationary demand assumption the replenishment cycle policy takes the form (R^n, S^n) where R^n denotes the length of the n th replenishment cycle and S^n the respective order-up-to-level. In this policy, the actual order quantity for replenishment cycle n is determined after the demand in previous periods has been observed. The order quantity is computed as the amount of stock required to raise the closing inventory level of replenishment cycle $n-1$ up to level S^n . In order to provide a solution for our problem under the (R^n, S^n) policy we must populate both the sets $\{R^n | n=1, \dots, M\}$ and $\{S^n | n=\{1, \dots, M\}$, where M denotes the number of replenishment cycles scheduled over a finite planning horizon of N periods.

The problem of populating these sets has been solved to optimality only recently, due to the complexity involved in the modeling of uncertainty and of the policy-of-response. As Silver points out, computing replenishment cycle policy parameters under non-stationary stochastic demand is a computationally hard task (Silver, 1978). Early works in this area adopted heuristic strategies such as those proposed by Silver (1978), Askin (1981), and Bookbinder and Tan (1988). Under some mild assumptions, the first complete solution method for this problem was introduced by Tarim and Kingsman (2004), who proposed a

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deterministic equivalent mixed integer programming (MIP) formulation for computing (R^n, S^n) policy parameters. Tempelmeier (2007) extended Tarim and Kingsman's MIP formulation in order to consider different service level measures, such as the "fill rate". Nevertheless, empirical results showed that Tarim and Kingsman's model is unable to solve large instances. Tarim and Smith (2008) therefore introduced a more compact and efficient constraint programming formulation of the same problem that showed a significant computational improvement over the MIP formulation. The constraint programming formulation has been further enhanced by means of dedicated cost-based filtering algorithms developed by Tarim et al. (2009). A stochastic constraint programming (Tarim et al., 2006) approach for computing optimal (R^n, S^n) policy parameters is proposed in Rossi et al. (2008). In this work the authors drop the mild assumptions originally introduced by Tarim and Kingsman and compute optimal (R^n, S^n) policy parameters. Of course, there is a price to pay for dropping Tarim and Kingsman's assumptions, in fact this latter approach is less efficient than the one in Tarim and Smith (2008). Finally, Pujawan and Silver (2008) recently proposed a novel and effective heuristic approach.

In this paper, we build on Tarim and Kingsman's modeling assumptions and we develop a state-of-the-art algorithm for computing optimal (R^n, S^n) policy parameters. Two existing techniques—dynamic programming and state space relaxation—are combined in order to obtain an effective approach for computing (R^n, S^n) policy parameters. Dynamic programming (DP) is an optimization procedure that solves optimization problems by decomposing them into a nested family of subproblems. DP is based on the *principle of optimality* (Bellman, 1957; Dreyfus and Law, 1989) and it has been applied to solve a wide variety of combinatorial optimization problems, as well as optimal control problems. State space relaxation (SSR) considers the DP formulation of a combinatorial optimization problem, and modifies this formulation to obtain a different—and possibly more compact—DP formulation whose optimal solution is a lower bound for the original problem. Christofides et al. (1981) proposed that SSR has been successfully applied to constrained variants of routing problems (see, e.g. Mingozzi et al., 1997; Focacci and Milano, 2001). Roughly speaking, SSR maps the original state space graph to a new state space graph having a smaller number of vertices, and whose shortest path represents a lower bound for the cost of the shortest path in the original state space graph.

In this work, we enhance these known approaches with a novel strategy: we introduce a filtering procedure for the state space graph and an augmenting procedure that is able to build a reduced state space graph for the original problem starting from a filtered state space graph for the relaxed problem. The concept of state space augmentation (Boland et al., 2006) is known in the operations research literature. A dual approach to state space augmentation also exists and is known as decremental SSR (Righini and Salani, 2008). Nevertheless, the idea of filtering a relaxed state space graph is, to the best of our knowledge, a novel contribution. Our experimental results prove the effectiveness of such an approach for computing optimal (R^n, S^n) policy parameters.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we introduce the problem definition and the modeling assumptions adopted in this work. In Section 3 we describe a DP reformulation for Tarim and Kingsman's model. An SSR for this reformulation is presented in Section 4. A procedure for filtering the relaxed state space graph is presented in Section 5. An augmenting procedure for the relaxed state space graph is described in Section 6. An example that demonstrates the algorithm proposed is given in Section 7. Our computational experience and a comparison with the state-of-the-art approaches for computing replenishment cycle policy parameters are discussed in Section 8. In Section 9 we draw conclusions.

2. Problem definition and modeling assumptions

The single-location, single-product production/inventory control problem under non-stationary stochastic demand and service level constraints is formulated in this paper by using the following inputs and assumptions.

We consider a planning horizon of N periods and a demand d_t for each period $t \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, which is a non-negative random variable with known probability density function and expected value \tilde{d}_t . We assume that the demand occurs instantaneously at the beginning of each time period. The demand is non-stationary, that is it can vary from period to period, demands in different periods are assumed to be independent. Demands occurring when the system is out of stock are assumed to be back-ordered and satisfied as soon as the next replenishment order arrives. The sell-back of excess stock is not allowed, if the actual stock exceeds the order-up-to-level for a given review, this excess stock is carried forward and it is not returned to the supply source. However, as in Bookbinder and Tan (1988), Tarim and Kingsman (2004), Tarim and Smith (2008), and Tempelmeier (2007) such occurrences are regarded as rare events and accordingly the cost of carrying this excess stock and its effect on the service levels of subsequent periods are ignored.

A fixed delivery cost a is incurred for each order. A linear holding cost h is incurred for each unit of product carried in stock from one period to the next. Our aim is to find a replenishment plan that minimizes the expected total cost, which is composed of ordering costs and holding costs, over the N -period planning horizon, satisfying the service level constraints. As a service level constraint we require that, with a probability of at least a given value α , at the end of each period the net inventory will be non-negative. As pointed out in Tempelmeier (2007), since period demands are random, the net inventory may become negative. However, the number of stock-outs is restricted by the service level constraints enforced. While computing holding costs, we will assume, as in Bookbinder and Tan (1988), Tarim and Kingsman (2004), Tarim and Smith (2008), and Tempelmeier (2007), that the service level is set large enough to ensure that the net inventory will be a good approximation of the inventory on hand.

3. A DP formulation for the deterministic equivalent problem

We hereby introduce a deterministic equivalent DP formulation for computing optimal (R^n, S^n) policy parameters.

Definition. A replenishment cycle, $T(i, j)$, is the time span between two consecutive orders/productions occurring in periods i and $j+1$, $j \geq i$.

Definition. The cycle buffer stock, $b(i, j)$, denotes the minimum expected buffer stock level required to satisfy the required non-stock-out probability during $T(i, j)$.

We define $b(i, j)$, $i=1, \dots, N$, $j=i, \dots, N$, as

$$b(i, j) = G_{d_i + d_{i+1} + \dots + d_j}^{-1}(\alpha) - \sum_{k=i}^j \tilde{d}_k, \quad (1)$$

where $G_{d_i + d_{i+1} + \dots + d_j}$ is the cumulative probability distribution function of $d_i + d_{i+1} + \dots + d_j$. It is assumed that G is strictly increasing, hence G^{-1} is uniquely defined. It should be noted that it is possible to consider different service level measures—for instance the "fill rate"—simply by introducing a different definition for the cycle buffer stock (see also Tempelmeier, 2007).

Since N is the number of periods in our planning horizon, this will also be the number of steps in the system. A state s_k at step k represents a possible expected closing-inventory-level, \tilde{I}_k , at the end of period k . The decision x_k to be taken at step k is to place an

order in such a period or not; if an order is placed, x_k also indicates how many subsequent periods this order should cover.

Let $X_k(s_{k-1})$ denote the set of possible feasible decisions x_k at period k , when the expected closing inventory level at period $k-1$ is s_{k-1} . This set may comprise: the decision of not placing an order ($x_k=0$), the decision of covering one period with the order placed ($x_k=k$), the decision of covering two periods with the order placed ($x_k=k+1$), ..., and the decision of covering $N-k+1$ periods with the order placed ($x_k=N$). In other words, if $x_k=0$, no order is placed in period k ; if $k \leq x_k \leq N$, x_k schedules a replenishment cycle $T(k, x_k)$. However, one should note that the decision $x_k=0$ is only allowed if

$$b(v, k) \leq s_{k-1} - \tilde{d}_k,$$

where $v = \max\{t | 1 \leq t \leq k, x_t > 0\}$. Intuitively, we can decide not to place an order at the beginning of period k if and only if we have sufficient stocks to guarantee the required service level at least for this period.

Given a pair $\langle s_k, x_k \rangle$ the cost function $p_k(s_k, x_k)$ is clearly given by the sum of the fixed ordering cost a , which is charged if x_k states that an order should be placed, and of the inventory holding cost at the end of the period, which is equal to the expected closing-inventory-level s_k , multiplied by the per-unit holding cost h . A per-unit purchase/production cost may also be considered, this will be briefly discussed in Section 6.

The state transition function, $s_k = t_k(s_{k-1}, x_k)$, is as follows:

$$s_k = \begin{cases} s_{k-1} - \tilde{d}_k & \text{if } x_k = 0, \\ \max(s_{k-1} - \tilde{d}_k, b(k, x_k) + \sum_{i=k+1}^{x_k} \tilde{d}_i) & \text{if } k \leq x_k \leq N. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

S_k , the set of feasible expected closing-inventory-levels at the end of period k , is obtained recursively from the state transition functions t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k , by assuming $s_0=0$ and, therefore, that an order should be always placed at period 1 in order to cover one or more following periods. In other words, $X_1(s_0)$ does not include the option of not placing an order.

The objective function is

$$z = \min \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^N p_k(s_k, x_k) \right\}. \quad (3)$$

To determine the value of z , DP solves a set of problems $i=1, \dots, N$, each corresponding to a system composed by i steps and characterized by the state s_i at the end of step i . The recursive formulation of the cost function at step i is

$$f_i(s_i) = \min_{x_i \in X_i(s_{i-1})} \{f_{i-1}(s_{i-1}) + p_i(s_i, x_i)\}, \quad (4)$$

where $s_i = t_i(s_{i-1}, x_i)$. In addition, we have the following boundary condition:

$$f_1(s_1) = \min_{x_1 \in X_1(s_0)} \{p_1(s_1, x_1)\}, \quad (5)$$

where $s_1 = t_1(s_0, x_1)$.

Clearly, a mere recursive approach would immediately generate a very large state space graph that would certainly be unmanageable. For this reason, in the following sections we will propose an effective strategy for limiting the size of the state space graph.

4. A state space relaxation for the deterministic equivalent problem

Intuitively, the first way of keeping the state space graph compact consists in employing a relaxation that clusters states together. More specifically, in order to do so we will employ a relaxation proposed by Tarim (1996).

The core observation in Tarim's relaxation lies in the fact that, if we relax the constraint which enforces non-negative order

quantities—i.e. we give the opportunity to sell back items in excess to the supplier at the beginning of a given replenishment cycle—then the model proposed can be reduced to a shortest path problem on a state space graph having a number of nodes and arcs polynomial in the number N of periods.

In this relaxation, since the inventory conservation constraint is relaxed between replenishment cycles, each replenishment cycle can be treated independently and its expected total cost can be computed *a priori*. In fact, given a replenishment cycle $T(i, j)$, we recall that $b(i, j)$, as defined above, denotes the minimum expected buffer stock level required to satisfy a given service level constraint during the replenishment cycle $T(i, j)$. It directly follows that $\tilde{I}_j = b(i, j)$. Furthermore for each period $t \in \{i, \dots, j-1\}$ the expected closing-inventory-level is $\tilde{I}_t = b(i, j) + \sum_{k=t+1}^j \tilde{d}_k$. Since all the \tilde{I}_t for $t \in \{i, \dots, j\}$ are known it is easy to compute the expected total cost for $T(i, j)$, which is by definition the sum of the ordering cost and of the holding cost components, $a + h \sum_{t=i}^j \tilde{I}_t$.

We now have a set S of $N(N+1)/2$ possible different replenishment cycles and their respective costs. Our new problem is to find an optimal set $S^* \subset S$ of consecutive disjoint replenishment cycles that covers our planning horizon at the minimum cost.

We shall now show that the optimal solution to this relaxation is given by the shortest path in a *state space graph* from a given initial node to a final node (boundary condition) where each arc represents a replenishment cycle cost. If N is the number of periods in the planning horizon of the original problem, we introduce $N+1$ nodes. Since we assume that an order is always placed at period 1, we take node 1, which represents the beginning of the planning horizon, as the initial node. Node $N+1$ represents the end of the planning horizon.

Definition. The cycle cost, $c(i, j)$, denotes the expected cost of the optimal policy for $T(i, j)$. It can be expressed as

$$c(i, j) = a + h(j-i+1)b(i, j) + h \sum_{t=i}^j (t-i)\tilde{d}_t. \quad (6)$$

The cycle cost is the sum of two components. A fixed ordering cost a , that is charged at the beginning of the cycle when an order is placed, and a variable holding cost h_t charged at the end of each time period within the replenishment cycle and proportional to the amount of stock held in inventory.

For each possible replenishment cycle $T(i, j-1)$ such that $i, j \in \{1, \dots, N+1\}$ and $i < j$, we introduce an arc (i, j) with associated cost $c(i, j-1)$ (Fig. 1). Since we are dealing with a one-way temporal feasibility problem (Wagner and Whitin, 1958), when $i \geq j$, we introduce no arc. As shown in Tarim (1996), the cost of the shortest path from node 1 to node $N+1$ in the given graph is a valid lower bound for the original problem, as it is a solution of the relaxed problem. A shortest path can be efficiently found by applying Dijkstra's algorithm that runs in $O(n^2)$ time, where n is the number of nodes in the graph. Details on efficient implementations of Dijkstra's algorithm can be found in Sedgewick (1988).

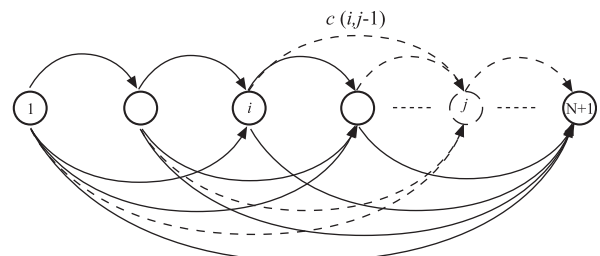


Fig. 1. Shortest path problem graph.

It is easy to map the optimal solution for the relaxed problem, that is the set of arcs participating to the shortest path, to an assignment for the original problem by noting that each arc (ij) represents a replenishment cycle $T(ij-1)$. The set of arcs in the optimal path, therefore, uniquely identifies a set of disjoint replenishment cycles, that is a replenishment plan. Furthermore for each period $t \in \{i, \dots, j-1\}$ in cycle $T(ij-1)$ we already showed that all the expected closing-inventory-levels \tilde{I}_t , $t \in \{i, \dots, j-1\}$, are known. This produces a complete assignment for decision variables in our model. The feasibility of an assignment with respect to the original problem can be checked by verifying that it satisfies every relaxed constraint, that is no negative expected order quantity is scheduled.

5. A filtering procedure for the relaxed state space graph

In the previous section we presented a known relaxation for the deterministic equivalent formulation of the (R^n, S^n) policy. In this relaxation we solve a shortest path problem over a given graph in order to find a lower bound for the cost of the optimal solution for the original problem.

We now aim to reduce *a priori* as much as possible the number of arcs in the graph we defined in the previous section. To do so we exploit a reduction procedure based on an upper bound for replenishment cycle lengths that was originally presented by Tarim and Smith (2008).

Definition. Cycle opening inventory level, $R(ij)$, denotes the minimum opening inventory level in period i to meet demand until period $j+1$ and $R(ij) = b(ij) + \sum_{t=i}^j \tilde{d}_t$.

Let us assume now that period i is a replenishment period. It is not generally possible, prior to obtaining the optimal solution to an instance of the problem, to determine the length of the optimum replenishment cycle for a particular replenishment period; however, an upper bound on the length can be determined using Proposition 1.

Proposition 1 (Tarim and Smith, 2008). If $\forall k \in \{i, \dots, j-1\}$, $(c(i,k) + c(k+1,j) > c(i,j)) \vee (b(i,k) > R(k+1,j))$ and $\exists k \in \{i, \dots, j\}$ $(c(i,k) + c(k+1,j+1) \leq c(i,j+1)) \wedge (b(i,k) \leq R(k+1,j+1))$ then for period i the optimum length replenishment cycle is $T(i,p)^*$ where $i \leq p \leq j$, and j indicates an upper bound.

Since we have an upper bound j for the length of an optimum replenishment cycle starting at period i , we can remove from our graph every arc (i,t) , where $t > j+1$.

6. An augmenting procedure for the relaxed state space graph

Once the shortest path problem on the graph constructed as shown above is solved, we can easily verify if every relaxed constraint is satisfied by the solution found, that is, if no expected negative replenishment quantity is scheduled in the optimal replenishment plan. In this case, the solution found is feasible and optimal for the original problem. If, on the other hand, the solution is not feasible for the original model and it schedules expected negative replenishment quantities, we can augment the graph with additional nodes and arcs in such a way that the shortest path on the augmented graph is guaranteed to provide a feasible and optimal solution for the original problem. In what follows we shall show how to augment the graph and efficiently compute an optimal solution for the original problem.

Algorithm 1. Augmenting procedure

```

input : a relaxed and filtered state space graph  $RSG(S,T)$ 
output : an augmented state space graph  $ASG(S',T')$ 
begin
1    $i' = N + 1$ ;
2    $ASG(S',T') \leftarrow RSG(S,T)$ ;
3   for each node  $i = 1, \dots, N$  in  $S'$  do
4     for each arc  $(p,i)$  in  $T'$  do
5       let  $b^*$  be the buffer stock associate to  $(p,i)$ 
6       for each arc  $(i,j)$  in  $T'$  do
7         if  $b^* > R(i,j-1)$  then
8            $i' = i' + 1$ ;
9           create a new node  $i'$  in  $S'$ ;
10          introduce arc  $(p,i')$  in  $T'$  with associated
11          buffer stock  $b^*$ ;
12          remove arc  $(p,i)$  from  $T'$ ;
13          let  $t > i$  be the minimum index for which
14           $b^* \leq R(i,t-1) \leq R(i,t) \leq \dots \leq R(i,N)$ ;
15          introduce arc  $(i',t)$  in  $T'$  with buffer stock
16           $b(i,t-1)$ ;
17          for each arc  $(i,k)$ ,  $k = t+1, \dots, N+1$  in  $T'$  do
18            introduce arc  $(i',k)$  in  $T'$  with associated
19            buffer stock  $b(i,k-1)$ ;
20          let  $t-1 > i$  be the maximum index for which
21           $b^* > \dots \geq R(i,t-2)$ ;
22          introduce arc  $(i',t-1)$  in  $T'$  with associated
23          buffer stock  $b^* - \sum_{k=i}^{t-1} \tilde{d}_k$ 
24   end

```


For convenience, instead of associating a cost $c(i,j-1)$ to each arc (i,j) in the graph, we will now associate the respective cycle buffer stock, $b(i,j-1)$, as defined above. From the definitions given, it is easy to see that, once this expected buffer stock level is fixed, also the cost $c(i,j-1)$ is uniquely defined.

Let $RSG(S,T)$ be a relaxed state space graph built according to the discussion in Section 4 and filtered according to the discussion in Section 5. Let S denote the set of nodes and T the set of arcs in the graph. The pseudo-code for the proposed augmenting procedure is presented in Algorithm 1. The procedure eventually generates an augmented state space graph $ASG(S',T')$, where S' is the set of nodes and T' is the set of arcs in the augmented graph.

Algorithm 1 initially creates a copy $ASG(S',T')$ of $RSG(S,T)$ (line 3). Then it considers each node in S' in order (line 4), starting from node 1 up to node N . Note that node $N+1$ has no outbound arcs, so we do not have to consider it. The process is repeated for each node i , therefore we will only describe the steps performed on a single node.

We consider every inbound arc at node i (line 5) and we operate in the following fashion. Given an inbound arc (p,i) with associated buffer stock b^* (line 6), for each outbound arc (i,j) in the graph (line 7) we check that $b^* \leq R(i,j-1)$. If this condition is satisfied for every outbound arc, then we preserve the inbound arc (p,i) at node i with the associated buffer stock b^* (Fig. 2). Otherwise, if $b^* > R(i,j-1)$ (line 8), for a subsequent pair of replenishment cycles a negative order quantity is scheduled. In order to resolve this infeasibility we perform the following transformation (lines 10...18). We introduce a new node i' in the graph. We remove arc (p,i) and we introduce a new arc (p,i') with associated buffer stock b^* (Fig. 3). Then we connect this new node in the following way.

Let $t > i$ be the minimum index for which $b^* \leq R(i,t-1) \leq R(i,t) \leq \dots \leq R(i,N)$ with buffer stock $b(i,t-1)$. Then, for each arc $(i,t+1), \dots, (i,N+1)$ in the graph, we also introduce $(i',t+1), \dots, (i',N+1)$ with buffer stock, respectively, $b(i,t), \dots, b(i,N)$. It should be noted that some of the arcs $(i,t+1), \dots, (i,N+1)$ may have been removed by the filtering described in Section 5.

Let $t-1 > i$ be the maximum index for which $b^* > \dots \geq R(i,t-2)$. We introduce arc $(i',t-1)$ with buffer stock $b^* - \sum_{k=i}^{t-1} \bar{d}_k$. Obviously arcs $(i',t-2), (i',t-3), \dots$ are suboptimal and should not be introduced, since the inventory carried on from

the previous replenishment cycle is enough to cover subsequent periods up to $t-1$.

Note that, when the process is iterated on subsequent nodes $i+1, \dots, N$, the new inbound arcs that may have been introduced must also be considered among all the possible ones for a given node.

By starting from node 1 and by iterating this process for each node i , $1 \leq i \leq N$, we obtain an augmented graph. By construction the cost of the shortest path in this augmented graph is the optimal solution cost for our original problem since every possible negative order quantity scenario has been considered and replaced with the respective feasible possible courses of action.

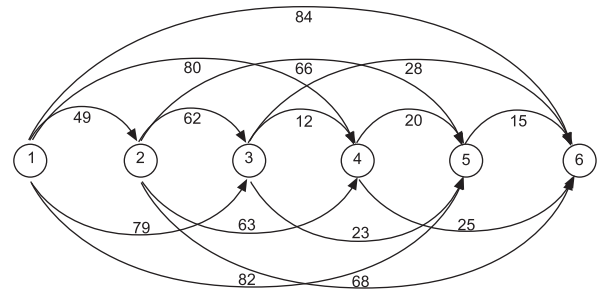


Fig. 4. Connection matrix with expected buffer stock levels.

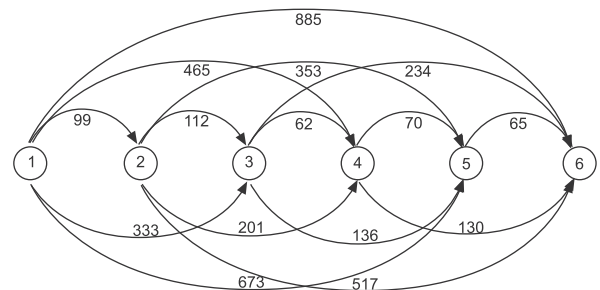


Fig. 5. Connection matrix with expected cycle costs.

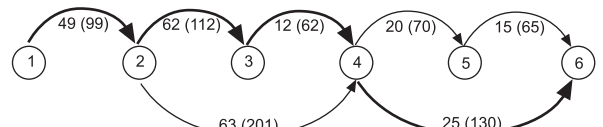


Fig. 6. Filtered connection matrix. Expected buffer stock levels and expected cycle costs (in parentheses) are shown for each arc. The shortest path is highlighted.

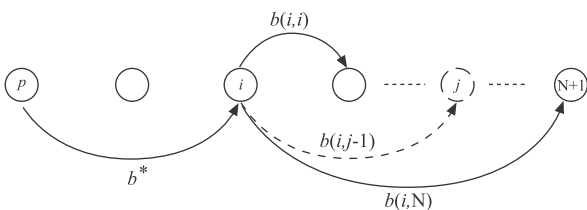


Fig. 2. Feasible node point.

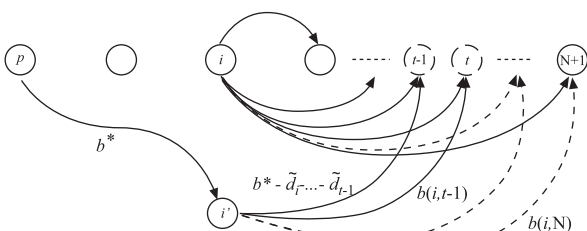


Fig. 3. Infeasible node point.

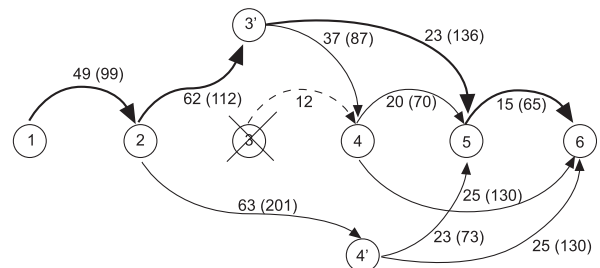


Fig. 7. Augmented connection matrix. Expected buffer stock levels and expected cycle costs (in parentheses) are shown for each arc. The shortest path is highlighted. Node 3 (and obviously arc (3,4)) has been removed from the network since the augmenting procedure removed all its inbound arcs.

Table 1
Test set P5.

<i>a</i>	<i>N</i>	$\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t = 1/3$							
		$\alpha = 0.95$				$\alpha = 0.99$			
		CP		DP		CP		DP	
		Nod	Sec	Graph	Sec	Nod	Sec	Graph	Sec
25	50	857	45	<64;76>	0.33	2474	170	<67;82>	0.30
	75	41 386	5400	<102;125>	0.38	180 000*	20 000*	<106;133>	0.37
50	50	441	17	<66;84>	0.34	1242	170	<69;88>	0.33
	75	23 805	2400	<104;133>	0.37	180 000*	20 000*	<108;139>	0.37
100	50			<51;87>	0.21	104	5	<73;109>	0.34
	75			<76;134>	0.24	329	30	<113;167>	0.21
200	50			<51;139>	0.23			<51;131>	0.24
	75			<76;212>	0.26			<76;200>	0.28
<i>a</i>	<i>N</i>	$\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t = 1/6$							
		$\alpha = 0.95$				$\alpha = 0.99$			
		CP		DP		CP		DP	
		Nod	Sec	Graph	Sec	Nod	Sec	Graph	Sec
25	50	22	1	<58;65>	0.34	325	17	<61;70>	0.33
	75	245	35	<90;103>	0.2	10 118	970	<98;116>	0.20
50	50			<51;69>	0.20	70	3	<63;80>	0.42
	75			<76;106>	0.14	155	14	<100;126>	0.37
100	50			<51;103>	0.13			<51;94>	0.12
	75			<76;161>	0.26			<76;145>	0.25
200	50			<51;158>	0.22			<51;184>	0.15
	75			<76;242>	0.27			<76;226>	0.26

A figure marked with * means that the instance could not be solved in the given limit of 20 000 s (5.55 h).

Nevertheless, as a consequence of the original filtering performed on the relaxed graph, the augmented graph will typically feature a very limited number of node and arcs. This will be shown in the following sections.

Before demonstrating our method on a simple numerical example, it is worth mentioning the following. Our model, for the sake of simplicity, assumes a zero unit purchase/production cost, also in line with the model in Tarim and Smith (2008). Nevertheless, the extension of our algorithm to the case of a non-zero unit production/purchasing cost is quite straightforward. In fact, as shown in Tarim and Kingsman (2004, p. 113), the total unit variable cost can be reduced to a function of the expected closing-inventory-level of the very last period N . Therefore, considering such an effect in our algorithm is easy, since it only requires us to modify, in the graph connection matrix, the costs that appear in the rightmost column, which represents every possible replenishment cycle that ends in period N .

7. An example

We shall consider here a simple example in detail, to show how in practice it is possible to apply the procedure described.

A single problem over a 5-period planning horizon is considered and the expected values for period demand are [100, 125, 25, 40, 30]. We assume an initial null inventory level and a normally distributed demand for every period with a coefficient of variation $\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t = 0.3$ for each $t \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, where σ_t denotes the standard deviation of the demand in period t . We consider an ordering cost value $a=50$ and a holding cost $h=1$ per unit per period. The non-stock-out probability in each period is set to $\alpha = 0.95$.

Firstly we build the connection matrix for the relaxed problem as described in Section 4. In Fig. 4 we show the connection matrix with the respective expected buffer stock level $b(ij-1)$ associated with each arc (ij) .¹ In Fig. 5 instead with each arc (ij) we associate the respective expected cycle cost $c(ij-1)$. It should be noted that the two representations are equivalent, since the expected cycle cost can be easily computed once the expected buffer stock level for a given cycle is fixed. In Fig. 6 the connection matrix is filtered according to the procedure presented in Section 5. Expected buffer

¹ For clarity, in order to keep the graphical presentation as compact as possible, the expected buffer stock levels have been rounded to the nearest integer value.

stock levels and expected cycle costs (in parentheses) are indicated for each arc that has not been removed by the filtering. The shortest path in this reduced network has a cost of 403. The order periods and the order quantities are, respectively, [1, 2, 3, 4] and [149, 138, –25, 83]. This assignment is infeasible for the non-relaxed problem since the expected order quantity in period 3 is –25, therefore its cost is a lower bound for the optimal solution cost of our original problem. According to the procedure described in Section 6 we augment the filtered graph and we obtain the new graph in Fig. 7. The shortest path in this augmented network has a cost of 412 and represents the optimal solution cost of our original problem. The replenishment periods in this optimal solution can be obtained from the indexes of the nodes in the shortest path. The respective order quantities can also be easily obtained from the expected buffer stock levels associated with each arc in the shortest path. The order periods and the order quantities are therefore, respectively, [1, 2, 3, 5] and [149, 138, 26, 22].

8. Experimental results

We compared the results obtained with our approach with the results obtained with the state-of-the-art constraint programming (CP) approach in Tarim et al. (2009), based on the set of instances originally proposed in Berry (1972). All the experiments presented in this section were performed on an Intel(R) Centrino(TM) CPU 1.50 GHz with 500 Mb RAM. As in Tarim et al. (2009), the demand in each period is assumed to be normally distributed and we also assume that its coefficient of variation remains sufficiently low (i.e. less or equal to 1/3) to ensure that negative demand values can be ignored. We recall that in Tarim et al. (2009) period demands are generated from seasonal data

with no trend: $\tilde{d}_t = 50[1 + \sin(\pi t/6)]$. In addition to the “no trend” case (P1) three others are also considered:

- (P2) positive trend case, $\tilde{d}_t = 50[1 + \sin(\pi t/6)] + t$,
- (P3) negative trend case, $\tilde{d}_t = 50[1 + \sin(\pi t/6)] + (52 - t)$,
- (P4) life-cycle trend case, $\tilde{d}_t = 50[1 + \sin(\pi t/6)] + \min(t, 52 - t)$.

Tests are performed using four different ordering cost values $a \in \{40, 80, 160, 320\}$ and two different $\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t \in \{1/3, 1/6\}$. The planning horizon length takes even values in the range [24, 50] when the ordering cost is 40 or 80 and [14, 24] when the ordering cost is 160 or 320. The holding cost used in these tests is $h = 1$ per unit per period. Tests consider two different service levels $\alpha = 0.95$ ($z_\alpha = 0.95 = 1.645$) and $\alpha = 0.99$ ($z_\alpha = 0.99 = 2.326$).

For almost all these instances our DP approach is either better—in terms of run time—than the CP approach or equivalent, with some exceptions for the smallest instances. When the number of periods considered in the planning horizon grows, our DP approach clearly scales better than the CP approach. The maximum improvement observed reaches a factor of 24. Nevertheless, for this set of instances the CP approach remains competitive and achieves reasonable run times of a few seconds also for the largest instances.

In what follows, we aim to highlight the limits of the CP approach and we want to show that our DP approach remains very effective even for those instances for which the CP approach performs poorly. In order to do so, we consider the following set of instances (test set P5). The expected period demands, \tilde{d}_t , are generated as uniformly distributed random numbers in [0, 100]. Empirically, in fact, we observed that generating random sequences of demands rather than seasonal patterns or trends makes the problem harder to solve. Again we consider four

Table 2
Test set P6.

a	N	$\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t = 1/3$				$\sigma_t/\tilde{d}_t = 1/6$			
		$\alpha = 0.95$		$\alpha = 0.99$		$\alpha = 0.95$		$\alpha = 0.99$	
		Graph	Sec	Graph	Sec	Graph	Sec	Graph	Sec
2500	75	<102; 125>	0.44	<106; 133>	0.38	<90; 103>	0.25	<98; 116>	0.26
	110	<153; 194>	0.36	<160; 208>	0.36	<134; 157>	0.31	<144; 175>	0.28
	145	<197; 246>	0.41	<208; 266>	0.41	<174; 202>	0.41	<185; 222>	0.41
	180	<242; 301>	0.48	<255; 327>	0.49	<211; 245>	0.46	<225; 268>	0.47
	215	<284; 350>	0.96	<297; 376>	0.93	<248; 285>	0.93	<263; 310>	0.88
	250	<329; 407>	0.79	<346; 439>	0.79	<287; 330>	0.75	<305; 361>	0.77
5000	75	<104; 133>	0.20	<108; 139>	0.48	<76; 107>	0.13	<100; 126>	0.22
	110	<155; 202>	0.57	<162; 214>	0.29	<111; 152>	0.18	<146; 185>	0.28
	145	<199; 255>	0.36	<210; 272>	0.40	<146; 198>	0.21	<187; 234>	0.62
	180	<245; 317>	0.46	<258; 337>	0.55	<181; 250>	0.30	<230; 295>	0.49
	215	<287; 366>	0.85	<300; 386>	0.94	<216; 296>	0.75	<268; 338>	0.49
	250	<332; 426>	0.76	<349; 450>	0.74	<251; 347>	0.61	<312; 399>	0.95
10 000	75	<76; 134>	0.13	<116; 174>	0.34	<76; 162>	0.15	<76; 147>	0.04
	110	<170; 270>	0.29	<171; 256>	0.19	<111; 230>	0.22	<111; 211>	0.10
	145	<216; 344>	0.62	<224; 332>	0.35	<146; 300>	0.26	<146; 280>	0.19
	180	<271; 439>	0.51	<279; 422>	0.69	<181; 377>	0.34	<181; 354>	0.25
	215	<317; 517>	0.85	<324; 493>	0.61	<216; 448>	0.70	<216; 423>	0.58
	250	<365; 593>	1.02	<375; 569>	0.99	<251; 512>	0.62	<251; 485>	0.67
20 000	75	<76; 212>	0.14	<76; 201>	0.15	<76; 242>	0.15	<76; 228>	0.17
	110	<111; 306>	0.21	<111; 292>	0.13	<111; 352>	0.17	<111; 332>	0.16
	145	<146; 408>	0.27	<146; 388>	0.24	<146; 460>	0.39	<146; 437>	0.26
	180	<181; 514>	0.35	<181; 485>	0.49	<181; 575>	0.38	<181; 546>	0.54
	215	<216; 617>	0.67	<216; 585>	0.44	<216; 685>	0.50	<216; 652>	0.47
	250	<251; 713>	0.68	<251; 675>	0.60	<251; 787>	0.80	<251; 750>	0.79

different ordering cost values $a \in \{25, 50, 100, 200\}$ and two different $\sigma_t/\bar{d}_t \in \{1/3, 1/6\}$. The planning horizon length takes the values $\{50, 75\}$. The holding cost used in these tests is $h=1$ per unit per period. Again we consider two different service levels $\alpha = 0.95$ ($z_{\alpha=0.95} = 1.645$) and $\alpha = 0.99$ ($z_{\alpha=0.99} = 2.326$). Table 1 compares the CP and the DP approach for this new set of instances. In our test results, the heading “CP” refers to the state-of-the-art CP approach in Tarim et al. (2009), while “DP” refers to our novel DP approach. For the CP approach we report the number of nodes explored (Nod) and the run time in seconds (Sec); for our DP approach we report the size of the state space graph generated (Graph) and the run time in seconds (Sec). The size of the state space graph is described as a pair $\langle N; A \rangle$, where N is the number of nodes and A is the number of arcs. When a field is empty in the table, this means that the CP approach and the DP approach are equivalent, since for that particular instance the CP approach was able to prove optimality at the root node in polynomial time using the DP relaxation originally proposed in Tarim (1996).

It is immediately clear that for low a/h ratios (that is for the lowest ordering costs considered), the CP approach has to explore a large search space and requires a long time to prove optimality, while our DP approach still generates small state space graphs and achieves fast runtimes. As the ratio a/h increases, the CP approach performs better and, for some instance, it is equivalent to our DP approach.

In the last set of instances considered (test set P6) we aim to show that our approach is effective even when the planning horizon is significantly longer, and that the computation is not affected by the magnitude of the demands considered. The planning horizon length now ranges up to 250 periods, in order to show that our approach scales well in the number of periods. The expected period demands \bar{d}_t are generated as uniformly distributed random numbers in $[0, 10000]$, in order to show that large values for the expected demands do not affect the scalability of our approach. Once more, we consider four different ordering cost values $a \in \{2500, 5000, 10000, 20000\}$ and two different $\sigma_t/\bar{d}_t \in \{1/3, 1/6\}$. The planning horizon length takes the following values $\{75, 110, 145, 180, 215, 250\}$. The holding cost used in these tests is $h=1$ per unit per period. Also in this case, we consider two different service levels $\alpha = 0.95$ ($z_{\alpha=0.95} = 1.645$) and $\alpha = 0.99$ ($z_{\alpha=0.99} = 2.326$). The computational results in Table 2 show that the graphs generated are still extremely compact and that the run times are mostly under one second even if a long planning horizon and large demands are considered.

9. Conclusions

We proposed a novel DP approach for computing (R^n, S^n) policy parameters. Our experimental results show that our approach, based on the described filtering algorithm for the state space graph and on the state space graph augmenting procedure, can solve instances over planning horizons comprising hundreds of periods. State space relaxation and state space augmentation are two known strategies in operations research, nevertheless, the idea of filtering a relaxed state space graph is, to the best of our knowledge, a novel contribution. As our computational experience shows, our DP reformulation performs significantly better than the original MIP approach proposed by Tarim and Kingsman and it also beats the state-of-the-art reformulations proposed by Tarim and Smith and Tarim et al. Furthermore our results are not affected by the magnitude of the demand considered in each period.

Acknowledgements

B. Hnich and A. Tarim are supported by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey under Grant no. SOBAG-108K027. A. Tarim is supported by Hacettepe University-BAB. We wish to thank the anonymous reviewers who significantly contributed to improve the quality of this manuscript.

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