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# UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION VIENNA

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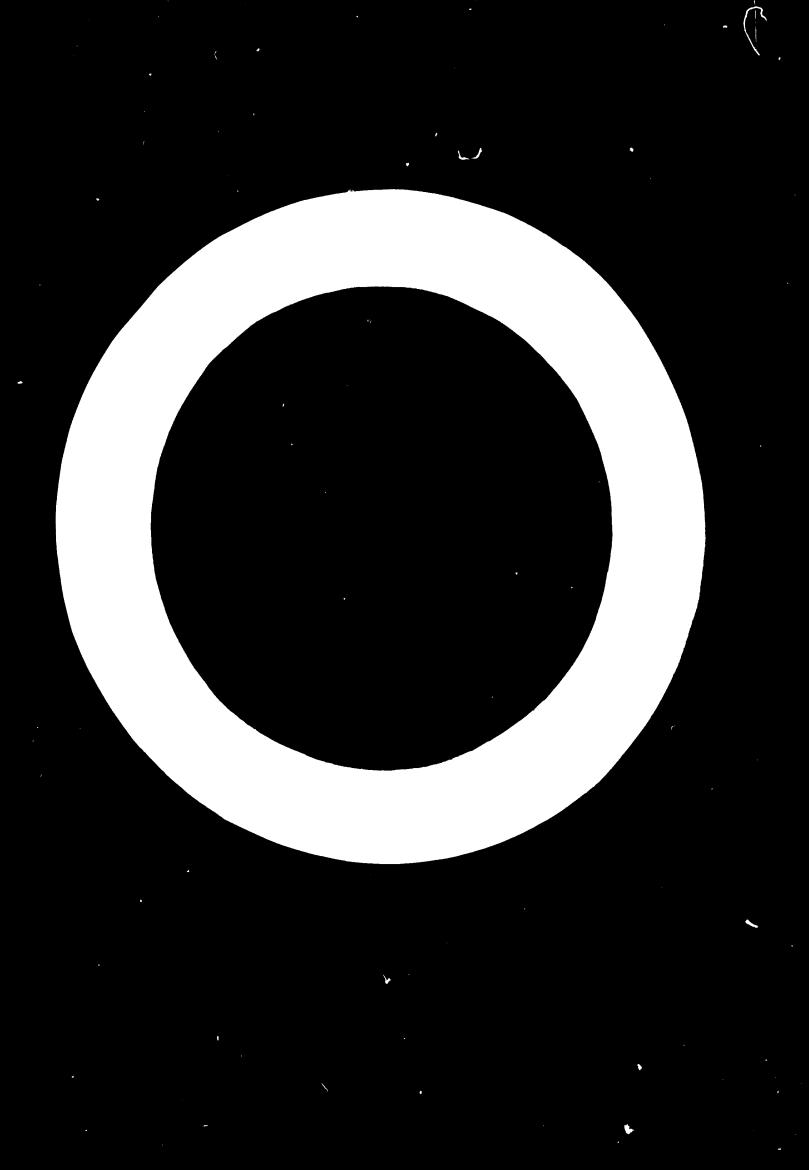
# Development of Metalworking Industries in Developing Countries

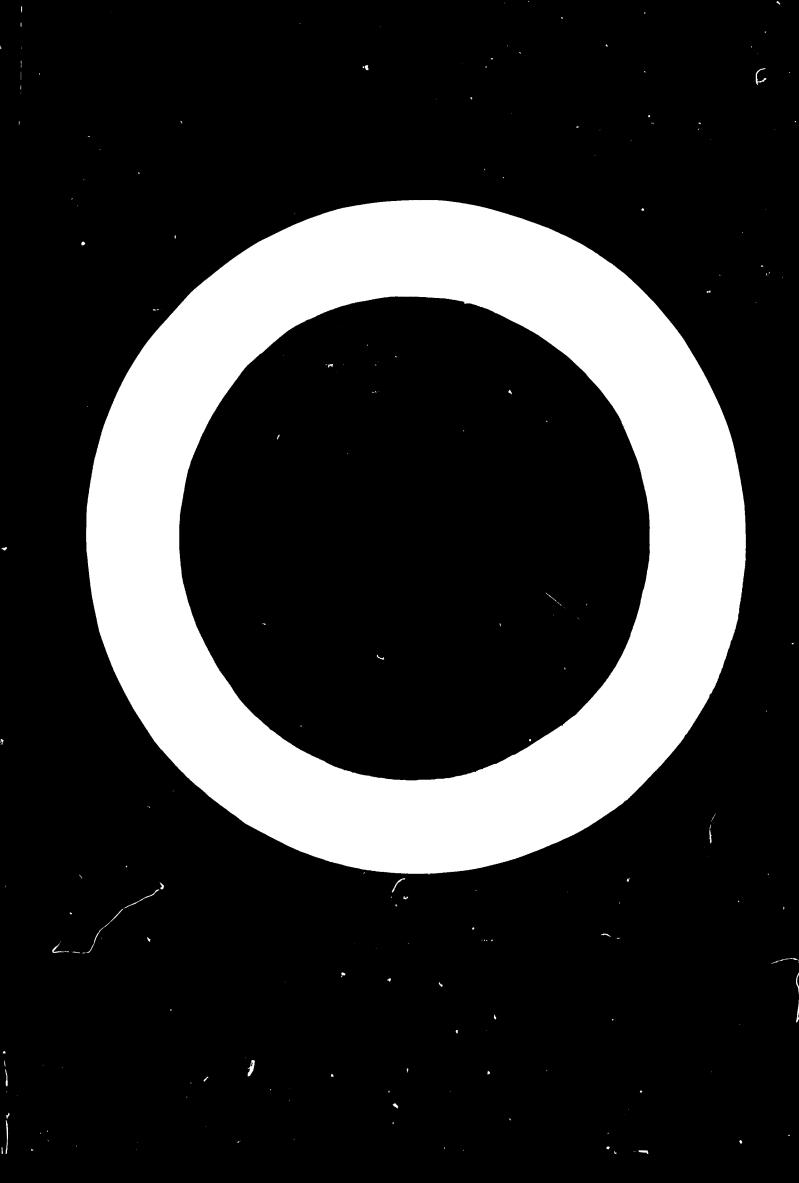
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# **CRITERIA AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR PROGRAMMING THE** MACHINE-TOOL INDUSTRY

Secretariat of the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America

Industrially developing nations which are starting the expansion of their traditional industries must evaluate the extent to which capital goods and, within this vast branch, machine tools, should be manufactured in the country.

This problem has not been posed with a view to attaining total national autonomy as regards the elaboration of capital goods, but rather to determine, quantify and qualify the type of domestic effort to be realized in front of global demand, a relationship which should be considered under a certain discipline.

One method of tackling the subject might consist of finding out whether there exists a useful historical eorrelation between national manufacture of machine tools and the size of the machine inventory used by the mechanical industries.

This should be followed by broad consideration of the predominant characteristics of the products, showing whic' are the means available to this industry for obtaining specific technical and economic results.

Both methods comprise aspects of diverse natures, not always easy to separate and ponder, as a more detailed analysis would require. In practice, different solutions may be applied to the same problem.

Because machine tools constitute the most significant investment within the mechanical industries (from 50 to 65 per cent of total fixed investment), they have now become the most popular work instrument, as were manual tools in earlier times. It seems therefore convenient to take into account their elaboration in expanding areas, paying attention also to the strategic role they have been acquiring within today's technical and economic evolution.

Thus, first in these notes, an analysis is made of some dynamic factors determining the importance of national manufacture of machine tools and of the magnitude of the inventories operating on the mechanical industries; this indirectly shows an aspect of domestic participation on apparent consumption. The successive sections deal with the industry in charge of the construction of these machines, summing up its peculiar technical problems equivalent to the various stages of development. The last section is about the usually admitted dependency between the machine-tool manufacturer and the rest of the mechanical industry, that dependency increasing in quality, volume and technique as progress is made on the construction of more complex units.

It should be pointed out that the conclusions of this essay must be interpreted as global, because though a great number of the variables in the construction of machine tools have been taken into account, there are still many more. However, once the results of the following preliminary estimates are deemed satisfactory, they can serve as a basis for carrying out the detailed study of one or more specific factors for products of a given design.

# The DOMESTIC MACHINE-TOOL INDESTRY Classification of machine tools

Because of the great number of divergent interpretations with regard to the types of machines included as such, machine tools are here defined as metalworking machines in cold and in hot, and the metal-cutting as well as metal-forming machines, leaving aside those for working wood, plastics and non-metallic materials. Within the category of metalworking machines, those indicated in table 1 have been selected because, though not representing the total means available to the mechanical industry for the manufacture of its products, they constitute a significant majority.

In practice, for the user as well as for the constructor, the denomination of lathes, milling and drilling machines, etc. is too generic, as each category has numerous variables widely differing in outline, controls, productivity, size and other factors, fn order to establish an order of magnitude concerning the number of variables applicable to each machine, two criteria have been adopted:

(a) Assume for each type of machine, lathes for example, certain variables sufficiently differentiated to individualize the operational as much as the structural and constructive characteristics;

(b) Relate each of those variables to four basic conditions of inflication: micro-mechanics, light and current mechanics and medium, semi-lieavy, and super-lieavy mechanics, which do not exist necessarily in all the variables.

On the basis of these criteria, it has been possible to quantify, for each machine, the most important types and models which together constitute the large family of machine tools in the constructors' vast world supply. Table 1 shows the results obtained: 1.037 main variants, 776 of which (75 per cent) correspond to the category of metal cutting machines, and 261 (25 per cent) to metalforming machines.

The information in table 1 cannot be free from subjective interpretations and, also, from incomplete data regarding some of the variables, in which case figures Secretariat of the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America

NUMBER OF TYPES AND MODELS OF MACHINE TOOLS IN THE WORLD MARKET

Denomination of the machines	Number of types and models
Metal-cutting machines	106
Lathes	63
Milling machines	46
Drilling machines	32
Shapers and planers	27
Threading machines	19
Saws	94
Gear-cutting machines	84
Boring machines	131
Grinding machines	43
Tool-grinding machines	30
Broaching machines	33
Lapping and honing machines	46
Special machines composed by work units.	22
Other machines of difficult classification	776
Metalworking machines	75
Machanical presses and an environment of the	54
Hydraulic presses	23
Lorenne machines	23
Monat-forming machines in cold	85
Machines for sheet	
	261
Total machine tools	1,037

should be taken rather by default. But even with all the limitations, the data appear acceptable for the purpose. Another important factor which might have been

added in combination with the above ligures, to obtain a greater number of variables, is quality. However, at this stage of the analysis, it has been deemed advisable to omit it as inclusion would not alter substantially the determination of an indicator that points out the percentage of national manufacture of the variables in front of their statistical universe, a - a function of the numerical value of the machine-tools inventory.

# **Participation** of national manufacture in relation to installed inventory of machine tools

Within the order of ideas mentioned, an endeavour will be made to determine national constructors' possible reactional behaviour, measured in the variety of types and models as a function of the numerical value of the inventory. Conceptually, two different aspects exist simultaneously within an inventory: the serial factor (purchasing power, high population, both, etc.), and the variety and complexity of the mechanical and electromechanical products manufactured. In the measure that these factors are considered to be growing, the one as well as the other will urge for the utilization of more improved technological productive means which in practice will be translated into a progressive increase in the variety of types and models of machines in use. This evolutionary process takes place under different combinations of the elements taken into account, with direct impact upon national industry. This implies admitting a priori that to equal numerical values of inventories, different actions may correspond on the part of the

constructors. Nevertheless, it does not seem arbitrary to assume that national manufacture of machine tools participates within minimum and maximum limits, susceptible of definition for the various situations.

To this end, it has been possible to reconstruct the number of types and models of machines elaborated in some countries, thus establishing percentual relationships with the previously fixed statistical universe. Interest in such an analysis is now circumscribed by knowing the behaviour of supply for countries with inventories of less than 500,000 units.

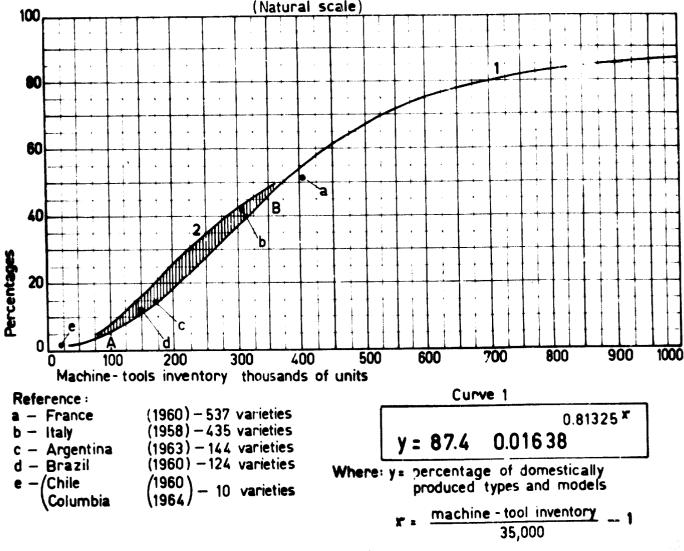
Almost all the available information derives from studies being systematically carried out in the region by the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) on the mechanical industries in general and especially on machine tools. Figure 1 shows a summary of the data, as well as an interpretation of its trend adjusted to Gompertz' curve (curve 1). It may be observed that in Latin America, when inventories are of less than 10,000 units, no construction activities of machine tools have occurred, a fact which is apparent. But when inventories are already starting, naturally polarized on the manufacture of simple machines of still delicient quality.

To attain the elaboration of forty to sixty variables of low-cost and low unit-weight machines does not altogether constitute a very significant step towards mastering this difficult technique, and its achievement is generally possible without the support of an important technological infrastructure on the rest of the industry. This first stage of supply of elementary machines, practically abandoned in countries with a high industrialization index, is in great part the result of the strong incidence of small industry and the many artisans who have proliferated in this area due to rather peculiar conditions. At any rate, it is perhaps convenient to accept, as a characteristic sign of underdeveloped countries, the fact of an operational co-existence within the same inventory, of machines with a limited technical capacity and few years use, together with others of medium and elevated category, the first ones in high proportions.

Starting from a given situation of supply, for example forty to sixty variables, or inventories of 80,000 to 100,000 units, this becomes progressively complex as the increase in the variety of types and models implies almost systematically higher standards of quality within an international pattern. In order to reach those qualitative demands, technically well-structured factories and efficient auxiliary industries are required.

Along curve 1, a position that might be called of high national effort is clearly discernible exactly between points A and B. Should this position be related to the Latin American panorama, it would broadly represent the transition from under development to a satisfactory development of the mechanical industries, comprising under the concept of development the serial aspect as well as the diversification of mechanical products. It now seems idvisable to admit that especially between points A and B different ways may exist in connexion with the position of supply and that the previous and subsequent situations to these points would present further

stability. Such ways would explain, as already said, that not always equal technological potentials correspond to equal magnitudes of inventories, with obvious repercussions upon supply; and also, that the observable differences would derive from those existing between a developed country and another in the process of development. This is clearly confirmed by comparing Argentina's and Brazil's position (less than 200,000 units installed) with dynamism in front of a given inventory. The complementation and refinement of data to be obtained in the near future will confirm whether the limits established in figure 1 through curves 1 and 2 are real and applicable to a great number of cases for countries in the process of development. Attention then will be drawn to the distortions resulting when the structure of machine tools national manufacture is bulky due to exportation of some



#### Figure 1

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INVENTORY OF THE METAL-TRANSFORMING UNDESTRIES AND THE PERCENTAGE OF DOMESTICALLY PRODUCED TYPES AND MODIUS

that of Italy and France when they had a similar number of machines which served such important sectors as aeronautic construction, that of ships of more than 10,000 tons, and the manufacture of other diversified and complex capital goods not being developed in the two Latin American countries. The machine-tool supply accompanied this process, with a consequent further diversification of types and models than those elaborated by Argentina and Brazil.

This and other examples would be better represented by curve 2 laid out empirically to illustrate those cases in which the behaviour of supply maintains its maximum of its products, a fact which was not taken into account in this preliminary outline.

Starting from situations of more than 500,000 installed units, it is easy to understand that, though the technical problems the constructors must face continue to grow, the magnitude of the market and the infrastructure that should exist in the rest of the industry constitute factors sufficiently attractive that supply adjusts itself to the requirements of internal consumption in an increasing and varying manner.

Despite the fact that the preceding notes do not intend to lead towards the formulation of exact decisions on the problem under analysis, they are explanatory enough in regard to the philosophy to be followed by those countries whose development depends upon significant apparent consumption of machine tools. There could not be important and prolonged expansion of the mechanical industry without a gradually increasing contribution from local industries constructing machine tools. The l'raming of an even partial attitude of participation in the domestic manufacture of the capital goods in question is of vital importance not only for improving the balance of payment of this item, but also for familiarization with every characteristic problem in the elaboration of machines. Manufacturers must be responsible and offer users the possibility of direct contact.

When dealing with machine-tool manufacture, different stages of supply development will be considered in an indirect manner, that is, showing which qualitative and varying production potentials may be attributed to a specific number of enterprises typified by diverse structures. From the humblest to the well-equipped, generally knowing that such initiatives get consolidated in the measure that the inventory improves in its numerical and technological aspects.

## CHARACTERISTIC PROBLEMS OF MACHINE-TOOL MANUFACTURE

#### Introduction to the subject

To facilitate research into some general laws, it seems advisable to apply a restrictive criterion to the universe of types and models of machines, selecting those with more homogeneous and similar fabrication problems. The machines used in micro-mechanics, heavy and superheavy mechanics are thus excluded, incorporating instead the ones used in current, medium and semi-heavy mechanics, which are more popular.

The unit weight of the machines is limited to approximately ten tons; the highly specialized types, such as the jig boring machines, machined units and others, are not taken into account. The same happens with the machines using numerical control programmers, etc. Despite these restrictions, the rest comprise the majority of existing variables in the world market and cover to a great extent the fabrication interests of countries with relatively small demand, concentrated on the most current types of machine tools.

The final objective of this outline is the analysis of global machine-tool manufacturing, trying to frame the technical, practical and economic fields of action of the construction enterprises. At the same time, it is intended to indicate how the "economy of scale" concept, so closely connected to the applicative effects of the machines once they have been installed in the workshops, has a different meaning when referred to the elaboration of those machines.

Unlike other sectors of the mechanical industries where the same product may be elaborated for a long time, machine-tool manufacture, with the exception of some simple types, is constantly evolving in details as well as in general composition, because of the need for more productivity at the same price, weight or power. This

situation is reflected in the fabrication series of identical products, reducing them in a sensible manner. Because composition of machine-tool inventories is related to the quality, the variety, and the series of products, when development of the mechanical industry starts, the demand for machines corresponds to elementary types for maintenance and fabrication of simple articles. As in this stage of development demand is scarcely diversified in types and models, favourable conditions are present for construction in series, above a hundred, for example, which represents a high scale in machine-tool manufacture on the order of one ton weight. However, while the number of machine tools integrating an inventory increases and new products are launched into the market, a substantial change takes place in the requirements of users who first try to obtain the type of machine best suited from the standpoint of operation technology (more variety) and then, according to the serial size, the most productive machine.

It is difficult to reconcile the interests of a very diversified demand with those of machine-tool construction in important series. Here it must be recalled that, during a period shortly before the Second World War, different production scales of mechanical manufactures were generally attained through the installation of larger or smaller numbers of equal machines. The technology trend prevailing at present, far from eliminating the multiplicity of types and models of machines, tries to find the most adequate solution to the problems. As an extreme, it might be said that for some articles maximum productivity is only achieved by means of special and complex machines, elaborated to order. In other words, the maximum production scale for the users would correspond to the minimum scale for the constructors. This indicates a certain relationship of inverse proportionality between the user's series and that of the machinetool manufacturer.

In order to condense the peculiar operative conditions upon which the sector must rely, the producers' main problems have been typilied through five sizes of machine-tool construction enterprises, assigning to them beforehand the equipment together with direct and indirect labour corresponding to predetermined manufacturing structures to produce a wide variety of types and models of machines. The possibility and convenience of elaborating given types related to each size of enterprise is then examined, considering the greatest possible number of variables in order to synthesize the most characteristic technical and economic problems of the sector.

The first two sizes of enterprise represent embryonic technical situations of an artisan type which are specially useful in countries with low industrialization indices. The last two sizes denote more advanced structures of specialized factories already able to produce complex machines for more demanding and developed markets. The other type of enterprise constitutes a sort of transition from artisan production to production of great industrial significance.

The values assumed as well as the conclusions are always indicative of intermediate situations. The basic

data related to the first three sizes of enterprise have been obtained from studies of the machine-tool industries of Argentina and Brazil. Information for the other enterprise derives from some Western European firms,

The method took account, simultaneously, of a vast ensemble of products and factories of diverse technical operative characteristics and represents an approach the ultimate objective of which is to favour the formation a selection of basic ideas with regard to the new initiatives frequently emerging from this sector in countries with mechanical industries in the process of development.

#### Variables

#### Machine, type, model, accessory

The term "machine" designates a lathe, a milling machine or an eccentric press. The type determines one of the probable variables in the construction of a machine; in milling machines, for example, there are the universal, horizontal, vertical, simplex, duplex, for splines and copying types. In its turn, the model indicates mainly the size of each type and is directly related to work capacity, installed power and other characteristics,

The type and model are usually accompanied by a series of accessories diversified in form, complexity and weight so as to offer greater utilization capacity. Production machine equipment is studied and adapted especially for specific applications such as feeders of pieces. When the producers design, manufacture and supply equipment, they are compelled to involve themselves with the production problems of the user in a much more intense way than the constructor of universal machines. At any rate, the inclusion of standard and special accessories to the normal line of production implies supplementary series of fabrication which overlap the basic problems, thus augmenting the variable factors that affect the producers.

#### Complexity index

One of the obstacles met in this study is that of classifying and comparing even approximately the difficulties of construction of the great number of machines, types and models in existence. To assert, for instance, that the elaboration of a parallel lathe is easier than that of a turret lathe of the same power, is not always true.

In order that the machines may be comparable by fabrication, it is necessary to introduce an index number Ic called "complexity index" which represents the most significant and characteristic quantity of the machining difficulties.

This Ic index may be defined as the sum of various categories of simple or compound machine elements, as:

$$1c = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5$$

where:

- $a_1$  Indicator number of the quantity of gears, internal and external splined profiles, pulleys and flywheels;
- $a_2$  Indicator number of transmission shafts, racks, movement screws and motors. The transmission shafts are related to the bearings and consequently

to the precision borers for the bearings and bushes seat:

- a3 Indicator number of the quantity of couplings, clutches, brakes, internal and external levers, all sorts of cams, and other programmers of a kinematic type. This group of elements is indicative of the degree of mechanical automatism attained by the power and control or programming transmissions;
- Number of plane surfaces and slides that support  $a_4$ those parts which being either in movement or blockaded are indispensable to determine a work cvele:
- $a_5$  Number of final and intermediate apparatus, lilters pumps and tanks belonging to the circuits of lubrication, refrigeration, pneumatic, hydraulic and mixed;<sup>1</sup> as" Number of pistons and rotors.<sup>1</sup>

It is obvious that on counting the different parts and pieces from  $a_1$  to  $a_5$  abstraction has been made of the varying degrees of machining difficulty among the elements: but it is also true that the simplification facilitates equationing the problem without altering its nature.

Figure 2 presents the estimated Ic indices for some machines: the great Ic variation occurring on the same type of machine is observable. On the basis of the estimated results of Ic indices for different machine models (without accessories or auxiliary equipments), it is possible to subdivide the variation field of *Ic* into five groups ( $Ic_1$ ,  $Ic_2$ ,  $Ic_3$ ,  $Ic_4$  and  $Ic_5$ ) which would be equivalent to:

- $J_{c_1}$  Kinematically very simple machines:
- *I*<sub>2</sub> Kinematically semi-complicated machines;
- *Ic*<sub>3</sub> Kinematically complicated machines:
- le4 Machines with complicated kinematic, hydraulic, pneumatic and lubrication circuits;
- $le_{\epsilon}$  The same machines as  $h_4$  but with programming of the work cycle through perforated, magnetic band and other advanced methods not dealt with here.

In numerical terms, the four groups could be fractionated as:

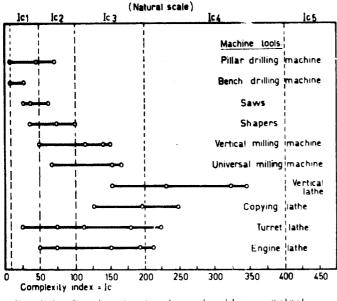
$$Ic_1$$
 from 10 to 50  
 $Ic_2$  from 50 to 100  
 $Ic_3$  from 100 to 200  
 $Ic_4$  from 200 to 400

#### Weight of machines

The weight of machines is another variable factor which constitutes an important characteristic for the manufacturers. As already demonstrated by practice, at equal complexity the machining of large pieces with a high degree of accuracy is in some ways more difficult than the smaller pieces. Actually, the heavier machines present specific problems of deformation, alignment, perpendicularity and others, proving ardnons for the producer despite the implicit admission that when augmenting its size the machine tool loses in precision as compared with the smaller ones.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For *as* and *a* == 0.5 of each element is considered when they are bought from third parties, and 2 for those machined by the same producer.

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## SELECTED MACHINE LOOLS WITHOUT ACCESSORIES.

Of course it is evident that for each size of enterprise considered further on, the same productive capacity as regards the average weight of machines cannot be assumed, as the heavier ones need a determined managerial infrastructure on equipment, technical experts and transport which can only be found in factories of certain dimensions. Practice suggests then to attribute the maximum weight of the machines they are able to produce to the different manufacturing structures. This limitation is particularly valid and applicable to the small enterprises.

## Quality of machines

The quality factor is also a significant variable that should not be ignored when analysing this sector. The verification of the quality of a machine according to Schlesinger and Salmon standards constitutes the most accepted method. It is only by means of such standards that it will be known afterwards whether the machine was manufactured within or outside the specifications. This checking is, however, not sufficient for the purpose of these notes, as no account is taken of the degrees of difficulty the constructor confronts when producing at different quality levels.

It is convenient in the first place to separate the quality of machines into four possible and real classes:

- $Q_1$  Quality of those machines in which the results of the tests are always inferior to the recommendations of maximum error in the standards:
- $Q_2$  Quality of those machines satisfactorily passing only one part of the standards tests or which, owing to inadequate materials or deficient design as a whole or in detail, work with their initial precision for only a short time:
- $Q_3$  Quality of machines always in accord with the standards and in condition to maintain the initial precision for a long time, requiring only normal maintenance;

 $Q_4$  Quality of high precision machines such as the jig boring machines, not included in this outline.

A criterion might be established right away to determine the existing relationship between the linal quality of the product and the technical attention to which its components would be subject, taking as an example the number of controls performed on each machined part.

It is a well-known fact that in order to achieve  $Q_1$ quality the use of calibres with a range from 1.20 to 1.50 millimetre is enough: also that the accuracy on the elaboration of couplings or plane surfaces is generally left to the operator. Category  $Q_2$  demands further knowledge on the part of the constructor with regard to metrology, the greater number of measuring instruments and a minimum of quality controls including even the phase of elaboration of pieces. So as to attain category  $Q_3$  manufacturers must make significant efforts, as in general the control of all machining operations is carried out in the section of specialized metrology. Naturally these three cases differ in the instrument utilized, personnel technical level and the indirect hours employed on the quality controls.

Taking now as a point of reference the number of controls the manufacturer usually performs on the components and considering tentatively that the operations may range between 4 to 6 for each part, the result is: for  $Q_1$  – one control per piece; for  $Q_2$  – from two to three controls per piece; for  $Q_3$  – from four to six controls per piece.

These data may also be transcribed thus:

one piece of four operations  $\frac{Q_1}{1} \frac{Q_2}{2} \frac{Q_3}{4}$  controls one piece of six operations 1 3 6 controls

The number of controls reflects in good measure the final result envisaged once the pieces are assembled, as well as that stricter control corresponds to more rigorous design specifications which must be verified.

From another point of view, a certain correlation may be admitted between Q qualities of the machines and 1SO work tolerances with regard to the more responsible parts and pieces forming the product. According to information gathered from various producers, that correlation could be approximately:  $Q_1$  = quality corresponding to grades 10 and 11 of ISO tolerances;  $Q_2$  = quality corresponding to grade 8 of ISO tolerances;  $Q_3$  = quality corresponding to grade 7 of ISO tolerances.

To pass from precision degree 7 to degree 8, the field of tolerance of the first piece must be multiplied by 1.56, and from degree 7 to degrees 10 and 11 by multiplying by 4.0 and 6.2 respectively. Supposing now a certain identification among the tolerance degrees and the manufacturing difficulties for obtaining the pieces under consideration, which in practice is partly confirmed, it might be said that other factors being equal, quality  $Q_1$ is 4.0 or 6.2 times easier to obtain than quality  $Q_3$  and 2.6 or 4.0 times easier to obtain than  $Q_2$ . If the tolerance criterion is combined with that of the control of pieces with similar values, and adopting intermediate situations, it will be possible to formulate comparisons, which though

abstract, lead to the meaning of starting the manufacture of products of different quality.

On the basis of the above it may broadly be admitted that:  $Q_1$  is three times easier to machine than  $Q_2$ ;  $Q_1$  is five times easier to machine than  $Q_3$ ;  $Q_2$  is 1.7 times easier to machine than  $Q_3$ .

This preliminary equation of the problem has been made with the sole purpose of illuminating how difficult it is in practice to advance on the qualitative field from an inferior quality towards another of international level. Also, that it is not possible to pass from a qualitative situation of elaboration to a superior one without changing the structure of the manufacturing equipment or extending the corresponding technical services.

#### Size of enterprises

With a view to analysing the sector in its most general aspect, it seems advisable to consider different sizes of manufacturing enterprises from the artisan to a factory with adequate technical resources available for the production of various types and models of machines.

Five typical sizes of enterprises (*Te*) have been selected. The first two (*Te*<sub>1</sub> and *Te*<sub>2</sub>) with 20 and 50 persons occupied, are characterized by the high percentage of direct or productive hours in relation to indirect or unproductive ones. They dispose of precarious production means and may therefore manufacture simple articles of low quality and low price per kilogramme. These enterprises are justified especially in those consumption areas where the demand for machine tools is still at a primary stage and maintenance and manufacture of metallic devices of elementary composition are predominant. Size *Te*<sub>3</sub> with a hundred persons, has greater technical capacity than the previous and may elaborate  $Q_3$  machines of low *I* cudex. In this dimension, the proportion of indirect personnel may even reach 28 per cent of all the personnel, favouring the quality of the product as well as the organizational structure. This size, *I*  $c_3$ , represents, however, a stage of transition in the evolution of the enterprises, rather than a well-defined point of the charge equilibrium. It is through sizes *T*  $c_4$  and *T*  $c_5$  with 250 and 500 persons that more complete minufacturing structures are leasible from a technical and organizational point of view. The percentage of indirect labour increases as referred to *I*  $c_4$ thus enabling the projection, study, testing and construction of complex products of high responsibility in  $Q_4$ quality.

For sizes above  $I_{Cs}$  not dealt with in these notes, it must be thought that the increase in the number of persons and machines would be related to more important and diversified production volumes rather than to the weight, quality and complexity factors already indicated. Certain observations and results regarding  $I_{Cs}$  may then be valid for these enterprises.

The subdivision of direct and indirect personnel derives from data collected in Argentina. Brazil and Western Europe from enterprises that concentrate their activity on machine-tool elaboration and work exclusively by means of their own designs and research. As shown in table 2 and figure 3.

The lack of a classification that allows for the exact differentiation between direct and indirect personnel might lead to various interpretations. This is the reason why in table 3 the activities here considered as indirect

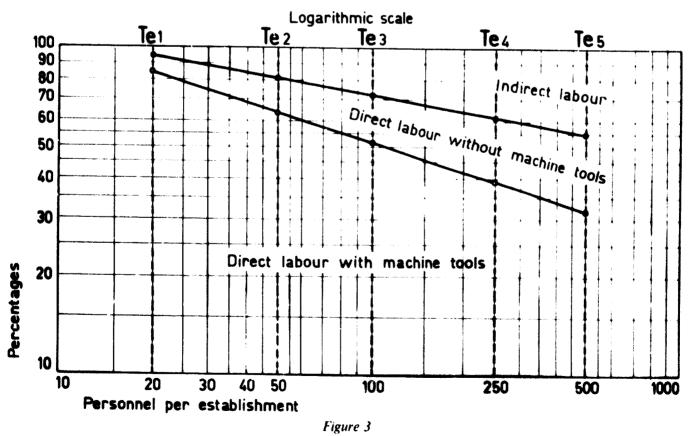




Table	2
IUNK	+

DIRECT AND INDIRECT PERSONNEL IN THE FIVE SIZES OF ENTERPRISES

				Direct pe	rsonnel				
		W it machi		With machi		Lote		India persor	
Tr	Lotal personnel	Number	Per cent	Number	Per	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Tei	20	17	85	2	10	- 19	95	1	5
Te	50	32	64	9	18	41	82	9	18
Tex	100	52	52	20	20	72	72	28	28
Tes	250	98	39	57	23	155	62	95	38
Tec	500	160	32	115	23	275	55	225	45

have been classified, pointing out the existence or absence in each size of enterprise. The other activities have been taken as direct or productive and are so accounted in order to know the real time of elaboration by pieces, assemblies and machines

#### Table 3

DESCRIPTION OF INDIRICAL ACTIVITIES

D. nomin distri	1	$I_{1}$	Ten	Te <sub>4</sub>	Te.
Workshop (workers and foremen)					
Assistant machine operator				x	X
Preparation of work on machines					N
Manual internal transports	Ň	X	x	x	
Mechanized internal transports			x	x	X
Maintenance	a	4	x	x	X
Tools	a	a	x	x	Χ
Construction of jugs		ь	b	X	١
Tool warehouse			x	х	x
General warehouse			x	x	x
Metrology section				x	X
Baling and packing				x	X
Delivery	r	c	e	x	X
Person in charge of auxiliary					
services			x	X	X
Foreman	x	х	x	x	x
Labour foreman		x	x	X	X
Worl shop (employees)					
Logineers				x	X
Technical office for piecework					
estimate					X
Technical office for jigs design				đ	X
Office for production planning .				x	x
Office for distribution of					
production cards				x	X
Co-ordination of purchases				x	x
Tesis, laboratory and research					x
Office (employees)					
Technical	e	8	x	x	x
Accounting	e	x	x	x	x
Costs			x	x	x
Administration	ſ		x	х	х
Sales	ſ	1	X	x	х
Purchases	ſ	ſ	X	x	x
Exports					X
Management			х	x	X
General services					
Cleaning	a	a	x	х	x
Conciergerie				x	x
Outside services				x	x
Outside transport				x	N
Guards				x	x

Operations by the same worker who performs productive functions. Work executed by direct operators Uses the same assembly personnel. Elaborated by the employees of the central technical office.

Collaboration of third partice part time Activities personally executed by the owner.

In this way the profound structural differences of the diverse Te sizes stand out, and consequently the diverse human technical potentials they have available to operate. Thus, after establishing criteria to define the Q qualities, Ic complexity indices and Tc sizes of enterprise, and also taking into account the machines and equipment mentioned elsewhere, it is possible to delimit the most adequate field of action for each industry, using logic compatibility and practical experience as co-ordinating elements among the multiple variables considered.

Table 4 summarizes the most probable situations which may actually happen.

Data registered in table 4 may be transcribed in the following way, bringing out the limit values of Ic information of Q.

		Ic values for	
Te	Q	Q.	Q1
т.	10 125	t0 62	
Te <sub>1</sub> Te <sub>2</sub>	10 200	t0 100	10 50
Te <sub>3</sub>	100-250	10-175	10-125
Te <sub>4</sub>	1007 2.00	100 300	50 250
Tes			100 400

Another observation derives from the work field of the enterprises: that it is necessary to differentiate between the possibility and the convenience of elaborating certain products. This situation is modified according to the size of the enterprise; relating it to the quality factor it might be said that:

Te <sub>1</sub> may manufacture products	$Q_1 Q_2 - \cdots$
Te <sub>2</sub> may manufacture products	$Q_1 Q_2 Q_3$
Te <sub>3</sub> may manufacture products	$Q_1 Q_2 Q_3$
Te <sub>4</sub> is only interested in products	$Q_2 Q_3$
Te <sub>5</sub> is only interested in products	$ Q_3$

within the previously determined Ic complexity indices.

It is understood that  $Te_4$  and  $Te_5$  are manufacturing the products of the smaller enterprises though it does not seem advisable as their prefixed structure would render this uneconomical given their high operational cost. On the contrary, the field of action defined for the first three Te corresponds to the maximum technological limits they may achieve as functions of Q and Ic.

#### **Production series**

Among the factors analysed, production series are perhaps the most variable, as in practice they are influenced by innumerable causes. Attention has already

been drawn to the fact that the order of magnitude of the series is maintained low even for Te enterprises. The diversification of types and models together with the number of different pieces comprising the machines constitute elements so characteristic of the construction of capital goods and of this sector in particular, that they prevent the serial factor from receiving the same approach as, for example, the durable consumer goods.

In order to furnish some arguments on the subject which may be applicable to several producers, the factors indicating the clasticity with which this sector should operate are:

(a) During the past fifty years, statistics have systematically shown that in diverse countries the machine-tool demand has almost always been variable in weight and in quantity :

(b) Each time, the producer tends to study the most adequate machine for the user's different "economies of scale":

in different models which is obviously reflected upon the annual series of fabrication. It may also be added that as a rule this sector tends to fractionate its total production many times in the course of the year, which naturally reduces the order of magnitude of the repetitive series. As a matter of fact, the manufacturer always tries to defend himself against the too low series, on the basis of;

(a) Launching the fabrication of small pieces once or twice a year. The storage of such pieces does not involve a significant immobilization of capital;

(b) Studying the products in order that the small mechanical pieces are common to various types and models of machines (internal unification);

(c) Maximum standardization of pieces bought from third parties (less variety of tools for their applications), including electrical material;

(d) Unifying as much as possible diametrical measures, screws, splined profiles, threads, tolerances and pieces of all types;

WORK FIELD OF THE ENTERPRISES

	<del></del>	Ic <sub>t</sub>			Ley Icy	ge condition	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ka				
Size	Q1	<b>Q</b> 2	<b>Q</b> 3	$Q_1$	Q2	$Q_3$	Q		Q,	<b>Q</b> 1	Q2	<i>Q</i> 1
Tei	10-50	10-50		50-100	50 - 62		100-125				96.55 a	ales
Te <sub>2</sub>	10-50	10-50	10 50	50-100	50 100		100-123					
Te <sub>3</sub>		10-50	10-50		50 100	50-100		100 175	100-125	200-250		
Te <sub>4</sub>			•			50 100		100 200	100 200	2007 2007	2001 3000	200-250
Tes									100-200		The stat	2001 400

(c) As a consequence, the manufacture of complementary and special equipment, sometimes more complicated than the machines themselves, assumes an increasing importance since the constructor will have to take care of them in some way, even if he does not integrate them in his production;

(d) In front of a fluctuating demand, the manufacturer shows his interest on the elaboration of different models of the same type of machine, thus ensuring a more regular sale:

(e) For the same reason, the producer's preference may be inclined towards the fabrication of more than one type of machine:

(f) The elaboration of one type of machine invarious models gives the user the impression that the manufacturer has a more thorough knowledge of his field of specialization and that therefore he is not improvising:

(g) When manufacture is divided into several models it constitutes a much stronger incentive towards the introduction of structural or marginal modifications and innovations on the products than if the case were of elaborating a unique model, since then it is not necessary to intervene on the whole production:

(h) Lastly, it may be said that the construction of one type of machine in more than one model is always a sign of prestige for its manufacturer.

From the above it is apparent that the machine-tool producer should elaborate at least one type of machine

(e) Unifying at a maximum the modules and numbers of teeth of gears;

(f) Conceiving the machines as a composition of compact groups and subgroups for the power transmission chain as well as for that of the controls, be they kinematic, hydraulic, pneumatic, of hibrication, etc., which may be joined to a carrying and functional structure having in mind their eventual adaptation to machines manufactured in different models but within the same technical line;

(g) Abandoning the traditional idea of incorporating into one-piece structures all the non-powered transmissions, that is, of low potential, to apply them externally. This would simplify in a sensible manner the machining of heavy pieces, giving at the same time more scope for possible modifications;

(h) Reducing the use of the unique source of power and installing various motors, giving among other advantages simplification derived from the diminution of distance transmissions;

(i) Designing similar pieces to perform the same function with different potentials.

The production means generally utilized on the construction of machines are almost always of a universal type. Consequently, in order that the products may be elaborated within a reasonable number of direct manhours per 100 kilogrammes (Hs/100), the manufacturer

also is compelled to give maximum attention to the auxiliary production equipment and tools.

The difficulties met when trying to establish a criterion to determine the minimum economic series of Fabrication which may be equally valid for the different product levels thus are revealed clearly. The estimate methods adopted for this purpose would only be applicable to homogeneous groups of machines and specific manufacturing situations. Furthermore, in practice, several combinations are offered to the same constructor (produce, for example various types or models of machines, each one with a different series).

As an illustration, some data are transcribed which have been provided by machine-tool manufacturers in connexton with the minimum production series for machines up to five tons. It is understood that these values do not prevail for the total production of the enterprise but only for one or a few types or models of machines.

		Minimum	Spillor Ser	s (tous)	
Te	4	2.10 5	1402	0.5 to $1$	$v^{s}$
Te <sub>1</sub>			4	9	12
Te2			5	11	15
Tes		3	6	14	18
Te <sub>4</sub>	3	4	12	20	26
Tes	4	8	16	24	32

## PRODUCTION OF THE ENTERPRISES

#### **Productive capacity expressed in tons per year**

It is possible to estimate the annual tonnage of finished products for each enterprise. Consider on one side, the total number of direct man-hours (Hs) available during one year in each Te enterprise and, on the other, the number of direct man-hours necessary to manufacture 100 kilogrammes of product (Hs 100).

Purposely, no specification has been made previously in order to do it now. The activities considered a direct owing to their closer linkage to the Hs 100 are examined herein. These are summed up for each enter prise in table 5.

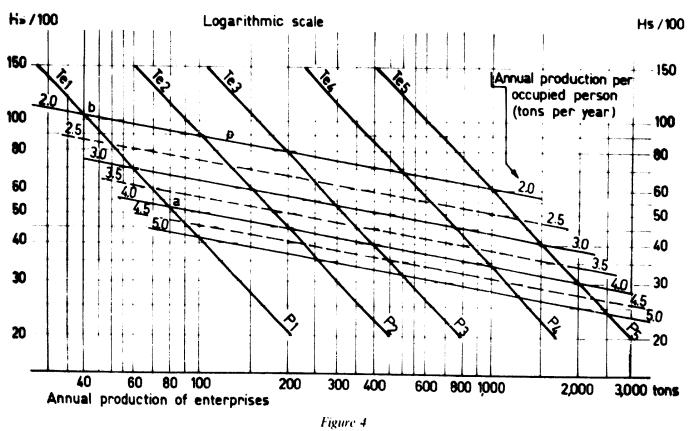
#### Table 5

## DESCRIPTION OF DIRECT ACTIVITIES

(M. minimum); S. scarce; R. regular; N. nori
--

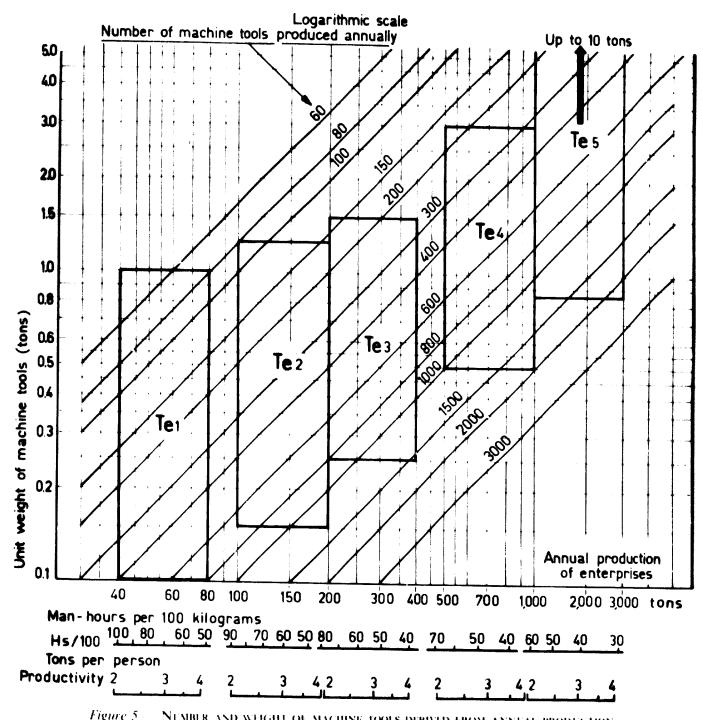
$I_{E_1}$	$I_{1}$	ter	1.4	Te
M	S	R	N	N
N	N	N	N	N
N	N	N	N	N
М	S	N	N	N
N	N	N	N	N
N	N	N	N	N
	M	R	N	Ň
		• •	-	
М	S	R	N	N
	M N M N	M S N N M S N N N N	M S R N N N N N N M S N N N N N N N	M S R N N N N N N N N N M S N N N N N N N N N N

The annual production right lines *P* marked as a function of Hs 100 are indicated in figure 4. The extension covered by them is observable as well as the superposition on the tonnage produced between one enterprise and another, which in practice is difficult to admit. Mean-while, considering that it has been verified that the production per occupied person (direct and indirect personnel) and per year normally fluctuates between



ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF ENTERPRISES AS A FUNCTION OF PRODUCTIVITY

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NUMBER AND WEIGHT OF MACHINE TOOLS DERIVED FROM ANNUAL PRODUCTION

two and four tons, it is possible to delimit the production field of the enterprises. It will then be enough to overlap to the right lines P a faggor of right lines p representing the different production values per person and per year that, when located between two and four tons, leads to the elimination of production interference between one enterprise and another. The problem thus defined gives a clear idea as a whole, enabling at the same time a glimpse of the panorama presented by those sizes above Tes.

Different observations may be formulated in connexion with figure 4. In the first place, it may be supposed that one goes from a to b along right lines P when the Ic and Q indices increase. The same happens assuming that Icand Q remain constant if bad use is made of machines

and installations, or a production is fractionated in too many types and models of machines, or both things at a time. Going from b to a, the appreciations are equal and opposite. Attention should also be drawn to the fact that 2.200 effective work hours per year have been admitted for each direct person, which is equivalent to one work shift.

# Productive capacity expressed in number of machines per year

If a determined weight unit is attributed to machines, it is easy to estimate the number Te may elaborate on the basis of already available production data in tons per year.

This situation is illustrated in figure 5 where Hs 100 scales and those of productivity per person have also been adapted for each enterprise. The action field of the enterprises is defined when possibility or convenience limits are established regarding the weight of machines, in accordance with the size of industries and taking into account:

### Te<sub>1</sub>

(a) The means for lifting and for internal transport are exclusively manual, thus making it difficult to remove heavy volumes such as east iron bodies of machines of more than one ton:

(b) The machines used are more adequate for light production:

(c) Should the constructed machines weigh more than one ton, their fabrication number per year would be low. In that case, annual invoicing would be subdivided into a few fractions, which is incompatible with the economicfinancial structure of the manufacturing artisan:

(d) In order to ensure a more regular involcing,  $Te_1$ should elaborate larger quantities of light products susceptible of being launched into production twelve times a year (monthly frequency):

(e) It may be noted that  $Te_1$  has possibilities of producing  $Q_3$  machines only if their unit weight is reduced.

In view of the above, the manufacture of products with a unit weight of more than one ton does not seem advisable for  $Te_1$ .

#### Te<sub>2</sub>

Generally speaking, the observations made for the former enterprise are also valid for  $Te_2$ .

(a) However, unlike  $Te_1$ , this enterprise is able to produce  $Q_3$  machines provided their weight is not high, for example up to 0.5 0.75 ton.

(b) It seems convenient that when this enterprise elaborates its products in two models, the maximum weight be limited to around 1.25 tons.

#### Te<sub>3</sub>

(a) Ligure 5 indicates the existence of a wider field of manufacturing possibilities as regards the weight of machines. It is assumed that  $Te_3$  is interested in the construction of at least three models of machines and for that reason the production of machines above 1.5 tons is not desirable.

(b) The technical capacity of the enterprise might allow for even heavier manufactures but with  $Q_1$  quality.

(c) For financial motives, the launchings should not be fewer than six per year when it is the case of producing only one model; for other cases, eight launchings would be recommended.

#### Te<sub>4</sub> and Tec

Within the high  $I_c$  and Q patterns assigned to them, these enterprises permit the most varied conditions of operability in respect of weight and number of machines. The limitations on the unit weight of products for these sizes refer to the minimum weight of the machines they are interested in constructing. Otherwise, should this weight be reduced in extreme, productions would result in less technical and commercial significance in contrast to prelixed structures which are considered normal within the sector.

#### Repetitive series

By repetitive series of manufacture is understood the results from the division into fractions of the annual production of a given type or model of machine as a consequence of the number of launchings in the course of a year.

Machine-tool fabrication, as with other capital goods, is characterized by discontinuity which derives from the number of times the series is repeated during the year. The most frequent quantity of launchings is in practice exactly one, two, three, four, six, eight and twelve, figures deserving some additional comments.

Generally speaking, launchings of one, two and three times a year are not acceptable for the production as a whole because the circulating capital would in such cases attain excessively high values in comparison with the economic structure of the enterprise, aftering costs in a sensible manner.

For  $Te_4$  and  $Te_5$  the most usual frequencies are four, six and eight, while eight and twelve seem more suitable for  $Te_3$ ,  $Te_2$  and  $Te_5$ . Due to a series of variable factors, among them demand which may differ according to the type and model elaborated by a single constructor, different launching frequencies may coexist within a given factory, fience it becomes practically impossible to take into account all the probable combinations that may occur.

Nevertheless, starting from already known data in figure 6 permits calculation of the magnitude of the construction series as a function of the number of Lunchings and the quantity of models.

This is of course valid for estimating the average of a manufacturing situation as well as for facilitating some of the combinations which may derive from the subdivision of total annual production for each *Te*.

#### INVISIMENT AND COSTS

#### Investment on machines for the five enterprises

Machine tools represent the greatest part of fixed total investment. The number of direct operators working with machines has already been determined for each size of enterprise; as usual, they have been assigned a machine per person. If this relationship is taken as starting-point, it is easy to compile an inventory for each enterprise which although hypothetical may be sufficiently representative regarding the form of operation of the sector. I ven if not referred to the construction of given types or models of machines, it must be acknowledged that these conditions are nearer the ideal equipment for the manufacture of metal-cutting machines than for that of metal-forming machines, since the first ones exist in a larger variet, of types and models.

The selection of the production equipment is also

made, taking into account the factors, quality, complexity and weight of the machines, in agreement with the positions adopted in this outline. Generally, the smaller firms use machines of low price and less technical resources.  $Te_3$  utilizes machines of medium value together with others of inferior quality, while for  $Te_4$  and  $Te_5$  the category of the machines integrating the inventories is of high level in terms of quality, operative resources and

Ic and Q and with equal equipment and investment, it is possible to achieve different Hs 100 values only through the more or less rational utilization of the auxiliary production equipment which in its turn depends upon the technical, imaginative and creative capacity of the indirect personnel in charge of this task.

It also may be said that if a smaller percentage of indirects is admitted for  $Te_4$  and  $Te_6$  numerically more

#### 9 8 2 Annual frequency of series 4 300 200 400 800 150 20Q 300 600 100 100 200 400 80 100 60 300 60 80 40 100 200 60 40 80 30 **3Q** 40 60 40 100 achine tools (tons) 30 20\_ 40 80 20 30 60 10 10 20 40 8 10 30 0.10 6 8 0.15 10 20 0.25 6 0.50 0.80 6 15 models 20 models models models **.0**015 mode 3.0 Š annually Number 40 of machine 6.0 8,0 10.0 5 ŝ produced Size of production series

Logarithmic scale

Figure 6

SIZE OF THE REPETITIVE SERIES ACCORDING TO ANNUAL PRODUCTION VOLUME, MANUTACLURING URIQUENCY AND MACHINE-TOOL WIGHTS

prices. Here an almost always valid observation concerning the sector under analysis should be pointed out: As the importance of the series is variable at least between the limits considered, the machines do not differ much from the universal types. Hence, automatic and semiautomatic machines are not included in the manufacturers' inventory. This is easily understood when account is taken of the great variety of pieces and the safee number of different operations required by the horication of a machine in respect to the repetitive series. Standing out once more is the importance that must be attributed to the quality of tools an i to a wider use of bes and special equipment for obtaining low Hs/100 values. This is equivalent to asserting that at parity of important inventories than these selected can be conceived. Such would be the case, among others, of enterprises working exclusively or partially through licences of foreign firms, since then the indirect personnel devoted to research studies, product and equipment projects might be replaced by productive personnel once these services would be in the charge of the industry providing the licence. Thus the number of direct hours available in one year could be increased between 15 and 5 per cent over the values adopted. As these cases fall out of the scope of the present outline, they have not been considered further. However, it would not be difficult to adjust the respective corrections within the context of these notes. The variety of the machines usually utilized in those manufactures may be appreciated in table 6, together with the distribution for the different enterprises. Here it is naturally understood that the displacement of  $Te_1$  towards  $Te_3$  implies an improvement of its quality with repercussions over the price.

In order to facilitate the interpretation of the table, some comments are added in connexion  $w^3$ th each type of enterprise.

#### Machines for $Te_1$ enterprise

The list of the machines required by this enterprise is extremely simple and offers few variants. As in this size there are no specialized sections, machines are used for direct as well as for indirect services. There are no machines to carry out special services: this is a workshop where labour is exclusively artisanal and where it is normal that the same worker executes different functions, passing from one to the other with relative facility.

#### Machines for Te<sub>2</sub> enterprise

This size is also characterized by the employment of a reduced number of indirect personnel. Its inventory of machinery is of some importance and allows it to construct machines with  $I_{c}$  and Q features which favourably meet the demands of the industrial inventories of such countries which are just starting to develop mechanical industries. As a rule, the technical and commercial guarantees which this type of enterprise may provide are not in sufficient demand to subscribe fabrication agreements through hences from foreign tirms. For them it is more common to subcontract some project services. The equipment itself as well as methods of utilization still reflect elementary technical levels.

#### Machines for $Te_{\lambda}$ enterprise

The evolution of enterprises from  $Te_1$  to  $Te_4$  and  $Te_5$ is accompanied by increasing technical and organizational capacities, starting from the artisanal system for  $Te_1$ and progressing to a complete structure, already possible for  $Te_1$  and consolidated for  $Te_5$ .  $Te_5$  offering diverse interpretations of machines, equipment and organization. This means that  $Te_5$  may represent as much of an enterprise of  $Te_5$  type, though somewhat larger, as an enterprise which is trying to develop its general structure taking as a point of reference the organization and the technoproductive results that may be achieved in superior sizes. In the present case, the selection is made with a view to the latter hypothesis which implies that beginning by  $Te_3$  it is interesting and feasible to work with licences from specialized firms.

#### Machines for Te<sub>4</sub> enterprise

When a machine-tool enterprise reaches  $Te_4$  size, the structure of almost all its sections is well delineated and the firm is in a position to elaborate products of a certain complexity and of its own design. Such an enterprise may therefore contribute in some measure to the technological evolution of the sector.

## Machines for Tes enterprise

In this size of enterprise, the preferential selection of equipment for the manufacture of metal-cutting machines is more evident. It may also be observed that in  $Te_x$ enterprises indirect machines can attain almost 9 per cent of the total, which allows internal construction of complex auxiliary production equipment. Under these conditions, rational employment of installed machinery, together with efficient administration and organization of the different sections, make possible productions with low Hs 100 values although  $I_c$  and Q might be high.

#### Other investments

This denomination covers mainly the following items:

- (a) Indirect and complementary production equipment;
- (b) Internal mechanized means of transport;
- (c) Trucks and vehicles:
- (d) Furniture and office machines:
- (e) Equipment for laboratories:
- (f) Industrial installations:
- (g) Terrain.
- (h) Buildings.

Before evaluating the probable amount of investment, the position of every enterprise with regard to these points should be defined. This is summarized in table 7.

This scheme expedites the discrimination on capital density among the different Te. On the basis of available information and taking average conditions within those normally registered in practice, it has been possible to estimate total investment by types of enterprise, as indicated in table 8.

In practice, within the same size of enterprise varied situations coexist especially as to terrain, buildings and installation values. Moreover, these values differ between one zone and another within the same country, as well as in the different countries. It is estimated, however, that the values adopted for total investment in table 8 are sufficiently indicative of the structural differences that separate the several enterprises.

#### Cost of direct man-hom

One of the more accepted methods for calculating hourly costs consists of relating all fixed expenses registered in one year with direct or productive man-hours actually available. Given its simple structure, in the smaller enterprises it is enough to assume for the direct hour an average value equal for all sectors of the factory. For  $Te_4$  and  $Te_5$ , it is preferable to establish average values for the direct hour for each group of similar machines and for the different production sections, as in these cases the hourly cost is diverse either owing to the stronger or weaker incidence of labour or to the degree of intensity of the applied capital.

According to the purpose of this outline, it is enough to present the average cost of direct hour for each enterprise so as to reduce the number of variables, already high. In this respect, the following should be kept in mind:

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Table 6

INVENTORY OF MACHINERY REQUIRED BY THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF ENFERPRISES

Denomination	$Te_{\rm F}$	Te <sub>2</sub>	Tex	Te <sub>4</sub>	Ics
Production machines		a standard i	. To make		
Parallel lathes of various dimensions	6	9	13	18	24
Screw-cutting to the				1	2
Vertical lathe	···· ,		-	1.000	1
Turret lathe			1	6	9
Copying lathe					1
Universal milling	1	1	3	5	2
Vertical milling		•	4	3	2
Horizontal miling		a consequences	•	<b>é</b>	3
Screw-cutting milling		- Constantin			i
Planning	1	2	3	4	4
Planemilling	<b>.</b> .		-	-	1
Slotting			1	1	2
Shaping	3	3	3	5	3
Horizontal boring		l	2	3	3
Vertical boring	•				2
Pillar and bench drilling.	3	6	8	12	14
Column drilling	1	1			6
Universal cylindrical grinding	1	2	2 2		67
Internal cylindrical grinning		-	<b>*</b>	2	í
Plain grinding		1	2	2	Å
Plain grinding for slides and		-	-	-	
large surfaces		****	-	1	1
Grinding for splined profiles				and the second	a 🖡 🖓
Gear cutting, I ellows type		مىلىنىد	1	2	3
Gear cutting. Maag type	Congress.	-1000-000		*****	<b>.</b>
Gear cutting, Plauter type	50.40.ar		1	1	2
Gear cutting, Barber-Colman type				مهنب	
Conical gear cutting			. Jianata	annar A	
Granding for gears		1	- 194		2
Broaching			<b>▲</b> ====	1:	<b>ź</b>
Threading, CRI-DAN type					
Straightening for shafts	-				ĩ
Saws	1	3	· · · ·	6	÷ .
Machine for sheets	i	Ĩ	2	3	
Welding	and an	1	1	2	-
Hydraulic press					2
Honing and lapping			n, iljelity at	-	1
Dynamic balancing	-				
Centre hole grinding	in provide		<del></del>	-	1
Centring shafts.		34.yzy.18		******	- 1 <u>1</u>
Dividing and engraving			-		2
Special"		مربعهد . م		2	7
Others			828 <b>1999</b>	4	
Total direct machines	17	32	52	98	160
	• /	34		20	100
Machines for tool manufacture, maintenance	and				
construction of jigs and special production					
<b>equipment</b>					
Jig boring				1	2
Precision milling			8. 		ī
Universal milling			1	1	- i
Universal grinding				1	- 1 i
Precision parallel lathe		1	1	2	3
Tool grinding	1	1	2	3	
Shaping			1	1	1
Drilling		1	1	1	2
Welding	1		App Bay Sec. 1	40. <b>a</b> u	~ ·
<b></b>					
Total indirect machines	2	3	6	10	15
Tatal investor			 #41	100	174
Total inventory	19	35	58 nited States de	108 ollary)	175
Total value of machines <sup>h</sup>	36.000	105,000	244,000	663,000	1,356,000
					7,750

Constructed or adapted in the same industry.
For simple machines, the types and prices prevailing on the Argentine and Brazilian markets have been considered.
For machines of non-Latin American origin, an overcharge of 10 per cent over the Lob, value for transport and insurance, and another of 20 per cent for internment expenditures and others have been considered.

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(a) Accounting of all direct man-hours already determined, that is those considered as productive: this is done by means of the eards enclosed with the work during its execution. The sum of all direct hours accumulated in the course of a year should coincide with the theoretical hours available, which are deduced in accord with the number of direct persons working in an enterprise. It is understood that passive times of work preparation as well as of the operational cycle proper should also be accounted for, charging them to the respective piece or machine; Evidently each Te will be characterized by a different Ch value that will increase as long as Te augments.

Table 9 presents relevant data that should be kept in mind when calculating the cost of direct man-hour on the basis of average situations occurring in the Latin American countries, with special reference to Argentina and Brazil. Once Ch has been determined, it is easy to arrive at the fixed cost per 100 kilogrammes of finished product Co 100, which if other conditions are maintained equal will be different and variable according to its productivity in each size of enterprise. In agreement

Table 7	7
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SCHEMATIC	DISTRIBUTION	(OF	INVESTMENT	, EXCLUDING	MACHINE	TOOLS
-----------	--------------	-----	------------	-------------	---------	-------

ltem	$r_{c_1}$	<b>F</b> er	tex	$T_{C4}$	Tex
(a) (b)	almost nil	scarce tackles	medium tackles	complete bridge crane and tifting tackles	complete complete
c) d) (e)	negligible	scarce	medium	yes complete	yes complete mediam
Ď	almost nit	primary	scarce	medium	complete
g)	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(h)	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes

# Table 8

ESTIMATE OF TOTAL INVESTMENT BY LYPES OF ENTERPRISE

- (Falues in thousand dollars)

Denomination	$L_{1}$	$Ie^{i\phi}$	Ica	Te <sub>4</sub>	Tes
<b>1.</b> Direct and indirect machines					
(see table 6)	36.0	105.0	244.0	663.0	1,356.0
2. Other investment (see table 7)	5.4	23.0	69,0	387.0	984.0
3. Total investment	41.4	128.0	313.0	1.050.0	2,340.0
4. Relationship of U over 3	87°.,	82 "	78 "	63 °.,	58°.,
5. Investment per occupied person	2.07	2.56	3.13	4.20	4.68
6. Investment per direct person	2.18	3.12	4.35	6,78	8.50

(b) Accounting of all expenses during the year in **connexion** with wages and salaries, social taxes, general **expenses** of operation and indirect material for consumption by the office and the workshop, as well as other **expenses** except raw materials, sales and banking **expenditures**;

(c) Amortization of all investments. In the following estimates an annual amortization of 10 per cent over the total value of investment has been considered. In fact, part of the amortization, that of indirect manufacturing equipment relative to a determined model, measurement calibres, cast iron models and others, should refer to inferior times, while the other, that of buildings and installations, allows for longer periods.

It derives that the cost of direct man-hour (Ch) will be:

$$Ch = \frac{b + c}{a}$$

with the average figures adopted, it may be pointed out that Co 100 values fluctuate between \$45 and \$150. Owing to the method followed to estimate Co-100, this represents only part of the cost, the rest being constituted by:

(a) Raw materials (cast iron, steel bars, sheet, etc.);

(b) Eventual machining subcontracted to third parties;

(c) Parts and pieces bought in the market and used directly on the assembly line;

(d) Propaganda and sales expenditures;

(e) Banking expenditures.

The sales value is obtained through the addition of gross profit to these expenses and to those indicated in table 7.

If Co 100 cost is related to the sales value of 100 kilogrammes of product (Vy 100), it follows that although an optimum unique value cannot be attributed to this rela-

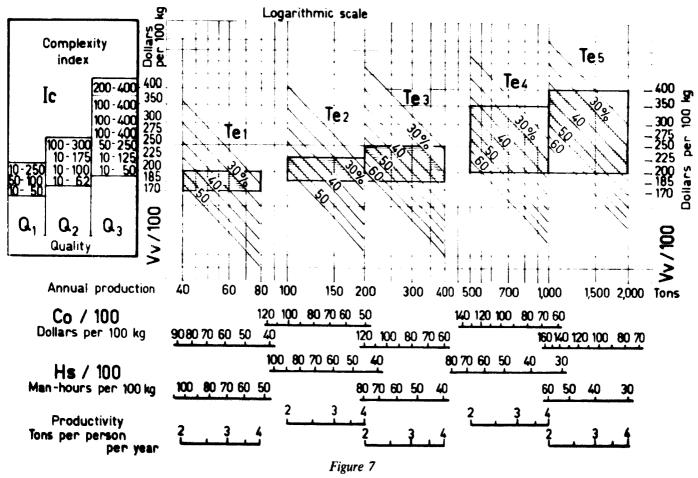
Denomination	$Ic_1$	Te <sub>2</sub>	Let 1	Tea	Les
1. Persons occupied in the enterprise	20	50	100	250	500
2. Directs (with and without machines)	19	41	72	155	275
3. Indirects	t	9	28	95	225
4. Annual hours per direct person server	2,220	2,200	2,200	2,200	2,200
5. Total direct man-bours per year	41,800	90,200	158,400	341,000	605,000
6. Annual wages of direct labour and an	10,500	27,000	55,400	126,000	242,000
7. Annual wages of indirect labour states	2,4(x)	9,000	28,000	114,000	315,000
8. Total wages (6 7)	12,900	36,000	83,400	240,000	557, (KK)
9. Social taxes and insurance					
(percentage of 8)	60	60	60	60	(4)
0. Total annual expenditure on personnel	20,640	57,600	133,440	384,000	891,200
1. Annual amortization					
(see table 8, 10 per cent)	4,140	12,800	31,400	105,000	234,000
2. Fixed general expenses per year	6,000	20,000	45,000	100,000	250,000
3. Consumption material per year	5,000	12,000	30,000	7(1,000)	140,000
4. Total fixed expenditure per year					
$(10 \pm 11 + 12 + 13)$	35,780	102,400	239,840	659,000	1,525,200
5. Cost of direct man-hour (14:5)	0.86	1.14	1.51	1.93	2.52

Table 9 BACKGROUND DATA FOR CALCULATING DIRECT MAN-HOURS

tionship, given the general terms under which the problem is framed, it is true that such a celationship keeps within practical limits of further operative feasibility of the order of 30 to 50 per cent. These are applied in figure 7 to each Te, together with the already defined data on total annual production in tons, Hs 100, Ie and Q. Thus, starting from favourable and or possible factors, the field of action of the five enterprises is clearly definited.

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As regards the correlations among quality, complexity of the product and sales value of the same, it is evident as illustrated in figure 7 that this is an empirical accommodation whose objective is to gather into a single panorama the free play of the several techno-economic variables characteristic of the sector. Furthermore, it may easily be seen that the right lines which define the percentual relationship between Co 400 and Vy 100 are



**TECHNICO-ECONOMIC FEASIBILITY OF ENTERPRISE OPERATIONS** 

tines of "equi-invoicing", that is, of equal economic effect for different technical conditions of operation.

An observation here is that  $Te_1$  and  $Te_2$  enterprises would find obstacles to productivities of the order of four tons a year per person, and this in practice is confirmed by the Argentine and Brazilian cases. In return, the other sizes of enterprise offer possibilities in this field, which is in agreement with the structures assigned to them.

## RELATIONNING BETWEEN MACHINE-LOOP MANY LACET RING ENTERPRISES AND THE UNRASTRECTERE OF THE RESEOR THE MECHANICAL INDUSTRY

It is usually admitted as a general rule that the producer depends to a greater or lesser extent upon auxiliary industries that provide him with services, specialized But for the products attributed as feasible by the rest of the enterprises, the assistance of other specialized enterprises is imperative.

It is understood that the comparison among different Hs 100 will be valid as long as the manufacture is integrated in the same namer. It must be pointed out that in practice the integration variables are not many, as the producers usually buy the cast iron material, machine it, purchase in the market the parts and pieces indicated on table 10, and machine the remaining pieces.

The group of raw materials and services mentioned in that table constitutes a point of reference about that which has been defined as infrastructure and which should consequently be consid red as a domestic activity. In accordance with the qualitative hypotheses connected with the size of the constructor, the quality demands of

Table 10
LIST OF MAIN INTERCONNEXIONS BETWEEN MACHINE-TOOL
MANUTACTURING AND AUXILIARY INDUSTRIES

Denomination	$Lc_1$	$L_{C_2}$	Te.	Te <sub>4</sub>	Te.
Raw materials and services			· •• · · · · ·	· · · ·	
Cast from (quality) Relief of stresses Variety of cast from Hardness demand of cast from Foundry of pon-ferrous (quality). Use of common steels Use of special steels Heat froatments	medium no scarce scarce medium scarce different very scarce	regular sometimes scarce scarce regular scarce reduced scarce	good sometimes sometimes good regular reduced insufficient	perfect always high rigorous perfect normal normal normal	perfect always high rigorous perfect normal normal normal
Commercial parts and proces					
Electric motors Simple elements for electric circuits Complex elements for electric circuits Elements for hydraulic circuits Elements for pneumatic circuits Elements for circuits of lubrication	common medium elementary	common almost regular elementary	common regular sometimes sometimes sometimes almost normal	special good normal correct correct good	special good frequent good good complete
Flements for circuits of refrigeration Clutches, brakes, torsional, couplings, etc Screws, screw nuts, washers and	elementary	almost regular elementary	normal scarce	good sufficient	good complete
similar items Use of precision bearings Springs of every type (quality and variety) Non-metallic accessories (use) Non-electric accessories of machines	elementary no scarce scarce	almost regular no scarce scarce	normal irregular almost regular regular	good normal complete complete	good normal complete complete
(quality) Electric accessories such as magnetic	medium	elementary	almost normal	normal	complete
plates, etc.	scarce	almost regular	sometimes regular	normal complete	complete complete

parts and pieces for the manufacture of his products, whose existence has been transformed into an indispensable infrastructure for the development of the sector. It is obvious that the magnitude of such a structure as a supporting element for machine-tool construction is enlarged, complemented and complicated in the measure that quality, complexity and sometimes even the weight of the machines increase: in other words, on direct account of the installation of firms of growing size.

Thus, the presence of factories of type  $Te_1$  and  $Te_2$  does not necessarily imply the existence of an important **auxiliary** industry as they produce quite simple machines. cast iron material go together with the increase of Te, Hence, the importance of an iron foundry, as cast iron is the basic raw material for the manufacture of machines (from 50 to 80 per cent in gross weight with regard to the weight of the finished machine). The second group of parts and pieces presented in table 10 and its respective qualitative appreciations in relation to the enterprises, deserve further comment.

In the first place, it is not indispensable that the availability in the market of all the items is conditioned by their being nationally manufactured. On the contrary, it is admissible that some of them—bearings, complex

elements for electric and hydraulic circuits, chitches and others highly specialized, for example depend upon importation. In this group, several less complicated products may also be included which are bought from local industries. Nevertheless, it is interesting that the exaggerated dependency of domestic industry upon the incorporation of certain accessories for machines would affect the elasticity of the productive process up to the point that it would be more convenient for the producers to take charge of the manufacture of parts of such elements until linding someone who could elaborate them. Similar situations have occurred in Argentina and Brazil where, only recently, firms capable of designing and constructing accessories under strict specifications are starting to emerge from the mechanical industry.

Owing to the limited equipment available to  $Te_1$ ,  $Te_2$ and  $Te_3$ , it is a normal practice for these enterprises to subcontract services for specialized machining such as

gears, splined shafts and machining of heavy pieces. Within the flexibility with which it has been intended to define the most probable field of action of the different Ic, minor cases of subcontracting of services other than usually considered would be contemplated. In general, elementary and simple machines do not need the addition of highly specialized and technically advanced elements, and that their respective unit values of sale are not too influenced by the pieces bought in the market. However, as long as the machine becomes complicated in its diverse aspects, the producer will certainly begin adding to it, in growing quantities, complements from other specialized machines, thus substantially altering the relationship between his work and the value of pieces and equipment purchased from third parties: in some very complex machines, the correspondingly high values of Vy 100 are achieved through the important contribution by other provider industries of parts and pieces.

