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WORLD MARITIME UNIVERSITY Malmö, Sweden

OPTIMUM CONTAINER HANDLING EQUIPMENT PLAN IN JAKARTA INTERNATIONAL CONTAINER TERMINAL (JICT)

A Quantitative Model Using Integer Linear Programming

By

ANDI ISNOVANDIONO The Republic of Indonesia

A dissertation submitted to the World Maritime University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

PORT MANAGEMENT

2000

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DECLARATION

I certify that all the material in this dissertation that is not my own work has been identified, and that no material included for which a degree has previously been conferred on me.

The contents of this dissertation reflect my own personal views, and are not necessarily endorsed by the University.

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DEDICATION

 $-$ *This work is sincerely dedicated to my employer, Indonesia Port Corporation II, and all my family, who has supported me*

And

 $-$ *To my father I ndaryadi, to my mother Soemartini, to my wife Sita, to my brothers Anto, Ari, and Ade, and to my sister* R etno (Alm.) —

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: **Optimum Container Handling Equipment Plan in Jakarta International Container Terminal (JICT) - A Quantitative Model Using Integer Linear Programming**

Degree: **MSc**

This dissertation discusses the procedures and ways to result the optimum equipment plan in JICT. Its purpose is to evaluate the existing equipment and propose the optimum container handling equipment plan to cope with the increase of container traffic up to 2009 and to meet the equipment demands. Ultimately, it will improve not only the performance and productivity but also the competitiveness of the terminal. The following describes how the problem should be solved.

A careful forecasting procedure of container traffic is followed to minimise the risks. It also considers the historical data of the container traffic and the changes in the environment of the JICT such as economy, trade, and transport. The data between 1994 and 1998 is used as a baseline for the forecast because of the data availability. The result shows a valid and very good forecasting model having a determinant (adjusted r^2) of 0.98. The forecast result is then used to calculate the equipment demands.

The equipment plan is done by using a mathematical method namely *Integer Linear Programming*. By using this method, a mathematical model is built and an optimum number of equipment needed is resulted with the minimum cost configuration. So, the cost-benefit analysis has been incorporated into the model. The model has also already considered a number of potential alternatives for having a suitable equipment configuration to improve the quality of handling operations. However, some assumptions have been made to build the model.

Next, the equipment plan model and the results is described and analysed. Furthermore, the results are compared with traditional way of calculating it and analysed as to plan the equipment acquisitions, investments, and policies and other element related with the results, such as cost per move. The results derived from the equipment plan model show a better equipment plan or configuration with lower investments and total cost per move of container cranes.

Finally, some conclusions are made with emphasis on the procedures to calculate an optimum equipment plan using an equipment plan model. A number of recommendations to management and for further research are also made to be able to implement the proposed equipment plan model.

Key words: JICT, Container handling equipment, Econometric approach, Container traffic forecast, Trade and GDP, A mathematical model, Optimum equipment plan, Equipment acquisitions, investments and policy.

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CHAPTER 1 Introduction

"This chapter describes the overview, identification of the problems, objectives, scope, limitations, research methodology and structure of this study"

1.1 Overview

On April 1999, Hutchinson Port Holdings (HPH) completed the purchase of a 51% stake in the newly formed Jakarta International Container Terminal (JICT) from Indonesia Port Corporation II (IPC II) and IPC II's employee cooperative, Koperasi Pegawai Maritim (Kopegmar).

JICT has been formed to operate container terminals I and II at Tanjung Priok Seaport for a period of 20 years, to upgrade its facilities and systems to world class standards, and to undertake the construction and development of additional container handling capacity adjacent to container terminal I. The upgrading and expansion of JICT will further contribute to the country's economic development in facing the globalisation of the world economy and trade liberalisation.

Globalisation of the world economy and trade liberalisation has increased the global general cargo and container volumes. As stated in his article, Peters (BIMCO Review 2000, p.26) "the global general cargo and container volumes will continue to grow for many years to come". This also happened to JICT (formerly container terminals I and II), which is the largest container terminal in Indonesia and is one of the country's most important economic gateways, where the container traffic grew dramatically from 0.18 million TEUs in 1986 to 1.53 million TEUs in 1997 or more than eight times. Although this growth slightly decreased in 1999 to 1.47 million TEUs due to the post economic crisis in Indonesia, it is believed that the container traffic will continue to grow.

----------- Introduction -----------

Despite that situation, JICT also has to fulfil the vision and mission of its mother company, IPC II, which is to be a world-class port operator. To achieve it, JICT should continuously provide high quality services as close as possible to the customer requirements. In order to do so, it is important to have an adequate inventory of the equipment, so the terminal can meet cargo handling needs and achieve its operational performance targets. In addition, "investment in port infrastructure and equipment is expensive and, given the highly dynamic and competitive nature of the maritime business, inherently risky" (McDonagh, 2000, p.24). Therefore, JICT needs to have a medium or long-term equipment plan to ensure that high quality services are being achieved with the minimum risks.

1.2 Identification of the problems

Preparing an equipment plan for the port is a complex process and full attention must be allocated to it. Furthermore, the accuracy of the equipment plan itself depends on the accuracy of the data available. If the data is not accurate, it can mislead the results. In addition, the planning process has to be carefully managed and prepared to minimise the risks. These risks can be limiting the future growth of container traffic and over-investment in equipment.

This study is trying to answer the following questions: How to deal with these risks? What problems do exist in relation with these risks? How to minimise these risks? How to determine the adequate (optimum) inventory of the equipment? What is the impact on the future of the container trade regarding investments, or costs per move? What actions should be taken to succeed the implementation of this study?

1.3 Objectives of the study

Based on the background described in the previous paragraph, this study has the following general objectives:

- To ensure that the port has an adequate number of container handling equipment to cope with the increase in container traffic;
- To improve the competitiveness and quality of services of the container terminal through better container handling equipment planning;
- To give guidelines to management in applying equipment acquisition policies and investments;
- To provide management with a tool to calculate the optimum container handling equipment plan.

1.4 Scope of the study

The scope of the study is limited to determining the container handling equipment plan in JICT.

1.5 Limitation of the study

This study does not discuss the maintenance policies and procedures comprehensively but discusses how to determine the optimum container handling equipment plan. The optimum number of equipment is based on the assumption that the availability is set at a certain level. It means that there will be higher cost for preventive maintenance to achieve such availability of the equipment.

1.6 Research methodology

For this study, the primary data was collected directly from the company and the secondary data was collected from various sources (reports, magazines, internet). Literature research was done in the library to gain necessary information. In addition, the equipment planning process was done according to UNCTAD (1990, pp. 40-41). Furthermore, to have an optimum container handling equipment, the problem was solved by a mathematical model using *integer linear programming approach* using a Quant System software.

1.7 Structure of the study

Normally when dealing with planning, there are three main modules that should be dealt with, namely forecasting, planning, and simulation. In this dissertation, the author clearly does two of them: container traffic forecasting (Chapter 3) and equipment planning (Chapter 4). The latter, simulation, is done by applying scenarios in the forecasting and equipment planning process. Therefore, for the purpose of the study, this dissertation is a divided into six chapters:

Chapter 1 Introduction. This chapter describes the overview, identification of the problems, objectives, scope, limitation, research methodology, and the structure of the study.

Chapter 2 Selected country profiles and container terminal descriptions. This chapter describes the information of particular country profiles and the container terminals in JICT including the throughput, handling system, equipment types, numbers, performances, the age, conditions, annual maintenance and running costs, and the recent development of container handling equipment to see the possibilities to apply this new development of container handling equipment. The country profiles and the terminal throughput is used to forecast the container traffic and, ultimately, to calculate the optimum equipment plan.

Chapter 3 Container traffic forecasting. This chapter describes and discusses the container traffic forecast methodology and the factors affecting the container traffic to be able to have reliable container traffic forecast by using a specific statistical method (*an econometric approach*).

*Chapter 4 Container handling equipment planning.*This chapter describes, discusses, and analyses the framework of the equipment planning process, the operational scenarios, and how this problem can be solved by a mathematical approach using integer linear programming.

Chapter 5 Analysis. This chapter discusses and analyses the optimum equipment plan model, its results, and its implications to costs per move of container cranes, the company's investments and the comparisons between the traditional way and the equipment plan model of calculating the equipment plan.

Chapter 6 Conclusions and recommendations. This chapter describes the conclusions of the study and gives the recommendations to the management of JICT and for further research.

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CHAPTER 2 Selected country profiles and container terminal descriptions

"This chapter describes selected country profiles, container terminal descriptions, and the development of container handling equipment and discusses them"

2.1 Selected country profiles

Basically, the selected country profiles discussed are economy and trade sectors. These profiles are needed to forecast the container traffic in the future.

2.1.1 Economy

Prior to independence, Indonesia's economy was oriented to providing raw materials to the Netherlands. Subsistence agriculture, primarily the production of rice, was the mainstay of most of the population; but the economy also relied on plantation agriculture, including the production of sugar and rubber. Industry was not promoted so as to avoid competing with the Netherlands.

In the 1970s, the economic policy was to expand foreign investment and increase trade. When export revenues from oil declined in the early and mid-1980s, Indonesia was forced to expand other exports. To make these exports more competitive internationally, the government deregulated parts of the economy such as coastal transportation, finance, and banking.

Indonesia's economy grew impressively during the 1980s and much more in the 1990s, largely on the strength of its natural resources, which include a large population, solid energy reserves, substantial mineral deposits, and fertile farmland.

2.1.1.1 Gross Domestic Product

Indonesia's gross domestic product (GDP) was USD 227 billion in 1996, the largest in Southeast Asia. Between 1994 and 1996, the GDP grew by about 30.9%. Between 1994 and 1996, the growth was always positive with an average growth 13.3%. But in mid-1997 an economic crisis developed in Asia whereby investors lost confidence in certain debt-laden economies. As the crisis spread to Indonesia, the value of the Indonesian currency plummeted, which threatened the capacity of the government, banks, and businesses to repay their foreign debts. As an impact, the GDP growth fell to negative (-5.1%) and even much worse in 1998 when the growth sharply declined to –56.4% (see Figure 2.1).

In addition, between 1980 and 1997 there were significant shifts in the structure of the Indonesian economy. Agriculture shrunk from 41 to 24 percent. The industry as a whole remained stable, but manufacturing, the largest component of the industry, grew from 13 to 25 percent of the GDP (see Figure 2.2). Consequently, Indonesia is more dependent on manufacturing as its main economy sources. Therefore, as a result of this crisis, in the period of January and October 1999, "the manufacturing product *export values increased* by USD 2.67 billions (or 13.80%) to USD 21.99 billions but *import values decreased* by USD 4.41 billions (or 27.28%)" (ICBS, 1999) compared with the same period the year before.

2.1.1.2 Average currency rate

Indonesia's currency value (Rupiah) sharply weakened in 1998 with the depreciation of about 71% from the 1997 value following the economic crisis which commenced in mid-1997 (see Figure 2.3). However, in 1997, Rupiah, based on average currency rate experienced depreciation of only about 19% from the previous year. In addition, between 1994 and 1998, the depreciation was about 78%. Many analysts discussed that the economic crisis spread was caused by several factors of influence, as Michel Camdesus reported in its Asia-Europe Finance Ministers Meeting in Frankfurt, Germany, January 16, 1999:

Four influences may explain this phenomenon:

- (i) common factors in the external environment, specifically the features in the global financial system that led to the large flows of volatile capital to the region;
- (ii) the spillover effects from trade and financial linkages among the countries;
- (iii) a true contagion effect, as the crisis in one country caused investors to reassess the fundamentals in other countries; and
- (iv) a number of unexpected exogenous factors, including weaker

 $-$ Selected Country Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions $-$

2.1.2 Trade

Indonesia's trade share between imports and exports between 1994 and 1997 was relatively stable (44% and 56% respectively). But in 1998, the import share was lower (36%) compared with the average share between 1994 and 1997 as the Asian crisis deepened. Exchange rate variations (the value of the Indonesian currency plummeted), which were large in the course of 1998, can have a major impact on the dollar prices of internationally traded goods. The impact is that import goods becomed more expensive and export goods becomed cheaper. That is why the total Indonesia's trade in value fell in 1998, particularly sharply for import trade (see Figure 2.4).

----------- Selected Countr y Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions -----------

In terms of value, the import trade growth in 1998 declined to -34% whilst the export trade declined to -9% (see Table 2.1). This import and export trade growth decreased sharply as compared with the average trade growth in 1994-97 (11% and 10% respectively). However, the import value in 1998 was still slightly above the import value in 1992 (i.e. USD 27,279 million).

Source: Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Industy and Trade.

2.2 Container terminal descriptions

2.2.1 The hinterland and its connections

The terminal is serving the most rapid growing hinterland area of the country from the utmost western side of Java Island until the border of Central Java. Its posistion is very strategic, surrounded by many industrial areas and some plantations. The western part is mainly industrial areas situated in Merak, Cilegon and Tangerang. The central and eastern parts are also industrial areas situated in Jakarta and Bekasi. In the southern part beginning from Cibinong, Bogor, Sukabumi, Cianjur and Bandung, there are some plantation areas that produce tea, rubber, rice, fruit and other commodities (Port of Tanjung Priok, 1997).

The terminal is connected to its hinterland by roads and railway systems as shown in Figure 2.5. The railway connections are dedicated to transport a number of particular commodities between the terminal to the inland port of Gede Bage in Bandung, the capital of West Java. The railway service is provided by a railway state-owned company called PT (Persero) Kereta Api.

Figure 2.5 Map of hinterland of the container terminal (Port of Tanjung Priok)

2.2.2 Container terminal throughput & ship calls

Container throughput in JICT is always increasing, as the world container market grows continously, except in 1998 and 1999 due to the economic crisis in Indonesia. Between 1994 and 1997, the traffic increased by almost 32% from 1.16 million TEUs to 1.53 million TEUs, while in terms of tons, the traffic increased by 27% from 10.43 to 13.29 million tons. However, because of the economic crisis, the traffic slightly decreased to 1.42 and 1.47 million TEUs or, in terms of tons, decreased to 10.59 and 12.63 million tons in 1998 and 1999 respectively (see Table 2.2).

In 1994, the number of ship calls was about 2,000 calls with an average load of 600 TEUs per ship. Furthermore, between 1995 to 1998, the number of ship calls was decreasing to around 1,600 calls, but the average load was increasing to 900 TEUs per ship. It means that, after 1994, the ship size was increasing as the growth of containerisation continued to increase (see Table 2.2).

 $-$ Selected Country Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions ------

Table 2.2

Container traffic in Jakarta International Container Terminal in TEU and Ton

2.2.3 Container terminal handling system

According to its operational features, JICT is using the *rubber-tyred gantry crane (RTG) system* for its operation. In this system, "the container yard is equipped with rubber-tyred gantry cranes for stacking and unstacking, with tractor-trailer units for quay transfer and other movements" (UNCTAD, 1986a, p. 5). Transfer between shipside and CY is carried out by tractor-trailer sets.

The RTGs pick up the containers from the roadway and move along the row to stack them in the CY while the trucks-trailer sets move off around the CY and back to the quay apron. For receipt/delivery, road vehicles are allowed onto the terminal and along the truck lane to the appropriate row. The RTGs are used solely for stacking/unstacking and moving positions within the row in the block. The terminal is also using Harbour-Mobile Cranes (MHC) to load and unload containers to and from the trucks or trailers on the quay apron, but they are not very much in use.

----------- Selected Countr y Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions -----------

In the CFS, the equipment used is forklifts with various capacities. After stripped and stuffed in the CFS, forklifts move containers to the tractor-trailers. The tractor-trailers then move them to the CY or out of the terminal. For a particular case, container handling is done by top loader or side loader. This operation is normally done to receive export empty containers from the external trailers.

The terminal is operated 24 hours a day and seven days a week with three shifts. The terminal implemented EDI to improve its services on 15 September 1997. In other cases, for the clients who have not implemented EDI, the terminal also provides a Help Desk to assist them.

2.2.4 Container terminal facilities

In total, the JICT has a total quay length of 1,410 m comprising six berths with alongside depth from –9m to –11m, whilst the seventh berth currently being equipped has a depth of –14 m. The total container yard area is 39.73 ha with an import capacity of 24,556 TEUs and an export capacity of 11,662 TEUs. Although export traffic is higher than import traffic, the import capacity is higher due to the longer dwelling time. The total CFS area is 4,500 sqm. Those figures are shown in Table 2.3.

2.2.5 Container terminal equipment

2.2.5.1 Number of equipment

Terminal I is served by 8 container cranes (CCs), 3 mobile harbour cranes (MHCs), 30 rubber-tyred gantry cranes (RTGs), 10 forklift diesel (FDs), 56 head-truck (HTs) and 63 chassis. Terminal II is served by 4 CCs, 1 MHC, 14 RTGs, 3 FDs, 15 HTs and 29 chassis (Unit Terminal Petikemas Tanjung Priok, p. 28). So in total, the JICT is served by 12 CCs and 4 MHCs, 44 RTGs, 17 FDs, 71 HTs and 92 chassis (see Figure 2.6).

Among the cranes there are some leased equipment. For the CC, there are 3 pieces of leased equipment in terminal II. For the MHC, all of the equipment is leased equipment. For the RTG, there are 9 pieces of leased equipment in terminal I and 3 pieces of leased equipment in terminal II.

2.2.5.2 Equipment performance

The JICT measures the performance of equipment by taking into account the achievement of availability, downtime, and utilisation of equipment. UNCTAD also considers these indicators as very important measures for equipment performance.

----------- Selected Countr y Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions -----------

Although the JICT divides availability of equipment into three different parts, i.e., availability equipment, availability inherent and availability occupied, for the purpose of this study, the performance of equipment is measured according to formulas introduced by UNCTAD (1990, p.3), such as: equipment availability, equipment down-time, and equipment utilisation.

Equipment availability is defined as a measure of proportion of time individual machines or classes of machines, which are accessible to operators. *Equipment downtime* is defined as a measure of the time when equipment is out of service and unavailable for use. *Equipment utilisation* is defined as a measure of proportion of the time that a machine (or category of machines) is performing useful work. The performance of the equipment by category in the JICT is described in Figure 2.7.

In general, all the equipment has a very good availability that is about 80 to 98%, except for chassis, which has the availability of 70%. In terms of utilisation, the utilisation of the RTG, head truck and chassis is lower compared with the average utilisation recommended by UNCTAD. However, this does not show the real situation since this data is based on a five-month observation. Since all MHCs are leased equipment, its performance is not shown in Figure 2.7.

2.2.5.3 The age and conditions of equipment

Equipment owned by JICT varies in brand/manufacturer and age due to the different sources of funding. This condition is normal in developing countries because there is lack of money for funding their equipment, which usually needs a huge investment. In the following, the author is trying to explain the age and conditions for each type of equipment in general.

There are three container cranes over 20 years old, one between 11 to 20 years old, and five containers below 10 years old. It can be said that 44% of the CCs are quite old equipment and constitute the main hindrance to its efficiency. In addition, there are seven RTGs over twenty years old, eight RTGs between 11 to 20 years old, and seventeen RTGs below 10 years old. The situation is better where more than 50% of the RTGs are still 'young'.

Furthermore, for forklift diesel, one of them is over 20 years old, seven of them between 11 to 20 years old and nine of them are below 10 years old. Moreover, for the head-truck, thirteen of them are between 11 to 20 years old, fortyeight of them are between 5 to 10 years old and ten of them are below 5 years old. This equipment is quite new, reliable and operational.

Finally, for chassis, fourteen of them are over 20 years old, eighteen of them are between 11 to 20 years old, fifty of them are between 5 to 10 years old, and ten of them are below 5 years old. The age breakdown for each type of the equipment is as follows.

 $-$ Selected Country Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions $-$

2.2.5.4 Annual operating (maintenance and running) costs of equipment

For the purpose of the equipment plan model, annual operating costs of equipment are taken only for container cranes. The percentage changes in USD are the same with the changes in Rupiah, that is between 10 to 17% annualy because the exchange rate applied by the company is the same i.e. Rp 8,000 per USD. However, these changes do not really represent the actual increase in annual operating costs because , in facts, the exchange rate is different. The increase in costs is calculated based on the assumption that maintenance cost changes increase as the age of equipment become older. The 1999 operating cost data, as shown in Table 2.5 were used as a base for further calculation. The complete calculation of the economic life or annual costs of the equipment (capital recovery and operating costs) is shown in Appendix 3.

From Table 2.5, it can be concluded that, coincidently, the changes of the operating costs per year of equipment are typical for particular groups of equipment. For example: 1970's Pre-Panamax cranes have annualy operating costs changes of around 10 to 11%. In addition, 1990's Panamax cranes have annual maintenance and running costs changes of around 17%.

Source: Company record.

Table 2.5

Exchange rate: 1USD = Rp. 8,000,- (1998) and Rp. 8,000,- (1999)

----------- Selected Countr y Profiles and Container Terminal Descriptions -----------

Table 2.5 also shows that the Panamax cranes have higher annual operating costs than the Pre-Panamax cranes, although Panamax cranes are much 'younger' than Pre-Panamax cranes. It can be explained because each piece of equipment has its own specifications e.g. horse power, etc., which affect the increases of the costs. For example: for a particular manufacturer, the machine or drive of the equipment is not 'suitable' in tropical climates, where the machines are often having problems with the engine so spares from the manufacturer country for repairs, are needed, which is expensive. On the other hand, for another particular manufacturer, the drive of the equipment is more reliable and needs less money to maintain. Uitlization of the individual equipment also affects the increase in costs.

2.3 The development of container handling equipment

In general, "the trend will be for container handling equipment to be cheaper to maintain which will increase its economic life but probably no more than 20 per cent" (Crook, 2000). It also means that the price of equipment may be cheaper with higher handling rate per hour. In specific cases, the container crane sizes will be bigger and bigger "dictated by increases in vessel size (notably of beam and freeboard) and container dimensions" (UNCTAD, 1986a, p. 24).

2.4 Other selected profiles

The other selected profiles are considered as other factors influencing the container traffic other than the previous ones. Those factors are container shipping fleet capacity, East Asia trade volume growth, Asia's trade volume change per annum, and GDP development in Asia. The profiles are shown in Appendix 2.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has clearly described the selected country profiles and container terminal descriptions, which are important for this study. The data of selected country profiles, container terminal figures, and other selected profiles are used to forecast the containerised traffic using *econometric approach.* In addition, some container terminal descriptions are used in relation to the equipment planning for the JICT. Those topics are discussed in the next chapter three and chapter four.

CHAPTER 3 Container traffic forecasting

"This chapter describes the container traffic forecasting and discusses the methodology used for its forecast"

3.1 Container traffic forecasting framework

To determine the optimum container handling equipment plan for long-term (i.e. ten years) planning, there has to be the procedure to deal with it. The container handling equipment needs depend on the container traffic. Therefore, a forecasting system to forecast the container traffic is needed in order to determine how much equipment is necessary. The implementation of a forecasting system requires:

- (1) identification of key environmental sectors (by correlation analysis);
- (2) forecasting of key environmental sectors (by looking at a reliable sources);
- (3) conditional forecasting for alternative strategic option (by scenarios)
- (Makridakis, Wheelwright, 1987, p.80).

To apply the procedure, it is important to identify the key environmental factors influencing container traffic. There are several causal relationships and factors that affect container traffic. The author identified that transport, trade, and economy is the environmental factors influencing the port (i.e. container traffic). To determine the relationships between container traffic and these environmental factors, an examination of the variables quantifying those environmental factors is required. For the various relationships between the container traffic and its variables, some variables will typically have a more important impact than others. The correlation between the container traffic and its variables will show this. The higher the correlation coefficient, the more important will the impact be.

After examining those variables, a forecasting model of container traffic can be build by using *multiple regression analysis (simultaneous system)*. This model has a major advantage, that is it can explain inter-relationships between dependent variables. This approach is used because the author wants to have explanatory variables influencing the container traffic. The framework for container traffic forecasting is described on Figure 3.1.

3.2 Container traffic

Container traffic in terms of TEU and Ton (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3) in JICT have continuously increased from year to year (except in 1998 as an impact of the economic crisis and it still affected growth in 1999). However, the trends in general are constantly increasing as a result of containerisation.

This continued increase in container traffic is widely expected and the port needs to anticipate this increase by planning port expansion i.e. container handling equipment. For this reason, the port has to base its expansion plans of *forecasts* rather than actual throughput figures.

Data for container traffic is taken in terms of TEU and Ton (containerised). It is also divided into imports and exports to see the proportion of this container traffic based on its activity. The figures are based on the container traffic data between 1994 and 1999 (see Table 2.2).

3.3 Forecasting methodology

The traffic forecasting methodology adopted by the author is based on an *econometric approach*. The inclusion or omission of independent variables follows testing and evaluation of numerous combinations. Generally, the statistical model that best fits historical traffic data is deemed to provide the best explanation of future trends unless otherwise suggested by analysis.

Special emphasis has been placed on monitoring and evaluating the impact on container traffic resulting from economic developments in Asia. For instance, initial predictions about the impact on container traffic to and from JICT have been quite accurate.

The author assumes that the political and general economic climates will remain conducive to growth. No assumptions are made about possible alternative political scenarios, beyond basic GDP growth as adjusted by experts to incorporate known developments such as the Asian currency crisis.

One of the challenges faced when preparing container traffic forecasts involves the availability of reliable data of historical traffic details. The collection of data and the improvement of the traffic statistic database are a continual process at JICT. The JICT draws on various data sources including those, which are available from the operational department and others. While attempts are made to reconcile any material differences between the sources of data, only one source is used on any particular data.

Historical data relating to independent variables are drawn from expert and/or official sources including the national Statistic Bureau, the World Bank, the IMF, the ADB, the ITC, and other agencies. Where the independent variables have been included in forecasting models, projections have been made based on the best judgement, supported by analyses of the relative maturity of the particular market as well as regulatory and other relevant trends.

----------- Container Traffic Forecasting -----------

Based on this condition, the approach used to forecast the container traffic should consider the environment affecting the port, such as: transport, trade, and economy and its variables (see Figure 3.4). Therefore, a multiple regression analysis is used to forecast the containerised traffic. In this approach, forecasts of changes in those variables are used to estimate the corresponding changes in container traffic.

The approach does not directly correspond with containerised traffic in terms of TEU but in ton (containerised) because it concerns about commodities, which are transported by containers. What is imported and exported by people are commodities, where containerisation is one method to transport it. Therefore, the forecast is done on the commodities in tons, which are containerised and then converted in terms of TEU by dividing the container traffic in tons by the average weight of commodities per container.

This forecasting method is selected because it is used for long-term forecasts. The forecasting method using *simple growth factor method* for a long-term forecast is not accurate because it does not consider the underlying mechanisms or factors that bring about changes in container traffic. Forecasts of various variables that influence the port (i.e. container terminal) should be used to predict the corresponding changes in container traffic.

3.4 Determinants of container traffic

As mentioned before, three different levels of environment factors influence the port. To know the determinants of containerised traffic, the variables of each sector are examined to both containerised import and export traffic. Furthermore, the variables are also examined in aggregate.

The examination of detail variables for imports and exports is done to know the factors affecting containerised traffic for each segment. Data for container traffic are available for 1994 to 1999 but not for other variables of each sector. They are available for 1994 up to 1998. Therefore, only the data for 1994 – 1998 are used as a base year for creating a model.

This part will be divided into export and import traffic and discusses the factors affecting the volume of containerised traffic for each part, which can be seen from the coefficient of correlation (r) between those variables (For details see Appendix II).

The correlation coefficient, which is symbolised by r, has a range between –1 and 1. If dependent variables increase when independent variables increase, r is positive. If dependent variables decrease when independent variables increase, r is negative. If dependent variables is unaffected by independent variables, then $r = 0$. When $r = -1$ or $r = 1$, a change in the value of independent variables is reflected by a perfectly predictable change in the value of dependent variables, and every point falls on the regression line.

3.4.1 Export traffic

3.4.1.1 Transport sector

Transport is a direct sector influencing a port. The variables examined from the transport sector are ship calls and container shipping fleet capacity. The research identified the strong relationship (see Figure 3.5) between export traffic and the ship calls and the development of container shipping fleet capacity ($r=-0.71$ and $r=0.87$) respectively).

$-$ Container Traffic Forecasting -----

There is a negative relationship between export traffic and the number of ship calls. This implies that the ship coming to the terminal becomes bigger and bigger in its size as ships carry more and more cargo with fewer calls. For the container fleet demands, it can be said that the increase in the container fleet demands reflects the increase of export goods in containers. It also shows that the export goods from the Port of Tanjung Priok (i.e. JICT) are transported more and more in unitised forms such as containers by container vessels. The major part of the export goods, which is containerised, is manufacturing goods. It is true because much of the new manufacturing or industries are located on Java, especially in Jakarta and the surrounding parts of West Java province (see Figure 2.6 Map of the hinterland of the container terminals). Despite Jakarta's congestion and other problems caused by rapid growth, it remains a very attractive location for manufacturers. The city and surrounding villages provide a large supply of labor, and the city roads, airport, and port are the best in the country.

Furthermore, it is believed that the container traffic will always increase in the future as implied from the evolution of world fleet structure where the general cargo ships are declining whilst the container ships are increasing as the demand increases because of the shippers needs. Shippers expect higher quality of services, including guaranteed delivery times, door-to-door services and zero damages. "The world total containerised goods is forecasted in 2001 will be 57.2 million TEUs with the annual forecasted growth rate of 7.1%" (DRI/McGraw-Hill and Mercer Management Consulting, 1997).

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 $-$ Container Traffic Forecasting -----

3.4.1.2. Trade sector

Trade is a sector influencing a port beyond the transport sector. The variables examined from the trade sector are foreign trade in value, East Asia trade volume growth, and trade volume change per annum. The research identified a strong relationship between the export traffic and all those variables ($r = 0.79$; -0.81; -0.72 respectively).

According to a recent publication by ICBS, the export values for the period of January - October 1999, Indonesia has seven main destination countries as follows:

- Japan (USD 8.23 billions)
- The USA (USD 5.69 billions)
- Singapore (USD 4.06 billions)
- South Korea (USD 2.65 billions)
- The People's Republic of China (USD 1.63 billions)
- Taiwan (USD 1.41 billions), and
- Germany (USD 1.02 billions)

Figure 3.6 shows that the market for export goods from Indonesia is mainly to East Asia (72.82% of seven main destination countries).

By commodity groups, the main export goods from Indonesia are manufacturing (USD 21.99 billions), which are mainly transported in containers and primary goods (USD 7.53 billions). It explains why the export of containerised traffic has strong correlation with export value from Indonesia (see Figure 3.7).

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, in the 1960s Indonesia manufactured little more than handicrafts and a few textiles, but by the mid-1990s Indonesia was producing manufactured goods that ranged from traditional crafts to aerospace products. Manufacturing in 1997 accounts for 25 percent of the GDP, up from 13 percent in 1980. Labour-intensive consumer exports, such as footwear and glassware, in particular have grown quickly.

Indonesia's main manufactured products include food and beverages, tobacco products, textiles and garments, motor vehicle parts, and electrical appliances. The main manufactured exports include wood products (veneers, plywood, and furniture), textiles, clothing, and footwear. All of these products are transported mainly in containers.

Figure 3.7 shows that the traffic is increasing, but in term of value in USD, the trend in 1998 was declining. The only reason is the depreciation in value of local currency (Indonesian Rupiah) to USD where the prices were becoming lower for export goods.

For East Asian trade volume growth and trade volume change per annum, there is a negative correlation with export traffic (see Figure 3.8). It seems that when the East Asian volume growth and trade volume change per annum fell, the export volume from Indonesia was continually increasing. It can be explained that the "Asia's export volume increased marginally, as the strong contraction of intra-Asian trade was only just off-set by a sharp rise in extra-regional flows" (World Bank, 1999). It also shows that probably JICT has performed much better than the other terminals/ports in the region.

3.4.1.3 Economy sector

Economy is a sector influencing a port beyond the trade sector. The variables examined from the economy sector are GDP, real GDP growth, average currency rate and GDP development in Asia. The research identified that there are no strong

----------- Container Traffic Forecasting -----------

relationships between the export traffic and those variables. However, real GDP growth of the country, average currency rate and GDP development in Asia demonstrate statistical significance ($r = -0.61$, 0.62, and -0.69 respectively; see Figures 3.9 and 3.10).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Indonesia's currency value (Rupiah) sharply weakened in 1998 with a depreciation of about 71% from the 1997 value following the economic crisis, which commenced in mid-1997. As the currency rate fell, Indonesia tried to export as much as possible to increase the GDP of the country.

In addition, between 1991 and 1996, Indonesia experienced the real GDP growth with an average of 8% but in 1997, due to economic crisis in Asia, the growth declined (4.9%) and in 1998 the growth was negative (-13.2%). It shows that when the real GDP growth was lower, Indonesia tried to increase its exports to have higher GDP by increasing the volume of exports. It also indicates that the demand is increasing because the importers from foreign countries benefit from lower prices because of the weakness of the Indonesian currency. They buy products from Indonesia as 'cheap' products.

3.4.2 Import traffic

3.4.2.1 Transport sector

Transport is a direct sector influencing a port. The variables examined from the transport sector are ship calls and container shipping fleet capacity. The research identified that there is no strong relationship between the import traffic and the number of ship calls and the development of container shipping fleet capacity ($r = -$ 0.13 and -0.44 respectively; see Figure 3.11).

It may be concluded that there may be no significant effects between the number of ship calls and the development of container shipping capacity to the import traffic. It implies that probably the import traffic is influenced by other factors such as the economy of the country.

3.4.2.2. Trade sector

Trade is a sector influencing a port beyond the transport sector. The variables examined from the transport sector are foreign trade, East Asian trade volume growth, and trade volume change per annum. The research identified a strong relationship between the import traffic and the import trade in value ($r = 0.97$; see Figure 3.12) and weak relationships with East Asian trade volume growth and trade volume change per annum ($r = -0.39$ and 0.42 respectively). It can be said that the decrease or increase of import traffic reflects the decrease or increase of import values.

According to a recent ICBS publication, for the import values for the period of January - October 1999, Indonesia has seven main countries of origins as follows:

- The USA (USD 2.38 billions)
- Japan (USD 2.30 billions)
- Singapore (USD 1.97 billions)
- Taiwan (USD 1.41 billions)
- Germany (USD 1.27 billions)
- South Korea (USD 1.12 billions)
- The People's Republic of China (USD 1.03 billions)

Figure 3.13 show that the biggest exporter country to Indonesia in terms of import values is the USA. However, the main exporter countries to Indonesia are still from East Asia (68.21% of seven main exporter countries to Indonesia).

By commodity groups, the most dominant import commodity to Indonesia was manufacturing products (USD 11.75 billions), which are mainly transported in containers. It explains why the import container traffic has a strong correlation with import trade in value from Indonesia. According to the National Trade Data Bank and Economic Bulletin Board-products of STAT-USA, U.S. Department of Commerce, published in "Indonesia: Economic Trends and Outlook 1999", the main commodities imported by Indonesia from the USA are: (1) computer systems and peripherals; (2) construction equipment and building materials; (2) franchises; (4) agricultural products, both for consumption and as manufacturing inputs; and (5) electric-power systems.

Regarding East Asian trade volume growth and trade volume change per annum, there are weak relationships with the import traffic (see Figure 3.14).

3.4.2.3 Economy sector

Economy is a sector influencing a port beyond the trade sector. The variables examined from the economy sector are GDP, real GDP growth, average currency rate and GDP development in Asia. The research identified that there is a strong relationship between the import traffic and those variables ($r = 0.98$; 0.85; -0.86; and 0.80 respectively).

All those variables almost perfectly represent the real mechanism in the economy. For instance, when the GDP of a country is high, people in the country tend to import more from foreign countries and import less when the GDP or their economy is low (see Figure 3.15).

The same mechanism is also true for a wider scope--the GDP development in Asia. The real GDP growth also describes the real mechanism in the economy (see Figure 3.16). For instance, when the real GDP growth is high, the country tends to import more and import less when the growth is low or even negative.

In addition, it is also true with the currency rate. When the currency rate is weak, the country tends to reduce its imports because the imported goods are too expensive to buy (see Figure 3.17).

3.5 Traffic forecasting model

The traffic forecasting model is built based on aggregate traffic and aggregate variables (not by segments—export and import) because the model gives the best statistical fit to the data (see Table 3.1).

*) The result is processed by using Quant System 3.0 software.

The author considers variables having medium correlation/stability to be included in the model so it will reduce the bias or increase the validity of the model $(0.35 < r² < 0.7)$. According to a study by ITC, a variable is considered as having a high trend stability if it has $r^2 > 0.7$, a medium trend stability if it has $0.35 < r^2 < 0.7$, a low trend stability if it has r^2 < 0.35.

Having examined those variables, it is clear that variable trade and GDP has a strong correlation with the growth of containerised traffic. To build a model, those strong variables are again examined by multiple regression to see its effects on container traffic simultaneously. The final multiple regression formula is the model for container traffic. In formula, the container traffic model can be written as follows:

Containerised Traffic = 916,889.3 + 119.9196 Trade + 5,214.068 GDP

With r^2 adjusted = 0.98075 (see Table 3.1)

Where:

- Containerised traffic = Total tonnage which is containerised;
- Trade = Total containerised trade in value terms (in million USD);
- GDP = GDP of Indonesia (in billion USD);

Based on the model, the containerised traffic is estimated to be 119.9196 times the total trade (in million USD) plus 5,214.068 times GDP (in billion USD) plus a constant of 916,889.3. This model has a very good explanatory power with an adjusted r² of 0.98075. (r² is the coefficient of determination, a statistical measure of the "explained" variation in the data as a percentage of the total variation in the data. Values for r^2 range from 0 to 1.00 so that for a simple regression model with only one explanatory variable, all the data lie on the regression line when r^2 equals 1.00—that is, there are no unexplained variations in the data. Adjusted r^2 is a measure that takes into account how many explanatory variables are used in the regression model). Based on its high-adjusted r^2 , the regression confirms that total trade and GDP of the country is very meaningful to forecast the containerised traffic for the current year.

3.6 Model validation

Model validation is accomplished by comparing base year aggregate containerised traffic and forecasted containerised traffic predicted by the model. From Figure 3.18, it can be said that the model is quite good in representing the real world although in 1999 the result was slightly different. This is due to the 1999 trade and GDP figures, which are still very roughly estimated. It is also true for the containerised traffic in terms of TEU. It can be concluded that the model is *valid to forecast* the containerised traffic in the future. Therefore, the author will use this model to forecast the containerised traffic for the next ten years (year 2000 up to 2009) with three scenarios.

3.7 Scenarios

Any forecast of future trade might be uncertain. It is hoped that the actual traffic level is closer to the central forecast than to the upper or lower forecast. So there is a risk of variation between actual and forecast traffic. To minimise this risk, we sets of different scenarios describing alternatives are needed. The author has taken the scenarios based on the factors composing the containerised traffic model, i.e. the trade and GDP of the country.

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For this study, the author will make three economic and trade scenarios based on the historical data. The first scenario is assumed as favourable economic developments (high growth). The second scenario is assumed as moderate economic developments (average growth). Finally, the third scenario is assumed as the unfavourable economic developments (low growth) (see Table 3.2). Those three scenarios are defined as follows:

 Favourable economy: The economic situation where the economic growth is assumed to be always increasing as can be seen from the annual GDP growth trends between 1994 and 1996 (see figure 2.1) when the GDP growth was influenced by the growth of manufacturing industries in the country.

> Especially in relation with manufacturing, the role of exports is often in the discussions of Asian economies. As with other countries in the region, the growing exports was an important component of Indonesia's economic success and certainly one reason for the rapid growth of its manufacturing sector (Embassy of the US in Jakarta, 1999).

- *Moderate economy:* The economic situation where the economic growth is assumed to be an average growth before the economic crisis (between year 1994 and 1996) and to continue with the same growth as the average one.
- *Unfavourable economy:* The economic situation where the economic growth is assumed to be a very slow economic growth as an effect of the banking and debt problems continuing. As mentioned in recent economic reports, "there is a little prospect that strong growth will return until there is much progress on resolve the banking and debt problems and other sectors that contributed substantially to growth in the past" (Embassy of the US in Jakarta, 1999).

The annual GDP growth range is between 10% to 16% or, in other words, with the inflation level of 4% to 6%, the annual real GDP growth lies between 6% to 10%.

The growth in the scenario above is based on the statistical calculation with a normal distribution. For examples, the probability of the country having the trade growth of 2.58% as in year 1997 is small (only 5%). Another example, which is extreme, the probability of the country having a trade growth of –19.92% as in 1998 is very small (0.0000047%). In this case, the probability of the country facing economic crisis is very small. It also means that the economic crisis is an unusual or rare event, which happened in the country.

3.8 Container traffic forecasts

Based on the model formed in the previous paragraph, the container traffic forecasts for the next ten years are figured out in Table 3.3 and the comparison between actual and forecasted traffic can be seen in Figure 3.18.

In addition, it is necessary to consider the weighted scenario of the forecasted traffic as the data used for further calculation of the equipment plan, so a single figure of forecasted traffic is obtained to calculate the equipment plan.

Based on the normal distribution, the likely outcome (scenario 2) has a probability of 68% and the favourable and unfavourable outcomes (scenario 1 and 3) have the probability of 16% each. Then, those probabilities are used to calculate the weighted scenario of forecasted traffic. The figures are shown in Figure 3.19.

The figure shows that the weighted scenario is relatively close to or slightly higher than scenario 2. This is clear because the likely outcome (scenario 2) has a much higher probability to happen compared with scenarios 1 and 3. The weighted-scenario seems realistic because it has an average growth of forecasted container traffic of 12.6%. It means that the container traffic forecasts derived from the model follows the actual container traffic growth (i.e. the average growth of 11.9% between 1992 and 1999 or 13.9% between 1991 and 1999).

Finally, to be applied into the mathematical model for optimum equipment plan, this data then is converted to the number of container movements based on the historical data. The number of container movement calculation is figured out in Appendix 3.

3.9 Analysis of the forecast results

The aggregate model of the traffic forecasts has shown a very good representation of the actual aggregate traffic (see Figure 3.17). In practice, it is important to follow the difference between the actual and the forecasted value as to allow the company to adjust its equipment plan. With every additional year of data, new forecasts can be prepared with the existing model or the model can be re-calibrated and then the forecasts can be prepared.

In addition, the accuracy of the forecasts of the model still depends on the accuracy of the economic scenarios. If economic scenarios are assumed to be accurate, the traffic-forecast result is probably accurate because the coefficient of determination (adjusted r^2) is equal 0.98 or nearly 1. It means that 98% of the variation on the total traffic can be explained as a result of the total trade and GDP of the country. However, it is necessary to emphasis that "no matter which forecasting method is employed, the results will always suffer from a high degree of uncertainty" (UNCTAD, 1995, p. 87).

CHAPTER 4 Container handling equipment planning

"This chapter describes process of determining optimum container handling equipment planning, its mathematical model, analyses its results, and discusses them"

4.1 Mathematical modelling framework

Figure 4.1 The mathematical modeling framework

The mathematical modeling framework is described to show how the model is built to represent the real problem. The model is built based on the real situation and the relationships between variables, which constitute the model. Based on this model, the optimum equipment plan for each year is then derived from the result of the model with different scenarios.

4.2 The problem solving approach

4.2.1 Key concept

Optimal resource allocation is one of the major problems of economics. Given limited resources and virtually unlimited wants, how can resources be optimize by the utility? The technique of linear programming (LP) has made an important contribution towards solving this problem. Slater and Ascroft (1990, p.306), define a linear programming as follows.

Linear Programming is a mathematical technique which yields the optimum solution to problems defined by a linear objective function subject to a set of linear constraints. Mathematically, the problem of linear programming may be stated as one of the optimizing (maximizing or minimizing) a linear objective function of the following form.

Proportionality, non-negativity, accountability for resources, and decision criterion are the assumptions behind linear programming. *Integer linear programming (ILP)* may have to be used if divisibility of products and projects, implied by the use of LP, may not be realistic. For example: number of equipment, frequency, and vice versa.

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4.2.2 Understanding the problem

Generally speaking, container handling equipment is practically divided into three areas: ship to shore equipment, shore-based handling equipment and handling equipment in the container yard. The problem solved by the model is for ship-toshore equipment (i.e. container cranes) as a base. For other types of equipment, such as RTGs, tractors/head trucks, they are calculated based on the proportion of the equipment against the container cranes applied by JICT after considering the peak factor that is the ratio of container crane : RTG : tractor/head truck = $1:4:7$. If the result from the model shows that the container cranes needed for a particular year is six units, twenty four units of RTGs and fourty-two units tractors/head trucks are needed. Then, when regarding equipment in the mathematical model, it means the model for calculating the container crane needs.

The equipment decision taken can be investment in a number of new types of equipment, expansion of existing stock of equipment and equipment replacement. This is summarised in Table 4.1.

The problem is by the increasing in future container traffic and the existing stock of equipment, how many new types of equipment are needed and when or how many similar pieces of equipment with existing equipment are needed and when or does the existing equipment need to be replaced and when and how many new pieces of equipment are needed. All these possibilities will be tried to be solved by using a mathematical method so the number of equipment needed under those categories can can give a result.

4.3 A mathematical model

4.3.1 Model formulation

A few assumptions are made to formulate this model. The assumptions are:

- spare parts and equipment are available at certain level all the time:
- capital budgets are available all the time;
- maintenance is done properly to provide the availability on average, more than 90%, although as a consequence of the old equipment the maintenance costs will increase considerably;

The limiting factor in this problem is the number of existing equipment, i.e. CCs. For each individual of existing CCs, they can not be more than one each. However, for new equipment, more than one piece of equipment can be purchased.

The company has various options, including retaining existing equipment, whether owned equipment or hire-purchase, purchasing new equipment, whether the same type as the existing equipment or new types, or hire-purchasing new equipment, whether the same type as the existing or new types. What should be done is to present a recommended configuration of the equipment to meet projected handling demands. The decision is *the lowest total annual costs and capital costs configuration*. Any configuration of equipment recommended is capable of meeting the projected daily demand of container movements.

4.3.1.1 Variables

In order to solve this problem, the decision to be made should be related to the following variables:

Existing equipment

There are 12 container cranes at present, nine of which are owned by JICT and three of them are leased from outside companies. Owned equipment is symbolised as E_1 , E_2 ,, E_9 and hire-purchased equipment as E_{10} , ..., E_{12} . Since the existing equipment is still in its economic life (during the planning period up to 2009), it is assumed that all the existing pieces of equipment are retained.

New types of equipment

It is proposed to have one new type of equipment with different specification compared with the existing equipment to be considered i.e. type A, which is symbolised as E_{13} . Type A is defined as a container crane with outreach 40 m, maximum lift 40 Ton and handling rate of 30 - 36 containers/hour (Post Panamax) with price of US\$ 6 million (or 6.78 million US\$ including erection and transportation costs).

Note:

Prices are compiled by the UNCTAD Secretariat based on 1996 manufacturers prices.

Type A is considered because JICT has had direct call services for bigger ships such as Grand Alliance ships to Nothern Europe. As stated by Simon Moore, President Director of JICT, "We believe Tanjung Priok and JICT are now ready to handle Grand Alliance vessels and we can promote Jakarta to be the hub to transship from and to other Indonesian ports" (Journal of Commerce, July 2000).

So, in the general model, the equipment is E_i (i = 1, 2,, 13).

For every equipment, there are three options: retain, buy new one, or hire-purchase. But since there is no costs data available for hire-purchase equipment of new equipment, this option is eliminated and therefore only two options are used in the model. In such a case, the hire-purchase option will be considered after the optimum result is achieved by knowing the annual total costs of particular new equipment, which is selected. The option hire-purchase is then accepted if the offer is lower or equal to the annual costs of that particular equipment. This will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Next, supposing those options i.e. retain, and buy new one as $j = 1$, 2, the variables for the model can be simplified by combining them. So, now there is equipment $E_{i,j}$. For example:

 \mathcal{B} $E_{1,2}$ means buying new equipment with the same type as equipment 1.

 \mathcal{B} $E_{10,1}$ means retaining the hire-purchase of equipment 10.

The variables focused on achieving the optimum solution are the number of equipment needed for each type or category of equipment. If buying new equipment with the same type of the old equipment (Pre-Panamax cranes) is not considered, then the number of the equipment for that type of equipment is put on the model as zero.

4.3.1.2 Constraints

The constraints considered for the model are as follows:

Daily demand of particular year (D)

Daily demand is derived from yearly forecasted container movements divided by 365 days. Hence:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{13} \sum_{j=1}^{2} h_{ij} x \mu x E_{ij} \leq D
$$

Where:

 h_{ij} = handling rates of equipment *i* options *j* (movements per hour).

 E_{ii} = number of equipment needed for equipment *i* options *j* (units).

*Utilisation of equipment (*µ*)*

Utilisation of the equipment has a limit. It should not exceeds maximum allowed Berth Occupany Ratio (BOR). In this case, the terminals have six berths and, therefore, the maximum BOR is 73.75% (interpolated according to table 3 of UNCTAD publication and maximum acceptable waiting time per service time $(Wt/St) = 10\%$).

"The evidence from European operators, most of their cranes record a utilisation of 30–60%" (UNCTAD, 1986a, p.18). However, according to a Containerization International survey, "a worldwide gantry cranes reveal a utilisation of about 25%" (UNCTAD, 1986a, p.18). This low figure is caused by the peaking factor where on some days, all berths are occupied and all cranes in operation but on other days, the berths may be empty. However, for planning purposes it is necessary to simulate the model by applying the utilisation of 35%, 40%, 45%, and 50% as a reasonable maximum limit.

 μ 35% = 8.4 hours per day or 3,066 hours per year μ 40%= 9.6 hours per day or 3.504 hours per year μ 45%= 10.8 hours per day or 3,942 hours per year ^µ *50%*= 12 hours per day or 4,380 hours per year

Maximum number of equipment

As mentioned before, only one piece of equipment is retained for each existing equipment but it can be more than one for buying and hire-purchasing equipment with the same type of the existing equipment. On the other hand, it can be more than one piece of equipment for all options of the new type of equipment.

$$
E_{1,1;} E_{2,1; \dots, L_{12,1}} = 1
$$

$$
E_{i,2} \ge 1
$$

4.3.1.3 Objective Function

For each equipment there is capital cost and operating costs. Both, existing and new piece of equipment has their own economic life. For new equipment the capital cost is its price in the current situation, while for existing owned-equipment, the capital cost is considered to be the market value of the equipment at the current time.

In addition, for both, operating costs are increasing as time goes by. The performance will probably fall, the machine will become more unreliable, and to provide high availability will be more costly.

To determine the economic life of equipment, the calculation of the discounted value of all future costs associated is needed. The costs to be included are all the costs that depend on the age of the equipment such as maintenance and running costs. Costs do not change with the age of the equipment such as labour costs and power; this, should not be included. The costs are incurred over period of time, and must be discounted to present value.

In this study, the increase in operating costs for new equipment are assumed to be 3% for the first 5 year and increase 1% every 5 years afterwards. The initial operating costs vary based on historical data in the company. This principle is applied both for existing and new equipment. "For economic life calculations the assumptions is made that the costs increase each year for items of equipment that deteriorate because of increased maintenance" (UNCTAD, 1990b, p.9). Furthermore, according to UNCTAD (1990b, p.9),

the following rules apply for minimizing costs:

- **Rule 1:** If the cost of replacing every $n + 1$ years is less than the cost of replacing every *n* years, the item should not be replaced.
- **Rule 2**: If the cost of replacing every *n + 1* years is greater than the cost of replacing every *n* years, the item should be replaced.

The objective function of the model is based on this principle, i.e. as long as the equipment used is still in its economic life period, the Equivalent Uniform Annual Cost (EUAC) or Capital Recovery Cost or annual total costs (T_{ii}) is uniform at the minimum. It is assumed that the equipment is used until it reaches its economic life. After exceeding its economic life, the EUAC is increased continually. Therefore, to minimise the costs, the objective function is given by :

$$
\left\{\n\begin{array}{cc}\n\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{13} & 2 \\
\text{14} & \text{15}\n\end{array}\n\right\}\n\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{13} & 2 \\
\text{15} & \text{15}\n\end{array}\n\right.\n\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{13} & 2 \\
\text{15} & \text{15}\n\end{array}\n\right.\n\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{16} & \text{16} \\
\text{17} & \text{17}\n\end{array}\n\right.\n\right\}
$$

Where:

 T_{ii} = Annual total costs of equipment *i* option *j*.

 C_{ij} = Capital cost of equipment *i* option *j*.

Hence the formulation is complete.

4.3.2 Data needed to use the model

4.3.2.1 Handling rate

The handling rate of container cranes is varied. Logically, for old equipment, the handling rate is lower than the newer equipment.

 ----------- Container Handling Equipment Planning -----------

4.3.2.2 Daily demand for handling operations in quay side

The daily demand of handling operations in quay side is derived from annual demand divided by the number of days a year (i.e. 365 days). The daily demand in container moves of the equipment is shown in Table 4.3.

4.3.2.3 Total annual costs

Total annual costs are the sum of annual capital recovery costs and annual operating costs. The costs calculated are the costs for existing equipment, new equipment with the same type of the existing equipment and new equipment of the new type of equipment, and hire-purchase equipment. New equipment with the same type of existing equipment is considered only for the Panamax cranes because, nowadays, Pre-Panamax cranes are out of date with the currrent situation. Therefore, to buy new equipment with the same type as CC-02A, CC-01, CC-02, and CC-03 is not considered anymore.

For hire-purchase equipment, the situation is different. The three hirepurchase pieces of equipment are two Panamax cranes hired for five years starting in 1996 (Hire purchase 2 and 3) and one Pre-Panamax crane hired for five years starting in 1997 (Hire purchase 1). The terminal is not responsible for maintenance and running costs of the equipment. Therefore, after five years they become the possession of the terminal. The hire cost is based on the type and conditions of the containers. The cost for 40' container is 49 USD for full containers and 44 USD for empty containers. Similarly, the cost for 20' container is 31 USD for full containers and 28 USD for empty containers. The total annual costs are calculated based on these figures. However, it is assumed that the cranes are handling these containers with certain proportion of different types of containers (in this case 1999 proportion is used) and the utilisation of 30% or 2,628 hours per year. Then, the total annual costs are calculated by weighted average costs based on the 1999 proportion multiplied by number of moves per year. The calculation of weighted average cost per moves is as follows:

For example: The total annual costs for equipment hire purchase 1. Total annual costs= utilisation hours x handling rate per hour x 39.1 USD

 $= 2.628 \times 14 \times 39.1$

 $= 1,434,888$ USD per year for 5 years.

The same calculation method is applied for the other two hire purchase equipment. After 5 years, because the equipment is becoming the possession of the terminal, the operating costs become the responsibility of the terminal. Then, the operating costs pattern after the cranes are transferred to the terminal is assumed to be the same as for other cranes (see Appendix 4). The summary of total annual costs of equipment is summarised in Table 4.4.

4.3.2.4 Capital costs of the equipment

Capital costs is the costs for buying one new piece of equipment (i.e. price of the equipment + installment costs). It is assumed that the price of a new Panamax is 5,650,000 USD and that of a Post Panamax is 6,780,000 USD (1996 prices, UNCTAD Secretariat).

4.4 The solution

The solution is derived from the calculation resulting from the Quant System software. The result is the optimum result considering the minimum total annual costs of the equipment combined with minimum capital costs. Following is an example of the mathematical model for calculating the optimum equipment plan with the assumption that the average utilisation of equipment is 35% for year 2000.

Objective function: min: {(Total annual costs) + (capital costs)}

 ${(334,987X_{1,1} + 455,010X_{2,1} + 462,405X_{3,1} + 411,331X_{4,1} + 569,279X_{5,1} + 619,959X_{6,1} + 171,331X_{6,1} + 171,331X_{$ 610,064X_{7,1} + 617,335X_{8,1} + 616,743X_{9,1} + 786,188X_{10,1} + 1,065,900X_{11,1} + 1,065,900X_{12,1} + $0X_{13,1} + 334,987X_{1,2} + 455,010X_{2,2} + 462,405X_{3,2} + 411,331X_{4,2} + 599,767X_{567,2} + 617,039X_{89,2}$ + 786,188 $X_{10,2}$ + 1,065,900 $X_{11,2}$ + 1,065,900 $X_{12,2}$ + 927,320 $X_{13,2}$) + (0 $X_{1,2}$ + 0 $X_{2,2}$ + 0 $X_{3,2}$ + $0X_{4,2} + 5{,}650{,}000X_{567,2} + 5{,}650{,}000X_{89,2} + 0X_{10,2} + 0X_{11,2} + 0X_{12,2} + 6{,}780{,}000X_{13,2}$

Constraints:

Daily demand:

1) $168X_{1,1} + 168X_{2,1} + 168X_{3,1} + 168X_{4,1} + 210X_{5,1} + 210X_{6,1} + 210X_{7,1} + 210X_{8,1} + 210X_{9,1} +$ $118X_{10,1}$ + $185X_{11,1}$ + $185X_{12,1}$ + $0X_{13,1}$ + $168X_{1,2}$ + $168X_{2,2}$ + $168X_{3,2}$ + $168X_{4,2}$ + $210X_{567,2}$ + 210X89,2 + 118X10,2 + 185X11,2 + 185X12,2 + 252X13,2 ≥ **2,819**

Maximum number of existing equipment:

- 2) $X_{1,1} = 1$
- 3) $X_{2,1} = 1$
- 4) $X_{3,1} = 1$
- 5) $X_{4,1} = 1$
- 6) $X_{5,1} = 1$
- 7) $X_{6,1} = 1$
- 8) $X_{7.1} = 1$
- 9) $X_{8,1} = 1$
- 10) $X_{9,1} = 1$
- 11) $X_{10,1} = 1$
- 12) $X_{11,1} = 1$
-
- 13) $X_{12,1} = 1$
- 14) X1,2 **= 0** (Buying new equipment is not considered to this option/Pre-Panamax)
- 15) $X_{2,2} = 0$ (Buying new equipment is not considered to this option/Pre-Panamax)
- 16) X3,2 **= 0** (Buying new equipment is not considered to this option/Pre-Panamax)
- 17) X4,2 **= 0** (Buying new equipment is not considered to this option/Pre-Panamax)
- 18) $X_{10,2} = 0$ (New hire-purchase option for this type is not considered anymore)
- 19) $X_{11,2} = 0$ (New hire-purchase option for this type is not considered anymore)
- 20) $X_{12,2} = 0$ (New hire-purchase option for this type is not considered anymore)

This process is then iterated year by year up to the year 2009. The same process is also applied to other utilisation scenarios. The optimum configuration of new container cranes and investments needed are summarised in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 can be interpreted in various ways:

- 1. If the container cranes (existing and new) are planned to be utilised by 40%, 2 new Panamax cranes and 11.3 million USD of investment are needed to cope with the traffic in 2000; or
- 2. If the company has limited resources i.e. a budget of 10 million USD for container cranes in 2001, to be able to cope with the traffic, the company needs to buy one new Post-Panamax crane and all container cranes (existing and new) should be utilised by 45%; or
- 3. If the company does not have budgets for buying container cranes in 2001, the existing equipment should be utilised by 50% and vice versa.

The comparison of the number of container cranes needed for different utilisation levels is shown in Figure 4.2.

----------- Container Handling Equipment Planning -----------

4.5 The optimum equipment plan and acquisition policy

The completion of the optimum equipment plan is calculated on the basis of the ratio applied by JICT after considering the *Peak Factor* that is CC: RTG: tractor/head truck = 1: 4: 7. This ratio is higher compared with the ratio introduced by UNCTAD that is 2: 3: 10. However, this ratio has not yet been considered the peaking factor. For chassis, as applied in JICT, the ratio between tractor-trailers sets: chassis (single deck) is 1: 1.2. For forklift diesel, which is used to handle the LCL containers in CFS, the ratio used between CC: forklift diesel = 1: 1 (UNCTAD, 1986a, p. 60). This is quite reasonable since the LCL containers are only about 0.2% – 0.3% of the total containers throughput between 1998 and 1999.

The optimum equipment plan has also reviewed the performance, age and condition, to determine which assets should be replaced or disposed during the planning period. As mentioned before, for container cranes, all existing equipment is still in its economic life during the planning period i.e. upto 2009. The economic life of other pieces of equipment is assumed to be 20 years for RTG and 15 years for tractor/head truck, chassis, and forklift diesel. The complete optimum equipment plan and acquisition policy is described in Appendix 6.

4.6 Summary

The equipment plan model (specifically for container cranes) is made as *a tool* for the management to calculate the optimum equipment plan that can meet the cargo handling demands with the lowest total annual costs and capital costs configuration. Compared ith a traditional way of calculating an ipment plan i.e. by dividing the daily handling demand with the average handling rate multiplied utilisation hours per day without considering its costs, the equipment plan model is better, in a way, because it considers the cost factors incorporated into the model. In addition, the model also considers when to purchase the Panamax or Post Panamax and how many according to the demand level with a low cost configuration. The traditional way can not do this. The comparison between calculation using the traditional way and this model is discussed in Chapter 5. It is evident that the model gives a result of the container cranes configuration with the lowest capital costs or investments and lower cost per move compared with the traditional result.

In this study, the optimum equipment plan is made with four utilisation scenarios of container cranes i.e. 35, 40, 45 and 50%. Based on the result derived from the model, the equipment plan for other pieces of equipment is calculated with the ratio applied by JICT. The decision to be made, for which scenario of equipment plan to be selected, depends on the management to decide. If the management believes that the average utilisation of the equipment that can be achieved is 40%, then the management should use the equipment plan with the 40% scenario and vice versa (see Appendix 6).

 ----------- Container Handling Equipment Planning -----------

The optimum equipment plan resulting from this study is made to provide *guidelines* to management for what should be done if they believe a certain utilisation level of container cranes can be achieved. Chapter 5 will try to discuss and analyse the equipment plan model and its results more in depth.
CHAPTER 5 Analysis

"This chapter discusses and analyses the optimum container handling equipment plan model and its results, especially for container cranes and compares the results generated by the traditional way and the equipment plan model"

5.1 Analysis of the equipment plan model

In this study, the equipment plan model is especially made for calculating the optimum number of container cranes, whereas the other pieces of equipment are calculated on the ratio basis applied by JICT. The equipment plan model is a useful tool for equipment planning particularly if the company wants to have cost-effective equipment planning. Not only does it consider the economic life, handling rates, and annual costs of the equipment but also capital costs or investments needed to buy new equipment. By this model, the equipment configuration resulting from the model has the minimum total annual costs and capital costs configuration, and ultimately, it will give lower costs of equipment per move.

In addition, since the author does not have enough data, some assumptions have been made to be able to make the model representative enough to solve the problem. It would be more interesting if there are some data for a group of equipment e.g. Panamax cranes or Post Panamax cranes from different manufacturers with different prices, lifetime costs and options e.g. buying new one or leasing/hire purchase. If so, the model will have more 'life'; in other words, it really represents the real life in doing equipment selection. The author tried to contact some manufacturers about the prices, lifetime costs, and options of the equipment via e-mail, but none of the manufacturers gave the author feedback. Therefore, only the prices provided by UNCTAD are used in the model for new equipment.

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ Analysis $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

In this study, the author only considers Post Panamax cranes as new type of equipment since it is not the right choice to consider Super Post Panamax cranes to be included in the model because of the type of ships calling at the terminal. Most of the ship calls at the terminal are feeder ships and very few Post Panamax ships. Super Post Panamax cranes should be considered if there is a possibility to have big container ships of around 6,000 TEUs capacity or more calling to the terminal.

In addition, it will also be more interesting if there are budget constraints applied into the model. This can not be done because the author does not have any information about the budgets for buying container cranes from the company. If all the data are available, the model can be developed further. This is recommended for further research.

5.2 Analysis of the optimum equipment plan

5.2.1 Container cranes

5.2.1.1 Existing equipment

All the 12 existing container cranes, whether owned or hire-purchased, are still retained because they are still in their economic life during the planning period i.e. up to the year 2009.

For the owned equipment, the economic life of the closest owned container cranes will end in 2020 i.e CC-03 and, then, CC-02, CC-04, CC-05 and CC-06 in 2021 (see Appendix 4 for details). Then, these owned container cranes should be replaced with the same or other types depending on the result of the model if applying such situation into the model with certain traffic levels on that particular year and certain utilisation levels.

It is also observed that for old owned container cranes (Pre-Panamax: CC-02A, CC01), they have longer economic life because their maintenance cost patterns are better than those above. It may happen because probably these old oild pieces of equipment are still more reliable compared with those above although they are older. This can be seen from their operating costs which are lower (see Appendix 4).

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ Analysis $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

For existing hire-purchased equipment, whether Pre-Panamax type or Panamax type, the total annual cost is higher than the similar type owned by the company. For hire-purchased Pre-Panamax cranes, the total annual cost is US\$ 786,188, whereas the typical annual total cost for Pre-Panamax cranes is around US\$ 350,000 – 460,000. In addition, for hire-purchased Panamax cranes, the total annual cost is US\$ 1,065,900 whereas the typical total annual cost for Panamax cranes is around US\$ 550,000 – 650,000. This is due to the high capital cost during the first five years for hiring this equipment before it is transferred to JICT.

The capital cost is calculated on the basis of US\$ 39.1 per move and a utilisation level of 30% or 2,628 hours per year. In fact, for Panamax container cranes (e.g. hire-purchase 2 and 3) with the utilisation and handling rates remaining the same, the cost per move for hire-purchase should lie between *US\$ 18.8 – 22.7* to achieve the annual total costs around US\$ 550,000 – 650,000 (assumed the operating costs pattern as it is—see Appendix 4).

Therefore, in the future, when hiring the hire-purchase equipment, the company should consider or calculate the annual total costs or cost per move of the equipment. The annual total costs or cost per move of hire-purchase equipment should be equal or might be slightly higher compared with the typical type of such equipment.

5.2.1.2 New equipment

As mentioned before, buying the new Pre-Panamax cranes is not considered to be used anymore as they have already been 'out of date' to be applied because most of the shipping lines are more interested in the equipment with higher handling rates.

According to the ship type calls at the terminal, the suitable container cranes to serve them are Panamax type and Post Panamax type. Based on the result, for Panamax cranes, the equipment selected is equipment from the **Noell** manufacturer having an average total annual costs of US\$ 599,767. This equipment has lower total annual costs compared with the **Guna Nusa** manufacturer having an average

----------- Analysis -----------

annual total costs of US\$ 617,039. For Post-Panamax cranes, since there is no data from which manufaturer the equipment is, it is said as a Post Panamax crane (price according to UNCTAD, 1996 price) regardless its manufacturer.

The number of new container cranes needed, depends on management to decide according to their utilisation level that can be achieved (see Appendix 6).

5.2.2 Other container handling equipment

Since other pieces of container handling equipment, such as: RTG, tractor/head truck, chassis, and forklift diesel are calculated on the ratio basis, there is no deep analysis of their total annual costs. What is important is their configuration to the total equipment plan and acquisitions policy to meet container handling demands (see Appendix 6).

5.3 Investments

Investments needed are calculated according to the optimum equipment plan as described in Appendix 6. The calculation is based on the price list prepared by UNCTAD (1996 prices). The prices (including erection and/or transport costs) used are:

- US\$ 6.78 million for a Post-Panamax container crane with outreach 40m, maximum lift 40 T and handling rate 30 – 36 boxes/hour;
- US\$ 5.65 million for Panamax crane with outreach 25m, maximum lift 40 T and handling rate 18 – 24 boxes/hour;
- $\&$ US\$ 1.92 million for RTG with span 20 24 m, maximum lift 40 T and lift height of 1 over 4;
- US\$ 0.11 million for Tractor/headtruck;
- US\$ 0,0165 million for single chassis with load capacity 45 T;

The calculation of investments needed for different utilisation scenarios for the year 2000 up to 2009 are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Table 5.1 shows that the less the utilisation of the equipment, the higher the investment needed. For example, with a utilisation of 35% the cumulative investment needed up to the year 2009 is US\$ 433 million, while if the equipment is utilised by 50%, the cumulative investment needed is only US\$ 271 million or 37.4% less.

----------- Analysis -----------

It shows how important it is to increase the utilisation of assets so as to reduce the costs of equipment. It means that the company needs to increase the utilisation of existing assets to have lower costs and lower capital investments as its strategies. This strategy is recommended by UNCTAD to be able to achieve competitive advantage through the cost leadership strategy (UNCTAD, 1993).

5.4 Cost per move of container cranes

According to the calculation, the average cost per move of container cranes resulting from the model for the planning period up to 2009 is US \$ 8.9 for utilisation 35%, US \$ 7.9 for utilisation 40%, US \$ 7.1 for utilisation 45%, and US \$ 6.5 for utilisation 50% (see Appendix 7). This average cost per move is resulted from the use of the combination of existing, new Panamax and new Post Panamax cranes.

The result shows that it is evident that the higher the utilisation of assets, the lower the unity costs or cost per move of the equipment.

5.5 Comparisons between traditional way and the model

The comparisons between the traditional way of calculating the equipment plan and the model are needed so as to prove whether the equipment plan model is useful or not. Since the model is applied only for calculating the optimum equipment plan for container cranes, the comparisons for other pieces of equipment are not carried out.

In the traditional way, there are two calculations examined for buying new equipment. They are "all Panamax cranes" and "all Post-Panamax cranes". These options are selected because the traditional way can not determine the combination of Panamax cranes and Post-Panamax cranes e.g. when to buy Panamax or Post-Panamax cranes, and how many units are needed on a particular year for Panamax or Post-Panamax cranes. In the "equipment plan model", there is one calculation for buying new equipment that is a combination between Panamax and Post-Panamax cranes. This model can also determine when and how many units Panamax and Post-Panamax cranes should be bought with lower total annual costs and capital investments. Therefore, the comparisons are carried out on these three options.

 $-$ *Analysis* $-$

The comparison shows that, for all the utilisation scenarios during the planning period up to 2009, the "equipment plan model" gives the best solution having equal or lower average cost per move with the lowest capital investments, except cost per move for utilisation scenario of 35%, which is slightly higher. This might be caused by the rounding up of the calculation.

The result shows clearly that the "equipment plan model" is a useful tool for calculating the optimum equipment plan. It is apparent that the "model" gives a better solution because the calculation takes into account their handling rates, economic life, total annual costs, and capital investments. For example: on the utilisation scenario of 40%, the "model" generates an average cost per move of US \$ 7.9 with the cumulative capital investments of US \$ 133.34 million. For "all Panamax scenario", although it generates the same average cost per move of US \$ 7.9 as the "model", it needs higher capital investments, that is US \$ 135.60 million. For "all Post-Panamax scenario", it generates higher cost per move of US \$ 8.9 and capital investments of US \$ 162.72 million. This is also true for other utilisation scenarios (see Figure 5.1; see Apendix 7 for details). Therefore, this model is a good tool to help the management in making a decision concerning the container handling equipment plan.

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ Analysis $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

Despite of the economic comparisons, following are the other comparisons among the "equipment plan model", "all Panamax" and "all Post-Panamax":

"All Panamax"

- k Lower unit costs;
- Higher capital costs/investments;
- Not deal with the market developments meaning that it can not serve Post-Panamax ships.

"All Post-Panamax"

- be Higher unit costs;
- Higher capital costs/investments;
- Over capacity although it deal with the market developments where the trend is the ships becomes bigger and bigger.

"Model"

- k Lower unit costs;
- Optimum capital costs/investments;
- Optimum capacity and, furthermore, it deals with the market developments meaning that it can serve Post-Panamax ships.

5.6 Summary

From the analysis, it can be summarised that the equipment plan model is a useful tool for the company to calculate an optimum container handling equipment plan. In addition, based on the results of the model, it is also useful for the company to prepare annual budgets for the container handling equipment and set up tariffs. The equipment plan which resulted has an economical strength meaning that the company can achieve a competitive advantage through cost leadership because the equipment plan configuration has lower unity costs. Lower unity costs means that the equipment plan also has considered the optimum capacity of the equipment to cope with the demand by minimising the unused capacity while it still has enough inventory to cope with the container handling demands. Chapter 6 will conclude the result of this study and give some recommendations to the management to be able to apply this study in practice and for further research.

CHAPTER 6 Conclusions and Recommendations

"This chapter describes the conclusions and recommendations related with the optimum container handling equipment plan and the equipment plan model"

6.1 Conclusions

From this study, it can be concluded that:

- JICT experienced a dramatic growth in container traffic from 0.18 TEUs in 1986 to 1.53 million TEUs in 1997 or more than eight times in the period of eleven years. This growth is believed to be continued in the future as an impact of the globalisation of the world economy and trade liberalisation.
- To be a world class operator, JICT has to provide high quality services as close as possible to the customers' requirements. One way to do so is to have an adequate or optimum inventory of equipment to meet cargo handling demands along with the growth of the container traffic.
- To have an optimum inventory of equipment, JICT has to provide considerable investments in infrastructure and expensive equipment, which is inherently risky if the proper procedures are not carried out. Therefore, a careful container traffic forecast has been done to minimise the risks of the investments in equipment.
- The container traffic forecast is done by using an *econometric approach* because the containerisation is closely related with the commodity transported in containers. In other words, the trade in commodities depends on the macro economic condition of the country.
- According to the study, container traffic in JICT primarilly depends on the trade and GDP of the country as those variables have an adjusted r^2 or determinants of 0.98 or very close to 1. It means that 98% of the variation of the container traffic can be explained as a result of the variations in trade and GDP of the country. Therefore, the container traffic forecast in JICT is calculated based on this container traffic forecasting model.
- To minimise the risks, the container traffic forecast is done by applying three scenarios on the model. The scenarios are favourable economy, moderate economy and unfavourable economy. For the purpose of calculating the equipment plan, the weighted average scenario is used. The container traffic forecast seems to be realistic because it has the average growth of 12.6%. It means that the weighted scenario follows the average growth of container traffic in JICT, that is the average growth of 11.9% between 1992 and 1999 or 13.9% between 1991 and 1999.
- & Although the equipment plan model seems to be theoretical, the optimum equipment plan derived from the equipment plan model using a mathematical model i.e. integer linear programming approach gives a better result compared with the traditional way of calculating it although some assumptions have been made to make the model more realistic. This is becaused the cost-benefit analysis has been incorporated into the model. The results show that the equipment plan model gives **lower costs per move with lowest capital investments**. Therefore, the equipment plan model is **a useful tool** for management to prepare an optimum equipment plan.
- The results also provide **guidelines** to the management regarding the optimum equipment plan, equipment acquisitions, and capital investments needed with different utilisation scenarios, which are useful for the management to make a decision concerning the equipment. The utilisation scenario is used as a base for making a decision. If the management believes that a 45% utilisation scenario is the utilisation level that can be achieved, then the equipment plan, equipment acquisitions, and capital investments should be based on the results of the 45% utilisation scenario. The model also gives a guideline to the management to make a decision concerning hire purchase or lease equipment.

6.2 Recommendations

6.2.1 Recommendations for JICT

To have a better container handling equipment plan by using the equipment plan model, JICT should:

- provide a reliable costs record for the equipment, which is important in order to have cost effectiveness in applying equipment plan policies.
- establish an effective Equipment Management Information System (EMIS) as a part of the Management Information System (MIS), which is a major constraint on port equipment plan and maintenance.
- ask for lifetime costs from the equipment suppliers to have better references about the equipment itself.
- δ train and involve staff in calculating the optimum equipment plan by following the procedures.
- <u> $\&$ </u> include the equipment plan in the port's corporate plan.

6.2.2 Recommendations for further research

Because of lack of the data available, such as prices and lease costs of different types of new cranes with different manufacturers and lifetime costs of the existing and new cranes, some limitations have been made into the equipment plan model. So, for example: only type A, in general, of new cranes is considered into the model to represent the Post-Panamax type but no lease option of it because of unavailable data.

Furthermore, for Panamax cranes, only one price (according to UNCTAD) is considered to represent two different manufacturers. In addition, the calculation of the lifetime cost is also made on the assumption that the costs increase by 3% in the first 5 years and will continue to increase by 1 % every 5 years afterwards with the percentage of initial maintenance and running costs varying according to the historical data available in the company. Therefore, if all the data available, following are some recommendations proposed for further research:

----------- Conclusions and Recommendations -----------

- Considering the hire-purchase or lease and buy options of different type of container cranes with different manufacturers to have real choices of various manufacturers available on the market.
- Considering Super Post Panamax cranes into the equipment plan model to see their effects on the equipment configuration and economies of scale, if there is a possibility for JICT to receive Super Post Panamax ships.
- Adding budget or financial constraints to the model to have a more realistic model representing real practices.

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Appendix 1

The age and conditions of the equipment (September 1999)

Source:

Company record.

Appendix 2

Correlation between container traffic and other related data (base year: 1994 – 1998)

Appendix 3 Number of container movements for forecasted container traffic (2000 – 2009)

Note:

Daily container movements for container traffic can be calculated by dividing the total number of TEU per year by average TEU per container for the last four year (i.e. 1.47 see the table below) multiply 365 (number of days per year). In fomula:

Daily moves = Total number of TEU per year/(TEU per container x 365)

Appendix 4

 Unit: \$ US

Economic life calculations of equipment (container cranes)

Container Crane 02A: Mitsui: 30.5T: 1992: Made 1972 (Used/secondhand equipment) (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

 $\overline{\hspace{1ex}}$) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

 $Year 1 = year 2000$; Economic life end at 2023.
The first 2-year the costs increase by 8% and c

The first 2-year the costs increase by 8% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 02: Sumitomo: 50T: 1978: Retrofit 1998: Made 1976 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2021.

The first 3-year the costs increase by 7% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

 Unit: \$ US

Container Crane 03: Sumitomo: 50T: 1978: Retrofit 1997: Made 1976 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

 $\overline{}$ Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2020.

The first 3-year the costs increase by 7% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 01: Sumitomo: 35.5 T: 1986: Retrofit 1998: Made 1983 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2027.

The first 2-year the costs increase by 5% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane Hire-purchase 1: Hitachi (Pre-Panamax): Made 1976 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 1997; Economic life end at 2021.

The first 5-year the costs increase by 8% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 04: Noell: 40T: 1992: Made 1992 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2021.
The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and c

The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 05: Noell: 40T: 1992: Retrofit 1997: Made 1992 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

 $\overline{ }$ Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2021.
■ The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and c

The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 06: Noell: 40T: 1992: Retrofit 1997: Made 1992 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

■ Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2023.
■ The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and o

The first 2-year the costs increase by 4% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

 Unit: \$ US

Container Crane 07: Gunanusa: 35T: 1997: Made 1997 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2025.

The first 2-year the costs increase by 3% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Container Crane 08: Gunanusa: 35T: 1997:Made 1997 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

 \blacktriangleright Year 1= year 2000; Economic life end at 2026.

The first 2-year the costs increase by 3% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

----------- Appendix 4 ----------

Container Crane Hire-purchase 2: Mitsui: Panamax: Made 1983 (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate) Leased: 1996; Transferred: 2001

 Unit: \$ US

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 1996; Economic life end at 2032.

The first 3-year the costs increase by 6% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

----------- Appendix 4 ----------

Container Crane Hire-purchase 3: Mitsui: Panamax (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

Year 1= year 1996; Economic life end at 2032.

The first 3-year the costs increase by 6% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

----------- Appendix 4 ----------

Container Crane Type A (Assuming no residual value and a 12% discount rate)

Note:

*) Maintenance and running costs, including all attachments and year's supply of spareparts.

■ Year 1= year when the equipment is purchased; Economic life end after 35 years.

The first 5-year the costs increase by 3% and continue to increase by 1% every 5 year afterwards.

Appendix 5 Summary of optimal solutions using Quant System 3.0 software

UTILISATION 35%

UTILISATION 40%

Solution Summary for 2008 UTILISATION 40 -------------------+

UTILISATION 45%

100

UTILISATION 50%

Appendix 6 Optimum container handling equipment plan (2000 - 2009)

Utilisation level: 35%

Utilisation level: 40%

Utilisation level: 45%

Utilisation level: 50%

Appendix 7

The comparison of the number of container cranes needed, cost per move, and capital investment needed between the traditional way and the equipment plan model

Utilisation 35%

Utilisation 40%

2009											
Units needed											
24											
20											
20											
3											
Ave.											
7.9 7.4											
8.8 8.9											
7.5 7.9											
Investment needed (million \$)											
135.60											
115.26 135.60 162.72											
92.66 110.74 133.34											

Note:

Investment for a Panamax crane= US \$ 5.65 million.

Investment for a Post Panamax crane= US \$ 6.78 million.

Utilisation 45%

Utilisation 50%

Note:

Investment for a Panamax crane= US \$ 5.65 million.

Investment for a Post Panamax crane= US \$ 6.78 million.