



PROJECT/PRESCRIPTIVE DECISION ANALYTICS

OPTIMUM ALLOCATION OF MANUFACTURING PLANT
LOCATIONS AND DISTRIBUTION

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This project describes a model that employs linear programming to resolve a network problem, determining the optimum allocation of manufacturing plant production numbers and the optimum distribution of units to meet demand for automotive manufacturers. It analyses a hypothetical scenario closely based on the situation of supply chain and logistics of a German automaker. The model aims to reduce both financial cost and CO₂ emissions. The model is able to produce considerable reductions to financial cost and particularly substantial reductions to CO₂ emissions relative to schemes that do not use linear programming. It could be improved by using more detailed data to cover a greater scope, and it could potentially be adapted to make further improvements to supply chain and distribution networks by focusing on different network elements to further improve the efficiency.

PROJECT

Introduction

In this project, prescriptive analytics will be used to solve a problem related to factory assignment and service network design for a globally operating automotive manufacturer. In this scenario, München Motoren (MM) is an automotive manufacturer based in Germany and a competitor of BMW. In the past, it manufactured all its cars within Germany but now owns a set of manufacturing plants around the world. For one of its most popular models, the Class 3 compact car, it generally manufactured all cars in the respective regions in which they were to be sold and shipped them to regional hubs which would then deliver the cars within the region.

For the next generation of the Class 3, MM have identified some potential points for improvement. Firstly, while the regions generally make sense, there are some points which may be causing unnecessary costs in shipping, and new plants have been built that could potentially be utilised.

Secondly, industries are increasingly being required to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in order to combat climate change. This naturally places pressure on the automotive industry and while the main focus is on developing zero-emission vehicles (Vidovic, 2021), the logistical supply chain is also being placed under the spotlight (Dunn, 2022). Freight transportation is a significant contributor to carbon dioxide emissions and companies could reduce emissions and cost by looking at alternative shipping arrangements (Demir, et al., 2016, p. 790). MM would like to work out the most optimal locations to produce cars and subsequently the most optimal distribution network in terms of both cost and CO₂ emissions, looking at both rail and marine shipping modes.

This report will present a linear optimisation model that incorporates elements of assignment problems (Newton, 2021) and service network design problems (Farvolden & Powell, 1994, p. 256). It will take in focus on the costs—both financial and environmental—of transport to work out the optimal allocation of vehicle production to global manufacturing plants and subsequently the optimal distribution to regional demand hubs. The model is used to produce optimal solutions in terms of financial cost, CO₂ emissions, and a balance of the two. The model uses average cost and emissions data per tonne-kilometre and applies it to the length (in kilometres) of the land and sea shipping routes between nodes. It also calculates general labour costs of production at the facilities confirmed.

The model in this report serves to provide a good general model of where to build the cars and how to deliver them on a global level, however it should be noted that it does not cover the entire supply chain, and it could benefit from more comprehensive, first-hand information from automotive makers and logistics companies. Nonetheless, it will give a good guide on how to use linear programming to increase the financial and environmental efficiency of building and delivering cars when they are manufactured and delivered worldwide.

Problem Definition and Model

Globalisation has had a significant impact on the automotive industry. These days, automobile manufacturers have expanded production from their home countries to make cars in several countries to save on labour costs and meet demand in emerging markets (Socco, 2017). The German car industry is certainly no exception. BMW operates 31 manufacturing plants worldwide (BMW Group, 2021, p. 36). Mercedes-Benz has a production network extending to four continents (Mercedes-Benz Group AG, 2015). The Volkswagen Group, itself incorporating a range of global brands these days, runs 120 production plants worldwide (Volkswagen Group Rus, 2023). This has turned the supply chains of automakers into complex networks that may require complex methods to use efficiently.

Traditionally, financial cost has been the primary concern for manufacturers when optimising supply chains, but recently environmental sustainability has also become a major issue (Umpfenbach, et al., 2018, p. 272). Many automotive manufacturers, including BMW (BMW Group, 2021, p. 39), are aware of this and are actively making efforts to make their businesses more sustainable. Automakers have been pursuing methods to make their supply chains “greener” not only for their own interests, but also for their customers (Simpson, et al., 2007, p. 29).

The shipping industry is similarly concerned, with freight transportation being a large source of greenhouse gases (Greene, 2023). The industry is looking into multimodal transportation as a way to be more environmentally friendly (Demir, et al., 2016, pp. 789-790), with the low emissions of rail transportation in particular focus (ESCAP, 2021, p. 14). When focusing on lowering emissions in the distribution of freight, rail transportation should also be considered for the solution.

Linear programming models are a popular method for solving the network problems that pervade supply chain management and logistics (Cardoso Pires & Morosini Frazzon, 2016, p. 198). Such methods have been used to model green intermodal service network design problems for freight transport (Demir, et al., 2016), as well as to model an entire supply chain in the building of cars (Masoud, 2014). Therefore, to solve this problem that relates to automotive supply chain logistics, it would be advantageous to adapt a transportation problem with elements of assignment (Newton, 2021) and network design problems. The nature of this problem is suitable for using data to analyse ideal scenarios, making it a good fit for resolution by prescriptive analytics (Segal, 2022).

Solution Approach

This problem is fundamentally a network problem. It can be expressed with nodes as both supply and demand nodes, and the costs involved in transporting units between the nodes to meet demand can be expressed as constraints of a network problem. This makes a network problem-based approach the most suitable solution (Newton, 2021, p. 1). The solution will be determined using the simplex method through the Excel Solver add-in.

In this scenario, the automaker MM has 18 demand nodes spread across four regions. Cars are transported to these demand nodes then to be distributed locally.

No.	Code	City	Country	Region	Demand areas served	Demand (thousands of cars annually)
1	MUN	Munich	Germany	Europe	Germany, eastern and northern Europe	82
2	CHE	Chennai	India	Asia	India, Indian subcontinent	9
3	BKK	Bangkok	Thailand	Asia	South-east Asia	9
4	DAL	Dalian	China	Asia	Northern China	86
5	TAM	Tampico	Mexico	Americas	Central America	5
6	SAV	Savannah	United States	Americas	South-eastern United States	20
7	ARA	Araquari	Brazil	Americas	South America	4
8	DUR	Durban	South Africa	Other	Southern Africa	1
9	GOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	Southern Europe, France	48
10	LON	London	United Kingdom	Europe	UK, Ireland, Iceland	51
11	MOS	Moscow	Russia	Europe	Russia, Belarus	9
12	HKG	Hong Kong	China	Asia	Southern China including Hong Kong/Macau, Taiwan	85
13	BUS	Busan	South Korea	Asia	South Korea, Japan	26
14	LAX	Los Angeles	United States	Americas	South-western United States	21
15	SEA	Seattle	United States	Americas	North-western United States, western Canada	20
16	MON	Montreal	Canada	Americas	North-eastern United States, eastern Canada	21
17	SYD	Sydney	Australia	Other	Australia and New Zealand	4
18	DBI	Dubai	United Arab Emirates	Other	Middle East and northern Africa	5

Figure 1: Demand nodes

Of these, 6 nodes are also supply nodes—they have manufacturing sites which are capable of building the “Class 3” model cars. Munich has a larger production capacity as it is home to many plants. Whereas the factory in Dalian, China has been expanded to meet production capacity in China.

No	Code	City	Country	Region	Demand (x1000 units)	Materials (\$/unit)	Labour (\$/unit)	Emissions (kg-CO ₂)	Production (x1000 units)	
									Min.	Max
1	MUN	Munich	Germany	Europe	82	25000	2554.2	330	1	210
2	CHE	Chennai	India	Asia	9	25000	48.6	330	5	10
3	BKK	Bangkok	Thailand	Asia	9	25000	232.2	330	5	10
4	DAL	Dalian	China	Asia	86	25000	228.6	330	5	230
5	TAM	Tampico	Mexico	Americas	5	25000	223.2	330	5	70
6	SAV	Savannah	United States	Americas	20	25000	1305	330	5	145
7	ARA	Araquari	Brazil	Americas	4	25000	230.4	330	5	10
8	DUR	Durban	South Africa	Other	1	25000	282.6	330	5	20

Figure 2: Supply nodes

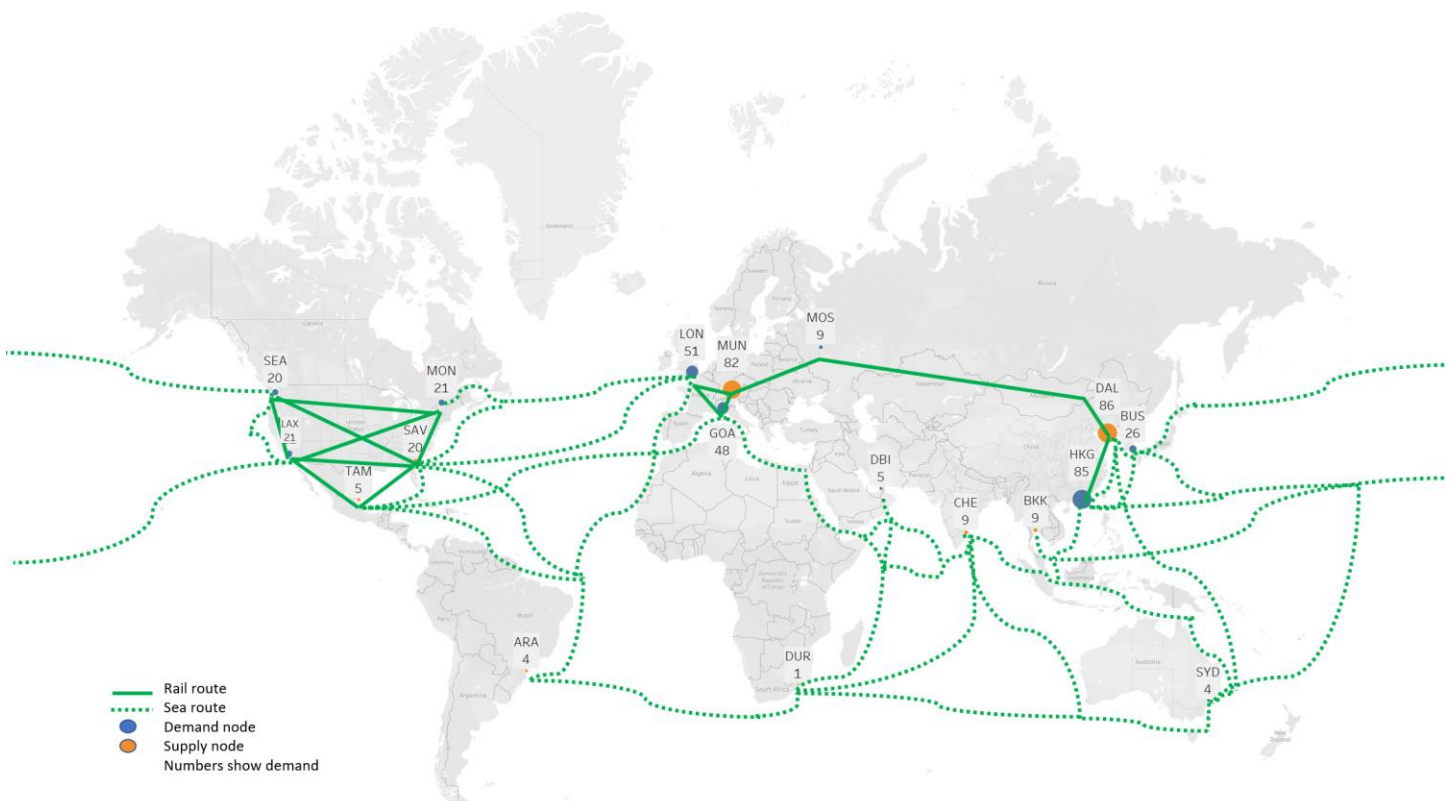


Figure 3: Map of shipping routes (Map: © Mapbox and Openstreetmap)

See Appendix 0 and Appendix 3 for the bases of figures estimated.

Nodes are given the following notation. Uppercase characters denote the set, whereas lowercase characters denote one node.

- X/x supply nodes
- Y/y demand nodes
- I/i origin node
- J/j destination node

All nodes aforementioned are demand nodes, and can be origin and/or destination nodes. Only the nodes with manufacturing plants in Figure 1 are supply nodes.

Other parameters are given the following notation.

- d demand (thousands of units of cars)
- s supply (thousands of units of cars)
- c cost (USD/\$ for manufacturing and labour per 1,000 units)
- e emissions (kg-CO₂e [kilograms of carbon dioxide-equivalent] per 1,000 units)
- g total cost
- h total emissions
- w weighting assigned to emissions
- t total weighted cost
- m large number coefficient (here, 999)
- p minimum required supply
- q maximum required supply

The primary decision variables are the manufacturing plants and the distribution routes.

- F manufacturing plant output (thousands of units)
- R shipping route load (thousands of units)

There are auxiliary decision variables used to control the constraint where production must be either 0 or above the minimum production value. See the Production limits constraint below.

- A binary variable for production limit constraint

The objective function is to minimise the total weighted cost of production and distribution of the vehicles, which is the weighted sum of cost and emissions of each manufacturing plant and each route.

Minimise $t = (1 - w)g + wh$, or:

$$\text{Minimise } t = (1 - w) \left(\sum_{x \in X} c_x F_x + \sum_{i \in I, j \in J} c_{i,j} R_{i,j} \right) + w \left(\sum_{x \in X} e_x F_x + \sum_{i \in I, j \in J} e_{i,j} R_{i,j} \right)$$

The model is subject to the following constraints.

Subject to:

- a. (Balance) $s_X = d_Y = 506$
- b. (Supply) $F_X = s_X; F_X = 506$
- c. (Demand) $y \in Y: s_y = F_y + \sum_{i \in I} R_{(i,y)} - \sum_{j \in J} R_{(y,j)} = d_y$
- d. (Production limits) $x \in X: F_x = 0 \vee p_x \leq F_x \leq q_x$
 - i. (Acceptable if 0) $x \in X: F_x \leq mA_x; F_x \leq 999A$
 - ii. (Above min. if not 0) $x \in X: F_x \geq A_x p_x$
 - iii. (Below max.) $x \in X: F_x \leq q_x$
 - iv. (Binary) $x \in X: A_x = \{0,1\}$
- e. (Integer)
 - i. $x \in X: F_x = 1 \dots n$
 - ii. $i \in I, j \in J: R_{i,j} = 1 \dots n$
- f. (Non-negativity)
 - i. $x \in X: F_x \geq 0$
 - ii. $i \in I, j \in J: R_{i,j} \geq 0$

The details of these constraints are explained as follows.

- a. Balance: This is a balanced network problem, so the total supply must equal total demand, which is 506,000 units.
- b. Supply: The total of the manufacturing plant output decision variables must equal the total supply, which is again 506,000 units.
- c. Demand: For each demand node, the supply must equal demand. This is the manufacturing output if the node is also a supply node, plus the total supply of any routes for which the node is a destination (i.e., incoming supply), less the total supply of any routes for which the node is an origin (i.e., outgoing supply).
- d. Production limits: For each supply node, there is a minimum output required (5,000 for all except Munich, which is 1,000) for the plant to be employed for production of the car model. There is also a maximum capacity set at about 1/3 of the total production capacity of the plant(s) in that city. Munich's minimum is lower as it is the site where the cars are designed. However, the base constraint (output must be 0 or between the minimum and maximum) is non-linear when expressed in this way. Therefore, this model will use a zero-one algorithm to allow for the two alternative decisions. We will place binary decision variables, A , for each supply node, that Solver can modify to satisfy the conditions (josliber, 2014).
 - i. With this equation, a value of 0 for the supply node output would satisfy the equation whether A is 0 or 1. For any value above 0, A must be 1. (The large number m is set at 999, above the maximum supply of any supply node.)
 - ii. With this equation, a value below the minimum limit p_x must have A set to 0 to satisfy the equation, but this would not be possible given i. above.
 - iii. As in a normal equation, the value must not exceed the maximum limit q_x .
 - iv. The variable A must be binary.
- e. Integer: Primary decision variables must be integers. While the nature of this problem would allow for the variables to be divisible by 1,000, economies of scale would suggest that the cars should be produced and shipped in batches.
- f. Non-negativity: Primary decision variables must be non-negative.

The following assumptions were made for this model.

- a. Aside from labour, the manufacturing of the cars is the same amount in any region. That is, the parts procurement section of the supply chain is assumed to be the same. With the correct data, the number could be entered into the model as is.
- b. The "last mile" from the regional hub to the final destination (e.g., a dealer) is not incorporated into this model.
- c. Shipping costs and emissions are based on averages per tonne-kilometre and do not take into account pricing for certain routes.
- d. After-service costs which account for differences in manufacturing is not included in the scope of this model.

Interpretation of the Results

Before the linear programming analysis, a baseline, or "business-as-usual (BAU)" scenario was created.

Units	Origin	Destination	Mode	Cost	Emissions
224	Pro	MUN	Pro	\$ 27,554,200.00	330,000.0
171	Pro	DAL	Pro	\$ 25,228,600.00	330,000.0
70	Pro	TAM	Pro	\$ 25,223,200.00	330,000.0
21	Pro	SAV	Pro	\$ 26,305,000.00	330,000.0
20	Pro	DUR	Pro	\$ 25,282,600.00	330,000.0
26	BKK	HKG	Sea	\$ 70,579.39	595,696.0
35	CHE	BKK	Sea	\$ 133,176.43	1,124,020.4
85	DAL	HKG	Sea	\$ 80,518.70	679,584.7
15	DUR	CHE	Sea	\$ 222,243.97	1,875,758.0
4	DUR	SYD	Sea	\$ 359,334.33	3,032,812.2
29	GOA	CHE	Sea	\$ 271,013.53	2,287,377.2
5	GOA	DBI	Sea	\$ 211,892.67	1,788,392.1
26	HKG	BUS	Sea	\$ 57,138.15	482,250.8
82	MUN	GOA	Rail	\$ 47,482.09	11,506.6
51	MUN	LON	Rail	\$ 94,037.19	22,788.5
9	MUN	MOS	Rail	\$ 243,178.32	58,930.6
21	SAV	LAX	Rail	\$ 401,074.27	97,194.2
21	SAV	MON	Sea	\$ 105,238.22	888,219.5
20	SAV	SEA	Rail	\$ 482,545.70	116,937.6
4	TAM	ARA	Sea	\$ 334,022.57	2,819,178.8
61	TAM	SAV	Sea	\$ 89,788.52	757,822.7

Figure 4: BAU scenario nodes used

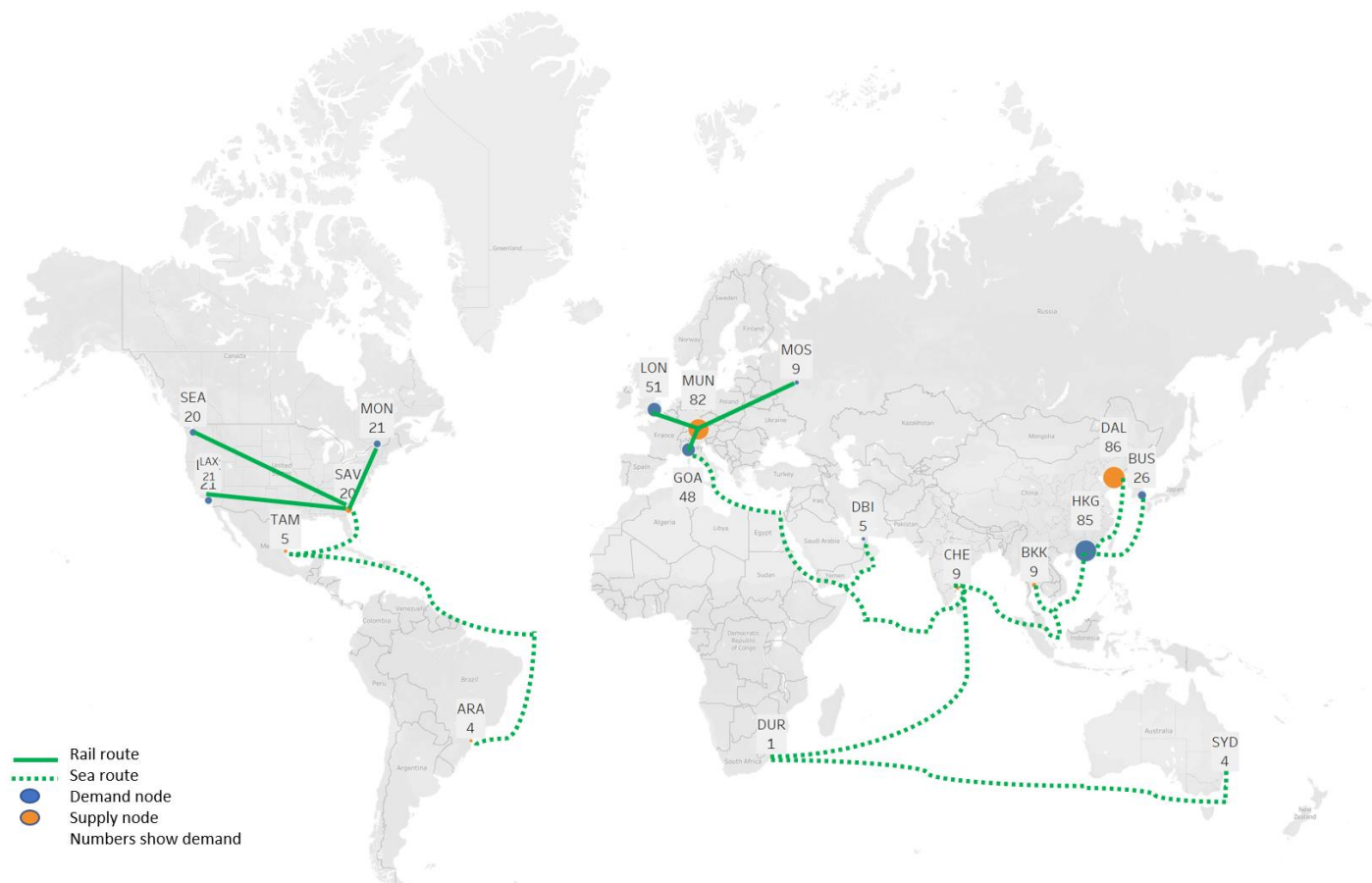


Figure 5: BAU scenario (Map: © Mapbox and Openstreetmap)

In the BAU scenario, all cars for Europe are made by Munich, all cars from Americas are made primarily by Tampico with Savannah building the remainder, all cars for China are made by Dalian, and cars for the rest of the world are made by either Durban or Munich. This results in a total cost of \$13.371 billion (\$26,425 per car) with total emissions of 444,601t-CO₂e (878.7 per car).

Now, five variations of the model will calculate the optimal paths for different scenarios. There will be a scenario for the lowest cost, a scenario for the lowest emissions, and three scenarios with varied weightings: equal balance between cost and emissions, a lower-cost weighting, and a lower-emissions weighting.

The total cost and emissions results are given below.

Scenario	BAU	Lowest cost	Lower cost	Balanced	Lower emissions	Lowest emissions
Emissions weighting (w)	0.5	0.5	0.33	0.5	0.66	1
Total cost	\$ 13,370,925,772.48	\$ 13,017,144,170.12	\$ 13,065,986,318.54	\$ 13,235,347,352.90	\$ 13,238,631,123.41	\$ 13,280,158,921.39
-per car	\$ 26,424.75	\$ 25,725.58	\$ 25,822.11	\$ 26,156.81	\$ 26,163.30	\$ 26,245.37
Total emissions	444,600,829.0	640,032,794.7	451,885,651.7	214,919,117.6	211,855,868.1	205,012,285.3
-per car	878.6577649	1264.886946	893.0546476	424.7413391	418.6874863	405.1626193
Total weighted cost	6,907,763,300.76	13,017,144,170.12	8,861,286,096.25	6,725,133,235.23	4,640,959,454.88	205,012,285.34

Figure 6: Model scenario comparison table

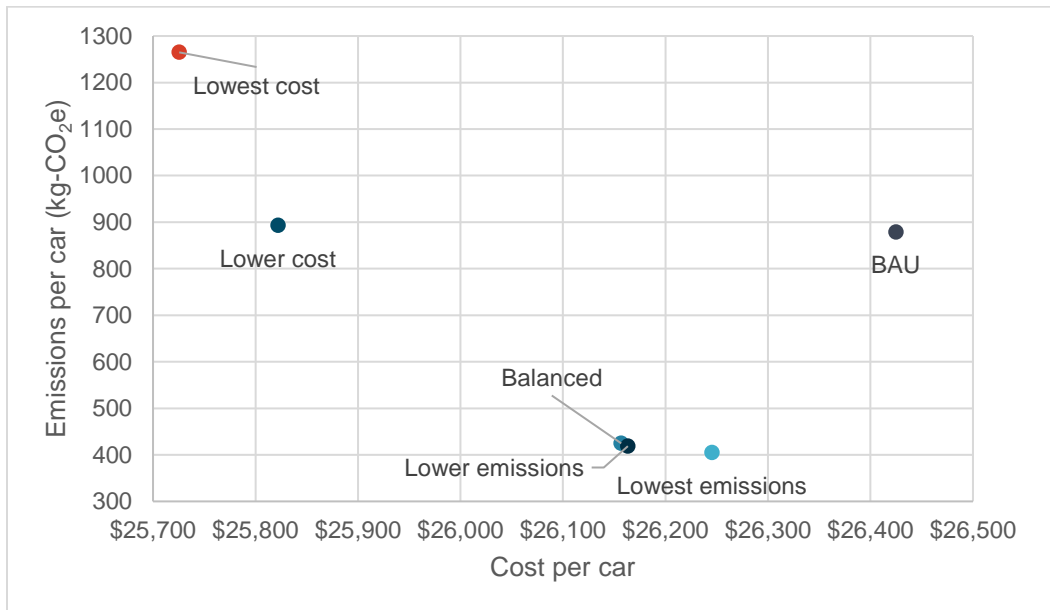


Figure 7: Model scenario comparison chart

When comparing to the BAU scenario, it appears that optimising through linear programming can bring strong benefits in both cost and emissions reduction. In terms of cost, any scenario works out cheaper than BAU; even the most aggressive emissions reduction would still work out cheaper than BAU. Logistics can even be optimised to significantly reduce the cost, however going too aggressively would raise emissions significantly, which would not be acceptable.

In terms of sensitivity, the model is more sensitive to CO₂ emissions than cost. Cost can only be reduced by 2.0% when comparing the maximum cost weight to the maximum emissions weight. On the other hand, the maximum emissions weight can reduce emissions by 212.2%. Versus the BAU, cost can be reduced by up to 2.7%, whereas CO₂ can be reduced by up to 116.9%.

Out of these scenarios, I would recommend the lowest emissions scenario, as it would still deliver cost reductions while reducing the greatest amount of CO₂ emissions.

Units	Origin	Destination	Mode	Cost	Emissions
189	Pro	MUN	Pro	\$ 27,554,200.00	330,000.0
10	Pro	CHE	Pro	\$ 25,048,600.00	330,000.0
10	Pro	BKK	Pro	\$ 25,232,200.00	330,000.0
200	Pro	DAL	Pro	\$ 25,228,600.00	330,000.0
70	Pro	TAM	Pro	\$ 25,223,200.00	330,000.0
17	Pro	SAV	Pro	\$ 26,305,000.00	330,000.0
5	Pro	ARA	Pro	\$ 25,230,400.00	330,000.0
5	Pro	DUR	Pro	\$ 25,282,600.00	330,000.0
1	ARA	GOA	Sea	\$ 255,229.08	2,154,155.1
1	BKK	SYD	Sea	\$ 259,606.50	2,191,100.9
1	CHE	DBI	Sea	\$ 106,783.19	901,259.2
26	DAL	BUS	Sea	\$ 27,011.23	227,977.1
85	DAL	HKG	Rail	\$ 305,698.11	74,081.3
3	DAL	SYD	Sea	\$ 269,571.56	2,275,206.8
4	DUR	DBI	Sea	\$ 194,254.26	1,639,522.4
47	MUN	GOA	Rail	\$ 47,482.09	11,506.6
51	MUN	LON	Rail	\$ 94,037.19	22,788.5
9	MUN	MOS	Rail	\$ 243,178.32	58,930.6
21	SAV	MON	Rail	\$ 192,503.29	46,650.2
20	SAV	SEA	Rail	\$ 482,545.70	116,937.6
21	TAM	LAX	Rail	\$ 319,499.85	77,425.9
44	TAM	SAV	Rail	\$ 267,897.84	64,921.0

Figure 8: Lowest emissions scenario nodes used

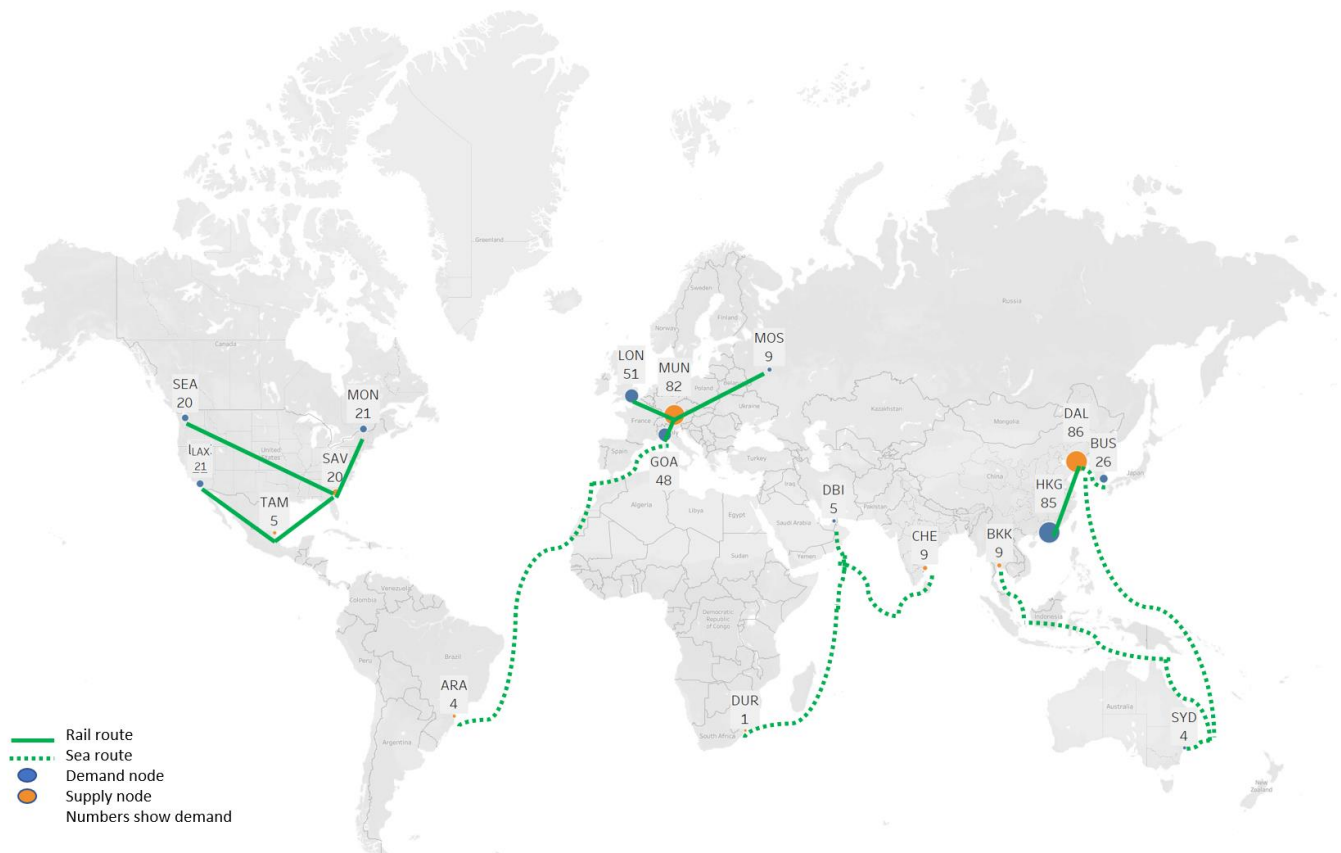


Figure 9: Lowest emissions scenario (Map: © Mapbox and Openstreetmap)

The manufacturing allocation and routes given above provide the strongest possible reduction of emissions. Shipping is generally made more local. Dalian now provides all stock of cars for Busan. Sydney receives all shipments from Asia as opposed to South Africa. Rail is also favoured where it is feasible, supporting broader trends in logistics (ESCAP, 2021); shipments from Dalian to Hong Kong are now performed by rail, as is all stock for Central and North America.

Also notable is that the Chennai, Bangkok, and Tampico plants are assigned to full capacity, whereas Durban and Araquari are assigned the minimum possible. Increasing capacities at these plants may deliver improved efficiency in the future. This model could be adapted to find the optimal allocation of resources to production to facilities and even where to place new factories. For example, adjusting the model so that the maximum production is 506 shows that production can be increased in Chennai, Bangkok and Tampico, and production closed in Durban and Savannah, to bring greater efficiency in both CO₂ emissions and cost. Another idea for future models would be to introduce constraints to either the total cost or total CO₂ emissions to ensure the maximum reduction possible in one target whilst ensuring the other target is not reduced (e.g. minimise CO₂ emissions subject to cost equal to or less than last year).

For details on all model scenarios, please refer to the spreadsheet.

Conclusion

Prescriptive analytics are a powerful tool that allow managers to make decisions based on evidence and data. In particular, resolving network problems using linear programming can make significant contributions to supply chain management and logistics management. This has reached greater importance in modern times where sustainability has become an important issue in business (Rafi, 2022). While businesses have traditionally focused solely on reducing costs in logistics, now reducing carbon dioxide emissions have risen in importance.

This model mainly covers the distribution side of the automotive supply chain. It would be possible to expand the scope to cover more aspects of the supply chain. The model could also be modified in the future to support further ways to reduce financial and environmental costs, for example being adapted to predict where to build manufacturing plants. This model, like all models, is also only as good as its inputs (Segal, 2022). The data used in this report is based on estimates, and more detailed first-hand data would allow for a more detailed and accurate model.

Overall, the model created here demonstrates that it is possible to factor emissions into optimisation models to find the optimum production allocation and distribution network with both optimal financial cost and lower emissions. Companies involved in supply chain management and logistics management could expand their use of prescriptive analytics in ways like these to reduce their environmental footprint and help combat climate change.

APPENDICES

1. Basis of Estimates of Costs for MM's Global Network

The München Motoren (MM) Class 3 car used in this scenario is based on the BMW 3 Series car. Data for the demand and costs of the Class 3 are based on data in the BMW Group Report 2021 (BMW Group, 2021).

BMW GROUP VEHICLE PLANTS

Location	Country	Production programme 2021	Electrification portfolio
Araquari	Brazil	BMW 3 Series, BMW X1, BMW X3, BMW X4, BMW X5	
Berlin	Germany	BMW motorcycles	BEV
Chennai	India	BMW 2 Series, BMW 3 Series, BMW 5 Series, BMW 6 Series, BMW 7 Series, BMW X1, BMW X3, BMW X4, BMW X5, BMW X7, MINI Countryman	
Dingolfing	Germany	BMW 3 Series, BMW 4 Series, BMW 5 Series, BMW 6 Series, BMW 7 Series, BMW 8 Series, BMW M; BMW iX	BEV, PHEV
Leipzig	Germany	BMW 1 Series, BMW 2 Series, BMW i3, BMW M	BEV, PHEV
Manaus	Brazil	BMW motorcycles	
Munich	Germany	BMW 3 Series, BMW 4 Series, BMW i4, BMW M	BEV, PHEV
Oxford	United Kingdom	MINI, MINI Clubman, MINI Cooper SE*	BEV
Rayong	Thailand	BMW 2 Series, BMW 3 Series, BMW 5 Series, BMW 7 Series, BMW X1, BMW X3, BMW X5, BMW X7 BMW motorcycles	PHEV
Regensburg	Germany	BMW 1 Series, BMW 2 Series, BMW X1, BMW X2	PHEV
Roslyn	South Africa	BMW X3	
San Luis Potosí	Mexico	BMW 2 Series, BMW 3 Series	PHEV
Spartanburg	USA	BMW X3, BMW X4, BMW X5, BMW X6, BMW X7, BMW M	PHEV
Rolls-Royce Manufacturing Plant, Goodwood	United Kingdom	Rolls-Royce Cullinan, Dawn, Ghost, Phantom, Wraith	BEV from 2023

Figure 10: BMW Group vehicle plant list (BMW Group, 2021, p. 68)

BMW GROUP AUTOMOBILE PRODUCTION BY PLANT

in units	2021	2020	Change in %
Spartanburg	433,810	361,365	20.0
Dingolfing	244,734	231,970	5.5
Regensburg	183,485	199,991	- 8.3
Leipzig	191,604	200,968	- 4.7
Oxford	186,883	175,984	6.2
Munich	151,154	143,758	5.1
Rossllyn	61,580	50,760	21.3
Rayong	24,624	25,752	- 4.4
Chennai	8,472	6,228	36.0
Araquari	10,104	8,400	20.3
Goodwood	5,912	3,776	56.6
San Luis Potosí	69,149	56,081	23.3
Tiexi (BBA) ²	335,311	311,137	7.8
Dadong (BBA) ²	365,466	291,798	25.2
Born (VDL Nedcar) ³	105,214	125,666	- 16.3
Graz (Magna Steyr) ³	54,547	35,747	52.6
Partner plants	29,220	26,256	11.3
Total	2,461,269	2,255,637	9.1

Figure 11: BMW Group vehicle production by plant (BMW Group, 2021, p. 69)

CO₂ EMISSIONS PER VEHICLE PRODUCED^{1,2}

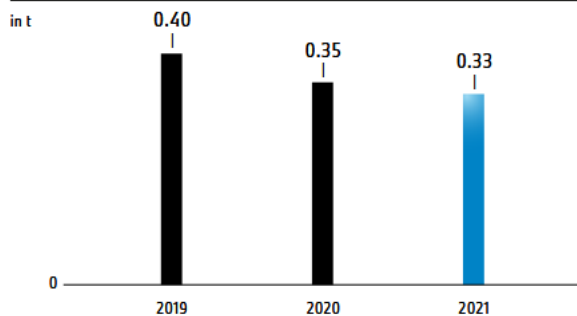


Figure 12: BMW Group CO₂ emissions per vehicle produced (BMW Group, 2021, p. 74)

BMW GROUP DELIVERIES OF VEHICLES BY REGION AND MARKET ²

in 1,000 units	2021	2020	2019	2018	2017
Europe	949.1	913.6	1,081.6	1,097.4	1,101.9
thereof Germany	266.8	285.0	330.5	310.6	296.5
thereof UK	164.3	163.2	233.8	236.8	242.4
Americas	451.7	379.7	472.9	457.1	456.1
thereof USA	368.0	307.9	375.7	355.4	358.8
Asia ¹	1,067.9	986.5	930.8	871.8	847.7
thereof China ¹	847.9	778.4	724.7	635.8	595.0
Other markets	52.8	45.4	52.2	59.9	59.3
Total¹	2,521.5	2,325.2	2,537.5	2,486.1	2,465.0

¹ Including the joint venture BMW Brilliance Automotive Ltd., Shenyang (2019: 538,612 units; 2018: 455,581 units; 2017: 385,705 units).

² Retail vehicle delivery data presented for 2020 and 2021 is not directly comparable to such data presented for previous years. For further information on retail vehicle delivery data, please see ² [Comparison of Forecasts with Actual Outcomes](#).

³ ² Consumption and carbon emissions.

Figure 13: BMW Group deliveries by region and market (BMW Group, 2021, p. 110)

BMW GROUP – LARGEST AUTOMOBILE MARKETS 2021

as a percentage of sales volume

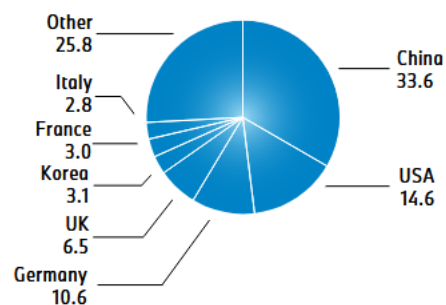


Figure 14: BMW Group largest markets (BMW Group, 2021, p. 110)

DELIVERIES OF BMW VEHICLES BY MODEL VARIANT^{1,2}

in units	2021	2020	Change in %	Share of BMW deliveries 2021 in %
BMW 1 Series / BMW 2 Series	265,964	268,915	- 1.1	12.0
BMW 3 Series / BMW 4 Series	490,969	420,295	16.8	22.2
BMW 5 Series / BMW 6 Series	326,212	322,457	1.2	14.7
BMW 7 Series / BMW 8 Series	62,628	66,728	- 6.1	2.8
BMW Z4	14,778	14,982	- 1.4	0.7
BMW X1/X2	311,928	304,270	2.5	14.1
BMW X3/X4	414,671	347,565	19.3	18.7
BMW X5/X6	240,504	206,774	16.3	10.9
BMW X7	54,957	48,693	12.9	2.5
BMW i (iX, i3 and i8)	31,179	28,162	10.7	1.4
BMW total	2,213,790	2,028,841	9.1	100.0

¹ ↗ Consumption and carbon emissions data

² Including the joint venture BMW Brilliance Automotive Ltd., Shenyang (2021: 651,236 units, 2020: 602,247 units).

Figure 15: Deliveries of BMW vehicles by model (BMW Group, 2021, p. 111)

Costs for labour are based on figures provided in James (2023). It was adjusted based on minimum wage data from WageIndicator (2023) as well as (BusinessTech, 2022), (Charoensuthipan, 2019), (U.S. Department of Labor, 2023) and (Agência Brasil, 2022).

2. Shipping Distances and Costs Between Nodes

The distances for the rail and sea routes were calculated using freight route planner Fluent Cargo (Fluent Cargo, 2023)

Distance (sea)	MUN	CHE	BKK	DAL	TAM	SAV	ARA	DUR	GOA	LON	MOS	HKG	BUS	LAX	SEA	MON	SYD	DBI
MUN	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
CHE	N	X	N	5172 N	N	N	N	8631	10525	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	10666	4147
BKK	N	N	5172 X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	2741 N	N	14911 N	N	N	10082 N	N
DAL	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	3127	1049 N	N	N	N	N	10469 N	N
TAM	N	N	N	N	X	3487	12972 N	11119	10390 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
SAV	N	N	N	N	N	3487 X	10214 N	N	6901 N	N	N	N	X	N	N	4087 N	N	N
ARA	N	N	N	N	N	12972	10214 X	N	9912	11106 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
DUR	N	N	8631 N	N	N	N	N	X	13575 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	13955	7544
GOA	N	N	10525 N	N	N	11119 N	9912	13575 X	4219 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	8229	N
LON	N	N	N	N	N	10390	6901	11106 N	4219 X	N	N	N	N	N	N	6810 N	N	N
MOS	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
HKG	N	N	N	2741	3127 N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	2219	12556 N	N	N	N	N
BUS	N	N	N	N	1049 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	2219 X	10237	9264 N	N	N	N	N
LAX	N	N	N	14911 N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	12556	10237 X	2315 X	N	N	13280 N	N
SEA	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	9264	2315 X	N	N	N	N	N
MON	N	N	N	N	N	4087 N	N	N	6810 N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N
SYD	N	N	10666	10082	10469 N	N	N	13955 N	N	N	N	N	N	13280 N	N	X	N	N
DBI	N	N	4147 N	N	N	N	N	7544	8229 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X

Distance (rail)	MUN	CHE	BKK	DAL	TAM	SAV	ARA	DUR	GOA	LON	MOS	HKG	BUS	LAX	SEA	MON	SYD	DBI
MUN	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	461	913	2361 N	N	N	N	N	N	N
CHE	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
BKK	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
DAL	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	8195	2968 N	N	N	N	N	N	N
TAM	N	N	N	N	X	2601 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	3102 N	N	N	N	N
SAV	N	N	N	N	N	2601 X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	3894	4685	1869 N	N	N
ARA	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
DUR	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
GOA	N	461 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	1033 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
LON	N	913 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	1033 X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
MOS	N	2361 N	N	N	8195 N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
HKG	N	N	N	N	2968 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N	N
BUS	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N	N	N	N	N
LAX	N	N	N	N	3102	3894 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	1827 X	4732 N	N	N
SEA	N	N	N	N	N	4685 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	1827	4732 X	N	N
MON	N	N	N	N	N	1869 N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	4575	N	N	N
SYD	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X	N
DBI	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	X

Figure 16: Shipping route distances

The rate per tonne-kilometre uses averages based on data by Ark Investment Management (2017). CO2 per tonne-kilometre uses average data from the European Environment Agency (European Environment Agency, 2017).

<u>Sea</u>	Rate	Tons per 1000 units	Cost	
Rate	0.016	1600	25.75	\$ per tonne-km
Emissions	135.83	1600	217.328	kgCO2e per tonne-km
<u>Rail</u>	Rate	Tons per 1000 units	Cost	
Rate	0.064	1600	103.00	\$ per tonne-km
Emissions	15.6	1600	24.96	kgCO2e per tonne-km

Figure 17: Cost (rates and emissions) of shipping per ton-km

The date here is in the spreadsheet under the “Data” tab. All monetary figures in this document use USD.

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