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DEFENSE WEAPONS ACQUISITION: A POLICY STUDY

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During the latter stages of the administration of Jimmy Carter and the beginning of the Reagan administration, there has been an increasing emphasis on developing the United States' defense capability. The motivation for this has been perceived imbalance between Soviet-Eastern European military capability and that of the United States and its allies. The key to an effective and appropriate buildup in military capability is the management and procurement system used to identify those weapons truly required, purchase them, and bring them to effective operational status.

A great deal has been written about the Department of Defense system designed to accomplish acquisiton (8,9,14). The majority of the material has been descriptive with occasional prescriptive, intuitive analysis. The popular press contains continual reports of the debates about various acquisition policies. A number of alternative acquisition policies have, in fact, been tried in the last twa decades.

During this period, three major policy revisions have been introduced. In the 1960's then Secretary of Defense Robert MacNamara introduced a new organizational structure to centralize the decision making process for acquisition C7:3). Included in the structure was the Planning, Programming, Budgeting System CPPBS) and a strong systems analysis group within the Department of Defense (7:94>. In 1971, then Deputy Secretary Vance Packard introduced ten major policy elements to

begin decentralization of responsibility and authority for acquisition management, and to reform the acquisition process (4:2). Secretary Packard established the Defense Systems Acquisition Review Council (DSARC) and directed publication of DoD Directive 5000.1 to codify the DSARC system and new acquisition guidelines (4:2>.

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The 1981 Acquisition Improvement Initiatives, directed by Deputy Secretary. of Defense Frank Carlucci, provide for "controlled decentralization" of program management decisions, closer ties between DSARC and PPBS, and reduction of acquisition cost and time through a number of initiatives including Multiyear Procurement, and Preplanned Product Improvement (3). DoD policies provide quidance, in the aggregate, for acquisition system operation and the decision structure to be used by acquisiton managers, from the Defense Acquisition Executive to individual element managers, in managing acquisition programs. Each policy revision changed large parts of the existing structure and were designed to control more effectively the acquisition system under the conditions then existing. The frequent major changes in acquisition policy highlight a continuing need for policy makers to be able to study the effects of a policy before implementation, and to study the effects of a changing defense environment on the system.

The tools characteristically available to the policy maker have been judgment, intuition, experience, and analytical analysis of segments of the acquisition system. The acquisition system, however, is large and complex, containing myriad

interrelationships between its components. This complexity makes it difficult for a policy maker to visualize and understand the complete system. In addition to direct relationships, a complex information feedback system has been created which provides second and higher order feedback effects throughout the acquisition system.

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Forrester and others have shown the value of dynamic policy models of complex. systems in providing a method to amplify intuition, judgment and experience, and to augment and direct analytical study <5;12>. A valid policy model of the DoD acquisition system did not exist prior to development and implementation of the three major policy initiatives previously discussed. Such a model of the system's decision, information, and policy structures will enable senior DoD executives to study the effects of policy and of environmental changes on the system over time. A policy model also will provide a vehicle for executives and politicians to use in analyzing the dynamic nature of the acquisition process.

The research reported in this paper was directed toward understanding and modeling acquisition policy within the DoD. The acquisition model presented was developed at the departmental level and primarily is intended to portray the. strategic policy structure of the acquisition system. Lower levels of aggregation were used only where the detail involved was required to capture a major concept. The model parameters and outputs were designated to show what trends would be associated with the implementation of various policy

alternatives.

Emphasis was placed on the dynamic nature of the relationships within the acquisition system and how they are affected by policies and external pressures. Exogenous factors input to the model include broad representations of the United States and Soviet economic conditions. The Soviet threat, so key to many of the political battles surrounding weapon acquisition, is generated in the model as a response to the threat perceived by them, subject to economic and political constraints. Incorporation of these and other key relationships was controlled through careful application of a design methodology.

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research strategy used in the study involved an "iterative" process of conceptualization, analysis and measurement, and modeling. This process generally is known as the systems science paradigm (13). Each iteration increases confidence in the model as a useful policy analysis tool. Application of the paradigm in this study involved seven specific steps.

First, a broad-based conceptual structure using information available in the literature was developed. Then, participants at various executive levels in the acquisition system were interviewed. These interviews were used to evaluate the initial conceptual structure and to acquire specific information for use in formulating a parametric model.

The third step involved revising the conceptual structure

and dividing the system into sectors for detailed analysis and measurement. In the fourth step, the sectors were mathematically modeled, each part tested, and integrated into a single model of the system. In the fifth step, a second series of interviews with executives and other system participants was performed. These were directed toward evaluation of the model's specific mathematical structure and formulation.

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Based on the second round of interviews and further analysis of the parametric data gathered, the model was revised. Then, confidence building tests outlined by Forrester and Senge were performed (6). These verification and validation tests will be discussed specifically in a later section. The seventh step was performance of policy experimentation to illustrate how the model can be used. The · remainder- of the paper contains discussion of the results of the application of the methodology. SYSTEM STRUCTURE

The DoD acquisition system has several major components or dimensions with a series of complex interactions between these components. The causal diagram of Figure 1 depicts the major components identified through literature research and in executive interviews as the key factors or sectors in the acquisition system. The diagram, drawn at a very high level of resolution, is interpreted by stating the hypothesized relationship between two variables: as variable "x" increases variable "y" increases/decreases. Increases are indicated by a positive sign (+) and decreases by a negative sign (-). This initial view was developed in greater detail in successive

iterations of the modeling process (19). The diagram was developed by first identifying the key process to be studied, and then identifying the primary forces or elements in the process that impact the operation of the system. The five sectors shown, Research & Development, Threat, Technology, Production, and Financial, correspond to the key processes in the acquisition system. Each will be discussed.

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Place Figure 1 about here --

Any system study requires careful definition of the purpose or goal against which system accomplishments are measured. This is particularly difficult in a complex, multilevel system like the one here. At the national level, the goal of the system is to provide the weapons necessary for the defense of the United States and for a deterrent against aggression by enemy forces. The necessity for weapons is the continually debated issue that drives acquisition and is related primarily to the perception of threat, particularly ·from the Soviet Union. This goal and the resulting forces for its accomplishment are embodied in the "pressure for acquisition" variable shown in Figure 1. Operationalizing the goal involves the dynamics required to maintain the parity in an aggregate measure of capability between United States and enemy forces. The Soviet Union was used as the enemy force for comparison of capability in the model, since the Soviets are the most frequently cited threat when total force comparisons are made (18: Ch II).

Capability is a somewhat abstract concept that can have

many definitions and units of measurement. Measuring such an abstract concept for incorporation into a mathematical model required that the measure apply to a broad range of weapon systems (have commonality) in given areas, have conceptual relevance for both the United States and enemy forces, and possess a quantitative relevance for management. A measure of capability also should reflect the resource expenditures necessary to achieve a given level of that capability. The measure chosen to represent capability was the accumulated capital investment in the acquisition and modification of weapon systems. In addition to meeting the requirements and considerations discussed, the accumulated capital investment is a measure available for both the United States and Soviet forces, and is used for relative comparison of capability by decision makers (1:7; 10:15; 17:2; 18:II-4). Use of this measurement for capability in aggregate force comparison was discussed in the second round of executive interviews and confirmed to be an acceptable representation. These measures of United States and Soviet capability provide the primary contribution to the pressure for acquisition shown in Figure 1 and provide as a result, the actual goal that drives the defense acquisition process.

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The variables. "research and development (R&D) progress" and "production," represent the physical processes and attendant decision structures for the acquisition system. Research and development includes the acquisition process from program initiation to production start. Pressures and resources from

the other sectors are used in R&D to control the flow of programs in accordance with the policies or decision criteria established by defense executives. Although explicitly in Figure 1, information from the R&D sector is not shown transmitted to the technology and financial sectors. For example, the DoD budget request for R&D is transmitted to the financial sector. Programs completing R&D enter production.

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The variable "production" represents the creation of capability by either producing new weapon systems or modifying existing weapons. Inputs to production from research and development result in new capability. Weapon system modification is extensive in the current system and is included in the model as an alternative to developing new weapons. The progress of R~D programs and the number of R~D programs are increased as the pressure for acquisition increases.

The pressure for acquisition is developed by comparing the long and short term forecasts of relative United States and Soviet capability and the requirement to maintain a sound defense industrial base. The calculation of *enemy* capability and enemy response to United States acquisition is contained in the threat sector. The enemy's capability grows to meet both the threat posed by the United States and the desire for increased influence in the world. The desire for area domination by the Soviet Union was identified in several interviews as a base pressure that will maintain force buildup even when the Soviets possess a capability advantage. The pressures created act directly on the acquisition process and

indirectly affect it by impacting the amount of resources available for acquisition. These resources are developed in the variable "acquisition funds available" in the financial sector.

The financial sector provides the funds for R~D and production. The difference between funds requested for acquisition and those provided is the primary constraint on the arms race. This point will be discussed more fully in a later section. The acquisition funds. available are determined from the budget request submitted by the Defense Department and the pressures which are applied to Congress that impact the appropriation of funds.

The pressures applied to the Congress reflect the nature of the political, economic, and threat environments in which the acquisition system exists. Measures for the economic and political pressures may be developed by considering the DoD budget request as a fraction of the gross national product <GNP> and the demand for non-DoD funds created by the health of the economy. The DoD budget request is determined by the estimated cost of the perceived amount of capability necessary to meet the threat. In addition to the threat and resource availability, technology was identified in interviews as a key factor impacting the progress and output of the acquisition process.

Technology here is defined as the amount of capability that can be obtained from one production unit (for example, one airplane or one tank). The units for measuring technology are capability per production unit. For a research and development program to be completed and advanced to production, the

technology being used in the program must be developed, tested and incorporated into a manufacturing design. A standard measure of the technology for a program is developed. Then, the technology advancement or the lack of it will impact the time and cost required for program R&D. Technology advancement impacts production in two ways. First, as the technology applies to weapon system advances, more capability is obtained from each production unit. Second, as the technology advances, a need will develop to modify existing forces to maintain a given capability. As shown in Figure 1, the advancement of technology has a positive impact when increased and a negative impact when reduced.

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KEY SYSTEM STRUCTURES

The portion of the causal diagram shown in Figure 2 is a positive or growth reinforcing structure that depicts how arms competition would result in a rapid expansion of forces and an expenditure of forces if external constraints (outside the loop shown> were not present to restrict this growth. Constraints are imposed by the availability of resources (dollars). The constraints represent the political realities of how much a government can spend on acquisition and stimulation of research and development (7).

Place Figure 2 about here ---.----

A second key feedback structure is the goal-seeking or negative loop shown in Figure 1 by pressure for acquisition, research and development progress, production, and then back to

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pressure for acquisition. This loop represents a smaller and shorter-term picture of acquisition. The forces represented tend to dampen weapons buildup as the forecasts of capability begin to compare favorably with that of the enemy. A problem can develop when the comparison is with a current picture of United States force growth and a delayed picture of enemy growth that does not adequately reflect the connection between the United States production and the pressure for enemy expansion. This will be discussed more fully in a later section.

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The acquisition process is composed of the four major phases shown in Figure 3: Concept Exploration, Demonstration and Validation, Full Scale Development, and Production (15:17-3; 16:4). The first three phases constitute research and development and are measured as levels of programs with the decision points between them contrdll1ng the ~low of programs. Production is modeled as a pipeline delay, with the delay duration dependent upon the rate of defense capability production and the amount of capability to be obtained from each program. The concept of a program employed in the actual model is based on an aggregate representation of defense capability. The use of an average program allows all programs in the model to be treated equally, and as policies are changed, the net effect on the acquisition system recorded. The model can, however, be tailored to specific programs by manipulation of the structural parameters and equations.

Place Figure 3 about here

The rate at which programs progress to the next stage of development is contingent upon the concepts of affordability and work completion. The decision processes related to these concepts are shown in Figure 4. Affordability and work accomplishment provide a maximum rate at which programs may flow into the next phase shown in Figure 3. Only the number of programs that can be completed in the current phase and are affordable may progress.

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Place Figure 4 about here

Work accomplishment is measured through the calculation of an expected time the program would take for completion if the desired level of funding is available. Accomplishment is then adjusted to reflect the actual funding _available. If the funds available for research and development do not match the requirements for progression in the expected time, program schedules are stretched or contracted to make the funds required equal the funds available. These are short-run program changes that reflect the bias for program acceleration when more funds than were planned for become available and that reflect the legal requirement to not spend more money than authorized for given programs.

The affordability concept combines two key ideas: how much need exists for programs (how great is the threat) and the funding availability for the remainder of the weapon system's life. The requirement for funding availability is modeled by considering the number of programs that will be completed or

cancelled in the next acquisition phase and adjusting that value to reflect the DoD desired response to the enemy threat. There is an increase in programs when there is a threat that is currently not being met or a program reduction if the forecast of United States capability is higher than required. If funding availability is projected for the next several years, then funds may be included in the Five-Year Defense Plan <FYDP> and Extended Planning Annex <EPA) for the out years. The use of information about the program flow out of one phase to influence the flow from the previous phase creates a feedback relationship between the phases that is self-regulating in nature. The system will tend toward an equilibrium flow of programs to meet the threat and funding expectations of the system. When more programs can be completed in a phase than are affordable, two alternatives are available.

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The first is to stretch the programs to a "window" where they become affordable, and the second is to cancel nonaffordable programs. The alternative most often used in the system and thus primarily applied in the model is to stretch programs. The result has been eventually to increase the rate at which programs are cancelled, to spend more on the programs in the interim, and to lengthen the acquisition life cycle. This is because as acquisition time for a program extends, there is "frequently a shift in the perception of priorities, attitudes, and appreciation of the external threat," resulting in an increase in the probability of cancellation <3:60 Fig.11>. This will be discussed further when model behavior is

addressed.

This section has provided a brief description of the conceptual structure of, the acquisition system, two of its key feedback structures, and the approach used to model the process. The following sections contain discussions of model behavior and an example of a typical policy experiment.

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MODEL BEHAVIOR

The system dynamics methodology <5; 12) and the DYNAMO language (11) were used to develop a mathematical model <Appendix A) of the DoD acquisition structure described in the last section. The model was extensively tested during its development using the procedures prescribed by Forrester and Senge (6) as a guide. All of the core tests, as well as several others, were conducted (6:226>. -The results establish confidence in the model as a· policy anatysis tool. A discussion of the results of the symptom-generation tests, which demonstrated that the model could reproduce the problem symptoms, which motivated this research, is contained in this section.

Two major symptoms which the DoD acquisition system has exhibited over the past two decades were primary motivators for this research. The first was the steady increase in the cost and time required to acquire weapon systems (18:I-4>, and the second was a steadily worsening situation in the comparison between Soviet and United States military capability (18:II-S). In order to test whether the model recreates these symptoms, it was initialized to simulate the time beginning in 1970, when the

United States was considered to be twenty-five percent ahead of the Soviet Union in cumulative military investment (18:11-8). Again, cumulative investment is used as a measure of capability in the system and so was employed in the model.

To observe the behavior of the cost and time required to acquire weapon systems, two variables were defined for model output: program cost and acquisition cycle length. Program cost was defined as the average total cost of a program from start through completion of production, in base-year dollars. The base year for calculation was time zero in the model, in this case 1970. The acquisition cycle length was defined as the time required from the start of a program through delivery of the first production item. This measure approximates the time to reach initial operational capability <IOC>, which is a key measure of the performance of the acquisition system, according to several interviewees. The measure in the model for comparing United States and Soviet capability is the "raw pressure for acquisition." This is the ratio between cumulative Soviet and United States military investment.

The behavior of the acquisition *cycle* length. and program cost are shown in Figure 5. While both variables increased through the 1970's, the model shows this trend being reversed in the middle to late 1980's. To an observer of the system who *only* sees empirical data from the recent past, there may be a tendency to believe that the system is growing without bound and to postulate the positive feedback loop in Figure 6 as the cause of the observed behavior. In fact, Gansler (9:94) points to a feedback system similar to this as a cause of the cost and schedule growth which have occurred in the recent past. The output for the longer term, however, indicates that there is a control mechanism actually in operation which may reverse the currently observed trends.

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Place Figures 5 and 6 about here ---

Observation of this behavior indicates a negative rather than the positive feedback loop of Figure 6 affects long-term cost and schedule growth. As shown in Figure 7, the interaction among several negative loops is responsible for the observed behavior. At the beginning of the model run, the United States was well ahead of the Soviet Union in capability. The projection of the long run threat, howeyer, had already begun to forecast a deficiency in United States capability. As a result, the rate of new program starts increased early in the decade while the production affordability remained low because of the observed short term threat. This resulted in a backlog of programs in research and development, causing the duration of the programs to stretch while the programs waited for a "window• in which they would become affordable.

Place Figure 7 about here

This growth in the total number of programs in progress caused the long-term threat to begin to decline by the end of the 1970's. By that time, the short term-threat had reached significant proportions, allowing the backlog of the programs to

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begin entering production, slowing the growth in acquisition cycle length and, in fact, causing it to be reduced in the late 19ao•s and 1990's. When the short-term threat improves~ the cycle which started at the beginning of the model run repeats itself.

This same mechanism seems to have occurred in the actual system in the 1970's, as a 1977 Defense Science Board study found that:

The "bow wave" effect created by too many programs in full scale development at any given time in relation to the available production funds results in an acquisition cycle for the typical defense system which is in excess of the optimum length of time and is more costly than planned or estimated (3: 1).

The same study concluded that:

The time it takes therefore to get military equipment into
the hands of forces in the field is dependent almost entirely on when the money becomes available to it. It is only loosely dependent, if at all, on when the development program started,
on how much gold platting there is in the decision process, or on who happens to be sitting in the Pentagon. We can change our
priorities and buy one thing before another, but the average procurement rate is fixed so long as we try to buy the same number of systems <3:36).

Secretary Weinberger•s annual report to Congress for fiscal year 1983 (18) compares United States and Soviet military investment accumulated over a twenty-year lifetime, which is the same as the measure of capability in the model. As shown in Figure 8, a steady increase of five percent per year in military investments, while the Soviets do the same will result in a permanent United States deficiency. On the other hand, if the United States increase is fourteen percent per year, while the Soviet increase is five percent, the present adverse trend will be reversed and the gap will be closed in the 1990's. The behavior of the Raw Pressure for Acquisition variable in the model, as shown in Figure 9, matches the historical behavior almost perfectly, and projects future behavior somewhere between the extremes given in the Wienberger report.

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Place Figures 8 and 9 about here

The reason for this behavior lies in the goal-seeking nature of the system and several negative biases that are a part of its structure. The first, and perhaps most obvious of the biases, is that Congress almost never appropriates as much money for the DoD as the President requests. This by itself would almost certainly prevent the DoD from increasing its investment spending by fourteen percent per γ year for the next twenty years. since even if the GNP grew at an annual rate of five percent a year, the military investment as a fraction of GNP would have to increase five fold.

A second bias is created by the duration of the programs almost always being longer than planned. As a result, more programs are cancelled than forecast, resulting in a consistent over estimation of United States capability. This estimation error causes fewer programs to be started than are needed to actually achieve parity with the Soviets. A third bias stems from the reactive nature of the acquisition system <18:1-11>. The stated goal is for the United States capability to be equal to the Soviet capabilty, but as the Soviet capability grows, the reactive nature of the system results in a tendency to lag

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behind the objective. The final reason for the behavior observed in Figure 9 is the phenomenon of the arms race. Whenever the United States attempts to close a perceived gap in capability, an increasing threat will be perceived by the Soviet Union causing an increase in its spending and so forth. Of the four sources of negative feedback and bias, only one is within the control of defense acquisition executives: the length of the acquisition cycle and the cancellation rate for programs. To remove the other sources of bias would require a change in the structure of the current system or a modification of policy objectives. Such changes would have long-term effects which will be discussed later.

POLICY EXPERIMENTATION

An objective of all policy models is to. provide a valid device for experimenting with alternatives that are intended to produce desired behavior in the referent system. In the acquistion system model, a number of policies can be tested to demonstrate its usefulness as an investigative device. For example, major questions revolve around the use of modification versus new procurement strategy, and the role of the Department of Defense in posturing the defense industrial base. Addressing such issues is beyond the immediate scope of this paper. There are, however, other questions that can be addressed meaningfully.

The previous section contained a increasing costs of acquiring weapons resulted from a discussion of how lengthening of the acquisition cycle, and how the length of the acquisition cycle played a role in the seeming inability to achieve the stated goal of parity in cumulative military investment with the Soviet Union. In attempting, therefore, to improve the behavior of the system, gaining control of the length of the acquisition cycle would appear to offer promise. To gain this control requires investigation into the causes of the acquisition cycle length. As discussed earlier, the dominant cause of the growth in cycJe length was a negative feedback structure related to long-term affordability. While a negative feedback structure is goal-seeking and should therefore be self regulating, this particular structure oscillates over a fairly broad range and has a period of oscillation of three decades or more. As a result, a policy aimed at controlling the range of the oscillation of this negative feedback structure would be appropriate.

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During the upswing of the acquisition cycle length, the major mechanism for causing schedule growth is that more programs are in progress than the DoD can afford to complete. The nonaffordable programs are allowed to remain in the present phase until an opportunity arises for them to continue to the next phase, creating a backlog of nonaffordable programs. The policy alternative that is most simply applied to alleviate this

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problem is to cancel those programs that are not affordable. The DoD Acquisition Improvement Program addresses this issue in the initiative to integrate the Defense Systems Acquisition Review Council with the Planning, Programming, and Budgeting System processes. The alternative selected for implementation provides that:

••• programs reviewed by the DSARC will be accompanied by assurances that sufficient agreed-to resources are in the FVDP and EPA or can be reprogrammed to execute the program as recommended. DSARC review would certify the program as ready to proceed to the next acquisition stage. Affordability in the aggregate would be a function of the PPBS process (2:34>.

During interviews with acquisition executives, it was found that the combination of this initiative with the initiative to increase program stabilit-y (2:4> leads to a policy of cancelling programs that are nonaffordable.

An absolute policy of cancelling~all programs that do not appear to be affordable would be impossible to implement because of political constraints. A more realistic implementation would be to phase in, over some period of time, a policy of cancelling some fraction of the nonaffordable programs. Equations were structured in the model to selectively cancel programs beginning in 1982 with the model initialized to 1970.

As expected, the cancellation of programs that were not affordable had a positive effect on the system. The backlog of full-scale development and validation programs was reduced and the acquisition cycle length and program cost reduced. Figure 10 contains the model response to cancelling eighty percent of the nonaffordable programs over a period of twenty-four months.

The dashed lines show the original model behavior for comparison. The delays in the response of the acquisition cycle length and the program cost are caused by measuring both of them for programs which are being completed at the present time. Thus, for several years after the new policy is fully implemented, the programs being measured are those which spent a large part of their life cycle operating under the old policies.

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Place Figure 10 about here

The experiment was repeated using ranges of other options to determine the sensitivity of the results to changes in the fraction and implementation period. The more quickly the policy is implemented, the more dramatic the resulting reductions in acquisition cycle length and program cost. Also, the larger the proportion of the nonaffordable progFams cancelled, the more dramatic the results. Even a relatively modest policy of cancelling half of the nonaffordable programs, phased in over a period of four years had noticeable results. It would appear, therefore, that any effort in the indicated direction would be helpful in controlling the acquisition length and program cost. CONCLUSIONS

A validated policy model of the DoD acquisition system has been developed and discussed. The use of the model for testing a specific policy alternative was demonstrated. As a policy analysis tool, the model can provide additional information for a policy maker to use in conjunction with intuition, experience,

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and judgement to evaluate the effects of proposed policy changes and the effectiveness of existing policy. The model also is a useful aid in understanding the complex interactions in the DoD acquisition system. Perhaps the most important conclusion that can be drawn from this phase of the research is that dynamic policy modelling appears to have considerable value in developing policies to more effectively control the process of acquiring weapons for the defense of the nation. The model is available for more extensive studies of initiatives to improve the acquisition process.

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Figure 1. Causal Structure of The Acquisition System

Appendix A

1111111111111111111111111111111111111 RESEARCH AND DEVELOPHENT SECTOR

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111111111 CONCEPT PHASE 1111111111

VALIDATION COSTING

VSLP, K=CLIP (CSPRSO, CSPRC, VDURR.K, 1)

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A VCM.K=((VDURR.K-1)\$VSLP.K+1)/VDURR.K
M BVCOST=8.93E+5

VCEF.X=VCK.KJVCDST .K L BVCOST.K=BVCOST.J+DT#(BVCOST.J#INF.J) A VCOST. K=BVCOST. KANSCF. K

A VDURR.K=AVDUR.K/EVOUR.K A AVOUR.K=VP.K/PVCR.K

N BVCDST=S. 93E+5

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R NOBS.KL=DELAYP(NFC.JK,OLTIME,SOF.K)

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RD33 RD34 RD35 RD36 RD37 RD38 RD39 RD40 RD41 RD42

RD43 RD44 RD45 RD46 RD47 RD48

PI P2 P3 P4 P5 Po P₇

ISSUED FUNDING REQUIREMENTS SECOSE

RÁD

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 $A - 4$

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FN.

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 $A - 6$

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 $\sim 10^7$

IIIIII INITIALIZATION CHANGES FOR TECHAR CHANGE IIIIII

T TVDUR=8.4,28,86

T TVP=81,270,829

T TRDFA=13.6E+9,15.6E+9,21.6E+9

$\begin{minipage}{0.99\textwidth} \begin{tabular}{l} \textbf{1} & \$ CALCULATION OF OUTPUT VARIABLES

A ACQLTH.K=CDUR+DLINF3(VDUR.K,(DDUR.K+PTIME))+ X DLINF3(DDUR.K.PTINE)+PTINE NOTE ACQLTH = Time from program initiation to delivery of first production item. (months) Neasured for programs in production. L TECAGE.K=LOGN(TECHAV.J/OPTECH.J)/SHOOTH(TECHGF.J,TECAGE.J) N TECAGE=120 $NGTE$ TECAGE = Estimated months between the current production technology and when it was the 'state of the art.' A CC.K=DLINF3((CCOST.K#CDUR), VDUR.K+DDUR.K+PDUR.K) A VC.K=DLINF3((VCEF.K#VDUR.K),DDUR.K+PDUR.K) A DC.K=DLINF3((DCEF.K*DDUR.K).PDUR.K) A PC.K=PCOST.K#PECR.K#CPP.K A PROSC.K=(CC.K+VC.K+DC.K+PC.K)/CPP.K NOTE PROGC = Cost per capability unit for programs in production A CSTR.K={CC.K+VC.K+DC.K)/PC.K NOTE CSTR = Cost ratio : R&D vs Production

$\begin{minipage}{0.99\textwidth} \begin{tabular}{@{}c@{}} \hline \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{1}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{2}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{3}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{4}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{5}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{6}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{7}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{8}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{9}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{1}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{1}} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{\textbf{1$

DPT RF PLOT ACQLTH=L/PROGC=\$/CSTR=R/TECAGE=T PLOT ECAP=E, UCAP=U/RPRD=L, RPFAQ=S SPEC DT=.5, LENGTH=360, PLTPER=12 RUN

44 Appendix B

R&D Sector Variables

R&D Funds Availability Factor

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RDFAF

dimensionless

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 $\epsilon_{\rm max}$

 $B-4$

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B-6

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Einansial Sector Yariables

51

 $B-B$

month

 $\frac{1}{2}$ 817

 $B-9$

 52

 $B-10$

55

Fraction factor Fraction duction TAR Technology Application Rate enerations dimensionless dimensionless dimensionless fraction/month months capabi 1 i ty/ production unit technology $units/month$ months technology TDTG Table of Desired Technology Growth dimensionless vs Technology Advancement Rating TECHAP Technology Applied technology units TECHAR Technology Advance Rating dimensionless TECHAV Technology Available technology units TECHGF Technology Growth Fraction fraction/month TGAP Technology Gap between Avail. & technology units Applied TGAPF TGAP as Fraction of TECHAV dimensionless TRDTS Time Required for Desired Technology months Growth TTAT Table of Technology Application Time months VDUR Validation Duration months WSCF Weapon System Complexity Factor dimensionless

Note: Units of technology correspond to units of capability obtained from a unit of production

Note: A generation of technology is a doubling of the capability obtained from a unit of production

B-11

 $B-12$

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Capability Sector Yariables

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57

UCAP US Capability capability

TPECG Table of Pressure for Enemy dimensionless
Capability Growth

INF Inflation fraction

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PRD

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 $B - 14$

 $\sim 10^{-1}$

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 ~ 1000 km $^{-1}$

Contract Contract $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$

 $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$

 $B-15$

 $\sim 10^{11}$ \sim

 $\gamma_{\rm{max}}$ and $\gamma_{\rm{max}}$ $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ and the contribution of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ $\Delta\phi$, and ϕ is a subset of the set of the set of the $\sim 20\,M_{\odot}$

and the state of the state of the There is the same in the same $\chi_{\rm{eff}}$

 \mathcal{A} . The simple properties of the simple properties of the simple properties $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ are the set of the set of the $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ the control of the control of the control of the

 $\label{eq:2.1} \mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)=\mathcal{F}^{(1)}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$ $\label{eq:3.1} \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\left\{ \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\right\} = \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}_{\alpha\beta}(\mathcal{A})\left\{ \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\right\} = \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\left\{ \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\right\} = \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\left\{ \mathcal{L}^{\alpha}(\mathcal{A})\right\}$

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 $\sim 10^{-1}$