

APPENDIX 1

DOCUMENTATION FOR THE OR COURSEWARE

You will find a wealth of software resources on the CD-ROM packaged in the back of the book. The entire software package is called *OR Courseware*.

The installation instructions and system requirements are specified on the front of the CD-ROM. Although the CD-ROM is designed for use on a Windows-based IBM-compatible PC, much of the software also can be run on a Macintosh (as specified later for the individual cases).

To get started, and to see an overview of the available software resources, refer to the introductory screens on the CD-ROM. The individual software packages also are discussed briefly below.

OR TUTOR

OR Tutor is a Web document consisting of a set of HTML pages that often contain JavaScript. Any browser that supports JavaScript can be used, including Netscape Navigator 4.0 (or higher) or Internet Explorer 4.5 (or higher). It can be viewed with either an IBM-compatible PC or a Macintosh.

This resource has been designed to be your personal tutor by illustrating and illuminating key concepts in an interactive manner. It contains 16 *demonstration examples* that supplement the examples in the book in ways that cannot be duplicated on the printed page. Each one vividly demonstrates one of the algorithms or concepts of OR in action. Most combine an *algebraic description* of each step with a *geometric display* of what is happening. Some of these geometric displays become quite dynamic, with moving points or moving lines, to demonstrate the evolution of the algorithm. The demonstration examples also are integrated with

the book, using the same notation and terminology, with references to material in the book, etc. Students find them an enjoyable and effective learning aid.

INTERACTIVE ROUTINES

Another key tutorial feature of the OR Courseware is a set of interactive routines implemented in Excel spreadsheets and/or Visual Basic. These routines can be viewed with recent versions of Microsoft Excel such as Excel 97, 98 (for Macintosh), or 2000. Each one is a self-contained routine that uses prompts or help files to provide the necessary information for execution. Either Excel spreadsheets or graphic interfaces are supplied to allow easy entry of problem data.

Each of these routines enables you to *interactively execute* one of the algorithms of OR. While viewing all relevant information on the computer screen, you make the decision on how the next step of the algorithm should be performed, and then the computer does all the necessary number crunching to execute that step. When a previous mistake is discovered, the routine allows you to quickly backtrack to correct the mistake. To get you started properly, the computer points out any mistake made on the first iteration (where possible). When done, you can print out all the work performed to turn in for homework.

In our judgment, these interactive routines provide the “right” way in this computer age for students to do homework designed to help them learn the algorithms of OR. The routines enable you to focus on concepts rather than mindless number crunching, thereby making the learning process far more efficient and effective as well as stimulating. They

also point you in the right direction, including organizing the work to be done. However, the routines do not do the thinking for you. As in any good homework assignment, you are allowed to make mistakes (and to learn from those mistakes), so that hard thinking will need to be done to try to stay on the right path. We have been careful in designing the division of labor between the computer and the student to provide an efficient, complete learning process.

SPECIAL AUTOMATIC ROUTINES

Once you have learned the logic of a particular algorithm with the help of an interactive routine, you will want to be able to apply the algorithm quickly with an automatic routine thereafter. Such a routine is provided by one or more of the software packages discussed below for most of the algorithms described in this book. However, for a few algorithms that are not included in these commercial packages, we have provided special automatic routines in the OR Courseware. Like the interactive routines, these automatic routines are implemented in Excel spreadsheets and/or Visual Basic for viewing with a recent version of Excel.

EXCEL FILES

The OR Courseware includes a separate Excel file for nearly every chapter in this book. Each file typically includes several spreadsheets that will help you formulate and solve the various kinds of models described in the chapter. Two types of spreadsheets are included. First, each time an example is presented that can be solved using Excel, the complete spreadsheet formulation and solution is given in that chapter's Excel file. This provides a convenient reference, or even useful templates, when you set up spreadsheets to solve similar problems with the Excel Solver (or the Premium Solver discussed in the next subsection). Second, for many of the models in the book, template files are provided that already include all the equations necessary to solve the model. You simply enter the data for the model and the solution is immediately calculated.

EXCEL ADD-INS

Four Excel add-ins are included in OR Courseware. One is *Premium Solver* for Education (Version 3.5), which is a more powerful version of the standard Solver in Excel. It works with Excel 5, 95, 97, and 2000 on Windows systems (but not

with Excel 98 for Macintosh). Premium Solver offers four times the capacity (800 decision variables) of the standard Solver for linear programming problems, and twice the capacity (400 decision variables) for nonlinear programming problems, plus solution speeds 3 to 10 times faster than the standard Solver. A product of the same organization that developed the standard Solver in Excel (Frontline Systems Inc.), Premium Solver is fully upward compatible with the standard Solver. The organization's website is www.frontsys.com. Technical support currently is provided at (775) 831-0300 or by e-mail at <info@frontsys.com>.

The other three Excel add-ins are academic versions of *SensIt* (introduced in Sec. 15.2), *TreePlan* (introduced in Sec. 15.4), and *RiskSim* (introduced in Sec. 22.6). All are shareware developed by Professor Michael R. Middleton for Excel 5, 95, 97, 98, and 2000 for Windows and Macintosh. Documentation is included on the CD-ROM for all three add-ins. The accompanying website is www.usfca.edu/fac-staff/middleton. This software is shareware, so those desiring to use it after the course should register and pay the shareware fee.

As with any Excel add-in, each of these add-ins needs to be installed in Excel before it is operational. (The same is true for the standard Excel Solver.) Installation instructions are included in the OR Courseware for each one.

Another Excel add-in discussed extensively in Sec. 22.6 is *@RISK* for simulation, from Palisade Corporation. Although Palisade declined to make this add-in available on our CD-ROM, it can be downloaded from the website, www.palisade.com, for a 10-day trial period.

MPL/CPLEX

As discussed at length in Secs. 3.7 and 4.8, MPL is a state-of-the-art modeling language and its prime solver CPLEX is a particularly prominent and powerful solver. The student version of MPL and CPLEX is included in the OR Courseware. Although this student version is limited to *much* smaller problems than the massive linear, integer, and quadratic programming problems commonly solved in practice by the full version, it still can handle up to 300 functional constraints and 300 decision variables (including any integer variables). The system requirements for the student version are an IBM-compatible PC with a 486 or Pentium processor, 16 Mb of memory, 4 Mb of free hard-disk space, and Microsoft Windows 95/98, NT (3.51 or higher), or 2000.

The CD-ROM provides an extensive MPL tutorial and documentation, as well as MPL/CPLEX formulations and solutions for virtually every example in the book to which they can be applied. Also included in the OR Courseware is the student version of OptiMax 2000, which enables fully integrating MPL models into Excel and solving with CPLEX. In addition, the powerful nonlinear programming solver CONOPT is included in MPL for solving such problems.

The website for further exploring MPL and its solvers, or for downloading updated student versions of MPL/CPLEX is, www.maximal-usa.com.

LINGO/LINDO FILES

This book also features the popular modeling language LINGO (see especially Appendix 3.1 and the end of Sec. 3.7) and the companion solver LINDO (see Sec. 4.8 and Appendix 4.1). Although they were not available for inclusion in the OR Courseware, student versions of both LINGO and LINDO (as well as the companion spreadsheet solver *What's Best*) can be downloaded from the website, www.lindo.com. Designed for use on a Windows platform, each of these downloads currently can handle up to 150 functional constraints and 300 decision variables. In the case of integer programming or nonlinear programming, they are restricted to 30 integer variables or 30 nonlinear variables. (Extended versions of this software can solve vastly larger problems.)

The OR Courseware includes extensive LINGO/LINDO files or (when LINDO is not relevant) LINGO files for many of the chapters. Each file provides the LINGO and LINDO models and solutions for the various examples in the chap-

ter to which they can be applied. The solutions often are displayed in a What's Best spreadsheet. The CD-ROM also provides LINGO and LINDO tutorials.

MICROSOFT PROJECT

Chapter 10 (especially Sec. 10.2) describes how Microsoft Project can be used to help construct and evaluate a project network while using PERT/CPM. The version included in the OR Courseware is Microsoft Project 98, which is designed for use on a Windows platform. (Microsoft also markets an earlier version, Project 4, for Macintosh). The CD-ROM includes a document READTH~1.HTM in the Project folder with various links that provide extensive documentation of the software. The OR Courseware also includes an MS Project folder that has the main kinds of worksheets that Microsoft Project would generate for the prototype example of Chapter 10.

UPDATES

The software world evolves very rapidly during the lifetime of one edition of a textbook. We believe that the documentation provided in this appendix is accurate at the time of this writing, but changes inevitably will occur as time passes.

With each new printing of this edition, we plan to provide updated versions of the software in the OR Courseware whenever feasible. You can also visit the book's website, www.mhhe.com/hillier, for information about software updates.

APPENDIX 2

CONVEXITY

As introduced in Chap. 13, the concept of *convexity* is frequently used in OR work, especially in the area of nonlinear programming. Therefore, we further introduce the properties of convex or concave functions and convex sets here.

CONVEX OR CONCAVE FUNCTIONS OF A SINGLE VARIABLE

We begin with definitions.

Definitions: A *function* of a single variable $f(x)$ is a **convex function** if, for *each* pair of values of x , say, x' and x'' ($x' < x''$),

$$f[\lambda x'' + (1 - \lambda)x'] \leq \lambda f(x'') + (1 - \lambda)f(x')$$

for all values of λ such that $0 < \lambda < 1$. It is a **strictly convex function** if \leq can be replaced by $<$. It is a **concave function** (or a **strictly concave function**) if this statement holds when \leq is replaced by \geq (or by $>$).

This definition of a convex function has an enlightening geometric interpretation. Consider the graph of the function $f(x)$ drawn as a function of x , as illustrated in Fig. A2.1 for a function $f(x)$ that decreases for $x < 1$, is constant for $1 \leq x \leq 2$, and increases for $x > 2$. Then $[x', f(x')]$ and $[x'', f(x'')]$ are two points on the graph of $f(x)$, and $[\lambda x'' + (1 - \lambda)x', \lambda f(x'') + (1 - \lambda)f(x')]$ represents the various points on the line segment between these two points (but excluding these endpoints) when $0 < \lambda < 1$. Thus, the \leq inequality in the definition indicates that this line segment lies entirely above or on the graph of the function, as in Fig. A2.1. Therefore, $f(x)$ is *convex* if, for *each* pair of points on the graph

of $f(x)$, the line segment joining these two points lies entirely above or on the graph of $f(x)$.

For example, the particular choice of x' and x'' shown in Fig. A2.1 results in the entire line segment (except the two endpoints) lying *above* the graph of $f(x)$. This also occurs for other choices of x' and x'' where either $x' < 1$ or $x'' > 2$ (or both). If $1 \leq x' < x'' \leq 2$, then the entire line segment lies *on* the graph of $f(x)$. Therefore, this $f(x)$ is convex.

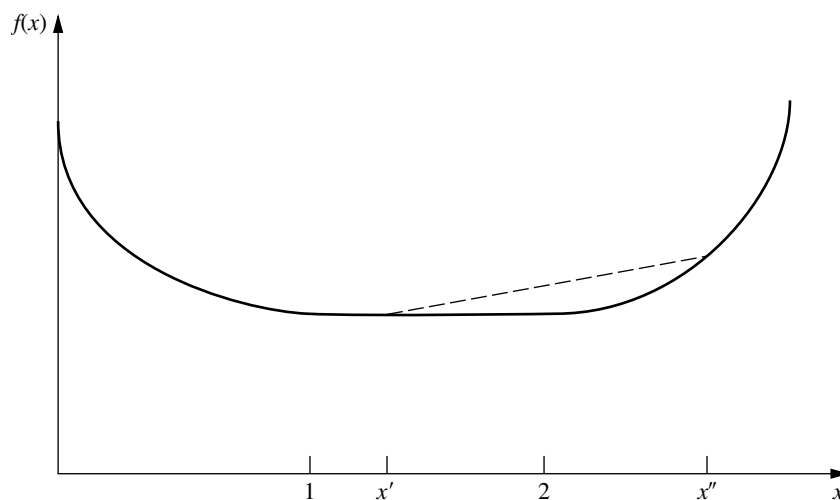
This geometric interpretation indicates that $f(x)$ is convex if it only “bends upward” whenever it bends at all. (This condition is sometimes referred to as *concave upward*, as opposed to *concave downward* for a concave function.) To be more precise, if $f(x)$ possesses a second derivative everywhere, then $f(x)$ is convex if and only if $d^2f(x)/dx^2 \geq 0$ for all possible values of x .

The definitions of a *strictly convex function*, a *concave function*, and a *strictly concave function* also have analogous geometric interpretations. These interpretations are summarized below in terms of the second derivative of the function, which provides a convenient test of the status of the function.

Convexity test for a function of a single variable:

Consider any function of a single variable $f(x)$ that possesses a second derivative at all possible values of x . Then $f(x)$ is

1. *Convex* if and only if $\frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} \geq 0$ for all possible values of x
2. *Strictly convex* if and only if $\frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} > 0$ for all possible values of x

**FIGURE A2.1**

A convex function.

3. *Concave* if and only if $\frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} \leq 0$ for all possible values of x
4. *Strictly concave* if and only if $\frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} < 0$ for all possible values of x

Note that a strictly convex function also is convex, but a convex function is *not* strictly convex if the second derivative equals zero for some values of x . Similarly, a strictly concave function is concave, but the reverse need not be true.

Figures A2.1 to A2.6 show examples that illustrate these definitions and this convexity test.

Applying this test to the function in Fig. A2.1, we see that as x is increased, the slope (first derivative) either increases (for $0 \leq x < 1$ and $x > 2$) or remains constant (for $1 \leq x \leq 2$). Therefore, the second derivative always is non-negative, which verifies that the function is convex. However, it is *not* strictly convex because the second derivative equals zero for $1 \leq x \leq 2$.

However, the function in Fig. A2.2 is strictly convex because its slope always is increasing so its second derivative always is greater than zero.

The piecewise linear function shown in Fig. A2.3 changes its slope at $x = 1$. Consequently, it does not possess a first or second derivative at this point, so the convexity test cannot be fully applied. (The fact that the second derivative equals zero for $0 \leq x < 1$ and $x > 1$ makes the function eligible to be either convex or concave, depending upon its be-

havior at $x = 1$.) Applying the definition of a concave function, we see that if $0 < x' < 1$ and $x'' > 1$ (as shown in Fig. A2.3), then the entire line segment joining $[x', f(x')]$ and $[x'', f(x'')]$ lies *below* the graph of $f(x)$, except for the two endpoints of the line segment. If either $0 \leq x' < x'' \leq 1$ or $1 \leq x' < x''$, then the entire line segment lies *on* the graph of $f(x)$. Therefore, $f(x)$ is concave (but *not* strictly concave).

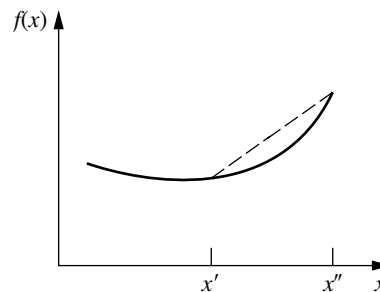
The function in Fig. A2.4 is strictly concave because its second derivative always is less than zero.

As illustrated in Fig. A2.5, any linear function has its second derivative equal to zero everywhere and so is both convex and concave.

The function in Fig. A2.6 is *neither* convex nor concave because as x increases, the slope fluctuates between de-

FIGURE A2.2

A strictly convex function.



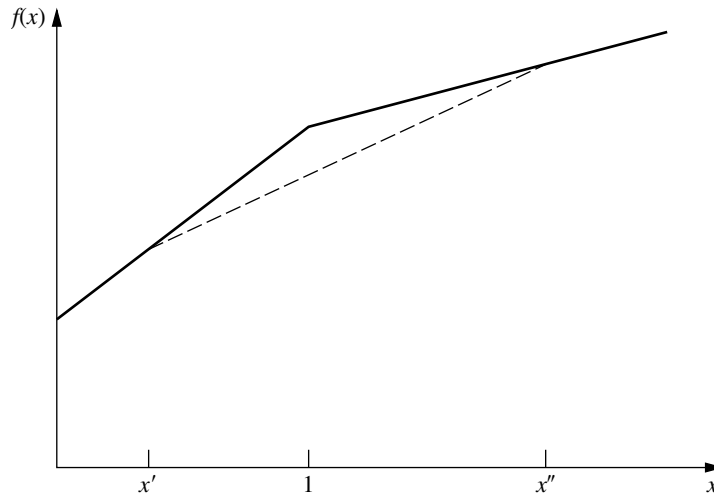


FIGURE A2.3
A concave function.

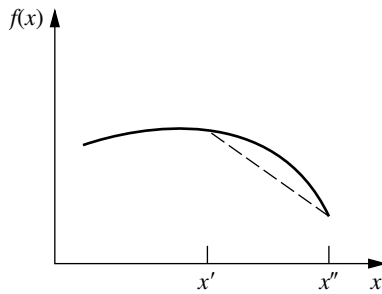


FIGURE A2.4
A strictly concave function.

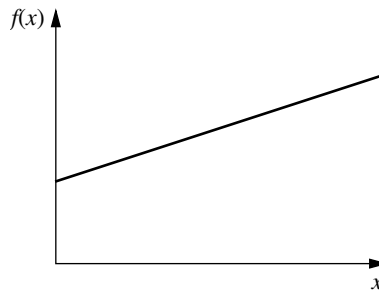


FIGURE A2.5
A function that is both convex and concave.

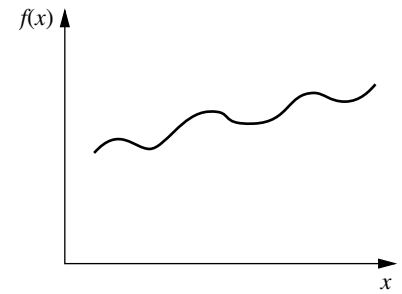


FIGURE A2.6
A function that is neither convex nor concave.

creasing and increasing so the second derivative fluctuates between being negative and positive.

CONVEX OR CONCAVE FUNCTIONS OF SEVERAL VARIABLES

The concept of a convex or concave function of a single variable also generalizes to functions of more than one variable. Thus, if $f(x)$ is replaced by $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, the definition still applies if x is replaced everywhere by (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) . Similarly, the corresponding geometric interpretation is still valid after generalization of the concepts of *points* and *line segments*. Thus, just as a particular value of (x, y) is interpreted as a point in two-dimensional space, each possible value of (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) may be thought of as a point in

m -dimensional (Euclidean) space. By letting $m = n + 1$, the points on the graph of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ become the possible values of $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)]$. Another point, $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1})$, is said to lie above, on, or below the graph of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, according to whether x_{n+1} is larger, equal to, or smaller than $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, respectively.

Definition: The **line segment** joining any two points $(x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_m)$ and $(x''_1, x''_2, \dots, x''_m)$ is the collection of points

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) = [\lambda x''_1 + (1 - \lambda)x'_1, \lambda x''_2 + (1 - \lambda)x'_2, \dots, \lambda x''_m + (1 - \lambda)x'_m]$$

such that $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$.

Thus, a line segment in m -dimensional space is a direct generalization of a line segment in two-dimensional space. For example, if

$$(x'_1, x'_2) = (2, 6), \quad (x''_1, x''_2) = (3, 4),$$

then the line segment joining them is the collection of points

$$(x_1, x_2) = [3\lambda + 2(1 - \lambda), 4\lambda + 6(1 - \lambda)],$$

where $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$.

Definition: $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a **convex function** if, for each pair of points on the graph of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, the line segment joining these two points lies entirely above or on the graph of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. It is a **strictly convex function** if this line segment actually lies entirely above this graph except at the endpoints of the line segment. **Concave functions** and **strictly concave functions** are defined in exactly the same way, except that *above* is replaced by *below*.

Just as the second derivative can be used (when it exists everywhere) to check whether a function of a single variable is convex, so second partial derivatives can be used to check functions of several variables, although in a more complicated way. For example, if there are two variables and all partial derivatives exist everywhere, then the convexity test assesses whether *all three quantities* in the first column of Table A2.1 satisfy the inequalities shown in the appropriate column for *all possible values* of (x_1, x_2) .

When there are more than two variables, the convexity test is a generalization of the one shown in Table A2.1. For example, in mathematical terminology, $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is

convex if and only if its $n \times n$ Hessian matrix is positive semidefinite for all possible values of (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) .

To illustrate the convexity test for two variables, consider the function

$$f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - x_2)^2 = x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2.$$

Therefore,

$$(1) \quad \frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2} \frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2} - \left[\frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \right]^2 = 2(2) - (-2)^2 = 0,$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2} = 2 > 0,$$

$$(3) \quad \frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2} = 2 > 0.$$

Since ≥ 0 holds for all three conditions, $f(x_1, x_2)$ is convex. However, it is *not* strictly convex because the first condition only gives $= 0$ rather than > 0 .

Now consider the negative of this function

$$g(x_1, x_2) = -f(x_1, x_2) = -(x_1 - x_2)^2 = -x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 - x_2^2.$$

In this case,

$$(4) \quad \frac{\partial^2 g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2} \frac{\partial^2 g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2} - \left[\frac{\partial^2 g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \right]^2 = -2(-2) - 2^2 = 0,$$

$$(5) \quad \frac{\partial^2 g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2} = -2 < 0,$$

$$(6) \quad \frac{\partial^2 g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2} = -2 < 0.$$

TABLE A2.1 Convexity test for a function of two variables

Quantity	Convex	Strictly Convex	Concave	Strictly Concave
$\frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2} \frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2} - \left[\frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \right]^2$	≥ 0	> 0	≥ 0	> 0
$\frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1^2}$	≥ 0	> 0	≤ 0	< 0
$\frac{\partial^2 f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2^2}$	≥ 0	> 0	≤ 0	< 0
Values of (x_1, x_2)	All possible values			

Because ≥ 0 holds for the first condition and ≤ 0 holds for the other two, $g(x_1, x_2)$ is a concave function. However, it is *not* strictly concave since the first condition gives $= 0$.

Thus far, convexity has been treated as a general property of a function. However, many nonconvex functions do satisfy the conditions for convexity over certain intervals for the respective variables. Therefore, it is meaningful to talk about a function being convex over a certain region. For example, a function is said to be convex within a neighborhood of a specified point if its second derivative or partial derivatives satisfy the conditions for convexity at that point. This concept is useful in Appendix 3.

Finally, two particularly important properties of convex or concave functions should be mentioned. First, if $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a convex function, then $g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = -f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a concave function, and vice versa, as illustrated by the above example where $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - x_2)^2$. Second, the sum of convex functions is a convex function, and the sum of concave functions is a concave function. To illustrate,

$$f_1(x_1) = x_1^4 + 2x_1^2 - 5x_1$$

and

$$f_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2$$

are both convex functions, as you can verify by calculating their second derivatives. Therefore, the sum of these functions

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^4 + 3x_1^2 - 5x_1 + 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2$$

is a convex function, whereas its negative

$$g(x_1, x_2) = -x_1^4 - 3x_1^2 + 5x_1 - 2x_1x_2 - x_2^2,$$

is a concave function.

CONVEX SETS

The concept of a convex function leads quite naturally to the related concept of a **convex set**. Thus, if $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a convex function, then the collection of points that lie above or on the graph of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ forms a convex set. Similarly, the collection of points that lie below or on the graph of a concave function is a convex set. These cases are illustrated in Figs. A2.7 and A2.8 for the case of a single independent variable. Furthermore, convex sets have the important property that, for any given group of convex sets, the collection of points that lie in all of them (i.e., the intersection of these convex sets) is also a convex set. Therefore, the collection of points that lie both above or on a convex function and below or on a concave function is a convex set, as illustrated in Fig. A2.9. Thus, convex sets may be viewed intuitively as a collection of points whose bottom boundary is a convex function and whose top boundary is a concave function.

Although describing convex sets in terms of convex and concave functions may be helpful for developing intuition about their nature, their actual definition has nothing to do (directly) with such functions.

Definition: A **convex set** is a collection of points such that, for each pair of points in the collection, the entire line segment joining these two points is also in the collection.

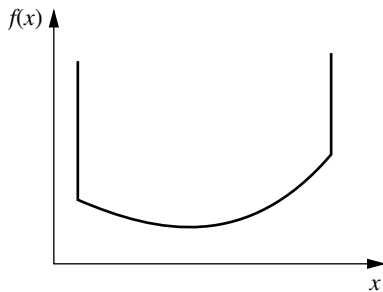


FIGURE A2.7
Example of a convex set determined by a convex function.

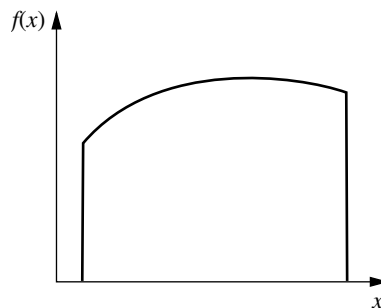


FIGURE A2.8
Example of a convex set determined by a concave function.

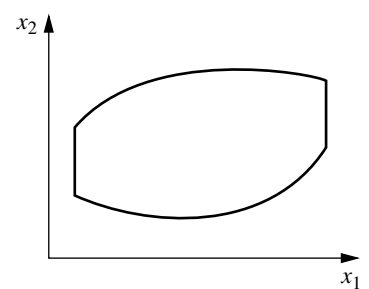


FIGURE A2.9
Example of a convex set determined by both convex and concave functions.

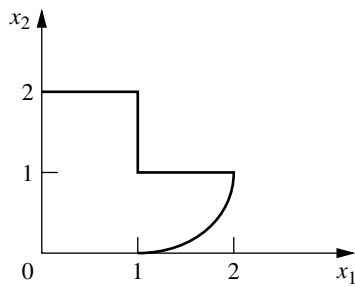


FIGURE A2.10
Example of a set that is not convex.

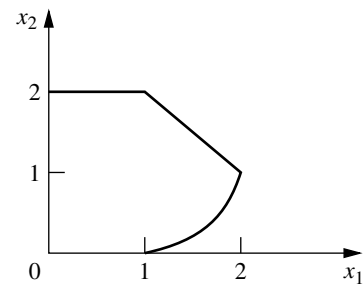


FIGURE A2.11
Example of a convex set.

The distinction between nonconvex sets and convex sets is illustrated in Figs. A2.10 and A2.11. Thus, the set of points shown in Fig. A2.10 is not a convex set because there exist many pairs of these points, for example, $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 1)$, such that the line segment between them does not lie entirely within the set. This is not the case for the set in Fig. A2.11, which is convex.

In conclusion, we introduce the useful concept of an extreme point of a convex set.

Definition: An **extreme point** of a convex set is a point in the set that does not lie on any line segment that joins two other points in the set.

Thus, the extreme points of the convex set in Fig. A2.11 are $(0, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 1)$, $(1, 0)$, and all the infinite number of points on the boundary between $(2, 1)$ and $(1, 0)$. If this particular boundary were a line segment instead, then the set would have only the five listed extreme points.

APPENDIX 3

CLASSICAL OPTIMIZATION METHODS

This appendix reviews the classical methods of calculus for finding a solution that maximizes or minimizes (1) a function of a single variable, (2) a function of several variables, and (3) a function of several variables subject to equality constraints on the values of these variables. It is assumed that the functions considered possess continuous first and second derivatives and partial derivatives everywhere. Some of the concepts discussed next have been introduced briefly in Secs. 13.2 and 13.3.

UNCONSTRAINED OPTIMIZATION OF A FUNCTION OF A SINGLE VARIABLE

Consider a function of a single variable, such as that shown in Fig. A3.1. A necessary condition for a particular solution $x = x^*$ to be either a minimum or a maximum is that

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{at } x = x^*.$$

Thus, in Fig. A3.1 there are five solutions satisfying these conditions. To obtain more information about these five **critical points**, it is necessary to examine the second derivative. Thus, if

$$\frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} > 0 \quad \text{at } x = x^*,$$

then x^* must be at least a **local minimum** [that is, $f(x^*) \leq f(x)$ for all x sufficiently close to x^*]. Using the language in-

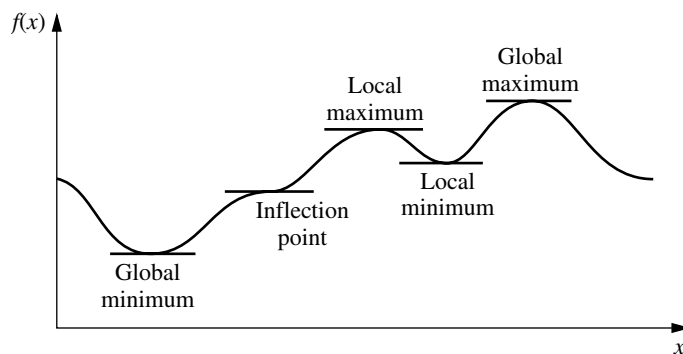
troduced in Appendix 2, we can say that x^* must be a local minimum if $f(x)$ is *strictly convex* within a neighborhood of x^* . Similarly, a sufficient condition for x^* to be a **local maximum** (given that it satisfies the necessary condition) is that $f(x)$ be *strictly concave* within a neighborhood of x^* (that is, the second derivative is *negative* at x^*). If the second derivative is zero, the issue is not resolved (the point may even be an *inflection point*), and it is necessary to examine higher derivatives.

To find a **global minimum** [i.e., a solution x^* such that $f(x^*) \leq f(x)$ for all x], it is necessary to compare the local minima and identify the one that yields the smallest value of $f(x)$. If this value is less than $f(x)$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$ and as $x \rightarrow +\infty$ (or at the endpoints of the function, if it is defined only over a finite interval), then this point is a global minimum. Such a point is shown in Fig. A3.1, along with the **global maximum**, which is identified in an analogous way.

However, if $f(x)$ is known to be either a convex or a concave function (see [Appendix 2](#) for a description of such functions), the analysis becomes much simpler. In particular, if $f(x)$ is a *convex* function, such as the one shown in Fig. A2.1, then any solution x^* such that

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{at } x = x^*$$

is known automatically to be a *global minimum*. In other words, this condition is not only a *necessary* but also a *sufficient* condition for a global minimum of a convex func-

**FIGURE A3.1**

A function having several maxima and minima.

tion. This solution need not be unique, since there could be a tie for the global minimum over a single interval where the derivative is zero. On the other hand, if $f(x)$ actually is *strictly convex*, then this solution must be the only global minimum. (However, if the function is either always decreasing or always increasing, so the derivative is nonzero for all values of x , then there will be no global minimum at a finite value of x .)

Similarly, if $f(x)$ is a *concave* function, then having

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{at } x = x^*$$

becomes both a *necessary* and *sufficient* condition for x^* to be a *global maximum*.

UNCONSTRAINED OPTIMIZATION OF A FUNCTION OF SEVERAL VARIABLES

The analysis for an unconstrained function of several variables $f(\mathbf{x})$, where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, is similar. Thus, a *necessary* condition for a solution $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*$ to be either a minimum or a maximum is that

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} = 0 \quad \text{at } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*, \text{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

After the critical points that satisfy this condition are identified, each such point is then classified as a local minimum or maximum if the function is *strictly convex* or *strictly concave*, respectively, within a neighborhood of the point. (Additional analysis is required if the function is neither.) The

global minimum and *maximum* would be found by comparing the local minima and maxima and then checking the value of the function as some of the variables approach $-\infty$ or $+\infty$. However, if the function is known to be *convex* or *concave*, then a critical point must be a *global minimum* or a *global maximum*, respectively.

CONSTRAINED OPTIMIZATION WITH EQUALITY CONSTRAINTS

Now consider the problem of finding the *minimum* or *maximum* of the function $f(\mathbf{x})$, subject to the restriction that \mathbf{x} must satisfy all the equations

$$\begin{aligned} g_1(\mathbf{x}) &= b_1 \\ g_2(\mathbf{x}) &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ g_m(\mathbf{x}) &= b_m, \end{aligned}$$

where $m < n$. For example, if $n = 2$ and $m = 1$, the problem might be

$$\text{Maximize} \quad f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2,$$

subject to

$$g(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1.$$

In this case, (x_1, x_2) is restricted to be on the circle of radius 1, whose center is at the origin, so that the goal is to find the point on this circle that yields the largest value of $f(x_1, x_2)$. This example will be solved after a general approach to the problem is outlined.

A classical method of dealing with this problem is the **method of Lagrange multipliers**. This procedure begins by formulating the **Lagrangian function**

$$h(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i [g_i(\mathbf{x}) - b_i],$$

where the new variables $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m)$ are called *Lagrange multipliers*. Notice the key fact that for the *feasible* values of \mathbf{x} ,

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) - b_i = 0, \quad \text{for all } i,$$

so $h(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x})$. Therefore, it can be shown that if $(\mathbf{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)$ is a *local* or *global* minimum or maximum for the unconstrained function $h(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$, then \mathbf{x}^* is a corresponding *critical point* for the original problem. As a result, the method now reduces to analyzing $h(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ by the procedure just described for unconstrained optimization. Thus, the $n + m$ partial derivatives would be set equal to zero

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_j} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} - \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j} = 0, & \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial \lambda_i} &= -g_i(\mathbf{x}) + b_i = 0, & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \end{aligned}$$

and then the critical points would be obtained by solving these equations for $(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$. Notice that the last m equations are equivalent to the constraints in the original problem, so only feasible solutions are considered. After further analysis to identify the *global* minimum or maximum of $h(\cdot)$, the resulting value of \mathbf{x} is then the desired solution to the original problem.

From a practical computational viewpoint, the method of Lagrange multipliers is not a particularly powerful procedure. It is often essentially impossible to solve the equations to obtain the critical points. Furthermore, even when the points can be obtained, the number of critical points may be so large (often infinite) that it is impractical to attempt to identify a global minimum or maximum. However, for certain types of small problems, this method can sometimes be used successfully.

To illustrate, consider the example introduced earlier. In this case,

$$h(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2 - \lambda(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1),$$

so that

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial x_1} = 2x_1 - 2\lambda x_1 = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial x_2} = 2 - 2\lambda x_2 = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial \lambda} = -(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1) = 0.$$

The first equation implies that either $\lambda = 1$ or $x_1 = 0$. If $\lambda = 1$, then the other two equations imply that $x_2 = 1$ and $x_1 = 0$. If $x_1 = 0$, then the third equation implies that $x_2 = \pm 1$. Therefore, the two critical points for the original problem are $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 1)$ and $(0, -1)$. Thus, it is apparent that these points are the global maximum and minimum, respectively.

THE DERIVATIVE OF A DEFINITE INTEGRAL

In presenting the classical optimization methods just described, we have assumed that you are already familiar with derivatives and how to obtain them. However, there is a special case of importance in OR work that warrants additional explanation, namely, the derivative of a definite integral. In particular, consider how to find the derivative of the function

$$F(y) = \int_{g(y)}^{h(y)} f(x, y) dx,$$

where $g(y)$ and $h(y)$ are the limits of integration expressed as functions of y .

To begin, suppose that these limits of integration are constants, so that $g(y) = a$ and $h(y) = b$, respectively. For this special case, it can be shown that, given the regularity conditions assumed at the beginning of this appendix, the derivative is

$$\frac{d}{dy} \int_a^b f(x, y) dx = \int_a^b \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} dx.$$

For example, if $f(x, y) = e^{-xy}$, $a = 0$, and $b = \infty$, then

$$\frac{d}{dy} \int_0^\infty e^{-xy} dx = \int_0^\infty (-x)e^{-xy} dx = -\frac{1}{y^2}$$

at any positive value of y . Thus, the intuitive procedure of interchanging the order of differentiation and integration is valid for this case.

However, finding the derivative becomes a little more complicated than this when the limits of integration are functions. In particular,

$$\frac{d}{dy} \int_{g(y)}^{h(y)} f(x, y) dx = \int_{g(y)}^{h(y)} \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} dx +$$

$$f(h(y), y) \frac{dh(y)}{dy} - f(g(y), y) \frac{dg(y)}{dy},$$

where $f(h(y), y)$ is obtained by writing out $f(x, y)$ and then replacing x by $h(y)$ wherever it appears, and similarly for

$f(g(y), y)$. To illustrate, if $f(x, y) = x^2y^3$, $g(y) = y$, and $h(y) = 2y$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dy} \int_y^{2y} x^2y^3 dx &= \int_y^{2y} 3x^2y^2 dx + (2y)^2y^3(2) - y^2y^3(1) \\ &= 14y^5 \end{aligned}$$

at any positive value of y .

APPENDIX 4

MATRICES AND MATRIX OPERATIONS

A **matrix** is a rectangular array of numbers. For example,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a 3×2 matrix (where 3×2 is said “3 by 2”) because it is a rectangular array of numbers with three rows and two columns. (Matrices are denoted in this book by **boldface capital letters**.) The numbers in the rectangular array are called the **elements** of the matrix. For example,

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2.4 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \\ -4 & 2 & -1 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a 2×4 matrix whose elements are 1, 2.4, 0, $\sqrt{3}$, -4, 2, -1, and 15. Thus, in more general terms,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \|a_{ij}\|$$

is an $m \times n$ matrix, where a_{11}, \dots, a_{mn} represent the numbers that are the elements of this matrix; $\|a_{ij}\|$ is shorthand notation for identifying the matrix whose element in row i and column j is a_{ij} for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

MATRIX OPERATIONS

Because matrices do not possess a numerical value, they cannot be added, multiplied, and so on as if they were individual numbers. However, it is sometimes desirable to perform certain manipulations on arrays of numbers. There-

fore, rules have been developed for performing operations on matrices that are analogous to arithmetic operations. To describe these, let $\mathbf{A} = \|a_{ij}\|$ and $\mathbf{B} = \|b_{ij}\|$ be two matrices having the same number of rows and the same number of columns. (We shall change this restriction on the size of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} later when discussing matrix multiplication.)

Matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are said to be *equal* ($\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$) if and only if *all* the corresponding elements are equal ($a_{ij} = b_{ij}$ for all i and j).

The operation of *multiplying a matrix by a number* (denote this number by k) is performed by multiplying each element of the matrix by k , so that

$$k\mathbf{A} = \|ka_{ij}\|.$$

For example,

$$3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & 2 \\ 5 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 6 \\ 15 & 0 & -9 \end{bmatrix}.$$

To add two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , simply add the corresponding elements, so that

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \|a_{ij} + b_{ij}\|.$$

To illustrate,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Similarly, *subtraction* is done as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-1)\mathbf{B},$$

so that

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \|a_{ij} - b_{ij}\|.$$

For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that, with the exception of multiplication by a number, all the preceding operations are defined only when the two matrices involved are the same size. However, all of these operations are straightforward because they involve performing only the same comparison or arithmetic operation on the corresponding elements of the matrices.

There exists one additional elementary operation that has not been defined—**matrix multiplication**—but it is considerably more complicated. To find the element in row i , column j of the matrix resulting from multiplying matrix \mathbf{A} times matrix \mathbf{B} , it is necessary to multiply each element in row i of \mathbf{A} by the corresponding element in column j of \mathbf{B} and then to add these products. To do this element-by-element multiplication, we need the following restriction on the sizes of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} :

Matrix multiplication \mathbf{AB} is defined if and only if the number of columns of \mathbf{A} equals the number of rows of \mathbf{B} .

Thus, if \mathbf{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix and \mathbf{B} is an $n \times s$ matrix, then their product is

$$\mathbf{AB} = \left\| \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj} \right\|,$$

where this product is an $m \times s$ matrix. However, if \mathbf{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix and \mathbf{B} is an $r \times s$ matrix, where $n \neq r$, then \mathbf{AB} is not defined.

To illustrate matrix multiplication,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1(3) + 2(2) & 1(1) + 2(5) \\ 4(3) + 0(2) & 4(1) + 0(5) \\ 2(3) + 3(2) & 2(1) + 3(5) \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 11 \\ 12 & 4 \\ 12 & 17 \end{bmatrix}.$$

On the other hand, if one attempts to multiply these matrices in the reverse order, the resulting product

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

is not even defined.

Even when both \mathbf{AB} and \mathbf{BA} are defined,

$$\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$$

in general. Thus, *matrix multiplication* should be viewed as a specially designed operation whose properties are quite different from those of *arithmetic multiplication*. To understand why this special definition was adopted, consider the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 + x_4 &= 20 \\ x_1 + 5x_2 + 4x_3 + 5x_4 &= 30 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 - 6x_3 + 2x_4 &= 20. \end{aligned}$$

Rather than write out these equations as shown here, they can be written much more concisely in matrix form as

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b},$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 & -6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 20 \\ 30 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is this kind of multiplication for which matrix multiplication is designed.

Carefully note that *matrix division* is *not* defined.

Although the matrix operations described here do not possess certain of the properties of arithmetic operations, they do satisfy these laws

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}, \\ (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} &= \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}), \\ \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) &= \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC}, \\ \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) &= (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C}, \end{aligned}$$

when the relative sizes of these matrices are such that the indicated operations are defined.

Another type of matrix operation, which has no arithmetic analog, is the **transpose operation**. This operation involves nothing more than interchanging the rows and columns of the matrix, which is frequently useful for performing the multiplication operation in the desired way. Thus, for any matrix $\mathbf{A} = \|a_{ij}\|$, its transpose \mathbf{A}^T is

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \|a_{ji}\|.$$

For example, if

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

then

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

SPECIAL KINDS OF MATRICES

In arithmetic, 0 and 1 play a special role. There also exist special matrices that play a similar role in matrix theory. In particular, the matrix that is analogous to 1 is the **identity matrix \mathbf{I}** , which is a *square* matrix whose elements are 0s except for 1s along the main diagonal. Thus,

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The number of rows or columns of \mathbf{I} can be specified as desired. The analogy of \mathbf{I} to 1 follows from the fact that for any matrix \mathbf{A} ,

$$\mathbf{IA} = \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{AI},$$

where \mathbf{I} is assigned the appropriate number of rows and columns in each case for the multiplication operation to be defined.

Similarly, the matrix that is analogous to 0 is the **null matrix $\mathbf{0}$** , which is a matrix of any size whose elements are *all* 0s. Thus,

$$\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, for any matrix \mathbf{A} ,

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{A}, \quad \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \text{and} \\ \mathbf{0A} = \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{A0},$$

where $\mathbf{0}$ is the appropriate size in each case for the operations to be defined.

On certain occasions, it is useful to partition a matrix into several smaller matrices, called **submatrices**. For example, one possible way of partitioning a 3×4 matrix would be

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[\begin{array}{c|ccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{array} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{12} = [a_{12}, \quad a_{13}, \quad a_{14}], \quad \mathbf{A}_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} \\ a_{31} \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{A}_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{bmatrix}$$

all are submatrices. Rather than perform operations element by element on such partitioned matrices, we can do them in terms of the submatrices, provided the partitionings are such that the operations are defined. For example, if \mathbf{B} is a partitioned 4×1 matrix such that

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \mathbf{B}_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

then

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_1 + \mathbf{A}_{12}\mathbf{B}_2 \\ \mathbf{A}_{21}b_1 + \mathbf{A}_{22}\mathbf{B}_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

VECTORS

A special kind of matrix that plays an important role in matrix theory is the kind that has either a *single row* or a *single column*. Such matrices are often referred to as **vectors**. Thus,

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

is a **row vector**, and

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is a **column vector**. (Vectors are denoted in this book by **boldface lowercase letters**.) These vectors also are some-

times called *n*-vectors to indicate that they have *n* elements. For example,

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 4, -2, \frac{1}{3}, 7]$$

is a 5-vector.

A **null vector** $\mathbf{0}$ is either a row vector or a column vector whose elements are *all* 0s, that is,

$$\mathbf{0} = [0, 0, \dots, 0] \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(Although the same symbol $\mathbf{0}$ is used for either kind of *null vector*, as well as for a *null matrix*, the context normally will identify which it is.)

One reason vectors play an important role in matrix theory is that any $m \times n$ matrix can be partitioned into either *m* row vectors or *n* column vectors, and important properties of the matrix can be analyzed in terms of these vectors. To amplify, consider a set of *n*-vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$ of the same type (i.e., they are either all row vectors or all column vectors).

Definition: A set of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$ is said to be **linearly dependent** if there exist *m* numbers (denoted by c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m), some of which are not zero, such that

$$c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + c_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + c_m\mathbf{x}_m = \mathbf{0}.$$

Otherwise, the set is said to be **linearly independent**.

To illustrate, if $m = 3$ and

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = [1, 1, 1], \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = [0, 1, 1], \quad \mathbf{x}_3 = [2, 5, 5],$$

then there exist three numbers, namely, $c_1 = 2, c_2 = 3$, and $c_3 = -1$, such that

$$\begin{aligned} 2\mathbf{x}_1 + 3\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_3 &= [2, 2, 2] + [0, 3, 3] - [2, 5, 5] \\ &= [0, 0, 0], \end{aligned}$$

so, $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ are linearly dependent. Note that showing they are linearly dependent required finding three particular numbers (c_1, c_2, c_3) that make $c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + c_2\mathbf{x}_2 + c_3\mathbf{x}_3 = \mathbf{0}$, which is not always easy. Also note that this equation implies that

$$\mathbf{x}_3 = 2\mathbf{x}_1 + 3\mathbf{x}_2.$$

Thus, $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ can be interpreted as being linearly dependent because one of them is a linear combination of the others. However, if \mathbf{x}_3 were changed to

$$\mathbf{x}_3 = [2, 5, 6]$$

instead, then $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ would be linearly independent because it is impossible to express one of these vectors (say, \mathbf{x}_3) as a linear combination of the other two.

Definition: The **rank** of a *set* of vectors is the largest number of *linearly independent vectors* that can be chosen from the set.

Continuing the preceding example, we see that the rank of the set of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ was 2 (any pair of the vectors is linearly independent), but it became 3 after \mathbf{x}_3 was changed.

Definition: A **basis** for a *set* of vectors is a collection of linearly independent vectors taken from the set such that every vector in the set is a linear combination of the vectors in the collection (i.e., every vector in the set equals the sum of certain multiples of the vectors in the collection).

To illustrate, any pair of the vectors (say, \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2) constituted a basis for $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ in the preceding example before \mathbf{x}_3 was changed. After \mathbf{x}_3 is changed, the basis becomes all three vectors.

The following theorem relates the last two definitions.

Theorem A4.1: A collection of *r* linearly independent vectors chosen from a set of vectors is a basis for the set if and only if the set has rank *r*.

SOME PROPERTIES OF MATRICES

Given the preceding results regarding vectors, it is now possible to present certain important concepts regarding matrices.

Definition: The **row rank** of a matrix is the rank of its set of row vectors. The **column rank** of a matrix is the rank of its column vectors.

For example, if matrix **A** is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 5 \end{bmatrix},$$

then the preceding example of linearly dependent vectors shows that the row rank of \mathbf{A} is 2. The column rank of \mathbf{A} is also 2. (The first two column vectors are linearly independent but the second column vector minus the third equals $\mathbf{0}$.) Having the same column rank and row rank is no coincidence, as the following general theorem indicates.

Theorem A4.2: The row rank and column rank of a matrix are equal.

Thus, it is only necessary to speak of the rank of a matrix.

The final concept to be discussed is the **inverse of a matrix**. For any nonzero number k , there exists a reciprocal or inverse $k^{-1} = 1/k$ such that

$$kk^{-1} = 1 = k^{-1}k.$$

Is there an analogous concept that is valid in matrix theory? In other words, for a given matrix \mathbf{A} other than the null matrix, does there exist a matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}?$$

If \mathbf{A} is not a square matrix (i.e., if the number of rows and the number of columns of \mathbf{A} differ), the answer is *never*, because these matrix products would necessarily have a different number of rows for the multiplication to be defined (so that the equality operation would not be defined). However, if \mathbf{A} is square, then the answer is *under certain circumstances*, as described by the following definition and Theorem A4.3.

Definition: A matrix is **nonsingular** if its rank equals both the number of rows and the number of columns. Otherwise, it is **singular**.

Thus, only square matrices can be *nonsingular*. A useful way of testing for nonsingularity is provided by the fact that a square matrix is nonsingular if and only if *its determinant is nonzero*.

Theorem A4.3: (a) If \mathbf{A} is nonsingular, there is a unique nonsingular matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} , called the **inverse** of \mathbf{A} , such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$.
 (b) If \mathbf{A} is nonsingular and \mathbf{B} is a matrix for which either $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$ or $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$, then $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.
 (c) Only nonsingular matrices have inverses.

To illustrate matrix inverses, consider the matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notice that \mathbf{A} is nonsingular since its determinant, $5(-1) - 1(-4) = -1$, is nonzero. Therefore, \mathbf{A} must have an inverse, which happens to be

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

APPENDIX 5

TABLES

TABLE A5.1 Areas under the normal curve from K_α to ∞

$$P\{\text{standard normal} > K_\alpha\} = \int_{K_\alpha}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx = \alpha$$

K_α	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
0.0	.5000	.4960	.4920	.4880	.4840	.4801	.4761	.4721	.4681	.4641
0.1	.4602	.4562	.4522	.4483	.4443	.4404	.4364	.4325	.4286	.4247
0.2	.4207	.4168	.4129	.4090	.4052	.4013	.3974	.3936	.3897	.3859
0.3	.3821	.3783	.3745	.3707	.3669	.3632	.3594	.3557	.3520	.3483
0.4	.3446	.3409	.3372	.3336	.3300	.3264	.3228	.3192	.3156	.3121
0.5	.3085	.3050	.3015	.2981	.2946	.2912	.2877	.2843	.2810	.2776
0.6	.2743	.2709	.2676	.2643	.2611	.2578	.2546	.2514	.2483	.2451
0.7	.2420	.2389	.2358	.2327	.2296	.2266	.2236	.2206	.2177	.2148
0.8	.2119	.2090	.2061	.2033	.2005	.1977	.1949	.1922	.1894	.1867
0.9	.1841	.1814	.1788	.1762	.1736	.1711	.1685	.1660	.1635	.1611
1.0	.1587	.1562	.1539	.1515	.1492	.1469	.1446	.1423	.1401	.1379
1.1	.1357	.1335	.1314	.1292	.1271	.1251	.1230	.1210	.1190	.1170
1.2	.1151	.1131	.1112	.1093	.1075	.1056	.1038	.1020	.1003	.0985
1.3	.0968	.0951	.0934	.0918	.0901	.0885	.0869	.0853	.0838	.0823
1.4	.0808	.0793	.0778	.0764	.0749	.0735	.0721	.0708	.0694	.0681
1.5	.0668	.0655	.0643	.0630	.0618	.0606	.0594	.0582	.0571	.0559
1.6	.0548	.0537	.0526	.0516	.0505	.0495	.0485	.0475	.0465	.0455
1.7	.0446	.0436	.0427	.0418	.0409	.0401	.0392	.0384	.0375	.0367
1.8	.0359	.0351	.0344	.0336	.0329	.0322	.0314	.0307	.0301	.0294
1.9	.0287	.0281	.0274	.0268	.0262	.0256	.0250	.0244	.0239	.0233
2.0	.0228	.0222	.0217	.0212	.0207	.0202	.0197	.0192	.0188	.0183
2.1	.0179	.0174	.0170	.0166	.0162	.0158	.0154	.0150	.0146	.0143
2.2	.0139	.0136	.0132	.0129	.0125	.0122	.0119	.0116	.0113	.0110
2.3	.0107	.0104	.0102	.00990	.00964	.00939	.00914	.00889	.00866	.00842
2.4	.00820	.00798	.00776	.00755	.00734	.00714	.00695	.00676	.00657	.00639
2.5	.00621	.00604	.00587	.00570	.00554	.00539	.00523	.00508	.00494	.00480
2.6	.00466	.00453	.00440	.00427	.00415	.00402	.00391	.00379	.00368	.00357
2.7	.00347	.00336	.00326	.00317	.00307	.00298	.00289	.00280	.00272	.00264
2.8	.00256	.00248	.00240	.00233	.00226	.00219	.00212	.00205	.00199	.00193
2.9	.00187	.00181	.00175	.00169	.00164	.00159	.00154	.00149	.00144	.00139

K_{α}	.0	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9
3	.00135	.0 ³ 968	.0 ³ 687	.0 ³ 483	.0 ³ 337	.0 ³ 233	.0 ³ 159	.0 ³ 108	.0 ⁴ 723	.0 ⁴ 481
4	.0 ⁴ 317	.0 ⁴ 207	.0 ⁴ 133	.0 ⁵ 854	.0 ⁵ 541	.0 ⁵ 340	.0 ⁵ 211	.0 ⁵ 130	.0 ⁶ 793	.0 ⁶ 479
5	.0 ⁶ 287	.0 ⁶ 170	.0 ⁷ 996	.0 ⁷ 579	.0 ⁷ 333	.0 ⁷ 190	.0 ⁷ 107	.0 ⁸ 599	.0 ⁸ 332	.0 ⁸ 182
6	.0 ⁹ 987	.0 ⁹ 530	.0 ⁹ 282	.0 ⁹ 149	.0 ¹⁰ 777	.0 ¹⁰ 402	.0 ¹⁰ 206	.0 ¹⁰ 104	.0 ¹¹ 523	.0 ¹¹ 260

Source: F. E. Croxton, *Tables of Areas in Two Tails and in One Tail of the Normal Curve*. Copyright 1949 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

TABLE A5.2 100 α percentage points of Student's t distribution

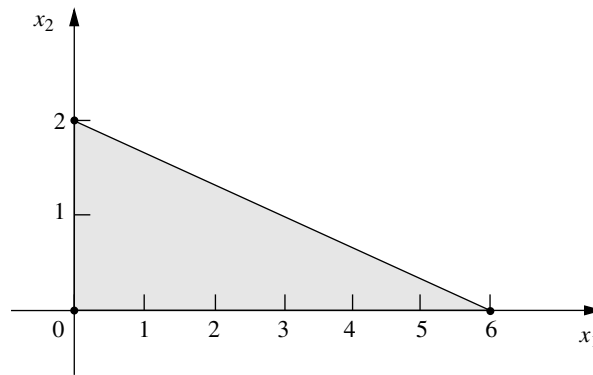
$P\{\text{Student's } t \text{ with } \nu \text{ Degrees of Freedom} \geq \text{Tabled Value}\} = \alpha$										
α ν	0.40	0.25	0.10	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.0025	0.001	0.0005
1	0.325	1.000	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657	127.32	318.31	636.62
2	0.289	0.816	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	14.089	22.327	31.598
3	0.277	0.765	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	7.453	10.214	12.924
4	0.271	0.741	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	5.598	7.173	8.610
5	0.267	0.727	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	4.773	5.893	6.869
6	0.265	0.718	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	4.317	5.208	5.959
7	0.263	0.711	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	4.029	4.785	5.408
8	0.262	0.706	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	3.833	4.501	5.041
9	0.261	0.703	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	3.690	4.297	4.781
10	0.260	0.700	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	3.581	4.144	4.587
11	0.260	0.697	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106	3.497	4.025	4.437
12	0.259	0.695	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	3.428	3.930	4.318
13	0.259	0.694	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012	3.372	3.852	4.221
14	0.258	0.692	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	3.326	3.787	4.140
15	0.258	0.691	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	3.286	3.733	4.073
16	0.258	0.690	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	3.252	3.686	4.015
17	0.257	0.689	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.222	3.646	3.965
18	0.257	0.688	1.330	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.197	3.610	3.922
19	0.257	0.688	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.174	3.579	3.883
20	0.257	0.687	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.153	3.552	3.850
21	0.257	0.686	1.323	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.135	3.527	3.819
22	0.256	0.686	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.119	3.505	3.792
23	0.256	0.685	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.104	3.485	3.767
24	0.256	0.685	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.091	3.467	3.745
25	0.256	0.684	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.078	3.450	3.725
26	0.256	0.684	1.315	1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779	3.067	3.435	3.707
27	0.256	0.684	1.314	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	3.057	3.421	3.690
28	0.256	0.683	1.313	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	3.047	3.408	3.674
29	0.256	0.683	1.311	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	3.038	3.396	3.659
30	0.256	0.683	1.310	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750	3.030	3.385	3.646
40	0.255	0.681	1.303	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704	2.971	3.307	3.551
60	0.254	0.679	1.296	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660	2.915	3.232	3.460
120	0.254	0.677	1.289	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617	2.860	3.160	3.373
∞	0.253	0.674	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576	2.807	3.090	3.291

Source: Table 12 of *Biometrika Tables for Statisticians*, vol. I, 3d ed., 1966, by permission of the Biometrika Trustees.

PARTIAL ANSWERS TO SELECTED PROBLEMS

CHAPTER 3

3.1-1. (a)



3.1-4. $(x_1, x_2) = (13, 5)$; $Z = 31$.

3.1-11. (b) $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (26.19, 54.76, 20)$; $Z = 2,904.76$.

3.2-3. (b) Maximize $Z = 4,500x_1 + 4,500x_2$,

subject to

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &\leq 1 \\x_2 &\leq 1 \\5,000x_1 + 4,000x_2 &\leq 6,000 \\400x_1 + 500x_2 &\leq 600\end{aligned}$$

and

$$x_1 \geq 0, \quad x_2 \geq 0.$$

3.4-1. (a) *Proportionality*: OK since it is implied that a fixed fraction of the radiation dosage at a given entry point is absorbed by a given area.

Additivity: OK since it is stated that the radiation absorption from multiple beams is additive.

Divisibility: OK since beam strength can be any fractional level.

Certainty: Due to the complicated analysis required to estimate the data on radiation absorption in different tissue types, there is considerable uncertainty about the data, so sensitivity analysis should be used.

3.4-11. (b) From Factory 1, ship 200 units to Customer 2 and 200 units to Customer 3.
From Factory 2, ship 300 units to Customer 1 and 200 units to Customer 3.

3.4-13. (c) $Z = \$152,880$; $A_1 = 60,000$; $A_3 = 84,000$; $D_5 = 117,600$. All other decision variables are 0.

3.4-16. (b) Each optimal solution has $Z = \$13,330$.

3.6-1. (c, e)

Resource	Resource Usage per Unit of Each Activity		Totals		Resource Available
	Activity 1	Activity 2			
1	2	1	10	\leq	10
2	3	3	20	\leq	20
3	2	4	20	\leq	20
Unit Profit	20	30	\$166.67		
Solution	3.333	3.333			

3.6-4. (a) Minimize $Z = 84C + 72T + 60A$,

subject to

$$90C + 20T + 40A \geq 200$$

$$30C + 80T + 60A \geq 180$$

$$10C + 20T + 60A \geq 150$$

and

$$C \geq 0, \quad T \geq 0, \quad A \geq 0.$$

CHAPTER 4

4.1-1. (a) The corner-point solutions that are *feasible* are $(0, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, $(\frac{1}{4}, 1)$, $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$, $(1, \frac{1}{4})$, and $(1, 0)$.

4.3-4. $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 10, 6\frac{2}{3})$; $Z = 70$.

4.6-1. (a, c) $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 1)$; $Z = 7$.

4.6-4. (a, c, e) $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (\frac{4}{5}, \frac{9}{5}, 0)$; $Z = 7$.

4.6-10. (a, b, d) $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 15, 15)$; $Z = 90$.

(c) For both the Big M method and the two-phase method, only the final tableau represents a feasible solution for the real problem.

4.6-15. (a, c) $(x_1, x_2) = (-\frac{8}{7}, \frac{18}{7})$; $Z = \frac{80}{7}$.

4.7-6. (a) $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 1, 3)$; $Z = 7$.

(b) $y_1^* = \frac{1}{2}$, $y_2^* = \frac{5}{2}$, $y_3^* = 0$. These are the marginal values of resources 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

CHAPTER 5

5.1-1. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 2)$ is optimal. Other CPF solutions are $(0, 0)$, $(3, 0)$, and $(0, 3)$.

5.1-14. $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 15, 15)$ is optimal.

5.2-2. $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (0, 5, 0, \frac{5}{2}, 0)$; $Z = 50$.

5.3-1. (a) Right side is $Z = 8$, $x_2 = 14$, $x_6 = 5$, $x_3 = 11$.

(b) $x_1 = 0$, $2x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 5$, $x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = 3$.

CHAPTER 6

6.1-2. (a) Minimize $W = 15y_1 + 12y_2 + 45y_3$,

subject to

$$-y_1 + y_2 + 5y_3 \geq 10$$

$$2y_1 + y_2 + 3y_3 \geq 20$$

and

$$y_1 \geq 0, \quad y_2 \geq 0, \quad y_3 \geq 0.$$

6.3-1. (c)

Complementary Basic Solutions				
Primal Problem		$Z = W$	Dual Problem	
Basic Solution	Feasible?		Feasible?	Basic Solution
$(0, 0, 20, 10)$	Yes	0	No	$(0, 0, -6, -8)$
$(4, 0, 0, 6)$	Yes	24	No	$(1\frac{1}{5}, 0, 0, -5\frac{3}{5})$
$(0, 5, 10, 0)$	Yes	40	No	$(0, 4, -2, 0)$
$(2\frac{1}{2}, 3\frac{3}{4}, 0, 0)$	Yes and optimal	45	Yes and optimal	$(\frac{1}{2}, 3\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0)$
$(10, 0, -30, 0)$	No	60	Yes	$(0, 6, 0, 4)$
$(0, 10, 0, -10)$	No	80	Yes	$(4, 0, 14, 0)$

6.3-7. (c) Basic variables are x_1 and x_2 . The other variables are nonbasic.

(e) $x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 + x_5 = 6$, $4x_1 + 6x_2 + 5x_3 + 7x_4 + x_5 = 15$, $x_3 = 0$, $x_4 = 0$, $x_5 = 0$. Optimal CPF solution is $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (\frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, 0, 0, 0)$.

6.4-3. Maximize $W = 8y_1 + 6y_2$,

subject to

$$y_1 + 3y_2 \leq 2$$

$$4y_1 + 2y_2 \leq 3$$

$$2y_1 \leq 1$$

and

$$y_1 \geq 0, \quad y_2 \geq 0.$$

6.4-8. (a) Minimize $W = 120y_1 + 80y_2 + 100y_3$,

subject to

$$\begin{aligned} y_2 - 3y_3 &= -1 \\ 3y_1 - y_2 + y_3 &= 2 \\ y_1 - 4y_2 + 2y_3 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$y_1 \geq 0, \quad y_2 \geq 0, \quad y_3 \geq 0.$$

6.6-1. (d) Not optimal, since $2y_1 + 3y_2 \geq 3$ is violated for $y_1^* = \frac{1}{5}$, $y_2^* = \frac{3}{5}$.

(f) Not optimal, since $3y_1 + 2y_2 \geq 2$ is violated for $y_1^* = \frac{1}{5}$, $y_2^* = \frac{3}{5}$.

6.7-1.

Part	New Basic Solution (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5)	Feasible?	Optimal?
(a)	(0, 30, 0, 0, -30)	No	No
(b)	(0, 20, 0, 0, -10)	No	No
(c)	(0, 10, 0, 0, 60)	Yes	Yes
(d)	(0, 20, 0, 0, 10)	Yes	Yes
(e)	(0, 20, 0, 0, 10)	Yes	Yes
(f)	(0, 10, 0, 0, 40)	Yes	No
(g)	(0, 20, 0, 0, 10)	Yes	Yes
(h)	(0, 20, 0, 0, 10, $x_6 = -10$)	No	No
(i)	(0, 20, 0, 0, 0)	Yes	Yes

6.7-2. $-10 \leq \theta \leq \frac{10}{9}$

6.7-16. (a) $b_1 \geq 2$, $6 \leq b_2 \leq 18$, $12 \leq b_3 \leq 24$

(b) $0 \leq c_1 \leq \frac{15}{2}$, $c_2 \geq 2$

CHAPTER 7

7.1-2. $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (\frac{2}{3}, 2, 0)$ with $Z = \frac{22}{3}$ is optimal.

7.1-6.

Part	New Optimal Solution	Value of Z
(a)	$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (0, 0, 9, 3, 0)$	117
(b)	$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (0, 5, 5, 0, 0)$	90

7.2-1. (a, b)

Range of θ	Optimal Solution	$Z(\theta)$
$0 \leq \theta \leq 2$	$(x_1, x_2) = (0, 5)$	$120 - 10\theta$
$2 \leq \theta \leq 8$	$(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{10}{3}, \frac{10}{3}\right)$	$\frac{320 - 10\theta}{3}$
$8 \leq \theta$	$(x_1, x_2) = (5, 0)$	$40 + 5\theta$

7.2-4.

Range of θ	Optimal Solution		$Z(\theta)$
	x_1	x_2	
$0 \leq \theta \leq 1$	$10 + 2\theta$	$10 + 2\theta$	$30 + 6\theta$
$1 \leq \theta \leq 5$	$10 + 2\theta$	$15 - 3\theta$	$35 + \theta$
$5 \leq \theta \leq 25$	$25 - \theta$	0	$50 - 2\theta$

7.3-3. $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (1, 3, 1)$ with $Z = 8$ is optimal.7.5-6. $(x_1, x_2) = (15, 0)$ is optimal.

CHAPTER 8

8.1-2. (b)

		Destination			Supply
		Today	Tomorrow	Dummy	
Source	Dick	3.0	2.7	0	5
	Harry	2.9	2.8	0	4
Demand		3	4	2	

8.2-2. (a) Basic variables: $x_{11} = 4$, $x_{12} = 0$, $x_{22} = 4$, $x_{23} = 2$, $x_{24} = 0$, $x_{34} = 5$, $x_{35} = 1$, $x_{45} = 0$; $Z = 53$.(b) Basic variables: $x_{11} = 4$, $x_{23} = 2$, $x_{25} = 4$, $x_{31} = 0$, $x_{32} = 0$, $x_{34} = 5$, $x_{35} = 1$, $x_{42} = 4$; $Z = 45$.(c) Basic variables: $x_{11} = 4$, $x_{23} = 2$, $x_{25} = 4$, $x_{32} = 0$, $x_{34} = 5$, $x_{35} = 1$, $x_{41} = 0$, $x_{42} = 4$; $Z = 45$.8.2-8. (a) $x_{11} = 3$, $x_{12} = 2$, $x_{22} = 1$, $x_{23} = 1$, $x_{33} = 1$, $x_{34} = 2$; three iterations to reach optimality.(b, c) $x_{11} = 3$, $x_{12} = 0$, $x_{13} = 0$, $x_{14} = 2$, $x_{23} = 2$, $x_{32} = 3$; already optimal.8.2-11. $x_{11} = 10$, $x_{12} = 15$, $x_{22} = 0$, $x_{23} = 5$, $x_{25} = 30$, $x_{33} = 20$, $x_{34} = 10$, $x_{44} = 10$; cost = \$77.30. Also have other tied optimal solutions.8.2-12. (b) Let x_{ij} be the shipment from plant i to distribution center j . Then $x_{13} = 2$, $x_{14} = 10$, $x_{22} = 9$, $x_{23} = 8$, $x_{31} = 10$, $x_{32} = 1$; cost = \$20,200.

8.3-4. (a)

		Task				
		Backstroke	Breaststroke	Butterfly	Freestyle	Dummy
Assignee	Carl	37.7	43.4	33.3	29.2	0
	Chris	32.9	33.1	28.5	26.4	0
	David	33.8	42.2	38.9	29.6	0
	Tony	37.0	34.7	30.4	28.5	0
	Ken	35.4	41.8	33.6	31.1	0

CHAPTER 9

9.3-3. (a) $O \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow T$ or $O \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow D \rightarrow T$, with length = 16.

9.4-1. (a) $\{(O, A); (A, B); (B, C); (B, E); (E, D); (D, T)\}$, with length = 18.

9.5-1. (a)

Arc	(1, 2)	(1, 3)	(1, 4)	(2, 5)	(3, 4)	(3, 5)	(3, 6)	(4, 6)	(5, 7)	(6, 7)
Flow	4	4	1	4	1	0	3	2	4	5

CHAPTER 10

10.2-2. Since activities D , E , J , and K are not immediate predecessors of any other activities, the corresponding nodes have arcs leading directly to the Finish node.

10.3-4. (b) Ken will be able to meet his deadline if no delays occur.

(c) Critical paths: $\text{Start} \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow J \rightarrow M \rightarrow \text{Finish}$

$\text{Start} \rightarrow C \rightarrow G \rightarrow L \rightarrow N \rightarrow \text{Finish}$

Focus attention on activities with 0 slack.

(d) If activity I takes 2 extra weeks, there will be no delay because its slack is 3.

10.3-7. Critical path: $\text{Start} \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \rightarrow J \rightarrow K \rightarrow N \rightarrow \text{Finish}$

Total duration = 26 weeks

10.4-1. $\mu = 37$, $\sigma^2 = 9$

10.4-5. (a)

Activity	μ	σ^2
A	12	0
B	23	16
C	15	1
D	27	9
E	18	4
F	6	4

(b) $\text{Start} \rightarrow A \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \rightarrow \text{Finish}$ Length = 51 days Mean critical path

$\text{Start} \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow \text{Finish}$ Length = 50 days

(d) $\frac{d - \mu_p}{\sqrt{\sigma_p^2}} = \frac{57 - 50}{\sqrt{25}} = 1.4 \Rightarrow P(T \leq 57) = 0.9192$ (from the Normal table)

10.5-4. (a) Critical path: $\text{Start} \rightarrow A \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \rightarrow \text{Finish}$

Total duration = 12 weeks

(b) New plan:

Activity	Duration	Cost
A	3 weeks	\$54,000
B	3 weeks	\$65,000
C	3 weeks	\$68,666
D	2 weeks	\$41,500
E	2 weeks	\$80,000

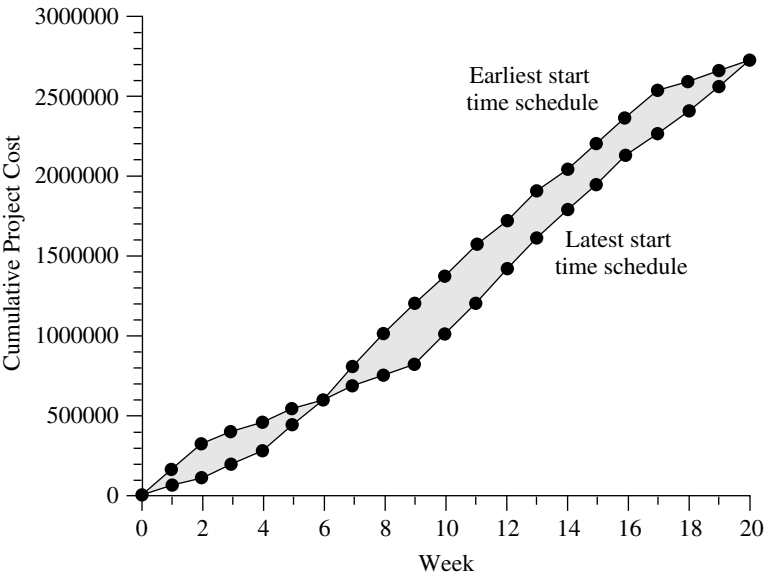
\$7,834 is saved by this crashing schedule.

10.5-5. (b)

Activity	Time		Cost		Maximum Time Reduction	Crash Cost per Week Saved	Start Time	Time Reduction	Finish Time
	Normal	Crash	Normal	Crash					
A	5	3	\$20	\$30	2	\$ 5	0	2	3
B	3	2	\$10	\$20	1	\$10	0	1	2
C	4	2	\$16	\$24	2	\$ 4	3	0	7
D	6	3	\$25	\$43	3	\$ 6	3	0	9
E	5	4	\$22	\$30	1	\$ 8	2	0	7
F	7	4	\$30	\$48	3	\$ 6	2	0	9
G	9	5	\$25	\$45	4	\$ 5	7	1	15
H	8	6	\$30	\$44	2	\$ 7	9	2	15

Finish Time = 15
Total Cost = \$217

10.6-2. (d)



CHAPTER 11

11.3-1.

	Store		
	1	2	3
Allocations	1	2	2
	3	2	0

11.3-8. (a)

Phase	(a)	(b)
1	2M	2.945M
2	1M	1.055M
3	1M	0
Market share	6%	6.302%

11.3-14. $x_1 = -2 + \sqrt{13} \approx 1.6056$, $x_2 = 5 - \sqrt{13} \approx 1.3944$; $Z = 98.233$.

11.4-3. Produce 2 on first production run; if none acceptable, produce 2 on second run. Expected cost = \$575.

CHAPTER 12

12.1-2. (a) Minimize $Z = 4.5x_{em} + 7.8x_{ec} + 3.6x_{ed} + 2.9x_{el} + 4.9x_{sm} + 7.2x_{sc} + 4.3x_{sd} + 3.1x_{sl}$,

subject to

$$\begin{aligned} x_{em} + x_{ec} + x_{ed} + x_{el} &= 2 \\ x_{sm} + x_{sc} + x_{sd} + x_{sl} &= 2 \\ x_{em} + x_{sm} &= 1 \\ x_{ec} + x_{sc} &= 1 \\ x_{ed} + x_{sd} &= 1 \\ x_{el} + x_{sl} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

all x_{ij} are binary.

12.3-1. (b)

Constraint	Product 1	Product 2	Product 3	Product 4	Totals	Modified Right-Hand Side	Original Right-Hand Side
First	5	3	6	4	6000 ≤	6000	6000
Second	4	6	3	5	12000 ≤	105999	6000
Marginal revenue	\$70	\$60	\$90	\$80	\$80000		
Solution	0	2000	0	0			
	≤	≤	≤	≤			
	0	9999	0	0			
Set Up?	0	1	0	0	1 ≤	2	
Start-up Cost	\$50,000	\$40,000	\$70,000	\$60,000			

Contingency Constraints:

Product 3:	0	≤	1	:Product 1 or 2
Product 4:	0	≤	1	:Product 1 or 2

Which Constraint (0 = First, 1 = Second): 0

12.3-5. (b, d) (long, medium, short) = (14, 0, 16), with profit of \$95.6 million.

12.4-3. (b)

Constraint	Product 1	Product 2	Product 3	Total	Right-Hand Side
Milling	9	3	5	498	≤ 500
Lathe	5	4	0	349	≤ 350
Grinder	3	0	2	135	≤ 150
Sales Potential	0	0	1	0	≤ 20
Unit Profit	50	20	25	\$2870	
Solution	45	31	0		
	≤	≤	≤		
	999	999	0		
Produce?	1	1	0	2	≤ 2

12.4-6. (a) Let $x_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if arc } i \rightarrow j \text{ is included in shortest path} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Mutually exclusive alternatives: For each column of arcs, exactly one arc is included in the shortest path. Contingent decisions: The shortest path leaves node i only if it enters node i .

12.5-1. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 3)$ is optimal.

(b) None of the feasible rounded solutions are optimal for the integer programming problem.

12.6-1. $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (0, 0, 1, 1, 1)$, with $Z = 6$.

12.6-7. (b) Task	1	2	3	4	5
Assignee	1	3	2	4	5

12.6-9. $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (0, 1, 1, 0)$, with $Z = 36$.

12.7-1. (a, b) $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 1)$ is optimal.

12.8-1. (a) $x_1 = 0, x_3 = 0$

CHAPTER 13

13.2-7. (a) Concave.

13.4-1. Approximate solution = 1.0125.

13.5-4. Exact solution is $(x_1, x_2) = (2, -2)$.

13.5-8. (a) Approximate solution is $(x_1, x_2) = (0.75, 1.5)$.

13.6-3.

$$\begin{aligned}
 -4x_1^3 - 4x_1 - 2x_2 + 2u_1 + u_2 &= 0 & (\text{or } \leq 0 \text{ if } x_1 = 0). \\
 -2x_1 - 8x_2 + u_1 + 2u_2 &= 0 & (\text{or } \leq 0 \text{ if } x_2 = 0). \\
 -2x_1 - x_2 + 10 &= 0 & (\text{or } \leq 0 \text{ if } u_1 = 0). \\
 -x_1 - 2x_2 + 10 &= 0 & (\text{or } \leq 0 \text{ if } u_2 = 0). \\
 x_1 \geq 0, \quad x_2 \geq 0, \quad u_1 \geq 0, \quad u_2 \geq 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

13.6-8. $(x_1, x_2) = (1, 2)$ cannot be optimal.

13.6-10. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = (1 - 3^{-1/2}, 3^{-1/2})$.

13.7-2. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 0)$ is optimal.

(b) Minimize $Z = z_1 + z_2$,

subject to

$$2x_1 + u_1 - y_1 + z_1 = 8$$

$$2x_2 + u_1 - y_2 + z_2 = 4$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + v_1 = 2$$

$$x_1 \geq 0, \quad x_2 \geq 0, \quad u_1 \geq 0, \quad y_1 \geq 0, \quad y_2 \geq 0, \quad v_1 \geq 0, \quad z_1 \geq 0, \\ z_2 \geq 0.$$

13.8-3. (b) Maximize $Z = 3x_{11} - 3x_{12} - 15x_{13} + 4x_{21} - 4x_{23}$,

subject to

$$x_{11} + x_{12} + x_{13} + 3x_{21} + 3x_{22} + 3x_{23} \leq 8$$

$$5x_{11} + 5x_{12} + 5x_{13} + 2x_{21} + 2x_{22} + 2x_{23} \leq 14$$

and

$$0 \leq x_{ij} \leq 1, \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3; j = 1, 2, 3.$$

13.9-1. $(x_1, x_2) = (5, 0)$ is optimal.

13.9-10. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right)$.

13.10-5. (a) $P(x; r) = -2x_1 - (x_2 - 3)^2 - r \left(\frac{1}{x_1 - 3} + \frac{1}{x_2 - 3} \right)$.

(b) $(x_1, x_2) = \left[3 + \left(\frac{r}{2} \right)^{1/2}, 3 + \left(\frac{r}{2} \right)^{1/3} \right]$.

CHAPTER 14

14.2-2. (a) Player 1: strategy 2; player 2: strategy 1.

14.2-7. (a) Politician 1: issue 2; politician 2: issue 2.

(b) Politician 1: issue 1; politician 2: issue 2.

14.4-3. (a) $(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}\right)$; $(y_1, y_2, y_3) = \left(\frac{1}{5}, 0, \frac{4}{5}\right)$; $v = \frac{8}{5}$.

14.5-2. (a) Maximize x_4 ,

subject to

$$5x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 - x_4 \geq 0$$

$$4x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 \geq 0$$

$$3x_1 + 3x_2 - x_4 \geq 0$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 - x_4 \geq 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

and

$$x_1 \geq 0, \quad x_2 \geq 0, \quad x_3 \geq 0, \quad x_4 \geq 0.$$

CHAPTER 15

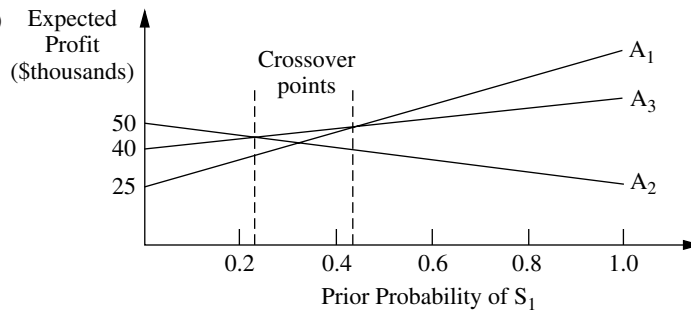
15.2-1. (a)

Alternative	State of Nature	
	Sell 10,000	Sell 100,000
Build Computers	0	54
Sell Rights	15	15

(c) Let p = prior probability of selling 10,000. They should build when $p \leq 0.722$, and sell when $p > 0.722$.

15.2-3. (c) Warren should make the countercyclical investment.

15.2-5. (d)



A_2 and A_3 cross at approximately $p = 0.25$. A_1 and A_3 cross at approximately $p = 0.43$.

15.2-8. Order 25.

15.3-1. (a) $EVPI = EP(\text{with perfect info}) - EP(\text{without more info}) = 34.5 - 27 = \7.5 million.

(d)

Data:		$P(\text{Finding} \mid \text{State})$	
State of Nature	Prior Probability	Finding	
		Sell 10,000	Sell 100,000
Sell 10,000	0.5	0.666666667	0.333333333
Sell 100,000	0.5	0.333333333	0.666666667

Posterior Probabilities:		$P(\text{State} \mid \text{Finding})$	
Finding	$P(\text{Finding})$	State of Nature	
		Sell 10,000	Sell 100,000
Sell 10,000	0.5	0.666666667	0.333333333
Sell 100,000	0.5	0.333333333	0.666666667

15.3-3. (b) $EVPI = EP(\text{with perfect info}) - EP(\text{without more info}) = 53 - 35 = \18

(c) Betsy should consider spending up to \$18 to obtain more information.

15.3-8. (a) Up to \$230,000

(b) Order 25.

15.3-9. (a)

Alternative	State of Nature		
	Poor Risk	Average Risk	Good Risk
Extend Credit	-15,000	10,000	20,000
Don't Extend Credit	0	0	0
Prior Probabilities	0.2	0.5	0.3

(c) $EVPI = EP(\text{with perfect info}) - EP(\text{without more info}) = 11,000 - 8,000 = \$3,000$. This indicates that the credit-rating organization should not be used.

15.3-13. (a) Guess coin 1.

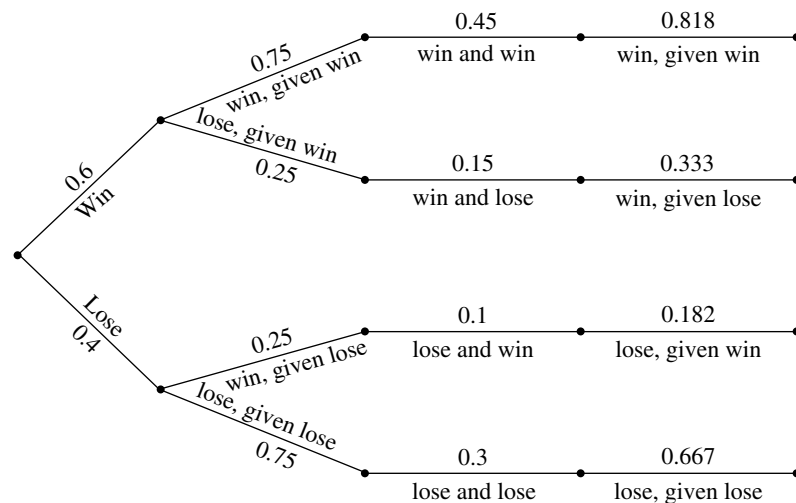
(b) Heads: coin 2; tails: coin 1.

15.4-1. (b) The optimal policy is to do no market research and build the computers.

15.4-4. (c) $EVPI = EP(\text{with perfect info}) - EP(\text{without more info}) = 1.8 - 1 = \$800,000$

(d)

Prior Probabilities $P(\text{state})$	Conditional Probabilities $P(\text{finding} \text{state})$	Joint Probabilities $P(\text{state and finding})$	Posterior Probabilities $P(\text{state} \text{finding})$
--	---	--	---



(f, g) Leland University should hire William. If he predicts a winning season then they should hold the campaign. If he predicts a losing season then they should not hold the campaign.

15.4-10. (a) Choose to introduce the new product (expected payoff is \$12.5 million).

(b) $EVPI = EP(\text{with perfect info}) - EP(\text{without more info}) = 20 - 12.5 = \7.5 million

(c) The optimal policy is not to test but to introduce the new product.

15.5-2. (a) Choose not to buy insurance (expected payoff is \$249,840).

(b) $u(\text{insurance}) = 499.82$ $u(\text{no insurance}) = 499.8$

Optimal policy is to buy insurance.

15.5-4. $u(10) = 9$

CHAPTER 16

16.3-3. (c) $\pi_0 = \pi_1 = \pi_2 = \pi_3 = \pi_4 = \frac{1}{5}$.

16.4-1. (a) All states belong to the same recurrent class.

16.5-8. (a) $\pi_0 = 0.182$, $\pi_1 = 0.285$, $\pi_2 = 0.368$, $\pi_3 = 0.165$.

(b) 6.50

CHAPTER 17

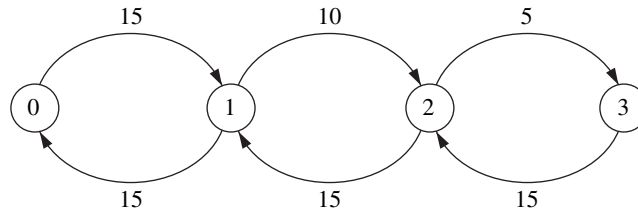
17.2-1. Input source: population having hair; customers: customers needing haircuts; and so forth for the queue, queue discipline, and service mechanism.

17.2-2. (b) $L_q = 0.375$

(d) $W - W_q = 24.375$ minutes

17.4-2. (c) 0.0527

17.5-5. (a) State:



(c) $P_0 = \frac{9}{26}$, $P_1 = \frac{9}{26}$, $P_2 = \frac{3}{13}$, $P_3 = \frac{1}{13}$.

(d) $W = 0.11$ hour.

17.5-9. (b) $P_0 = \frac{2}{5}$, $P_n = \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$

(c) $L = \frac{6}{5}$, $L_q = \frac{3}{5}$, $W = \frac{1}{25}$, $W_q = \frac{1}{50}$

17.6-1. (a) $P_0 + P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4 = 0.96875$ or 97 percent of the time.

17.6-21. (a) Combined expected waiting time = 0.211

(c) An expected process time of 3.43 minutes would cause the expected waiting times to be the same for the two procedures.

17.6-29. (a) 0.429

17.6-33. (a) three machines

(b) three operators

17.7-1. (a) W_q (exponential) = $2W_q$ (constant) = $\frac{8}{5}W_q$ (Erlang).

(b) W_q (new) = $\frac{1}{2}W_q$ (old) and L_q (new) = L_q (old) for all distributions.

17.7-6. (a, b) Under the current policy an airplane loses 1 day of flying time as opposed to 3.25 days under the proposed policy.

Under the current policy 1 airplane is losing flying time per day as opposed to 0.8125 airplane.

17.7-10.

Service Distribution	P_0	P_1	P_2	L
Erlang	0.561	0.316	0.123	0.561
Exponential	0.571	0.286	0.143	0.571

17.8-1. (a) This system is an example of a nonpreemptive priority queueing system.

$$(c) \frac{W_q \text{ for first-class passengers}}{W_q \text{ for coach-class passengers}} = \frac{0.033}{0.083} = 0.4$$

17.8-4. (a) $W = \frac{1}{2}$ (b) $W_1 = 0.20$, $W_2 = 0.35$, $W_3 = 1.10$ (c) $W_1 = 0.125$, $W_2 = 0.3125$, $W_3 = 1.250$

CHAPTER 18

18.3-1. (a) $E(WC) = 16$ (b) $E(WC) = 26.5$

18.4-2. 4 cash registers

18.4-5. (a) Model 2 with s fixed at 1

(b) Adopt the proposal.

18.4-10. (d) $E(TC)$ for status quo = \$85 per hour $E(TC)$ for proposal = \$83 per hour

18.4-13. (a) The customers are trucks to be loaded or unloaded and the servers are crews. The system currently has 1 server.

(e) A one-person team should not be considered since that would lead to a utilization factor of $\rho = 1$, which is not permitted in this model.(f, g) $E(TC)$ for 4 members = \$82.50 per hour $E(TC)$ for 3 members = \$65 per hour $E(TC)$ for 2 members = \$55 per hour

A crew of 2 people will minimize the expected total cost per hour.

18.4-25. One doctor: $E(TC) = \$624.80$, two doctors: \$92.50; have two doctors.

CHAPTER 19

19.3-1. (a) $t = 1.83$, $Q = 54.77$ (b) $t = 1.91$, $Q = 57.45$, $S = 52.22$

19.3-3. (a) Data

$D =$	676	(demand/year)
$K =$	\$75	(setup cost)
$h =$	\$600.00	(unit holding cost)
$L =$	3.5	(lead time in days)
$WD =$	365	(working days/year)

Decision

$Q =$	5	(order quantity)
-------	---	------------------

Results

Reorder point =	6.5
Annual setup cost =	\$10,140
Annual holding cost =	\$ 1,500
Total variable cost =	\$11,640

(d) Data

$D =$	676	(demand/year)
$K =$	\$75	(setup cost)
$h =$	\$600	(unit holding cost)
$L =$	3.5	(lead time in days)
$WD =$	365	(working days/year)

Decision

$Q =$	13	(order quantity)
-------	----	------------------

Results

Reorder point =	6.48
Annual setup cost =	\$3,900
Annual holding cost =	\$3,900
Total variable cost =	\$7,800

The results are the same as those obtained in part (c).

(f) Number of orders per year = 52

$ROP = 6.5$ – inventory level when each order is placed

(g) The optimal policy reduces the total variable inventory cost by \$3,840 per year, which is a 33 percent reduction.

19.3-7. (a) $h = \$3$ per month which is 15 percent of the acquisition cost.

(c) Reorder point is 10.

(d) $ROP = 5$ hammers, which adds \$20 to his TVC ($5 \text{ hammers} \times \4 holding cost).

19.3-9. $t = 3.26$, $Q = 26,046$, $S = 24,572$

19.3-15. (a) Optimal $Q = 500$

19.4-4. Produce 3 units in period 1 and 4 units in period 3.

19.5-6. (b) Ground Chuck: $R = 145$.

Chuck Wagon: $R = 829$.

(c) Ground Chuck: safety stock = 45.

Chuck Wagon: safety stock = 329.

(f) Ground Chuck: \$39,378.71.

Chuck Wagon: \$41,958.61.

Jed should choose Ground Chuck as their supplier.

(g) If Jed would like to use the beef within a month of receiving it, then Ground Chuck is the better choice. The order quantity with Ground Chuck is roughly 1 month's supply, whereas with Chuck Wagon the optimal order quantity is roughly 3 month's supply.

19.6-4. (a) Optimal service level = 0.667

(c) $Q^* = 500$

(d) The probability of running short is 0.333.

(e) Optimal service level = 0.833

19.6-8. (a) This problem can be interpreted as an inventory problem with uncertain demand for a perishable product with euro-traveler's checks as the product. Once Stan gets back from his trip the checks are not good anymore, so they are a perishable product. He can re-deposit the amount into his savings account but will incur a fee of lost interest. Stan must decide how many checks to buy without knowing how many he will need.

$C_{\text{under}} = \text{value of 1 day} - \text{cost of 1 day} - \text{cost of 1 check} = \49 .

$C_{\text{over}} = \text{cost of check} + \text{lost interest} = \3

(b) Purchase 4 additional checks.

- (c) Optimal service level = 0.94
Buy 4 additional checks.

19.7-3. If $x \leq 46$, order $46 - x$ units; otherwise, do not order.

19.7-10. (a) $G(y) = \frac{3}{10}y + 70e^{-y/25} - \frac{15}{2}$

(b) $(k, Q) = (21, 100)$ policy

CHAPTER 20

20.4-1. (c) Forecast = 36

20.4-3. Forecast = 2,091

20.4-7. Forecast (0.1) = 2,072

20.6-2. Forecast = 552

20.6-4. Forecast for next production yield = 62 percent

20.7-1. (a) MAD = 15

20.7-4. (a) Since sales are relatively stable, the averaging method would be appropriate for forecasting future sales. This method uses a larger sample size than the last-value method, which should make it more accurate. Since the older data are still relevant, they should not be excluded, as would be the case in the moving-average method.

(e) Considering the MAD values, the averaging method is the best one to use.

(f) Unless there is reason to believe that sales will not continue to be relatively stable, the averaging method is likely to be the most accurate in the future as well. However, 12 data points generally are inadequate for drawing definitive conclusions.

20.9-1. (b) $y = 410 + 17.6x$

(d) $y = 604$

CHAPTER 21

21.2-1. (c) Use slow service when no customers or one customer is present and fast service when two customers are present.

21.2-2. (a) The possible states of the car are dented and not dented.

(c) When the car is not dented, park it on the street in one space. When the car is dented, get it repaired.

21.2-5. (c) State 0: attempt ace; state 1: attempt lob.

21.3-2. (a) Minimize $Z = 4.5y_{02} + 5y_{03} + 50y_{14} + 9y_{15}$,
subject to

$$\begin{aligned} y_{01} + y_{02} + y_{03} + y_{14} + y_{15} &= 1 \\ y_{01} + y_{02} + y_{03} - \left(\frac{9}{10}y_{01} + \frac{49}{50}y_{02} + y_{03} + y_{14} \right) &= 0 \\ y_{14} + y_{15} - \left(\frac{1}{10}y_{01} + \frac{1}{50}y_{02} + y_{15} \right) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\text{all } y_{ik} \geq 0.$$

$$\mathbf{21.3-5. (a)} \text{ Minimize } Z = -\frac{1}{8}y_{01} + \frac{7}{24}y_{02} + \frac{1}{2}y_{11} + \frac{5}{12}y_{12},$$

subject to

$$y_{01} + y_{02} - \left(\frac{3}{8}y_{01} + y_{11} + \frac{7}{8}y_{02} + y_{12} \right) = 0$$

$$y_{11} + y_{12} - \left(\frac{5}{8}y_{01} + \frac{1}{8}y_{02} \right) = 0$$

$$y_{01} + y_{02} + y_{11} + y_{12} = 1$$

and

$$y_{ik} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1; k = 1, 2.$$

21.4-2. Car not dented: park it on the street in one space. Car dented: repair it.

21.4-5. State 0: attempt ace. State 1: attempt lob.

21.5-1. Reject \$600 offer, accept any of the other two.

$$\mathbf{21.5-2. (a)} \text{ Minimize } Z = 60(y_{01} + y_{11} + y_{21}) - 600y_{02} - 800y_{12} - 1,000y_{22},$$

subject to

$$y_{01} + y_{02} - (0.95)\left(\frac{5}{8}\right)(y_{01} + y_{11} + y_{21}) = \frac{5}{8}$$

$$y_{11} + y_{12} - (0.95)\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)(y_{01} + y_{11} + y_{21}) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$y_{21} + y_{22} - (0.95)\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)(y_{01} + y_{11} + y_{21}) = \frac{1}{8}$$

and

$$y_{ik} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, 2; k = 1, 2.$$

21.5-3. After three iterations, approximation is, in fact, the optimal policy given for Prob. 21.5-1.

21.5-11. In periods 1 to 3: Do nothing when the machine is in state 0 or 1; overhaul when machine is in state 2; and replace when machine is in state 3. In period 4: Do nothing when machine is in state 0, 1, or 2; replace when machine is in state 3.

CHAPTER 22

22.1-1. (b) Let the numbers 0.0000 to 0.5999 correspond to strikes and the numbers 0.6000 to 0.9999 correspond to balls. The random observations for pitches are 0.7520 = ball, 0.4184 = strike, 0.4189 = strike, 0.5982 = strike, 0.9559 = ball, and 0.1403 = strike.

22.1-10. (b) Use $\lambda = 4$ and $\mu = 5$.

(i) Answers will vary. The option of training the two current mechanics significantly decreases the waiting time for German cars, without a significant impact on the wait for Japanese cars, and does so without the added cost of a third mechanic. Adding a third mechanic lowers the average wait for German cars even more, but comes at an added cost for the third mechanic.

22.3-1. (a) 5, 8, 1, 4, 7, 0, 3, 6, 9, 2

22.4-2. (b) $F(x) = 0.0965$ when $x = -5.18$
 $F(x) = 0.5692$ when $x = 18.46$
 $F(x) = 0.6658$ when $x = 23.29$

22.4-5. (a) $x = \sqrt{r}$

22.4-8. (a) Here is a sample replication.

Summary of Results:

Win? (1 = Yes, 0 = No)	0
Number of Tosses =	3

Simulated Tosses

Toss	Die 1	Die 2	Sum
1	4	2	6
2	3	2	5
3	6	1	7
4	5	2	7
5	4	4	8
6	1	4	5
7	2	6	8

Results

Win?	Lose?	Continue?
0	0	Yes
0	0	Yes
0	1	No
NA	NA	No
NA	NA	No
NA	NA	No
NA	NA	No

22.4-13. (a) $x = -4 \ln(1 - r)$

(b) $x = -2 \ln[(1 - r_1)(1 - r_2)]$

(c) $x = 4 \sum_{i=1}^6 r_i - 8$

22.7-1. Use the first 10 three-digit decimals from Table 22.3 and generate observations from

$$x_i = \frac{1}{1 - r_i}.$$

Method:	Analytic	Monte Carlo	Stratified sampling	Complementary random numbers
Mean:	∞	4.3969	8.7661	3.812

22.7-4. (a) Let the numbers 0.0000 to 0.3999 correspond to a minor repair and 0.4000 to 0.9999 correspond to a major repair. The average repair time is then $(1.224 + 0.950 + 1.610)/3 = 1.26$ hours.

(c) The average repair time is 1.28 hours.

(e) The average repair time is 1.09 hours.

(f) The method of complementary random numbers in part (e) gave the closest estimate. It performs well because using complements helps counteract the more extreme random numbers (such as 0.9503).

22.8-1. (a) Est. $\{W_q\} = \frac{7}{3}$ and $P\{1.572 \leq W_q \leq 3.094\} = 0.90$

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