

SEARCH TECHNIQUES
AND WAGE INCENTIVE PLANS

by

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ABSTRACT

This thesis has two sections. Part 1 deals with the literature survey and the development of new techniques to handle search problems. Since the effectiveness of the search procedure is characterized by its rate of convergence, much of research work has been and are still being done to reduce the computation time. An attempt was made to solve one-dimensional search problems for convex functions by bisecting the enveloping cone of the function and then rotating it till the bisector becomes vertical. The generalization of this new method for any unimodal function by coupling with Fibonacci search was also discussed. This approach essentially cuts down the total number of experiments required to reach at optimum. A new method for multi-dimensional search problems based on the intersection of quadratics passing through the line-optimums in co-ordinate directions was developed and exemplified along with the comparison with other standard methods to show its efficiency.

In the second section, a case study was made with a view to show how operations research technique can be applied to formulate and solve certain wage incentive problems. Since the basic problem in an incentive scheme is to define the base level efficiency from which the incentive should start and also the incentive rates, the problem was formulated with the objective as to minimize the variance between the optimum base

level efficiency and the current different efficiencies of various departments. A constraint was that the total incentive to be paid to the workers must not exceed the current overtime expenses. This problem was solved by Generalized Reduced Gradient method and separable programming.

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CHAPTER I

LITERATURE SURVEY ON SEARCH TECHNIQUES

1.1 Introduction

Search for the optimum is the main objective of all decision problems, whether constrained or unconstrained. In fact, constrained problems can be converted into unconstrained ones. The simplest form of search is that for a function having only one variable. In general, two policies, viz, sequential and simultaneous searches are normally used. Some research work has also been done combining these two policies. All these techniques are available in different literatures. Section 1.2 deals with the literature survey on one-dimensional search. In addition, the quadratic and cubic interpolation methods are also briefly discussed. The literature review on multi-dimensional search is provided in section 1.3.

Although there exist different types of searches depending on the nature and the objective of the search, this chapter does not cover all of them.

1.2 One Dimensional Search

For a maximum of an unimodal function, the second order search in the sense that the information is given by pairs of observation, was attempted by Kieffer¹. He determined the

interval containing this maximum without postulating any regularity conditions involving continuity, derivatives, etc. This is essentially known as Fibonacci search method which has theoretical connections with problems dating all the way back to Euclid.

A less powerful method known as Dichotomous Search² reduces the interval of uncertainty by placing pairs of experiments successively in the remaining interval. The effectiveness of this method grows exponentially with the number of experiments. In a Fibonacci scheme each new experiment serves to reduce the interval of uncertainty but in a dichotomous scheme it takes two new experiments to cut down the interval of uncertainty.

Another technique which is nearly as effective as the Fibonacci does not require any knowledge in advance the number of experiments to be carried out. This is familiar as Golden Section Method² which essentially divides a segment into two unequal parts so that the ratio of the whole to the larger is equal to the larger to the smaller. Euclid, himself, did this simply by a ruler and a compass.

When the variable does not assume continuous values within a given interval of uncertainty but instead is confined to a finite number of discrete points, the Lattice Search Technique as Kieffer² calls them is used. In this case the number of points are to be finite and arrangable in

some order that will make the criterion of effectiveness unimodal.

Oliver and Wilde³ pointed out that Kiefer's original technique (Fibonacci Search) is assymmetric in the sense that the last two experiments are not located symmetrically with respect to each other. The modified procedure developed by Oliver et. al. is symmetric since it permits the last experiment to be placed symmetrically with respect to the most effective previous experiment.

Avriel and Wilde⁴ developed a minimum search plan using 'Block Search Strategy' technique that can be used for any number of experiments and for any number of blocks in the sequence. For one experiment per block, it reduces to the Fibonacci strategy. The 'Block Search Strategy' is optimal in the sense that for a required final interval of uncertainty and for any given number of simultaneous experiments and blocks, it has the largest possible starting interval.

According to Berman⁵ his method which uses Fibonacci numbers is optimal because 1) it does not postulate any regularity conditions, 2) it is simpler, 3) it often requires fewer number of evaluations, 4) it is self-correcting i.e. an error in any particular evaluation will not affect the final result. He also exemplified some possible application of his method.

When an arbitrary probability density function for the

distribution of maximum is given, the problem of estimating the optimal interval containing the location of the maximum of a unimodal function was investigated by Heymann⁶. The statistical information gained by the search is used for such estimation. He found that the strategies had to be different in accordance with the odd or even number of experiments.

The minimax block search strategy presented by Avriel and Wilde⁴ was further improved by them in a latter publication⁷ and it was shown that this method is an excellent approximation of the previous one. This nearly optimal minimax golden block search method has the advantage that the number of function evaluations need not be specified in advance.

When some bound on the rate of change of function of one variable is available, Shubert's⁸ method can be used to locate the maximum of the function defined over a closed interval.

Wilde and Beamer⁹ presented a minimax search strategy for locating the boundary point of a region on a line joining a feasible point to an infeasible point. These strategies, as it were claimed, could be useful subroutines for many multi-dimensional optimization algorithms.

Gottfried¹⁰ showed that for a given interval of uncertainty, the minimax separation between two points consider-

ing the distinguishability of the function values, the search should be terminated when the interval of uncertainty is less than $(\epsilon\rho)/(2-\rho)$ where ρ is the golden ratio.

One of the new additions in the development of search procedures for one dimensional problems was made by Fox, et. al.¹¹ Their method finds three points bracketing the minimum, fits a quadratic through them to yield a fourth point, then fits successive cubic through four points discarding one at each time, until certain stop criteria are met. No gradient evaluations are required. This procedure is claimed to take 1/2 to 3/4th less computer time than others.

When all experiments must be run at the same time, it is necessary to use a simultaneous search plan. It is less effective than the sequential plans but the experimenter, at times, is forced to use a simultaneous plan. The interval is divided into $(n+1)$ equal interval and the function is evaluated at n points. The best value of function is picked up, the interval bracketing this best value is again divided into $(n+1)$ divisions and the process is repeated till it meets the stopping criterion. For two experiments only, simultaneous plan is just as good as a sequential one.

Wilde² suggested that for even number of experiments, search by uniform pairs which is, essentially comes under

simultaneous search plan is the best way as far as the deployment of the experiments are concerned.

If the objective function is continuous and convex in the interval of uncertainty, it is often possible to obtain a good estimate of the optimum value (12) of the objective function by using a quadratic approximation of the function to locate the optimum point. But if in addition to the above, the derivate of the function is available then cubic interpolation provides a good estimate of the location of the optimum point.

1.3 Multi Dimensional Search

The problem of locating the optimum on a multi-dimensional response surface is more important than uni-dimensional search since the problems encountered in the real world usually involve multi-dimensions.

With the object of finding the optimum in these types of problems Cauchy¹³ first introduced the method of steepest descent which, as a matter of fact, forms the basis for all the searches currently in use. It was an intuitively attractive idea of climbing the steepest path but because of the inherent difficulties (slow convergence due to interaction among the variables) associated with each new direction being normal to the old direction, the method is not very

efficient.

In the modified steepest descent method¹⁴ the step size of the steepest descent is multiplied by 0.9 and the process is continued. After, say, four such repetitions of this procedure, one step of full length is taken. In this case, the successive directions will not be mutually orthogonal.

The method of rotating the co-ordinates, as devised by Rosenbrock¹⁵ is very effective at finding the optimum of a function. Instead of taking a fixed step in each direction, Rosenbrock rotates the co-ordinate system so that one axis points along the direction of ridge as estimated by the previous trial. The other axes are arranged in directions normal to the first.

For straight type of ridges Partan Method¹⁶ would appear efficient. This technique which does not use gradients can be extended to ellipsoidal functions of any number of independent variables. For non ellipsoidal functions, the Partan will work but if the function is not radially similar on every possible cross section, it will not work.

A variant of this method was discovered independently by Powell¹⁷. It is based on the theorem which is that because the function $f(\underline{x})$ is quadratic in the independent variables, any line which passes through the optimum point \underline{x}^* , intersects the members of the family of contours $f(\underline{x})=c$

(constant) at equal angles. The corollary is that of the normal at ' \underline{t} ' to the contour $f(\underline{x})=f(\underline{t})$ is parallel to the normal at ' \underline{t}' ' to $f(\underline{x})=f(\underline{t}')$, then the lines joining \underline{t} to \underline{t}' pass through ' \underline{t} '. This method gives second order convergence.

The method of sectioning or one at a time method¹⁸ will not always reach the maximum, even when the contours are convex. Its practical value is extremely limited. It is good for circular contours only.

The pattern search technique of Hooke and Jeeves¹⁹ has had reasonable practical success, probably due to its ability to follow a curved ridge when necessary. Muegale's "poor man's optimizer"²⁰ scheme also is able to track the curved ridges. In these methods gradient evaluations are not needed.

In case of defined gradient, Fletcher and Powell's method²¹ which essentially is a simplified version of Davidon's (1959) method, provides quadratic convergence and it is superior to Powell's and Partan method both in that it uses the information determined by previous iterations and also in that each iteration is quick and simple to carry out. Further more it yields the curvature of the function at the optimum.

Fletcher and Reeves²² conjugate gradient method is as effective as that of Fletcher and Powell's method. In the

latter method, storage space for H (Hessian) matrix is to be provided while in Fletcher and Reeve's method, storage is required for only three vectors and time for manipulating H matrix is saved. So in problems, where 'n', the number of variables is large, this method may be preferred to Fletcher and Powell's method.

When derivatives are not available, Powell's method²³ furnishes faster convergence in dealing with many variables. The first iteration is same as that for changing one parameter at a time. This latter method is next modified to generate conjugate directions by making each iteration define a new direction ξ and choosing the linearly independent directions for next iterations.

Sequential simplex method is also useful to handle these types of problems. It was introduced by Nelder and Mead²⁴. It has the same convergence rate as that of Powell's method.

For minimizing a sum of squares of non-linear functions Powell's generalized least square method²⁵ does not require evaluation of derivatives. This method has the comparable convergence with the classical procedure and the number of times the individual terms of the sum of squares have to be calculated is approximately proportional to the number of variables.

In a review paper²⁶ Fletcher discussed the efficiency of the three different methods, viz, Davis, Swam and Campey

method (DSC method), Powell's method and Smith's method using some standard test functions as a basis for comparisons. All these three methods do not require any calculation of derivatives. DSC method is simple and effective for large numbers of variables and when the minimum cannot be represented adequately by a quadratic where as on the basis of function evaluations the most efficient method is that of Powell. However, for large number of variables it is less favorable than DSC method. The Smith's method is generally inferior to other methods and is acceptable only when 'n' is small (2, 3, 4).

Brannen²⁷ showed that a return function with a given probability distribution can be maximized using an iterative method which is somewhat analogous to Newton's iterative method.

Box²⁸ proved that as the number of variables increases, Fletcher and Powell's method is most consistently successful when the gradient is available. Powell's method and Fletcher and Powell's method work substantially better with 5, 10, 20 dimension test functions than other methods though it assumes quadratic optimum characteristic. He has also pointed out that simplex method perform better than Powell's method in case of two-dimensions but lesser and lesser successful as the dimension increases.

Curtis and Powell²⁹ discussed in detail on exchange algorithms for calculating minimax approximation with a view to provide a deep insight into the convergence of this method.

Powell's method has been criticized by Zangwill³⁰ who in his counter-example showed that Powell's method not only does not converge to the minimum of a quadratic in a finite number of iterations but it will not converge in any number of iterations. He made some modification of Powell's method which can be useful strictly for convex function.

The variation matrix method developed by Davidon³¹ which uses the inverse matrix of second derivative of any function is the generalized form of variable metric method (Davidon, 1959). The algorithm is simpler and in quadratic cases, gradient evaluations are half the number made in variable metric algorithm.

An algorithm for non-linear minimax approximation was described by Osborne and Watson³³ in 1969. This algorithm was illustrated by the evaluation of several approximation to the solution of Blasius equation.

An improved procedure presented by Palmer³⁴ to generate orthogonal search vectors for use in Rosenbrock's (1960) and Swann's (1964) optimization method was shown to make considerable savings in time and in storage requirements. It also

deals more satisfactorily with certain cases in which the original method fails.

Pearson³⁵ did an extensive numerical comparison among Newton-Raphson Method, Fletcher and Reeves method and the DFP method. His conclusion was that for well-behaved function Fletcher and Reeves method is simple and fast while for the penalty function methods, the variable metric algorithms are much better and operate more efficiently with reset. The generalized Newton-Raphson algorithm always required fewer iterations and when it can be used, it proves to be the quickest method.

Based on Davidon's method, Mielle et.al.³⁶ proposed a new accelerated gradient for finding the minimum of a function. He included one extra form $\langle \delta x \rangle$ in the step length calculation that takes into account the change in position vector from the iteration preceding that under consideration. He showed that, as compared to Fletcher and Reeves method, his method takes 25% to 40% less computation time and uses 50% to 60% less number of iterations.

The DFP method uses the approximate form of inverse of the Hessian H matrix of objective function 'f' using only the gradient of 'f'. Greenstadt³⁷ showed that by solving certain variational problems, formulas for successive correction to H matrix can be developed that closely resembles Davidon's and satisfies DFP's condition.

Using the Greenstadt's variational approach, Goldfarb³⁸ developed a new rank - two variable metric method. Like DFP method it preserves the positive definiteness of the H - matrix.

Extension of Davidon's method for minimization problem in Hilbert space was demonstrated by Tokumaru, et.al.³⁹ by solving optimal control problems.

Chazan and Miranker⁴⁰ described an algorithm which is suitable for execution on a parallel computer. A non-gradient method similar to Powell's method was used and was shown that the algorithm terminates at minimum for quadratics and converges for strictly convex twice continuously differentiable function.

The variable metric algorithm was further simplified by Fletcher⁴¹ and it was claimed to be superior to Fletcher and Powell's method since it requires less number of gradient and function evaluations. In this method an approximation of H matrix to G^{-1} matrix is kept and is updated in each iteration.

To account for the efficiency of different techniques, Huang and Levy⁴² tested two different quadratically convergent algorithms (viz, DFP, McCormick, Pearson, generalized Fletcher and Powell etc) through several numerical examples. All algorithms behave identically in case of quadratic function if high-precision arithmetic together with high accuracy in

the one-dimension search is employed. They give same sequence of points, same minimum point and require same number of iterations. For the non-quadratic functions, the results show that some of the algorithms behave identically and so any of them can be considered as a representative of the entire class.

A new method for minimizing a sum of squares of non-linear functions was devised by Peckham⁴³. It was claimed to be more efficient than other methods in that fewer function evaluations are required.

In DFP method the objective function $F(x)$ is assumed strictly convex but Powell pointed out in his survey⁴⁴ of recent development of unconstrained minimization that some better algorithms have now been developed. The most useful work is that which explores algorithms that avoid subproblem of minimizing a function of one variable on every iteration (e.g. large computation time, more number of function evaluations, may not have function improvement and may go beyond the constraints in case of constrained optimization). The algorithms that provide the above features are due to independent work of Davidon³¹, Fiacco and McCormick⁴⁵, Murtagh and Sargent⁷⁰, Wolfe⁷¹, Bard⁷² and Powell⁷³.

In 1970 Hoshino⁴⁶ found that Davis, Swann and Campey minimization process may generate undesirable zig-zag searches. He proposed a simple modified algorithm and tested it on

some standard test functions. The number of linear searches required were found less.

A general convergence theorem for iterative methods for unconstrained minimization problem was provided by Ortega and Rheinboldt⁴⁷. The key point is the concept of an essentially gradient related sequence which includes the previously studied gradient-related sequences as well as sequences that arise from univariate relaxation methods.

Cohen⁴⁸ discussed the rate of convergence of several conjugate gradient algorithms to minimize non-linear, non-quadratic real valued function and pointed out that in a neighborhood of the minimum that the error, when starting from a point of reinitialization decreases by order 2 after 'n' steps.

Under the assumption of strict convexity, the projection method of conjugate direction for solving unconstrained minimization was presented by McCormick and Ritter⁴⁹. It was shown that it converges with $(n-1)$ step superlinear rate.

Without making an initial estimate of the G_0 (the current estimate of the inverse of H matrix), the matrix used in variable metric algorithms, Mament, et.al.⁵⁰ presented a method that uses $x_i z_i x_i^T$ matrix where Z_i is a diagonal matrix and x_i has maximal rank. The rank of x_i increases by one at each iteration. This pseudo-Newton-Raphson algorithm as

called by the authors, was shown to have finite convergence for quadratic functions and asymptotic convergence for a fairly general class of functions.

Unconstrained optimal control problem can be solved using a gradient algorithm in terms of numerical integration formula, the precision of which is controlled adaptively by a test that ensures convergence. This was shown by Klessig and Polak⁵¹. Their empirical results exhibits that their algorithm is considerably faster than its precision counterpart.

The rate of convergence of Zoutendijk's⁵² two procedures were studied and hence two modified methods were developed by Pinonneau and Polak⁵³. It is shown that under convexity assumption their method converge linearly while Zoutendijk's procedure converge sublinearly.

The method of changing one variable at a time is not an efficient method since the searches are made along the coordinate directions in sequence and the search path tends to a closed loop. On this loop the gradient of the objective function is bounded away from zero. According to Powell⁵⁴ ^{fact} this field alone is rather unimportant. What is important is the success of the algorithms depend on the properties that are not shared by the method that changes one variable at a time.

The conditions under which Huang's conjugate gradient method generates descent directions were discussed by Spedicato⁵⁵. Bounds for the condition number of the inverse Hessian matrix were estimated for the case of a symmetric matrix.

Adachi⁵⁶ also found the same thing, i.e., for quadratic functions, search directions are same for all algorithms and they are independent of parameters. They generate unique sequence of minimizing points for the given initial conditions if the objective function is quadratic.

In minimizing interior penalty function, most of the computational time is spent on one-dimensional search. Lasdon et. al.⁵⁷ presented a method that performs this search on barrier function which is significantly faster than current techniques. This method exploits the special structure of barrier functions.

Algorithms for changing the step size efficiently was proposed by Krogh⁵⁸ in the year 1973. He compared the good and bad features of approximately 10 different ways for changing the step size. He also provided an efficient algorithm for the difference formulations of a frequently used halving and doubling process.

Sayama and Takamatsu⁵⁹ found that with the increase in dimensions, the disadvantage of DFP method is the computer

storage problem that increases with number of iterations. In this paper this disadvantage was shown to overcome by formulating the direction of one-dimensional search by means of integral kernels to have a new computation scheme. This may be used for large number of dimensions as well as to obtain high precision for problems having ten number of dimensions.

Bertsekas and Mitter⁶⁰ proposed a new algorithm, the E - subgradient method, a large step, double iterative algorithm which converges rapidly under very general assumption for optimization problems with non-differentiable cost-functions. They discussed the application of this algorithm in some non-linear problems and optimum control and showed that E - subgradient method contains as a special case of a mini-max algorithm.

Numerical experiments on Dual Matrix algorithms are done by Huang and Chambliss⁶¹ for function minimization. The four algorithms were characterised by the simultaneous use of two matrices and by the property that the one-dimensional search for the optimal step size is not needed for convergence. For quadratic function with n variables it needs at most $(n+1)$ number of iterations. These algorithms were tested on four non-quadratic test-functions and exhibited satisfactory convergence properties and compare favorably

with the corresponding quadratically convergent algorithms using one-dimensional search procedure to obtain optimal step size. The reverse one out of 4 algorithms was found best. It requires least number of iterations and least sensitive to step size.

Larichev and Gorvits⁶² carried out similar kind comparison test among different search methods viz, steepest descent, accelerated Partan method, conjugate gradient and Davidon's method using several test functions. Davidon's was the best found in terms of minimum function value and number of iterations.

The modified one-at-a-time optimization procedure introduced by Findlay⁶³ is based on assuming that a partial optimal value of one variable is a linear function of the other independent variables. The essence of this method is to observe the effects of each variable combined with some interactions of that variable. The number of trials required was found more than Rosenbrock method but less than gradient method in his study.

Baranger and Temam⁶⁴ in 1975 discussed at length about non-convex optimization problems. The main result is that for almost all values of the parameter, the optimization problem possesses at least one solution.

The algorithm for unconstrained optimization that do not use line searches was developed by Davidon⁶⁵. This

method uses the JJ^T instead of using H matrix and only store and update the Jacobian matrix J .

Exact solution of one-dimensional search for solving problems using DFP method is not always necessary to cover the practical situation where only approximate solutions to the line searches can be found. Lenard⁶⁶ discovered a class of methods which have n - step quadratic convergence rate when restarted even if the line search is not exact.

An algorithm for unconstrained minimization of a function of n variables that does not require the evaluation of partial derivatives was presented by Mifflin⁶⁷. It is a second order extension of the method of local variations which makes the algorithm an approximate Newton method. Its convergence is superlinear for a twice continuously differentiable strongly convex function.

Best⁶⁸ recently developed a method that was claimed to have cubic rate of convergence. The procedure involves ' n ' step optimization using any appropriate optimization procedure which is followed by a special step and then another ' n ' iterations of the underlying algorithm followed by a second special step. This pattern is then repeated. The special step is interpreted as an approximation to Newton step. After a certain number of iteration this step size procedure will always use a step size of one.

With the object of comparing the different techniques

of unconstrained optimization effectively Shanno and Phua⁶⁹ took into account the overhead as well as function evaluations. This new method eliminates much of the machine dependency of earlier criteria.

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CHAPTER II

A NEW SEARCH TECHNIQUE

2.1 Introduction

The problems involving optimization of only one dimension are rarely encountered in real world. On the other hand, almost all search oriented multi-dimensional optimization problems, whether constrained or unconstrained need one dimensional search for its solution. In fact a large part of the computation time of solving multi-dimensional problems is taken by the one-dimensional search. So cutting down the computation time of one-dimensional search has the direct bearing on the reduction of computation time of multi-dimensional problems since these types of problems use one-dimensional search more than once.

Of the many techniques currently used for one dimensional search, Fibonacci search is the most powerful technique followed by Golden section because they do not assume any regularity conditions i.e. convexity, continuity, existence of derivative of function etc. Fibonacci method converges faster than any other method. It is apparent from Fig. 2.1 which shows the relationship¹ between the interval of uncertainty and the number of experiments, that for the first few experiments, the rate of convergence is very fast but after that (say, about 9 experiments), as the interval of uncertainty

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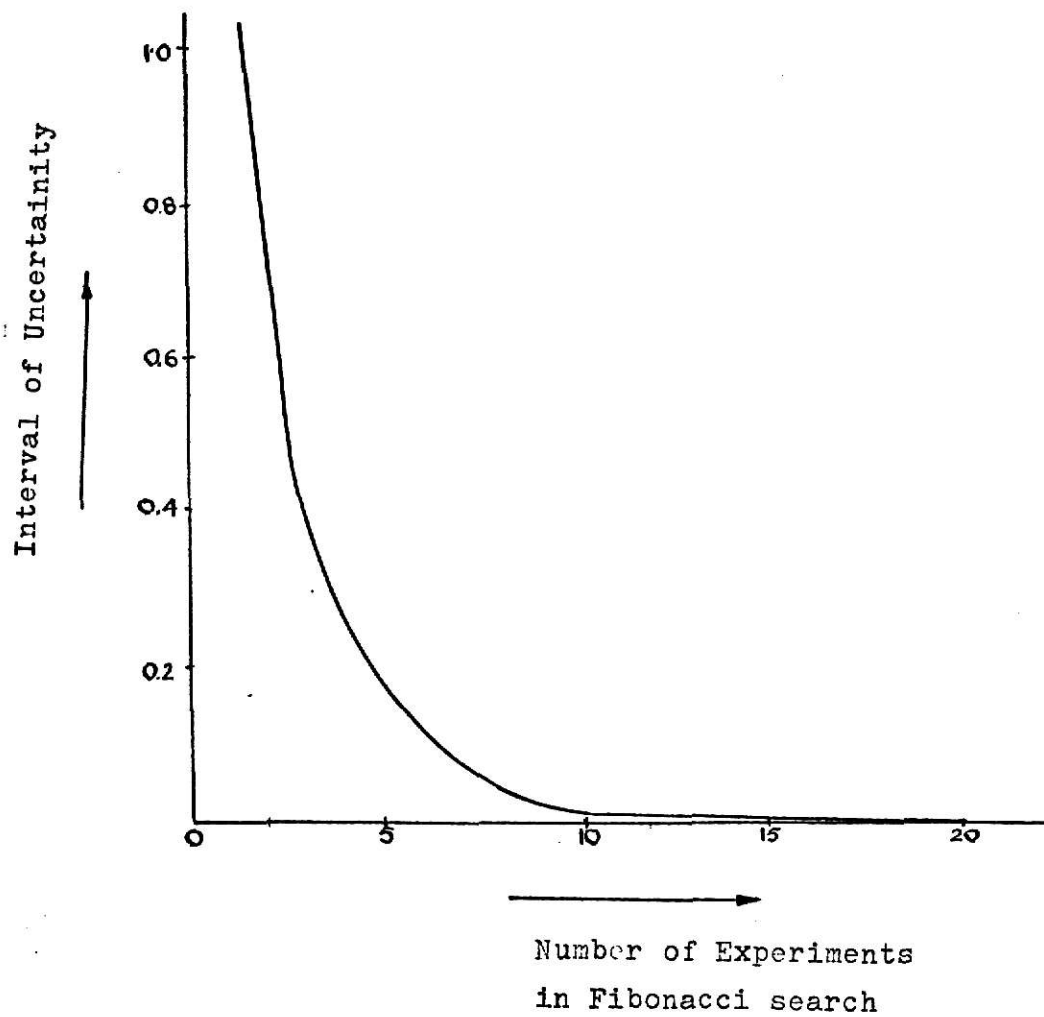


Figure 2.1 Interval of uncertainty versus number of experiments in Fibonacci Search.

becomes smaller and smaller, the rate of convergence becomes asymptotic.

A new approach to solve one-dimensional problem is discussed in section 2.2 and how this asymptotic convergence rate can be overcome using the combination of the new method and Fibonacci method, has been discussed in section 2.3. The new method for solving multi-dimensional problems is provided in section 2.4 with two examples and the comparison of this method with the standard methods has been made and presented in section 2.5.

2.2 Method of Bisecting the Envelope of One-Dimensional Function

In case of convex function, peak value can be obtained by bisecting the envelope i.e. the tangent cone of the function and rotating the cone along the curve till the bisector becomes vertical. The point of intersection of the bisector and the abscissa gives the optimum point since the tangent at the point of intersection of the bisector with the curve becomes horizontal. Even when the function is unknown, this method can be used to determine the optimum.

Method:

Let $y = f(x)$ be the convex function as shown in Fig. 2.2 by the curve BGC in an interval bc.

AB and AC are the two tangents at B & C respectively to form the enveloping cone. Thus $\tan \phi_2$ and $\tan \phi_1$, are known

when the functions are known or they can be calculated numerically by running two experiments one at b and the other at $b + \Delta x$ and other two experiments one at c and the other at $c + \Delta x$.

$$\text{Now, } \tan \theta = \frac{f(b) - f(c)}{c - b} \quad \therefore \theta = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{f(b) - f(c)}{c - b} \right]$$

Using $f(b)$, $f(c)$ and slopes of AB and AC, the eqns. of AB and AC can be determined and solving them co-ordinate of A can be calculated.

$$\text{Now } \alpha_2 = \phi_2 + \theta \text{ and } \alpha_1 = \phi_1 - \theta \text{ and since AP bisects } \angle A, \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 90^\circ - \frac{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}{2}$$

$$\therefore \text{The inclination of AP} = \gamma = [180^\circ - (\phi_1 + \beta_1)]$$

$$\text{The angle to be rotated} = \Delta\gamma = [90^\circ - \gamma]$$

When slope of AB is less than slope of AC i.e. when α_2 is greater than α_1 , the optimum lies in the obtuse angle side of AP when $\angle\gamma$ is acute. On the other hand if α_2 is less than α_1 i.e. when slope of AB is greater than slope of AC with the $\angle\gamma$ being acute, the optimum lies on the acute angle side of the AP.

Case I $\angle\alpha_2 > \angle\alpha_1$

This case is shown in Fig. 2.2. The cone ABC is rotated along the curve maintaining AC always tangent to the curve through an angle $\Delta\gamma$ to make the bisector AD vertical. In that case, A will be shifted to A'.

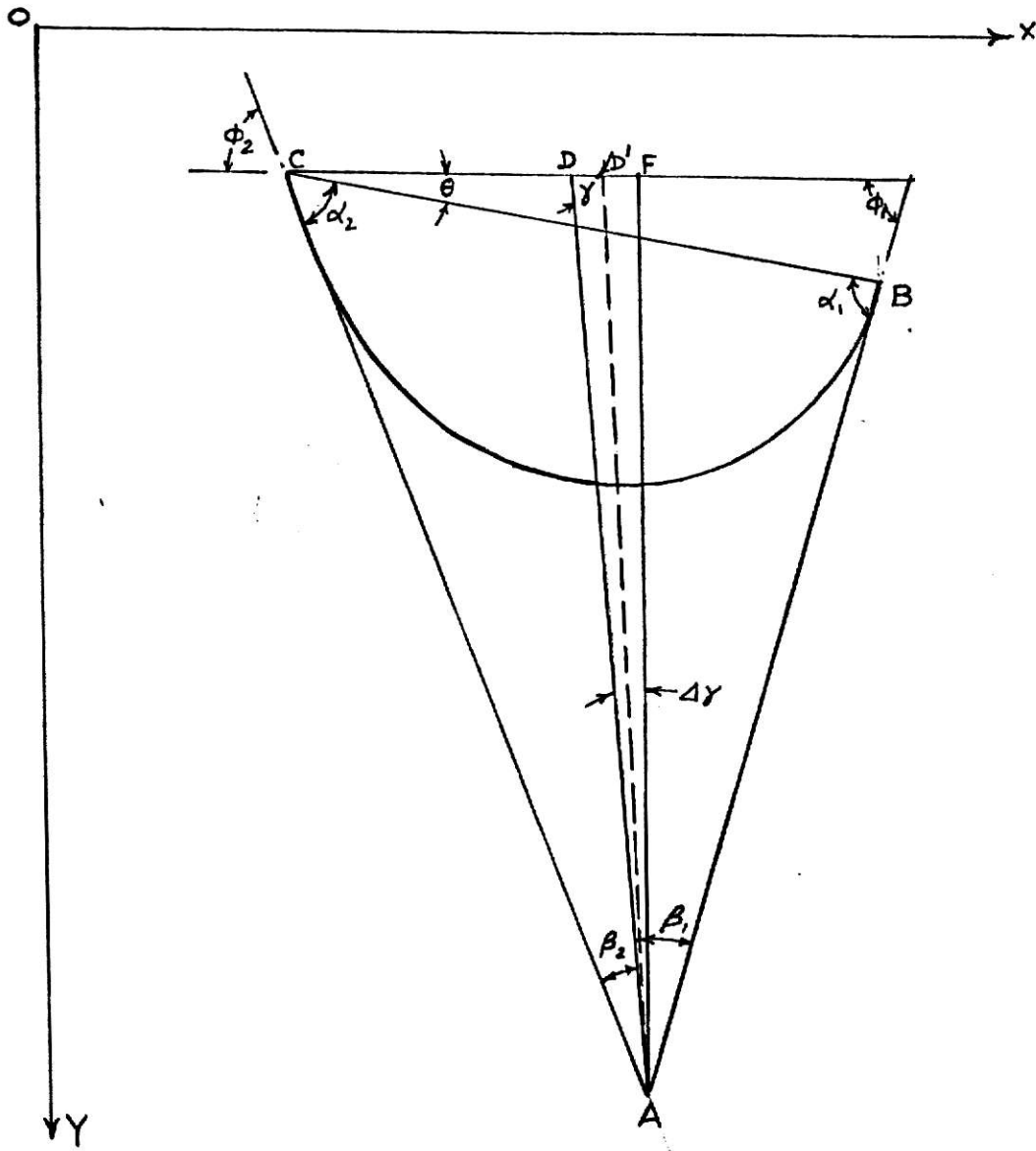


Figure 2.3A One Dimensional search for finding the minimum by this Method.

The amount of shift from point A is given by

$$\begin{aligned} S = \text{Shift} &= AC \cos \phi_1 - AC \cos (\phi_1 - \Delta\gamma) \\ &= AC [\cos \phi_1 - \cos (\phi_1 - \Delta\gamma)] \\ &= \frac{Y_A - f(c)}{\sin \phi_1} [\cos \phi_1 - \cos (\phi_1 - \Delta\gamma)] \end{aligned}$$

Since X_A and Y_A , the co-ordinates of A are known

$$\therefore X_{\text{optimum}} = X_A - S$$

$$Y_{\text{optimum}} = f(X_{\text{optimum}})$$

Case II

When α_2 is less than α_1 , and $\angle\gamma$ is acute, the optimum lies within the inner triangle. Using the same procedure i.e. knowing the points B and C, the parameters $\phi_1, \phi_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2$, Co-ordinate of A and the angle $\Delta\gamma$ are determined.

It is important to note here that, as in the previous case, if the cone is rotated through $\Delta\gamma$, the optimum will be obtained within the triangle ACD which is not true. In this case the optimum lies within the $\triangle ADF$ and the angle of rotation required is $\Delta\gamma/2$ (i.e. the rotation required by the bisector AD' of the angle DAF of $\triangle ADF$ till this new bisector becomes vertical).

$$\text{Shift} = AB \cos(\alpha_1 - \theta) - AB \left[\cos(\alpha_1 - \theta - \frac{\Delta\gamma}{2}) \right]$$

$$X_{\text{optimum}} = X_A - \text{Shift}$$

Examples:

Two problems were solved to illustrate the application

of this methodology for both the cases. Example 1 is a maximization problem and example 2 is a minimization problem. The detail calculations etc. are provided in Appendix 1.

The results are summarized below.

Function	Optimum Point by the New Method	Optimum Point by Other Method	Difference in Function Evaluation
Max: $5x^2 + 4xy + 8y^2$ $-16x + 8y - 16$ $= 0$	$x = 1.5939$ $y = 1.2005$	$x = 1.6$ $y = 1.2$.0005
Min: $y = e^x - 5x$	$x = 1.5645$ $y = -3.0422$	$x = 1.6$ $y = -3.0469$	0.0047

It may be noted here that this method gives optimum in one step while the other standard methods requires several iterations to reach the optimum.

2.3 Generalization of this Method

It has been shown that for convex functions this method works well but for non-convex unimodal functions having inflection points, this method can be effectively used in combination with Fibonacci method.

It is true that near the optimum, the function is convex. Outside this convex region bracketting the optimum, noise

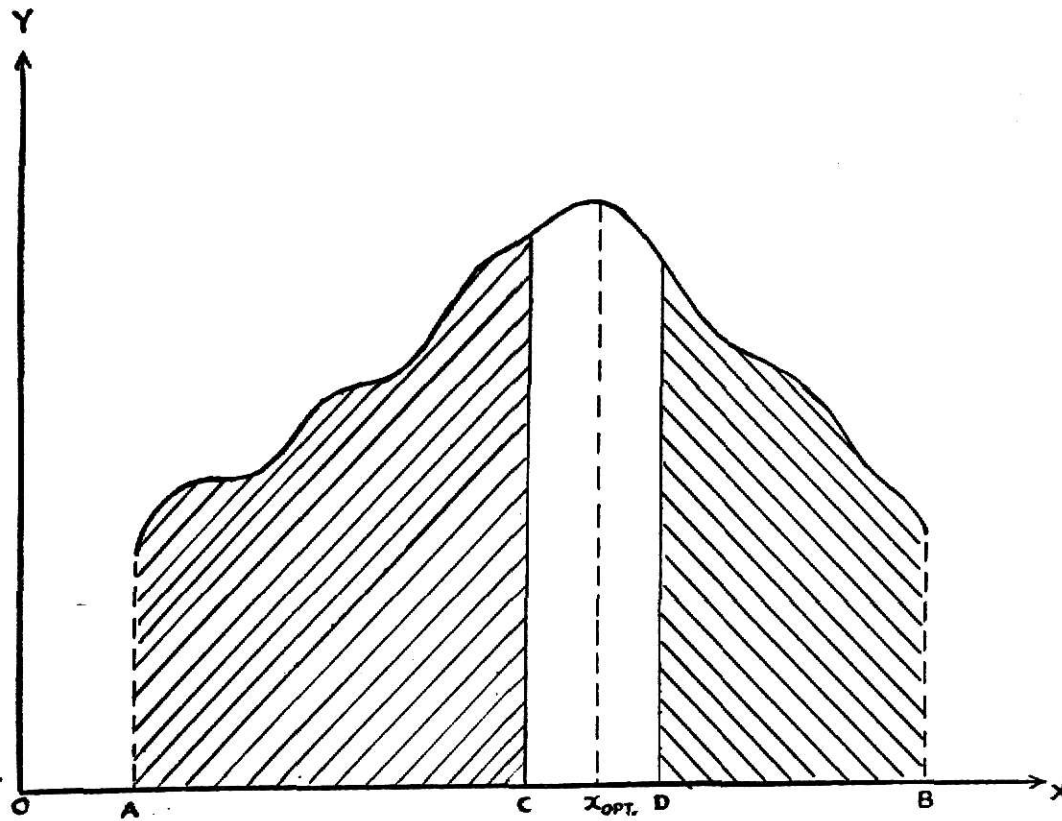


Figure 2.3B Combination of Fibonacci Search and this Method to reach optimum.

Note:

- 1) AB is the original interval of uncertainty. Initial reduction from AB to CD can be done by Fibonacci Search.
- 2) To reach at the optimum point, from CD, this Method can be used.

in terms of inflection points exists. So the problem can be divided into two parts. In the first part noise can be eliminated using Fibonacci search which provides fast rate of convergence before it becomes asymptotic. In the second part, the new method can be used to calculate the optimum.

In the above discussion the problem is how to ascertain the domain of convex region that brackets the optimum. The researcher from his experience and the knowledge of the experiment can assume a certain percentage (say 10% to 15%) of the interval of uncertainty for this purpose leaving the rest of it 85%-90%) for Fibonacci Search (Ref. Fig. 2.3B).

Thus, by the process of coupling this method with Fibonacci search, we can overcome the asymptotic disadvantage of Fibonacci Search and cut down the total number of experiments. This is essentially an economic advantage.

APPENDIX 1

Example 1:

Maximization problem.

$$\text{Max. } 5x^2 + 4xy + 8y^2 - 16x + 8y - 16 = 0$$

$$\text{Differentiating } 10x + 4y + 4xy' + 16yy' - 16 + 8y' = 0$$

$$\text{or } y' = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{8-5x}{2x+8y+4}$$

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)_{4,0} = \frac{8-20}{8+4} = -1 = 45^\circ$$

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)_{0,1} = \frac{8}{8+4} = \frac{2}{3} = 33.69^\circ$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{0-1}{4-0} = 0.25 = 14.036^\circ$$

$$\therefore \alpha_2 = 33.69^\circ + 14.036^\circ \\ = 47.726^\circ$$

$$\therefore \alpha_1 = 45^\circ - 14.036^\circ = 30.964^\circ$$

$$\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 90^\circ - \frac{47.726^\circ + 30.964^\circ}{2} = 50.655^\circ$$

$$\therefore \gamma = 180^\circ - (45^\circ + 50.655^\circ) = 84.345^\circ$$

$$\therefore \text{Angle to be rotated} = 5.655^\circ$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Co-ordinate of A: } \frac{y}{x-4} = -1 \quad \dots \text{eqn. of AC} \\ \text{[Fig 2.2]} \quad \& \quad \frac{y-1}{x} = \frac{2}{3} \quad \dots \text{eqn. of AB} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{solving: } x_A = 1.8 \\ y_A = 2.2 \end{array}$$

\therefore Due to rotation along the curve maintaining the tangency the lateral (L.H.side) shift = $AC \cos 45^\circ - AC \cos (45^\circ - 5.655^\circ)$

$$= AC [\cos 45^\circ - \cos 39.345^\circ]$$

$$= AC \times -.0662357$$

$$\frac{y_A}{\sin 45^\circ} \times -.0662357 = -0.20607$$

$$X_0 = X_{\text{optimum}} = X_A - .20607 = 1.59393$$

$$\text{exact } X_A = 1.6$$

Example 2

Minimization problem.

$$\text{Min. } y = e^x - 5x$$

$$\text{at } x = -1 \quad y = e^{-1} - 5 = 5.36788$$

$$\text{at } x = 3 \quad y = e^3 - 15 = 5.08554$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = e^x - 5$$

$$\therefore \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{x=1, 5.3} = e^{-1} - 5 = -4.63212 = \tan 77.813^\circ$$

$$\& \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{x=3, 5.08} = e^3 - 5 = 15.08554 = \tan 86.207^\circ$$

$$\text{Ref. Fig. 2.3A, Slope of BC} = \frac{5.08554 - 5.36788}{3 - 1} = 0.070585$$

$$= \tan 4.0375^\circ$$

$$d_1 = 86.207 + 4.038 = 90.245^\circ$$

$$d_2 = 77.813 - 4.038 = 73.775^\circ$$

$$\therefore d_1 > d_2$$

.. The optimum will be on the same side of the inclination of the center line AD of cone.

$$\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \frac{180^\circ - (d_1 + d_2)}{2} = 90^\circ - 82.012 = 7.988$$

$$\phi_1 = 180^\circ - (d_1 + \beta_1) = 180^\circ - 90.245 - 7.988 = 81.767^\circ$$

$$\therefore \text{Slope of AD} = \phi + 4.038 = 85.805$$

$$\tan 85.805^\circ = 13.6337$$

$$\text{Equation of AB : } y - 5.08554 = 15.08554 (x - 3)$$

$$\text{Equation of AC : } y - 5.36788 = -4.63212 (x - 1)$$

$$\text{Solving } X_A = 2.0746 \quad \text{and} \quad y_A = -8.8746$$

When AB is rotated and translated through $\frac{\gamma}{2}$, 'A' moves away from AF and 'G' moves toward AF.

$$\therefore \text{Horizontal shift} = AB \cos 86.207^\circ - AB \cos (86.207^\circ - 2.0975^\circ)$$

$$\text{Now } AB = \sqrt{(3-2.0746)^2 + (5.0855 - 8.8746)^2} = 13.985$$

$$\text{Hence Horizontal shift required} = 13.985 [.066152 - .10262]$$

$$= 0.51$$

$$\therefore X_{\text{opt}} = 2.0746 - 0.51 = 1.5645$$

$$\text{and } Y_{\text{opt}} = -3.0422$$

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CHAPTER III

LITERATURE SURVEY ON WAGE INCENTIVE PLANS

3.1 Introduction

Although there is no dearth of literature available on wage incentive plans, I have not found any literature that deals with the application of operations research on the formulation and solution of decision problems with regard to wage incentive. The probable reason may be that the decisions like the base level efficiency or the incentive rate etc. are, in most of the cases, settled between the management and the union across the table. In section 3.2 the standard techniques of wage incentives are discussed briefly. Section 3.3 provides the general literature survey on different types of incentive plans.

Since each plan has to be tailored to suit a particular condition of each organization and it should be such as to satisfy other objectives of the organization like the employment condition, wage structure and quality of the product. There is a scope for application of standard optimization techniques for the optimum choice of the incentive plan.

3.2 Standard Techniques of Wage Incentive - Payment by Results.

Usually, payment by results, are classified in four

main groups in accordance with whether worker's earnings vary 1) in the same proportion as output

2) proportionally less than output

3) proportionally more than output

4) in proportions which differ at different levels of output.

The most common system of payment is the straight piece-work system that comes under the category 1. It may be applied to individuals or to group of workers, the worker is paid at a specified rate per unit of output. Direct labor cost per unit of output remains constant when output increases above standard but the total unit costs decrease because fixed and semi-variable overhead unit costs decrease¹. Variations in workers earnings and direct labor costs are shown in Fig. 3.1.

When it is difficult to set the job standards accurately, the worker usually shares with his employer the gains or losses that result due to change of output. All schemes under category 2 have this characteristic, i.e., they all possess less motivating reward than straight piece work system. Under the Halsey System, the worker is guaranteed a minimum wage even when his output falls below standard. But if the job is completed in less than standard time, the worker is paid at his time rate for the actual time taken and, in addition, receives a bonus payment at his time rate

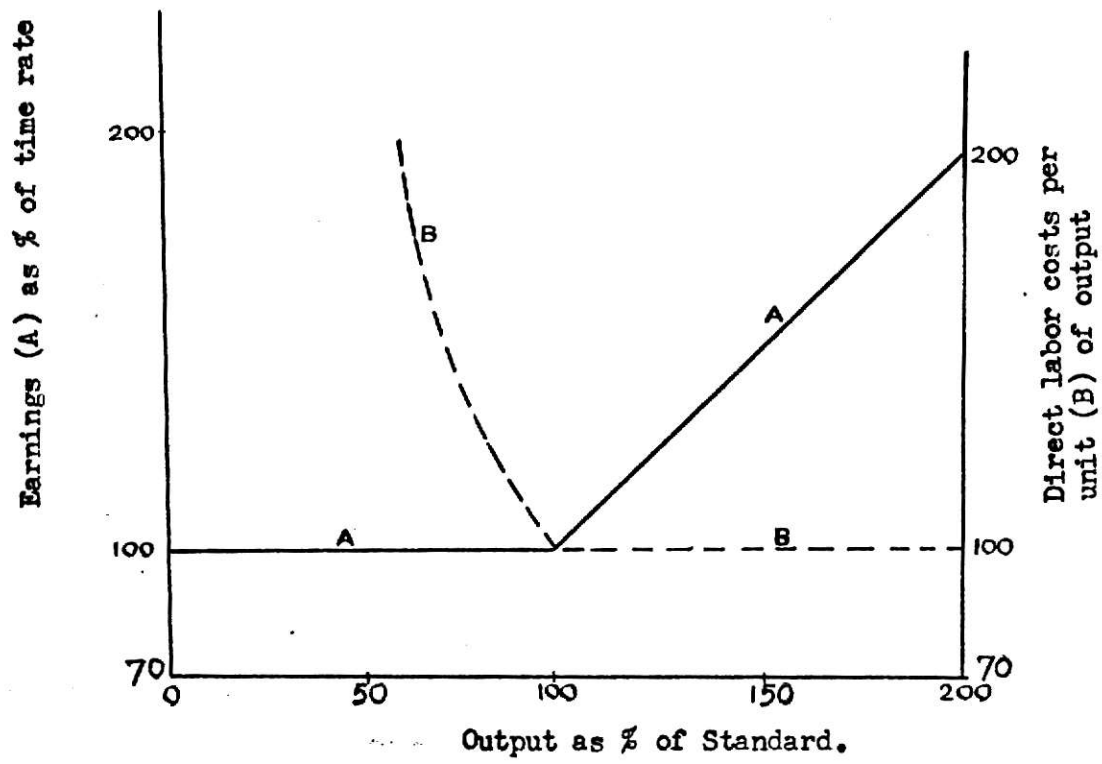


Figure 3.1 Straight piece-work system.

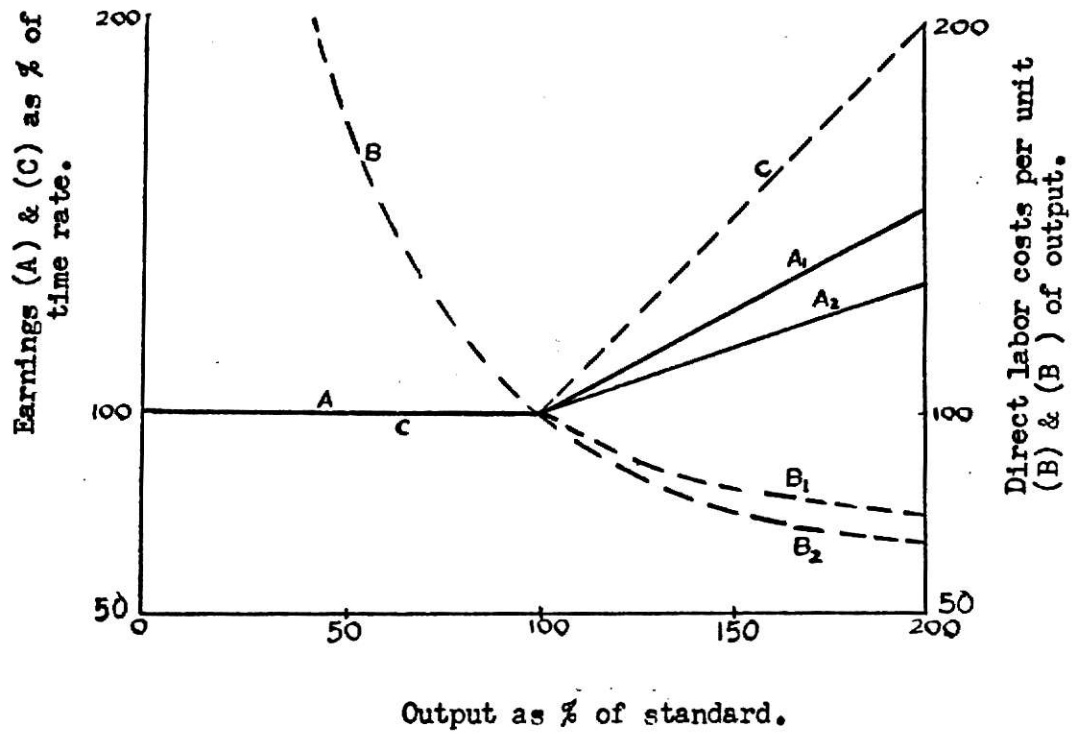
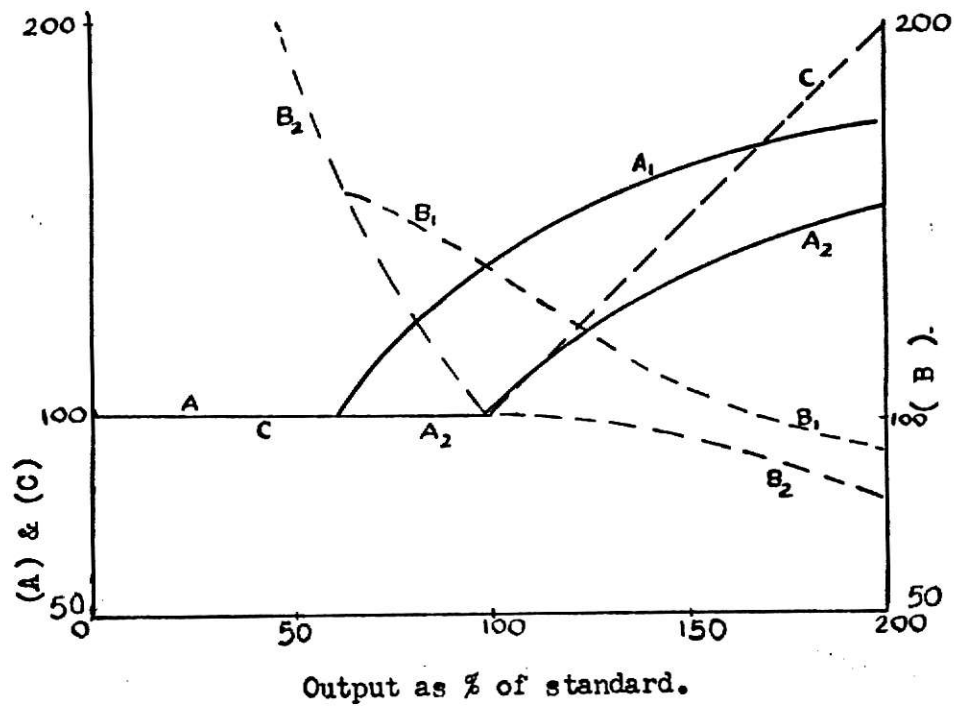
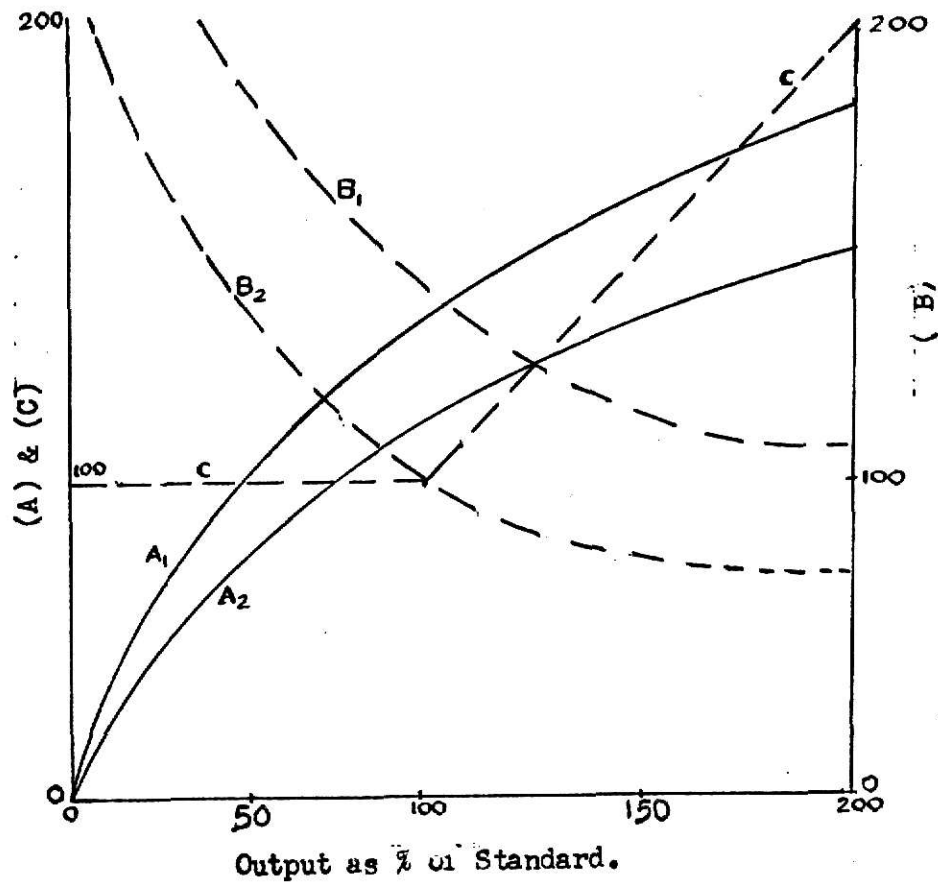


Figure 3.2 Halsey System.



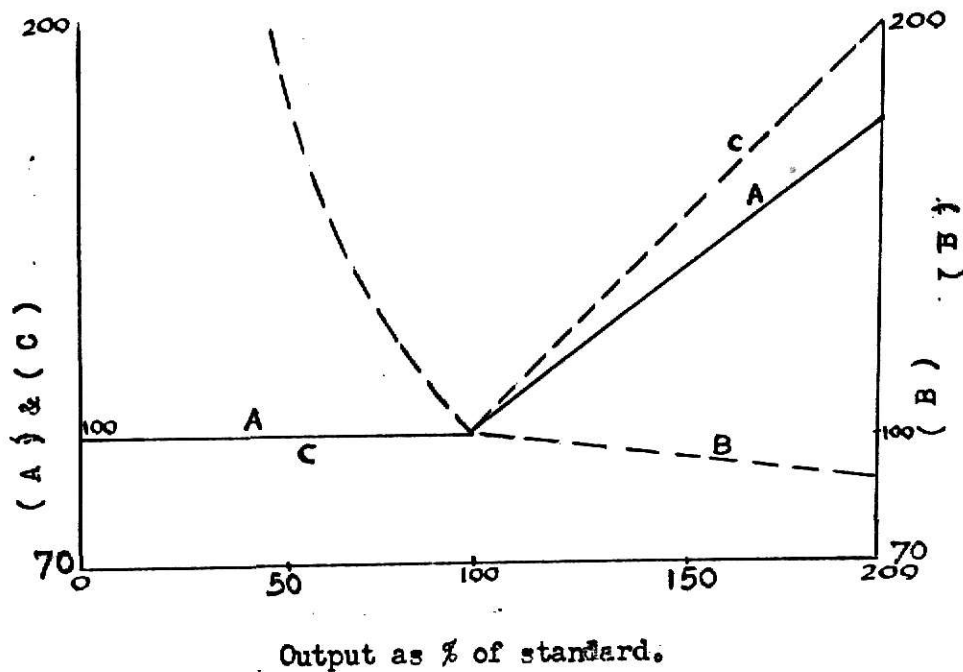
- A Earnings (A_1 for low task and A_2 for standard task)
- B Direct labor costs per unit of output (B_1 for low task and B_2 for standard task)
- C Earnings on straight piece-work system with guaranteed time rate.

Figure 3.3 The Rowan System.



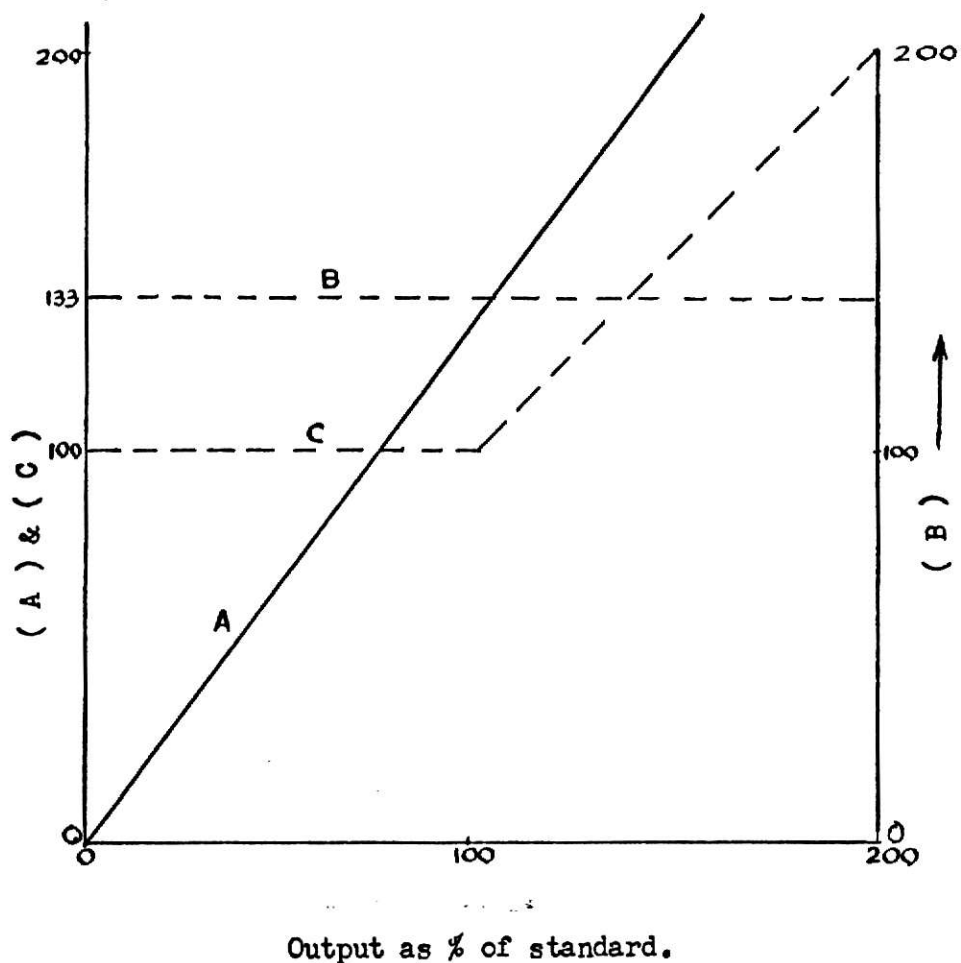
- A Earnings (A_1 for low task and A_2 for standard task)
- B Direct labor costs per unit of output
(B_1 for low tasks and B_2 for standard tasks)
- C Earnings on straight piece-work with a
guaranteed Time rate.

Figure 3.4 The Birth Variable Sharing System.



- A Earnings as a % of standard.
- B Direct labor costs per unit of output.
- C Earnings on a straight piece-work system with a guaranteed time rate.

Figure 3.5 The Bedaux System.



- A Earnings as % of time rate.
- B Direct labor costs per unit of output.
- C Earnings on a straight piece-work system with a guaranteed time rate .

Figure 3.6 High piece rate System.

for a specified percentage of time saved (usually varies from 30% to 70%). The variations in worker's earning and direct labor costs are shown in Fig. 3.2. In the Rowan System bonus is similarly paid for any time saved. The bonus takes the form of a percentage of the worker's time rate. This percentage is equal to the proportion which the time saved forms of standard time. The characteristics of the earnings and direct labor cost curves for the low task and standard task under this system is shown in Fig. 3.3. The Birth variable sharing system is similar to the Halsey and Rowan Systems but does not provide for a guaranteed time rate. The worker's pay is ascertained by multiplying the standard hour by the number of hours actually taken to do the job, taking the square root of the product and multiplying by the worker's hourly rate. The characteristics of the earnings and direct labor cost curves for low task and for standard task are shown in Fig. 3.4. Under the Bedaux system, each minute of allowed time is called a point, thus making in all 480 points in an 8-hour day. A standard number of points is specified for the completion of each job. The worker receives, in addition to his hourly or daily rate, a bonus which is, under the original Bedaux system, equal to 75% of the number of points earned in excess of 60 per hour multiplied by one sixtieth of the worker's hourly rate. Fig. 3.5 shows the variations in earnings and direct labor

costs under this system.

In category 3, the high piece-rate system provides the worker's earnings in proportion to output as under straight piece-work but the increment in earnings for each increase in output is greater. The characteristics of this system are shown in Figure 3.6.

A great many varieties of systems under category 4 have been developed. The most important ones are a) the Taylor Differential Piece-Rate System, b) the Merrick Differential Piece-Rate System, c) the Gantt Task System, and d) the Emerson Empiric or Efficiency System.

In all these systems earnings vary from minimum to maximum at different levels of output. Earnings for part of the range may vary proportionally less than output and for another part proportionally more, or more usually in the same proportion as output.

3.3 Review on Different Types of Plans

Increased labor productivity is the fundamental requirement for an increased material standard of living. Holt² showed a simple mathematical model that there exists a definite relationship between overall efficiency and labor productivity. Other input factors held constant, efficiency rises with the increase in labor productivity. By this

model, it is also possible to calculate the amount of investment to be made for the replacement of equipment when the rise in labor productivity is known.

The basis for the incentive scheme for the restricted work (i.e. restricted by the process or the machine performance) should be quite different from that for the unrestricted work. Schieb³ pointed out that variation in the performance time is precluded by the nature of the operation. He suggested five approaches that should be followed by the Industrial Engineer for the design of incentive schemes in such situations.

Seidel⁴ demonstrated a simple technique how much the increase in labor wage incentive can be paid in the next year if the sales, labor force requirement and other cost data are known for the current year and next year. Using this method decisions relating to the incentive rate or increase in labor wages a replacement of equipment can be taken very easily and effectively.

Like Seheib, the disadvantages associated with the straight standard hour system as a basis of incentive plan were also shown by Halty⁵ who developed a new system that gives us a mathematical equation to calculate the earning index, taking into account a variable machine incentive allowance.

O'Connor⁶ stresses on the unique position of standard time as the most important part of the incentive plan. He

explained the merits and demerits of straight piece work and geared linear plans for incentive plan. When there exists some doubt about the accuracy of the time standard, his recommendation was to adopt his curvilinear type of incentive plan.

Usually labor productivity varies with respect to time in a particular organization. Nassi⁷ showed how these indices with respect to time which are known as 'index of Laspeyres' and 'index of Paasche' can be calculated. He has also shown how to measure the performance index of Method study and standard department in terms of work saved per unit of time.

Incentives also can be applied for quality improvement. This was shown by Mehra, et al,⁸ by linking the scheme with the acceptance sampling incentive plan. The wage, inclusive of incentive would be computed using game theory approach.

With this same objective, Nandi and Nair⁹ presented a quality incentive plan for an operator which was designed based on cost equations of the sampling plan and management policy without increasing the total cost per lot.

Success of the incentive scheme depends on the consistency of time data among some other factors. Groff¹⁰ pointed out that the standard output rate obtained by time study is not always optimal since best output rate for standard is simply influenced by the incentive plan for which the data is intended. He presented an incentive plan considering the

efefct of selected output response patterns and cost structures on optimal standard level.

Expensive downtime, at times poses a problem to the management, particularly, in line paced operation. James¹¹ showed how to alleviate this problem by introducing incentive in the system.

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CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF OPERATIONS RESEARCH TECHNIQUES TO FORMULATE AND SOLVE AN INCENTIVE PROBLEM -- A CASE STUDY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is primarily concerned with the application of some optimization techniques to solve some decision problems regarding wage incentive scheme. This is essentially a case study. In this section the management's problem and policy have been discussed. In section 4.2 and 4.3, the formulation and solution of the problems are provided. In this case study, a situation in a light engineering concern has been considered wherein the management is currently scheduling overtime hours to meet its production schedule. It wants to put a stop to giving overtime and get the same or more production without overtime through the installation of an incentive plan that will eventually improve operator's efficiency, increase machine utilization accompanied by less power consumption.

Management does not want the worker's weekly paycheck to be affected. By having the same output during normal working hours, it hopes to reduce the overhead expenses associated with having the firm work longer hours.

In this particular case, it is proposed that for twelve departments and for two groups of workers in each department, namely skilled and unskilled worker, group incentive plan is suitable.

4.2 Problem Formulation

The following nomenclatures were used for the formulation of the problem:

N_k = Total number of workers in Group k in the department i.

J_i = Total number of operations done in department i.

x_1 = Proposed base level efficiency in % from which incentive should start.

C_{ki} = Current efficiency in % of Group k in the department i.

U_{kij} = Total number of units produced by Group k for jth operation in the department after the implementation of incentive scheme.

H_{ki} = Input labor hours by kth group of workers in the department i.

t_{kij} = Standard time in hours per unit for jth operation done in the department i by kth group of worker.

x_{k+1} = Incentive rate per point rise in efficiency per hour (i.e. \$/%/hr.) for kth group of workers.

d_k = Average overtime in \$ paid per hour to Group k.

It is also desired that x_1 , the proposed base level

efficiency should be same for all groups of worker.

So the desired objective function is to :

$$\text{Minimize} \quad \sum_k \sum_i N_{ki} (x_1 - C_{ki})^2$$

Constraints:

- (1) Total incentive to be paid must not exceed the total overtime payment, i.e.

$$\sum_i \left[\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{U_{kij} t_{kij}}{H_{ki}} - x_1 \right] x_{k+1} \leq d_k \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2$$

Essentially $U_{kij} t_{kij} / H_{ki}$ gives the new efficiencies of two groups ($k = 1$ and 2). If they are defined as C_{1i} and C_{2i} then $(C_{1i} - x_1)$ and $(C_{2i} - x_1)$ are the total rise in efficiencies by two groups of workers for i th department after the implementation of the scheme.

- (2) Again to have good motivation, the incentive rate should not be less than the 'per hour wage' evaluated on per point basis at the optimum base level efficiency, i.e.

$$x_{k+1} \geq \frac{w_k}{x_1} \quad \text{where } w_k \text{ is the average wage rate for } k\text{th group of workers.}$$

This is quite clear from the relationship (line BC) shown in Figure 4.1.

The number of workmen for the two groups and for twelve departments are shown in Appendix 3. After time study, the current performance index (P.I.) i.e. C_{ik_1} and C_{ik_2} of the

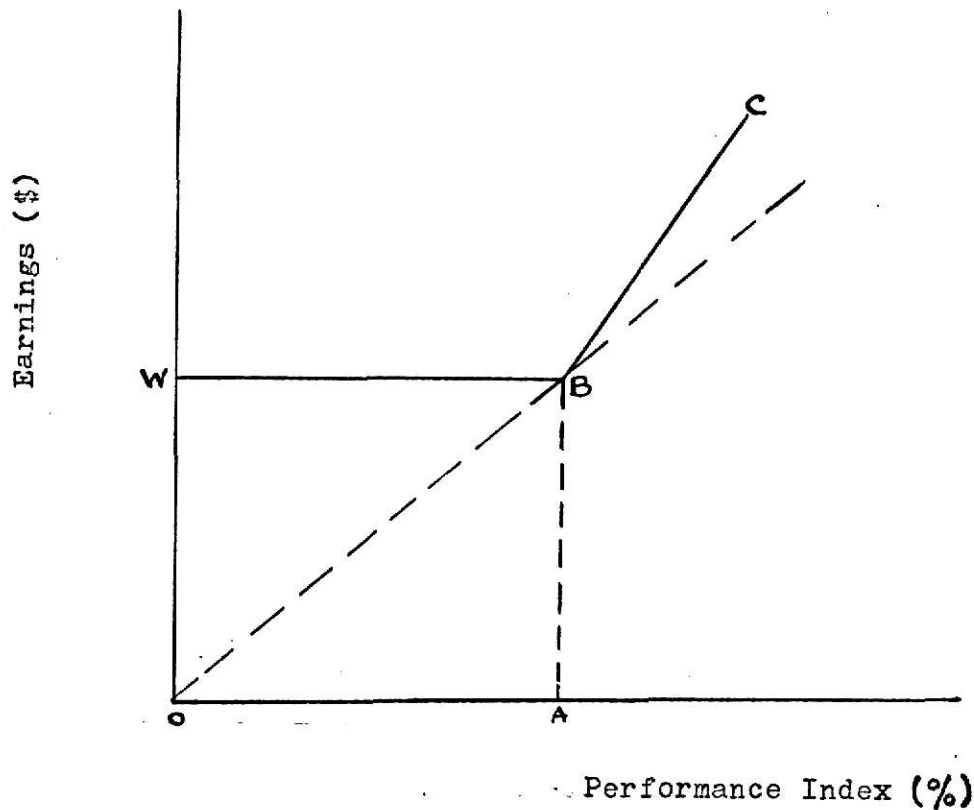


Fig. 4.1 Relationship between the earnings and performance index under the proposed incentive scheme.

Note: Guaranteed minimum wage is W ; even when the output falls below the base level efficiency A . The slope of BC (i.e. the incentive rate) is greater than the slope of OB . This provides greater motivation. Constraint 2 is essentially derived from this condition.

two groups for each department are evaluated and provided in the same Appendix 3. It also has been found that the management gets the same output if the two groups of workers work at 105% and 100% P.I. during normal working hours. The wage rate for skilled and unskilled groups of workers are assumed as \$4 and \$3 per hour respectively. From the past records in the account section, the overtime earning per hour per worker for the two groups are found to be \$2 and \$1.50 respectively.

So using those data the problem is rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} Z = & 10(x_1-78)^2 + 20(x_1-68)^2 + 18(x_1-82)^2 + 28(x_1-85)^2 + 5(x_1-83)^2 \\ & + 5(x_1-69)^2 + 40(x_1-95)^2 + 5(x_1-75)^2 + 80(x_1-80)^2 + 10(x_1-96)^2 \\ & + 20(x_1-91)^2 + 10(x_1-65)^2 + 30(x_1-71)^2 + 20(x_1-66)^2 + 40(x_1-76)^2 \\ & + 32(x_1-75)^2 + 10(x_1-78)^2 + 10(x_1-65)^2 + 60(x_1-89)^2 + 10(x_1-69)^2 \\ & + 60(x_1-72)^2 + 5(x_1-90)^2 + 10(x_1-85)^2 + 5(x_1-62)^2 \dots \text{eqn. (4.1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{S.T. } (105-x_1)x_2 \leq 2 \dots \text{eqn. (4.2)}$$

$$(100-x_1)x_3 \leq 1.5 \dots \text{eqn. (4.3)}$$

$$x_2 \geq \frac{4}{x_1} \dots \text{eqn. (4.4)}$$

$$x_3 \geq \frac{3}{x_1} \dots \text{eqn. (4.5)}$$

$x_1 = C_p$ = Optimum base level efficiency in %

x_2 = Incentive rate per point rise per hour for skilled group (\$/%/hr.)

x_3 = Incentive rate per point rise per hour for unskilled group. (\$/%/hr.)

4.3 Generalized Reduced Gradient Formulation

To solve the above problem by the GRG method, the objective functions and the constraints may be represented by:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Maximize} && f_0(\bar{x}) \\ &\text{Subject to the constraints} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &f(\bar{x}) = 0 \\ &\bar{a} \leq \bar{x} \leq \bar{b} \end{aligned}$$

Any inequality constraints can be converted into equality constraints using the standard procedure of adding slack variables and changing the sign, if necessary.

The basic underlying principle of this technique is to change the constrained optimization problem into an unconstrained one. This is done by dividing the solution vector components into two groups, independent (\bar{x}) and dependent (\bar{y}). The dependent variables denoted by the vector \bar{y} are solved in terms of independent vector \bar{x} , through the constrain functions.

Therefore on this basis the constraints may be rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} &\bar{f}(\bar{x}) = \bar{F}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = 0 \\ &\text{Solving } \bar{y} = \Phi(\bar{x}) \end{aligned}$$

The objective function also is rewritten in terms of \bar{x} and \bar{y} and substituting the value of \bar{y} in that one gets

$$f_0(\bar{x}) = f_0(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = f_0(\bar{x}, \Phi(\bar{x})) = F(\bar{x})$$

Hence the problem is to maximize

$$F(\bar{x})$$

Subject to $\bar{a} \leq \bar{x} \leq \bar{b}$

Since $F(\bar{x}) = f_0(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$

\therefore The reduced gradient can be evaluated as:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial \bar{x}} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \bar{x}} + \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \bar{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{y}}{\partial \bar{x}}$$

$\frac{\partial \bar{y}}{\partial \bar{x}}$ is determined indirectly from the constraints.

$$\therefore f(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{x}} + \frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{y}}{\partial \bar{x}} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \frac{\partial \bar{y}}{\partial \bar{x}} = - \left[\frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{y}} \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{x}} \right]$$

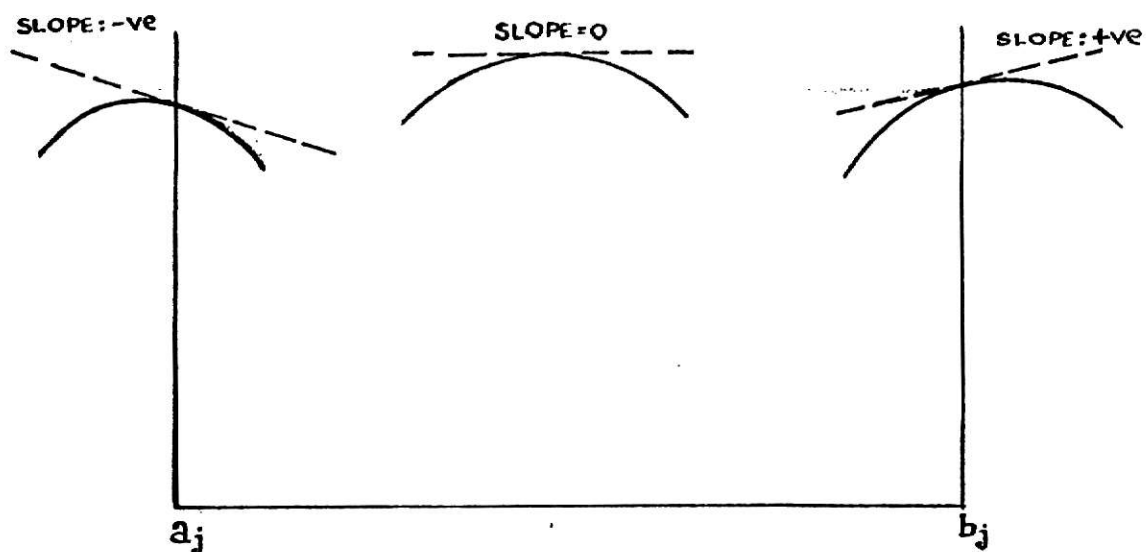
$$\therefore \bar{g}^T = \frac{\partial F}{\partial \bar{x}} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \bar{x}} - \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \bar{y}} \left[\frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{y}} \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{x}} \right]$$

The conditions that determine an optimum solution, \bar{x}^* are as given below (for all j)

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad a_j < x_j^* < b_j$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} \leq 0 \quad \text{if} \quad x_j^* = a_j$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} \geq 0 \quad \text{if} \quad x_j^* = b_j$$



Slope: -ve satisfies condition $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} = 0$ if $x_j^* = a_j$

Slope = 0 satisfies condition $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} = 0$ if $a_j < x_j^* < b_j$

Slope: +ve satisfies condition $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_j^*} = 0$ if $x_j^* = b_j$

Fig. 4.2 Graphical representation of the optimum conditions used in GRG technique.

These conditions are graphically represented in Fig. 4.2.

The underlying assumptions for this algorithm are that for a given iteration

- 1) There exists a set of dependent variables contained within the boundary conditions
- 2) The Jacobian $\frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial \bar{y}}$ is non-singular.

Using the above information, the basic GRG algorithms can be stated in five steps which are provided in the flow chart (Appendix 4).

Theoretically, the stopping condition is when the projected reduced gradient $P_i^0 = 0$, $i = j, \dots, N-M$, where N is the number of variables in the original objective function and M is the number of constraints, $N-M$ being the reduced dimension.

In practice, the following three stopping criteria are employed.

$$1) \quad \|\bar{P}^0\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N-M} (P_i^0)^2} < \epsilon_1$$

$$2) \quad P_i^0 < \epsilon_2 \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (N-M)$$

$$3) \quad |f_0(\bar{x}^1) - f_0(\bar{x})^0| < \epsilon_3$$

TABLE 4.1

RESULTS OBTAINED BY GRG METHOD USING THREE
DIFFERENT STARTING POINTS

Run No.	Starting Values	Solution	Function Value	Norm of Reduced Gradient	$\Delta F1$	ETA	No. of Iterns.
1	$x_1=85\%$ $x_2=.03$ $x_3=.03$	J o b	A b a n d o n e d				8
2	$x_1=60\%$ $x_2=.05$ $x_3=.05$	$x_1=79.27$ $x_2=.078$ $x_3=.05$	0.4276×10^5	1.5	10	44	23
3	$x_1=75\%$ $x_2=.04$ $x_3=.04$	$x_1=79.27$ $x_2=.051$ $x_3=.04$	0.4276×10^5	0.0	0.0	0.0	7

Note: 1) In Run # 2, the termination occurred since same function values are obtained in the last two iterations before it meets the other stopping criteria.

$$\begin{aligned}
 2) \quad \Delta F1 &= \sum |P_i(a_i - x_i)| \quad \text{when } P_i < 0 \\
 &= \sum |P_i(b_i - x_i)| \quad \text{when } P_i > 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Where P_i is the gradient of the function with respect to the variable.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ETA} &= \text{Max. } |P_i(a_i - x_i)| \quad \text{for } P_i < 0 \\
 &\text{or Max. } |P_i(b_i - x_i)| \quad \text{for } P_i > 0
 \end{aligned}$$

4.4 Solution of the Incentive Problem by G.R.G. Method

The incentive problem as formulated in section 4.2 was solved by GRG method using the GREG program which was developed by Abadie and his associates of Electricite de France. The program was run thrice using three different starting values (Table 4.1). The number of iterations required, the optimum value of the variables and the value of the objective function etc. are given in Table 4.1. Appendices 5-7 are the computer printout for the three runs which provide the other informations like the stopping criteris etc.

The variable x_3 , i.e. the incentive rate for unskilled group, assumes the same optimal value as the starting value in both the feasible runs although the function values are same. Hence it may be concluded that the objective function is very flat near the optimum.

4.5 Separable Programming

Separable programming is a special case of non-linear programming. When the objective function and the constraints are constructed or can be constructed of separable functions, this method can be used effectively. The basic principle is to approximate the non-linear function to piecewise linear functions and thereby changing the problem into a restricted linear programming problem.

Thus the incentive problem given by eqns. 4.1 to 4.5 can be changed to separable programming problem which may be defined as:

$$C(\bar{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x_i)$$

Subject to constraints:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m g_{ki}(x_i) \leq b_k \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

$$x_i \geq 0 \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

Partitioning each variable x_i into n_i divisions and approximating the functions $f_i(x_i)$ and $g_{ki}(x_i)$ one can write as:

$$x_i = x_i^0 + \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \Delta x_i^j D_i^j$$

$$f_i(x_i) \cong f_i(x_i^0) + \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} f_i^j D_i^j$$

$$g_{ki}(x_i) \cong g_{ki}(x_i^0) + \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} g_{ki}^j D_i^j$$

$k = 1, 2, \dots, p$, and $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$

x_i^0 = lower boundary of variable x_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$

x_i^0 may or may not be equal to zero

$f_i(x_i)$ and $g_{ki}(x_i)$ are the corresponding values of the objective function and

constraints at x_i^0 . These values may or may not be equal to zero.

D_i^j represents a variable created for the j th partition of variable x_i .

Thus the original problem can be written as:

Optimize (max. or min.)

$$C = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} f_i^j D_i^j + \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x_i^0)$$

$$\text{Subject to: } \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} g_{ki}^j D_i^j \leq b_k - \sum_{L=1}^m g_{ki}(x_i^0),$$

$$k = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

$$\text{Grid equation: } x_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \Delta x_i^j D_i^j = x_i^0, \quad L = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$0 \leq D_i^j \leq 1, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$$

$$x_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

4.6 Solution of the Incentive Problem by Separable Method

The incentive problem as formulated in section 4.2 and defined by the eqns.4.1 to 4.5 can be separated as follows:

The objective function on expansion yields

$$\text{Min} = 543 x_1^2 - 86082 x_1 + 3454417 \dots \quad \text{eqn.4.6}$$

The constraints are separated according to the principle of separable programming by taking logarithms on both sides.

Thus the constraints are:

$$\log (105 - x_1) + \log x_2 \leq \log 2 \quad \dots \text{eqn.4.7}$$

$$\log (100 - x_1) + \log x_3 \leq \log 1.5 \quad \dots \text{eqn.4.8}$$

$$\log x_2 + \log x_1 \geq \log 4 \quad \dots \dots \dots \text{eqn.4.9}$$

$$\log x_3 + \log x_1 \geq \log 3 \quad \dots \dots \dots \text{eqn.4.10}$$

The starting value of the variables x_1 , x_2 and x_3 are 75%, \$.06, and \$.04 respectively. The upperbounds are 90%, \$.12 and \$.09 and the number of partitions required for linearisation are 20, 10 and 10 respectively.

The linearized form of the non-linear components of the objective function and of constraints are furnished in Appendix 8.

Since $f(x_i)$ and $g_{ki}(x_i)$ where x_i is the starting value of the i th variable and f and g stand for objective function and constraint respectively, are not zero so the right hand side of constraints and also the d_{ij} function are to be adjusted.

Thus the original incentive problem is represented as:

Maximize:

$$F = (-Z) = \sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta f(D_j)^j - 543(x_1^0)^2 + 86082 x_1 - 3454417$$

S.T.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta g_1^j D_1^j + \sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta g_1^j D_2^j \leq \log 2 - g_1(x_1^0, x_2^0)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta g_2^j D_1^j + \sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta g_2^j D_3^j \leq \log 1.5 - g_2(x_1^0, x_3^0)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta g_3^j D_2^j + \sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta g_3^j D_1^j \geq \log 4 - g_3(x_1^0, x_2^0)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta g_4^j D_3^j + \sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta g_4^j D_1^j \geq \log 3 - g_4(x_1^0, x_3^0)$$

Grid equations:

$$x_1 - \sum_{j=1}^{20} \Delta x_1^j D_1^j = 75$$

$$x_2 - \sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta x_2^j D_2^j = 0.06$$

$$x_3 - \sum_{j=1}^{10} \Delta x_3^j D_3^j = 0.04$$

$$x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0, \quad 0 \leq D_i^j \leq 1 \quad \begin{matrix} i = 1, 2, 3 \text{ \& } \\ j = 1, 2, 3 \dots 20 \end{matrix}$$

The linear equations, the grid equations are given in details in Appendix 8. The problem then eventually was solved by linear programming using MPS/360 program, the results are given at the end of Appendix 8.

The results are summarized in Table 4.2 and the value of the objective function also was given in the same table after manipulating the constant terms using eqn. 4.6.

TABLE 4.2

Results Obtained Using Separable Programming

Variable	Lower bound	Upper bound	Starting Value	Number of partitions	Number of iterations for linear programming solution	Solution	
						Local	Global
x_1	75%	90%	75%	20		79.5	79.5
x_2	.06	.12	.06	10	9	.06	.078
x_3	.04	.09	.04	10		.04	.074

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{value of obj. function} &= - [6466000 - 3454417 - 543(75)^2] \\
 &= - [-42792] = .42792 \times 10^5
 \end{aligned}$$

4.7 Conclusion

The GRG method appears to be a very powerful tool for handling optimization of non-linear objective function subjected to non-linear constraints. As can be seen from the results (Table 4.1) the convergence rate is quite fast and only a very small amount of computer time and computer memory are needed to solve the problem.

Separable programming is also a powerful non-linear programming technique since it will yield, as with any other non-linear technique, at least a local optimum solution, if it exists. Its only pitfall is precision, but this is of little consequence since most engineering problems need only a good approximation.

As contrast to the GRG technique, separable programming requires more manipulation since a large number of new variables have to be introduced and it can solve only certain non-linear programming problems.

As far as our given incentive problem is concerned, separable programming and GRG yield nearly the (Table 4.3) same objective function value and the base efficiency but the incentive rates obtained by separable programming are higher than those by GRG method. Since higher motivation will be generated by higher values of incentive rates, so results of separable programming may be recommended with a insignificant change in the value of objective function.

Table 4.3 Comparison of the results obtained
by G.R.G. method and Seperable Programming

Method	Starting values	No of iterations	Optimum solns.	Optimum func. values
G. R.G.	$x_1=75\%$		$x_1=79.27\%$	
Method	$x_2=.04 (\$)$	7	$x_2=.05 (\$)$	$.4276 \times 10^5$
	$x_3=.04 (\$)$		$x_3=.04 (\$)$	
Seperable programming	$x_1=75\%$		$x_1=79.5\%$	
	$x_2=.06 (\$)$	9	$x_2=.078 (\$)$	$.4279 \times 10^5$
	$x_3=.04 (\$)$		$x_3=.074 (\$)$	

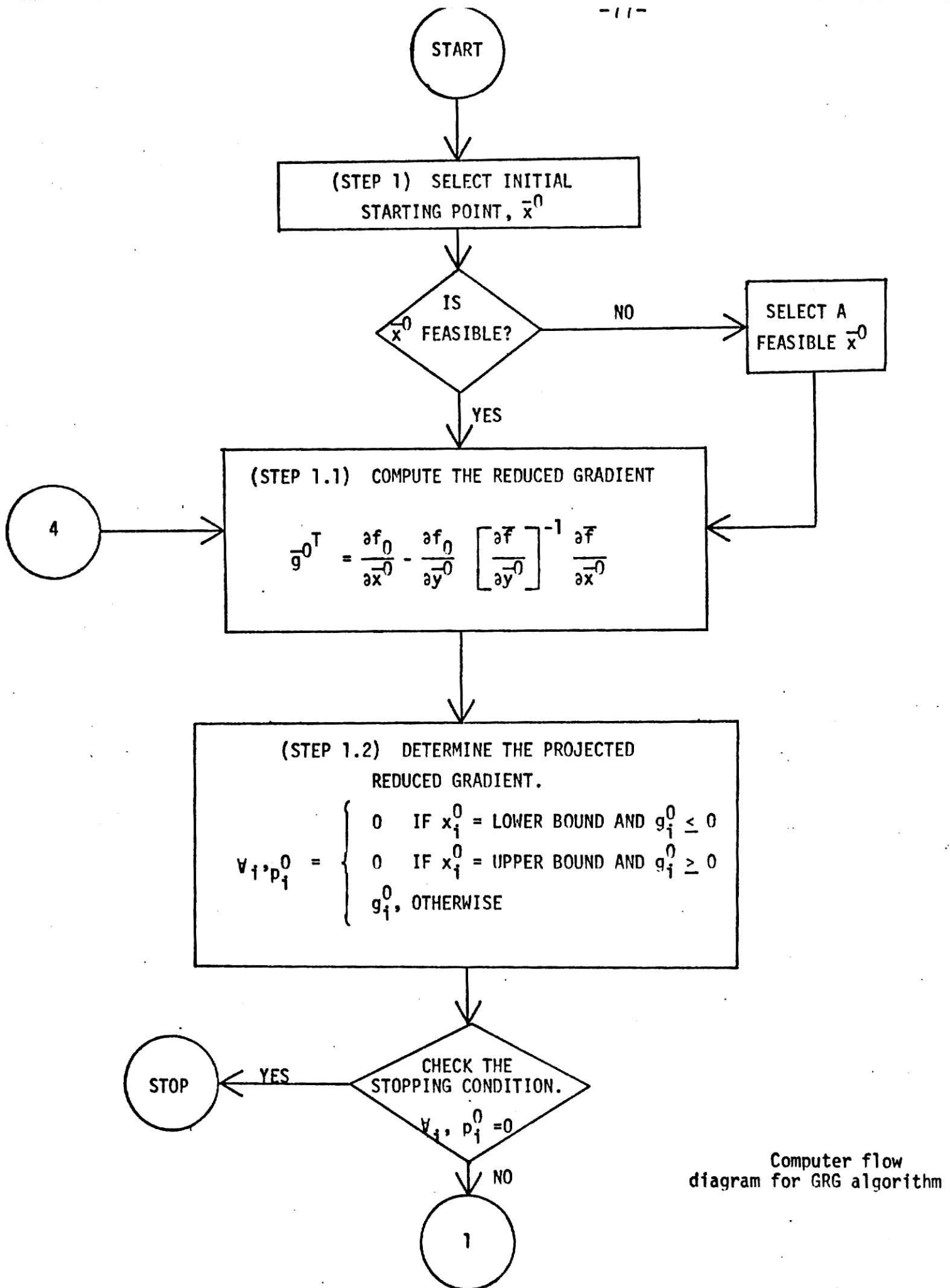
APPENDIX 2

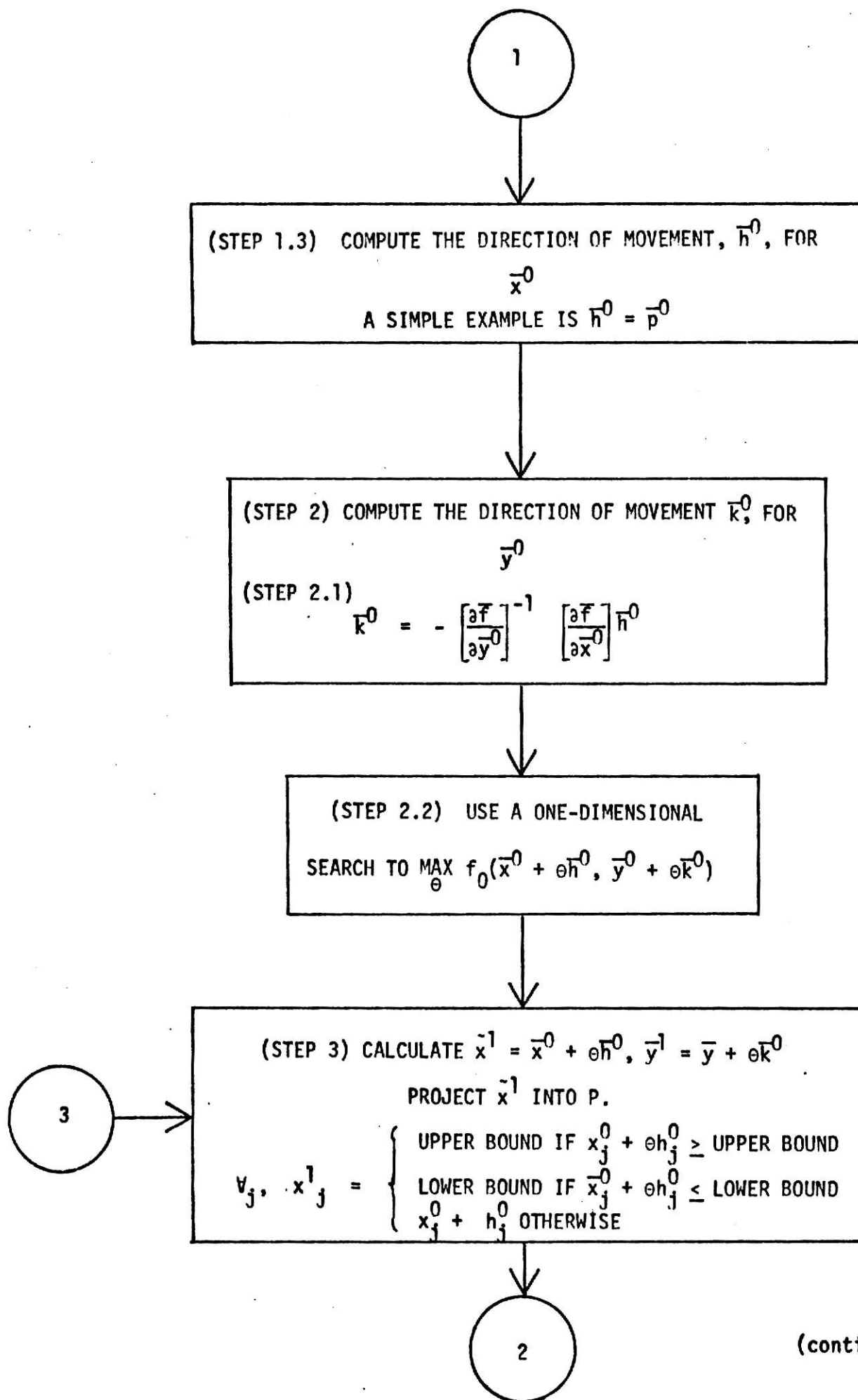
CURRENT MANPOWER AND PERFORMANCE INDEX OF TWO GROUPS OF WORKERS FOR VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS

Dept.	SKILLED		UNSKILLED	
	No. of men	Efficiency (%)	No. of men	Efficiency (%)
Power Press	10	78	30	71
Auto Screw Cutting	20	68	20	66
Drilling	18	82	40	76
Milling	28	85	32	75
Plating	5	83	10	78
Painting	5	69	10	65
Sub. Assem.	40	95	60	89
Spring Mfg.	5	75	10	69
Assembly	80	80	60	72
Salvage	10	96	5	90
Grinding	20	91	10	85
Heat Treatment	10	65	5	62
Total	251		292	

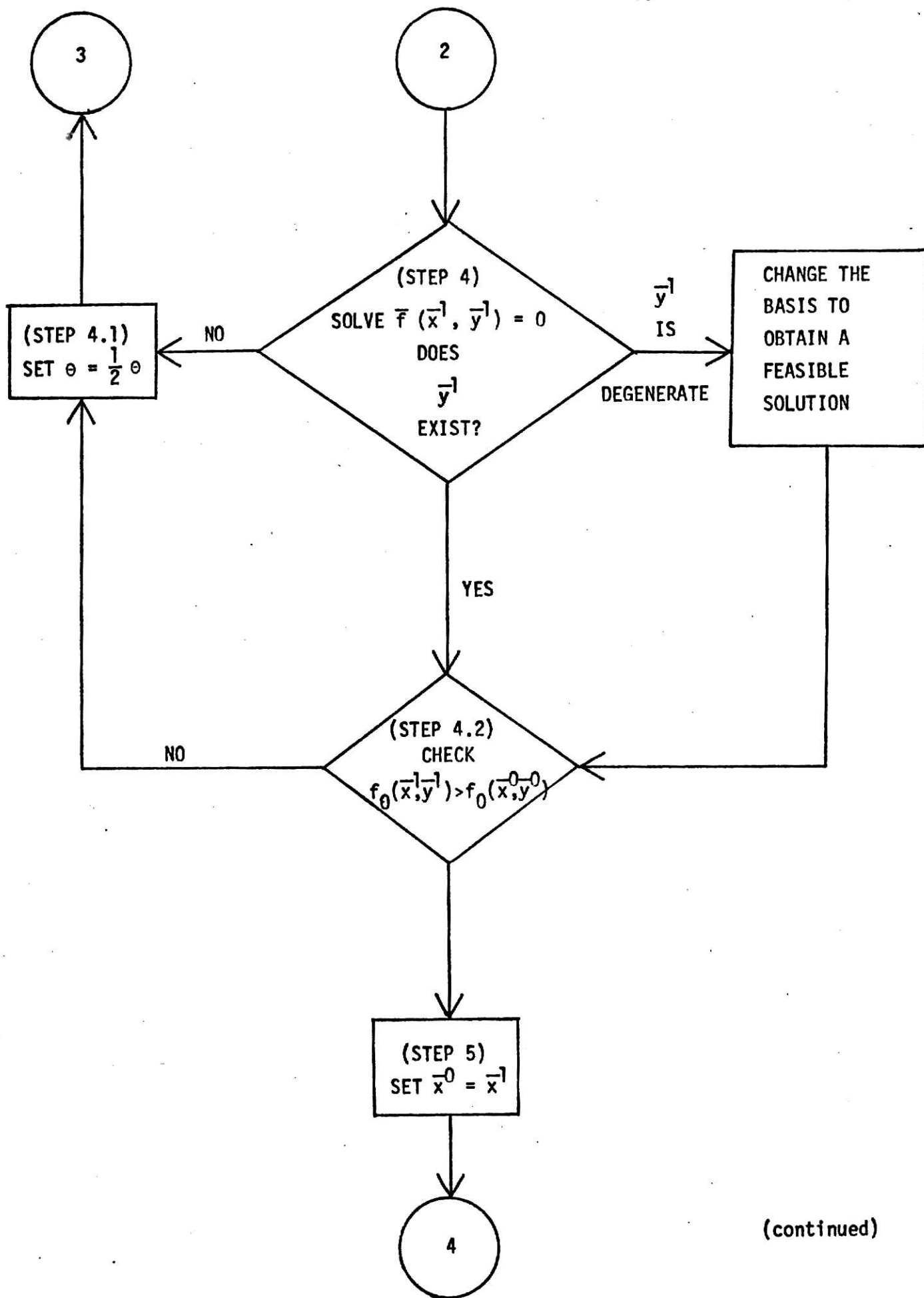
A P P E N D I X : 3

COMPUTER FLOW CHART FOR G.R.G METHOD





(continued)



(continued)

A P P E N D I X : 4

COMPUTER PRINTOUT OF THE RESULTS OBTAINED

BY G.R.G. METHOD

PARAMETRES

NV	3
NIN	4
NFG	0
NEVL	20
NFC	6
ITET	20
ICENJ	1
ICIAG	1
ITMAX	50
KEIL	0
KLIN	0
NCC	10
ITSOR	1
ISLSP	10
EPSIL	C.1E-01
EPSILO	C.1E-C4
EPSILI	C.1E-02
EPSIL2	C.1E-C2
PC	C.0

GRADIENT REDUIT GENERALISE

NOMBRE DE VARIABLES NATURELLES 3
 NOMBRE TOTAL DE VARIABLES 9
 NOMBRE DE CONTRAINTES 4
 EPSILON DE NEWTON C.1000E-04
 EPSILON TEST GRADIENT 0.1000E-02

FONCTION ECONOMIQUE -0.606220000000000E 05

BORNE INFERIEURE		VARIABLE NATURELLE		BORNE SUPERIEURE	
XI(1)	0.500000000000000E 02	X(1)	0.850000000000000E 02	XSI(1)	0.990000000000000E 02
XI(2)	0.99999979138374E-02	X(2)	0.29999997466803E-01	XSI(2)	0.200000000000000E 01
XI(3)	0.59999979138374E-02	X(3)	0.29999997466803E-01	XSI(3)	0.200000000000000E 01

VALEUR DES CONTRAINTES

C(1) -C.13999996185303E 01
 C(2) -C.10499992370605E 01
 C(3) C.14500007629355E 01
 C(4) C.450000076293945E 00

IT 1	PHI-O.61922993750000E 06	DIR-GRAC.	NO 3	YN 0.17E 09	DELTAFI 0.34E 09	ETA 0.34E 09	NCDB 0	NCN 3	NITN 3
IT 2	PHI-C.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-CCNJ.	LC 2				NCDB 0	NCN 2	NITN 2
IT 3	PHI-O.5176491E150000E 06	DIP-CONJ.	LC 2				NCDB 0	NCN 2	NITN 2
IT 4	PHI-C.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-GRAC.	NO 3	YN 0.17E 09	DELTAFI 0.34E 09	ETA 0.34E 09	NCDB 1	NCN 7	NITN 3
IT 5	PHI-C.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-GRAD.	NO 4	YN 0.10E 07	DELTAFI 0.34E 09	ETA 0.10E 17	NCDB 0	NCN 26	NITN 26
IT 6	PHI-C.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-GRAC.	NO 3	YN 0.86E 08	DELTAFI 0.17E 09	ETA 0.17E 09	NCDB 0	NCN 27	NITN 25
IT 7	PHI-C.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-GRAC.	NO 3	YN 0.86E 08	DELTAFI 0.17E 09	ETA 0.17E 09	NCDB 0	NCN 26	NITN 24
IT 8	PHI-O.5176491E150000E 06	DIR-GRAD.	NO 3	YN 0.86E 08	DELTAFI 0.17E 09	ETA 0.17E 09	NCDB 0	NCN 27	NITN 25

A P P E N D I X : 5

COMPUTER PRONTOUT OF THE RESULTS OBTAINED

BY G.R.G. METHOD

PARAMETERS

NV	3
ATA	4
REG	C
NEVL	20
NTD	6
ITET	20
ICCNJ	1
ICIAE	1
ITVAX	50
KFIL	C
KLIN	0
NCC	10
ITSGE	1
ISCLSR	10
EPSIL	C.1E-01
EPSIID	C.1E-04
EPSIU1	C.1E-02
EPSIU2	C.1E-C2
FC	C.0

GRADIENT REDUIT GENERALISE

NCMBRE DE VARIABLES NATURELLES 3
 NCMBRE TCTAL DE VARIABLES 10
 NCMBRE DE CCNTRAINTES 4

EPSILON DE NEWTON 0.1000E-04
 EPSILON TEST GRADIENT 0.1000E-02

FUNCTION ECCALMIQUE -0.24429700000000E-06

POFNE INFRIEURE			VARIABLE NATURELLE			BCRNE SUPERIEURE		
X(1)	0.50000000000000E 02	X(1)	G.60000000000000E 02	X(1)	0.99000000000000E 02			
X(2)	0.59999979138374E-02	X(2)	0.45999997015768E-01	X(2)	0.20000000000000E 01			
X(3)	0.99999979138374E-02	X(3)	0.45999997015768E-01	X(3)	0.20000000000000E 01			

VALEUR DES CCNTRAINTES

C(1) 0.24999904632568E 00
 C(2) 0.49999904632568E 00
 C(3) 0.10000009526743E 01
 C(4) 0.55367431640625E-06

VARIABLE NATURELLE

VARIABLE DUALE ASSOCIEE

$X(1) = C.75265863C3711E 02$
 $X(2) = C.771131071E536E-01$
 $X(3) = C.45939997C19768E-01$
 $V(1) = -0.1500CC00CC00000E 01$
 $V(2) = 0.0$
 $V(3) = C.0$

CCNTRAINTE

VARIABLE DUALE ASSOCIEE

$CCNTPAINTE 1 -0.17166137655313E-C3$
 $CCNTPAINTE 2 -0.4633302688598E 00$
 $CCNTPAINTE 3 -C.216CC685119629E 01$
 $CCNTPAINTE 4 -C.56332836151123E C0$

$U(1) = 0.0$
 $U(2) = 0.0$
 $U(3) = 0.0$
 $U(4) = 0.0$

A P P E N D I X : 6

COMPUTER PRINTOUT OF THE RESULTS OBTAINED

BY G.R.G. METHOD

PARAMETRES

NV	3
NIN	4
NEG	0
NEVL	20
NTD	6
ITET	20
ICONJ	1
DIAG	1
IMAX	50
KFIL	0
KLIN	0
ACO	10
ITSOR	1
ISOLSR	10
EPSIL	0.1E-01
EPSILO	0.1E-04
EPSILI	0.1E-02
EPSIL2	0.1E-02
PC	0.0

GRADIENT REDUIT GENERALISE

NOMBRE DE VARIABLES NATURELLES 3
 NOMBRE TOTAL DE VARIABLES 8
 NOMBRE DE CONTRAINTES 4

EPSILON DE NEWTON 0.1000E-04
 EPSILON TEST GRADIENT 0.1000E-02

FONCTION ECONOMIQUE -0.52642000000000E 05

BORNE INFERIEURE			VARIABLE NATURELLE			BORNE SUPERIEURE		
X(1)	0.50000000000000E 02	X(1)	0.75000000000000E 02	X(1)	0.99000000000000E 02			
X(2)	0.99999979138374E-02	X(2)	0.39999999105930E-01	X(2)	0.20000000000000E 01			
X(3)	0.99999979138374E-02	X(3)	0.39999999105930E-01	X(3)	0.20000000000000E 01			

X(1) 0.50000000000000E 02 X(1) 0.75000000000000E 02 X(1) 0.99000000000000E 02
 X(2) 0.99999979138374E-02 X(2) 0.39999999105930E-01 X(2) 0.20000000000000E 01
 X(3) 0.99999979138374E-02 X(3) 0.39999999105930E-01 X(3) 0.20000000000000E 01

VALEUR DES CONTRAINTES

C(1) -0.80000019073486E 00
 C(2) -0.50000005960464E 00
 C(3) 0.10000009536743E C1
 C(4) 0.95367431640625E-06

IT 1	PHI-0.9667126250CC00E 06	DIR-GRAD.	NO 2	YN 0.76E 08 FI 0.15E 09	ETA 0.15E 09	NCDB 6	NCN 23	NITN 31
IT 2	PHI-0.345279C0000000E 06	DIR-GRAD.	NO 2	YN 0.11E 09 FI 0.15E 09	ETA 0.11E 17	NCDB 3	NCN 9	NITN 17
IT 3	PHI-0.3452774375C000E 06	DIR-GRAD.	NO 2	YN 0.11E 07 FI 0.15E 09	ETA 0.93E 15	NCDB 1	NCN 5	NITN 24
IT 4	PHI-0.429642539C6250E 05	DIR-GRAD.	NO 3	YN 0.14E 07 FI 0.15E 09	ETA 0.10E 17	NCDB 3	NCN 2	NITN 4
LES VARIABLES ARTIFICIELLES SONT TOUTES ANNULEES								
IT 5	PHI-0.429640C3706250E 05	DIR-GRAD.	NO 3	YN 0.66E 03 FI 0.13E 05	ETA 0.13E 05	NCDB 1	NCN 5	NITN 18
IT 6	PHI-0.42763773437500E 05	DIR-GRAD.	NO 3	YN 0.86E 05 FI 0.13E 05	ETA 0.61E 15	NCDB 1	NCN 12	NITN 21
IT 7	PHI-0.42763769531250E 05	DIR-CONJ.	LC 1			NCDB 0	NCN 1	NITN C
	PHI-0.42763769531250E 05			YN 0.0	FI 0.0	ETA 0.0		

CUREE DU CALCUL 12 CENTISECONDES

VARIABLE NATURELLE

VARIABLE DUALE ASSOCIEE

X(1) = 0.79265228271484E 02
 X(2) = 0.50546824932098E-01
 X(3) = 0.39939999105930E-01

V(1) = 0.0
 V(2) = 0.
 V(3) = 0.0

CONTRAINTE

VARIABLE DUALE ASSOCIEE

CONTRAINTE 1 -C.6918918609619E 00
 CONTRAINTE 2 -C.67C60917615891E 00
 CONTRAINTE 3 -C.66051483154297E-02
 CONTRAINTE 4 -C.17060852050781E 00

U(1) = 0.0
 U(2) = 0.0
 U(3) = 0.0
 U(4) = 0.0

A P P E N D I X : 7

COMPUTER PRINTOUT OF THE RESULTS OBTAINED

BY SEPARABLE PROGRAMMING

P1014	QNW101	-69334.00000	QNW102	-	.03700
P1016	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1016	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1015	QNW101	-69945.00000	QNW102	-	.03900
P1015	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1015	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1016	QNW101	-70557.00000	QNW102	-	.04000
P1016	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1016	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1017	QNW101	-71166.00000	QNW102	-	.04200
P1017	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1017	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1018	QNW101	-71778.00000	QNW102	-	.04400
P1018	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1018	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1019	QNW101	-72389.00000	QNW102	-	.04600
P1019	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1019	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
P1020	QNW101	-73000.00000	QNW102	-	.04800
P1020	QNW103	-	QNW104	-	.00800
P1020	QNW105	-	QNW101	-	.75000
SET102	MARKER	.00437	SEP006	-	.75000
P1021	QNW102	.09500	QNW104	-	.09500
P1021	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.08700
P1022	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.08000
P1023	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.08000
P1024	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.07400
P1025	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.06800
P1026	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.06400
P1027	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.06000
P1028	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.05700
P1029	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.05400
P1030	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.05100
P1031	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.04800
P1032	QNW102	-	QNW104	-	.04500
P1033	QNW103	.11200	QNW105	-	.11200
P1033	QNW103	-	QNW105	-	.10100
P1034	QNW103	.09200	QNW105	-	.09200
P1035	QNW103	.08400	QNW105	-	.08400
P1036	QNW103	.07700	QNW105	-	.07700
P1036	QNW103	.07200	QNW105	-	.07200

EXCUTING. MP57100 V2=11

P1036	GR10103	-	.00490	R0W105	.06700
P1037	GR10103	-	.00490	R0W105	.06700
P1038	GR10103	-	.06300	R0W105	.06300
P1039	GR10103	-	.05900	R0W105	.05900
P1040	GR10103	-	.05500	R0W105	.05500
P1041	GR10103	-	.00490	'SEPEND'	
ENDSET	MARKER				
THS					
LIMITS	R0W102	-	.10536	R0W103	.40546
LIMITS	R0W104	-	.11778	GR10101	75.00000
LIMITS	GR10102	-	.06000	GR10103	.04000
ARMING					
SEP	SEP	P1001	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1002	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1003	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1004	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1005	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1006	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1007	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1008	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1009	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1010	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1011	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1012	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1013	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1014	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1015	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1016	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1017	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1018	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1019	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1020	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1021	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1022	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1023	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1024	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1025	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1026	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1027	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1028	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1029	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1030	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1031	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1032	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1033	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1034	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1035	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1036	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1037	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1038	1.00000		
SEP	SEP	P1039	1.00000		

EXECUTIVE. 905/350 075-111

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11P SEPRIUND P1040 1.000000

ENDATA

SOLUTION (OPTIMAL)

TIME = 0.10 MINS. ITERATION NUMBER = 9

NAME...	ACTIVITY...	DEFINED AS
FUNCTIONAL RESTRAINTS LIMITS SEPARATION	6465999.00000	ROW101 LIMITS SEPARATION

SECTION 1 - ROWS

NUMBER	...ROW...	AT	...ACTIVITY...	SLACK ACTIVITY	..LOWER LIMIT..	..UPPER LIMIT..	..DUAL ACTIVITY
1	ROW101	RS	6465999.00000	6465999.00000-	NONE	NONE	1.00000
2	ROW102	RS	15000-	76436	NONE	.10536	.
3	ROW103	RS	14500-	60046	NONE	.40546	.
4	ROW104	RS	15200	17178-	.11778-	NONE	.
5	ROW105	RS	05827	05827-	.	NONE	.
6	GR10101	EO	75.00000	.	75.00000	75.00000	84082.00000-
7	GR10102	EO	06000	.	06000	06000	.
8	GR10103	EO	04000	.	04000	04000	.

SECTION 1 - ROWS

NUMBER	ROW	AT	ACTIVITY...	SLACK ACTIVITY	LOWER LIMIT.	UPPER LIMIT.	DUAL ACTIVITY
1	ROW101	BS	6465000.00000	6465999.00000-	NONE	NONE	1.00000
2	ROW102	HL	10535	.	NONE	10535	.
3	ROW103	HL	40545	.	NONE	40545	.
4	ROW104	BS	31835	43614-	11778-	NONE	.
5	ROW105	BS	65873	65873-	.	NONE	.
6	ROW106	EO	75.00000	.	75.00000	75.00000	86082.00000-
7	ROW107	EO	06000	.	06000	06000	.
8	ROW108	EO	04000	.	04000	04000	.

SECTION 2 - COLUMNS

NUMBER	COLUMN	AT	ACTIVITY...	INPUT COST...	LOWER LIMIT	UPPER LIMIT	REDUCED COST
10	X1	AS	79.50000	86082.00000			
11	X2	AS	05000				
12	X3	AS	04000				
13	P1001	UL	1.00000	61392.00000-		1.00000	3169.50000
14	P1002	UL	1.00000	62004.00000-		1.00000	2557.50000
15	P1003	UL	1.00000	62615.00000-		1.00000	1946.50000
16	P1004	UL	1.00000	63226.00000-		1.00000	1335.50000
17	P1005	UL	1.00000	63836.00000-		1.00000	725.50000
18	P1006	UL	1.00000	64447.00000-		1.00000	114.50000
19	P1007	UL		65058.00000-		1.00000	496.50000-
20	P1008	UL		65670.00000-		1.00000	1108.50000-
21	P1009	UL		66279.00000-		1.00000	1717.50000-
22	P1010	UL		66891.00000-		1.00000	2320.50000-
23	P1011	UL		67502.00000-		1.00000	2920.50000-
24	P1012	UL		68113.00000-		1.00000	3551.50000-
25	P1013	UL		68723.00000-		1.00000	4161.50000-
26	P1014	UL		69334.00000-		1.00000	4772.50000-
27	P1015	UL		69945.00000-		1.00000	5383.50000-
28	P1016	UL		70557.00000-		1.00000	5995.50000-
29	P1017	UL		71166.00000-		1.00000	6604.50000-
30	P1018	UL		71778.00000-		1.00000	7216.50000-
31	P1019	UL		72389.00000-		1.00000	7827.50000-
32	P1020	UL		73000.00000-		1.00000	8438.50000-
33	P1021	UL				1.00000	
34	P1022	UL				1.00000	
35	P1023	UL				1.00000	
36	P1024	UL				1.00000	
37	P1025	UL				1.00000	
38	P1026	UL				1.00000	
39	P1027	UL				1.00000	
40	P1028	UL				1.00000	
41	P1029	UL				1.00000	
42	P1030	UL				1.00000	
43	P1031	UL				1.00000	
44	P1032	UL				1.00000	
45	P1033	UL				1.00000	
46	P1034	UL				1.00000	
47	P1035	UL				1.00000	
48	P1036	UL				1.00000	
49	P1037	UL				1.00000	
50	P1038	UL				1.00000	
51	P1039	UL				1.00000	
52	P1040	UL				1.00000	

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SECTION 2 - COLUMNS

THIS IS RECYCLED PAPER. "LUMINARK" BRAND IS A TRADEMARK OF SHAD INFORMATION SYSTEMS. "LUMINARK" BRAND IS RECYCLABLE.

NUMBER	COLUMN	AT	ACTIVITY...	INPUT COST...	LOWER LIMIT	UPPER LIMIT	REDUCED COST
Q	X1	RS	79.50000	86087.00000			
10	X2	RS	.07819				
11	X3	RS	.07397				
12	P1001	UI	1.00000	41392.00000-		1.00000	3169.50000
13	P1002	UI	1.00000	42004.00000-		1.00000	2457.50000
14	P1003	UI	1.00000	42515.00000-		1.00000	1925.50000
15	P1004	UI	1.00000	43226.00000-		1.00000	1335.50000
16	P1005	UI	1.00000	43836.00000-		1.00000	725.50000
17	P1006	UI	1.00000	44447.00000-		1.00000	114.50000
18	P1007	UI		45058.00000-		1.00000	295.50000
19	P1008	UI		45670.00000-		1.00000	1104.50000
20	P1009	UI		46279.00000-		1.00000	1717.50000
21	P1010	UI		46891.00000-		1.00000	2329.50000
22	P1011	UI		47502.00000-		1.00000	2940.50000
23	P1012	UI		48113.00000-		1.00000	3551.50000
24	P1013	UI		48723.00000-		1.00000	4161.50000
25	P1014	UI		49334.00000-		1.00000	4772.50000
26	P1015	UI		49945.00000-		1.00000	5383.50000
27	P1016	UI		50557.00000-		1.00000	5995.50000
28	P1017	UI		51166.00000-		1.00000	6606.50000
29	P1018	UI		51778.00000-		1.00000	7216.50000
30	P1019	UI		52389.00000-		1.00000	7827.50000
31	P1020	UI		53000.00000-		1.00000	8438.50000
32	P1021	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
33	P1022	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
34	P1023	RS	1.00000			1.00000	
35	P1024	UI	.93189			1.00000	
36	P1025	UI				1.00000	
37	P1026	UI				1.00000	
38	P1027	UI				1.00000	
39	P1028	UI				1.00000	
40	P1029	UI				1.00000	
41	P1030	UI				1.00000	
42	P1031	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
43	P1032	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
44	P1033	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
45	P1034	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
46	P1035	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
47	P1036	UI	1.00000			1.00000	
48	P1037	RS	.93231			1.00000	
49	P1038	UI				1.00000	
50	P1039	UI				1.00000	
51	P1040	UI				1.00000	

SEARCH TECHNIQUES
AND WAGE INCENTIVE PLANS

by

ROBINDRA N. PAL

B.M.E. JADAVPUR UNIVERSITY, CALCUTTA, INDIA. 1965

AN ABSTRACT OF THE MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Industrial Engineering

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Manhattan, Kansas

1976

ABSTRACT

This thesis has two sections. Part 1 deals with the literature survey and the development of new techniques to handle search problems. Since the effectiveness of the search procedure is characterized by its rate of convergence, much of research work has been and are still being done to reduce the computation time. An attempt was made to solve one-dimensional search problems for convex functions by bisecting the enveloping cone of the function and then rotating it till the bisector becomes vertical. The generalization of this new method for any unimodal function by coupling with Fibonacci search was also discussed. This approach essentially cuts down the total number of experiments required to reach at optimum. A new method for multi-dimensional search problems based on the intersection of quadratics passing through the line-optimums in co-ordinate directions was developed and exemplified along with the comparison with other standard methods to show its efficiency.

In the second section, a case study was made with a view to show how operations research technique can be applied to formulate and solve certain wage incentive problems. Since the basic problem in an incentive scheme is to define the base level efficiency from which the incentive should start and also the incentive rates, the problem was formulated with the objective as to minimize the variance between the optimum base

level efficiency and the current different efficiencies of various departments. A constraint was that the total incentive to be paid to the workers must not exceed the current overtime expenses. This problem was solved by Generalized Reduced Gradient method and separable programming.