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**A CRITICAL UNCERTAINTY IN LINEAR
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A Critical Uncertainty in Linear Programming

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Abstract – Linear programming (LP) is one of the great successes to rise up out of operations research. It is well developed and widely used. LP problems in practice are regularly in view of numerical data that speak to harsh approximations of amounts that are innately hard to appraise. On account of this, most LP-based studies include a post optimality investigation of how an adjustment in the information changes the solution. Specialists routinely embrace this sort of the most business bundles for solving linear programs incorporate the aftereffects of such an examination as a component of the standard yield report. LP has shortcomings that run in opposition to customary way of thinking. Exchange models address these inadequacies.

Keywords: Uncertainty, Linear Programming, Successes, Operations Research, Develop Problems, Numerical Data, Solution.

INTRODUCTION

Linear programming (LP) has assumed an important part as a problem solving and analysis tool. Scientists have tended to an assortment of important problems through linear programming. LP has been broadly acknowledged and utilized for a few reasons: First, it is instructed in numerous instructive settings. In breaking down yield, analysts investigate how changes in the issue information may change the answer for a linear program, for instance, how an adjustment underway expenses or request projections may influence a generation plan. Since huge scale arranging endeavors regularly depend on a lot of information, a lot of which speaks to best-figure evaluates, the capacity to attempt such affectability examinations is basic to the acknowledgment of the strategy. Surely, individuals who are uncertain about data elements are regularly encouraged to utilize SA to determine the effect of uncertainty (Aissi, *et. al.*, 2010). The utilization of SA to ease worries about uncertainty draws consideration regarding an issue that once in a while emerges in the development of LP models. While LP models often incorporate time periods, they are regularly the times at which decisions take impact (for instance, creation levels in a specific month). LP models by and large don't mirror the times at which choices are made. Nor do they recognize what will be known, and what will remain uncertain when the decisions are made. This absence of qualification gets from the historical backdrop of LP's utilization fundamentally for deterministic problem solving. Be that as it may, in arranging under uncertainty, it is basic to appropriately mirror the way in which choices and data are sprinkled (Destercke, *et. al.*, 2008). Ordinarily, LP models don't offer such a reflection. As

an outcome, the aftereffects of affectability examinations can delude.

Example: Our example is a variety of a problem described by Winston (1995): The Dakota Furniture Company manufactures desks, tables, and chairs. A desk sells for \$60, a table sells for \$40, and a chair sells for \$10. The manufacture of every sort of furniture requires timber and two sorts of skilled labor: Carpentry and finishing (Table 1). We can decide the amount of everything to create and the assets required to meet this generation in various ways. Maybe the least demanding strategy is a basic for each thing profit analysis. A desk costs \$42.40 to produce and sells for \$60, for a net profit of \$17.60. A table costs \$27.80 to produce and sells for \$40, for a net profit of \$12.20. That is, desks and tables are profitable. Without limitations on resource availability, to boost profit Dakota ought to create the same number of these things as it can sell (150 desks and 125 chairs).

Table 1: Dakota requires lumber and labor (carpentry and finishing) to produce its products (desks, tables, and chairs). The cost of these resources varies. Resource requirements vary for each product.

Resource	Cost (\$)	Production Requirements		
		Desk	Table	Chair
Lumber (board feet)	2	8	6	1
Carpentry (hours)	5.2	2	1.5	0.5
Finishing (hours)	4	4	2	1.5
Demand		150	125	300

The model behind our examination does not consider these issues separately. Given the data in Table 1,

we draw correspondences between these three issues and ensure that we create just those things we can sell and acquire only the resources we need to produce them (Figure 1). Our model and analysis exploit the structural advantages that accompany deterministic data and avoid representing possibly costly errors. In all actuality, the decisions occur sequentially overtime.

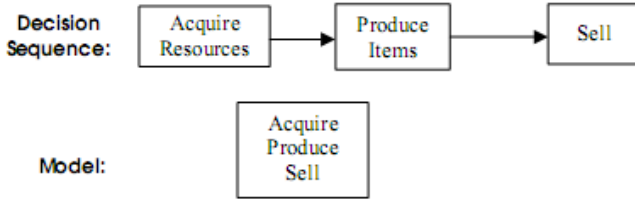


Figure 1: Dakota is actually faced with a sequence of three related decisions

This problem is pretty straightforward. We do not need LP to solve it. However, for more complicated problems, an LP model is indispensable, so we describe one that considers each of the three decisions explicitly. In the following, let

- y_d = number of desks to produce,
- y_t = number of tables to produce,
- y_c = number of chairs to produce,
- x_l = number of board feet of lumber to acquire,
- x_f = number of labor hours to acquire for finishing,
- x_c = number of labor hours to acquire for carpentry,
- s_d = number of desks to sell,
- s_t = number of tables to sell, and
- s_c = number of chairs to sell.

With these variables, we can formulate Dakota's problem with the following LP:

Maximize $-2x_l - 5.2x_c - 4x_f + 60s_d + 40s_t + 10s_c$ (P.0)

Subject to,

$$\begin{aligned}
 -x_l &+ 8y_d + 6y_t + y_c &\leq 0, \\
 -x_c &+ 2y_d + 1.5y_t + 0.5y_c &\leq 0, \\
 -x_f &+ 4y_d + 2y_t + 1.5y_c &\leq 0, \\
 s_d &&\leq 150, \\
 s_d &- y_d &\leq 0, \\
 s_t &&\leq 125, \\
 s_t &- y_t &\leq 0, \\
 s_c &&\leq 300, \\
 s_c &- y_c &\leq 0, \\
 x_l, x_f, x_c, y_d, y_t, y_c, s_d, s_t, s_c &\geq 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

LINEAR PROGRAMMING MODELS WITH UNCERTAINTY:

When faced with uncertainty in the interest for items, we require a more insightful way to deal with model development. For this situation, we have to catch the relationship between the times at which we will make

decisions and the time at which we will know the demand. We can adapt decisions made after the demand is known to the particular request situation—something we can't accomplish for decisions made before we know the demand. To give a legitimate discussion to surveying the exchange offs among the different choices, we require a model that catches the flexibility the decision process manages. Sensibly, three potential information timings are of concern (Figure 2).

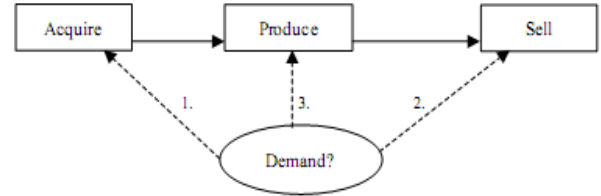


Figure 2: When will demand be known? When demand is uncertain, it is important to know when it will be revealed to the decision maker.

That is, we should determine the point amid the decision sequence at which we know the demand. We may have complete information about the demand before making any decisions. At the other extraordinary, we won't not know the demand until after we acquire resources and produce items. The request decides the real sales quantities and consequently our revenues (Destercke, *et. al.*, 2008). An intermediate possibility is that we acquire resources while we are uncertain about the demand; however we set the generation plans simply after we know the request and in this manner have adjusted to it. These three potential outcomes offer ascent to three different types of models. In the first case, we know request at the start and can base decisions about acquiring resources, generation, and sale son whether request is low, no doubt, or high (Figure 3). In the event that demand is known toward the begin, our decisions are not uncovered to uncertainty, and we require no cross-scenario evaluation. Since all uncertainty is determined before we make any decisions, we adjust any decision to the particular scenario realized, and the problem collapses into an accumulation of deterministic problems; only the root remains uncertain (Destercke, *et. al.*, 2008). To formulate this problem, we require three separate sets of factors, one for each possible demand scenario (low, most likely, high). A LP model for this problem will be separable by scenario. Working from (P.0), and letting D_{ds} denote the demand for desks under scenario s (with D_{ts} and D_{cs} similarly defined), we obtain Maximize

$$\sum_{\{s \in \{l, m, h\}\}} (-2x_{ls} - 5.2x_{cs} - 4x_{fs} + 60s_{ds} + 40s_{ts} + 10s_{cs})p_s$$

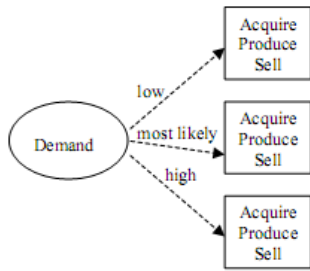


Figure 3: If demand will be known before any decision is made, the decision tree contains the deterministic model depicted in Figure 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 -x_{is} &+ 8y_{ds} + 6y_{is} + y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 -x_{cs} &+ 2y_{ds} + 1.5y_{is} + 0.5y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 -x_{fs} &+ 4y_{ds} + 2y_{is} + 1.5y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{ds} &\leq D_{ds}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{ds} &- y_{ds} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} &\leq D_{is}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} &- y_{is} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} &\leq D_{cs}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} &- y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 x_{is}, x_{fs}, x_{cs}, y_{ds}, y_{is}, y_{cs}, s_{ds}, s_{is}, s_{cs} &\geq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

As indicated, (P.1) is separable by scenario. We can consider every request scenario separately, and we can get situation particular solutions independently. Just in figuring the target esteem do we consolidate them? At the other extraordinary, we determine both acquisition and production before we know the request (2 in Figure 2) (Figure 4). Once made, the decisions about acquisition and creation are encouraged into the request vulnerability. Just the business levels react to the acquisition and production levels and the way in which the demand uncertainty is resolved. Any LP model of this problem must catch the way that the underlying decisions must be weighed against all possible demand scenarios. To achieve this, we utilize three separate arrangements of the sell variables, and stand out arrangement of the acquisition and production variables. As some time recently, we work from (P.0) to develop our model. To interface Figure4 and the LP model, we utilize a striking textual style to identify decisions made before demand is known.

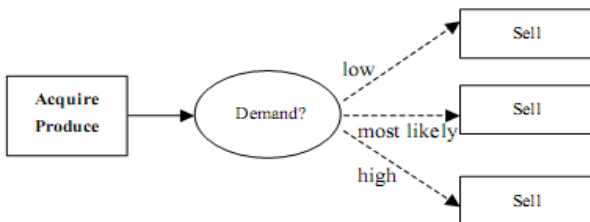


Figure 4: If demand is known after acquisition and production are determined, it will affect only the amount of product that is sold.

Maximize

$$-2x_i - 5.2x_c - 4x_f + \sum_{s \in \{l, m, h\}} (60s_{ds} + 40s_{is} + 10s_{cs})p_s \quad (P.2)$$

subject to

$$\begin{aligned}
 -x_i &+ 8y_d + 6y_i + y_c &\leq 0 \\
 -x_c &+ 2y_d + 1.5y_i + 0.5y_c &\leq 0 \\
 -x_f &+ 4y_d + 2y_i + 1.5y_c &\leq 0 \\
 s_{ds} &\leq D_{ds}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{ds} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} &\leq D_{is}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} &\leq D_{cs}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 x_i, x_f, x_c, y_d, y_i, y_c, s_{ds}, s_{is}, s_{cs} &\geq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

In contrast to (P.1), (P.2) is not separable by scenario. Acquisition and production, represented by x and y, are determined before demand is known and are held constant across all scenarios. The second set of constraints models the manner in which sales depend on the combination of production and demand. The lack of reparability arises because of the interaction of the two types of variables in these constraints. Finally, in the remaining case (3 in Figure 2), we determine acquisition before we know the demand and production and sales afterward (Figure 5). As we work from (P.0) to develop an LP model for this problem, we have a single set of acquisition variables, and three sets of production and sales variables: Maximize

Maximize

$$-2x_i - 5.2x_c - 4x_f + \sum_{s \in \{l, m, h\}} (60s_{ds} + 40s_{is} + 10s_{cs})p_s \quad (P.3)$$

subject to

$$\begin{aligned}
 -x_i &+ 8y_{ds} + 6y_{is} + y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 -x_c &+ 2y_{ds} + 1.5y_{is} + 0.5y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 -x_f &+ 4y_{ds} + 2y_{is} + 1.5y_{cs} \leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{ds} &\leq D_{ds}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{ds} - y_{ds} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} &\leq D_{is}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{is} - y_{is} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} &\leq D_{cs}, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 s_{cs} - y_{cs} &\leq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}, \\
 x_i, x_f, x_c, y_{ds}, y_{is}, y_{cs}, s_{ds}, s_{is}, s_{cs} &\geq 0, & s \in \{l, m, h\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

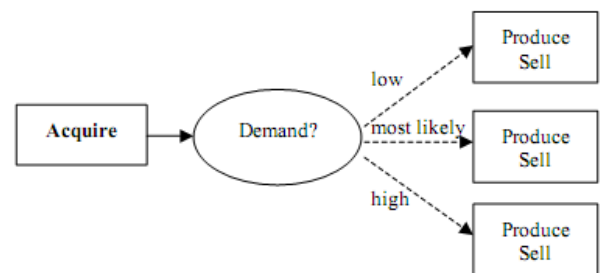


Figure 5: If demand will be known after resources are acquired but before production levels are determined, it will affect production quantities and sales.

UNCERTAINTY IN LINEAR PROGRAMMING DATA:

Demand for products may be uncertain, but low, most likely, and high values might be accessible. We will accept that the low values of interest for desks, tables, and chairs (50, 20, and 200) happen with likelihood $p_l = 0.3$, the in all likelihood values (150, 110, and 225) happen with likelihood $p_m = 0.4$, and the high values (250, 250, and 500) will happen with likelihood $p_h = 0.3$. The conceivable request scenarios and the corresponding probabilities shape a distribution that we can use to describe future demand. The demands scenarios presented in Table 1 is the normal esteem associated with the distribution in Table 2. Examination of the sensitivity of the solution to (P.0) demonstrates that our solution, "create the same number of desks and tables as can be sold, yet don't deliver any chairs" will stay substantial for any arrangement of (nonnegative) demands. Table 3 demonstrates the optimal response to each of the individual demand scenarios.

Table 2: Dakota is faced with three possible demand scenarios: Low demand values, most likely demand values, and high demand values.

Item	Low Value	Most Likely Value	High Value
Desks	50	150	250
Tables	20	110	250
Chairs	200	225	500
Probability	0.3	0.4	0.3

In all cases, we deliver just desks and tables, not chairs. We acquire resources to satisfy the production schedule. The production and resource quantities in the normal esteem segment are the normal estimations of the relating amounts in the remaining columns. (This is a property of the effortlessness of the case; all in all, the normal estimation of the information does not relate to the normal estimation of the solutions.) Given the stability of the structure of the solution and the relationship among the various solutions, we may imagine that the solution with the expected demand is an appropriate response for Dakota's problem. In any case, if Dakota produces 150 desks and 125 tables, to meet the mean demand solution, it has a 30 percent shot of delivering excessively many desks and a 70 percent chance of creating excessively many tables. In the event that it produces 150 desks and 125 tables and the low-request scenario occurs (50 work areas and 20 seats), Dakota's profit will be much lower than \$4,165.

Table 3: Each demand scenario that Dakota considers corresponds to an optimal solution.

Variables	Demand			
	Expected Value	Low	Most Likely	High
Production quantities				
Desks	150	50	150	250
Tables	125	20	110	250
Chairs	0	0	0	0
Resource quantities				
Lumber (board feet)	1,950	520	1,860	3,500
Finishing (hours)	850	240	820	1,500
Carpentry (hours)	487.50	130	465	875
Profit (\$)	4,165	1,124	3,982	7,450

The costs for resources at this level are \$9,835. Selling 50 desks and 20 chairs would bring in revenue of only \$3,800 for a net loss of \$6,035. If Dakota produced 150 desks and 125 tables and experienced the most likely demand, its net gain would be \$3,565. Although not a loss, this amount is well below the projected profit of \$4,165 suggested by the original LP solution.

COMMENTS ON PROBLEM FORMULATIONS AND SOLUTIONS:

The three LP models, (P.1) through (P.3), can be followed back to the original model, (P.0), however they contrast. They represent three different models of the issue. We have little requirement for a model, for example, (P.1). Since we know the request before making any decisions, we do not need to solve (P.1). That is, we can hold up until we know the demand and solve the suitable scenario problem. As introduced, the yield of (P.1) gives the optimal solution and objective values to all conceivable demand scenarios. For arranging, this information may be helpful.

Table 4: Each of the problems (P.0) through (P.3) has a different optimal solution. The objective values differ as well, even when the structures of the optimal solutions are similar.

Variables	(P.0) Mean	(P.1) Scenarios			(P.2)	(P.3)		
	Demand	Low	Most Likely	High		Low	Most Likely	High
Resource Quantities								
Lumber	1,950	520	1,860	3,500	1,060	1,300		
Finishing labor	850	240	820	500	420	540		
Carpentry labor	487.5	130	465	875	265	325		
Production Quantities								
Desks	150	50	150	250	50	50	80	80
Tables	125	20	110	250	110	20	110	110
Chairs	0	0	0	0	0	200	0	0
Objective value	4,165	4,165			1,142	1,730		

The second model, (P.2), gives a proper mechanism to determining the expected incomes when we should determine production before we know the request. This model accounts for the possibility that generation may exceed demand. Specifically, when we set generation levels (which thus decide the levels of asset procured), we construct them with respect to a

model of the incomes that we can anticipate from selling them. The third model, (P.3), separates acquisition from production. It is fitting when we can make interchange creation plans depending on request that emerges from particular acquisitions. That is, it demonstrates the case in which the firm can use resources in an assortment of approaches to create products for which there is demand [5-7]. To facilitate appreciate the differences among the three models; we can look at their output (Table 4). In spite of the fact that the output to (P.2) is structurally similar to that of the individual scenario problems in (P.1), the qualities are distinctive. In (P.2), the firm delivers items prior to knowing the request. Dissimilar to (P.1), the generation levels proposed by (P.2) don't coordinate any of the demand scenarios. In (P.2), generation levels are set in a way that adjusts the potential sunk cost of creating things that can't be sold against the potential income accessible from selling a larger number of items. This balancing act shifts the production level far from any one scenario. We can't perceive the requirement for this balance with a basic SA of the solution to (P.0). More important, the structure of the solution to (P.3), in which production decisions are postponed until after the demand is known, is distinctly different from the structures of the solutions to the other models. It is the main model that incorporates the generation of chairs in the ideal solution and then just in the low-demand scenario. The elucidation of this solution is clear. In spite of the fact that chair son their own particular are not profitable, their creation sometimes is advantageous. The solution to (P.3) incorporates procurement of a bigger measure of asset than the solution to (P.2). At the point when the request is sufficiently high, the majority of this asset goes toward the generation of desks and chairs (the profitable items). Nonetheless, when the demand is low, production of chairs offers the firm an opportunity to recover a great part of the cost of the resources acquired. The chairs provide the firm with a fallback position that allows a forceful resource acquisition arrange. Once more, we can't understand the benefits of this adaptation with a basic SA of the solution to (P.0).

CONCLUSION:

Under uncertainty, we can't predict the conditions we will confront tomorrow. A decision made today influences what we can do tomorrow. Correspondingly, what we ultimately decide tomorrow will rely on upon what we have realized today. Today's decision should be balanced against the conditions that we may confront with the goal that we can be reasonably confident about the position that we will be in tomorrow. At the point when a model depends on the presumption of deterministic data, learning is missing in both the model and its yield. SA in view of the yield of such a model won't mirror a capacity to adjust to data that gets to be accessible inside a successive

decision process. It doesn't play out the exercise in careful control required for decision-making under uncertainty.

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