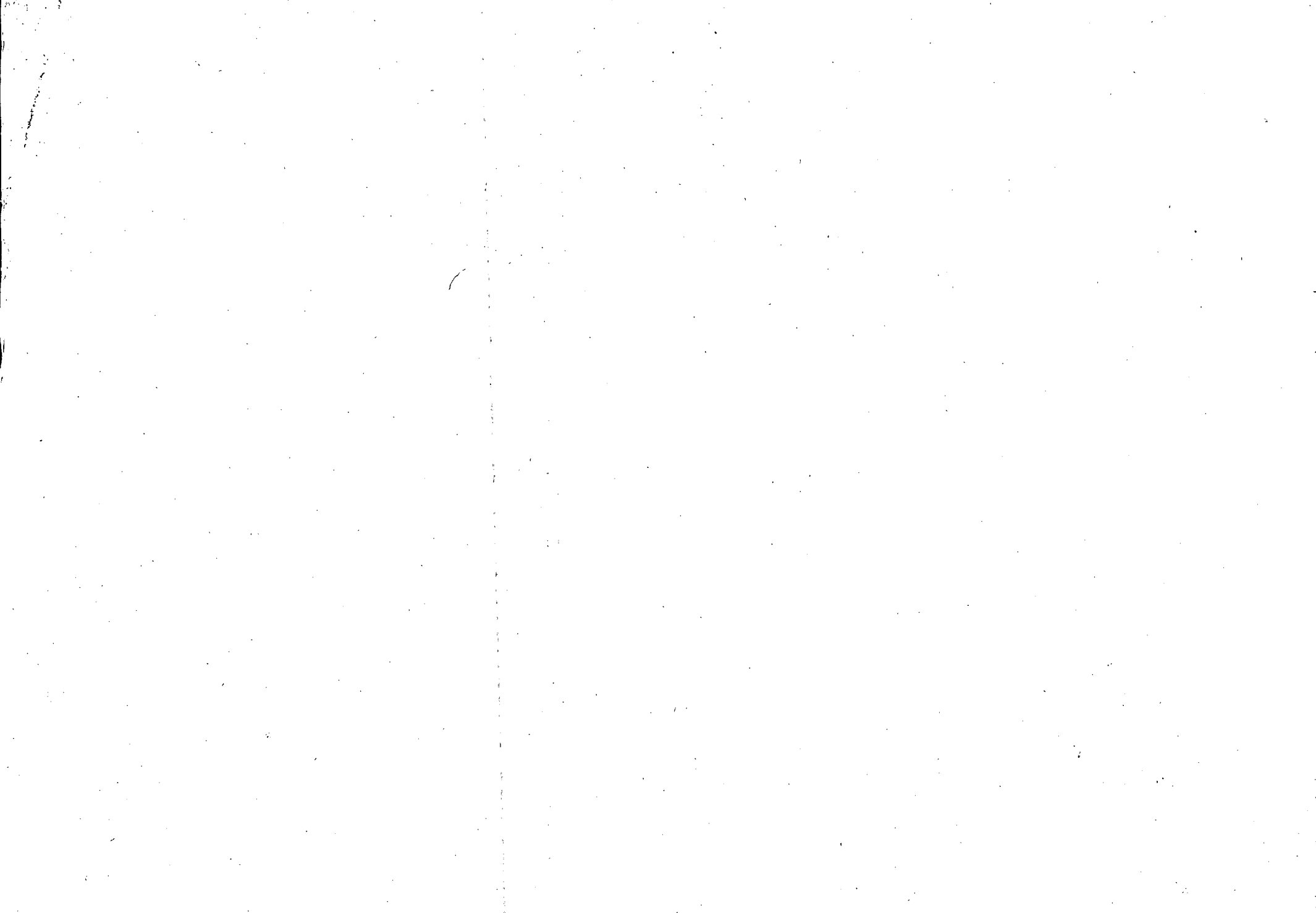


INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

Fecha	Duración	Tema	Profesor
Marzo 9	17 a 21 h	INTRODUCCION A LA COMPUTACION	M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON
" 10	9 a 14 h	LENGUAJE FORTRAN	ING. HERIBERTO OLGUIN ROMO ING. RICARDO CIRIA MERCE
" 16	17 a 21 h	LENGUAJE FORTRAN	" " " "
" 17	9 a 14 h	LENGUAJE FORTRAN	" " " "
" 23	17 a 21 h	LENGUAJE FORTRAN	M. EN C. LUIS PABLO GRIJALVA LOPEZ
" 24	9 a 14 h	CASOS DE APLICACIONES MATEMATICAS	ING. ARMANDO TORRES FENTANES
" 30	17 a 21 h	CASOS DE APLICACIONES NO MATEMATICAS	M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON
" 31	9 a 14 h	APLICACION EN LA COMPUTADORA (Facultad de Ingeniería, Cda. Universitaria)	ING. LUIS CORDERO B.
Abril 6	17 a 21 h	PROGRAMACION LINEAL Y RUTA CRITICA	DR. VICTOR GEREZ GREISER
" 7	9 a 14 h	UTILIZACION DE PAQUETES (Facultad de Ingeniería, Cda. Universitaria)	DR. VICTOR GEREZ GREISER ING. LUIS CORDERO B.



DIRECTORIO DE PROFESORES DEL CURSO INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION
Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA MARZO-ABRIL, 1979.

ING. RICARDO CIRIA MERCE
DEPARTAMENTO DE PROCESAMIENTO
CENTRO DE CALCULO
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT.4150

ING. LUIS CORDERO BARBOA
JEFE DE LABORATORIO DE COMPUTACION
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT.4750

DR. VICTOR GEREZ GREISER
PROFESOR TITULAR
INGENIERIA MECANICA Y ELECTRICA
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT.3746

M. EN C. LUIS PABLO GRIJALVA LOPEZ
INVESTIGADOR
INSTITUTO DE INVESTIGACIONES ELECTRICAS
DIVISION DE SISTEMAS DE POTENCIA
SHAKESPEARE NO.6-3°
MEXICO, D.F.

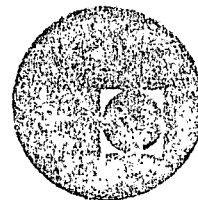
ING. HERIBERTO OLGUIN ROMO
JEFE DEL CENTRO DE CALCULO
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT.4150

M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON (COORDINADOR)
JEFE DE LA SECCION DE COMPUTACION
EDIFICIO DE INGENIERIA MECANICA Y ELECTRICA
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT.3746

ING. JOSE ARMANDO TORRES FENTANES
INVESTIGADOR Y
COORDINADOR DE SISTEMAS Y CIRCUITOS ELECTROMECHANICOS
DEPARTAMENTO DE INGENIERIA MECANICA Y ELECTRICA
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL.550.52.15 EXT.3752



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

INTRODUCCION A LA COMPUTACION DIGITAL

M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON

MARZO, 1979



CONCEPTO DE COMPUTADORA

OBJETO :

El objeto de esta breve reseña sobre las computadoras electrónicas y sus múltiples aplicaciones al servicio del hombre, es transmitir al lector una completa visión de conjunto, mediante un lenguaje sencillo que permita comprender conceptualmente los temas tratados, sin necesidad de conocimientos previos en la materia.

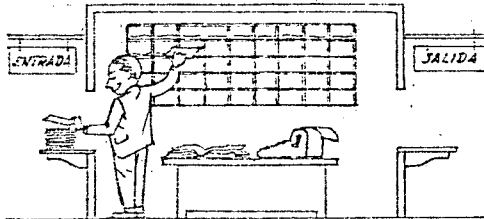
Esperamos que estas páginas, muy simples en apariencia pero con profundo contenido, permitan, a quienes las lean, ingresar al maravilloso mundo de las máquinas automáticas.



Este señor se llama Control. Trabaja en una pequeña habitación. Tiene a su disposición una máquina de calcular que suma, resta, multiplica y divide. Tiene también el señor Control un archivo parecido al casillero que existe en los trenes para clasificación postal.

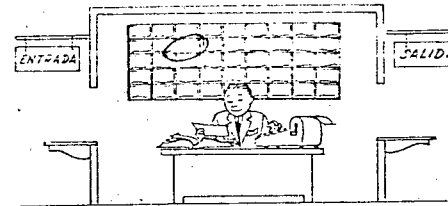
Hay, además, en la habitación, dos ventanillas identificadas con sendos carteles: "Entrada" y "Salida".

El señor Control tiene un manual que le indica cómo desenvolverse con estos elementos, si alguien le pide que haga un trabajo.



Una persona quiere saber el resultado de un complicado cálculo. Para ello, escribe ordenada, precisa y detalladamente, cada una de las operaciones que, en conjunto, integran ese cálculo, anota cada instrucción elemental en una hoja de papel y coloca todas las hojas en orden en la ventanilla "Entrada".

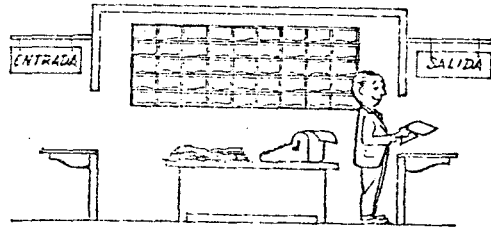
El señor Control, al ver las hojas, lee en su manual que debe tomar esas hojas con instrucciones, una por una, y colocarlas correctamente en su archivo. Y así lo hace.



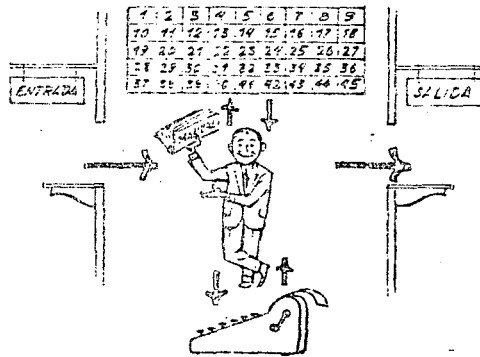
Una vez ubicadas todas las instrucciones en el archivo, el señor Control consulta nuevamente el manual. Allí se le indica que, a continuación, debe tomar la instrucción de la casilla 1 y ejecutarla luego, la de la casilla 2 y ejecutarla, y así sucesivamente hasta ejecutar la última instrucción. Algunas instrucciones indicarán que hay que sumar una cantidad a otra (instrucciones aritméticas); otras, que el señor Control debe ir a la ventanilla "Entrada" para buscar algún dato que intervenga en el cálculo -- (instrucciones de "entrada/salida"), dato que la persona que le formuló el problema habrá colocado ya en dicha ventanilla, en otra hoja de papel.

Finalmente, otras instrucciones indicarán que debe elegirse una de entre dos alternativas (instrucciones lógicas): por ejemplo, supongamos que una parte del cálculo -- desde la instrucción que está en la casilla 5 del archivo hasta la que está en la casilla 9 -- debe ejecutarse 15 veces porque el cálculo así lo exige.

En tal caso, la instrucción que está en la casilla 10 indicará que, si los pasos 5 a 9 se han ejecutado menos de 15 veces, se debe volver al paso 5. Cuando se hayan realizado las 15 repeticiones y no antes, el señor Control seguirá con la instrucción de la casilla 11.



Después de ejecutar todas las instrucciones del archivo, haciendo con la máquina de calcular las operaciones en ellas indicadas, el señor Control entrega, a través de la ventanilla "Salida", los resultados obtenidos . . . y se sienta a esperar un nuevo trabajo



Obsérvese que la actuación del señor Control es puramente mecánica: sólo sigue las indicaciones de su máquina y cumple de acuerdo con ellas las instrucciones que recibe a través de la ventanilla "Entrada". Toma decisiones, pero solamente cuando se le señalan las alternativas que existen y con qué criterio debe elegir uno de ellas.

El señor Control puede resolvernos cualquier problema, por complicado que éste sea. Pero para ello debemos indicarle paso a paso, en la forma más elemental y detallada, todo lo que debe hacer para resolverlo, sin olvidarnos absolutamente nada porque, en ese caso, el señor Control no sabría continuar por sí mismo.

Haga el intento de formular un problema cualquiera de modo tal que una persona que no conozca nada acerca de ese problema pueda resolverlo sin necesidad de hacer consultas. Verá que es una experiencia interesante.

El esquema que acabamos de representar mediante el señor Control y sus elementos de trabajo, corresponde exactamente al esquema de funcionamiento de una computadora electrónica.

A continuación presentaremos una breve descripción de los elementos de la computadora que corresponden a los elementos de trabajo del señor Control.

Las unidades de Entrada (representadas por la ventanilla "Entrada"):

Son en la computadora, dispositivos capaces de leer información (Instrucciones o Datos) con el objeto de procesarla. Existen una gran variedad de elementos de entrada, entre los cuales tenemos:

Tarjetas de Cartulina y Cintas de Papel: Que son perforadas de manera que cada perforación representa un número, una letra ó un símbolo especial de acuerdo con un código predeterminado.

Cintas magnéticas: Conocidas como "memorias externas" tienen la ventaja de permitir almacenar la información en forma más concentrada — (a razón de 80 a 2400 caracteres por pulgada de longitud) y de ser más veloces, ya que pueden enviar o recibir información a la unidad de control y velocidades que van de 10,000 a 680,000 caracteres por segundo. Pueden llegar a tener hasta 730 m. de longitud.

Disco Magnético: También conocidos como "Memoria externa" en general tienen un diámetro aproximado de 30 cms. y pueden grabar hasta 400,000 letras, números, y caracteres especiales, formando palabras, cifras, ó registros completos se pueden grabar o leer a razón de 77,000 a 312,000 caracteres por segundo y su tiempo de acceso a un registro alcanza un promedio de 60 mili-segundos.

Una diferencia importante entre las cintas y los discos es la siguiente:

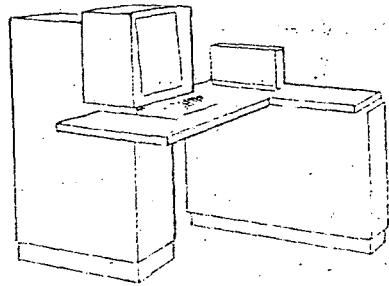
En las cintas los registros se graban o leen secuencialmente.

En los discos se tiene "Libre Acceso" a un registro cualquiera, en forma inmediata, pues cada registro se localiza por su posición física dentro del disco.

Lectora Óptica de Caracteres Impresos : Puede leer un documento impreso por una máquina de escribir, o por una máquina de contabilidad o por la impresora de una computadora a una velocidad de 30,000 caracteres por minuto.

Unidad de Representación Visual : Esta unidad de entrada/salida sirve para hacer consultas a la computadora, por medio de un teclado de máquina de escribir, y obtener la respuesta reflejada en una pequeña pantalla de televisión.

La imagen está formada por hasta 12 renglones de hasta 80 caracteres (letra, números, ó signos especiales) cada uno.



Vemos aquí otra Unidad de Representación Visual, más evolucionada que la anterior, la comunicación hombre-máquina puede establecerse en ella por medio de gráficos, es decir que la entrada y la salida de datos se hacen por medio de imágenes.

Cuenta esta unidad para ello con un dispositivo con forma de lápiz, que tiene en su punta una célula fotoeléctrica. Un delgado haz de luz parte en determinado momento de un punto de la pantalla y la recorre en forma de zig-zag. Si se apoya el "lápiz" en cualquier posición de la pantalla, su célula fotoeléctrica detectará en algún momento el haz de luz. Por el tiempo transcurrido desde que el haz de luz comenzó su "barrido" hasta que fue detectado, la computadora determina en qué punto de la pantalla se encuentra apoyado el "lápiz".

Como el barrido dura una fracción de segundo y se realizan muchos barridos por segundo, se puede "escribir" con el "lápiz" sobre la pantalla y el dibujo "ingresa" en la memoria de la computadora como una sucesión de puntos codificados.

La pantalla está imaginariamente dividida en 1.040.576 puntos, de manera que los trazos que se obtienen son prácticamente continuos.

Pueden dibujarse así curvas, estructuras, letras, números y cualquier tipo de gráfico, y esa información ingresa automáticamente a la computadora.

Por otra parte, los resultados obtenidos por la computadora son representados en la pantalla también como curvas, letras, etc., bajo control del programa almacenado en la memoria.

Lectora Óptica de Manuscritos : Salvo algunas pequeñas restricciones en cuanto al formato de los caracteres, esta unidad puede "leer" documentos escritos por cualquier persona y con cualquier ejemplo a una velocidad aproximada de 30,000 caracteres por minuto.

El registrador/analizador Fotográfico es una Unidad de Entrada/Salida de datos que realiza las siguientes funciones.

- 1) Registra los resultados de la computadora sobre microfotografías, mediante un tubo de rayos catódicos, que incide sobre una película fotográfica, y cuyo haz electrónico actúa gobernado por el Programa Almacenado. La película se revela automáticamente dentro de la unidad y 48 segundos después está lista para ser proyectada.
- 2) Proyecta sobre una pantalla translúcida las microfotografías registradas.
- 3) Analiza imágenes reproducidas en negativo sobre película transparente, las digitaliza y las transmite a la Unidad Central de Procesamiento.

La película utilizada tiene 30,5 milímetros de ancho y 120 metros de longitud. La entrada o Salida de imágenes puede consistir en letras, números, símbolos, dibujos, gráficas, mapas, curvas, etc. En una microfotografía de 30,5 mm X 30,5 mm pueden registrarse hasta 30.600 letras y números, o hasta 16.777.216 puntos correspondientes a imágenes. La velocidad de Registración/Análisis es de 40.000 letras, números y símbolos por segundo, o su equivalente si se trata de imágenes.

Maquina de Escribir (Teletipo) . Las unidades de almacenamiento o memorias (Representadas por el archivo del señor Control) permiten registrar las instrucciones y los datos para resolver un problema; entre otros se tienen:

Los Anillos Magnetizantes : Estos pueden magnetizarse en un sentido ó en otro "Recordando" así un 1 o un 0 respectivamente. Con 8 de éstas anillas se forma una posición de memoria, en la cual puede registrarse una letra, un dígito ó un carácter especial, según las distintas combinaciones de anillos " En 1 " y "En 0", de acuerdo a un código predeterminado .

Las Memorias de Flip - Flops

Las Cintas Magnéticas

Las Discos Magnéticos

El dispositivo aritmético (representado por la máquina de calcular) realiza las cuatro operaciones aritméticas.

Las unidades de salida (representadas por la ventanilla "Salida"), que pueden ser :

Impresoras

Maquinas de Escribir (Teletipos)

Grabadoras de Cintas Magnéticas

Grabadoras de Discos Magnéticos

Unidad de Representación Visual

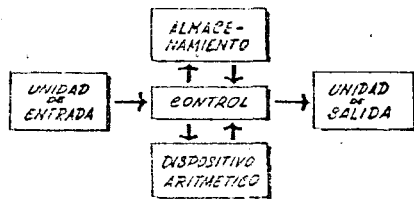
Registrador Analizador Fotográfico

Unidad de Respuesta Oral con la cual la Computadora puede hablar en todo el sentido de la palabra.

Contiene una Cinta magnetofónica en la cual un locutor ha grabado un diccionario de una gran variedad de palabras, en cualquier idioma.

Finalmente, un dispositivo electrónico de control (representado por el señor control) ayudado de un programa especial o sistema operativo (representado por el manual del señor Control), gobierna todas las operaciones de todas las unidades que componen la computadora.

habiendo descrito las partes que componen la computadora podemos mostrar el siguiente esquema que la representa :



O en forma más resumida :



Siendo :

- UNIDAD ALMACENAMIENTO
- CENTRAL CONTROL
- DISPOSITIVO ARITMETICO

Hemos hablado hasta este momento de la computadora electrónica desde el punto de vista conceptual. Durante las dos últimas décadas se han producido avances tecnológicos tan extraordinarios en materia de electrónica que la computadora ha sufrido enormes transformaciones. Veremos ahora cómo se ha ido modificando la idea original hasta llegar a los más modernos sistemas de procesamiento de datos.

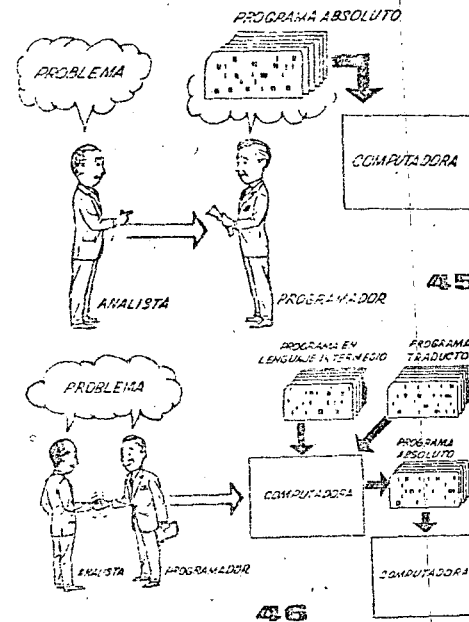
Las primeras computadoras tenían circuitos con válvulas de vacío. Los tiempos de operación se medían en ellas en milisegundos (milésimas de segundo). Cuando aparecieron los transistores, el diseño de los circuitos se mejoró notablemente y la duración de las operaciones en las computadoras que utilizaban esta "Tecnología de Estado Sólido" se midió en microsegundos (millonésimas de segundo).

El hecho de que las nuevas máquinas fueran miles de veces más rápidas que las anteriores trajo aparejada la creación de unidades de entrada, salida y memoria externa mucho más velozes.

La invención de un nuevo tipo de transistor ("chip") provocó una verdadera revolución en los circuitos electrónicos y sus procesos de fabricación el nuevo elemento es tan pequeño que en un dedal de costura caben más de 50,000 chips. Puede observarse en la figura, marcado con un círculo, un circuito completo basado en esta nueva "Tecnología de Lógica Sólida". Debido a su tamaño, se los denomina circuitos microminiaturizados o microcircuitos. Los tiempos de operación se miden ahora en nanosegundos (milmillonésimas de segundo). Ha nacido en esta forma la tercera generación de computadoras, y las altas velocidades alcanzadas permitieron un nuevo enfoque en el diseño de los sistemas de procesamiento de datos.

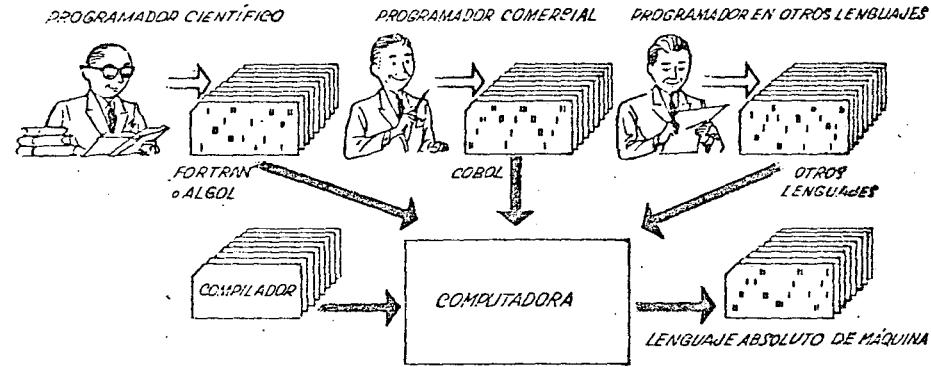
Enunciaremos brevemente los adelantos que esta tercera generación ha introducido con respecto a la tecnología anterior :

- La computadora se autogobierna y trabaja sin detenerse, pasando de un trabajo a otro sin demora alguna.
- El Operador interviene sólo cuando algún problema excepcional ocurre. La comunicación entre hombre y máquina se realiza sólo sobre la base de "Informes por Excepción".
- Si ocurre una falla en los circuitos o en la parte electromecánica la máquina realiza un autodiagnóstico e indica cuál es la anomalía.
- La velocidad de Entrada-Proceso-Salida se ha incrementado extraordinariamente.
- Todas las operaciones del sistema se realizan en forma simultánea.
- Los lenguajes de programación han evolucionado de manera notable.
- El autocontrol y la autoverificación de operaciones han alcanzado niveles insospechados.
- Pueden realizarse, con máximo rendimiento, varios trabajos distintos simultáneamente.



Hasta ahora hemos visto muchas unidades que, en distintas combinaciones, configuran computadoras electrónicas para las más variadas aplicaciones. Ahora nos detendremos para analizar el manejo de dichos sistemas.

El Programa de Instrucciones almacenado en la Unidad Central de Procesamiento, consta de una secuencia de órdenes y comandos, expresados según una codificación especial denominada "Lenguaje Absoluto de Máquina". Las primeras computadoras se programaban en este complejo lenguaje. Había entonces una enorme diferencia entre nuestro idioma y aquél según el cuál debíamos comunicarnos con la máquina. Esto obligaba a un gran esfuerzo común entre el analista que conocía el problema, y el programador que conocía la computadora, pues ambos hablaban del mismo proceso pero en distintos lenguajes.



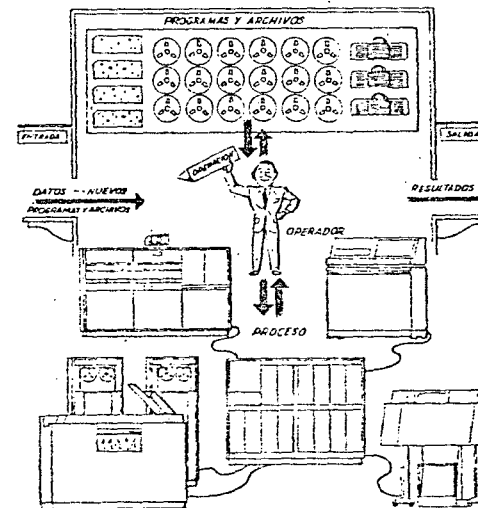
Se crearon, para solucionar el problema, lenguajes intermedios cada vez más parecidos a nuestro idioma. Es decir que cada nuevo lenguaje intermedio se acercaba más al problema y se alejaba más de la máquina. Para cada uno de estos lenguajes se creó un programa traductor llamado "Compaginador" o "Compilador", que tenía la misión de traducir el lenguaje intermedio al absoluto de máquina. Ahora, el analista y el programador "habían un mismo idioma": ambos conocen el problema y la solución.

Pero la computadora seguía desarrollándose, y pronto los lenguajes intermedios fueron insuficientes para formular intrincados problemas científicos o comerciales. Nacieron, entonces, lenguajes especializados: dos de ellos, el FORTRAN y el ALGOL, permiten programar problemas científicos-técnicos utilizando una notación casi idéntica a la notación matemática común. El COBOL es un lenguaje comercial cuyas sentencias configuran oraciones y frases en forma tal que una persona que no sabe qué es una computadora, puede leer un programa y entender perfectamente qué es lo que hará la máquina cuando lo tengo almacenado.

Cada uno de estos lenguajes tiene un programa Compilador para cada tipo distinto de computadora capaz de procesarlo. Esto significa que un programador que sabe FORTRAN, por ejemplo, puede programar una computadora aún sin conocerla. Es decir que estos tres lenguajes constituyen un "esperanto" de las máquinas.

La tercera generación de computadoras permitió abordar complejos problemas que incluían, entre otros, aspectos comerciales y científicos. No había un lenguaje que abarcara todas las especialidades. Entonces se reunieron todos los lenguajes conocidos en un superlenguaje llamado PL/I, cuyo compilador es tan poderoso que posibilita la sectorización de la programación en la forma que muestra el dibujo: varios programadores pueden programar distintas partes del proceso, incluso en diferentes lenguajes, y el programa compilador entregará como resultado las instrucciones del proceso completo, en Lenguaje Absoluto de Máquina.

Hemos llegado así a que la computadora nos "entienda", en lugar de que se limite a recibir órdenes en su idioma.



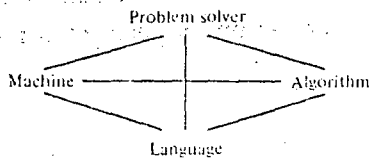


Computers arouse curiosity in most of us. Articles in popular magazines and newspapers, current books, and TV shows heighten this curiosity, but such sources cannot be expected to present information in the carefully ordered sequences that is possible in a book like this. Whether you are drawn by curiosity alone, or economic necessity, or both, conscientious study of this book will help you to break through to a new level of understanding about computers, their uses, and their consequences.

Computer science deals with people who have problems to solve and with algorithms, the solutions to these problems. The solutions are expressed in special languages that represent stored data and communicate to machines the manipulations that are to be carried out on that data.

Each of these four elements (problem solver, algorithm, language, and machine) affects the others in interesting ways. For example, depending on its richness, a language can either limit or extend our ability to express complex plans of action effectively. And, depending on its capabilities (i.e., its architecture), a machine can execute some plans of action on certain data representations more effectively than on others. The loop of interaction closes when the problem solver changes the plan of action, the language, or the machine architecture to suit his purpose.

This book introduces all four components of this interaction. Every chapter takes you around this "four-cornered race track" and, with every circumnavigation, you gain a deeper and clearer understanding of the interplay among the four elements. You, of course, play the problem solver using a computer. To get the most out of this experience, laboratory practice is almost indispensable. But, even if you can't have actual computer experience, a careful reading of this book should illuminate the computer science scene far better and far beyond what you have previously perceived.



Elements of computer problem solving.

1-1 Algorithms and flowcharts

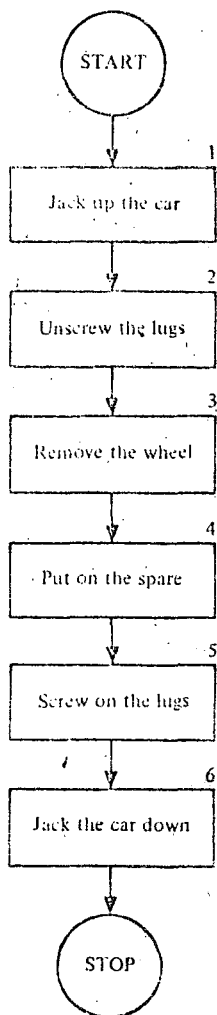


FIGURE 1-1
First flat-tire flowchart.

What is an algorithm? An *algorithm* is a list of instructions for carrying out some process step by step. A recipe in a cookbook is an excellent example of an algorithm. The preparation of a complicated dish is broken down into simple steps that every person experienced in cooking can understand. Another good example of an algorithm is the choreography for a classical ballet. An intricate dance is broken down into a succession of basic steps and positions of ballet. The number of these basic steps and positions is very small but, by putting them together in different ways, an endless variety of dances can be devised.

In the same way, algorithms executed by a computer can combine millions of elementary steps, such as additions and subtractions, into a complicated mathematical calculation. Also by means of algorithms, a computer can control a manufacturing process or coordinate the reservations of an airline as they are received from ticket offices all over the country. Algorithms for such large-scale processes are, of course, very complex, but they are built up from pieces, as in the example we will now consider.

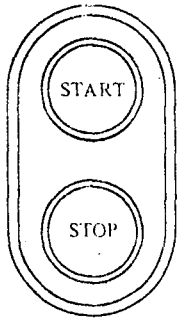
If we *can* devise an algorithm for a process, we can usually do so in many different ways. Here is one algorithm for the everyday process of changing a flat tire.

1. Jack up the car.
2. Unscrew the lugs.
3. Remove the wheel.
4. Put on the spare.
5. Screw on the lugs.
6. Jack the car down.

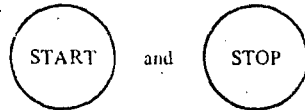
We could add many more details to this algorithm. We could include getting the materials out of the trunk, positioning the jack, removing the hubcaps, and loosening the lugs before jacking up the car, for example. For algorithms describing mechanical processes, it is generally best to decide how much detail to include. Still, the steps we have listed will be adequate to convey the idea of an algorithm. When we get to mathematical algorithms, we will have to be much more precise.

3 ALGORITHMS AND COMPUTERS

A *flowchart* is a diagram representing an algorithm. In Figure 1·1 we see a flowchart for the flat-tire algorithm.



The



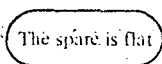
in the flowchart remind us of the buttons used to start and stop a piece of machinery. Each instruction in the flowchart is enclosed in a frame or "box." As we will soon see, the shape of the frame indicates the kind of instruction written inside. A rectangular frame indicates a command to take some action.

To carry out the task described by the flowchart, we begin at the start button and follow the arrows from box to box, executing the instructions as we come to them.

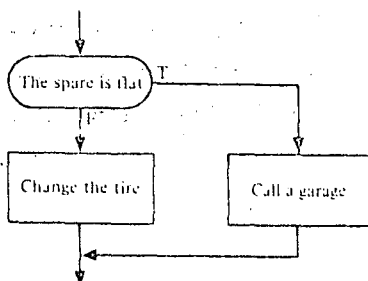
After drawing a flowchart, we always look to see whether we can improve it. For instance, in the flat-tire flowchart we neglected to check whether the spare was flat. If the spare is flat, we will not change the tire; we will call a garage instead. This calls for a decision between two courses of action. For this purpose we introduce a new shape of frame into our flowchart.



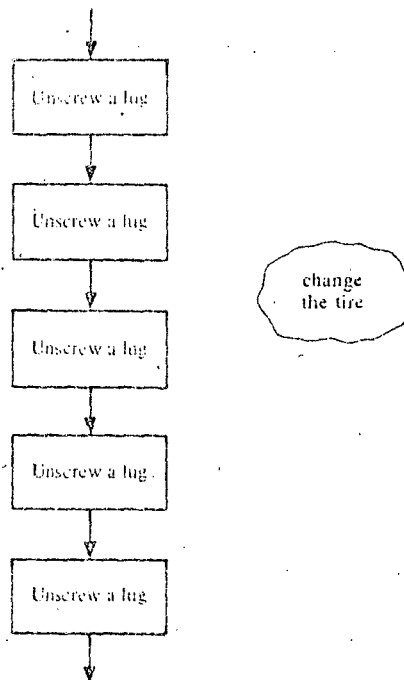
Inside this oval frame we will write an assertion instead of a command.



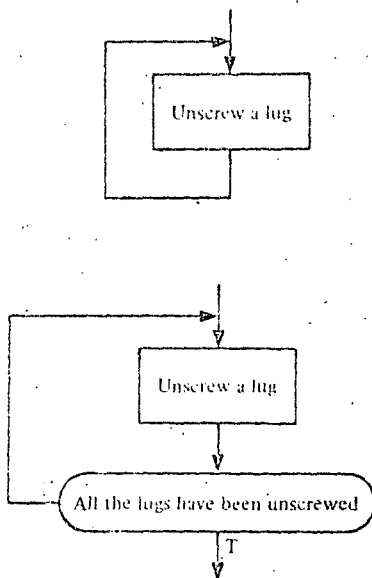
This is called a *decision box* and will have two exits, labeled T (for true) and F (for false). After checking the truth or falsity of the assertion, we choose the appropriate exit and proceed to the indicated activity. Incorporating the flowchart fragment on the left into Figure 1·1, we obtain the flowchart in Figure 1·2.



There is another instructive improvement possible: The instruction in box 2 of our flowchart actually stands for a number of repetitions of the same task. To show the additional detail we could replace box 2 by a step for each lug:



The awkwardness of this repeated instruction can be eliminated by introducing a *loop*.



As we leave the box, we find that the arrow leads us right back to repeat the task again. However, we are caught in an endless loop, since we have provided no way to get out and go on with the next task. To correct this situation, we require another decision box, as shown on the left.

Replacing box 2 of our flowchart with this mechanism and making a similar replacement for box 5, we get the final result shown in Figure 1-3.

Now that you have followed the development of the flat-tire flowchart, try to devise one of your own. In the algorithm of the following exercise, you will probably discover some decisions and loops. There are many different ways of flowcharting this algorithm, so many different-looking flowcharts will be created.

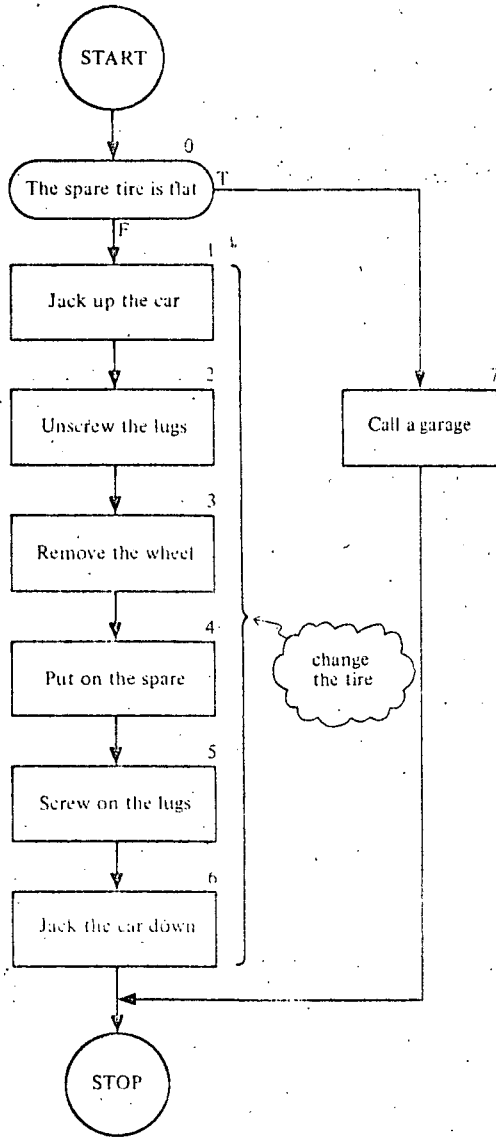


FIGURE 1-2
Second flat-tire flowchart.

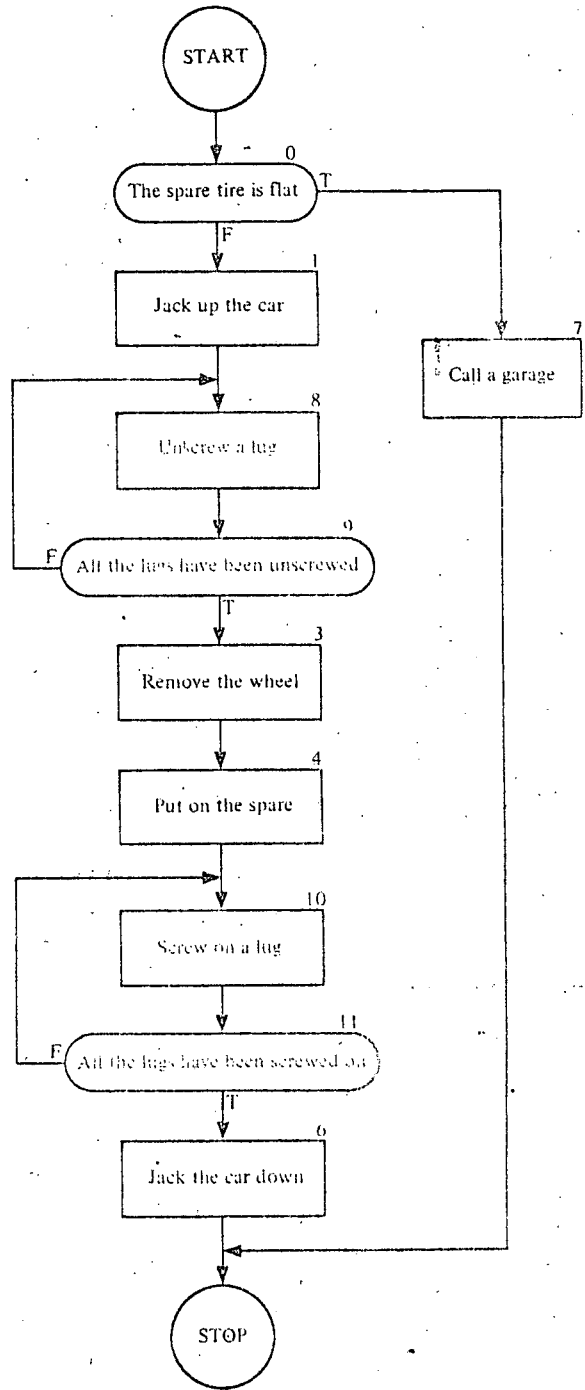


FIGURE 1-3
Final flat-tire flowchart.

6 COMPUTER SCIENCE: A FIRST COURSE

EXERCISE 1·1

1. Prepare a flowchart representing the following recipe.

Mrs. Good's Rocky Road

Ingredients:

1 cup chopped walnuts	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup evaporated milk
$\frac{1}{4}$ pound block of baker's chocolate	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup corn syrup
$\frac{1}{2}$ pound of marshmallows cut in halves	1 teaspoon of vanilla
3 cups sugar	$\frac{1}{4}$ pound of butter
	$\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon of salt

Place milk, corn syrup, sugar, chocolate, and salt in a four-quart pan, and cook over a high flame, stirring constantly until the mixture boils. Reduce to medium flame and continue boiling and stirring until a drop of syrup forms a soft ball in a glass of cold water. Remove from the flame and allow to cool for 10 minutes. Beat in butter and vanilla until thoroughly blended. Stir in walnuts. Distribute marshmallow halves over the bottom of a 10-inch square, buttered baking pan. Pour syrup over the marshmallows. Allow to cool for 10 minutes. Cut in squares and serve.

1·2 A numerical algorithm

Now we are ready to examine an algorithm for a mathematical calculation. As a first example, we consider the problem of finding terms of the Fibonacci sequence:

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, . . .

In this sequence, or list of numbers, the first two terms given are 0 and 1. After that, the terms are constructed according to the rule that each number in the list is the sum of the two preceding ones. Check that this is the case. Thus, the next term after the last one listed above is

$$34 + 55 = 89$$

Clearly, we can keep on generating the terms of the sequence, one after another, for as long as we like. But, in order to write an algorithm for the process (so that a computer could execute it, for example), we have to be much more explicit in our instructions.

Before subjecting this process to closer scrutiny, let us review a little of the interesting history of this sequence. It was introduced in 1202 A.D. by the Italian mathematician, Fibonacci, to provide a model of population growth in rabbits.

His assumptions were: (1) it takes rabbits one month from birth to reach maturity; (2) one month after reaching maturity, and every month thereafter, each pair of mature rabbits will produce another *pair* of rabbits; and (3) rabbits never die.

One senses that this model is not completely realistic. But the essence of mathematical modeling is to start with a crude model that emphasizes the important aspects of the situation and suppresses less important information. A more refined model can be developed later, profiting from the experience with the crude model. Thus we might eventually improve the Fibonacci model by obtaining more accurate figures on the birth rate, taking mortality into account, considering the limitations of food supply, the effects of predators, disease, and overcrowding, and the like.

In spite of its frivolous origins, the Fibonacci sequence has many fascinating properties and plays a role in the solution of a number of seemingly unrelated mathematical problems. There is currently a published quarterly journal entirely devoted to the properties and applications of the Fibonacci sequence.

After this long digression, let's see how the rabbit-pair population model gives rise to the Fibonacci sequence. Fibonacci starts with one pair of newborn rabbits at the beginning of month *one*, and he then lets nature take its course. This is shown in Table 1-1, which we now explain.

TABLE 1-1
Rabbit Population

Beginning of Month	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Infant rabbit pairs	1	0	1	1	2	3	5	8
Mature rabbit pairs	0	1	1	2	3	5	8	13
Total rabbit pairs	1	1	2	3	5	8	13	21

Look at the arrows in the table. The number of pairs of infant rabbits in any month (after the first) is equal to the number of pairs of mature rabbits in the preceding month (condition 2 in the Fibonacci model). This explains the green arrows. In each month after the first, the number of pairs of mature rabbits will equal the total number of rabbit pairs in the preceding month (condition 1 in the Fibonacci model). This

explains the gray arrows. Following the arrows, we see that, from the third month onward, the total in any month is the sum of the totals in the two preceding months. Thus the rabbit population model generates the Fibonacci sequence except for the initial zero, which can be taken as the total number of rabbits in month zero.

Eliminating the reference to rabbits, we can tabulate the calculation of the terms of the Fibonacci sequence in Table 1.2.

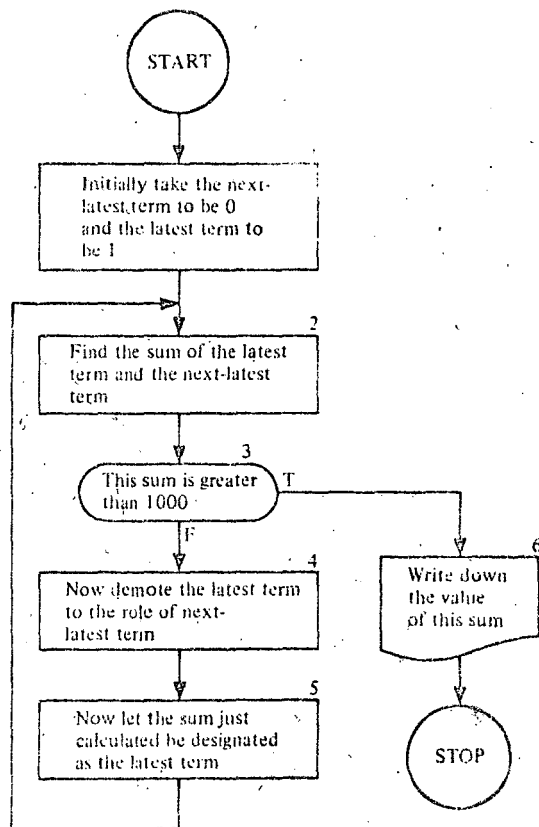


FIGURE 1.4
Flowchart for Fibonacci
sequence.

9 ALGORITHMS AND COMPUTERS

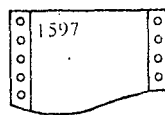
TABLE 1·2

Next Latest Term	Latest Term	Sum
0	1	$0 + 1 = 1$
1	1	$1 + 1 = 2$
1	2	$1 + 2 = 3$
2	3	$2 + 3 = 5$
3	5	$3 + 5 = 8$
5	8	$5 + 8 = 13$
8	13	$8 + 13 = 21$

We can see that in each step the latest term gets “demoted” to the role of next latest term and the sum becomes the new latest term.

Let’s construct a flowchart for finding the first term to exceed 1000 in the Fibonacci sequence (Figure 1·4).

After going through the loop of flowchart boxes numbered 2 to 5 enough times (it happens to be 15 times), we eventually emerge from box 3 at the T exit and proceed to box 6. This box is seen to have a different shape because it calls for a different kind of activity—that of writing down our answer. The shape is chosen so as to suggest a page torn off a line printer, once the most common of computer output devices.



EXERCISES 1·2

1. (a) Suppose in the rabbit problem we had started in month one with one pair of infant rabbits and three pairs of mature rabbits. Make a table similar to Table 1·1 to show the state of the population over the first eight months.
 (b) How would you modify the flowchart of Figure 1·4 so as to generate the first term of this modified sequence greater than 1000?
2. Repeat Problem 1 with three pairs of infant rabbits and one pair of mature rabbits.
3. (a) For the Fibonacci sequence in Table 1·1, calculate from month two through month twelve the ratio, r , of the total number of

- rabbits in the current month to that in the preceding month. Express each ratio as a decimal and carry out the calculation to the nearest thousandth.
- (b) Express in your own words what seems to be happening to these ratios.
 - (c) Find the reciprocals of each of the ratios in Problem 3a.
 - (d) What relationship between the ratio r and its reciprocal $1/r$ seems to be becoming more and more true? Express this relationship as an equation.
 - (e) If this relationship held exactly, what would be the exact value of r ? That is, solve the equation for r .
4. Repeat Problem 3 using:
- (a) The table in Problem 1.
 - (b) The table in Problem 2.

1.3 SIMPLOS, a conceptual model of a computer

The algorithm of the preceding section can be expressed in much simpler notation that is, at the same time, more nearly acceptable by a computer as a set of instructions. To do this we must introduce a conceptual model of how a computer works. This conceptual model is so extraordinarily simple that we will call it the SIMPLOS computer. It is amazing, but true, that such a simple view of how a computer works is completely adequate for this entire course. We will present a more realistic picture of a computer in later sections of this chapter.

Variables

In computing work, a *variable* is a letter or a string of letters used to stand for something. For now, this "something" that a variable stands for will always be a number. (As we progress through this book, we will take an ever broadening view of the sort of thing a variable can stand for.) In the formula

$$A = L \times W$$

the letters A , L , and W are variables. In the formula

$$\text{DIST} = \text{RATE} \times \text{TIME}$$

DIST , RATE , and TIME are variables.

At any particular time, a variable will stand for one particular number, called the *value* of the variable, which may change from time to time during a computing process. The value of a variable may change millions of times during the execution of a single algorithm.

In our conceptual model of a computer we associate with

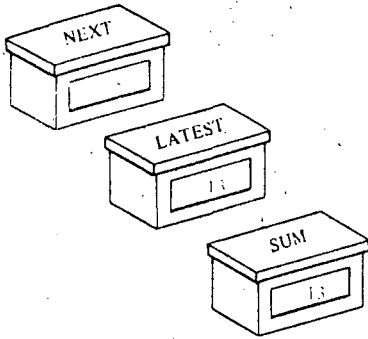


FIGURE 1-5 Storage.

each variable a *storage box*. On the top of each box there is a removable gummed sticker with the associated variable inscribed on it, and inside the box there is a strip of paper with the *present value* (or current value) of the variable written on it. The variable is a *name for the number* that currently appears inside.

Each box has a lid that may be removed when we wish to assign a new value to the variable. Each box has a window in the side so that we may read the value of a variable with no danger of altering its value. These boxes constitute the *storage* of our computer. In Figure 1-5 we see one stage in the execution of the Fibonacci sequence algorithm of the preceding section. Here NEXT stands for "next latest term" and LATEST stands for "latest term."

To summarize, the *data storage* of a computer is to be thought of as subdividable into a number of information containers or boxes. Each such storage box may be given a meaningful name (sticker), and each may be given (assigned) a value.

Some people view a computer as an electronic and mechanical system having a data storage similar to that just described, along with a number of other interconnected units or modules, each with a special set of functions that, when activated appropriately, carry out algorithms. Figure 1-6 is one way to depict the organization of such a computer system. If we were to pursue the explanation of this system according to the module view, it would be necessary to define the functions of each module and explain the significance of the arrowed lines into and out of each box. But it would also be

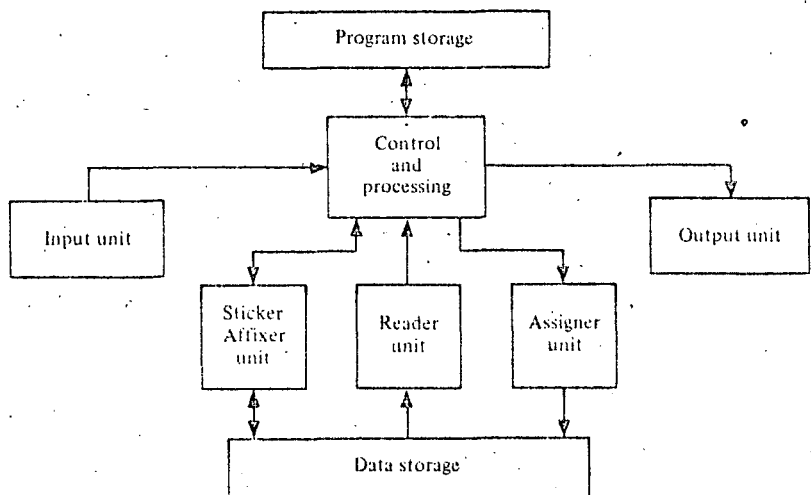


FIGURE 1-6 View of a SIMPLoS system as a set of interconnected modules.

necessary to bring the diagram to life by explaining the action sequences that occur in which each module serves the needs of the others so that the overall effect is to process information (i.e., to compute) in the desired fashion.

A second way to view a computer is to picture the active modules as robots working as a team. The actions of each robot always follow a fixed pattern, according to a set of relatively simple rules. We shall take this view in our conceptual model, SIMPLOS.

The Model and How It Works

We visualize a computer as a number of storage boxes together with a staff of four robots—the *Master Computer* and three assistants, the *Assigner*, the *Reader*, and the *Sticker Affixer*. All these components are quartered in one room, isolated from those who will use the computer.

The Master Computer corresponds to the control and processing unit in Figure 1.6. He has a flowchart on his desk that sets forth the instructions according to which he delegates certain tasks to his assistants (Figure 1.7). "Note that the flowchart corresponds to the information kept in the *program storage* module of SIMPLOS."

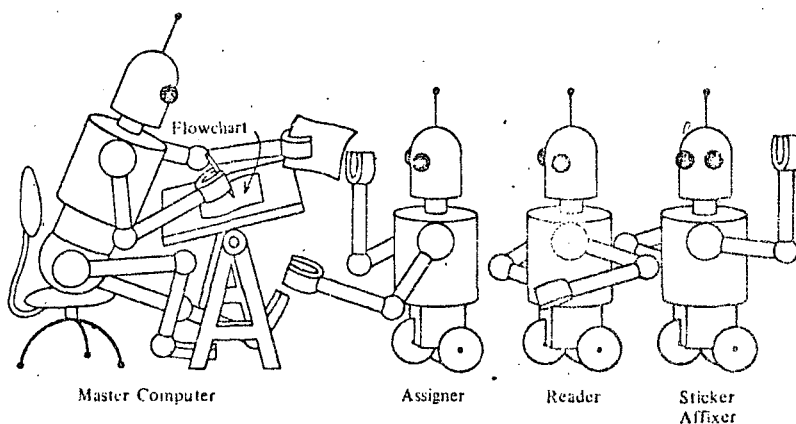
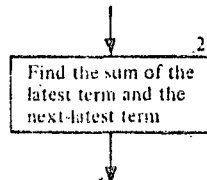


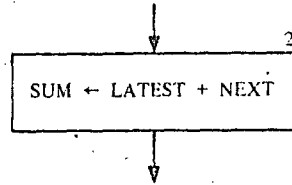
FIGURE 1.7
The Master Computer and his staff.

To see how this team operates, let us suppose the computer is in the midst of executing the Fibonacci sequence algorithm of Figure 1.4. One of the instructions in this algorithm was:



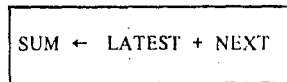
13 ALGORITHMS AND COMPUTERS

In a simplified flowchart notation, this instruction will take the form:



Inside this flowchart box we find an *assignment statement*. Reading this statement aloud, we would say, "Assign to SUM the value of LATEST plus NEXT," or more simply, "Assign LATEST + NEXT to SUM." The arrow pointing left is called the *assignment operator* and is to be thought of as an order or a command. Rectangular boxes in our flowchart language will always contain assignment steps and will therefore be called *assignment boxes*.

To see what takes place when the Master Computer comes to the above statement in the flowchart, let us assume that the variables LATEST and NEXT (but not SUM) have the values seen in Figure 1-5. The computation called for in the assignment statement is spelled out on the right-hand side of the arrow, so the Master Computer looks there first.



He realizes that he needs to know the values of the variables LATEST and NEXT, so he sends the Reader out to fetch copies of these values from storage.

The Reader then goes and finds the storage boxes labeled

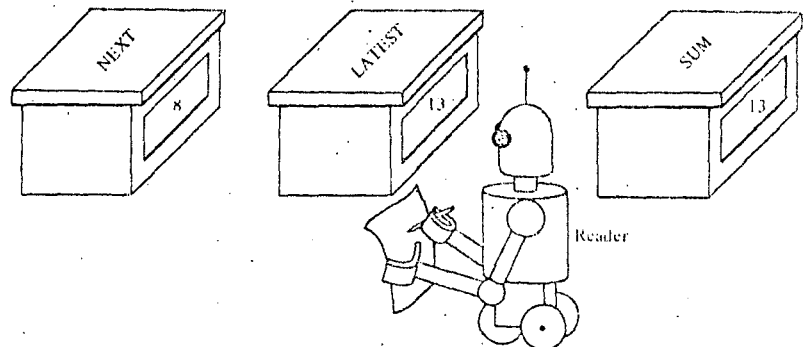


FIGURE 1-8
The Reader copying a value
from storage.

LATEST and NEXT. He reads the values of these variables through the windows (Figure 1·8), jots down the values, and carries them back to the Master Computer (Figure 1·9).

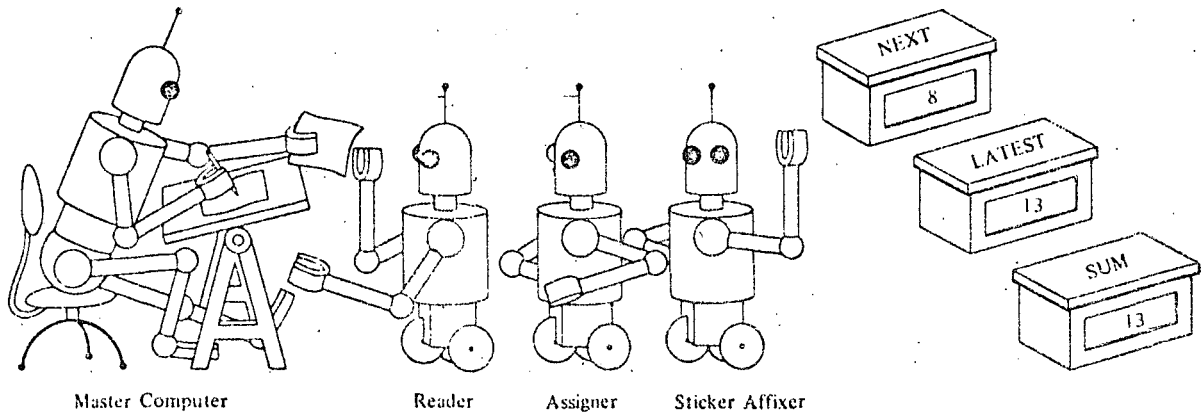


FIGURE 1·9
The Master Computer receives the copy.

The Master Computer computes the value of $LATEST + NEXT$ using the values of these variables brought to him by the Reader:

$$8 + 13 = 21$$

What does he do with this value?

The Master Computer now looks to the left of the assignment arrow in his instruction.

$SUM \leftarrow LATEST + NEXT$

He sees that he must assign the computed value of $LATEST + NEXT$, namely, 21, to SUM so he writes "21" on a slip of paper, calls the Assigner, and instructs him to assign this value to the variable SUM .

The Assigner goes to storage, finds the box labeled SUM , and dumps out its contents (Figure 1·10). Then he places in the box the slip of paper containing the new value, closes the lid, and returns to the Master Computer for a new task.

In other words, assignment is the process of giving a value to a variable. We say that assignment is *destructive* because it displaces the former value of the variable. Reading is *non-destructive* because the process in no way alters the values of any of the variables in storage.

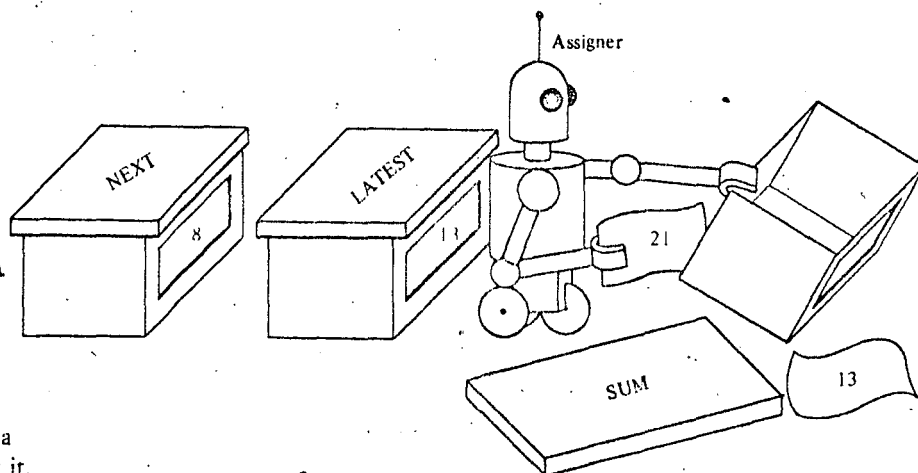


FIGURE 1-10
The Assigner emptying a
storage box and refilling it.

In Figure 1-11 we present the entire flowchart of Figure 1-4 in simplified flowchart language. The old and new flowcharts are placed side by side for easy comparison.

The translation requires very little explanation. It should be obvious that the statement in box 1 on the left is equivalent to the two statements in box 1 on the right. The new version of box 2 has been discussed in detail.

We see that the two statements in boxes 4 and 5 of the old flowchart are compressed into one box, box 4 of the new flowchart. This is permissible whenever we have a number of assignment statements with no other steps in between. However, it is very important to understand that these assignment statements must be executed in order from top to bottom, not in the opposite order and not simultaneously. The order in which things are done may be extremely important.

You can see that the statements in box 4 involve no computation but merely change the values in certain storage boxes. This sort of activity occurs frequently in flowcharts.

In box 6 of the flowchart we see only the word SUM. The shape of the box (called an *output box*) tells us that the value of the variable SUM is to be written down or displayed. If, in some other algorithm, we wished to write down the values of several variables, we would list these variables in an output box separated by commas, as illustrated on the left.

A, B, C, DIST

We will now describe the duties of the Sticker Affixer. We consider that the computation is begun by the transmittal of a flowchart to the Master Computer. The first thing the Master Computer does is to scan the flowchart, making a list

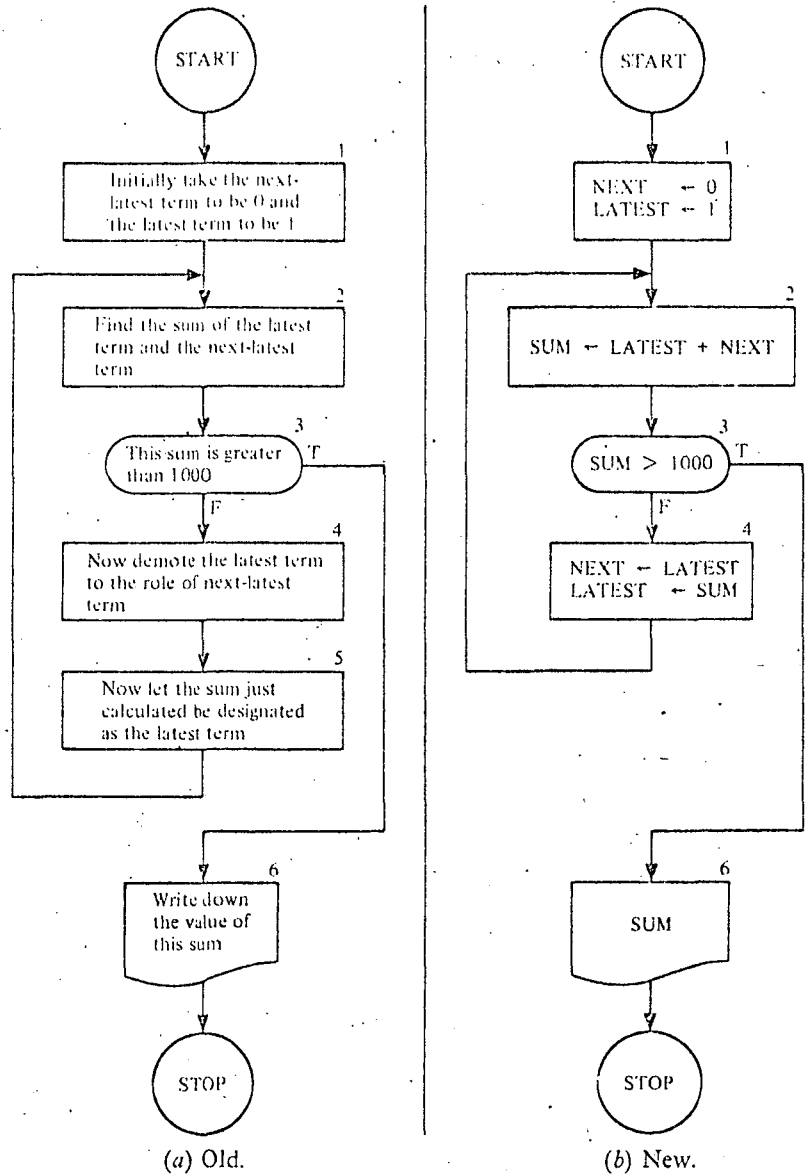


FIGURE 1·11
Translation of Fibonacci
sequence flowchart into formal
flowchart language.

of all the variables used. In the case of the Fibonacci sequence flowchart of Figure 1·11b, this list would have the form

NEXT
LATEST
SUM

The Master Computer hands this list to the Sticker Affixer, who now springs into action. He inscribes each of these variables on a sticker, goes to a bin of unlabeled storage boxes, and slaps one of these stickers on each of three boxes (Figure 1·12).

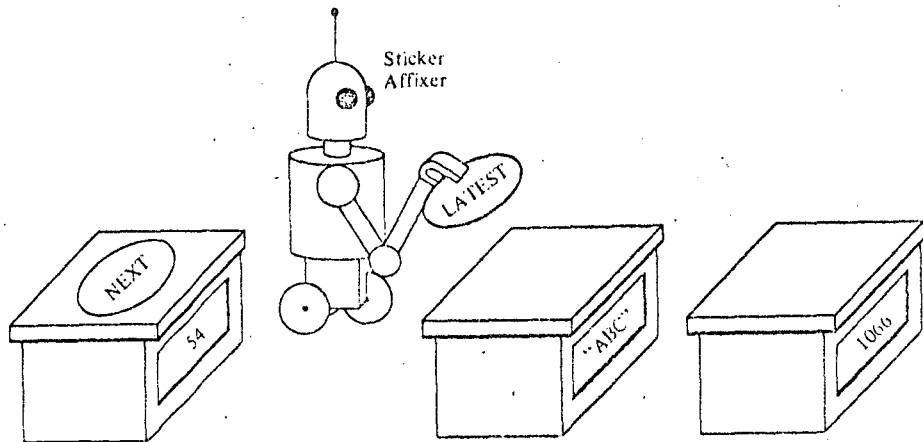



FIGURE 1-12
Sticker Affixer at work.

Now the instructions in the flowchart are executed until the  instruction is reached. At this juncture, the Master Computer directs the Affixer to unpeel all the labels and throw them into a recycle bin.

Tracing the Flowchart

To understand better what our flowchart in Figure 1-11*b* does, let us trace through it, executing the steps as the Master Computer and his assistants do them (see Table 1-3).

In this trace, for ease of reading, the values of the variables are reproduced only when assignments are made to them. In between such steps, the values of the variables do not change and therefore have the most recently recorded values. For example, in step 33, where a test is performed, the values of the variables are

$$\text{NEXT} = 55, \quad \text{LATEST} = 89, \quad \text{SUM} = 144$$

In step 34 the values are

$$\text{NEXT} = 89, \quad \text{LATEST} = 144, \quad \text{SUM} = 144$$

You can see that in step 48 in the execution of our algorithm we finally leave box 3 by the *true* exit and pass on to box 6, where we output the answer, 1597, and stop.

The utter simplicity of our conceptual model avoids and removes certain pitfalls. There is an ever-present danger of thinking of assignment as equality or substitution. (We will say

TABLE 1-3
Tracing of the Flowchart of Figure 1-11b

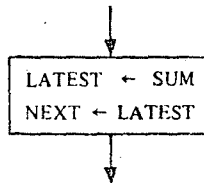
Step Number	Flowchart Box Number	Values of Variables			Test	True or False
		NEXT	LATEST	SUM		
1	1	0	1			
2	2			1		
3	3				$1 > 1000$	F
4	4	1	1			
5	2			2		
6	3				$2 > 1000$	F
7	4	1	2			
8	2			3		
9	3				$3 > 1000$	F
10	4	2	3			
11	2			5		
12	3				$5 > 1000$	F
13	4	3	5			
14	2			8		
15	3				$8 > 1000$	F
16	4	5	8			
17	2			13		
18	3				$13 > 1000$	F
19	4	8	13			
20	2			21		
21	3				$21 > 1000$	F
22	4	13	21			
23	2			34		
24	3				$34 > 1000$	F
25	4	21	34			
26	2			55		
27	3				$55 > 1000$	F
28	4	34	55			
29	2			89		
30	3				$89 > 1000$	F
31	4	55	89			
32	2			144		
33	3				$144 > 1000$	F
34	4	89	144			
35	2			233		
36	3				$233 > 1000$	F
37	4	144	233			
38	2			377		
39	3				$377 > 1000$	F
40	4	233	377			
41	2			610		
42	3				$610 > 1000$	F
43	4	377	610			
44	2			987		
45	3				$987 > 1000$	F
46	4	610	987			
47	2			1597		
48	3				$1597 > 1000$	T
49	6			1597		

more about this later.) This and other potential sources of confusion, such as the effect of a certain sequence of flowchart statements, can be cleared up by thinking in terms of the SIMPLOS model, which will always give the right answers.

In fact, an excellent way to understand these ideas of reading and assigning values to variables is to make some storage boxes and, with some friends, work through several algorithms as described in this section.

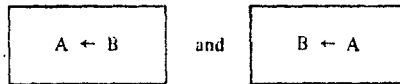
EXERCISES 1-3

1. What is the effect of changing the order of the two assignment statements in box 4 of Figure 1-11b so as to appear as seen below?



Trace through the flowchart with this modification until you find the answer.

2. (a) To compare the effects of the assignment statements



find the missing numbers in the table below.

Values Before Execution of Assignment		Assignment To Be Executed	Values After Execution of Assignment	
A	B		A	B
7	13	A ← B	?	?
7	13	B ← A	?	?

- (b) In which of the two cases is it true that $A = B$ after assignment?
 - (c) Are the effects of the two assignment statements the same or different?
3. Modify the flowchart in Figure 1-11b so as to carry out the algorithm of Problem 1, Exercises 1-2.

4. Modify the flowchart of Figure 1-11b so as to output each term of the Fibonacci sequence starting with the third (i.e., omit the initial 0, and 1).
5. Revise the flowchart of Problem 4 to calculate the ratio, r , of LATEST to NEXT (as calculated in Problem 3a, Exercises 1-2) and output this ratio (as well as LATEST) at each step.
6. Revise the flowchart of Problem 5 to calculate at each step the reciprocal of r . Add this value to the output list.

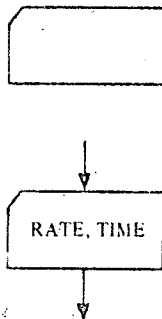
1-4 Input/output

Imagine that you are a bookkeeper in a large factory. You have records of the hourly rate of pay and the number of hours worked for each employee, and you have to calculate the week's wages. Of course, this can be done by hand, but assume there are nearly 1000 workers in the plant, so that the job would be quite tedious. Naturally you prefer to have the computer execute this task for you, but you will have to devise a flowchart to convey the instructions to the computer.

How will the hourly wages and the hours worked come into our computation? Must each new value of RATE and TIME be represented by a separate assignment box? This is certainly a possibility, but it would require thousands of flowchart boxes—a most undesirable state of affairs. This unpleasant necessity can be eliminated by using the concept of *input*.

We now introduce a new shape of frame, the *input box*, into the flowchart language. The input box has this shape to suggest a "punch card" (a frequently used input medium, but not the only one). Inside the box will appear a single variable or a list of variables separated by commas.

What happens in our SIMPLOS model when the Master Computer encounters such an instruction? To answer this question, we must endow the SIMPLOS model with an additional feature not previously needed (Figure 1-13). SIMPLOS has a conveyer belt (called the *input belt*) that carries slips of paper from outside the room into the environment of the computing staff. On the outside end of the belt the "user" or "programmer" (who is not a member of the computer staff) places these slips of paper, with values written on them, on the conveyer belt in the order in which he wants them to be used.



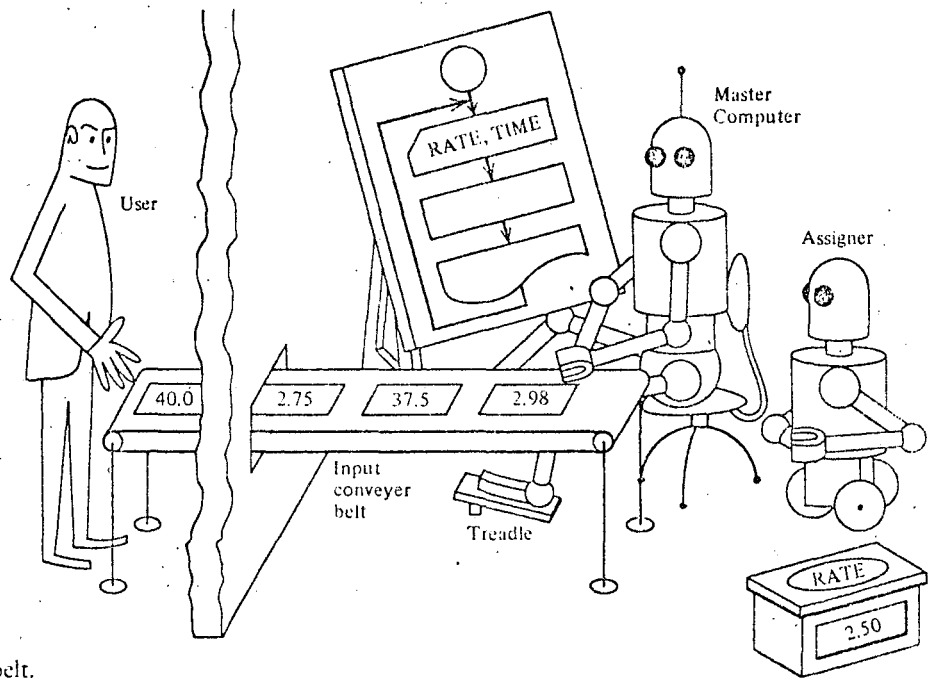
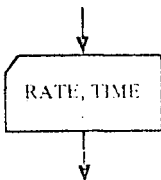


FIGURE 1-13
SIMPLOS with Input belt.



When the Master Computer comes to the input instruction he does the following.

1. Steps on a treadle running the conveyer belt until the next slip of paper comes within reach.
2. Remove his foot from the treadle, stopping the belt.
3. Takes a slip of paper from the belt and hands it to the Assigner with instructions to assign the value thereon to the variable, RATE.

When the Assigner returns from this task, the Master Computer repeats the above process, but this time tells the Assigner to assign the new value to TIME. When this is done, the Master Computer follows the arrow in his flowchart to the next instruction.

We see that an input box is a command to make assignments, but this command is essentially different from that in an assignment box. In an assignment box the values to be assigned are to be found in computer storage or are computed from values already stored, whereas with an input box the values to be assigned are obtained from outside the computer. No calculation is called for in an input box. Moreover, the

values to be input never appear in the flowchart itself. Only the *variables* to which these values are to be assigned appear in the input boxes of the flowchart.

In an actual computer (not our conceptual one) the distinction between the two kinds of assignment need not be so sharp. Assignments called for in an input box *usually* involve some mechanical motion such as transporting a punched card or other unit of recorded information past a reading station where the coded contents may be copied. But to gain speed the data often are transported into a special section of storage called an *input buffer*, well before the data are actually needed by the executing algorithm. In this case, when the input step is executed, what actually happens is that data values are simply copied at electronic speed from storage boxes of the input buffer to storage boxes of the variables that are specified in the input step of the algorithm.

Now let's see how to use the input box in our hourly rate and payroll problem. Should we input the data from all the cards before we start our calculations? If so, we would need a great many storage boxes in which to store all these data. Instead, we will calculate the wages after each data set is read. A description of our method is as follows.

1. Input one value of RATE and one value of TIME by the process described above.
2. Multiply the RATE by the TIME to get the WAGE.
3. Output the values of RATE, TIME, and WAGE.
4. Return to step 1.

In the flowchart of Figure 1-14 each of the first three steps of the above list appears in a similarly numbered box. Step 4 is represented by the arrow returning from box 3 to box 1.

You may wonder why the flowchart does not have a stop button. SIMPLIS always terminates execution of an algorithm when an input step is being executed, and the input belt contains too few values to match the variables in the input box. Execution of the payroll algorithm will therefore always halt after the last *rate, time* pair of data values has been processed and control once again reaches box 1, where it is discovered that the input belt is empty.

It will also be useful to visualize output in a similar way.

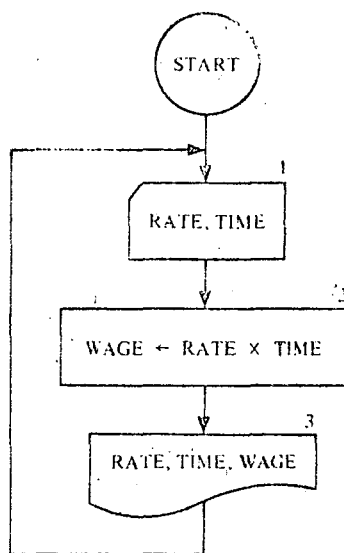


FIGURE 1-14
Payroll algorithm.

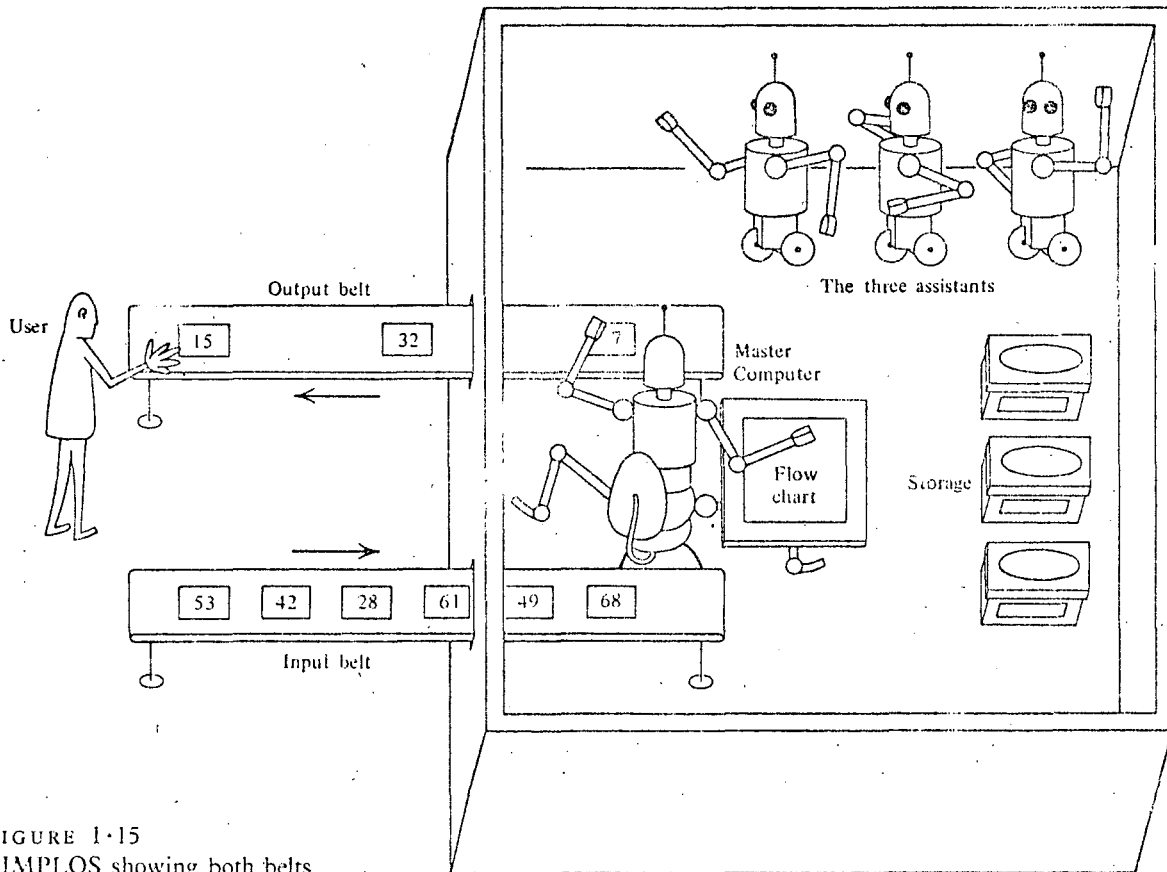


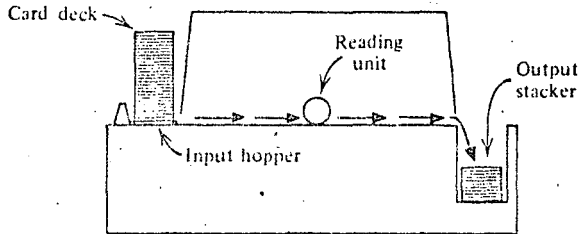
FIGURE 1-15
SIMPLOS showing both belts.

We endow SIMPLOS with a second conveyer belt, the *output belt*. This belt runs *out* instead of in and runs continuously—it needs no treadle. Each time the flowchart calls for output, the Master Computer writes the proper value on a slip of paper and drops it on the output belt, which carries the slip through the wall to the outside environment of the user. A view of this situation from the top is seen in Figure 1-15.

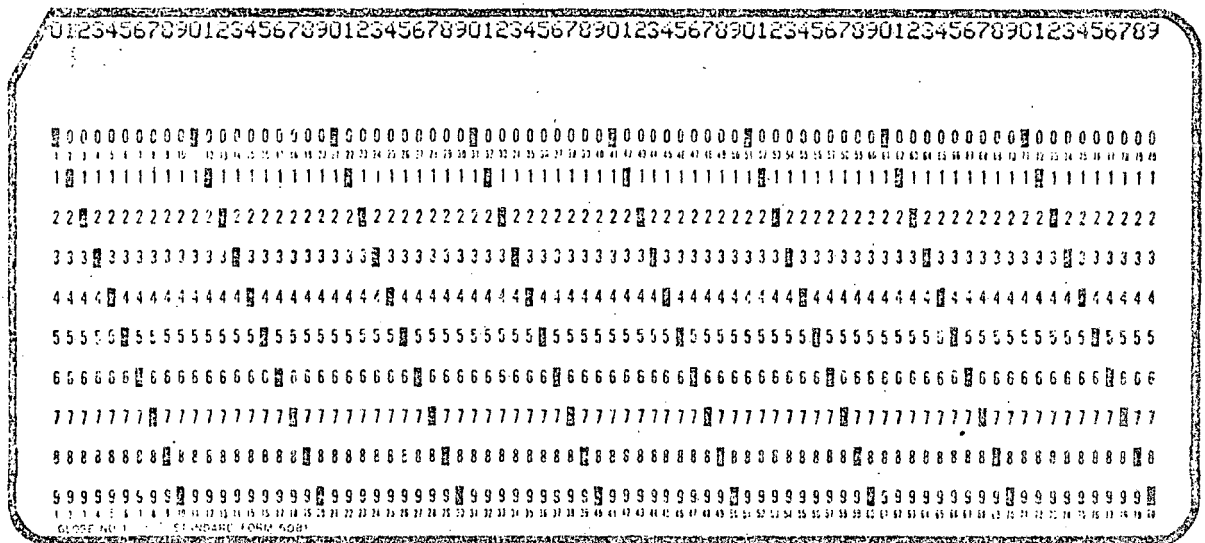
Records Versus Streams

Our conveyer belt model of input-output suggests that data values move as a stream into and out of a computer system. Although in actual computers this is not always strictly the case, the analogy nevertheless is quite close. To pursue this idea let us consider the punched card reader, one of the most common input devices on actual computers. First, a sequence of data values is punched on cards. The cards are then placed in proper order in the *input hopper* of the card reading device.

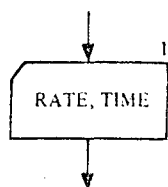
Usually the card deck is placed face down so that the bottom (first) card in the deck is the first one to be read. Each time more input data are required, another card is drawn from the bottom of the deck and its contents are read, either electro-mechanically or photo-optically. Once read, the card is dropped into an *output stacker* and thus discarded.



The information contained on a single punched card need not in principle be limited to one value. For example, depending on what a program is designed to expect, an 80-column card may contain up to eight 10-digit integers or up to twenty 4-digit integers.



When preparing data cards one is always faced with the decision of whether to utilize their capacity fully or to punch on each only the values required for the execution of one input step in the algorithm. The latter choice, although somewhat wasteful of card space, makes the data cards easier to check. Our payroll problem provides us with a case in point. If,

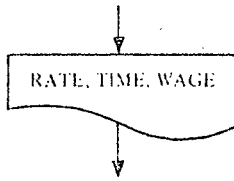


for convenience in locating data preparation errors, we restrict the contents of each card to one *rate*, *time* pair, then each time box 1 is executed, one and only one data card will be drawn off the input deck, read, and discarded. We could be more wasteful and punch only one data value on each card. Then successive cards would contain first a *rate* value, then a *time* value, and so on. In this case, each execution of box 1 must cause *two* data cards to be drawn from the deck and read, and the analogy between the input conveyer belt and the card reading activity is very close indeed. That is, when the Master Computer hits the foot treadle to bring in one data value, the actual computer will signal the card reader to draw off one card and read it.

The analogy is less apparent if we allow the data cards to contain more than one *rate*, *time* pair and if we expect the pairs to be considered in turn during successive executions of box 1. In this case, box 1 can no longer mean "read a card" but, instead, "assign respectively to *rate* and *time* values from the next data pair in the deck. If the next pair cannot both come from the current data card, then draw off another card from the deck and read it. If, on the other hand, there is at least one more data pair yet to be processed from the most recently read card, then process that data pair." This interpretation assumes that an input buffer is filled (and refilled) with data from each newly read data card and that values are assigned to *rate* and *time* by simply copying information from this buffer into the respective program variables, always remembering for future use which items in the buffer have not yet been copied.

We see, therefore, that using an input buffer guarantees that each data pair in the sequence will be processed in turn, no matter how many pairs are punched on each data card. None will be missed or skipped over. It is in this sense that the stream analogy is preserved even though the sequence of data items is grouped into arbitrary-sized *card records*.

The SIMPLOS model is a primitive machine. It has only stream-oriented input and output. After values are placed on the conveyer belt to be output and are carried to the outside environment of the user, how are they displayed? We certainly are aware that in actual computer systems all values are printed or displayed on a screen in some sort of "format" with a



particular number of columns, but the only fact we are interested in with respect to SIMPLOS is that the values *are* output.

When it comes to interpreting output boxes of a flowchart, the situation is somewhat different. The output box on the left is considered to be a command to print the current values of the three variables, RATE, TIME, and WAGE *on one line*. (If the list won't fit on one print line, more lines are used.) Furthermore, if the same output box is executed again, the next set of three values will appear on a new line below the first set. If the three variables appeared in three individual boxes instead of in one single box, then each would be printed on a separate line. Thus each execution of an output box is considered to begin printing a new line.

Importance of the Conceptual Model

No doubt you have wondered why, at the very start of our study, so much attention has been given to a conceptual model of a computer and its details. Can any model, especially this one, which seems so simple and at the kindergarten level for some readers, be that important or that valuable to us? You may develop similar doubts about the value of flowcharts as you proceed further.

The model and the flowcharts we develop are *abstractions* of real machines and of real computer programs. Once we see the connection between an abstraction and the *concrete* or real thing, we can often gain more understanding of the real thing by studying and manipulating its abstract counterpart. So, high on our list of priorities should be an attempt to understand and appreciate the connections between the abstract and the concrete. For example, in the next sections of this chapter we examine how an actual computer is organized and how it works. Thereafter, it will be easier to see why the conceptual model, no matter how silly it may have first appeared, is a very useful, simplified view of a real computer. Likewise, just as soon as we try to write and test actual computer programs, we shall see that the flowchart gives us a simpler but more revealing way to think about computer programs for most purposes.

Experience has taught us that problem solving with computers is very effective if we can work first with a simplified model of a machine and a simple descriptive algorithmic lan-

guage in which to express our problem solutions. Then it is comparatively easy to *map* these solutions over to programs written in some convenient programming language such as BASIC, FORTRAN, ALGOL, or COBOL, so that the programs can be executed on some real, convenient computer.

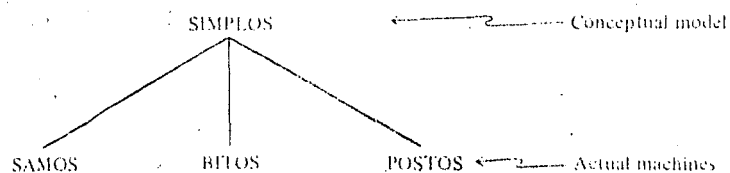
EXERCISES 1.4

1. Modify the flowchart of Figure 1.14 to provide for an overtime feature. All hours in excess of 40 are to be paid at time and a half. You will have to place a decision box somewhere in the flowchart to determine whether the worker actually put in any overtime. The formula by which his wages are computed will depend on the outcome of this test.

1.5
Actual computers

Now we are ready to examine how our conceptual model of a computer can be realized in an actual machine. For the first 25 years of modern computer history (1949 to 1974), nearly all actual machines were built following a more or less stereotyped pattern suggested by John Von Neumann (1903-1957). A prototype machine following this pattern is discussed in this and following sections. We will call it SAMOS. SAMOS is a very simple machine; that is, it is stripped down to the bare essentials. Some features of its operation are described in considerable detail, while others are glossed over. The programming of SAMOS is described briefly in Section 1.6 and in more detail in the Appendix, the purpose of which is to help the reader see a closer connection between language for expressing algorithms and machines that execute them.

It would be foolhardy to assume that SAMOS-like machines are the "be all and end all of computers," since the architecture of computers is still undergoing rapid change. For this reason, aspects of two other machines are discussed briefly in this book. One machine, called BITOS, appears later in this chapter; the other, called POSTOS, is considered in Chapter 8. Each of the three machines exhibits certain distinct characteristics for the implementation of our conceptual model, SIMPLOS.



In order to study this book it is useful, although not essential, to gain a good understanding of how an actual computer works. We suggest that you read once through the material of the next two sections without attempting to master it. As you work exercises that relate to SAMOS, or have occasion to study SAMOS in the Appendix, you will no doubt come back to the next two sections for a more careful study.

1-6 SAMOS

How are all those storage boxes of SIMPLIOS realized in actual practice? The storage of actual computers is built of electronic components in a variety of ways and with a variety of materials. Here we describe one way that a SAMOS storage can be built.

Core Storage



FIGURE 1-16
A magnetic core.

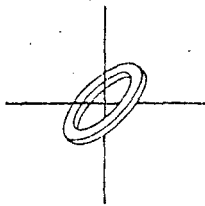


FIGURE 1-17
Where two wires cross.

SAMOS storage, packaged in a rectangular box, is an arrangement of tiny magnetic doughnuts as small as $1/40$ of an inch in diameter. These doughnuts are called *cores* (Figure 1-16). The cores are laid out in 61 horizontal layers or trays called *core planes*. On each of these layers, wires are strung evenly in two directions like the lines on a sheet of graph paper. There are 100 wires in each direction. At each point where two wires cross, the wires are threaded through a core, like the thread passing through the eye of a needle (Figure 1-17). (Still other wires are threaded diagonally through each core within each plane. Their function is not important to the discussion that follows, and they are therefore ignored.)

Figure 1-18 is a picture of a core plane from an actual computer built in the mid-1960s. Since there are 100×100 crossings in each SAMOS core layer, we see that there are 10,000 cores in each core plane and hence $61 \times 10,000 = 610,000$ cores in the entire SAMOS store (storage).

These cores are capable of being magnetized in either the clockwise or the counterclockwise sense (Figure 1-19). Because of this a core can store information. We could think of clockwise magnetization as meaning "yes" and counterclockwise as meaning "no." We will instead think of clockwise as standing for "0" and counterclockwise for "1." In any event, the information contained in the magnetization of a core is the smallest

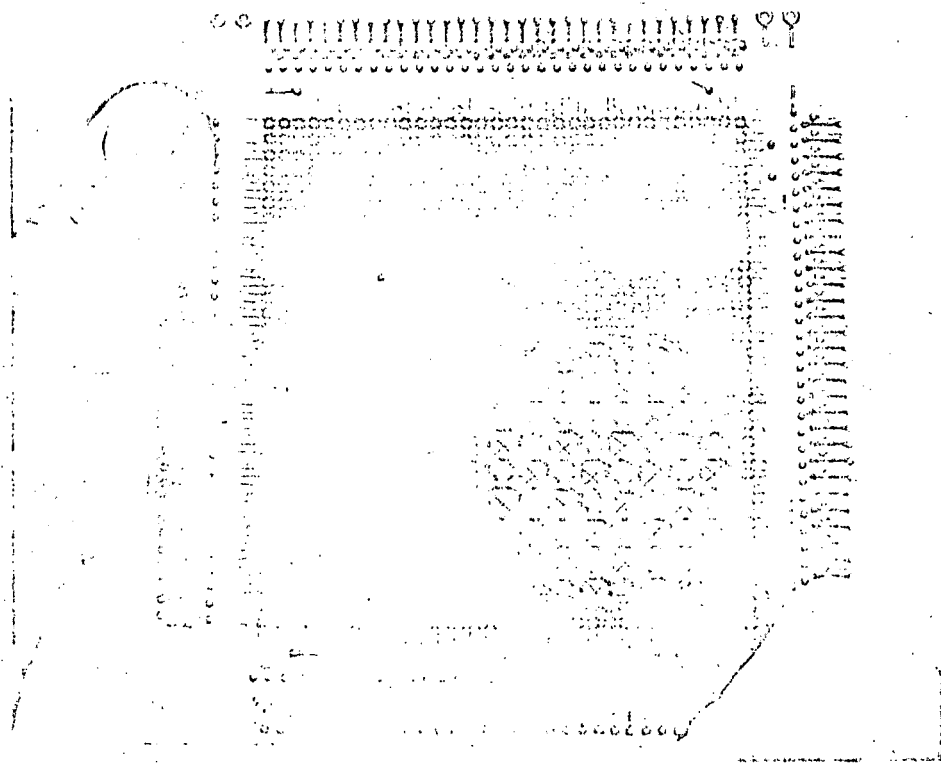


FIGURE 1-18
An actual core plane.
(Courtesy of IBM).

unit of information and is called a *bit* of information. We see that one core can store one binary digit, 0 or 1, but a collection of cores can store a very large number of bits. We will discuss this idea later, after a digression on how the cores get their magnetism.

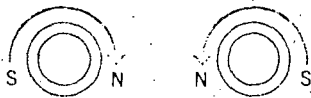


FIGURE 1-19
Magnetization of cores.

First, you must know that a pulse of electric current moving along a wire generates a magnetic field running around the wire, as shown in Figure 1-20. The strength of the magnetic field is strongest near the wire and dies away as we move further from the wire.

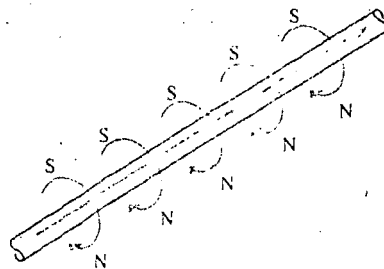
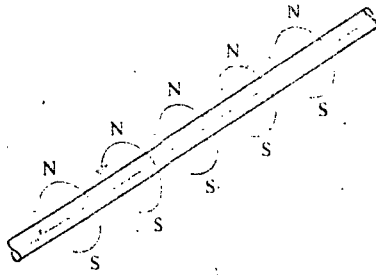


FIGURE 1-20
A magnetic field resulting from
a pulse of electric current.

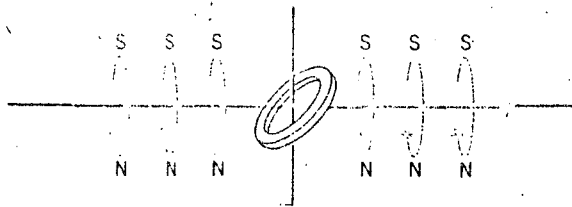
If the direction of the current is reversed, the direction of the magnetic field is also reversed (Figure 1-21).

FIGURE 1-21
Reversing the direction of the magnetic field.



Thus, when a pulse of current passes through a core, the core will become magnetized in one direction or the other, depending on the direction of the current (Figure 1-22).

FIGURE 1-22
A core in a magnetic field.



But how can we manage to magnetize just one core instead of the whole string of cores (Figure 1-23) through which the pulse passes? The answer lies in the magnetic properties of the material from which the core is made. In this material,

FIGURE 1-23
A row of cores in a magnetic field.



if the pulse is too weak, the direction of magnetization of the core is only *temporarily* altered, and after the pulse of current has passed by, the core merely returns to its former magnetic condition, whatever that was.

On the other hand, if the current is strong enough, the core remains magnetized in the sense established by the direction of the current, regardless of the former magnetic condition of the core. The situation is analogous to trying to throw a ball from the ground to the flat roof of a building. If you have enough power in your throw, the ball will land on the roof; otherwise it will bounce against the wall and fall back to the ground.

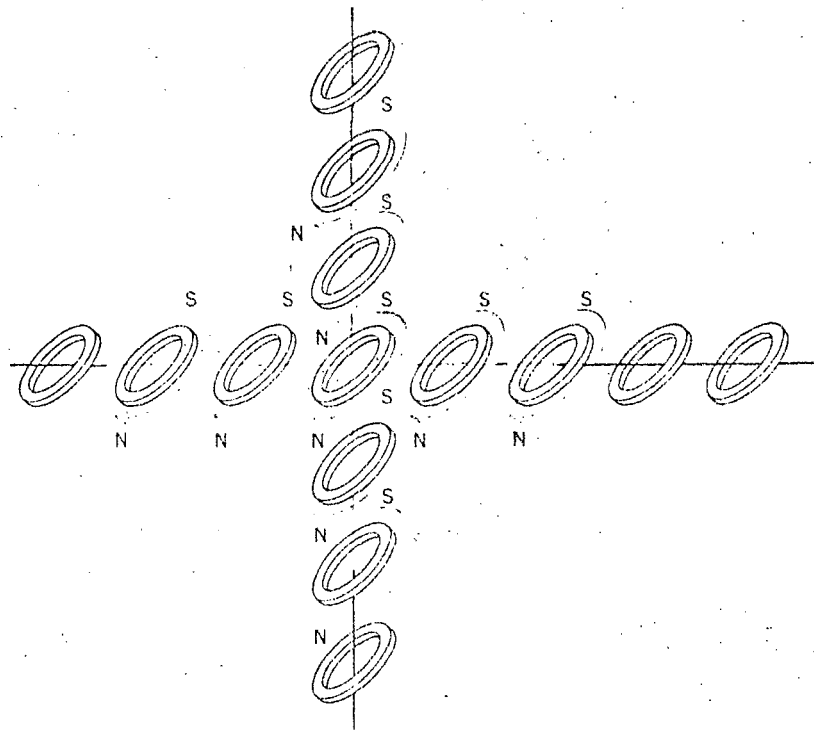


FIGURE 1-24
Doubling the magnetic field at
the wire crossing.

The strength of the pulses is carefully regulated so that one pulse is not sufficient to permanently magnetize a core, but two pulses acting simultaneously will exceed the threshold strength and result in permanent magnetization. Thus, pulses passing along two of the wires (Figure 1-24) will permanently magnetize just the one core that is located where the wires cross.

SIMPLOS and SAMOS Stores Compared

Let's leave the individual core planes and consider the entire store of the SAMOS computer, composed of the 61 core planes (Figure 1-25). Each vertical column of 61 cores constitutes a *computer word*. Thus, the storage of the computer is composed of 10,000 words. These words have addresses that are four-digit numbers from 0000 to 9999 and, like house numbers, the addresses identify the words. Each of the 10,000 dots suggested on the top of the box is the top of a vertical column of 61 cores (or a word). The method of assigning the addresses is indicated in the figure.

Each of these words corresponds to a storage box in our conceptual SIMPLOS model. For each variable in the flow-

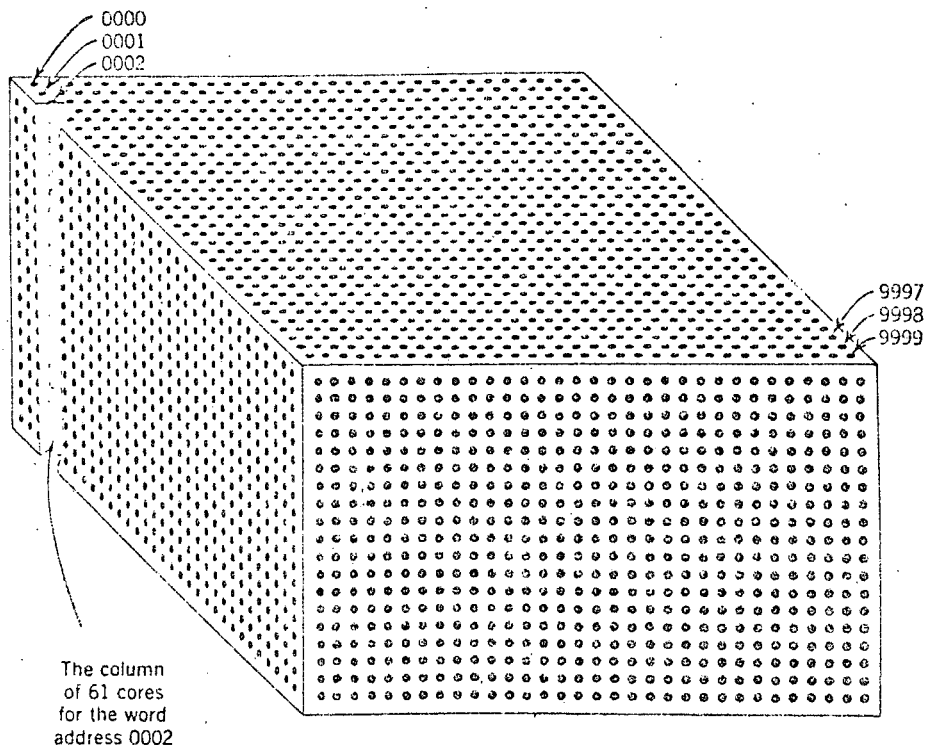


FIGURE 1-25
Cores of one computer
word.

chart there is a SAMOS word with a definite address. The word contains a certain pattern of bits determined by the directions of magnetization of its cores and representing the value of that variable. "Assigning a value to a variable" is effected by putting a certain pattern of bits into a word (Figure 1-26).

When we say "the Master Computer tells the Assigner to assign the value 1597 to the variable SUM," what actually takes place is this. The variable SUM is represented inside the machine by means of its address; suppose it is 0103. Now all the $61 \times 2 = 122$ wires passing through cores in the word addressed 0103 are energized with pulses of current in the proper directions so as to achieve the pattern of bits representing the number 1597. In a modern computer this assignment process can be performed in a fraction of a microsecond; a microsecond is a millionth of a second.

Characters

In the binary system of representation, a number such as 1597 is coded as a string of 1's and 0's, for example:

1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1

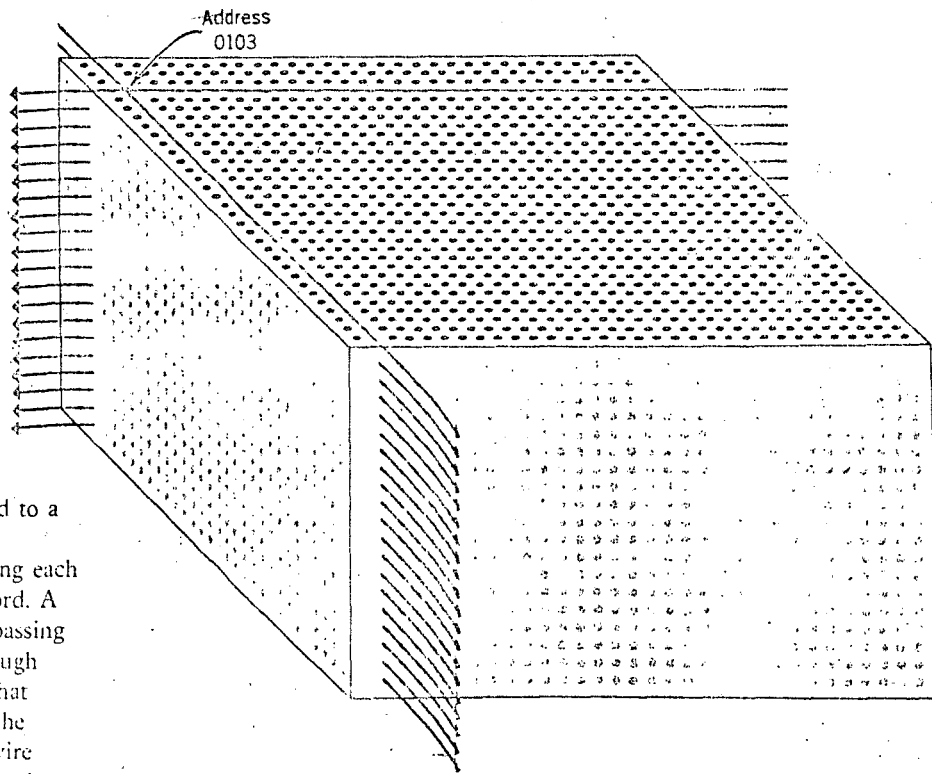
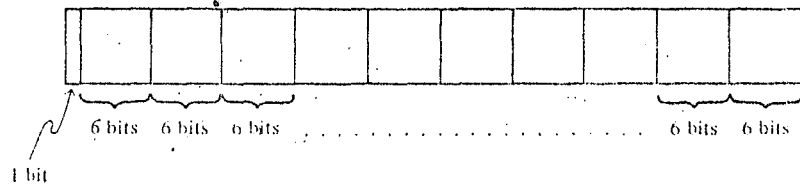


FIGURE 1-26
 A bit pattern is assigned to a computer word by appropriately magnetizing each of the cores for that word. A core is magnetized by passing an electronic pulse through each of the two wires that intersect at that core. The diagram identifies the wire pairs that must be selected to assign a bit pattern for the word at address 0103.

For SAMOS any string would be preceded by a string of zeros to fill out all the bit positions of the word of storage. While numbers are coded in binary form in many computers, binary is certainly not the only choice. In a machine such as SAMOS, for instance, computation is carried out in the decimal system, which means that bit patterns in a word of storage must be coded to represent decimal digits instead of binary digits. Moreover, we want to store letters as well as decimal digits. For this reason, we subdivide our 61-bit SAMOS words into 11 character positions as shown below.



The first position (one bit only) is reserved for a code that designates the sign, + or -. Here 0 is sufficient to represent the + character and 1 signifies the - character. Each of the other positions consists of six bits and can be used to store

Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code
0	00 0000	A	01 0001	J	10 0001	□	11 0000
1	00 0001	B	01 0010	K	10 0010	S	11 0010
2	00 0010	C	01 0011	L	10 0011	T	11 0011
3	00 0011	D	01 0100	M	10 0100	U	11 0100
4	00 0100	E	01 0101	N	10 0101	V	11 0101
5	00 0101	F	01 0110	O	10 0110	W	11 0110
6	00 0110	G	01 0111	P	10 0111	X	11 0111
7	00 0111	H	01 1000	Q	10 1000	Y	11 1000
8	00 1000	I	01 1001	R	10 1001	Z	11 1001
9	00 1001						

FIGURE 1-27
Character code

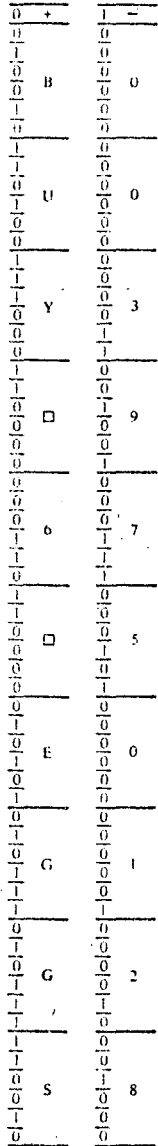


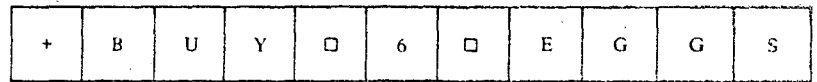
FIGURE 1-28
Detailed bit patterns for two computer words.

a digit or a letter; that is, *character*, according to the code shown in Figure 1-27.

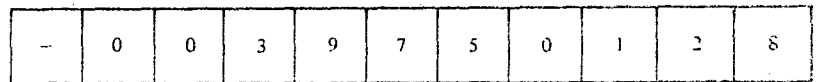
For each group of six bits, 2^6 or 64 distinct combinations of zeros and ones are possible. In Figure 1-27 we have used up only 37 of the 64 combinations possible with a six-bit code. This leaves 27 additional combinations for other special symbols such as +, ≥, and the like. One of the 37 combinations of special interest is the blank space, □, which is coded as

1 1 0 0 0 0

With this code you can see that the two 61-bit computer words displayed vertically in Figure 1-28 turn out to be



and



From now on we shall represent our SAMOS computer words as strings of 11 characters instead of strings of 61 bits. In a number of conventional computers of similar design eight instead of six bits are grouped to represent character codes, making it possible to distinguish among a considerably larger set of characters than is the case in SAMOS. This distinction, however, has absolutely no effect on the principles of character representation and manipulation that occur in ensuing chapters.

The construction of the main storage for any actual computer is of great interest mainly to computer engineers and designers. Storage components currently are built from various

types of physical devices and materials, including magnetic cores, magnetic thin films, and transistor flipflops. There is considerable variety in the circuitry used to organize and utilize such components and in the methods of packaging and miniaturizing them. Their physical characteristics, such as size, speed of access for storing and retrieving information, energy requirements to operate them, and cost of fabrication, vary also. Nevertheless, schemes similar to that used in the word-organized core storage of SAMOS have been used to assemble and incorporate all of these types of storage units into conventional computer systems. You might be surprised at how much understanding of this subject you can gain with a relatively small investment of study time. (See, for example, one of the references on this topic in the reading list at the end of this book.)

SAMOS Processing Unit

Now that we have seen how the SAMOS storage is structured, we will consider how the storage is used in executing an algorithm.

Our computer has several other components besides the store. These are shown in Figure 1-29.

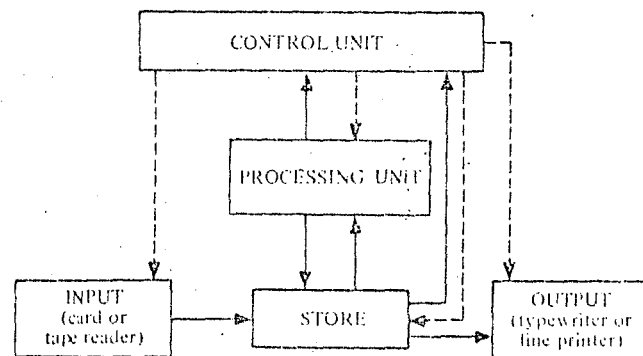
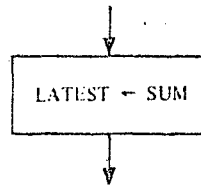


FIGURE 1-29
The principal components of SAMOS.

The solid lines indicate the directions in which values or instructions may be transferred. The dashed lines indicate the exercise of control. The control unit and the processing unit perform the duties of the "Master Computer" and his helpers.

An important part of the processing unit is the *accumulator*. This special computer word holds the result of each arithmetic operation.

Furthermore, a simple assignment such as

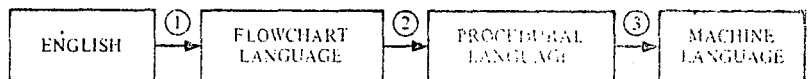


is carried out by first obtaining a copy of the value of SUM, placing it in the accumulator, and then copying the value in the accumulator into the computer word belonging to the variable LATEST. The value of SUM is unchanged in this process. Notice, however, that values to be input or output do not pass through the SAMOS accumulator but go directly into and out of storage.

When the control unit receives and interprets an *order*, some computer operation is activated. The orders are in the form of coded instructions stored in the computer; we will see about them presently.

Machine Language

Getting an algorithm into a form a machine can execute involves several translations that we can represent as follows:



You have already had a little experience with the first translation step. The second translation step is the process of converting a flow chart into a procedural language such as FORTRAN, ALGOL, COBOL, or PL/I. You learn how to do this in your language manual. If approached properly, this translation step is quite mechanical and can be performed by a person (or by a machine) who has no idea what the algorithm is all about.

In many computers of advanced design, the third translation process can be omitted because the machine's language and the procedural language are effectively identical. When the third translation step is necessary, and it is for a computer such as SAMOS, the process is completely mechanical and is normally done by the computer itself. This process is called *compiling*.

It is not necessary right now to know how compiling is done, but it may be interesting to know the reason for doing it. Each make and style of computer has its own language—that is, its own set of instructions that it can understand. Use of a procedural language allows us to avoid a tower of Babel in which a programmer would have to learn a new language for each machine he wishes to use. A procedural language constitutes a kind of “Esperanto” that enables a programmer to communicate with many different machines in the same language. Moreover, a procedural language is generally much easier to learn to use than machine language. The programmer merely prepares, say, a FORTRAN program on punched cards and feeds it into the computer, which “compiles” a sequence of machine language instructions. This sequence, called a *machine language program*, is then placed in the computer storage. In many systems the programmer may transmit his program to the computer storage by typing it a line at a time, using a typewriter or other keyboard instrument to serve as the input device of the computer system.

Sequencing of Computer Instructions

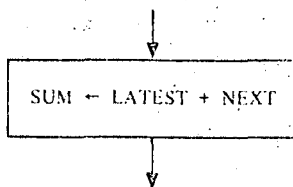


FIGURE 1-30
A flowchart box.

Successive SAMOS instructions are placed in consecutively addressed storage locations starting with 0000. After the computer has executed an instruction, the control unit will always take the next instruction from the next address, unless there is a *branching* instruction providing a different address from which to take the next instruction.

To see how this works, consider the instruction taken from the Fibonacci sequence flowchart (Figure 1-11*b*), shown here in Figure 1-30.

The procedural language equivalent will not look much different. Thus, in FORTRAN this instruction would appear as

SUM = LATEST + NEXT

and in ALGOL as

SUM := LATEST + NEXT

and in APL as

SUM ← LATEST + NEXT

and in BASIC as

LET SUM = LATEST + NEXT

and in COBOL as

COMPUTE SUM EQUALS LATEST
PLUS NEXT

```

+ LDA 000 0101
+ ADD 000 0100
+ STO 000 0102

```

FIGURE 1-31
SAMOS instructions for
Figure 1-30.

In the SAMOS machine language, a variable cannot be referred to by *name* but only by the *address* in storage associated with the variable. Suppose that NEXT, LATEST, and SUM have been given, respectively, locations 0100, 0101, and 0102. Then in the SAMOS language, the flowchart instruction translates to a sequence of three machine instructions, as shown in Figure 1-31.

These instructions have the form of 11-character words, although the first character is unimportant and the fifth, sixth, and seventh are of no interest to us here. The type of *operation* to be performed is coded using the three letters in positions two, three, and four, and the four-digit numeral at the right is the *address* associated with that operation.

The letters LDA stand for "LoaD the Accumulator." The whole instruction

```
+ L D A 0 0 0 0 1 0 1
```

means, "Make a copy of the value stored in address 0101 without altering the original, and store the copy in the accumulator." Clearly, this is the function of the Reader in our conceptual model. We will not go into the details of the electronics involved in carrying out this instruction. It is sufficient to know that when a copy of that instruction is brought to the control unit, certain switches are set by the control unit that allow a pulse current to pass through the cores of the word 0101. The magnetized cores cause a change in the current that, in turn, allows a copy to be made.

The second instruction in Figure 1-31 means, "ADD the value in the word addressed 0100 to the value already in the accumulator and place the result in the accumulator." The third instruction means, "Copy (or STOrE) the value in the accumulator *into* the word addressed 0102." Executing a STO instruction is analogous to the work of the Assigner in our conceptual model. Speeds vary from machine to machine, but in modern computers, the time required to carry out such instructions is usually on the order of a millionth of a second.

A Complete SAMOS Program

We are almost able to translate the entire flowchart for the Fibonacci sequence algorithm (repeated here in Figure 1-32) into SAMOS language. First note, however, that constants never appear explicitly in SAMOS instructions. Instead, an

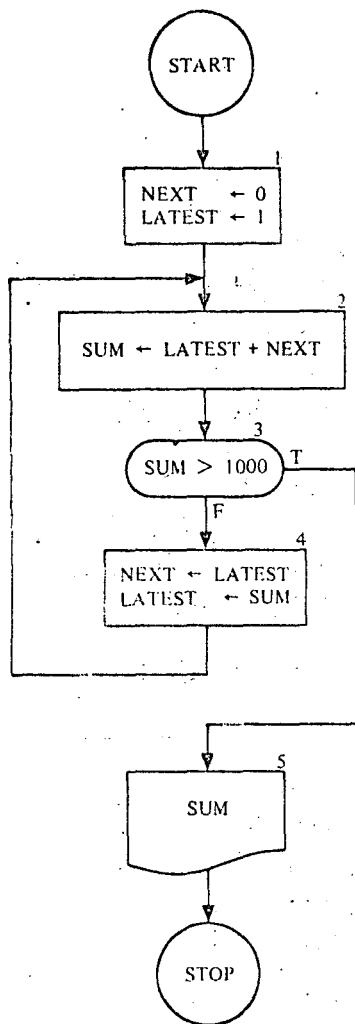


FIGURE 1-32 Fibonacci sequence algorithm.

instruction to fetch a constant must refer to the storage address where the desired value may be found. Of course, this also applies to variables. Thus part of the compiling process involves providing storage addresses for the constants (as well as for the variables) appearing in the program. We allocate the locations 0017, 0018, and 0019 for the constants 0, 1, and 1000 appearing in the flowchart and specify the proper values for these words.

We assume that the storage locations 0100, 0101, and 0102 have been allocated for the variables NEXT, LATEST, and SUM, but that no values have been placed in these words. As execution of the SAMOS program for the Fibonacci algorithm starts, the state of storage is shown in Figure 1-33. This figure

Storage Location (Address)	±	Operation Code			Address			Flowchart Equivalent					
		1	2	3	4	5	6		7	8	9	10	11
0000		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	0	1	7		1a NEXT ← 0
0001		S	T	O	0	0	0	0	1	0	0		
0002		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	0	1	8		1b LATEST ← 1
0003		S	T	O	0	0	0	0	1	0	1		
0004		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	1	0	1		2 SUM ← LATEST + NEXT
0005		A	D	D	0	0	0	0	1	0	0		
0006		S	T	O	0	0	0	0	1	0	2		
0007		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	0	1	9		3 SUM > 1000
0008		S	U	R	0	0	0	0	1	0	2		
0009		B	M	I	0	0	0	0	0	1	5		
0010		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	1	0	1		4a NEXT ← LATEST
0011		S	T	O	0	0	0	0	1	0	0		
0012		L	D	A	0	0	0	0	1	0	2		4b LATEST ← SUM
0013		S	T	O	0	0	0	0	1	0	1		
0014		B	R	U	0	0	0	0	0	0	4		Arrow from flowchart box 4 to box 2
0015		W	W	D	0	0	0	0	1	0	2		5 SUM
0016		H	L	I	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		STOP
0017		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		The constant 0
0018		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1		The constant 1
0019		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0		The constant 1000
0100													The variable NEXT
0101													The variable LATEST
0102													The variable SUM

FIGURE 1-33 Fibonacci sequence algorithm. The ± column and columns 5, 6, and 7 may be left empty on lines containing instructions.

also illustrates a "coding form" on which one might have written the SAMOS program (gray-colored information). You will notice several new SAMOS operations not previously seen. These are explained in the following discussion.

Discussion

The instructions in storage addresses 0004, 0005, and 0006 have already been discussed. Before looking at the other instructions, remember that the variables are in storage locations 0100 through 0102.

From previous discussions you should see that the instruction found at 0000 will, when executed, copy the value in 0017 (i.e., the number 0) into the accumulator. Next, the instruction in 0001 copies the value in the accumulator into the word at address 0100. Together these steps are equivalent to assigning 0 to the variable NEXT. Similarly, the instructions in addresses 0002 and 0003 are equivalent to assigning the value 1 to the variable LATEST.

Remember that the control unit executes the instructions in order until it comes to a branching instruction. The first branching instruction is found in address 0009, reading

	B	M	I	0	0	0	0	0	1	5
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

The code BMI stands for "Branch on a MInus." The whole instruction means, "If the value in the accumulator is negative, go to address 0015 for the next instruction; otherwise, go on as usual to the next numbered address (0010)." We will see shortly that the value in the accumulator at this time is just

$$1000 - \text{SUM}$$

so that the value in the accumulator will be negative only in the case that

$$\text{SUM} > 1000$$

is true. In this case, the branching instruction sends us to address 0015, where we see the instruction

	W	W	D	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

which means, "Write the Word in address 0102." This amounts to printing out the value of SUM.

Now why is it that when the instruction in address 0009 is reached, the number in the accumulator is

1000 - SUM

Well, on looking at the instruction in address 0007, we see that it instructs us to load the accumulator with the contents of address 0019, that is, to put the number 1000 in the accumulator. The next instruction, the one in 0008, tells us to "subtract the contents of address 0102 from the accumulator and put the result in the accumulator." Since the contents of 0102 are just the value of SUM, this amounts to the placing of

1000 - SUM

in the accumulator.

You should be able to verify for yourself that the instructions in addresses 0010 through 0013 accomplish the assignments indicated in the right-hand column of Figure 1-33.

The instruction in address 0014 needs to be described.

	B	R	U	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

BRU stands for "BRanch Unconditionally." The meaning of the entire instruction is, "Go back to address 0004 for the next instruction and continue in order from there." You can see that this corresponds to the arrow from flowchart box 4 leading back to flowchart box 2, where we repeat the summing step.

The instruction in 0016, of course, stands for HaLT and amounts to stopping the computing process.

You can best understand all this by tracing through the SAMOS program by hand, keeping a record of the following details.

1. Which instruction is being executed.
2. The value in the accumulator.
3. The values in the addresses 0100, 0101, and 0102 (the values of NEXT, LATEST, and SUM).

Notice that the instructions in addresses 0000 through 0016 are never altered, nor are the contents of the location 0017 through 0019 (the constants 0, 1, and 1000).

EXERCISES 1.6

- Construct a list of SAMOS instructions for the flowchart in Figure 1.14. You will need two additional types of instructions. The first is

OPERATION						ADDRESS				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	R	W	D	0	0	0	1	0	0	5

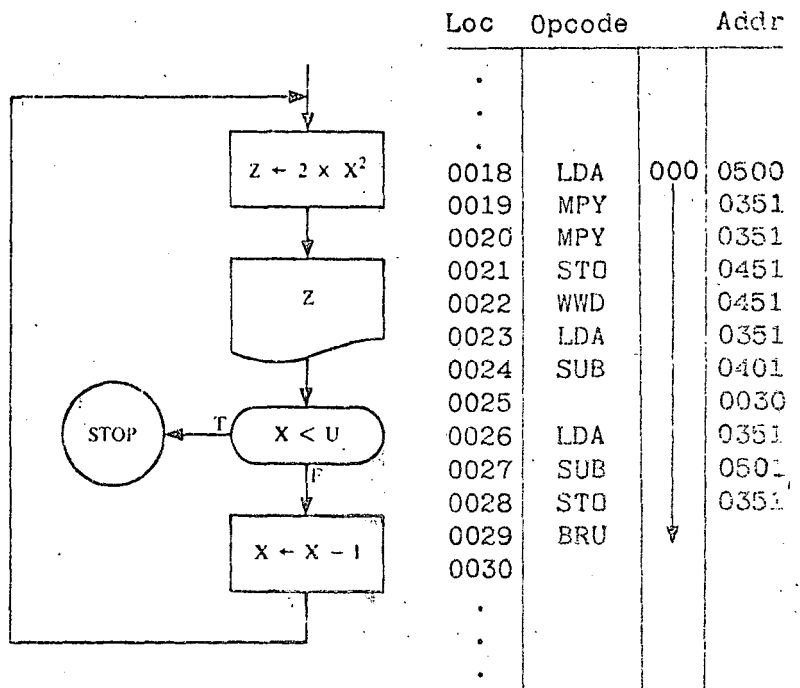
which is an instruction to read a value from a card into the computer word addressed 1005.

The second is

	M	P	Y	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

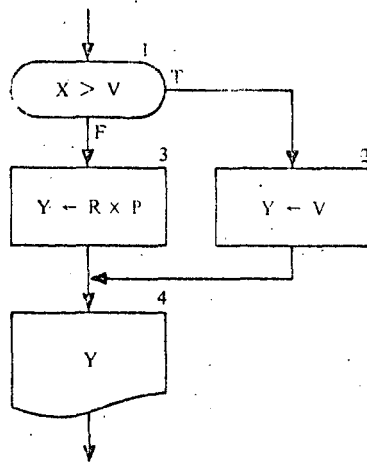
which is an instruction to multiply the value in the accumulator by the value in address 1023 and put the result in the accumulator. (Of course, in the address part of these instructions, we may put any address we wish.)

- This question relates to the flowchart fragment and proposed SAMOS translation of it shown below. For each of your answers the assumed objective is to make the proposed SAMOS fragment consistent with the given flowchart fragment.



43 ALGORITHMS AND COMPUTERS

- (a) With what memory location must the variable X be associated?
 - (b) What operand address is needed for the BRU instruction that is shown at location 0029?
 - (c) What should be the operation code for the instruction at location 0025?
 - (d) What operation code is needed for the instruction located at 0030?
3. This question relates to the flowchart fragment and proposed SAMOS translation of it shown below. For each of your answers, assume the objective is to make the proposed SAMOS fragment consistent with the given flowchart fragment.

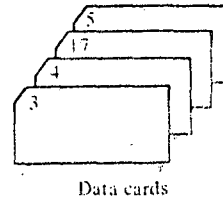


Loc	Opcode	Addr	
0017	LDA	000	0100
0018	SUB	000	0200
0019	BMI	000	0024
0020	LDA	000	0105
0021	MPY	000	0107
0022	STO	000	
0023	BRU	000	
0024	LDA	000	0100
0025	STO	000	0201
0026	WWD	000	0201

- (a) With what location must the variable X be associated?
 - (b) What is the operand address that should be filled in for the BRU instruction shown at location 0023?
 - (c) What should be the value of the address field for the STO instruction at location 0022?
 - (d) If at location 0022 the STO were replaced by a BRU operation code, what then would be the appropriate value for the address field?
4. This question relates to the following SAMOS program and the four data cards displayed to the right of it; you are to assume that the given SAMOS program executes with the data cards shown. The DIV (divide) instruction produces an *integer* quotient (see Appendix A).

```

0000 RWD 000 0012
0001 RWD 000 0013
0002 LDA 000 0012
0003 DIV 000 0013
0004 MPY 000 0013
0005 STO 000 0014
0006 LDA 000 0012
0007 SUB 000 0014
0008 STO 000 0014
0009 WWD 000 0014
0010 BRU 000 0000
0011 HLT 000 0000
    
```



SAMOS program

- (a) Which of the following is a *false* statement?
- (1) The instruction at 0011 will never be reached.
 - (2) Only two values will be printed.
 - (3) All four data cards will be read.
 - (4) The first value printed will be 3.
 - (5) Three values will be printed.
- (b) Which of the following is a *true* statement?
- (1) The program will halt whenever the result of a division is zero.
 - (2) The instruction at 0011 would be executed using the given set of data if the instruction at 0010 were revised to BMI 000 0000.
 - (3) This program inputs two numbers, selects the larger, and prints its value.
 - (4) All three of the above statements are false.

Problems 5 through 7. The following three problems involve programs to be written in SAMOS machine language and run on a computer using a SAMOS simulator. If you do not have a computer available, your final result will be a SAMOS coding form showing your program.

5. Draw a flowchart and write and run a SAMOS program to find the areas (to the nearest integer) of circles with each of the following radii: 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . , 10, 11, 12. Use $\pi = 22/7$. The output is to consist of each radius value followed by the associated area, that is,

```

0 ←----- First radius
0 ←----- First area
1 ←----- Second radius
3 ←----- Second area
    
```

This SAMOS program should not execute any *input* steps. Storage locations will be required for instructions and for all constants, including 22, 7, the current radius, 1 (to increment the radius to the next value), and a number (11, 12, or 13, depending on your particular flow chart) to test against to determine when to branch to *halt*.

Question Will SAMOS give the same result when you compute $(22/7) \times r^2$ as when you compute $(22 \times r^2)/7$? If not, which gives a better result? Why?

6. Draw a flowchart and write and run a SAMOS program to do the following:

For the values from 1 to 10 inclusive (i.e., $1 \leq X \leq 10$), evaluate the following mathematical expression:

$$F = 5X^2 + 10X + 6$$

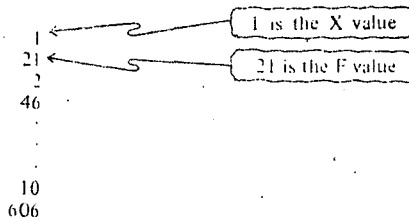
Print out the value for X and F after each evaluation.

Example The first value of X will be 1. For this value,

$$F = 5(1) + 10(1) + 6$$

$$F = 5 + 10 + 6 = 21$$

Thus the numbers 1 and 21 will be printed out, and F will then be evaluated for $X = 2, 3, \dots, 10$. The complete output will consist of 20 numbers:



Note Additional Information for Problem 6

1. No data cards will be needed for this program.
 2. The values from 1 to 10 need not all be stored at the beginning of the program.
 3. You must include some way to terminate your program after the final value has been processed and printed.
7. Draw a flowchart using variables C, X, TALLY, SUM, and AVG, and write and run a SAMOS program to do the following:
- (a) Read a value for the variable C.
 - (b) Read a value for the variable X.
 - (c) Check to see whether X equals 9999. If X does not equal 9999 then check whether X equals C. If X equals C, then return to

step (b). If X does not equal C, then add one to a counter called TALLY and add X to the variable SUM and then return to step (b).

If X equals 9999, then no more data cards are to be read. At this point print out the values of TALLY and SUM. Compute AVG, the quotient of SUM and TALLY ($AVG = \text{SUM} / \text{TALLY}$). Print the value of AVG.

Note Additional Information for Problem 7

1. In your flowchart the average will be a variable AVG. The variable TALLY will hold a count of how many values of X are *not* equal to C. The assignment

$$\text{TALLY} \leftarrow \text{TALLY} + 1$$

will be needed. The sum of the values of X not equal to C will be called SUM. What should be the initial values of TALLY and SUM?

2. The value 9999 is called a *sentinel* value. Its purpose is to indicate that all the values of X have been read and processed. (In computer language a sentinel value is said to represent the end of file, i.e., the end of data.) Therefore, your data deck will consist of a value for C, the given values for X, and the value 9999. (See Section 2 · 2 for additional discussion of sentinels.)

3. In SAMOS the only conditional branch instruction is BMI (Branch On Minus). The programmer faces a problem when he needs to check whether the values of two variables are equal or whether the value of a variable is equal to some constant value. The following is one method of determining whether the values of the variables A and B are equal. First, subtract the value of B from the value of A and, if the result is not negative, subtract the value of A from the value of B. If this result is not negative, we can conclude that the values of A and B are equal.

Examples

(a) $A = 6$ and $B = 9$

$$A - B = 6 - 9 = -3$$

Result: $A \neq B$ since $A - B$ is a negative number.

(b) $A = 5$ and $B = 5$

$$A - B = 5 - 5 = 0$$

$$B - A = 5 - 5 = 0$$

Result: $A = B$ since neither subtraction produced a negative number.

(c) $A = 4$ and $B = 3$

$$A - B = 4 - 3 = 1$$

$$B - A = 3 - 4 = -1$$

Result: $A \neq B$ since $B - A$ is a negative number.

4. The data for Problem 7 are as follows:

15	← This is the value for the variable C.
5	
20	
21	The remaining data values are for the variable X.
3	
10	
15	
12	
17	
9999	

1.7 BITOS

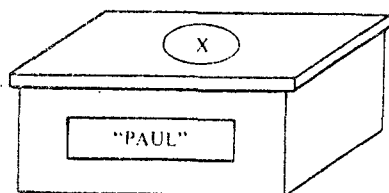
Most of the storage capacity of a 61-bit SAMOS word goes unused when a small integer, for instance, 2, is represented. Conversely, even though a number is known to very great precision, a 61-bit word has a fixed capacity to represent digits. Character strings, such as names and addresses, for instance, vary greatly in length. In general, information comes in many sizes and lengths, and it would be exceedingly convenient to have computer storage responsive to this fact.

The SAMOS language is heavily influenced (i.e., constrained) by its *word-organized* storage system. We briefly mention here another kind of computer storage called BITOS (BIT-Organized SAMOS), whose storage is structured in a more flexible and natural way—natural for the processing of different types of information. The BITOS storage is best thought of as a single sequence of bits instead of a single sequence of words that are, in turn, sequences of bits. For example, a BITOS store roughly equivalent to the SAMOS store contains 610,000 bits whose addresses are 0 through 609,999 respectively. To fetch a unit of information of some known length, one must specify the “bit address” of the beginning of the desired information unit together with its “bit length.” Thus,

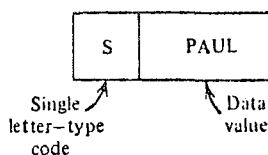
op code	address	length
LDA	24972	39

is the way one might write out a BITOS instruction to load the accumulator with a data value 39 bits long beginning at bit location 24972.

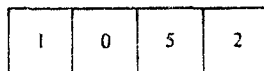
The information containers in a BITOS machine resemble the storage boxes of the conceptual model SIMPLoS in that the capacity of the containers is arbitrary.



There is a second important way in which the containers of SIMPLOS and BITOS resemble one another. In both cases, values stored in these containers are *self-describing*. Note that the SIMPLOS Reader is able to deduce that a storage box contains a character string value as opposed, say, to a numerical value, because he is able to see the quotation marks. The fetching mechanism of BITOS can convey the same type of information to its processing unit because the data object in each container consists of two parts: a code that describes the type or nature of the value and the data value itself. For example, suppose the container associated with X, is located at bit address 3901, and suppose character coding for the BITOS store employs the same 6-bit representation used in SAMOS. We might expect to see at that location:



where the type code S stands for string. Then, to represent a string of 4 characters would require 24 bits for the string itself and 6 more bits (for the letter S) to identify the 24 bits as a string. For a string of 91 characters, 546 bits are needed for the string and 6 more for the type code—or 552 bits in all. If a nonnegative integer variable, AGE, never requires more than three digits we can picture the corresponding BITOS container as



for a data value of 52. Here the type code I denotes *integer*.

To recapitulate, in BITOS one defines the size of the container to fit the need. That is, the store is divided up into containers that reflect their actual use. Every reference to a container consists of the bit address of the container and its length. The container itself holds as part of the data object a code that makes the remainder of the information in the container self-describing. Each time a new container is needed, a section of the store large enough to hold the required number of bits is "partitioned" for this purpose. When this container

is no longer needed, that section of store and others like it are repartitioned, that is, reused, typically in different container sizes, to suit new needs. To make an analogy with SIMPLoS, imagine that all storage boxes are constructed to fit dimensions of the data values they are to contain. (The Affixer who pastes the sticker on the storage box can also adjust the size of the box if necessary.)

1.8 Floating-point representation

Only a few of the ideas about SAMOS and BITOS need to be remembered. One of the important ideas is the sequential manner in which the computer works, that is, the step-by-step way in which the computer performs its tasks. The order in which the tasks are performed is just as important as what is accomplished.

Another property of computers that we must understand is the *finite word length*. We have seen that SAMOS words consist of 10 characters and a sign, so that the largest number representable in this coding system is

$$+9,999,999,999$$

a rather large number, but still finite. Although BITOS store may use very "long" containers, they are still finite, so the limitation on what can be represented, although less constricting, still exists in principle. From a practical viewpoint, integer containers, whether in a SAMOS-like or in a BITOS-like store, are sometimes very unsuitable. Consider a variable that, from time to time, has various values assigned to it, sometimes very small integers and at other times very large integers. The storage container for such a variable cannot always be used efficiently if it must be large enough for the largest possible integer value that will be assigned to it.

To cover this situation there are other ways of coding numbers that not only solve this problem but also allow us to work with real numbers as well as integers. One of the most common of these alternate codings is *floating-point* form, which is related to the so-called "scientific notation."

To see how this works, recall that any decimal numeral such as

$$-382.519$$

can be expressed as

$$-.382519 \times 10^3$$

in which there is a decimal point (just after the sign, if any) followed by a string of digits (the first not zero) and multiplied by a suitable power of 10. We can code numbers in this way by reserving three character positions for the exponent. The result is shown in Figure 1-34 for -382.519 .

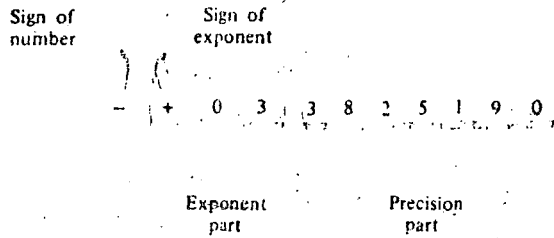


FIGURE 1-34 Anatomy of a floating-point number for a fixed-word size store.

Some examples of how to code numbers including integers in this system are given in Figure 1-35. In this figure, we see that the 8-digit representation of π , as given in the first column of the third entry, has to be chopped to 7 digits of precision because of space requirements. The same holds true for $1/3$ and $11/7$ at the bottom of the table. Thus we see that in a computer even a simple fraction such as $1/3$ cannot be represented exactly, but only to a close approximation. This characteristic of "finite word length" presents important prob-

Number	Floating-Point Form	Coding of Floating-Point Form
4	$.4 \times 10^1$	+ + 014000000
-999999000	$-.999999 \times 10^9$	- + 099999990
3.1415926	$.31415926 \times 10^1$	+ + 013141592
-273.14	$-.27314 \times 10^3$	- + 032731400
.0008761	$.8761 \times 10^{-3}$	+ - 038761000
.73	$.73 \times 10^0$	+ + 007300000
$\frac{1}{3}$	$.33333333 \times 10^0$	+ + 003333333
$\frac{11}{7}$	$.157142857 \times 10^1$	+ + 041571428

FIGURE 1-35 Floating-point coding of numbers in a fixed word-sized store.

lems that will be discussed in various places in this text, especially Chapter 11.

In floating-point form we can represent large numbers, but for computers such as SAMOS with fixed-word size stores the price we pay is giving up three places of precision. Were SAMOS to use floating-point numbers, the largest number representable in floating-point form would be:

+	+	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

which represents the number

999,999,900,000,000,000,000,000,000
 000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000
 000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000
 000,000,000,000,000,000

Similarly, there is a smallest positive number that could be represented:

+	-	9	9	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

.000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000
 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000
 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000
 000 000 000 000 000 000 1

which is very small, indeed.

Coding in floating-point form for a BITOS-like machine could be quite similar to the scheme shown in Figure 1-35. On the other hand, since the size of the container may be chosen to fit the particular "needs" of a given variable, the size of the precision part could easily be permitted to vary as required. For that matter, the size of the exponent part could also be expanded or contracted to fit the need.

In summary, both SAMOS-like and BITOS-like machines are often built to operate on numbers coded in floating-point form. However, in our discussions of SAMOS, in particular in the description given in the Appendix, the machine is initially described as if it were not capable of dealing with numbers coded in floating-point form, but only with numbers coded as integers.

EXERCISE 1-8

- Several million pocket-sized electronic calculators are now being produced annually. They are becoming relatively accessible to the average student. Many of these calculators, such as the one shown in Figure 1-36, use floating point arithmetic.

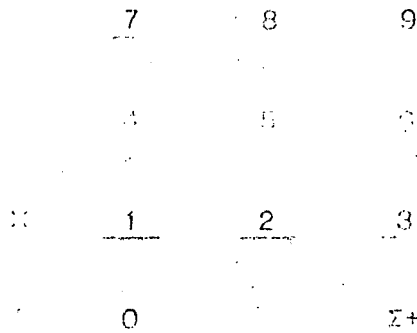


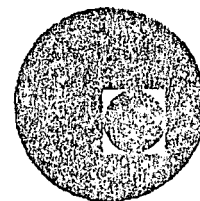
FIGURE 1-36
A popular hand-held
calculator.

- Locate an electronic calculator and compare the method it uses to represent floating-point numbers with the method used in SAMOS.





centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

LENGUAJE FORTRAN

ING. HERIBERTO OLGUIN ROMO

ING. RICARDO CIRIA MERCE

MARZO 1979



HERIBERTO OLGUIN ROMO

RICARDO CIRIA MERCE

F Ø R T R A N

ELEMENTOS DE UN SUPERLENGUAJE DE PROGRAMACION: FØRTRAN

- 1.- Introducción al lenguaje FØRTRAN
 - 1.1 El alfabeto
- 2.- Números
 - 2.1 Constantes enteras
 - 2.2 Constantes reales
 - 2.3 Variables enteras
 - 2.4 Variables reales
- 3.- Operaciones aritméticas
- 4.- Expresiones aritméticas
 - 4.1 Reglas para las expresiones aritméticas
 - 4.2 Funciones predefinidas disponibles en lenguaje FØRTRAN
- 5.- Enunciados
 - 5.1 Los enunciados aritméticos de asignación
 - 5.2 Los enunciados de control
 - 5.2.1 El enunciado GØ TØ

- 5.2.2 El enunciado IF
- 5.2.3 El enunciado DØ
- 5.2.4 El enunciado STØP

5.3 Los enunciados de entrada y salida

- 5.3.1 El enunciado READ
- 5.3.2 El enunciado WRITE

5.4 Los enunciados de especificación

- 5.4.1 El enunciado FØRMAT
 - 5.4.1.1 La especificación I : Iw
 - 5.4.1.2 La especificación F : Fw.d
 - 5.4.1.3 La especificación E : Ew.d
 - 5.4.1.4 La especificación A : Aw
 - 5.4.1.5 La especificación T : Tw
 - 5.4.1.6 Las especificaciones X, H y /
- 5.4.2 El enunciado END

6.- Arreglos

6.1 Variables con subíndices

- 6.1.1 Reglas para los subíndices

6.2 El enunciado DIMENSION

- 6.2.1 Reglas para las variables con subíndices

6.3 Arreglos de entrada y salida

7.- SUBPROGRAMAS

7.1 Funciones

- 7.1.1 Ejemplos

7.2 Subrutinas

- 7.2.1 CØMMØN

1.- Introducción al lenguaje FØRTRAN

El lenguaje FØRTRAN, cuyo nombre corresponde a las primeras letras de las palabras inglesas FORMula (fórmula) y TRANslation (traducción), es un lenguaje de programación orientado a problemas ^{matemáticos} y se emplea en casi todas las computadoras del mundo. Debido a su parecido con el lenguaje aritmético común, el FØRTRAN simplifica la preparación de problemas que pueden resolverse mediante una computadora. Los datos e instrucciones se pueden organizar mediante una secuencia de enunciados fortran; estos constituyen el llamado Programa Fuente.

Todas las computadoras que "entienden" el lenguaje FØRTRAN, tienen lo que se llama un Compilador Fortran, llamado también traductor o interprete, el cual analiza los enunciados fortran y los traduce a un Programa Objeto, el cual queda en Lenguaje de Máquina.

Un programa escrito en lenguaje FØRTRAN se puede procesar en cualquier máquina que tenga un Compilador Fortran. Esto nos indica que el lenguaje es independiente para cada máquina, o sea que el compilador se debe preparar en cada caso teniendo en cuenta la máquina que ha de usarse en particular; puesto que las máquinas difieren en su organización interna, se ha desarrollado un número de "dialectos" del Lenguaje FØRTRAN, cada uno de los cuales es apropiado para una clase de máquinas. Las diferencias entre los

varios dialectos son mínimas y se ajustan el uno al otro fácilmente.

1.1 El alfabeto

El alfabeto FORTRAN esta constituido de caracteres que son símbolos familiares de escritura y de teclados de máquinas de escribir, así como de dispositivos especiales de perforación; dichos caracteres son:

Alfabéticos: A B C D E F G H
 I J K L M N
 * Ø P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

Numéricos: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Símbolos: + - * / = . , () ' @

De este alfabeto se construyen todos nuestros símbolos, expresiones y enunciados que se utilizan en el lenguaje FORTRAN.

2.- Números

Los números pueden representarse en diferentes formas, las cuales se asemejan a los símbolos de la aritmética general; pero debido a la estructura interna de las computadoras se establecen las convenciones de: Punto Fijo y Punto Flotante que proporcionan facilidades para su manejo en FORTRAN. Los símbolos de punto fijo

* La letra O la expresaremos como Ø para diferenciarla del N° cero.

se usarán solamente con números enteros y los cálculos asociados se denominarán aritmética de los enteros o modo entero; mientras que la aritmética de los números reales se hará en la forma de punto flotante y se llamará aritmética de los reales o modo real. Debido a que también es necesario distinguir las constantes (números que no cambian durante toda la ejecución de un programa) de las variables (números que pueden cambiar), surgen cuatro clases de símbolos para los números.

2.1 Constantes enteras.

Dependiendo del tipo de computadora se podrán representar por un cierto número de dígitos, así para IBM-1130 se representan mediante cinco dígitos sin el punto decimal. Si el entero es negativo, los dígitos deberán ser precedidos del signo menos; si el entero es positivo el signo es opcional.

Ejem. Símbolos para constantes enteras pueden ser entre otras:

1976 +1 0 +1976 -1976

Símbolos que no se aceptan para constantes enteras:

7483282. (más de cinco dígitos)

1976. (el punto decimal no se permite)

2.2 Constantes reales

Dependiendo del tipo de computadora, las constantes reales se podrán representar por varios dígitos, pero en el caso de la

IBM-1130 sólo se admiten siete dígitos con punto decimal pudiendo-
 se colocar al principio de los dígitos, al final o entre dos dígi-
 tos cualesquiera. Cuando aparece un punto en una constante su tra-
 tamiento será de punto flotante. Si la constante real es precedi-
 da de un signo menos, se indicará que es negativa, si es positiva
 el signo es opcional.

Ejem. Símbolos para constantes reales pueden ser entre o-
 tras:

1976.	-.00001976	+12.345	-12.345
-.007	.007	5.348	0.3

Símbolos que no se aceptan para constantes reales:

123456789.32 (más de siete dígitos significati-
 vos)

5343 (falta el punto decimal)

Para representar las constantes reales existe también la llamada
 forma exponencial; esta la podemos representar mediante una letra
 E y una constante entera de uno o dos dígitos, positiva o negativa.
 Esta constante entera es un exponente del número diez; el signo
 menos es para los exponentes negativos y para los positivos, el
 signo es opcional. En FORTRAN, la presencia del exponente hace que
 el uso del punto decimal sea opcional.

Ejem. Forma exponencial. Forma no exponencial.

1.328E2	132.8
1.328E02	132.8

1.328E00	132.8
-4.724E-03	-.004724
+7.61E3	7610.
-6432E-3	-6.432

2.3 Variables enteras

Estas se representan por combinaciones de una a cinco letras y dígitos (IBM-1130), no se permiten otros caracteres y el primer caracter deberá ser una de las letras I, J, K, L, M ó N. El primer caracter de una variable es el que indica si es entera o real. Durante la ejecución de un programa, las variables enteras deberán restringirse a valores enteros.

Ejem. Símbolos para variables enteras pueden ser, entre otros:

NUMCT	KILO	N1	N2	M10	KONT
IIALC	JCLAV	MARY	KONT1	L1976	

Símbolos no aceptables para variables enteras:

CUENT (el primer caracter debe ser I, J, K, L, M ó N):

KONTADOR (demasiados caracteres)

12.34 (sólo se aceptan letras y números)

2.4 Variables reales

Estas se representan por combinaciones de una a cinco letras y dígitos (IBM-1130), no se permiten otros caracteres y el primer

caracter tiene que ser necesariamente una letra diferente a I, J, K, L, M ó N. Durante la ejecución de un programa dichas variables se deben restringir a valores reales.

Ejem. Símbolos para variables reales pueden ser, entre otros:

FUERZ VELOC ACELI CUENT A1 A2
ALFA VIELA RA4Z X1 PROD SUMA

Símbolos no aceptables para variables reales:

A3.8 (el punto no es letra o número)

CORRIEN (demasiados caracteres)

3 BASO (el primer caracter debe ser una letra)

MUMCT (el primer caracter no puede ser M)

3.- Operaciones aritméticas

Las operaciones aritméticas y los símbolos que se utilizan en FORTRAN son:

	Ejem.	Algebra	FORTRAN
Adición	+	$a + b$	A + B
Sustracción	-	$a - b$	A - B
Multiplicación	*	$a \cdot b$	A * B
División	/	$\frac{a}{b}$	A / B
Exponenciación	**	a^2	A ** A
		a^2	A ** 2

4.- Expresiones aritméticas

En base a lo expuesto anteriormente podemos ahora formular

expresiones aritméticas en lenguaje FØRTRAN y nos daremos cuenta que son muy similares a las expresiones aritméticas del algebra común.

Expresiones FØRTRAN	Expresiones Comunes
$A**2-B**2$	a^2-b^2
$B**2-4.*A*C$	b^2-4ac
$(A+B)/2.$	$\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$
$2*K-J+N$	$2k-j+n$
$C+B-3.*A$	$c+b-3a$

4.1 Reglas para las expresiones aritméticas

Las reglas a las que debemos sujetar las expresiones aritméticas son necesarias debido a la estructura de las computadoras y al observarlas tendremos un ahorro en el tiempo de ejecución de un programa.

Regla 1 Si nos fijamos en las expresiones FØRTRAN anteriores nos damos cuenta que: Todas las constantes y variables en una expresión deben estar en el mismo modo, esto es, todas deben ser enteras o todas deben ser reales. (Como toda regla existe su excepción que mencionaremos más adelante).

Es necesario consultar los manuales de cada máquina, ya que como hemos mencionado anteriormente dependerá esta regla del tipo de computadora. Por lo pronto la consideraremos como se ha indicado.

Regla 2

$A^{**}I$, $I^{**}J$ y $A^{**}B$ son exponenciaciones permitidas. En el caso $A^{**}I$ se mezclan los modos y es la excepción a la Regla 1, pero sabemos que esta exponenciación significa multiplicaciones sucesivas (así $B^{**}3 = B*B*B$), mientras que las potencias no enteras implican cálculos más sofisticados. Nos damos cuenta que $I^{**}A$, no es forma de exponenciación permitida (en algunas máquinas sí se permite).

Regla 3

Deberá tenerse en cuenta que las operaciones se ejecutarán con las siguientes prioridades:

- 1) Las operaciones indicadas dentro de los paréntesis más internos se ejecutan en primer lugar.
- 2) Exponenciación.
- 3) Multiplicación y división.
- 4) Adición y sustracción.

Entre las operaciones de igual prioridad, el orden de ejecución es de izquierda a derecha.

Ejem. Si $A=5$, $B=8$, y $C=2$.

$A+B-3.*C$ se calculará en el siguiente orden:

$$3.*2.=6. \quad 5.+8.=13. \quad 13.-6.=7.$$

$B^{**}2-4.*A*C$ se calcula en el siguiente orden:

$$8.**2=64. \quad 4.*5.=20. \quad 20.*2.=40.$$

$$64.-40.=24.$$

Si $A=5.$, $B=8.$, $C=2.$ y $D=1.6$

Entonces $(A+B)/C$ se calcula en el siguiente orden:

$$5.+8.=13. \quad 13./2.=6.5$$

Mientras que $A+B/C$ se calcula en el siguiente orden:

$$8./2.=4. \quad 5.+4.=9.$$

Ahora si deseamos calcular $(A+C)**2$ conducirá a:

$$5.+2.=7. \quad 7.**2=49.$$

Mientras que $A+C**2$ conducirá a:

$$2.**2=4. \quad 5.+4.=9$$

Ahora si: $(A*B)/(C*D)=40./3.2=12.5$

Entonces: $A*B/C*D=40./C*D=20.*D=32.$

Finalmente si tenemos paréntesis dentro de otros paréntesis se tiene:

$$(A*(B+C))**2=(A*10.)**2=50.**2=2500.$$

$B+C$ tiene la más alta prioridad por encontrarse en el paréntesis más interno.

$$(A*B+C)**2=(40.+2)**2=42.**2=1764.$$

$$A*(B+C)**2=A*10.**2=A*100.=500.$$

$$A*B+C**2=A*B+4.=40.+4.=44$$

Debemos tener cuidado en expresar lo que deseamos realizar.

Regla 4

No deberemos colocar un signo de operación antes de un signo más o menos, esto es, no deberemos poner dos signos de operación juntos.

Ejem. $A*-B$ $I+-J$ $M-+N$ $A/-B$

Estas expresiones deberán sustituirse por:

$A*(-B)$ $I+(-J)$ $M- (+N)$ $A/(-B)$

4.2 Funciones predefinidas en lenguaje FØRTRAN

Estas funciones predefinidas que proporciona el lenguaje FØRTRAN son de tipo de biblioteca. Para utilizarlas usaremos el nombre de la función seguido de un argumento que deberá estar entre paréntesis. Dichos argumentos pueden ser variables simples ó con subíndices, constantes, expresiones aritméticas u otras funciones predefinidas en FØRTRAN.

Para IBM - 1130 tenemos:

<u>NOMBRE</u>	<u>FUNCION EJECUTADA</u>	<u>NUM. DE ARGUMENTOS</u>	<u>TIPO DE ARGUMENTO(S)</u>	<u>TIPO DE FUNCION</u>
SIN	Seno trigonométrico (argumento en radianes)	1	Real	Real
COS	Coseno trigonométrico (argumento en radianes)	1	Real	Real
ALOG	Logaritmo natural	1	Real	Real
EXP	Argumento de potencia del número e.	1	Real	Real
SQRT	Raíz cuadrada	1	Real	Real
ATAN	Arco tangente	1	Real	Real

del número e

ABS	Valor absoluto	1	Real	Real
IABS	Valor absoluto	1	Entero	Entero
FLOAT	Convertir argumento de entero a real	1	Entero	Real
IFIX	Convertir argumento de real a entero	1	Real	Entero
SIGN	Transferencia de signo (Arg. ₁ recibe signo de Arg. ₂)	2	Real	Real
ISIGN	Transferencia de signo (Arg. ₁ recibe signo de Arg. ₂)	2	Entero	Entero
TANH	Tangente Hiperbólica	1	Real	Real

Ejem. `SQRT (B**2-4.*4.*A*C)` indica que a lo que se encuentra entre paréntesis se le sacará la raíz cuadrada.
`SIN (BETA)` indica que se obtendrá el seno trigonométrico de el valor de la variable BETA.

5.- Enunciados

Los enunciados son las unidades básicas con las cuales se construyen los programas FORTRAN. Podemos clasificarlos de acuerdo a su función en grupos como:

- 1.- Aritméticos de asignación
- 2.- De control
- 3.- De entrada y salida
- 4.- De especificación

5.1 Los enunciados aritméticos de asignación

Se forman con las expresiones presentadas anteriormente y

nos indican los cálculos particulares que deben hacerse. Su forma es:

Variable = Expresión aritmética

El significado del signo = es el de asignación, esto es, que deberá calcularse el valor de la expresión a la derecha del signo = y su valor se asignará a la variable que se encuentre a la izquierda del signo, la cual tiene una localidad en la memoria de la computadora.

Ejem. Si: A=5., B=8., C=2. y D=1.6.

$X=(A+B)/C$ se le asignará a la X el valor 6.5

$ALO=(A+B)**2$ se le asignará a ALO el valor 169.

$RAI=\text{SQRT}(B*C)$ se le asignará a RAI el valor 4.

Algo diferente al algebra normal es el enunciado

$A=A+3$. el cual no debe alarmarnos ya que indica que a la localidad de memoria con el nombre A se le asignará el nuevo valor $A+3$. esto es:

Si $A=5$. y $A=A+3$. entonces:

$A=5+3$. $A=8$. o sea que la variable A se le asigna el valor de 8. y el valor anterior que fue 5. se pierde.

5.2 Los enunciados de control

Debido a que los enunciados de un programa FORTRAN se ejecutan en el orden que aparecen y que en muchas ocasiones queremos transferir la ejecución a otros enunciados si se satisface una

cierta condición, FORTRAN nos permite numerar dichos enunciados. Un número de enunciado debe ser una constante entera de uno a cinco caracteres sin el signo más o menos; el número se coloca a la izquierda del enunciado.

Ejem. 3 CONT = CONT+1.

24 RAIZ = SQRT (A**2+B**2)

5.2.1 El enunciado GØ TØ

Este toma la forma GØ TØ N en donde N es un número de enunciado.

El GØ TØ produce un salto incondicional; así GØ TØ 3 envía la ejecución al enunciado número 3 que puede ser la instrucción de conteo del ejemplo anterior. GØ TØ 24 pasa el control al enunciado 24 que puede ser el del ejemplo anterior.

Ejem. Supongamos que unos de los enunciados de un programa son:

I = 1 Esto nos representa la suma de

ISUM = 0 los números enteros, desde luego

1 ISUM = ISUM+1 es necesario ponerle otros enuncia-

I = I+1 dos pero por el momento nos aclara

GØ TØ 1 lo indicado.

5.2.2 El enunciado IF

Debido a que las computadoras están diseñadas a base de circuitos lógicos y el pensamiento del ser humano debe

ser de este tipo, nos concretaremos el IF lógico, además de que el alumno ya tiene elementos de algunos operadores de relación como OR, AND y NOT.

El IF lógico es de la forma:

IF (L) S

L= expresión lógica que puede tener dos valores: Verdadero o Falso.

S= cualquier enunciado FORTRAN diferente de: un DO, un enunciado de especificación o de otro IF lógico.

Si L es falso (.FALSE.) entonces se ignora S y la computación continúa al siguiente enunciado. Si L es verdadero (.TRUE.) el enunciado S se ejecuta en seguida.

Resulta interesante hacer notar que si L es relativamente complicada, éste IF puede ser el equivalente de varios IF aritméticos.

Para formar las expresiones lógicas (L) utilizaremos los operadores de comparación y los de relación.

Operadores de comparación:

<u>Símbolo Matemático</u>	<u>Significado</u>	<u>Símbolo FORTRAN</u>	<u>Significado Inglés</u>
<	Menor que	.LT.	Less than
>	Mayor que	.GT.	Greater than
≤	Menor o igual a	.LE.	Less or equal
≥	Mayor o igual a	.GE.	Greater or equal

=	Igual a	.EQ.	Equal
≠	Diferente a ó No igual a	.NE.	Not equal

Operadores de relación:

U	Unión	.OR.	ó ('o inclusive)
∩	Intersección	.AND.	y ('al mismo tiempo)
—	Complemento	.NOT.	no

Para valuar una expresión lógica se hará con las siguien-

tes prioridades:

- 1.- Expresiones entre paréntesis
- 2.- Operadores aritméticos
- 3.- Operadores de comparación (.LT., .GT., .LE., .GE.,
.EQ. y .NE.)
- 4.- .NOT.
- 5.- .AND.
- 6.- .OR.

En caso de igual jerarquía la evaluación será de izquierda a derecha.

Ejem. (1) X=5. y=0.5

IF (X.GT.3..AND. Y .LE.2.) Z=X**3+X*Y

Significa que si $X > 3$. y (al mismo tiempo) $y < 2$.

se asignará a Z el valor que se obtenga al cal-

cular $X^3 + XY$, esto es $Z = 125 + 2.5 = 127.5$

(2) IF (A.LE.X:AND.B.GE. Y .OR.C.GT.Z) GØ TØ 12

Significa que si $A \leq X$ y (al mismo tiempo) $B > Y$ es

verdadero ó $C > Z$ es verdadero ó ambos, entonces se transfiere el control al enunciado 12.

```
(3)  I = 1
      ISUM = 0
1.   ISUM = ISUM+1
      I = I+1
      IF (I.LE.100) GØ TØ 1
      STOP
```

Esto nos indica que sólo sumaremos los números enteros del 1 al 100

5.2.3 El enunciado DØ

Este toma la forma:

$$DØ K I = L, M, N$$

$$DØ K I = L, M$$

La segunda forma sólo se aplica cuando $N=1$, lo que es bastante frecuente.

K representa un número de enunciado

I representa una variable entera

L, M, N son variables enteras ó constantes sin signo.

El DØ produce la ejecución repetida de todos los enunciados que le siguen, hasta el enunciado número K. La primera vez que se ejecutan estos enunciados la variable I es igual a L, en cada paso subsiguiente I se incrementa en la cantidad N, hasta hacerse mayor ó igual a M en el paso final; en este momento se termina el llamado

lazo $D\emptyset$ y el control pasa al enunciado que está a continuación del enunciado K. Así, L es el valor inicial de la variable I y M su valor final. I se llama el índice del enunciado $D\emptyset$ y su valor corriente se puede usar en cálculos durante la ejecución del lazo. Todos los enunciados que le siguen al $D\emptyset$ hasta el número K inclusive constituyen el rango del $D\emptyset$. También es posible que la variable I no se encuentre en ninguno de los enunciados del rango del $D\emptyset$ y esto nos indica que se realice la ejecución de todos los enunciados del rango del $D\emptyset$ M entre N veces (la parte entera de este cociente M/N). Debemos tomar en cuenta que: el índice I se incrementa secuencial y automáticamente durante la ejecución del lazo y que se puede, en estos momentos, tratar como cualquier variable entera; el índice I queda indefinido después de terminado el lazo del $D\emptyset$ y puede utilizarse para cualquier uso general. El enunciado K no debe ser un enunciado de especificación ni una transferencia de control esto incluye cosas como $G\emptyset$, $T\emptyset$, IF y $D\emptyset$, así como $FORMAT$, END y algunos otros. Debemos considerar que no se puede desde ningún punto del programa llegar a un enunciado dentro del rango de un $D\emptyset$. Y que la entrada a un $D\emptyset$ deberá hacerse a través del enunciado $D\emptyset$. Y por último es muy frecuente que un $D\emptyset$ esté completamente dentro de otro.

Ilustrando graficamente tenemos:

<u>Correcto</u>		<u>Incorrecto</u>	
DØ	DØ	DØ	DØ
DØ	DØ	DØ	DØ
DØ			DØ

Ejem. Utilizaremos un DØ para sumar los números enteros del 1 al 100, ejemplo que ya hemos visto anteriormente.

ISUM = 0

Nos damos cuenta que el DØ tie-

DØ 1 1 = 1,100

ne la misma función que un IF,

1 ISUM = ISUM+1

un GØ TØ y un contador; como po-

STOP

drá observarse con el ejemplo anterior.

5.2.4 El enunciado STØP

Este aparece simplemente como STØP y es el que nos indica que ha terminado la ejecución y en el caso de IBM - 1130 la computadora se detiene y el operador tendrá que hacer que continúe trabajando. Debido a ello se recomienda que se utilice el enunciado CALL EXIT, el cual pasa el control a un programa monitor que hace que la computadora continúe ejecutando los otros programas que siguen a continuación.

Tanto el STØP como el CALL EXIT podrán aparecer después de cualquier enunciado.

5.3 Los enunciados de entrada y salida

Estos, como su nombre lo indica, sirven para introducir y sacar información de la computadora.

5.3.1 El enunciado READ

Este enunciado tiene la forma READ (I, N) LISTA I y N son enteros sin signo y LISTA representa una lista de nombres de variables para las cuales se leerán valores. I designa el tipo de periférico de entrada que se utilice (lectora de tarjetas, consola, etc.). N es el número de un enunciado FØRMAT asociado al READ.

Ejem. El enunciado READ (2, 101) J, B, H

Producirá la lectura de tres números: un entero y dos reales y se almacenarán en las localidades de la memoria de la computadora designadas con las variables J, B y H en su orden. Las comas que separan éstos nombres de variables en el READ son indispensables, 2 es la unidad de entrada y 101 un FØRMAT.

5.3.2 El enunciado WRITE

Este tiene la forma WRITE (I, N) LISTA I y N son enteros sin signo y LISTA representa una lista de variables para las cuales se imprimen valores. I designa el tipo de periférico de salida que se utilice (Impresora, cinta, etc.). N es el número de un enunciado FØRMAT aso-

ciado al WRITE.

Ejem. El enunciado WRITE (3, 108) L, X, Y

Producirá que se impriman los valores de las variables L, X y Y que se encuentren en las localidades de memoria con esos nombres, en el formato especificado por el enunciado número 108 y por la unidad de salida número 3; las comas que separan éstos nombres de variables en el WRITE son indispensables.

5.4 Los enunciados de especificación

~~Este tipo de enunciados no inician por si mismos los cálculos, no producen transferencia de control ni estimulan el flujo de información, pero proveen al compilador FORTRAN de los detalles esenciales para la traducción del programa fuente en FORTRAN al programa objeto en lenguaje de máquina ó para la conversión de datos a la entrada o la salida.~~

Si queremos introducir datos a la computadora lo podemos hacer mediante un enunciado que esté dentro del programa, como $A = 3.1416$, ésto es lo que podríamos llamar inicializar una variable; y el programa se compilaría cada vez que quisieramos darle un valor diferente a A, lo cual resulta muy costoso, ya que las compilaciones son laboriosas. Para evitar esto se usa el enunciado READ y los valores que se le den a A podrán estar en tarjetas de datos, los cuales son independientes del programa.

ma fuente.

5.4.1 El enunciado FØRMAT

Este tiene la forma: N FØRMAT (, , , ...) en la cual N es el número del enunciado FØRMAT y corresponde al N de los enunciados READ y WRITE. Los espacios entre las comas están disponibles para las especificaciones del tipo que se describen más adelante, siendo el número de espacios uno o más, de acuerdo a las necesidades del programador.

5.4.1.1 La especificación l:lw

Aquí l indica un valor entero y w es un entero que indica el número de columnas o ancho de campo, que ocupa ese valor en la tarjeta de entrada o en el papel de impresión. El número w deberá incluir un lugar para el signo de ese valor, siendo + opcional.

Ejem. Valor de los datos

de entrada o salida: 1130 +1620 -370 0 +14

Especificación: 14 15 14 11 13

5.4.1.2 La especificación F:Fw.d

Aquí F indica un valor real, w indica el número de columnas que ocupará el valor en la tarjeta de entrada o en el papel de impresión; d indica el número de cifras que se encontrarán des-

pués del punto decimal. w deberá incluir un lugar para el signo y otro para el punto decimal.

Ejem. Valor de los datos de
 entrada ó salida: 32.787 - .007 1130. +3.70
 Especificación: F6.3 F5.3 F5.0 F5.2

5.4.1.3 La especificación E:Ew.d

Aquí E indica un valor real en forma exponencial y w indica la anchura de campo para ese valor y debe de incluir el signo, si lo hay, el punto decimal, el lugar para la letra E, un lugar para el signo del exponente, si es negativo, y dos lugares para el exponente; d indica el número de dígitos a la derecha del punto decimal.

Ejem. Valor de los datos
 de entrada o salida: .1403E04 -.7E-02 .1442E+04
 Especificación: E8.4 E7.1 E9.4

Es conveniente que cuando deseemos sacar información de la computadora, tomemos en cuenta para el ancho del campo lo siguiente:

- 1.- El signo, aún cuando el + generalmente no se imprime.
- 2.- El punto decimal para las especificaciones F y E.
- 3.- Por lo menos un dígito a la izquierda

del punto decimal, puesto que muchas máquinas imprimirán allí un cero si otro dígito no ocurre.

- 4.- Suficientes lugares para todos los dígitos significativos deseados, debido a que para los dígitos que no se les deja espacio se truncan o redondean.
- 5.- Cuatro lugares para el exponente de la especificación E.
- 6.- El primer lugar se deja en blanco para el control de carro.

5.4.2 El enunciado END

Este se lee simplemente END e informa al compilador que el programa fuente ha terminado y debe ser el último enunciado de cualquier programa FORTRAN.

6.- Arreglos

Frecuentemente tratamos con un grupo de variables que forman ó pertenecen a una clase o colección. Cuando las variables forman un conjunto ordenado, pueden relacionarse unas con otras por la notación de subíndices; entonces designamos esa colección como arreglo y las variables que pertenecen a ésta serie son los elementos del arreglo. A veces se emplea como sinónimo de

arreglo el nombre de matriz y, en consecuencia, hablamos de elementos de la matriz.

6.1 Variables con subíndices

Un conjunto de números que pueda arreglarse en un renglón ó columna se considera como un arreglo lineal ó unidimensional, y ésta serie puede llamarse vector. Identificamos los elementos de un vector renglón ó columna por un sólo subíndice.

Ejem. La columna de números del vector llamado A, consiste de los elementos A_1 , hasta A_n inclusive y se representa como sigue:

Notación asoctumbrada	Notación FORTRAN
A_1	A (1)
A_2	A (2)
A_3	A (3)
⋮	⋮
A_i	A (I)
⋮	⋮
A_n	A (N)

Cada una de estas $A(I)$, en donde I varía de 1 a N, son el nombre de una variable, el conjunto de todas ellas es lo que llamamos arreglo.

Si se usan dos subíndices para identificar los elementos de un arreglo se considera éste como un arreglo bidimensional. Los cuadros de un tablero de ajedrez, pueden considerarse como un arreglo bidimensional. Y si llamamos a cualquiera de los ele-

dros con la variable CTAJ tendremos 64 variables; pero como el tablero tiene 8 renglones y 8 columnas, podemos referirnos al cuadro que se encuentra en el renglón 3 y la columna 5 con la variable CTAJ (3,5).

Dependiendo del tipo de computadora será el número de subíndices que podremos asignarle a un arreglo; en IBM - 1130 sólo se admiten arreglos con un máximo de tres subíndices.

Las variables que se utilicen para designar arreglos deberán observar las reglas que se dieron anteriormente al hablar de variables enteras y reales considerando que para los cinco caracteres alfanuméricos son independientes de los índices que se encuentran entre paréntesis.

6.1.1. Reglas para los subíndices.

Regla 1 Un subíndice debe ser un entero, puede ser constante, variable ó una de las expresiones aritméticas siguientes:

$$A * v + b \quad A * v - b$$

en donde v es una variable entera y a y b son constantes enteras sin signo.

Ejem. Algunos subíndices pueden ser:

$$1 \quad 1972 \quad 10 * KONT \quad 2 * I \quad J$$

$$1976 * N - 8 \quad 2 * I - 4 \quad 2 * I + 3$$

No se pueden usar como subíndice:

$$1 + I \quad -I \quad 2 - 10 * CONT \quad -1932 \quad -KILO$$

Regla 2 Un subíndice sólo debe tomar valores positivos.

Regla 3 Un subíndice en sí no debe ser una variable con subíndices. Así $X(1(2))$ no es permitido.

Regla 4 Un símbolo que representa un arreglo, una variable con subíndice, no debe usarse sin subíndices para representar otra variable diferente en el mismo programa. Esto es $A(1)$ y A no deben referirse a variables diferentes. Como siempre hay una excepción que por ahora no tocaremos.

Ejem. Los símbolos para variables reales con subíndices podrían incluir:

$X(I)$ $SUM(K+2)$ $A(I, 2*J+1)$ $B(INT)$ $C(I,J)$

Para variables enteras con subíndices podemos tener:

$INT(M,N)$ $I(J)$ $ICTA(J,2*I)$

6.2 El enunciado DIMENSION

Siempre que en un programa utilicemos variables con subíndices deberemos poner como primer enunciado el DIMENSION, el cual indica al compilador qué tanto espacio de memoria se debe reservar para las variables con subíndices. Su forma es:

DIMENSION u, v, w, \dots

Donde u, v, w, \dots son nombres de variables, cada una de las cuales va seguida por el máximo número de elementos en el

arreglo correspondiente. Deberán observarse las siguientes reglas:

Regla 1 Cada variable con subíndices se debe mencionar en un enunciado DIMENSION antes de su primer uso en el programa.

Regla 2 Los símbolos representados anteriormente por u, v, w, ... deben tener la forma:

nombre de variable (máximo número de elementos)

el número entre paréntesis debe ser una constante entera sin signo.

Ejem. DIMENSION A(20), B(4,8), CARR(5,3,4)

Esto indica que el compilador reservará 20 localidades para el arreglo A, sus veinte variables serán A(1), A(2), ..., A(20) al mismo tiempo se reservarán 32 (4x8) localidades para las variables B(1,1), B(1,2), B(1,3), ..., B(1,8), B(2,1), B(2,2), ..., B(2,8), B(3,1), B(3,2), ..., B(3,8), B(4,1), B(4,2), ..., B(4,8) y por último se reservarán 60 (5x3x4) localidades para las variables del arreglo CAR, con tres subíndices cada una.

Regla 3 El arreglo que se use en particular, dentro del programa podrá tener menos elementos que los especificados en la magnitud del enunciado DIMENSION, pero no más.

Regla 4 La variable tal como aparece en el enunciado DIMENSION debe tener exactamente el mismo número de subíndices que en cualquier otra parte del programa.

7.- SUBPROGRAMAS.

Los subprogramas, también llamados subrutinas, son programas que pueden ser puestos en uso por otros programas cuando sea necesario.

Las funciones de biblioteca ó funciones del sistema constituyen una variedad de subprogramas.

7.1- FUNCIONES

Cuando el valor de una variable depende de una ó más variables ó constantes y además de una serie de cálculos, y dicha variable ha de calcularse repetidamente y en diferentes puntos de un programa, es posible definirla como una Función. En otras palabras, Además de las funciones con que cuenta la biblioteca del sistema, el usuario puede escribir sus propias funciones para uso específico de su programa.

Tomemos un ejemplo para visualizar lo anterior:

Supongamos que para un programa en especial, en el cual trabajamos con grados en lugar de radianes, deseamos calcular continuamente $SEN\theta (X)$, sin el uso de funciones sería necesario transformar el argumento deseado de grados a radianes y después llamar a la función del sistema $SIN (X)$. A continuación presentamos una función que calculará $SEN\theta (X)$, (X en grados) :

```

FUNCTION SENØ ( X )
  X = X * 3.14 15 92/180.
  SENØ = SIN (X)
  RETURN
END

```

que es llamada desde el programa como:

```

GRAD= SENØ (GRADOS)

```

En base a éste ejemplo podemos generalizar el uso de la proposición FUNCTION

- a) Debe ser codificada en forma independiente del programa que la usará, es decir, no debe aparecer "dentro" del programa.
- b) Debe empezar con la palabra FUNCTION

FUNCTION nombre (parámetro)

- c) A continuación se escribe el nombre con que será llamada.
 d) Después, entre paréntesis y separados por comas, aparecen los argumentos.

7.1.1 EJEMPLOS.-

```

FUNCTION RAIZ1 (A,B,C )
RAIZ1= (-B + SQRT ( B **2 - 4. * A * C )) / ( 2.* A )
RETURN
END
FUNCTION RAIZ2 ( A, B, C )
RAIZ2 = ( -B - SQRT ( B**2.4.* A * C )) / ( 2.* A )
RETURN
END

```

```

C      EC. SEGUNDØ GRADØ
      READ ( 2,100) A, B, C
100    FORMAT ( 3F10.5)
      X1 = RAIZ1 (A,B,C)
      X2 = RAIZ2 (A,B,C)
      WRITE (3,200) A,B,C, X1,X2
200    FORMAT ( 5 ( ,F10.5) )
      CALL EXIT
      END

```

Este ejemplo es solamente para mostrar el uso de la proposición FUNCTION y no contempla algunas situaciones como raíces complejas, etc.

7.2 SUBROUTINAS

Como es fácil notar, la proposición FUNCTION nos "regresa" un sólo valor y lo hace a través de su nombre. En muchos casos es conveniente ó necesario que se nos regrese más de un valor, para éstos casos usamos la proposición o enunciado:

SUBROUTINE.

Una subrutina es un subprograma que puede "recibir" cualquier número de parámetros (desde cero hasta un número determinado por el tipo de compilador) y puede "regresar" diferentes valores calculados.

Veamos algunos ejemplos:

Supongamos que al imprimir resultados de un cierto programa tenemos que escribir algún título usando los primeros renglones de la hoja. En tal caso podemos hacer uso de una subrutina como sigue:

```

SUBROUTINE ENCA
WRITE (3,200)
200  FORMAT-(/,1X,' REPORTE SEMANAL' , / -)
RETURN
END

```

Como vemos no hemos pasado ningún parámetro ó valor a la subrutina. Para que se ejecute ésta se debe hacer uso de la proposición CALL, de la siguiente forma:

```
CALL ENCA
```

dentro del programa y en el lugar donde deseemos que ocurra la impresión.

Discutamos ahora un ejemplo muy simple para ejemplificar el uso de parámetros. Hagamos una subrutina que "reciba" como entrada dos números, los sume y el resultado lo "regrese" en otra variable. Sean A y B los números a sumar, y C la variable en donde se pondrá el resultado.

```

SUBROUTINE SUMA (A,B,C)
C = A + B
RETURN
END

```

Es importante detenerse a ver el significado de los parámetros para las subrutinas:

La subrutina anterior SUMA puede ser llamada de diversas formas:

```

CALL SUMA (AA,BB,CC)
CALL SUMA (4, 7, X )
etc.

```

Como vemos, las variables A,B y C que aparecen en la subrutina son variables

mudas o dormidas y solo tienen sentido dentro de la subrutina. Veamos lo anterior:

Supóngase el siguiente programa:

```

X1= 3.
X2= 4.
CALL SUMA ( X1,X2,X3)
SUM= X3
WRITE (3,200) X1,X2,X3, SUM
200  FORMAT(4 F10.5)
CALL EXIT
END

```

Se propone como ejercicio al lector que haga las veces de la maquina y escriba lo que ésta imprimiría.

La máquina imprimirá :

```

3.0      4.0      7.0      7.0

```

Una de las facilidades más útiles en subrutinas es la de ^{pasar} arreglos como parámetros, ej:

```

SUBROUTINE MAXIM (A, MAX )
DIMENSION      A ( 10)
-----
-----
-----
-----
-----
RETURN
END

```

Supóngase que ésta subrutina encuentra el elemento del arreglo A (10) con mayor valor y lo regresa a través de la variable MAX. Es importante notar que si pasamos como parámetro uno ó más arreglos hay que dimensionarlos otra vez dentro de la subrutina, lo cual se puede hacer de al menos dos formas: 1) poniendo la dimensión que aparece en el programa que lo llama;

2) Poniéndole dimensión *i* (**uno**)

Ejemplo:

```
DIMENSION A (10), B (20)
```

```
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----
```

```
CALL ØRDEN (A)
```

```
CALL MAXIM (B)
```

```
CALL MAXIM (A)
```

```
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----
```

```
CALL EXIT
```

```
END
```

Caso 1:

```
SUBRØUTINE ØRDEN (X)
```

```
DIMENSION X (10)
```

```
-----  
-----  
-----
```

```
RETURN
```

```
END
```

Caso 2:

```
SUBRØUTINE MAXIM (Y)
```

```
DIMENSION Y (1)
```

```
-----  
-----  
-----
```

```
RETURN
```

```
END
```


7.2.1 COMMON.

Como es posible visualizar en los párrafos anteriores, las variables usadas en las subrutinas, o mejor dicho, dentro de las subrutinas, son totalmente independientes a las variables usadas en el programa principal. Muchas veces es conveniente que tanto las subrutinas como el programa que las llama tengan variables en COMUN. Para lograr esto existe la declaración

```
COMMON
```

La forma general de ésta proposición es:

```
COMMON lista de variables
```

donde "lista de variables" es un conjunto de variables y/o arreglos separados por comas a las cuales queremos adjudicarles la propiedad anterior, es decir, sean comunes a varios subprogramas.

Ej.

```
COMMON A,B, X (10), AB (30)
```

Esta declaración debe aparecer al principio de cualquier programa o subrutina en que se desee usar. Veamos un ejemplo:

```
C SUMA DE DOS NUMEROS
COMMON A, B, C
A= 3
B= 7
CALL SUMA
Z = C
WRITE (3,200) A, B, C, Z
200 FORMAT( 4 F10.5 )
CALL EXIT
END
```

```
SUBROUTINE SUMA
```

```
COMMON A, B, C
```

```
C = A + B
```

```
RETURN
```

```
END
```

Este programa debe imprimir :

```
3.0    7.0    10.0    10.0
```

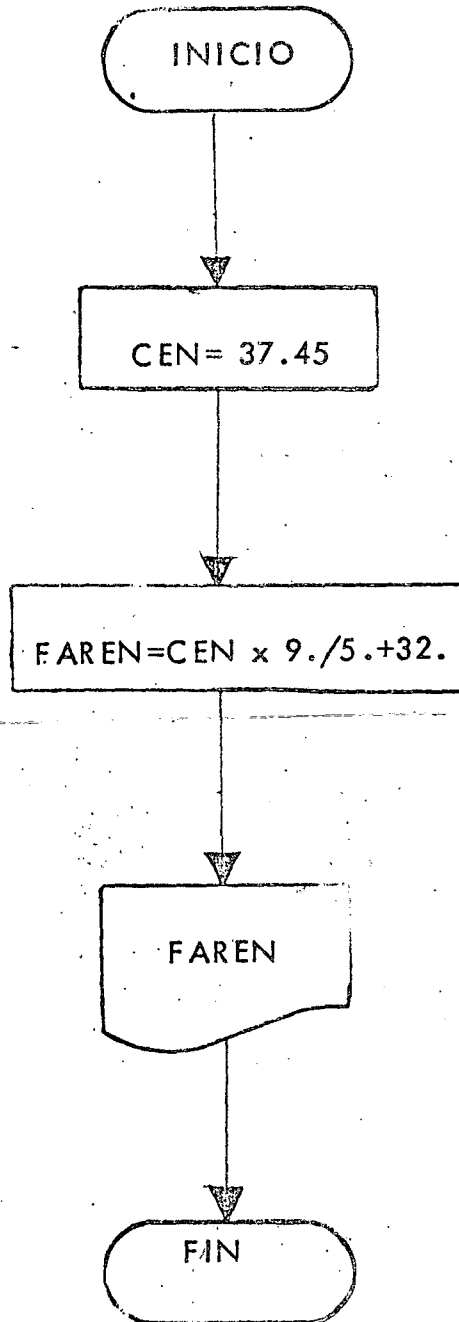
Una propiedad importante del COMMON es que si un arreglo es especificado en COMMON que dá automáticamente dimensionado, es decir, no hay que especificar dicho arreglo a través de la declaración DIMENSION

En las siguientes páginas se muestran veintiún programas, que incluyen sus diagramas de flujo, codificaciones, datos y resultados; el objeto es que el lector pueda complementar la parte teórica con la práctica, amén de que deberá hacer los propios y procesarlos en una computadora a su alcance.

REFERENCIAS BIBLIOGRAFICAS:

- 1.- J.K. Hughes : Programación del Sistema IBM-1130
Limusa-Wiley-1969
- 2.- D.D. McCracken : Fortran IV
Limusa-Wiley-1964
- 3.- E.I. Organick : Fortran IV
Fondo Educativo Interamericano, S. A.
1966
- 4.- Francis Scheid : Introducción a la Ciencia de
las Computadoras.
Serie de Compendios Schaum.
McGraw-Hill-1970
- 5.- W. Schick y Ch. J. Merz, Jr. : Fortran para Ingeniería.
McGraw-Hill - 1972
- 6.- R.E. Smith y D.E. Johnson : Fortran, Texto Programado.
Limusa Wiley - 1971

"CONVERSION DE GRADOS CENTIGRADOS A
GRADOS FARENHEIT"



46

```
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----U N O-----
```

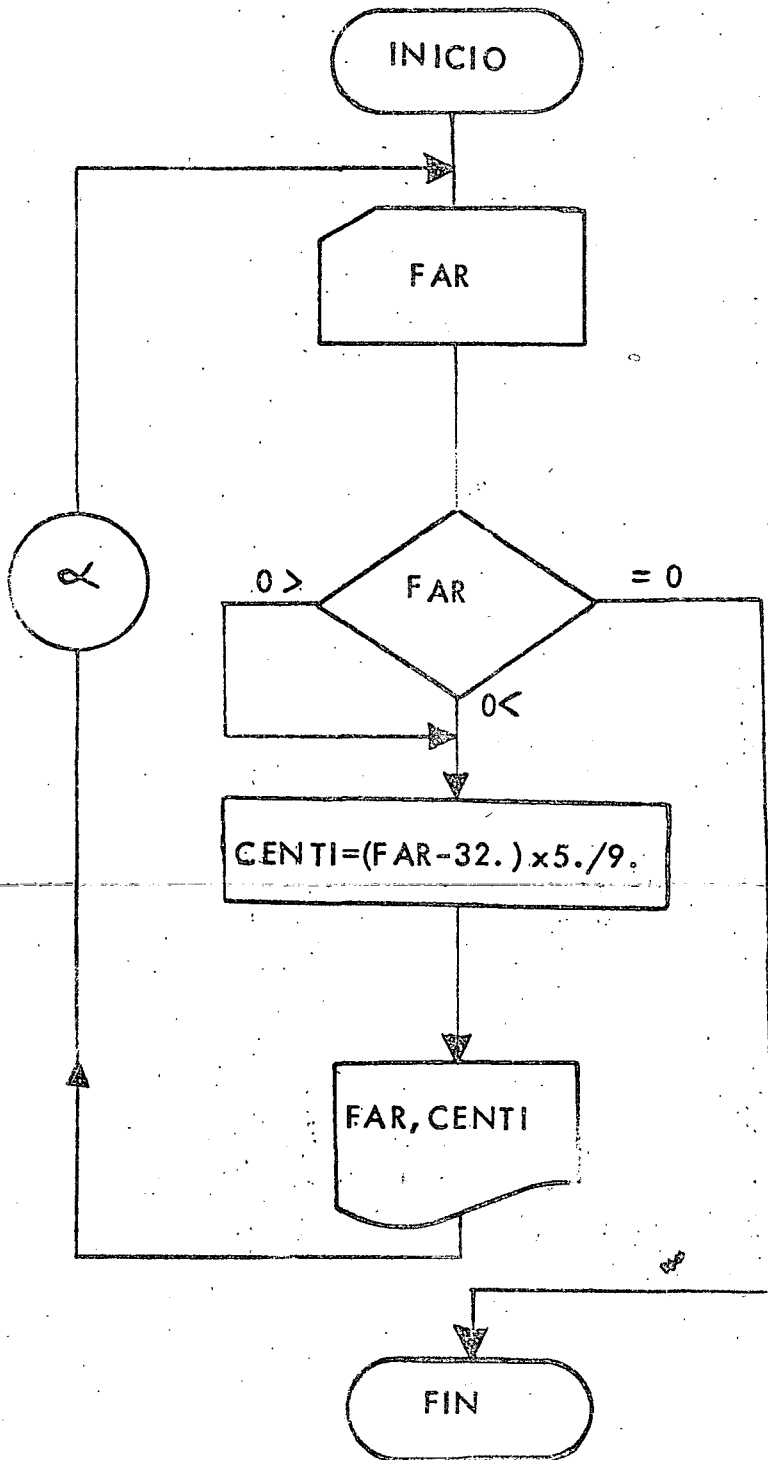
```
C      CONVERSION DE GRADOS CENTIGRADOS A
C      GRADOS FARENHEIT
      100 FORMAT(F10.4)
      IMP=3
      CEN=37.45
      FAREN=CEN*9./5.+32.
      WRITE(IMP,100)FAREN
      CALL EXIT
      END
```

```
// XEQ
/*
```

RESULTADOS

99.4100

"CONVERSION DE GRADOS FARENHEIT A GRADOS CENTIGRADOS."



```

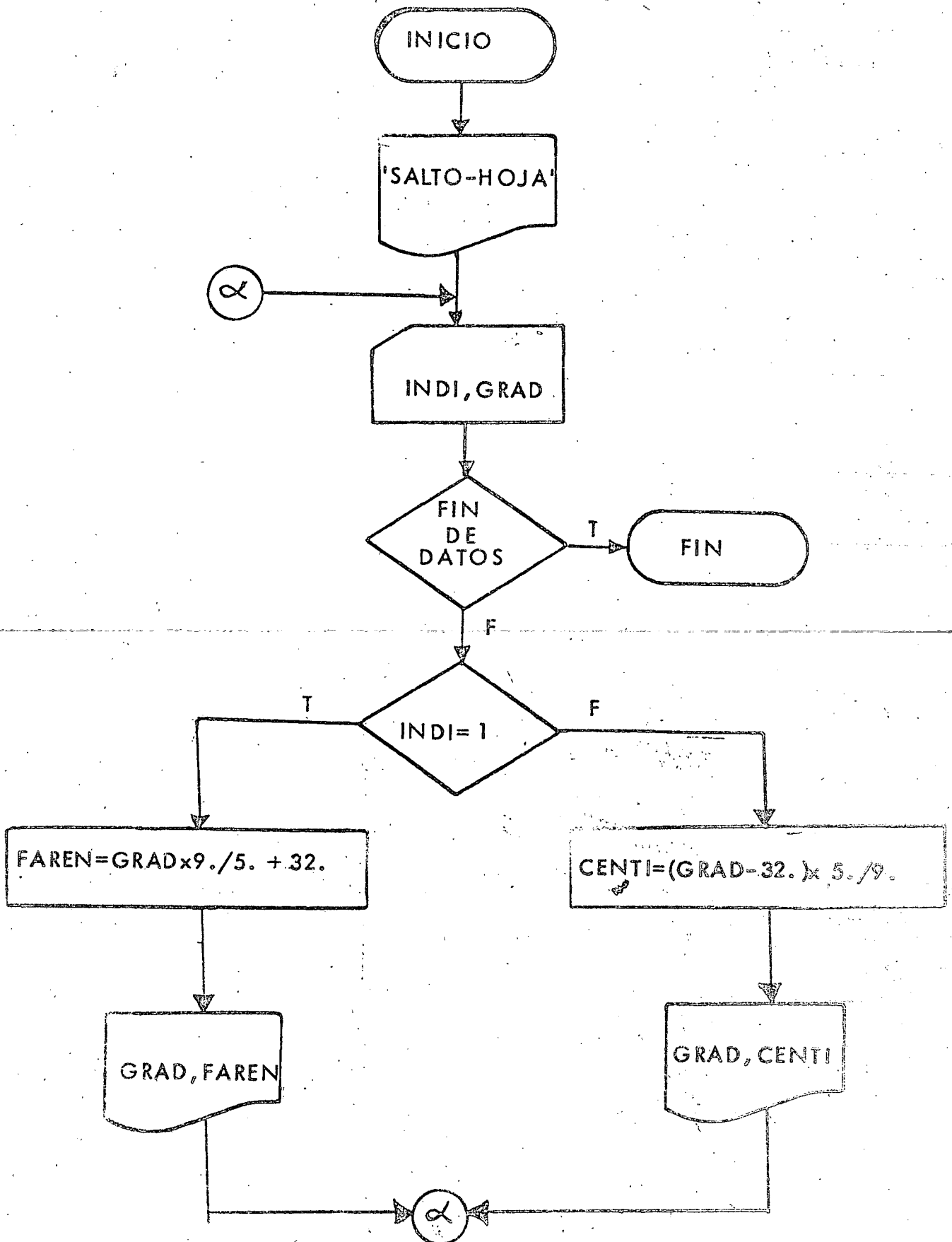
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----D O S-----
C      CONVERSION DE GRADOS FARENHEIT A
C      GRADOS CENTIGRADOS
100 FORMAT(F10.4)
101 FORMAT(F10.4,22H GRADOS FARENHEIT SON ,F10.4,20H GRADOS CENTIGRADO
1S.)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
200 READ(LEE,100)FAR
C      FAR IGUAL CERO INDICA TERMINO DE DATOS.
   IF(FAR)210,220,210
210   CENTI=(FAR-32.)*5./9.
      WRITE(IMP,101)FAR,CENTI
      GO TO 200
220 CALL EXIT
   END
// XEQ
   1260000
126.
  -14.
   18.26
0.0
/*

```

RESULTADOS

126.0000 GRADOS FARENHEIT SON	52.2222 GRADOS CENTIGRADOS.
126.0000 GRADOS FARENHEIT SON	52.2222 GRADOS CENTIGRADOS.
-14.0000 GRADOS FARENHEIT SON	-25.5556 GRADOS CENTIGRADOS.
18.2600 GRADOS FARENHEIT SON	7.6333 GRADOS CENTIGRADOS.

"CONVERSION ENTRE GRADOS FARENHEIT Y GRADOS CENTIGRAOS"




```

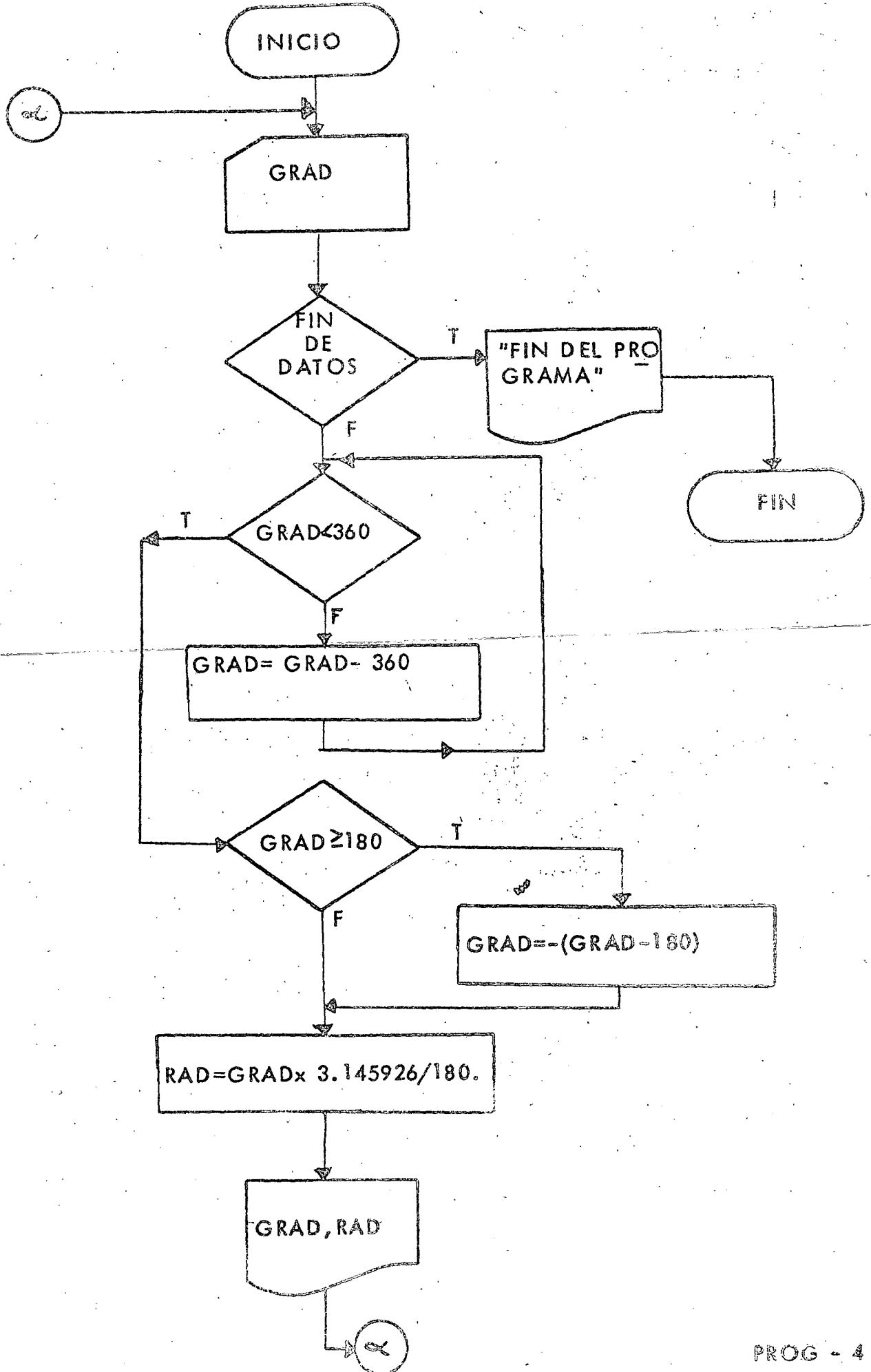
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----T R E S-----
C   CONVERSION ENTRE GRADOS FARENHEIT
C   Y GRADOS CENTIGRADOS
100 FORMAT(1H1)
101 FORMAT(I1,F10.3)
102 FORMAT(F10.2,15H FARENHEIT SON ,F11.3,13H CENTIGRADOS.)
103 FORMAT(F10.2,17H CENTIGRADOS SON ,F9.3,11H FARENHEIT.)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
   WRITE(IMP,100)
200 READ(LEE,101,END=220)INDI,GRAD
   IF(INDI.EQ.1)GO TO 210
C   INDI DIFERENTE DE 1 DATO EN GRADOS FARENHEIT.
C   SE CONVIERTE A CENTIGRADOS.
   CENTI=(GRAD-32.)*5./9.
   WRITE(IMP,102)GRAD,CENTI
   GO TO 200
210 CONTINUE
C   EL DATO ES EN GRADO CENTIGRADO.
C   SE CONVIERTE A FARENHEIT.
   FAREN=GRAD*9./5.+32.
   WRITE(IMP,103)GRAD,FAREN
   GO TO 200
220 CALL EXIT
   END
// XEQ
1 12000
0 11.48
1 0.
2 32.00
1 -16.
1 18.
/*

```

RESULTADOS

12.00	CENTIGRADOS SON	53.600	FARENHEIT.
11.48	FARENHEIT SON	-11.400	CENTIGRADOS:
0.00	CENTIGRADOS SON	32.000	FARENHEIT.
32.00	FARENHEIT SON	0.000	CENTIGRADOS:
-16.00	CENTIGRADOS SON	3.200	FARENHEIT.
18.00	CENTIGRADOS SON	64.400	FARENHEIT.

CONVERSION DE GRADOS A RADIANTES



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----C U A T R O-----
C   CONVERSION DE GRADOS A RADIANTES
  101 FORMAT(F8.3)
  102 FORMAT(F9.3,12H GRADOS SON ,F6.3,10H RADIANTES.)
  103 FORMAT(///,10X,16HFIN DEL PROGRAMA)
    LEE=2
    IMP=3
  200 READ(LEE,101,END=230)GRAD
  210 IF(GRAD.LT.360)GO TO 220
C   EL DATO ES IGUAL O SOBREPASA LOS 360 GRADOS(SE AJUSTA).
    GRAD=GRAD-360.
    GO TO 210
  220 CONTINUE
C   SE TRABAJA ENTRE +180 Y -180 GRADOS.
    IF(GRAD.GE.180.)GRAD=-(GRAD-180.)
    RAD=GRAD*3.1415926/180.
    WRITE(IMP,102)GRAD,RAD
    GO TO 200
  230 WRITE(IMP,103)
    CALL EXIT
    END

```

```

// XEQ
  90000
-90.
  3600.
 -380.
   0.0
  185.27
  132.4
 -79.9
/*

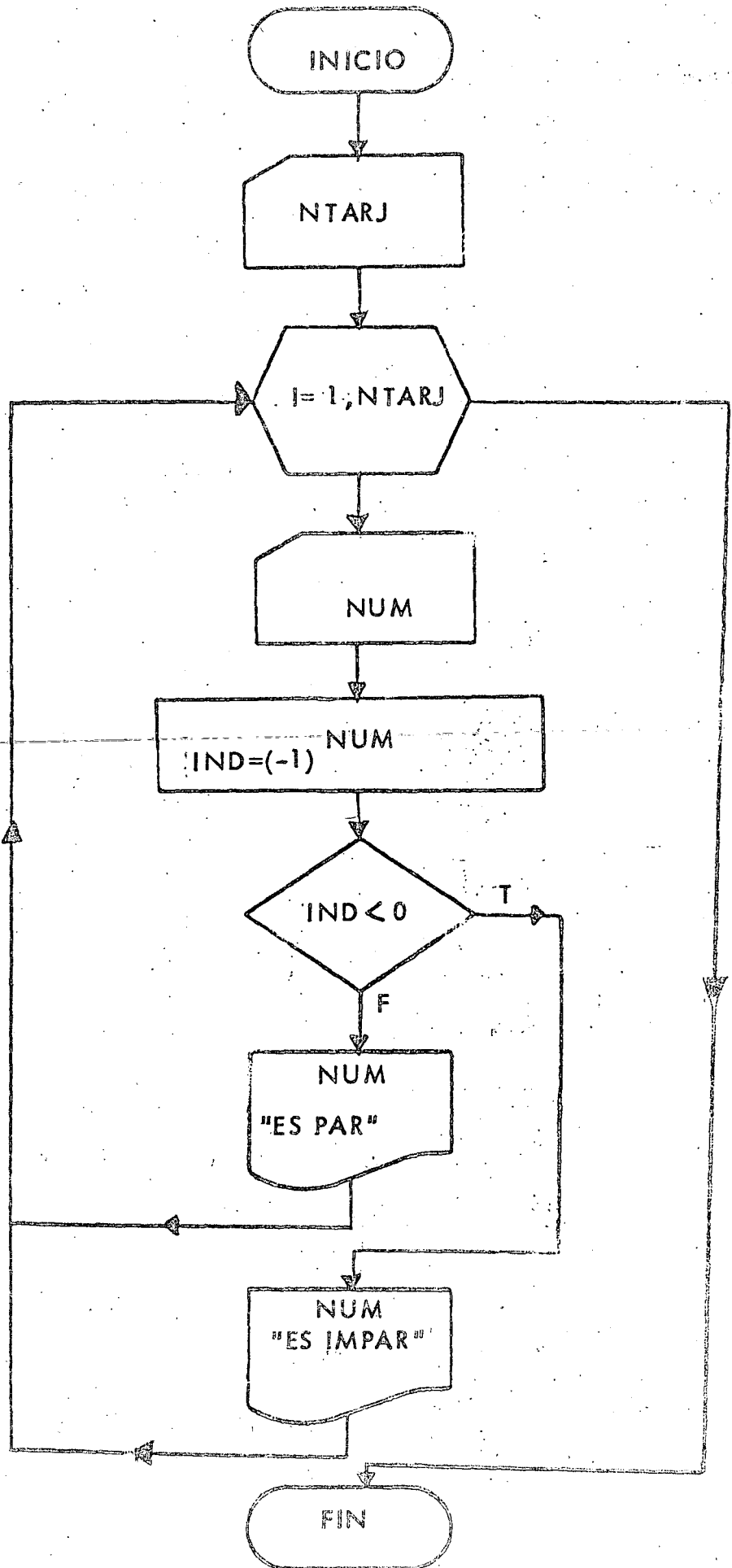
```

RESULTADOS

90.000	GRADOS	SON	-1.571	RADIANTES.
-90.000	GRADOS	SON	-1.571	RADIANTES.
0.000	GRADOS	SON	0.000	RADIANTES.
-380.000	GRADOS	SON	-6.632	RADIANTES.
0.000	GRADOS	SON	0.000	RADIANTES.
-5.270	GRADOS	SON	-0.092	RADIANTES.
132.400	GRADOS	SON	2.311	RADIANTES.
-79.900	GRADOS	SON	-1.395	RADIANTES.

FIN DEL PROGRAMA

"DETERMINACION DE NUMEROS PARES E IMPARES"



```

// JOB J
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----C I N C O-----
C   DETERMINACION DE NUMEROS PARES
C   E IMPARES
100 FORMAT(I3)
101 FORMAT(I4,8H ES PAR.)
102 FORMAT(I4,10H ES IMPAR.)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
   READ(LEE,100)NTARJ
C   NTARJ INDICA NO. DE TARJETAS CON DATOS.
   DO 202 I=1,NTARJ
     READ(LEE,100)NUM
     IND=(-1)**NUM
     IF(IND.LT.0)GO TO 200
C     EL NUMERO ES PAR.
     WRITE(IMP,101)NUM
     GO TO 201
200  CONTINUE
C     EL NUMERO ES IMPAR.
     WRITE(IMP,102)NUM
201  CONTINUE
202  CONTINUE
     CALL EXIT
     END

```

```

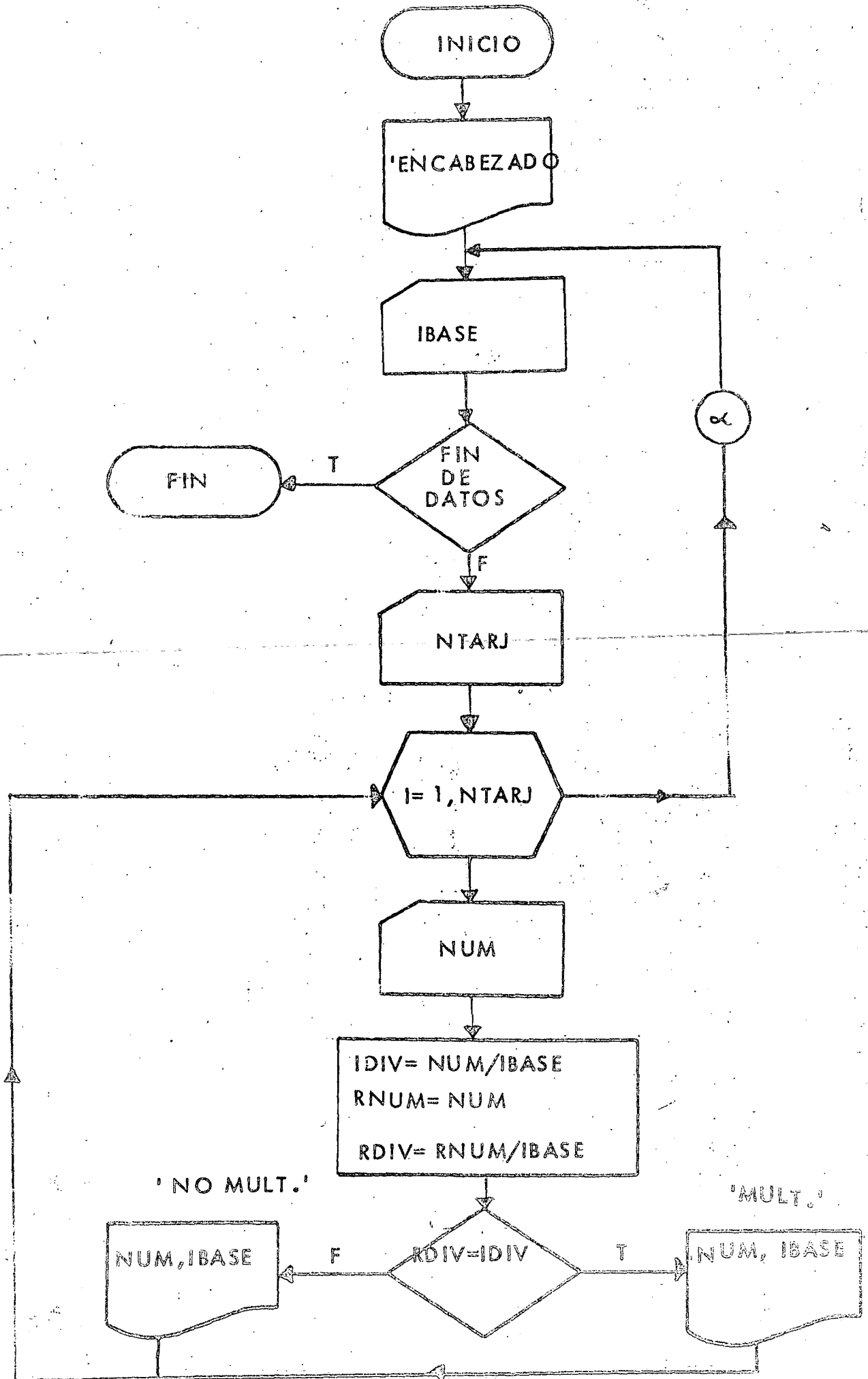
// XEQ
005
17
1
14
291
8
/*

```

RESULTADOS

17 ES IMPAR.
1 ES IMPAR.
14 ES PAR.
291 ES IMPAR.
8 ES PAR.

"DETERMINACION DE MULTIPLOS DE UN NUMERO"



```
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----S E I S-----
```

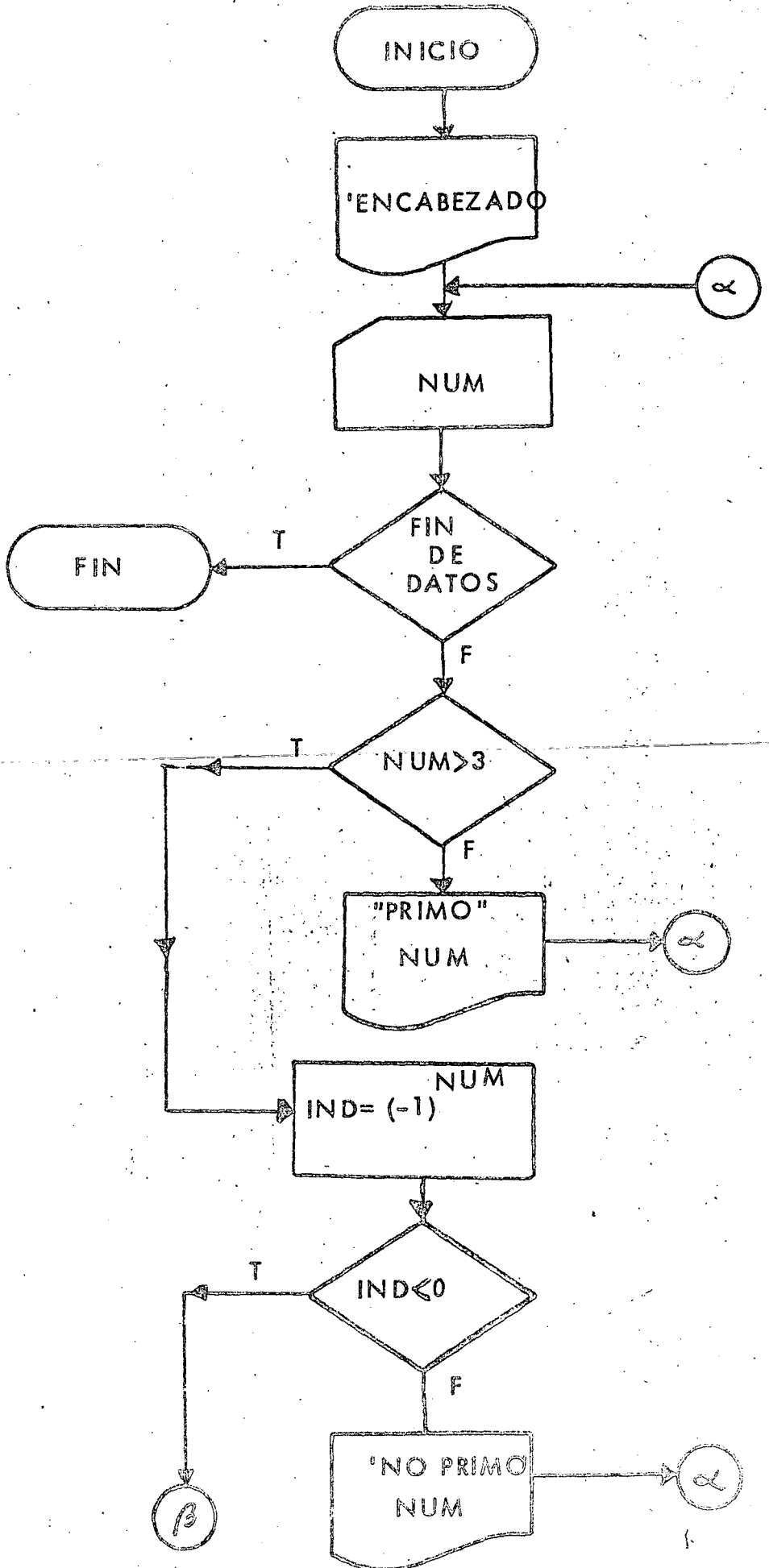
```
C      DETERMINACION DE MULTIPLOS
C      DE UN NUMERO
100  FORMAT(I3)
101  FORMAT(34HNUMERO=MULTIPLO DE=NO MULTIPLO DE)
102  FORMAT(2X,I3,7X,I3)
103  FORMAT(2X,I3,21X,I3)
      LEE=2
      IMP=3
      WRITE(IMP,101)
200  READ(LEE,100,END=240)IBASE
      READ(LEE,100)NTARJ
      DO 230 I=1,NTARJ
          READ(LEE,100)NUM
          IDIV=NUM/IBASE
          RNUM=NUM
          RDIV=RNUM/IBASE
          IF(RDIV.EQ.IDIV)GO TO 210
C      NUM NO ES MULTIPLO DE IBASE.
          WRITE(IMP,103)NUM,IBASE
          GO TO 220
210  CONTINUE
C      NUM SI ES MULTIPLO DE IBASE.
          WRITE(IMP,102)NUM,IBASE
220  CONTINUE
230  CONTINUE
      GO TO 200
240  CALL EXIT
      END
```

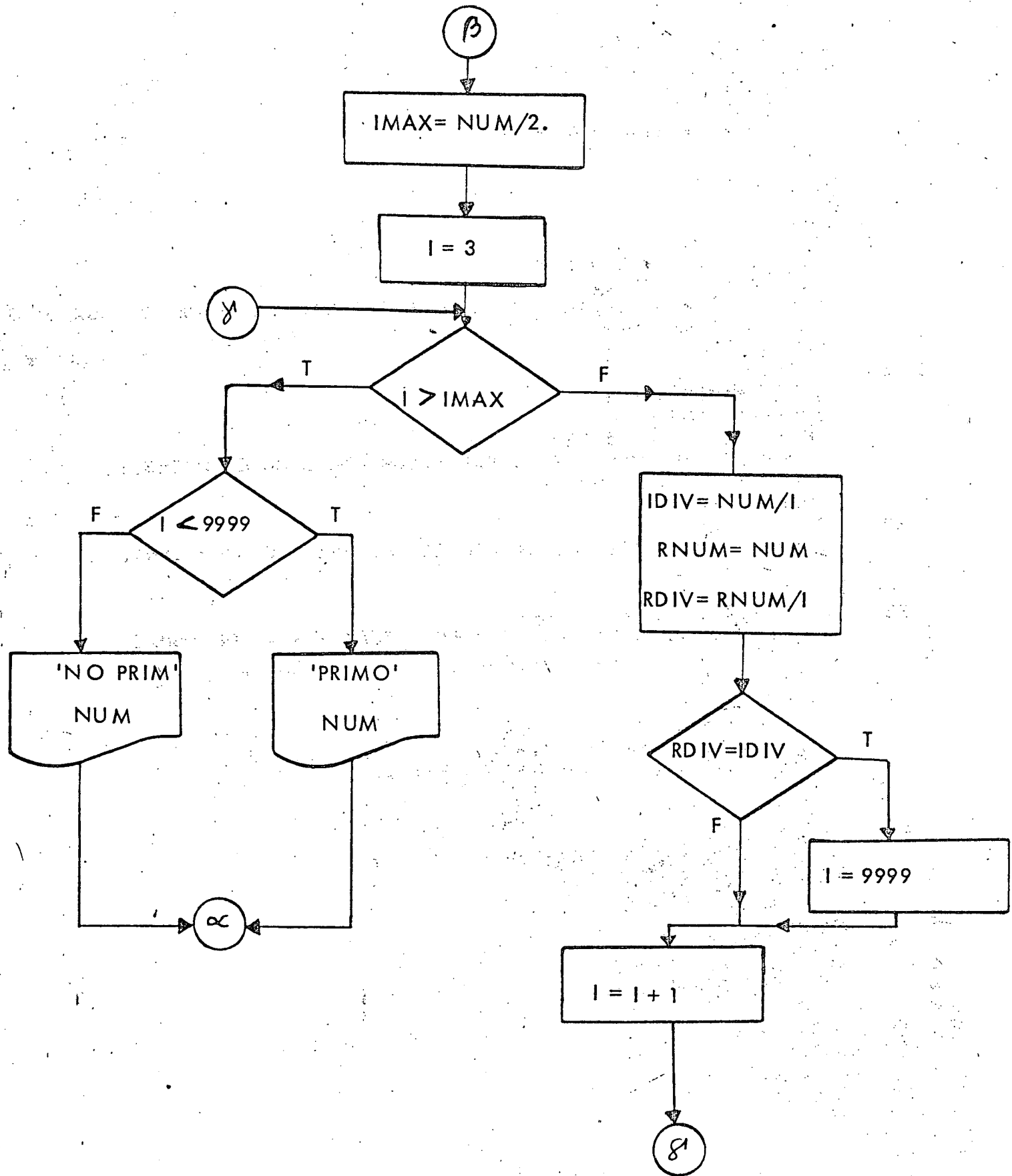
```
// XEQ
002
005
17
001
14
291
8
003
002
9
11
005
001
009
/*
```

RESULTADOS

NUMERO=MULTIPLO DE=NO MULTIPLO DE		
17		2
14	2	2
291		2
8	2	
9	5	
11		3
9		5

NUMEROS PRIMOS





```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----S I E T E-----
C   NUMEROS PRIMOS
100 FORMAT(I3)
101 FORMAT(19H1PRIMOS > NO PRIMOS)
102 FORMAT(2X,I3)
103 FORMAT(14X,I3)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
   WRITE(IMP,101)
200 READ(LEE,100,END=290)NUM
   IF(NUM.GT.3)GO TO 210
C   NUM ES MENOR O IGUAL A 3(TODO NUMERO NATURAL MENOR O IGUAL
   WRITE(IMP,102)NUM
   GO TO 280
210 CONTINUE
C   NUM ES MAYOR QUE 3.
   IND=(-1)**NUM
   IF(IND.LT.0)GO TO 220
C   NUM ES PAR(TODO NUMERO PAR MAYOR QUE 3 NO ES PRIMO.)
   WRITE(IMP,103)NUM
   GO TO 270
220 CONTINUE
C   NUM ES IMPAR(SE INICIA PROCESO DE PRIMO O NO-PRIMO).
   IMAX=NUM/2
   I=3
230 IF(I.GT.IMAX)GO TO 240
C   SE OBTIENEN LAS DIVISIONES ENTERA Y REAL DE NUM/I
C   CON I DE 3 HASTA NUM/2.
   IDIV=NUM/I
   RNUM=NUM
   RDIV=RNUM/I
   IF(RDIV.EQ.IDIV)I=9999
C   I=9999 INDICA QUE NUM ES PRIMO.
   I=I+1
   GO TO 230
240 CONTINUE
   IF(I.LT.9999)GO TO 250
C   NUM NO ES PRIMO.
   WRITE(IMP,103)NUM
   GO TO 260
250 CONTINUE
C   NUM ES PRIMO.
   WRITE(IMP,102)NUM
260 CONTINUE
270 CONTINUE
280 CONTINUE
   GO TO 200
290 CALL EXIT
   END

```

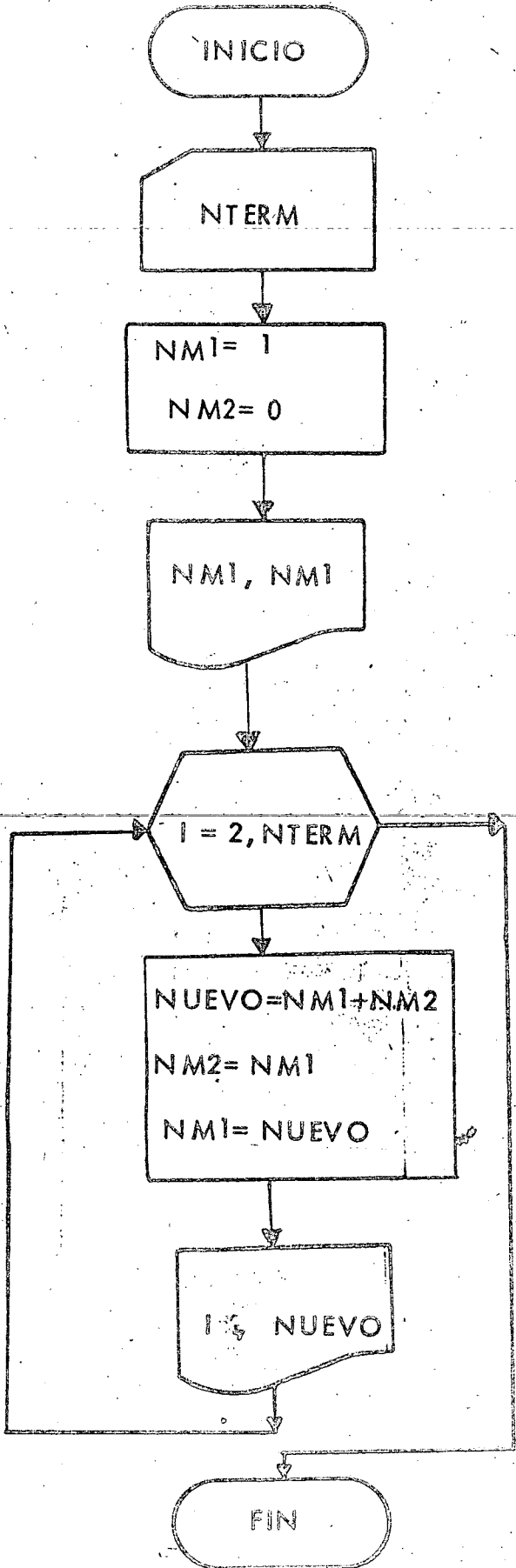
// XEQ

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

9
10
11
12
13
15
17
19
21
/*

RESULTADOS

PRIMOS	NO PRIMOS
1	
2	
3	
5	4
7	6
	8
	9
	10
11	12
13	15
17	
19	21



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----O C H O-----
C   SERIE DE FIBONACCI
  100 FORMAT(I3)
  101 FORMAT(I4,3X,I5)
    LEE=2
    IMP=3
    READ(LEE,100)NTERM
C   NTERM REPRESENTA EL NUMERO DESEADO DE TERMINOS
    NM1=1
    NM2=0
    WRITE(IMP,101)NM1,NM1
    DO 200 I=2,NTERM
      NUEVO=NM1+NM2
      NM2=NM1
      NM1=NUEVO
C   SE IMPRIME LA POSICION Y EL VALOR DEL TERMINO
    WRITE(IMP,101)I,NUEVO
  200 CONTINUE
    CALL EXIT
    END

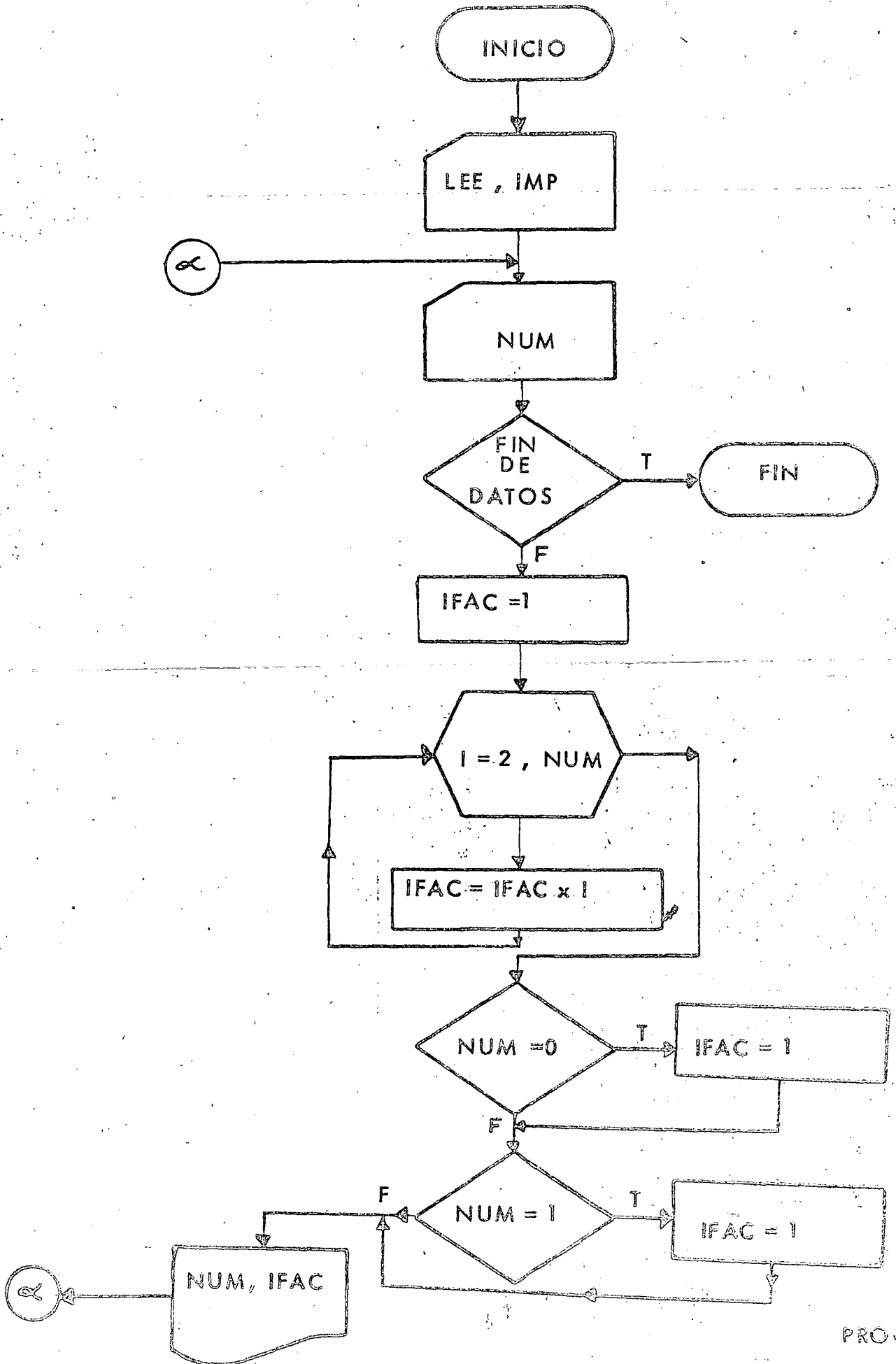
// XEQ
015
/*

```

RESULTADOS

2	1	
3	2	
4	3	
5	5	
6	8	
7	13	
8	21	
9	34	
10	55	
11	89	
12	144	
13	233	
14	377	
15	610	

" FACTORIAL "



```

// JOB. T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IUCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----N U E V E-----
C   FACTORIAL
  100 FORMAT(2I1)
  101 FORMAT(I2)
  102 FORMAT(I3,3X,I5)
C   SE LEEN LAS UNIDADES LOGICAS DE LECTURA E IMPRESIONN
  READ(2,100)LEE,IMP
  200 READ(L EE,101,END=220)NUM
      IFAC=1
      DO 210 I=2,NUM
          IFAC=IFAC*I
  210 CONTINUE
      IF(NUM.EQ.0)IFAC=1
      IF(NUM.EQ.1)IFAC=1
C   SE IMPRIME EL NUMERO Y SU FACTORIAL
  WRITE(IMP,102)NUM,IFAC
  GO TO 200
  220 CALL EXIT
      END

```

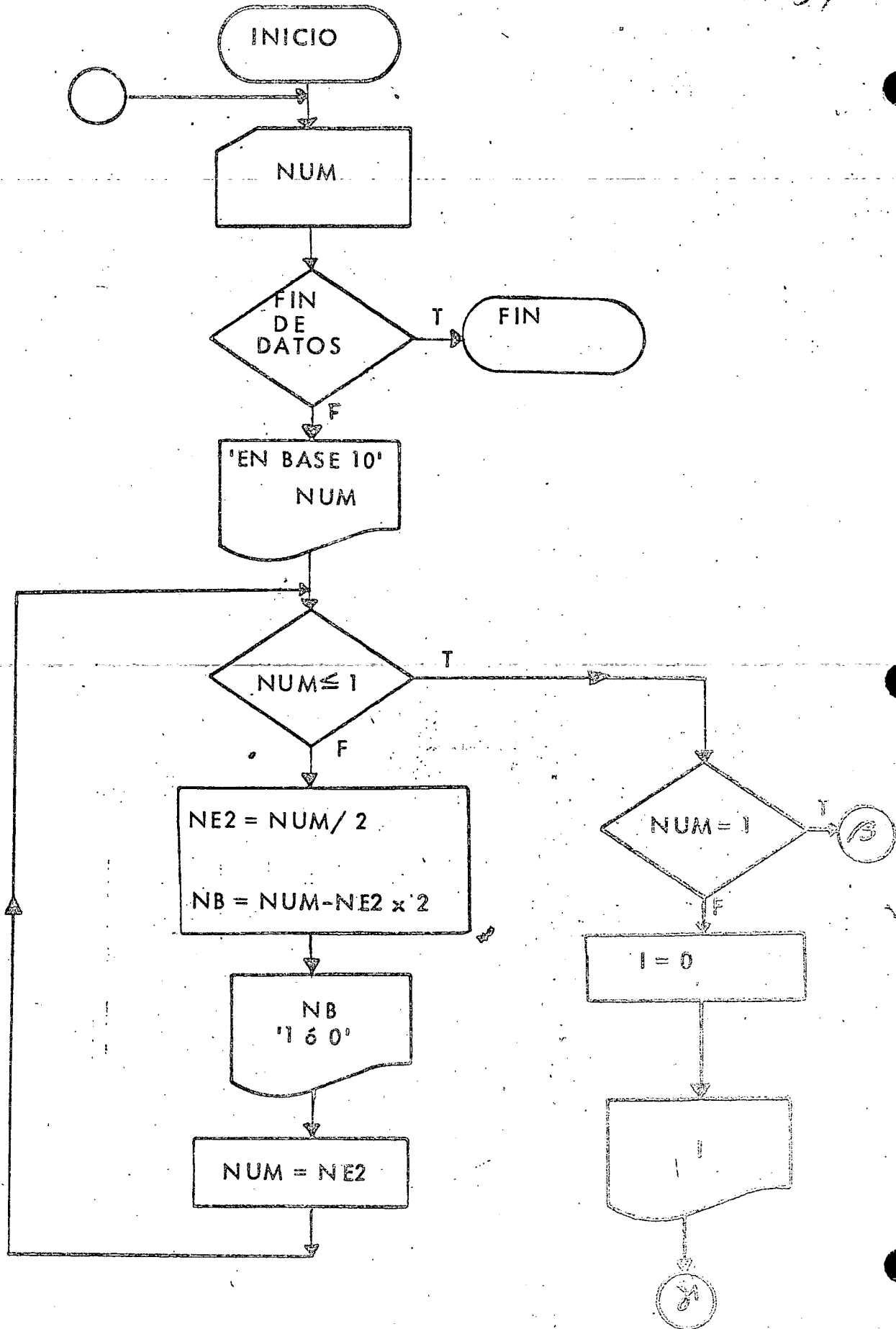
```

// XEQ
23
01
02
03
04
05
00
/*

```

RESULTADOS

1	1
2	2
3	6
4	24
5	120
0	1



60
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)

C-----D I E Z-----

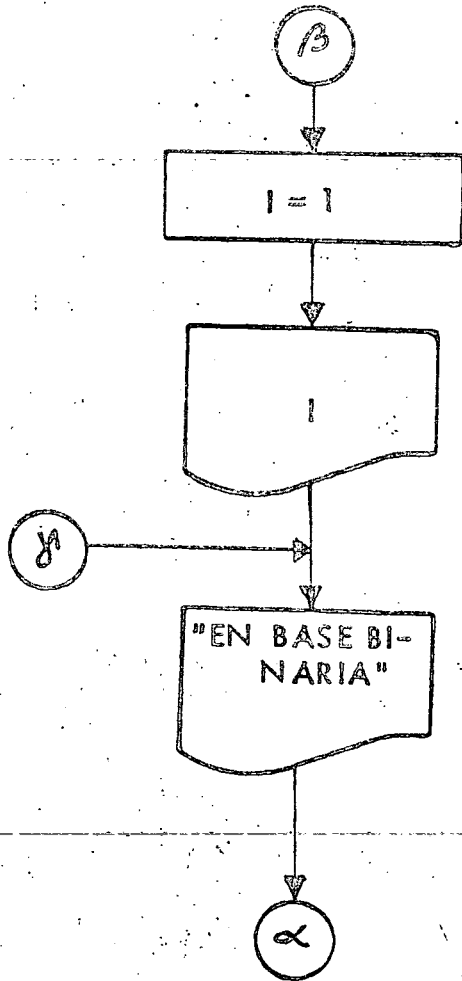
```
C      CAMBIO DE BASE ; DECIMAL A BINARIA
100  FORMAT(I5)
101  FORMAT(IX,I5,19H EN BASE DECIMAL ES)
102  FORMAT(IX,I1)
103  FORMAT(17H EN BASE BINARIA.)
      LEE=2
      IMP=3
200  READ(LEE,100,END=250)NUM
      WRITE(IMP,101)NUM
210  IF(NUM.LE.1)GO TO 220
C      NUM ES MAYOR QUE UNO, SE SIGUE DESCOMPONRIENDO
      NE2=NUM/2
      NB=NUM-NE2*2
C      NB ES UNO O CERO
      WRITE(IMP,102)NB
      NUM=NE2
      GO TO 210
220  CONTINUE
      IF(NUM.EQ.1)GO TO 230
C      SE IMPRIME EL ULTIMO CERO EN LA REPRESENTACION BINARIA
      I=0
      WRITE(IMP,102)I
      GO TO 240
230  CONTINUE
C      SE IMPRIME EL ULTIMO 1 EN LA REPRESENTACION BINARIA
      I=1
      WRITE(IMP,102)I
240  CONTINUE
      WRITE(IMP,103)
      GO TO 200
250  CALL EXIT
      END
```

// XEQ

```
12
163
10
00001
011
-131
0
1
13
```

/*

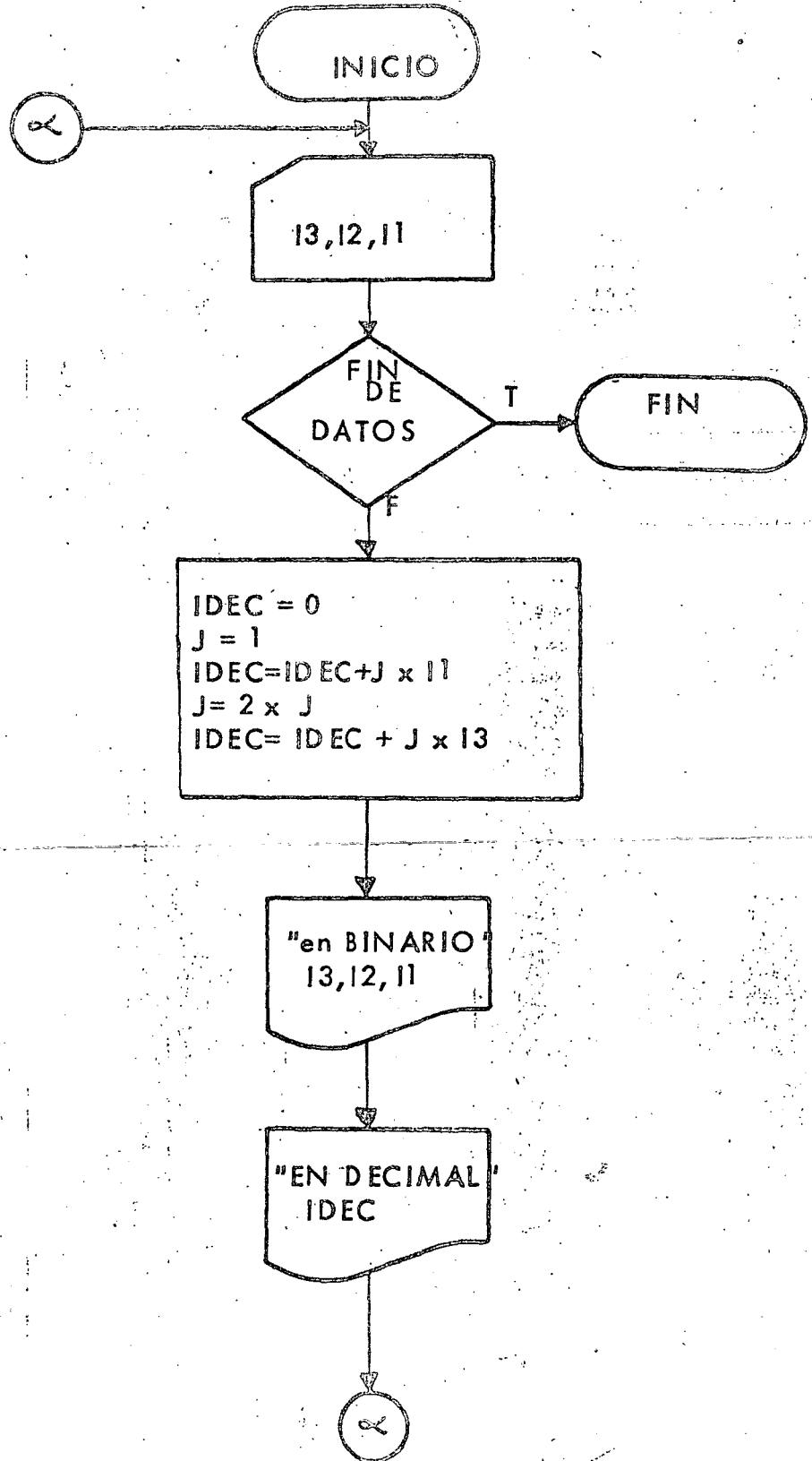
" CAMBIO DE BASE DE DECIMAL A BINARIO "



RESULTADOS

12 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
0
0
1
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
163 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
1
0
0
0
0
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
10 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
0
1
0
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
1 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
11 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
1
1
0
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
-131 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
0
EN BASE BINARIA.
0 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
0
EN BASE BINARIA.
1 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
1
EN BASE BINARIA.
13 EN BASE DECIMAL ES
1
0
1
1
EN BASE BINARIA.

" CAMBIO DE BASE , BINARIO A DECIMAL "



69

```
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
```

```
C-----O N C E-----
```

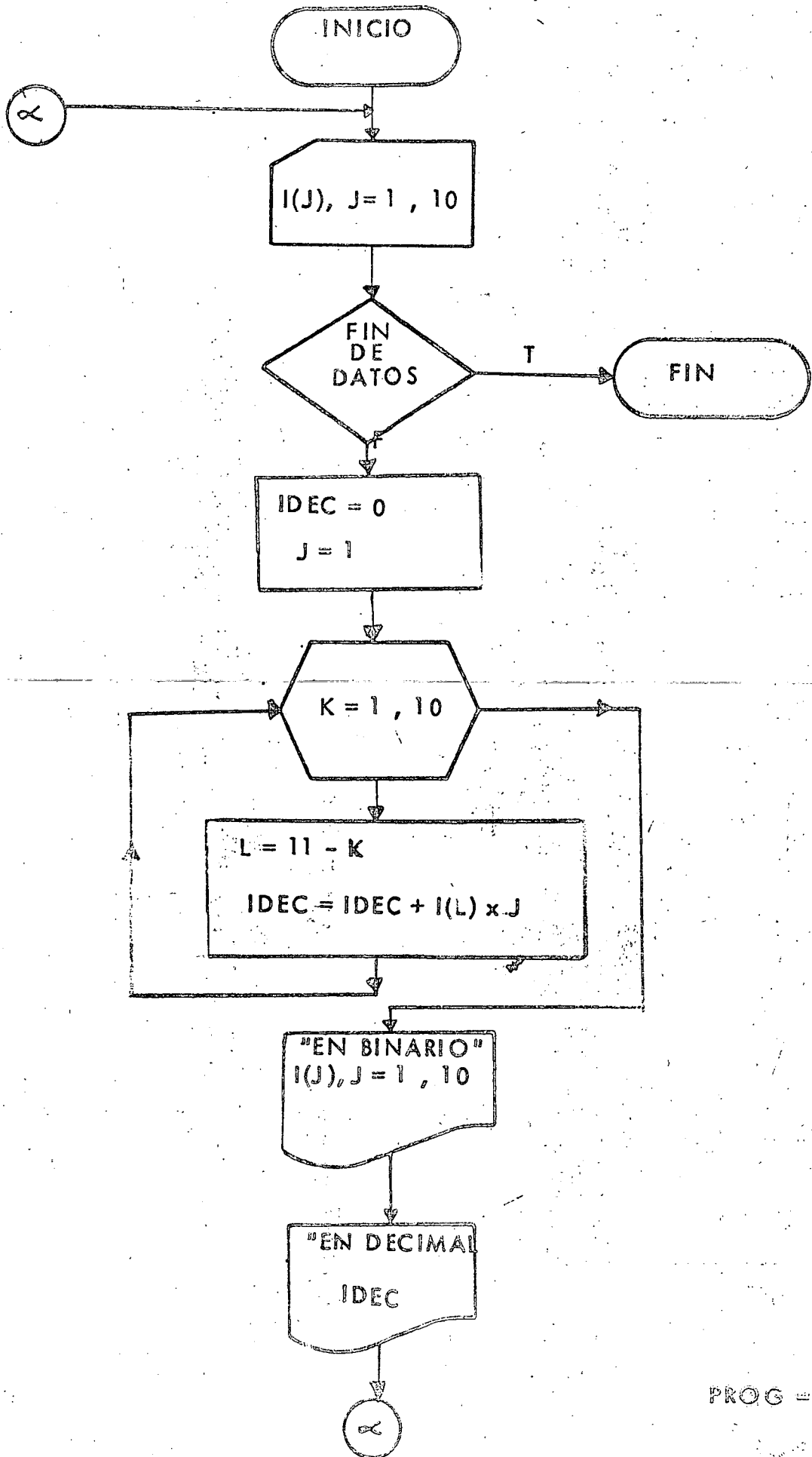
```
C   CAMBIO DE BASE ; BINARIA A DECIMAL
100 FORMAT(3I1)
101 FORMAT(1X, 3I1,19H EN BASE BINARIA ES)
102 FORMAT(1X,I5,17H EN BASE DECIMAL.)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
200 READ(2,100,END=210)I3,I2,I1
   IDEC=0
C   J CONTIENE LAS POTENCIAS DE 2.
   J=1
   IDEC=IDEC+J*I1
   J=2*J
   IDEC=IDEC+J*I2
   J=2*J
   IDEC=IDEC+J*I3
   WRITE(IMP,101)I3,I2,I1
C   IDEC CONTIENE LA REPRESENTACION DECIMAL DEL NUMERO BINARIO.
   WRITE(IMP,102)IDEC
   GO TO 200
210 CALL EXIT
   END
```

```
// XEQ
001
010
011
100
101
110
111
/*
```

RESULTADOS

001	EN BASE BINARIA ES
1	EN BASE DECIMAL.
010	EN BASE BINARIA ES
2	EN BASE DECIMAL.
011	EN BASE BINARIA ES
3	EN BASE DECIMAL.
100	EN BASE BINARIA ES
4	EN BASE DECIMAL.
101	EN BASE BINARIA ES
5	EN BASE DECIMAL.
110	EN BASE BINARIA ES
6	EN BASE DECIMAL.
111	EN BASE BINARIA ES
7	EN BASE DECIMAL.

"CAMBIO DE BASE, BINARIA A DECIMAL USANDO ARREGLOS"



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----D O C E-----
C   CAMBIO DE BASE ; BINARIA A DECIMAL
C   USANDO ARREGLOS
C   DIMENSION I(10)
100 FORMAT(10I1)
101 FORMAT(1X,10I1,19H EN BASE BINARIA ES)
102 FORMAT(1X,15,17H EN BASE DECIMAL.)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
200 READ(2,100,END=220)I
   IDEC=0
   J=1
   DO 210 K=1,10
C   SE ANALIZA EL VECTOR I DE DERECHA A IZQUIERDA
   L=11-K
   IDEC=IDEC+I(L)*J
C   J CONTIENE LAS POTENCIAS DE 2
   J=J*2
210 CONTINUE
   WRITE(IMP,101)(I(J),J=1,10)
   WRITE(IMP,102)IDEC
   GO TO 200
220 CALL EXIT
   END

```

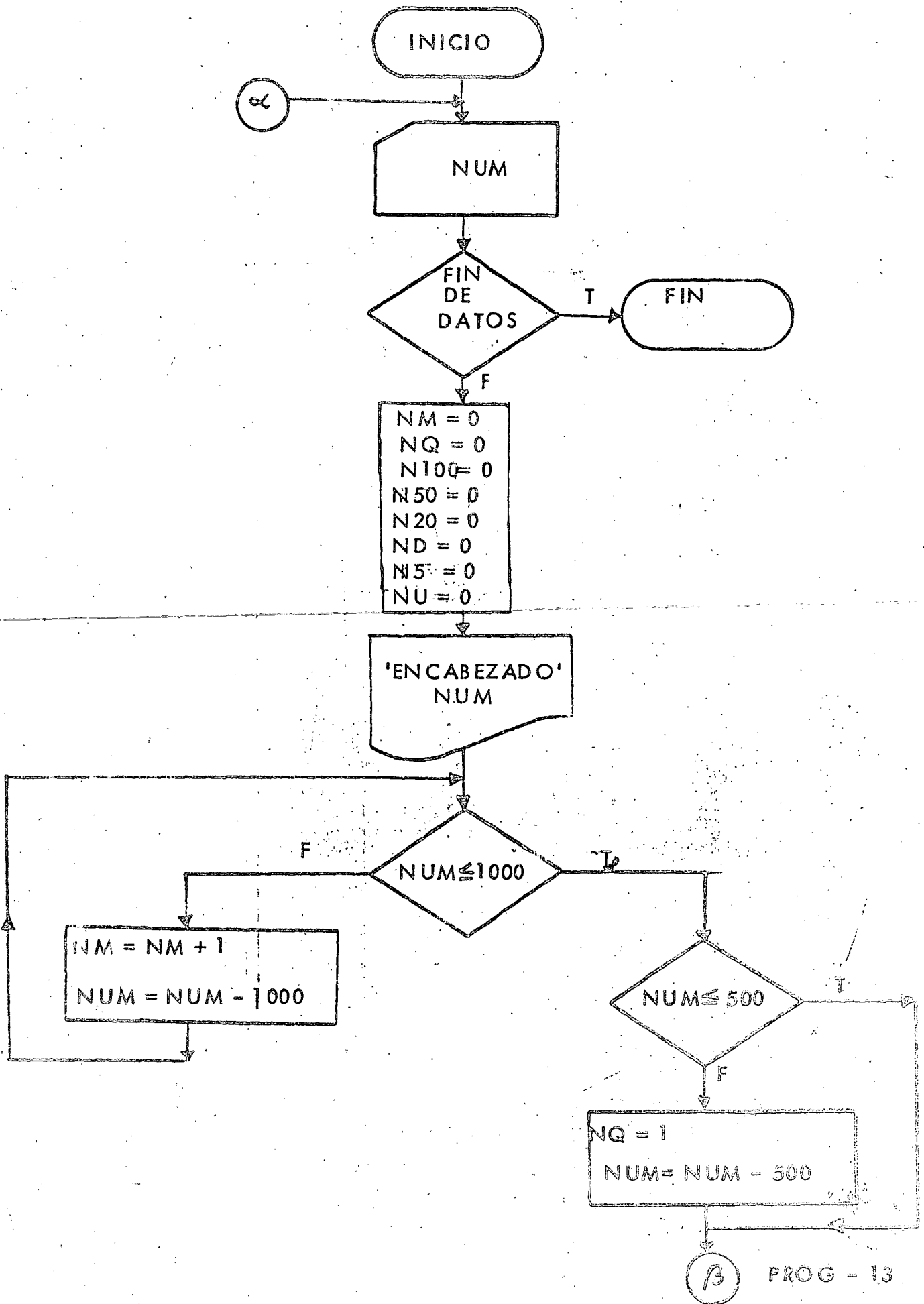
```

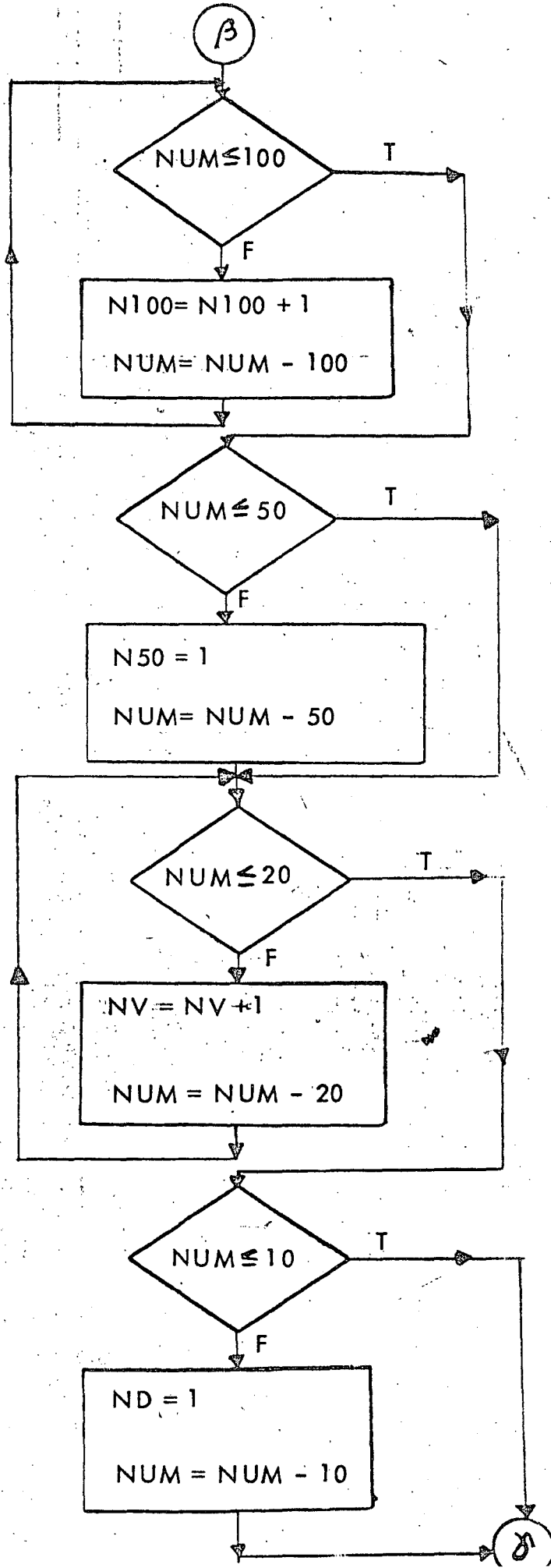
// XEQ
1
11
1000100010
1
1 1
1001001
00

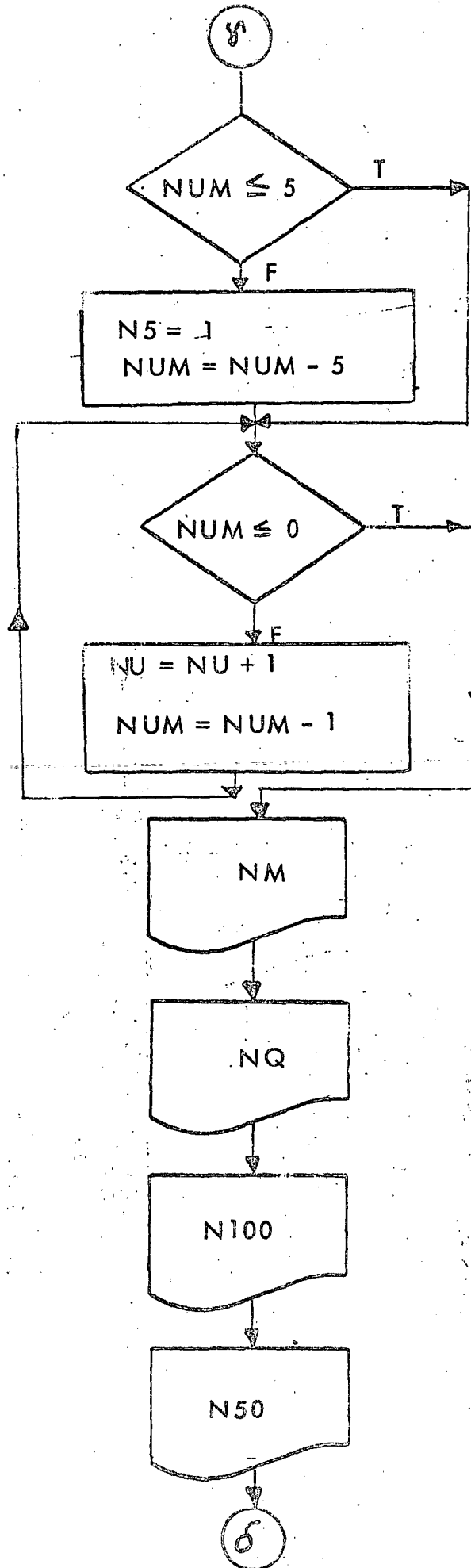
```

RESULTADOS

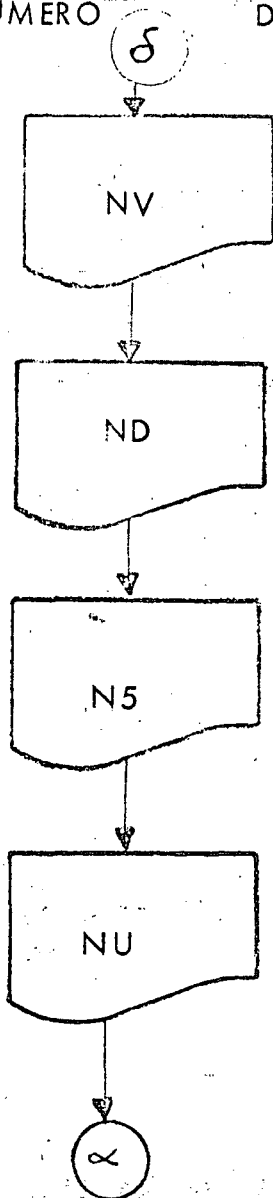
000000001	EN BASE BINARIA ES
1	EN BASE DECIMAL.
0000000110	EN BASE BINARIA ES
6	EN BASE DECIMAL.
1000100010	EN BASE BINARIA ES
546	EN BASE DECIMAL.
1000000000	EN BASE BINARIA ES
512	EN BASE DECIMAL.
1000000001	EN BASE BINARIA ES
513	EN BASE DECIMAL.
0001001001	EN BASE BINARIA ES
73	EN BASE DECIMAL.
0000000000	EN BASE BINARIA ES
0	EN BASE DECIMAL.







70



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----T R E C E-----
C     CALCULO DEL NUMERO DE BILLETES
    100 FORMAT(14)
    101 FORMAT(/,11H EL NUMERO-,14,24H.00-PUEDA DESGLOSARSE EN)
    102 FORMAT(15, 7H DE MIL)
    103 FORMAT(15,14H DE QUINIENTOS)
    104 FORMAT(15, 8H DE CIEN)
    105 FORMAT(15,13H DE CINCUENTA)
    106 FORMAT(15,10H DE VEINTE)
    107 FORMAT(15, 8H DE DIEZ)
    108 FORMAT(15, 9H DE CINCO)
    109 FORMAT(15, 7H DE UNO)
        LEE=2
        IMP=3
    200 READ(LEE,100,END=330)NUM
        NM=0
        NQ=0
        N100=0
        N50=0
        NV=0
        ND=0
        N5=0
        NU=0
        WRITE(IMP,101)NUM
    210 IF(NUM.LE.1000)GO TO 220
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 1000
        NM=NM+1
        NUM=NUM-1000
        GO TO 210
    220 CONTINUE
        IF(NUM.LE.500)GO TO 230
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 500 (MAXIMO UN BILLETE DE 500)
        NQ=1
        NUM=NUM-500
    230 CONTINUE
    240 IF(NUM.LE.100)GO TO 250
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 100
        N100=N100+1
        NUM=NUM-100
        GO TO 240
    250 CONTINUE
        IF(NUM.LE.50)GO TO 260
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 50 (MAXIMO UN BILLETE DE 50)
        N50=1
        NUM=NUM-50
    260 CONTINUE
    270 IF(NUM.LE.20)GO TO 280
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 20
        NV=NV+1
        NUM=NUM-20
        GO TO 270
    280 CONTINUE
        IF(NUM.LE.10)GO TO 290
C     NUM ES MAYOR QUE 10 (MAXIMO UN BILLETE DE 10)
        ND=1
        NUM=NUM-10
    290 CONTINUE
        IF(NUM.LE.5)GO TO 300

```

```

C   NUM ES MAYOR QUE 5 (MAXIMO UN BILLETE DE 5)
      N5=1
      NUM=NUM-5
300 CONTINUE
310 IF (NUM.LE.0) GO TO 320
C   NUM ES MAYOR QUE 1
      NU=NU+1
      NUM=NUM-1
      GO TO 310
320 CONTINUE
      WRITE (IMP,102) NM
      WRITE (IMP,103) NQ
      WRITE (IMP,104) N100
      WRITE (IMP,105) N50
      WRITE (IMP,106) NV
      WRITE (IMP,107) ND
      WRITE (IMP,108) N5
      WRITE (IMP,109) NU
      GO TO 200
330 CALL EXIT
      END

```

```

// XEQ
9000
1314
6893
1000
500
13
/*

```

RESULTADOS

EL NUMERO=9000.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

8 DE MIL
1 DE QUINIENTOS
4 DE CIEN
1 DE CINCUENTA
2 DE VEINTE
0 DE DIEZ
1 DE CINCO
5 DE UNO

EL NUMERO=1314.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

1 DE MIL
0 DE QUINIENTOS
3 DE CIEN
0 DE CINCUENTA
0 DE VEINTE
1 DE DIEZ
0 DE CINCO
4 DE UNO

EL NUMERO=6893.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

6 DE MIL
8 DE QUINIENTOS
3 DE CIEN
1 DE CINCUENTA
2 DE VEINTE
0 DE DIEZ
0 DE CINCO
3 DE UNO

EL NUMERO=1000.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

0 DE MIL
1 DE QUINIENTOS
0 DE CIEN
1 DE CINCUENTA
2 DE VEINTE
0 DE DIEZ
1 DE CINCO
5 DE UNO

EL NUMERO=500.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

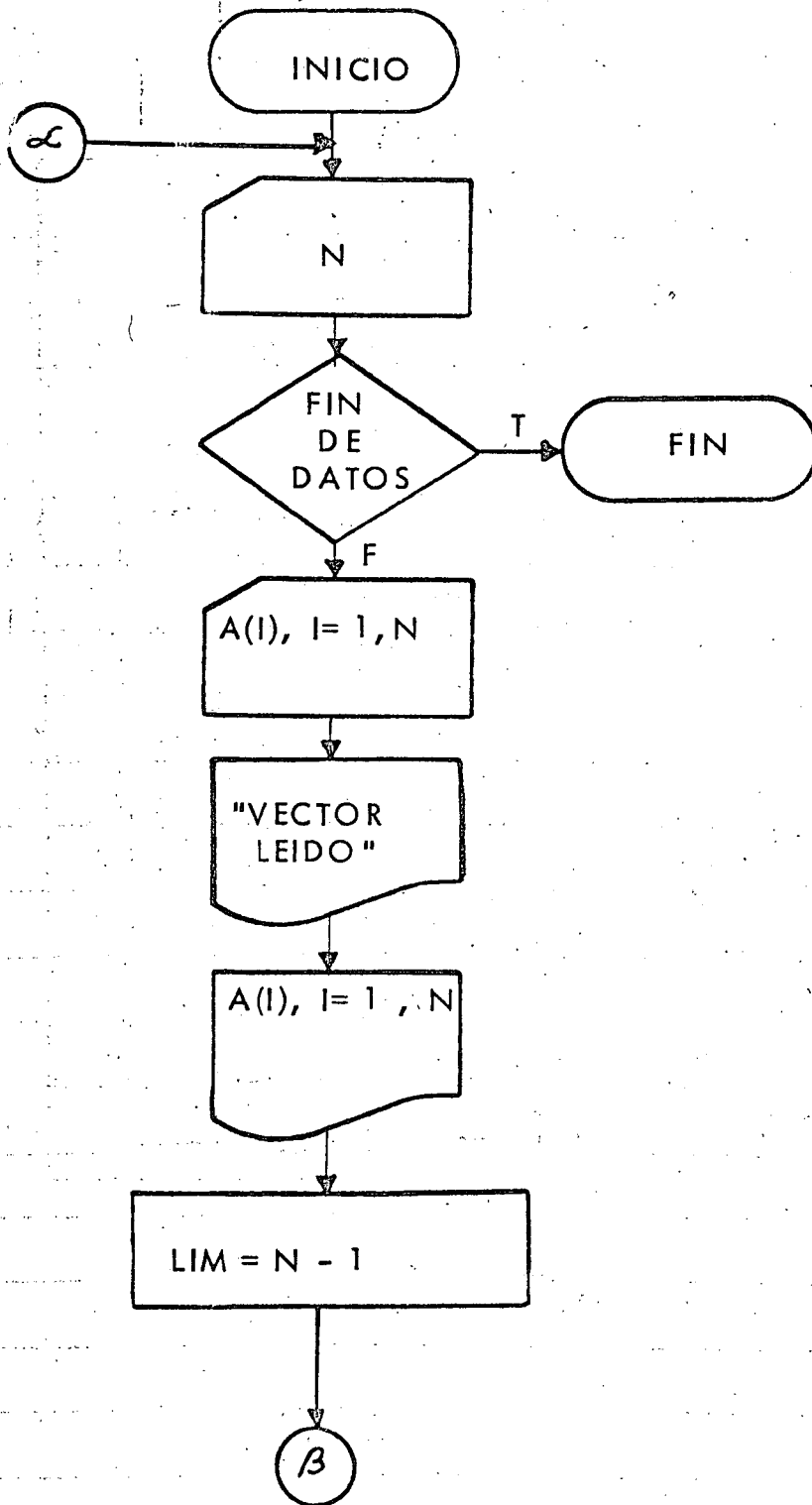
0 DE MIL
0 DE QUINIENTOS
4 DE CIEN
1 DE CINCUENTA
2 DE VEINTE
0 DE DIEZ
1 DE CINCO
5 DE UNO

EL NUMERO=13.00=PUEDE DESGLOSARSE EN

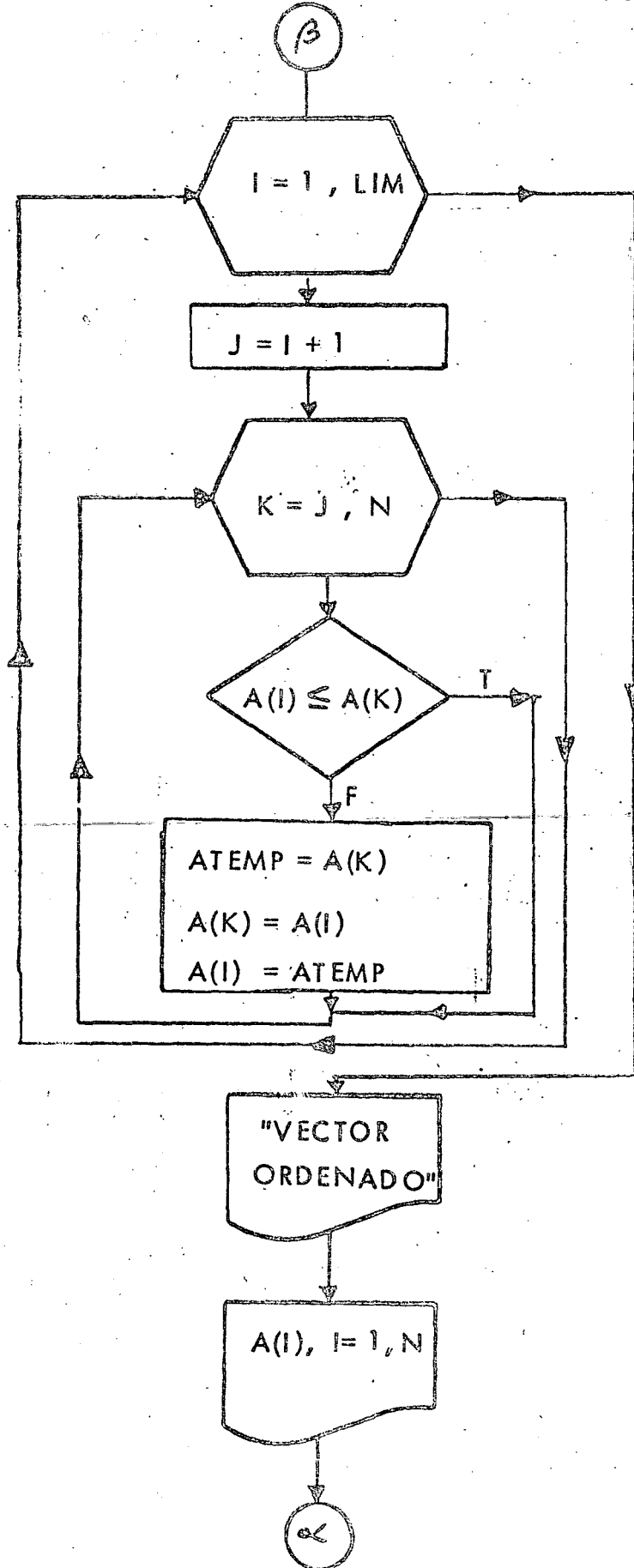
0 DE MIL
0 DE QUINIENTOS
0 DE CIEN
0 DE CINCUENTA
0 DE VEINTE
1 DE DIEZ
0 DE CINCO
3 DE UNO

" ORDENAMIENTO ASCENDENTE DE UN VECTOR "

1a.
74



" ORDENAMIENTO ASCENDENTE DE UN VECTOR "




```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*CNE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----C A T O R C E---
C   ORDENAMIENTO ASCENDENTE DE UN VECTOR
   DIMENSION A(100)
   100 FORMAT(I2)
   101 FORMAT(8F10.0)
   102 FORMAT(13H VECTOR LEIDO,/)
   103 FORMAT(10(1X,F11.4))
   104 FORMAT(16H VECTOR ORDENADO,/)
   LEE=2
   IMP=3
200 READ(LEE,100,END=240)N
C   N REPRESENTA EL NUMERO DE ELEMENTOS A ORDENAR
   READ(LEE,101)(A(I),I=1,N)
   WRITE(IMP,102)
   WRITE(IMP,103)(A(I),I=1,N)
   LIM=N-1
   DO 230 I=1,LIM
     J=I+1
C   SE ASUME QUE A(I) ES EL MENOR
     DO 220 K=J,N
       IF(A(I).LE.A(K))GO TO 210
C   A(I) FUE MAYOR QUE A(K)
       ATEMP=A(K)
       A(K)=A(I)
       A(I)=ATEMP
210   CONTINUE
220   CONTINUE
C   AHORA SE TIENE EN A(I) EL MENOR
230 CONTINUE
   WRITE(IMP,104)
   WRITE(IMP,103)(A(I),I=1,N)
   GO TO 200
240 CALL EXIT
   END

```

```
// XEQ
```

```

04
-4.      1.      -3.      17.
03
0.      -287.    32.
04
-28.    -32.     11.     0.
/*

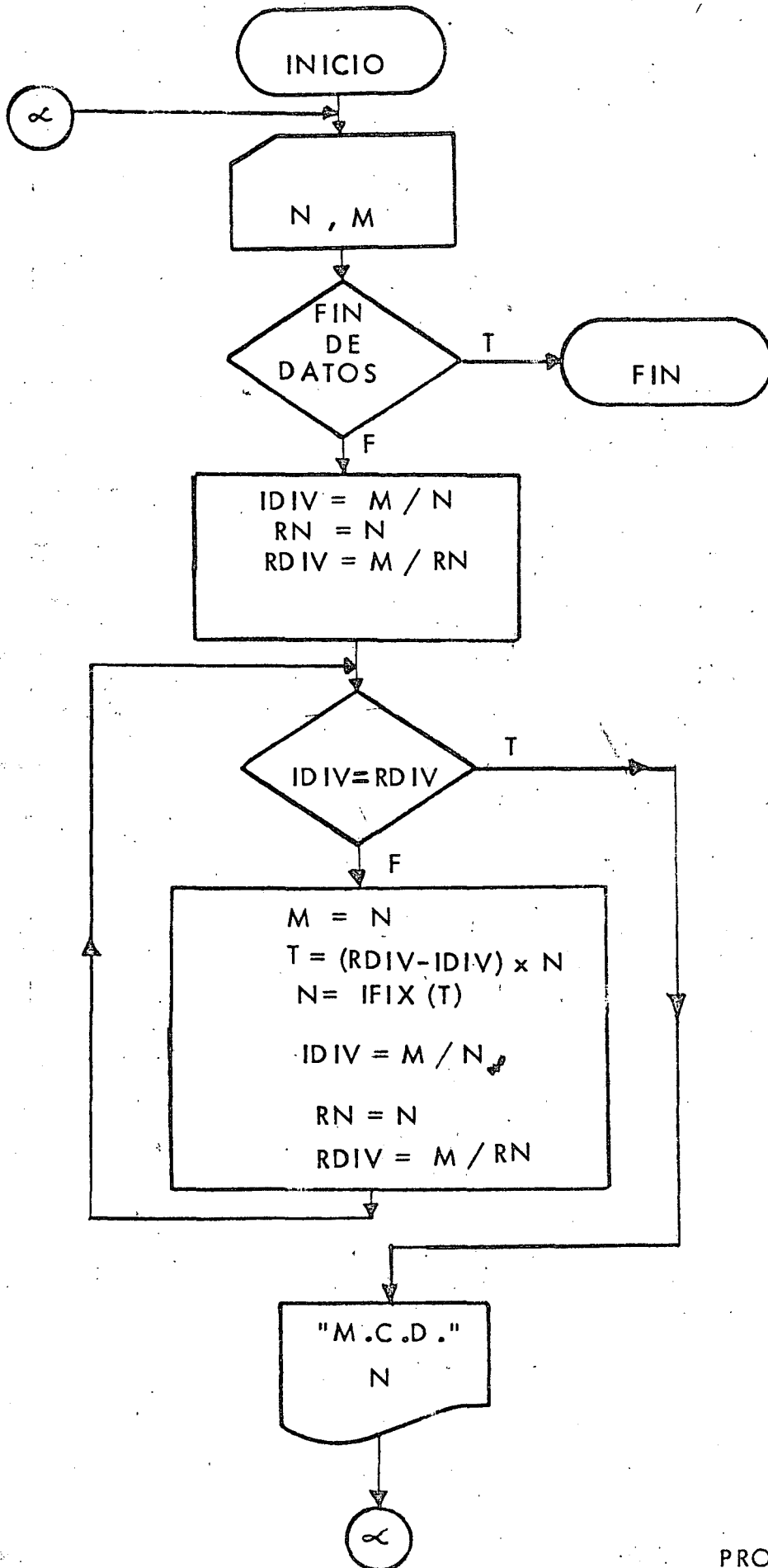
```

RESULTADOS

VECTOR LEIDO			
-4.0000	1.0000	-3.0000	17.0000
VECTOR ORDENADO			
-4.0000	-3.0000	1.0000	17.0000
VECTOR LEIDO			
0.0000	-287.0000	32.0000	
VECTOR ORDENADO			
-287.0000	0.0000	32.0000	
VECTOR LEIDO			
-28.0000	-32.0000	11.0000	0.0000
VECTOR ORDENADO			
-32.0000	-28.0000	0.0000	11.0000

" MAXIMO COMUN MULTIPLO ALGORITMO DE EUCLIDES "

78



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132:PRINTER)
C-----O U I N C E-----
C      MAXIMO COMUN MULTIPLO
C      ALGORITMO DE EUCLIDES
100  FORMAT(2I3)
101  FORMAT(3H N=,I3,3H M=,I3)
102  FORMAT(8H M.C.D.=,I3,/)
      LEE=2
      IMP=3
200  READ(LEE,100,END=230)N,M
C      SE CALCULA EL RESIDUO
      IDIV=M/N
      RN=N
      RDIV=M/RN
210  IF(IDIV.EQ.RDIV)GO TO 220
      M=N
      T=(RDIV-IDIV)*N
      N=IFIX(T)
      IDIV=M/N
      RN=N
      RDIV=M/RN
      GO TO 210
220  CONTINUE
C      N REPRESENTA EL MAXIMO COMUN DIVISOR
      WRITE(IMP,102)N
      GO TO 200
230  CALL EXIT
      END

```

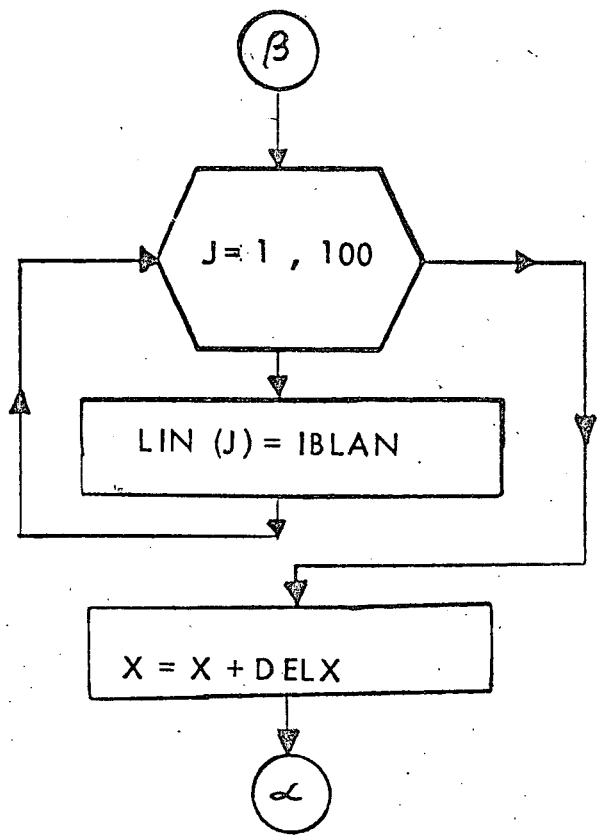
```

// XEQ
5 7
3 6
8 16
11 98
16 24
8 12
/*

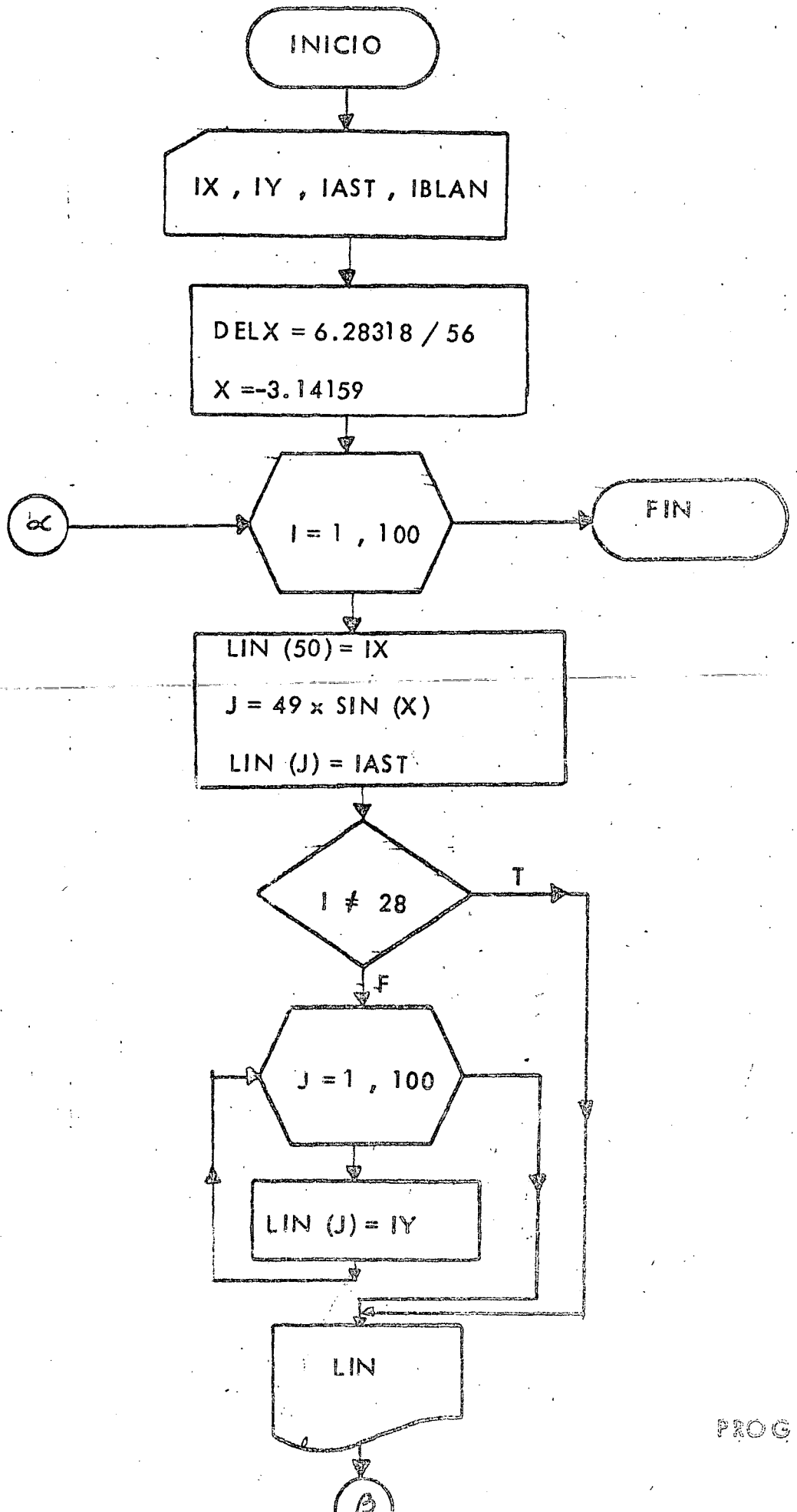
```

RESULTADOS

M.C.D. = 1
M.C.D. = 3
M.C.D. = 8
M.C.D. = 1
M.C.D. = 8
M.C.D. = 4



GRAFICA DE SEN (X)




```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*YOGS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C---#-----D I E C I S E I S-----
C   GRAFICA DE SEN(X)
    DIMENSION LIN(100)
    100 FORMAT(4A1)
    101 FORMAT(10X,100A1)
    LEE=2
    IMP=3
    READ(LEE,100)IX,IY,IAST,IBLAN
    DELX=6.28318/56
    X =-3.14159
    DO 200 I=1,100
        LIN(I)=IBLAN
    200 CONTINUE
    DO 240 I=1,56
        LIN(50)=IX
        J=49*SIN(X)+50
        LIN(J)=IAST
        IF(I.NE.28)GO TO 220
        DO 210 J=1,100
            I FUE IGUAL A 28. SE IMPRIME EL EJE Y
            LIN(J)=IY
        210 CONTINUE
        220 CONTINUE
        WRITE(IMP,101)LIN
        DO 230 J=1,100
            LIN(J)=IBLAN
        230 CONTINUE
        X=X+DELX
    240 CONTINUE
    CALL EXIT
    END

// XEQ
XY*
/*

```

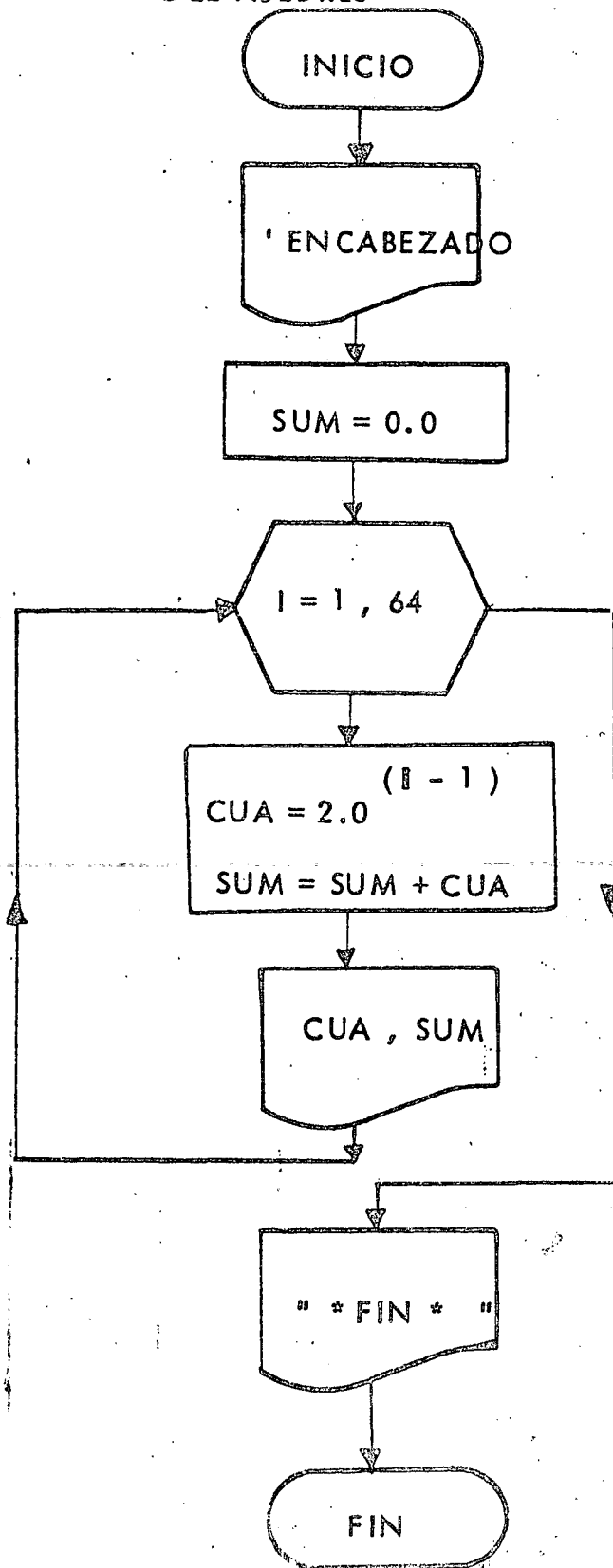


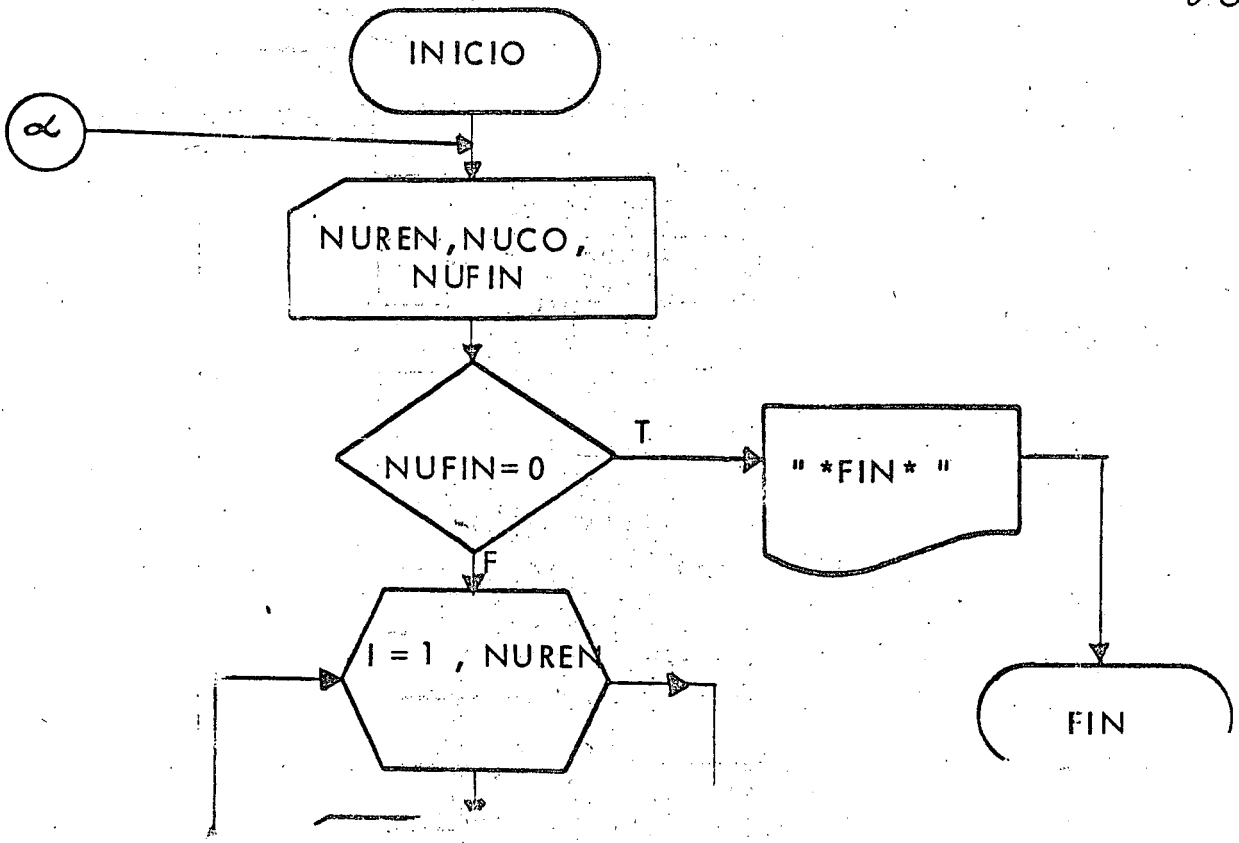
```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
C-----D I E C I S I E T E-----
C ESTE PROGRAMA CALCULA EL NUMERO DE GRANOS DE MAIZ QUE COBRO EL
C INVENTOR DE AJEDRES
C FILES
      LEE=2
      IMP=3
C FORMATOS
100 FORMAT(10X,6HCUADRO,9X,4HSUMA,/)
101 FORMAT(3X,I2,2E15.7)
102 FORMAT(//)
103 FORMAT(53X,11H***** )
104 FORMAT(53X,11H* FIN *)
      WRITE(IMP,100)
      SUM=0.0
      DO 200 I=1,64
        CUA=2.0**(I-1)
        SUM=SUM+CUA
        WRITE(IMP,101)I,CUA,SUM
200 CONTINUE
      WRITE(IMP,102)
      WRITE(IMP,103)
      WRITE(IMP,104)
      WRITE(IMP,103)
      CALL EXIT
      END
// XEQ
/*

```

" No. DE GRANOS DE MAIZ GANADOS POR EL INVENTOR
DEL AJEDRES "





CUADRO

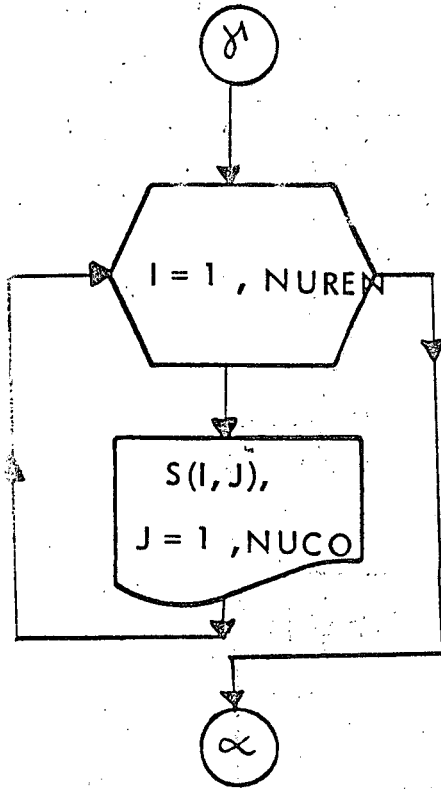
SUMA

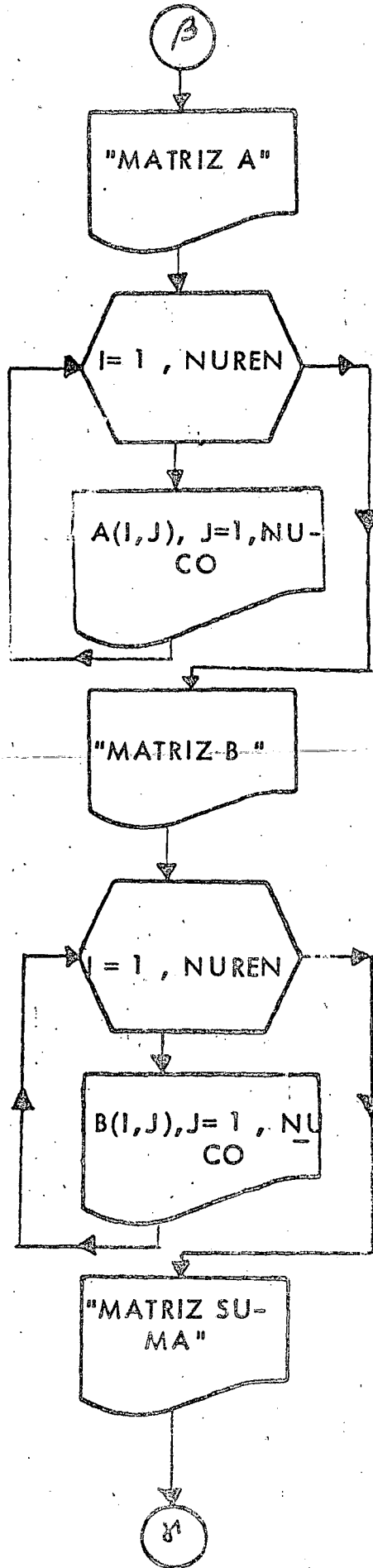
RESULTADOS

1	000000	+	01
2	000000	+	01
4	800000	+	01
5	160000	+	02
7	320000	+	02
8	640000	+	02
9	128000	+	03
10	256000	+	03
11	512000	+	03
12	102400	+	04
13	204800	+	04
14	409600	+	04
15	819200	+	04
16	1638400	+	05
17	3276800	+	05
18	6553600	+	05
19	13107200	+	06
20	26214400	+	06
21	52428800	+	06
22	104857600	+	07
23	209715200	+	07
24	419430400	+	07
25	838860800	+	07
26	1677721600	+	08
27	3355443200	+	08
28	6710886400	+	08
29	13421772800	+	09
30	26843545600	+	09
31	53687091200	+	10
32	107374182400	+	10
33	214748364800	+	10
34	429496729600	+	10
35	858993459200	+	10
36	1717986918400	+	11
37	3435973836800	+	11
38	6871947673600	+	11
39	13743895347200	+	12
40	27487790694400	+	12
41	54975581388800	+	13
42	109951162777600	+	13
43	219902325555200	+	13
44	439804651110400	+	13
45	879609302220800	+	14
46	1759216044416000	+	14
47	3518432088832000	+	14
48	7036864177664000	+	14
49	14073728355328000	+	15
50	28147456710656000	+	15
51	56294913421312000	+	15
52	112589826842624000	+	16
53	225179653685248000	+	16
54	450359307370496000	+	16
55	900718614740992000	+	16
56	1801437229481984000	+	17
57	3602874458963968000	+	17
58	7205748917927936000	+	17
59	14411497835855872000	+	18
60	28822995671711744000	+	18
61	57645991343423488000	+	18
62	115291982686846976000	+	19
63	230583965373693952000	+	19
64	461167930747387904000	+	19
65	922335861494775808000	+	20

PROG -

* FIN *





CALL EXIT
END

```

// XEQ
2 2 1
  5.0      0.0
 12.2     3.4
 -4.7     2.1
  0.0    -1.2
2 2 1
90.15   -87.02
 5.478  12.22
-90.15   87.02
-5.478 -12.22
2 2 0

```

RESULTADOS

MATRIZ A:	
5.000	0.000
12.200	3.400
MATRIZ B:	
-4.700	2.100
0.000	-1.200
LA MATRIZ SUMA ES:	
0.300	2.100
12.200	2.200
MATRIZ A:	
90.150	-87.020
5.478	12.220
MATRIZ B:	
-90.150	87.020
-5.478	-12.220
LA MATRIZ SUMA ES:	
0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000

PROG - 18

```

*****
*   FIN   *
*****

```

// JOB T
// FOR

*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM

C-----D I E C I O C H O-----

C SUMA DE DOS MATRICES: A Y B
C EL PROGRAMA ESTA HECHO PARA SUMAR DOS MATRICES DE 10X 10 MAXIMO.
C SE RESERVAN LUGARES EN LA MEMORIA PARA LAS MATRICES A SUMAR Y PARA
C LA MATRIZ SUMA.
C DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),S(10,10)
C FILES

LEE=2
IMP=3

C FORMATOS

100 FORMAT(3I2)
101 FORMAT(10F8.3)
102 FORMAT(///,5X,9HMATRIZ A:,//)
103 FORMAT(5X,10(F8.3,2X),//)
104 FORMAT(///,5X,9HMATRIZ B:,//)
105 FORMAT(///,5X,18HLA MATRIZ SUMA ES:,//)
106 FORMAT(53X,11H*****)
107 FORMAT(53X,11H* FIN *)

C LECTURA DEL NUMERO DE RENGLONES DE LAS MATRICES (NUREN) Y DEL NUMERO
C RO DE COLUMNAS (NUCO).Y DE UN DETECTOR (NUFIN)

199 READ(LEE,100)NUREN,NUCO,NUFIN

C ANALISIS DE NUFIN. SI VALE CERO YA NO SE EJECUTA EL PROGRAMA,DE LO
C CONTRARIO SI.

IF(NUFIN.EQ.0)GO TO 1000

C LECTURA POR RENGLONES DE LA MATRIZ A.

DO 200 I=1,NUREN
READ(LEE,101)(A(I,J),J=1,NUCO)

200 CONTINUE

C LECTURA POR RENGLONES DE LA MATRIZ B.

DO 201 I=1,NUREN
READ(LEE,101)(B(I,J),J=1,NUCO)

201 CONTINUE

C SE HARA LA SUMA ELEMENTO A ELEMENTO

DO 203 I=1,NUREN
DO 202 J=1,NUCO
S(I,J)=A(I,J)+B(I,J)

202 CONTINUE

203 CONTINUE

C IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ A POR RENGLONES

WRITE(IMP,102)
DO 204 I=1,NUREN
WRITE(IMP,103)(A(I,J),J=1,NUCO)

204 CONTINUE

C IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ B POR RENGLONES

WRITE(IMP,104)
DO 205 I=1,NUREN
WRITE(IMP,103)(B(I,J),J=1,NUCO)

205 CONTINUE

C IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ S POR RENGLONES

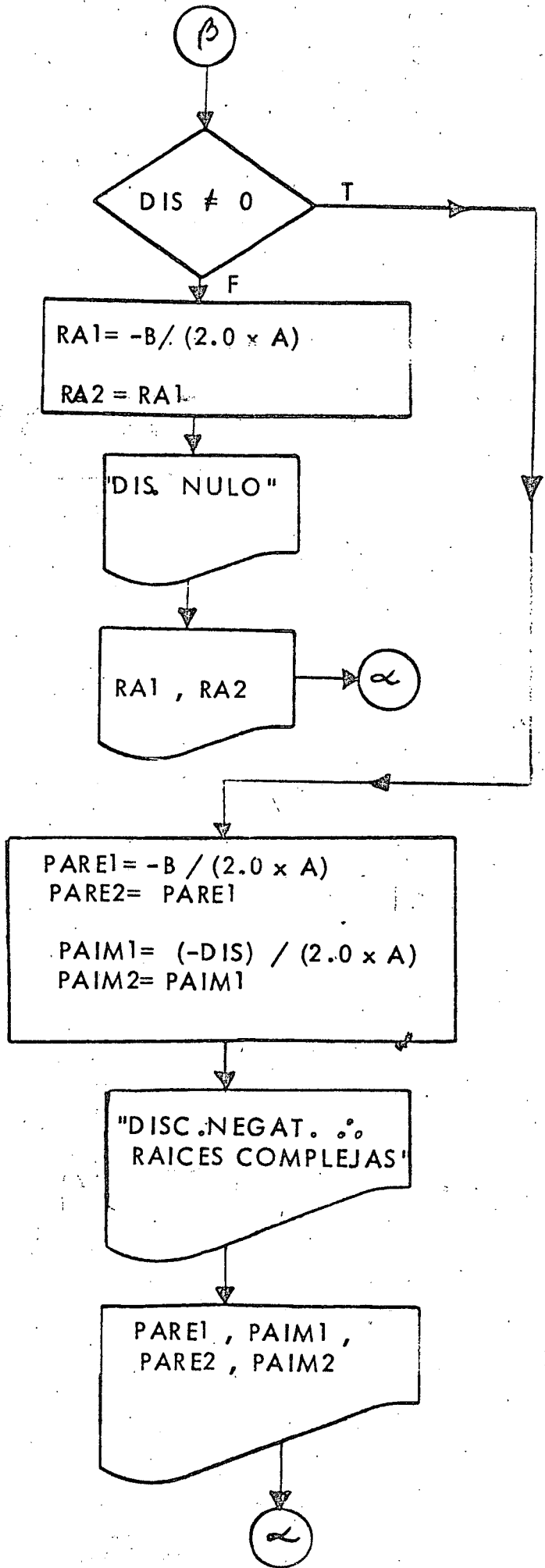
WRITE(IMP,105)
DO 206 I=1,NUREN
WRITE(IMP,103)(S(I,J),J=1,NUCO)

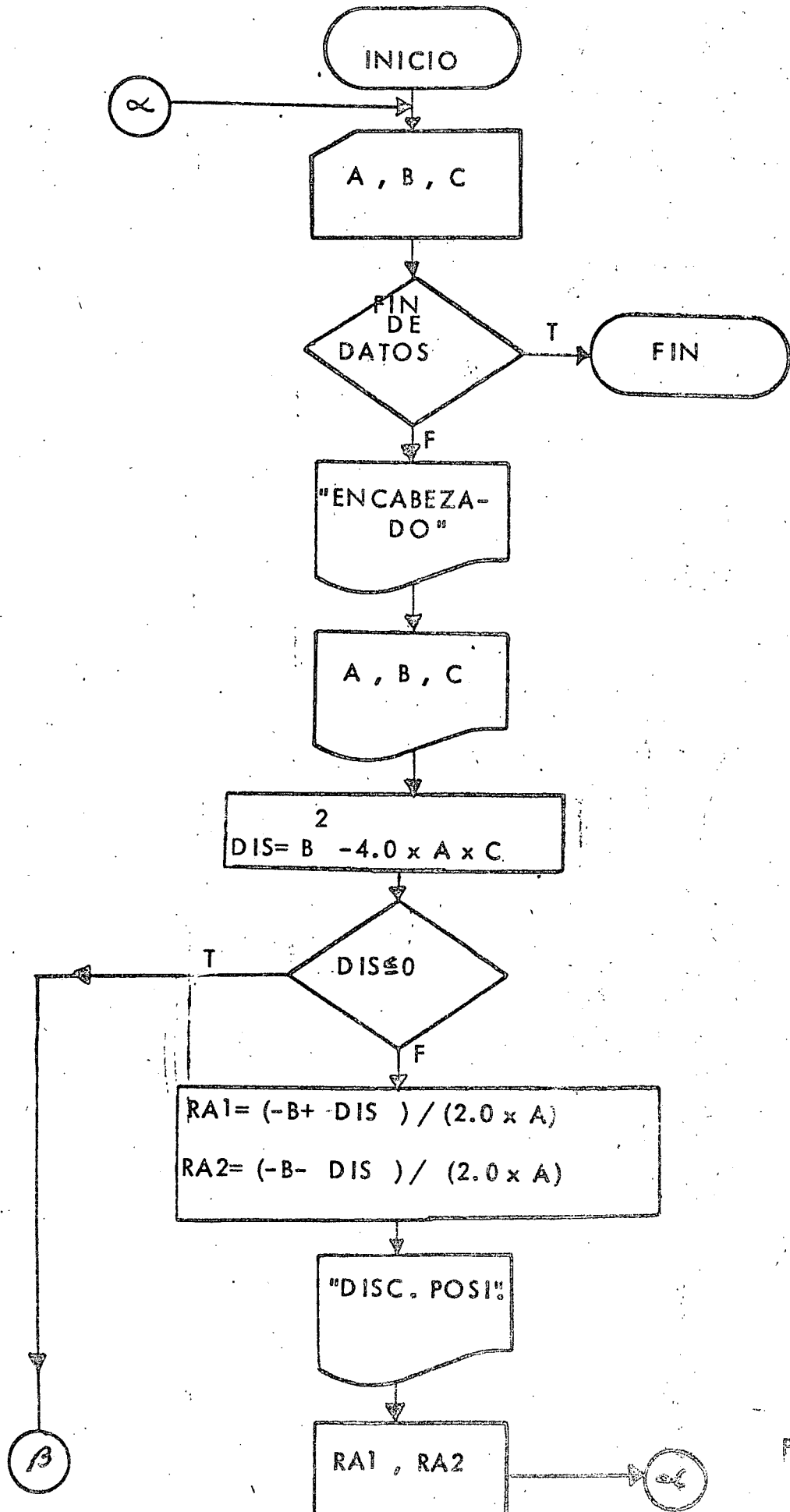
206 CONTINUE

GO TO 199

1000 CONTINUE

WRITE(IMP,106)
WRITE(IMP,107)
WRITE(IMP,106)





3.0

20.0

1.0

1.

44

RESULTADOS

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA ECUACION SON

A= 1.00000 B= 2.00000 C= 3.00000

EL DISCRIMINANTE ES NEGATIVO, POR TANTO RAICES COMPLEJAS

X1= -1.00000 + 1.41421 IMA X2= -1.00000 - 1.41421 IMA

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA ECUACION SON

A= 5.00000 B= 10.00000 C= 5.00000

EL DISCRIMINANTE ES NULO, POR TANTO RAICES IGUALES

X1= -1.00000 X2= -1.00000

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA ECUACION SON

A= 1.00000 B= 10.00000 C= 27.00000

EL DISCRIMINANTE ES NEGATIVO, POR TANTO RAICES COMPLEJAS

X1= -5.00000 + 1.41421 IMA X2= -5.00000 - 1.41421 IMA

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA ECUACION SON

A= 3.00000 B= 20.00000 C= 1.00000

EL DISCRIMINANTE ES POSITIVO, POR TANTO RAICES REALES

X1= -0.05038 X2= -6.61629

```
// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
```

```
C-----D I E C I N U E V E-----
```

```
C SOLUCION DE ECUACIONES CUADRATICAS.
```

```
100 FORMAT(3F11.5)
101 FORMAT(///,2X,36HLOS COEFICIENTES DE LA ECUACION SON,/)
102 FORMAT(2X,3HA= ,F11.5,2X,3HB= ,F11.5,2X,3HC= ,F11.5,/)
103 FORMAT(2X,52HEL DISCRIMINANTE ES POSITIVO,POR TANTO RAICES REALES,
1//)
104 FORMAT(5X,3HX1=,F11.5,10X,3HX2=,F11.5,///)
105 FORMAT(2X,49HEL DISCRIMINANTE ES NULO,POR TANTO RAICES IGUALES,/)
106 FORMAT(5X,3HX1=,F11.5,10X,3HX2=,F11.5,///)
107 FORMAT(2X,55HEL DISCRIMINANTE ES NEGATIVO,POR TANTO RAICES COMPLEJ
IAS,/)
108 FORMAT(5X,3HX1=,F11.5,2H +,F11.5,4H IMA,10X,3HX2=,F11.5,2H -,F11.5
1,4H IMA,///)
LEE=2
IMP=3
```

```
C LEE LOS COEFICIENTES
200 READ(LEE,100,END=240)A,B,C
```

```
C IMPRIME LA ECUACION
WRITE(IMP,101)
WRITE(IMP,102)A,B,C
```

```
C CALCULO DEL DISCRIMINANTE
DIS=B**2-4.0*A*C
IF(DIS.LE. 0.0)GO TO 210
```

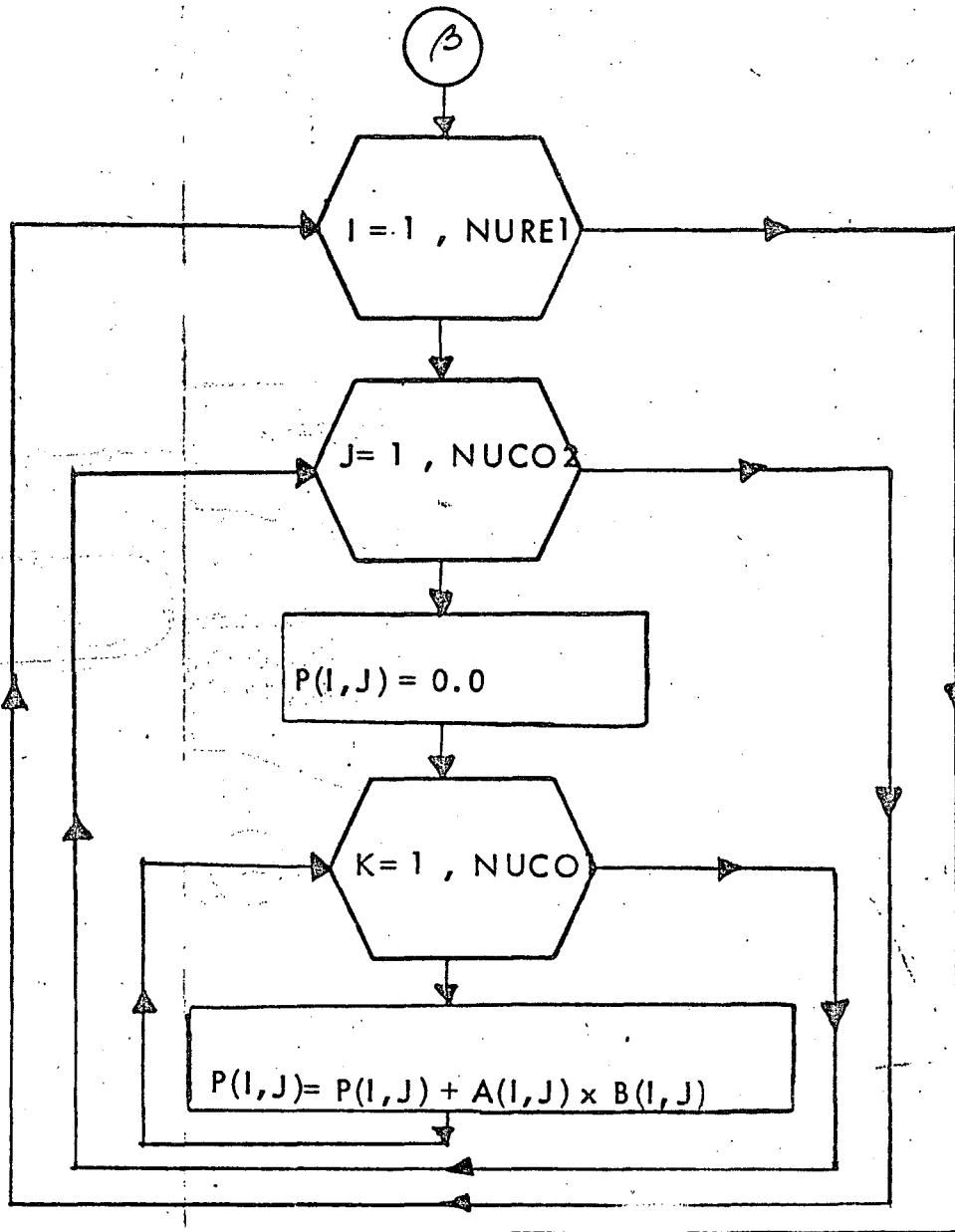
```
C RAICES REALES DIFERENTES
RA1=(-B+SQRT(DIS))/(2.0*A)
RA2=(-B-SQRT(DIS))/(2.0*A)
WRITE(IMP,103)
WRITE(IMP,104)RA1,RA2
GO TO 230
```

```
210 CONTINUE
IF(DIS.NE.0.0)GO TO 220
C RAICES REALES IGUALES
RA1=-B/(2.0*A)
RA2=RA1
WRITE(IMP,105)
WRITE(IMP,106)RA1,RA2
GO TO 230
```

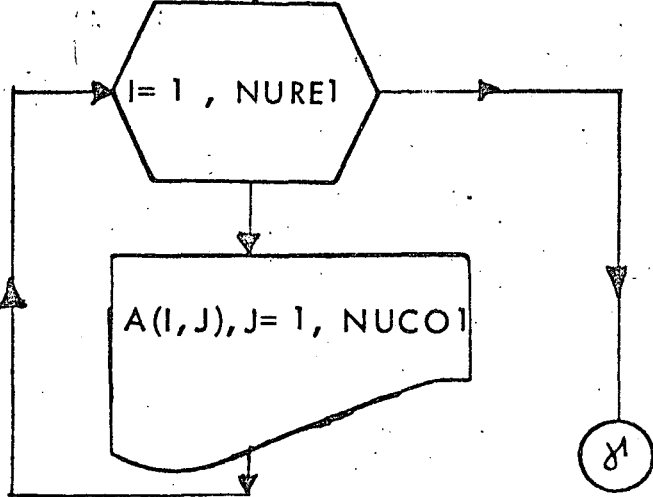
```
220 CONTINUE
C RAICES COMPLEJAS
PARE1=-B/(2.0*A)
PARE2=PARE1
PAIM1=SQRT(-DIS)/(2.0*A)
PAIM2=PAIM1
WRITE(IMP,107)
WRITE(IMP,108)PARE1,PAIM1,PARE2,PAIM2
GO TO 230
```

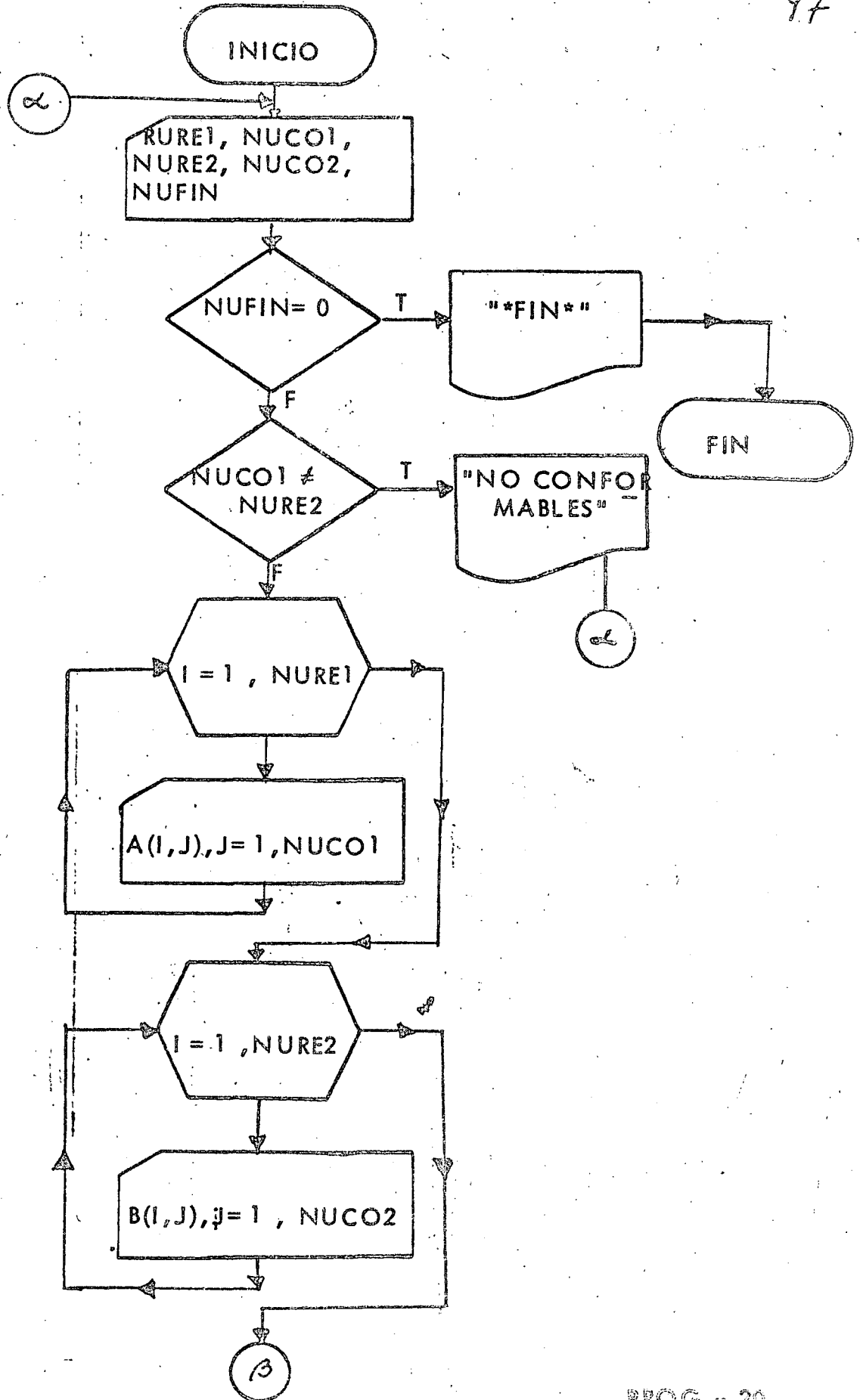
```
C ENDIF
C ENDIF
230 CONTINUE
GO TO 200
240 CONTINUE
CALL EXIT
END
```

```
// XEQ
1.0 2.0 3.0 1.
5.0 10.0 5.0 1.
1.0 10.0 27.0 1.
```



"MATRIZ A"





// JOB T
// FOR

*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)

C-----V E I N T E -----
C EL PROGRAMA REALIZA EL PRODUCTO DE DOS MATRICES DE 10 X 10 MAXIMO.
C UNA ES LA MATRIZ A(NURE1,NUCO1).
C LA OTRA ES LA MATRIZ B(NURE2,NUCO2).
C SE RESERVAN LUGARES EN LA MEMORIA PARA LAS MATRICES QUE SE VAN A
C MULTIPLICAR Y PARA LA MATRIZ PRODUCTO.
C DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),P(10,10)
C FILES

LEE=2
IMP=3

C FORMATOS

100 FORMAT(5I2)
101 FORMAT(10F8,3)
102 FORMAT(///,5X,9HMATRIZ A:,//)
103 FORMAT(5X,10(F8.3,2X),//)
104 FORMAT(///,5X,9HMATRIZ B:,//)
105 FORMAT(///,5X,22HLA MATRIZ PRODUCTO ES:,//)
106 FORMAT(5X,10E15.7,//)
107 FORMAT(///,5X,76HEL PRODUCTO NO SE PUEDE LLEVAR A CABO YA QUE LAS
1 MATRICES NO SON CONFORMABLES,///
108 FORMAT(///
109 FORMAT(53X,11H*****
110 FORMAT(53X,11H* FIN *)

C LECTURA DE LOS NUMEROS DE RENGLONES Y DE COLUMNAS DE CADA MATRIZ
C Y DEL DETECTOR NUFIN.
199 READ(LEE,100)NURE1,NUCO1,NURE2,NUCO2,NUFIN
C ANALISIS DEL VALOR DE NUFIN. SI VALE CERO EL PROGRAMA NO SE LLEVA
C A CABO, DE LO CONTRARIO SI.
IF(NUFIN.EQ.0)GO TO 1000

C SE VE SI LAS MATRICES SON CONFORMABLES.
IF(NUCO1.NE.NURE2)GO TO 900

C LECTURA POR RENGLONES DE LA MATRIZ A.
DO 200 I=1,NURE1
READ(LEE,101)(A(I,J),J=1,NUCO1)

200 CONTINUE
C LECTURA POR RENGLONES DE LA MATRIZ B.
DO 201 I=1,NURE2
READ(LEE,101)(B(I,J),J=1,NUCO2)

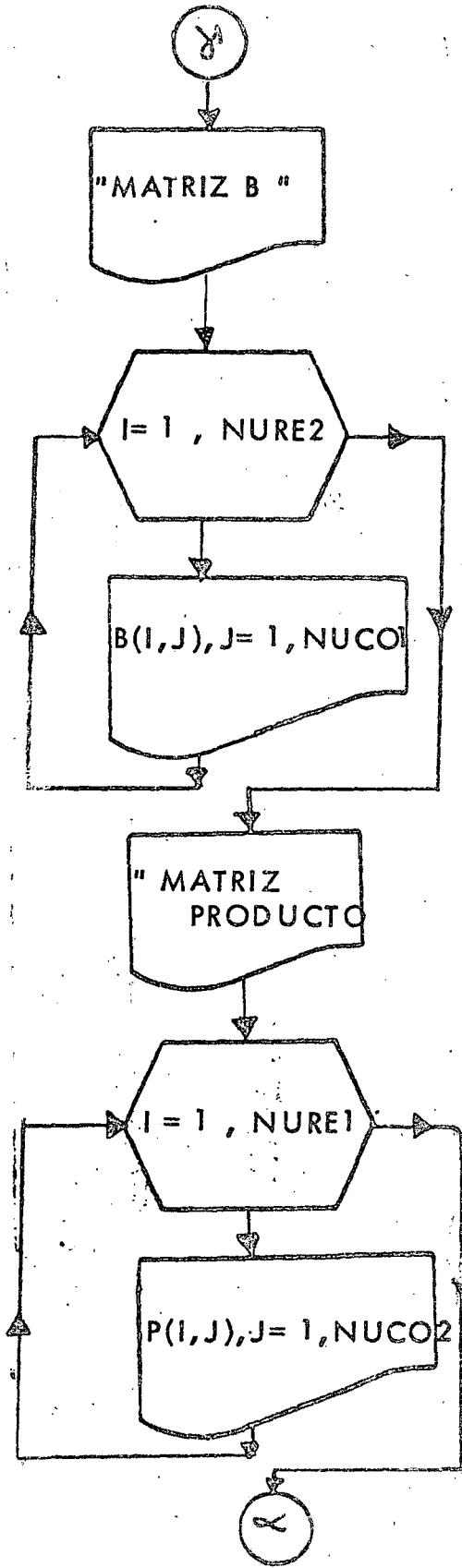
201 CONTINUE
C SE REALIZA EL PRODUCTO
DO 204 I=1,NURE1
DO 203 J=1,NUCO2
P(I,J)=0.0
DO 202 K=1,NUCO1
P(I,J)=P(I,J)+A(I,K)*B(K,J)

202 CONTINUE
203 CONTINUE

204 CONTINUE
C IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ A POR RENGLONES
WRITE(IMP,102)
DO 205 I=1,NURE1
WRITE(IMP,103)(A(I,J),J=1,NUCO1)

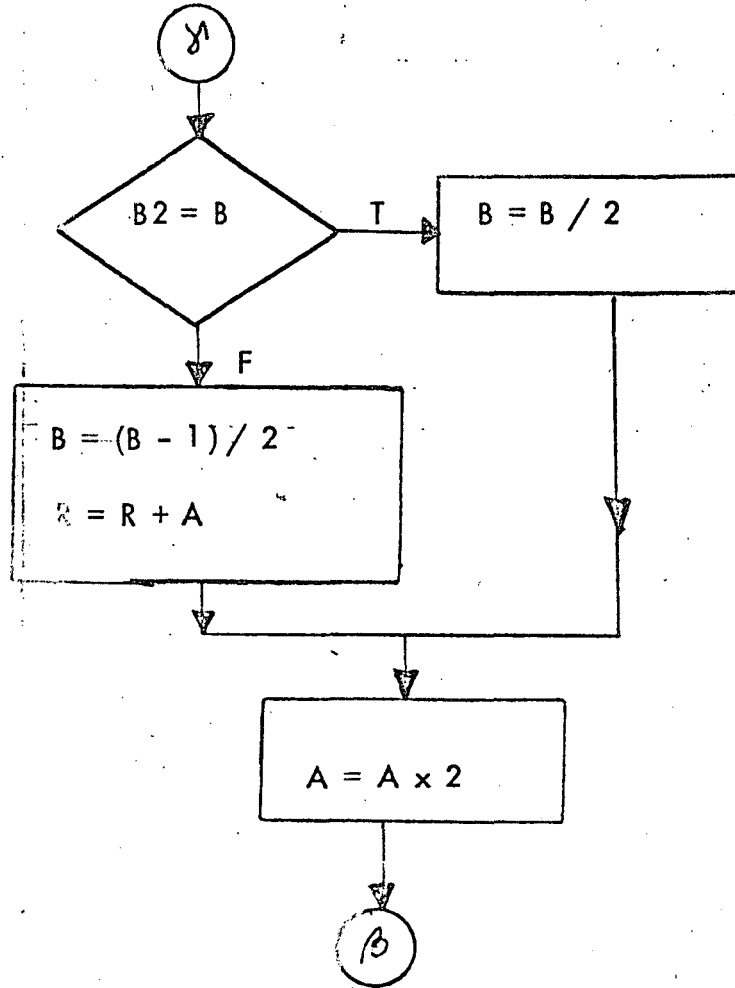
205 CONTINUE
C IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ B POR RENGLONES.
WRITE(IMP,104)
DO 206 I=1,NURE2
WRITE(IMP,103)(B(I,J),J=1,NUCO1)

206 CONTINUE



" MULTIPLICACION DE DOS NUMEROS UTILIZANDO EXCLUSIVAMENTE MULTIP. Y DIVISION POR 2 "

2a. /00



```

C      IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ P POR RENGLONES.
      WRITE(IMP,105)
      DO 207 I=1,NURE1
        WRITE(IMP,106)(P(I,J),J=1,NUC02)
207    CONTINUE
      GO TO 199
900    CONTINUE
      WRITE(IMP,107)
      GO TO 199
1000  CONTINUE
      WRITE(IMP,108)
      WRITE(IMP,109)
      WRITE(IMP,110)
      WRITE(IMP,109)
      CALL EXIT
      END

```

```

// XEQ
2 2 2 210
15.54 -42.07
-1.22 0.0
1950.75 -12.0
0.001 5.0
2 2 2 210
0.2 98.75
-12.5 32.52
1000.01 0.0
-1.52 15.51
2 3 2 210
2 2 2 200
/*

```

RESULTADOS

102

MATRIZ A:

15.540 -42.070
0.000 -1.220

MATRIZ B:

1950.750 -12.000
0.001 5.000

LA MATRIZ PRODUCTO ES:

.3031461E+05 -.3968300E+03
-.1220000E-02 -.6100000E+01

MATRIZ A:

0.200 98.750
0.000 -12.500

MATRIZ B:

1000.010 0.000
-1.520 15.510

LA MATRIZ PRODUCTO ES:

.4990200E+02 .1531613E+04
.1900000E+02 -.1938750E+03

EL PRODUCTO NO SE PUEDE LLEVAR A CABO YA QUE LAS MATRICES NO SON CONFORMABLES

* FIN *

```

// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----V E I N T I U N O -----
C MULTIPLICACION DE DOS NUMEROS
C UTILIZANDO SOLO MULTIPLICACIONES Y
C DIVISIONES POR 2
C INTEGER A,B,C,R,AA,BB
C WRITE (3,101)
101 FORMAT (1H1)
C WRITE (3,102)
102 FORMAT (9X,1HA,3X,1HX,4X,1HB,4X,1H=,4X,1HC)
200 READ (2,100,END=260)A,B
100 FORMAT (2I3)
R=0
AA=A
BB=B
210 IF(B.EQ.1) GO TO 240
B1=B/2
B2=B1*2
IF(B2.EQ.B) GO TO 220
ES IMPAR
B=(B-1)/2
R=R+A
GO TO 230
220 CONTINUE
ES PAR
B=B/2
230 CONTINUE
A=A*2
GO TO 210
240 CONTINUE
C=A+R
WRITE (3,103) AA,BB,C
103 FORMAT (3I10)
GO TO 200
260 CALL EXIT
END

```

```

// XEQ
60 80
19 17
68 35
40 11
77 99
/*

```

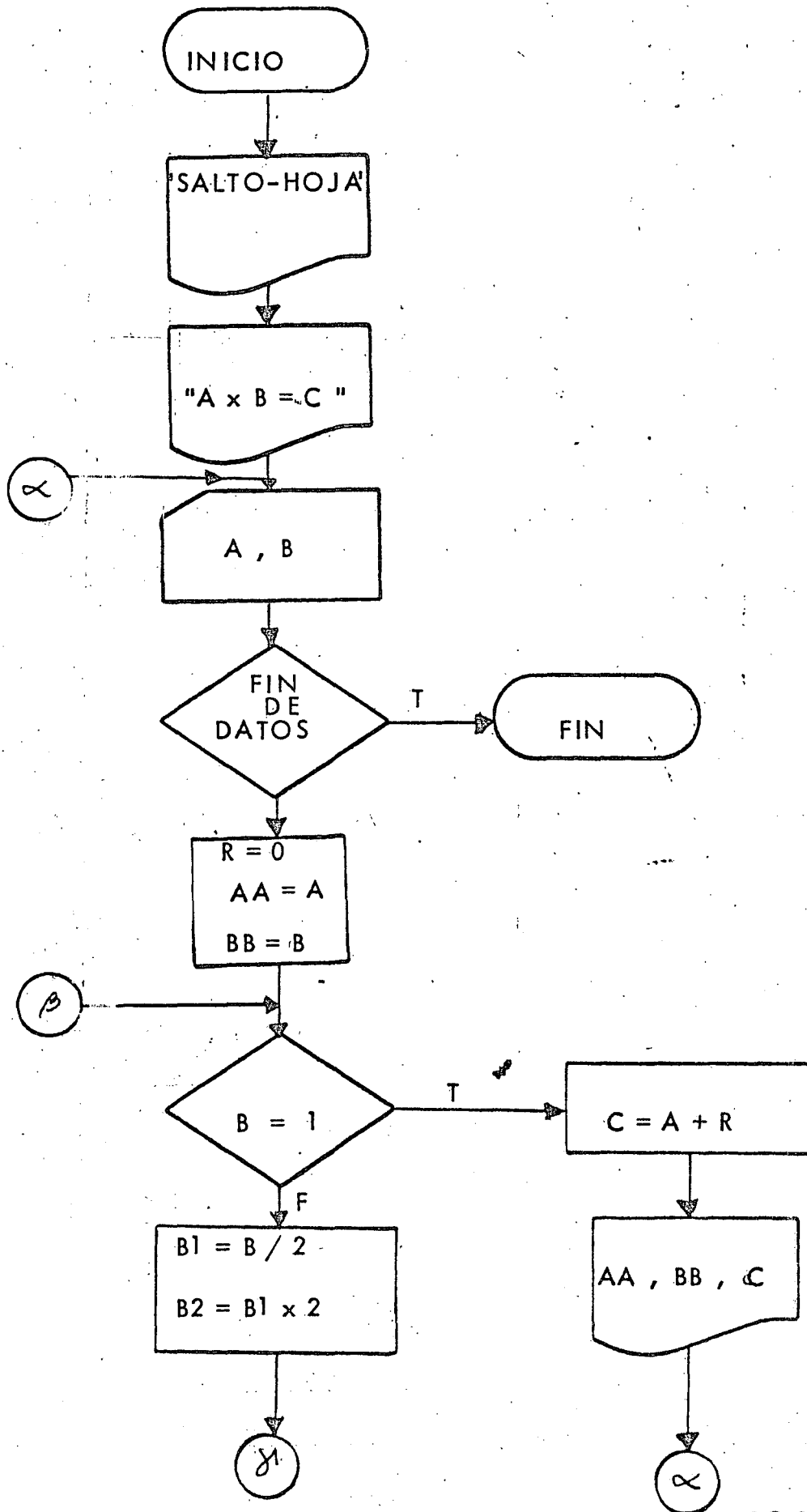
RESULTADOS

A	X	B	C
60		80	4800
19		17	323
68		35	2380
40		11	440
77		99	7623

"MULTIPLICACION DE DOS NUMEROS UTILIZANDO EXCLUSIVAMENTE MULTIPLICACION Y DIVISION POR 2"

1a.

104



```

// JOB T
// FOR
*LIST SOURCE PROGRAM
*ONE WORD INTEGERS
*IOCS(CARD,1132 PRINTER)
C-----V E I N T I U N O -----
C      MULTIPLICACION DE DOS NUMEROS
C      UTILIZANDO SOLO MULTIPLICACIONES Y
C      DIVISIONES POR 2
C      INTEGER A,B,C,R,AA,BB
      WRITE (3,101)
101. FORMAT (1H1)
      WRITE (3,102)
102 FORMAT (9X,1HA,3X,1HX,4X,1HB,4X,1H=,4X,1HC)
200 READ (2,100,END=260)A,B
100 FORMAT (2I3)
      R=0
      AA=A
      BB=B
210 IF(B.EQ.1) GO TO 240
      B1=B/2
      B2=B1*2
      IF(B2.EQ.B) GO TO 220
      ES IMPAR
      B=(B-1)/2
      R=R+A
      GO TO 230
220 CONTINUE
      ES PAR
      B=B/2
230 CONTINUE
      A=A*2
      GO TO 210
240 CONTINUE
      C=A+R
      WRITE (3,103) AA,BB,C
103 FORMAT (3I10)
      GO TO 200
260 CALL EXIT
      END

```

```

// XEQ
60 80
19 17
68 35
40 11
77 99
/*

```

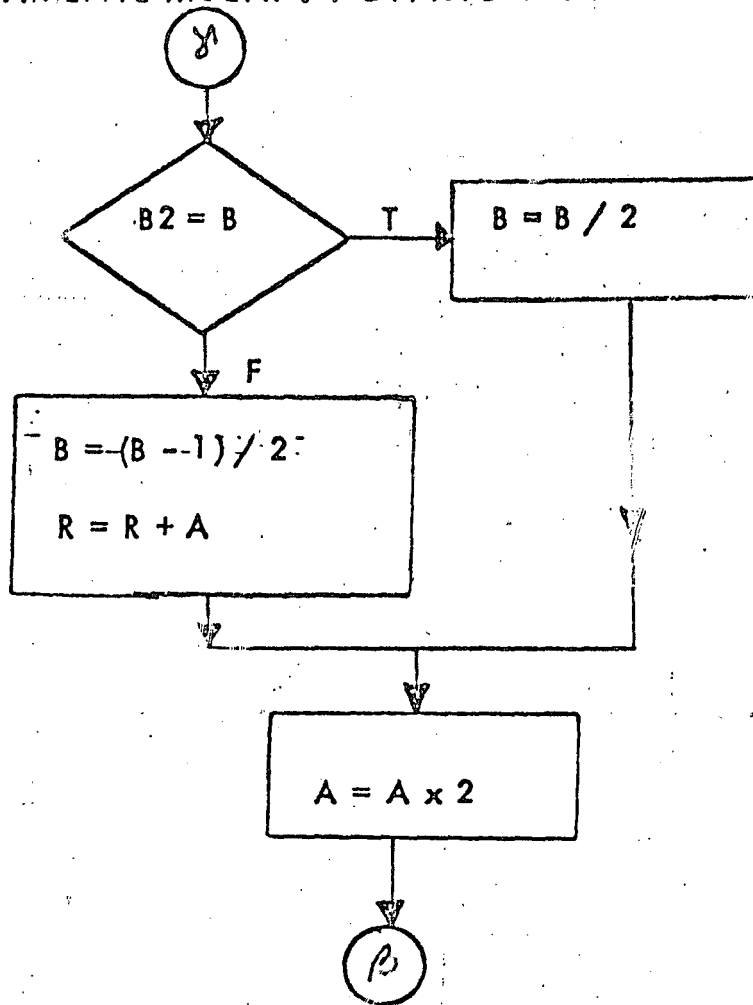
RESULTADOS

A	B	C
60	80	4800
19	17	323
68	35	2380
40	11	440
77	99	7623

1.06

" MULTIPLICACION DE DOS NUMEROS UTILIZANDO EXCLUSIVAMENTE MULTIP. Y DIVISION POR 2 "

2a.

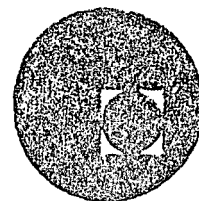








centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

APLICACIONES DE UN PAQUETE DE PROGRAMACION LINEAL

M. en C. Luis Pablo Manuel Grijalva

MARZO, 1979



TARJETAS PARA USAR EL PROGRAMA GRANM

Columna 1
↓

Tarjeta 1 // JØB T

Tarjeta 2 // XEQ GRANM 1

Tarjeta 3 *LØCALINIT, PIVØT, TABNU, RMØVE, CLEAN, TABPR

-

-

- Tarjetas de datos (Ver página 3)

-

-

Tarjeta final /*

NOTAS:

- Este programa está listo para usarse en la computadora IBM 1130 de CECAFI.
- La tarjeta 1 es la tarjeta anaranjada obtenida del CECAFI.
- El número 1 que aparece en la 2ª. tarjeta se perfora en la columna 17.
- El programa en la IBM, tiene una capacidad de 10 restricciones y 15 variables incluyendo de holgura y artificiales.
- Este programa también se encuentra disponible en la Burroughs del CIMASS, bajo el nombre de II/SIMPLEX. Las instrucciones para correrlo en el CIMASS aparecen en la siguiente hoja. Este admite una capacidad mayor sobre el número de restricciones y variables como se indica en la segunda hoja.
- Este programa utiliza el método de la gran M.

TARJETAS PARA USAR EL PROGRAMA II/SIMPLEX

	Columna 1		
Tarjeta 1	# USER	<u>clave</u> /	_____
Tarjeta 2	# RUN	(JR82)	II/SIMPLEX
Tarjeta 3	# DATA	FILE 5	
	-		
	-		
	-	Tarjetas de datos (Ver página 3)	
	-		
	-		
Tarjeta final	# END		

NOTAS:

- Este programa está listo para usarse en la computadora B 6700 de CIMAS/CSC.
- La tarjeta 1 es la tarjeta roja obtenida del CIMASS.
- El símbolo "#" significa un carácter inválido. Este se obtiene presionando las teclas MULTIPUNCH Y NUMERIC simultáneamente y perforando los números 1, 2, 3, 4.
- Este programa tiene una capacidad de 30 restricciones y 40 variables incluyendo de holgura y artificiales.

TARJETAS DE DATOS PARA EL PROGRAMA GRANM O II/SIMPLEX

La siguiente información deberá porporcionarse en lo que se indica como tarjetas de datos en las hojas anteriores.

TARJETA DE IDENTIFICACION DEL PROBLEMA.

En esta tarjeta puede usar desde la columna 1 a la 70 para poder dar cualquier identificación que desee dar a su problema.

TARJETA DE DIMENSION Y ETIQUETACION DEL PROBLEMA Y CONTROL PARA CORRER MAS DE UN PROBLEMA.

El usuario debe dar cuatro números enteros con formato (4110) en la siguiente forma :

- Columnas 1- 10: Número de renglones del problema.
- Columnas 11-20: Número de columnas del problema.
- Columna 30 : Escriba el número 1 si desea poner etiquetas a los renglones y a las columnas.
 Escriba el número 0 en caso contrario.
- Columna 40 : Escriba un 1 si desea correr un problema adicional.
 Escriba un 0 en caso contrario.

NOTAS:

- El número de renglones no incluye la función objetivo.
- Si escribe un 1 en la columna 30, el usuario, después de la tarjeta deberá dar el grupo de tarjetas para etiquetas de renglones y el grupo de tarjetas para etiquetas de columnas.
- Si en lugar de un 1 escribe cero deberá omitir este grupo de tarjetas y pasar a las tarjetas de coeficientes de las variables artificiales en la función objetivo.

Si escribe un 1 en la tarjeta 40 vea las notas generales.

TARJETAS PARA ETIQUETAS DE RENGLONES.

Las etiquetas para identificar a los renglones de las restricciones, pueden tener como máximo 6 caracteres de cualquier tipo.

En una tarjeta puede escribir hasta 7 etiquetas. Estas etiquetas deben ir en las columnas 1-6, 11-16, 21-26, 31-36, 41-46, 51-56, 61-66.

TARJETAS PARA ETIQUETAS DE COLUMNAS (VARIABLES)

Las tarjetas para identificar a las columnas o sea a las variables involucradas en el problema (incluyendo de holgura y artificiales) deberán escribirse de acuerdo a las reglas anteriores para etiquetar renglones.

TARJETAS DE COEFICIENTES DE LAS VARIABLES ARTIFICIALES EN LA FUNCION OBJETIVO.

A cada variable artificial asigne un 1 y a las variables no artificiales asigne un 0. Estos números escribalos en las columnas 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, de acuerdo al orden en que etiquetó a sus variables (columnas)

IMPORTANTE. Esta tarjeta es requerida aún si el problema no tiene variables artificiales.

TARJETAS DE COEFICIENTES DE LAS VARIABLES NO ARTIFICIALES EN LA FUNCION OBJETIVO.

Escriba los coeficientes de la función objetivo con el formato (7 F 10.0). Estos coeficientes debe escribirlos de acuerdo al orden en que etiquetó sus variables (columnas). Los coeficientes de las variables de holgura y artificiales deberá ser cero.

IMPORTANTE : Los coeficientes de la función objetivo deben corresponder al problema de minimizar. Por lo tanto, si su problema es de maximizar multiplique por -1 y considere los coeficientes que resultan como los datos de entrada en este programa.

TARJETAS DE LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA MATRIZ DE RESTRICCIONES.

Cada renglón de restricciones va en una o varias tarjetas, escribiendo los elementos sucesivamente en una tarjeta con un formato (7 F 10.0). Cada vez que proporcione un nuevo renglón debe empezar en otra tarjeta.

TARJETAS DE LOS LADOS DERECHOS DE LAS RESTRICCIONES.

Los coeficientes del lado derecho de restricciones se proporcionan sucesivamente en una tarjeta o en caso de ser insuficiente use otra tarjeta. El formato es (7 F 10.0)

TARJETAS PARA INDICAR EL CONJUNTO INICIAL DE VARIABLES BASICAS.

En una tarjeta programe sucesivamente los números de las columnas que van a ser usadas como columnas (variables) básicas iniciales. Use formato (7 I 10).

NOTAS GENERALES:

1. El orden de las tarjetas debe ser como el indicado.
2. Si en la TARJETA DE DIMENSION Y ETIQUETACION escribi6 un 1 en la columna 40 entonces su nuevo problema debe ir despu6s de la TARJETA PARA INDICAR EL CONJUNTO INICIAL DE VARIABLES ARTIFICIALES. Es importante que en el nuevo problema empiece con la TARJETA DE IDENTIFICACION DEL PROBLEMA.

EJEMPLO 1. Considere el problema lineal

$$\begin{aligned} \max z &= x_4 - x_5 \\ \text{s.t.} \\ 2x_2 - x_3 - x_4 + x_5 &\geq 0 \\ -2x_1 + 2x_3 - x_4 + x_5 &\geq 0 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 - x_4 + x_5 &\geq 0 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 &= 1 \\ x_i &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Deberemos multiplicar la función objetivo por -1 para que el problema sea de minimización y también agregar variables de holgura a las primeras tres restricciones para que lleguen a ser igualdades. Con estas observaciones el programa lineal estará en forma estándar, lo cual es una condición para aplicar el programa GRAN M. Si definimos $z' = -z$, nuestro problema en forma estándar es

$$\begin{aligned} \min z' &= -x_4 + x_5 \\ -2x_2 + x_3 + x_4 - x_5 + s_1 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 - 2x_3 + x_4 - x_5 + s_2 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 + x_4 - x_5 + s_3 &= 0 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 &= 1 \\ x_i &\geq 0; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 5 \\ s_j &\geq 0; \quad j = 1, 2, 3 \end{aligned}$$

Obsérvese que aunque el programa lineal ya esté en forma estándar, todavía no está listo para empezar el algoritmo de la Gran M porque en la última restricción no existe una variable que aparezca en esta restricción pero no se encuentre en las otras restricciones. (i.e., no se tiene una solución básica factible inmediata). Por lo tanto, deberemos agregar una variable artificial que llamaremos t_1 , a la cuarta restricción para así completar nuestra solución básica factible en la cual se inicia el algoritmo. Sin embargo, al introducir esta variable artificial en la restricción deberemos agregarla en la función objetivo multiplicada por una cantidad positiva M muy grande. Así nuestro problema resulta ser:

$$\begin{aligned} \min z' &= -x_4 + x_5 + Mt_1 \\ -2x_2 + x_3 + x_4 - x_5 + s_1 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 - 2x_3 + x_4 - x_5 + s_2 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 + x_4 - x_5 + s_3 &= 0 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + t_1 &= 1 \\ x_i &\geq 0; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 5 \\ s_j &\geq 0; \quad j = 1, 2, 3 \\ t_1 &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Es conveniente representar el programa lineal en un tablero (o tableau), para poder entender más fácilmente la información que deberemos proporcionar al programa de computadora GRAN M. ó II/SIMPLEX. Esta representación aparece abajo

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	s_1	s_2	s_3	t_1	
Función Obj. (F.O.)	0	0	0	-1	1	0	0	0	M	z'
Renglón 1 (R. 1)	0	-2	1	1	-1	1	0	0	0	0
Renglón 2 (R. 2)	2	0	-2	1	-1	0	1	0	0	0
Renglón 3 (R. 3)	-1	2	0	1	-1	0	0	1	0	0
Renglón 4 (R. 4)	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1

$\underbrace{\quad * \quad * \quad * \quad *}_{\text{Var. Holgu-}} \quad \underbrace{\quad *}_{\text{Var. Art.}}$
 $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{Solución inicial básica factible}}$

Este tablero contiene toda la información necesaria y la notación apropiada para correr el programa GRAN M. ó el II/SIMPLEX. A continuación se presenta su codificación para el GRAN M. Para correr el II/SIMPLEX la codificación es idéntica excepto por las tarjetas de control como se mencionó en la explicación de estos programas.

EJEMPLO 2

$$\max z = x_1 + x_2$$

s.a.

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &\geq 1 \\ x_1 + x_2 &\leq 1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 &\leq 1 \\ x_i &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Expresando la función objetivo en términos de minimización e introduciendo variables de holgura, artificiales; el problema es equivalente a :

$$\begin{aligned} \min (-z) &= -x_1 - x_2 + Mt_1 \\ x_1 + x_2 - s_1 &+ t_1 &= 1 \\ x_1 - x_2 &+ s_2 &= 1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 &+ s_3 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

En forma de tableau:

	x_1	x_2	s_1	t_1	s_2	s_3	
Func. Obj. (F.O.)	-1	-1	0	M	0	0	-z
Renglón 1 (R.1)	1	1	-1	1	0	0	1
Renglón 2 (R.2)	1	-1	0	0	1	0	1
Renglón 3 (R.3)	-1	+1	0	0	0	1	1

* * *

Solución básica factible inicial.

EJEMPLO 3 Resolver el dual del siguiente par de problemas primal - dual.

Primal

$$\begin{aligned} \min z &= 2x_1 - 3x_2 \\ 2x_1 - x_2 - x_3 &\geq 3 \\ x_1 - x_2 + x_3 &\geq 2 \\ x_i &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Dual

$$\begin{aligned} \max w &= 3 \lambda_1 + 2 \lambda_2 \\ 2\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 &\leq 2 \\ -\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 &\leq -3 \rightarrow \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \geq 3 \\ -\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 &\leq 0 \\ \lambda_i &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Este dual es equivalente a

$$\begin{aligned} \min (-w) &= -3 \lambda_1 - 2 \lambda_2 + M t_1 \\ 2\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + s_1 &= 2 \\ \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - s_2 + t_1 &= 3 \\ -\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + s_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

En forma de tableau; el dual está dado por

	λ_1	λ_2	s_2	s_1	t_1	s_3	
F.O.	-3	-2	0	0	M	0	-w
R1	2	1	0	1	0	0	2
R2	1	1	-1	0	1	0	3
R3	-1	1	0	0	0	1	0

* * *

EJEMPLO 4

$$\max z = x_1 - x_2 + x_3 - 3x_4 + x_5 - x_6 - 3x_7$$

s.a.

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_3 + x_5 + x_6 &= 6 \\ x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 &= 10 \\ -x_1 + x_6 &= 0 \\ x_3 + x_6 + x_7 &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$x_i \geq 0$$

$$\min (-z) = -x_1 + x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 - x_5 + x_6 + 3x_7$$

s.a.

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_3 + x_5 + x_6 &= 6 \\ x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 &= 10 \\ x_1 - x_6 &= 0 \\ x_3 + x_6 + x_7 &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

En forma de Tableau:

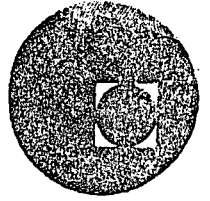
	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7	
F.O.	-1	1	-1	3	-1	1	3	-z
R1	0	0	3	0	1	1	0	6
R2	0	1	2	-1	0	0	0	10
R3	1	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0
R4	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	6
	*	*			*		*	







centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam

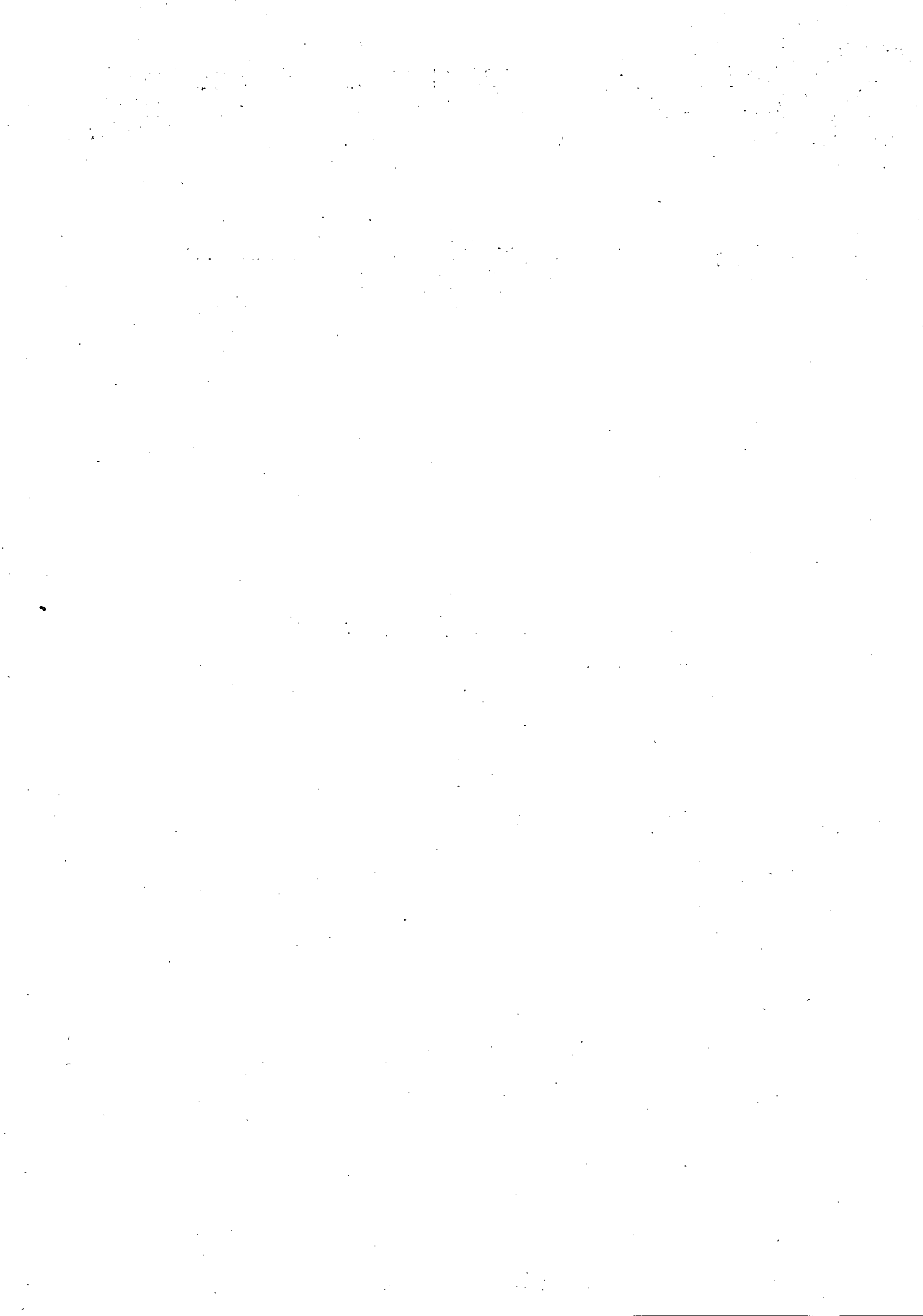


INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

SISTEMAS DE ECUACIONES CON FORTRAN
SOLUCION DE APLICACIONES MATEMATICAS

ING. ARMANDO TORRES FENTANES

MARZO, 1979



2. ALGEBRA MATRICIAL

2.1 Introducción

Una matriz es un arreglo rectangular de elementos distribuidos en "m" renglones y "n" columnas, si a la matriz se le denota por la letra A, entonces al elemento del "i-ésimo" renglón y de la "j-ésima" columna se le representará por el símbolo a_{ij} . Generalmente una matriz se representa mediante paréntesis cuadrados como se muestra a continuación:

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

Los elementos que componen una matriz pueden ser de diversos tipos: números reales, números complejos, funciones en el dominio del tiempo, etc..

Al ser una matriz un arreglo ordenado de elementos, permite que al aplicar cierta metodología a dicho arreglo se obtenga una serie de resultados que responden a las interrogantes por las que se originó el arreglo; entre algunos de los procesos en los que se utilizan arreglos matriciales se tiene: jerarquización de actividades, almacenamiento de datos, inventarios, representación de sistemas dinámicos, sistemas de ecuaciones, etc..

Existen ciertas distribuciones típicas de los elementos de una matriz y de acuerdo a ellas se clasifica a las matrices en diferentes tipos, entre los que se tienen:

Matriz Cuadrada

Es una matriz en la que el número de renglones es igual al número de columnas, es decir, $m=n$. Por ejemplo:

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.2)$$

Matriz Nula

Es una matriz de orden cualquiera, en la que todos los elementos son nulos; por ejemplo:

$$\underline{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.3)$$

Se acostumbra denotarla por el símbolo $\underline{0}$.

Matriz Identidad

Es una matriz cuadrada en la cual los elementos de la diagonal principal son unitarios y el resto son nulos, es decir:

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & , i \neq j \\ 1 & , i = j \end{cases}$$

Se suele denotarla como \underline{I}_n donde "n" indica el orden de la matriz y al símbolo δ_{ij} se le conoce como delta de Kronecker. Por ejemplo:

$$\underline{I}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

Matriz Diagonal

Es una matriz cuadrada en la que los elementos que no pertenecen a la diagonal principal son nulos, es decir:

$$a_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{si } i \neq j \quad (2.5)$$

Un ejemplo de este tipo de matriz sería:

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \text{sent} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

Matriz Transpuesta

Es una matriz cuadrada que se obtiene a partir de una matriz dada \underline{A} intercambiando renglones con columnas. Se le denota con el símbolo \underline{A}^T y se cumple que:

$$a_{ij}^T = a_{ji} \quad (2.7)$$

Matriz Simétrica

Es una matriz cuadrada \underline{B} para la que se cumple:

$$\underline{B} = \underline{B}^T \quad (2.8)$$

Fig. 2.1 Diagrama de bloques para el programa principal

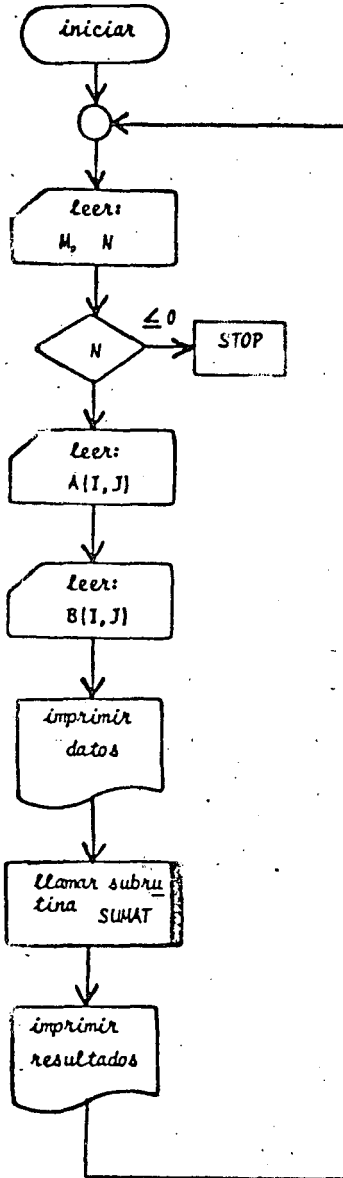
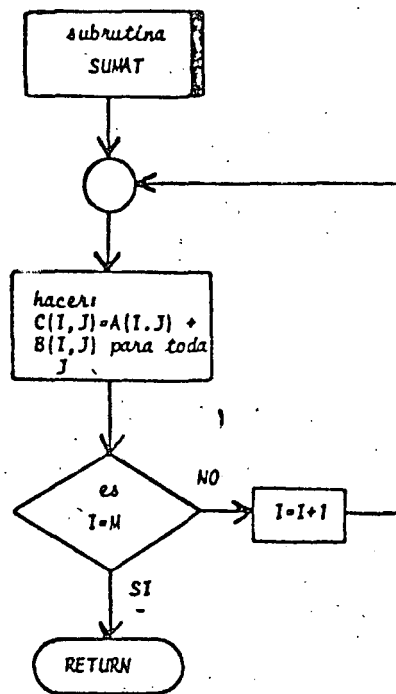


Fig.2.2 Diagrama de bloques para la subrutina SUMAT



```

C      PROGRAMA PARA EFECTUAR LA SUMA DE DOS MATRICES
C      EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C      M=CANTIDAD DE RENGLONES DE LAS MATRICES
C      N=CANTIDAD DE COLUMNAS DE LAS MATRICES
C      A Y B=MATRICES QUE SERAN SUMADAS
C      C=MATRIZ SUMA
C
C      DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),C(10,10)
C      LECTURA DE DATOS
C
1 READ(5,100) M,N
  IF(N) 2,2,3
2 CALL EXIT
3 DO 4 I=1,M
4 READ(5,150) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
  DO 5 J=1,N
5 READ(5,150) (B(I,J),J=1,N)
C
C      IMPRESION DE DATOS
C
  WRITE(6,200)
  DO 6 I=1,M
6 WRITE(6,250) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
  WRITE(6,300)
  DO 7 I=1,M
7 WRITE(6,250) (B(I,J),J=1,N)
C
C      LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA EFECTUAR LA SUMA
C
  CALL SUMAT(A,B,C,M,N)
C
C      IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
C
  WRITE(6,350)
  DO 8 I=1,M
8 WRITE(6,250) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
  GO TO 1
C
C      FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
C
100 FORMAT(2I5)
150 FORMAT(7F10.0)
200 FORMAT(1H1,5(/),10X,'LAS MATRICES POR SUMAR SON',3(/),10X,'MATRIZ
  A',/)
250 FORMAT(/,3X,10(10.3,2X))
300 FORMAT(3(/),10X,'MATRIZ B',/)
350 FORMAT(6(/),10X,'MATRIZ SUMA',/)
  END

```

Fig. 2.3 Listado del programa principal

```

C      SUBROUTINE SUMAT(A,B,C,M,N)
C      SUBROUTINA PARA SUMAR MATRICES
C      SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
C      A Y B=MATRICES QUE SE DESEA SUMAR
C      M=CANTIDAD DE RENGLONES DE LAS MATRICES
C      N=CANTIDAD DE COLUMNAS DE LAS MATRICES
C      DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),C(10,10)
  DO 1 I=1,M
  DO 1 J=1,N
1 C(I,J)=A(I,J) + B(I,J)
  RETURN
  END

```

Fig. 2.4 Listado de la subrutina SUMAT

2.2.4 Ejemplo

En una tienda de artículos eléctricos se venden resistencias eléctricas de 1/4, 1/2 y 1 Watt de potencia en seis diferentes valores resistivos.

Si las existencias un viernes por la tarde son:

	1/4	1/2	1
100 Ω	200	380	275
150 Ω	400	250	275
1.0 K	500	175	325
1.5 K	800	225	150
10.0 K	600	380	180
15.0 K	550	250	220

y el sábado se recibe una remesa con las siguientes características:

	1/4	1/2	1
100 Ω	80	90	50
150 Ω	90	100	55
1.0 K	75	90	60
1.5 K	65	95	55
10.0 K	80	100	60
15.0 K	75	110	60

Determine las resistencias que tendrá en inventario el establecimiento el lunes por la mañana dado que ni el sábado ni el domingo hubo ventas.

* SOLUCION

TABLA 2.1 Datos para el problema del ejemplo 2.2.4

$$N=6$$

$$M=3$$

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 200 & 380 & 275 \\ 400 & 250 & 275 \\ 500 & 175 & 325 \\ 800 & 225 & 150 \\ 600 & 380 & 180 \\ 550 & 250 & 220 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 80 & 90 & 50 \\ 90 & 100 & 55 \\ 75 & 90 & 60 \\ 65 & 95 & 55 \\ 80 & 100 & 60 \\ 75 & 110 & 60 \end{bmatrix}$$

TABLA 2.2 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 2.2.4

LAS MATRICES POR SUMAR SON		
MATRIZ A		
.200E+03	.340E+03	.275E+03
.400E+03	.250E+03	.275E+03
.500E+03	.175E+03	.325E+03
.800E+03	.225E+03	.150E+03
.600E+03	.380E+03	.180E+03
.550E+03	.250E+03	.220E+03
MATRIZ B		
.800E+02	.900E+02	.500E+02
.900E+02	.100E+03	.550E+02
.750E+02	.900E+02	.600E+02
.650E+02	.950E+02	.550E+02
.800E+02	.100E+03	.600E+02
.750E+02	.110E+03	.600E+02
MATRIZ SUMA		
.280E+03	.470E+03	.325E+03
.490E+03	.350E+03	.330E+03
.575E+03	.265E+03	.385E+03
.865E+03	.320E+03	.205E+03
.680E+03	.480E+03	.280E+03
.625E+03	.360E+03	.280E+03

2.3 Multiplicación Matricial

2.3.1 Objeto

Dadas dos matrices A y B, obtener el producto matricial C de la forma:

$$\underline{C} = \underline{A} \times \underline{B} \quad (2.13)$$

2.3.2 Método

Para efectuar el producto entre dos matrices (AxB) se requiere que las matrices sean conformables para la multiplicación, lo que equivale a que el número de columnas de la matriz premultiplicadora (A) sea igual al número de renglones de la postmultiplicadora (B), es decir:

si A es de orden (m x n)

y B es de orden (n x s)

el producto matricial AB será posible solo si n=r y el orden de la matriz producto será (m x s).

Si la matriz C representa la matriz resultante del producto matricial AB, entonces el elemento c_{ij} está dado por:

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{l=1}^n a_{il} b_{lj}, \quad \begin{matrix} i=1, \dots, m \\ j=1, \dots, s \end{matrix} \quad (2.14)$$

Es importante hacer notar que el producto matricial no es conmutativo, esto es:

$$\underline{A} \times \underline{B} \neq \underline{B} \times \underline{A}$$

2.3.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

SUBROUTINE MULTMA(A,B,N,M,L,X), esta subrutina efectúa el producto matricial AxB. El programa principal se emplea para la lectura de datos e impresión de resultados.

b) Descripción de las variables:

Para la subrutina MULTMA:

A(I,J) matriz premultiplicadora de orden NxM

B(I, J) matriz postmultiplicadora de orden MxL

X(I, J) matriz producto de orden NxL

Para el programa principal:

A(I, J) matriz premultiplicadora de orden NxM

B(I, J) matriz postmultiplicadora de orden MxL

X(I, J) matriz producto de orden NxL

c) Dimensiones:

La proposición DIMENSION deberá ser modificada tanto en el programa principal como en la subrutina cuando:

$$N > 10 \text{ y/o } M > 10 \text{ y/o } L > 10$$

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(3I5)	N, M, L
2	(8F10.0)	A(I, J), los elementos de la matriz se dan renglón por renglón. Emplear la cantidad de tarjetas que sea necesaria.
3	(8F10.0)	B(I, J), igual que en el caso anterior.

 otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n

TARJETA EN BLANCO, al generalizar toda la información

e) Diagrama de bloques:

Fig. 2.5 Diagrama de bloques para el programa principal .

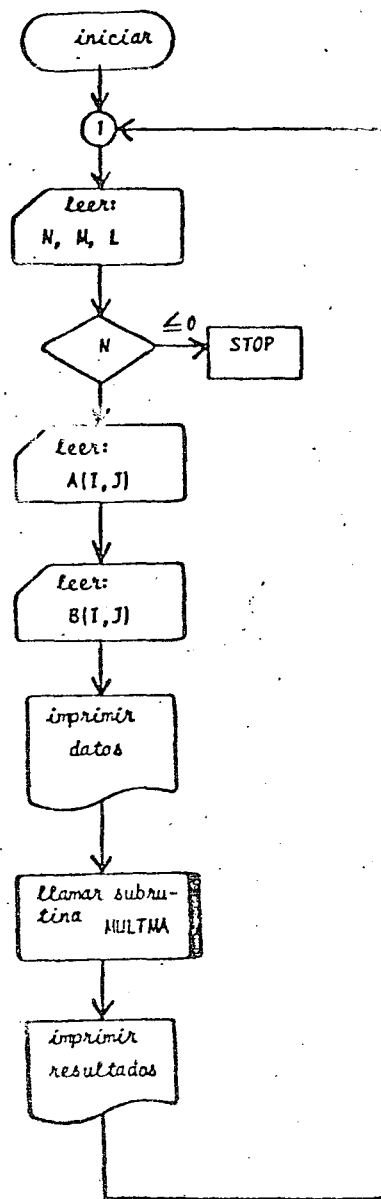
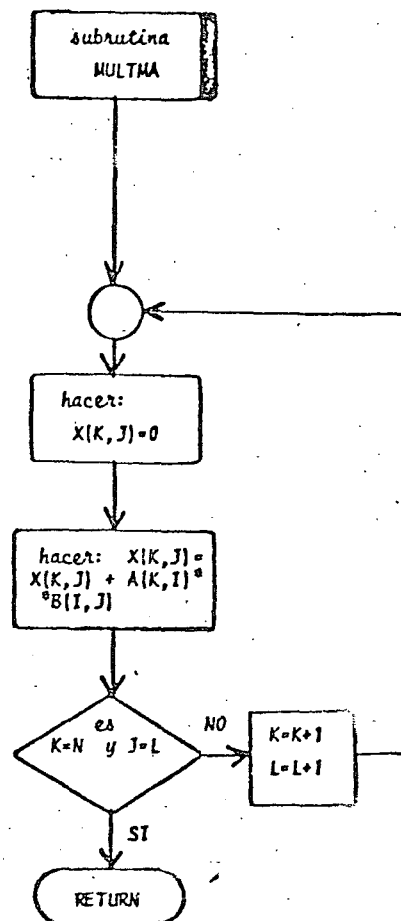


Fig. 2.6 Diagrama de bloques para

la subrutina MULTMA



6) Listado:

```

C   PROGRAMA PARA EFECTUAR PRODUCTOS MATRICIALES
C   SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
C   A=MATRIZ PREMULTIPLICADORA DE ORDEN (N×M)
C   B=MATRIZ POSTMULTIPLICADORA DE ORDEN (M×L)
C   X=MATRIZ PRODUCTO DE ORDEN (N×L)

      DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),X(10,10)
      IR=5
      IH=6
C   LECTURA DE DATOS
      1 READ(IR,10) H,M,L
      IF(N) 2,2,3
      2 CALL EXIT
      3 GO 4 I=1,N
      4 READ(IR,11) (A(I,J),J=1,M)
      GO 5 I=I+1
      5 READ(IR,11) (B(CI,J),J=1,L)
C   IMPRESION DE DATOS
      6 WRITE(IH,12)
      GO 6 I=I+1
      7 WRITE(IH,13) (A(I,J),J=1,M)
      WRITE(IH,14)
      GO 7 I=I+1
      8 WRITE(IH,13) (B(CI,J),J=1,L)
      WRITE(IH,15)
C   LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA EFECTUAR PRODUCTO MATRICIAL
      CALL MULTHA(A,B,H,M,L,N)
C   IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
      9 WRITE(IH,16) (X(I,J),J=1,L)
      GO 10 I
C   FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
      10 FORMAT(3I5)
      11 FORMAT(2F10.0)
      12 FORMAT(4I7),5N,'MATRIZ A'//
      13 FORMAT(7,2N,10(10,3,1X))
      14 FORMAT(4I7),9N,'MATRIZ B'//
      15 FORMAT(4I7),5N,'MATRIZ PRODUCTO'//
      END
  
```

Fig. 2.7 Listado del programa principal

```

C   SUBROUTINE MULTHA(A,B,H,M,L,N)
C   SUBROUTINA PARA MULTIPLICAR DOS MATRICES
C   EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C   A=MATRIZ PREMULTIPLICADORA DE ORDEN (N×M)
C   B=MATRIZ POSTMULTIPLICADORA DE ORDEN (M×L)
C   X=MATRIZ PRODUCTO
C
      DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10,10),X(10,10)
      GO 1 J=1,L
      DO 1 I=1,N
      X(I,J)=0
      GO 1 I=I+1
      2 X(I,J)=X(I,J) + A(I,1)*B(1,J)
      RETURN
      END
  
```

Fig. 2.8 Listado de la subrutina MULTHA

2.3.4 Ejemplo

Cuatro componentes de un automóvil requieren como materia prima de hule, aluminio y acero. Las unidades que se requieren de cada material para formar una unidad de cada componente del automóvil se proporcionan a continuación:

	hule	aluminio	acero
comp. 1	8	5	3
comp. 2	3	4	5
comp. 3	20	2	4
comp. 4	1	8	10

si los costos unitarios de cada material son:

	\$
hule	25.00
aluminio	30.00
acero	40.00

Determine el costo total de cada componente debido a la materia prima de que está compuesto.

*SOLUCION

TABLA 2.3 Datos para el problema del ejemplo 2.3.4

$$N=4$$

$$M=3$$

$$L=1$$

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 20 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 8 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 \\ 30 \\ 40 \end{bmatrix}$$

TABLA 2.4 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 2.3.4

MATRIZ A

.800E+01	.900E+01	.300E+01
.300E+01	.400E+01	.500E+01
.200E+02	.200E+01	.400E+01
.100E+01	.800E+01	.100E+02

MATRIZ B

.250E+02
.300E+02
.400E+02

MATRIZ PRODUCTO

.470E+03
.395E+03
.720E+03
.665E+03

2.4 Inversión de Matrices

2.4.1 Objeto

Dada una matriz cuadrada \underline{A} obtener su matriz inversa \underline{A}^{-1} .

2.4.2 Método

La matriz inversa de una matriz cuadrada \underline{A} es otra matriz cuadrada que se representa por \underline{A}^{-1} y que cumple la siguiente propiedad si la matriz \underline{A} es de orden $(n \times n)$:

$$\underline{A} \underline{A}^{-1} = \underline{I}_n = \underline{A}^{-1} \underline{A} \quad (2.15)$$

Se define a la matriz inversa como:

$$\underline{A}^{-1} = \frac{\underline{A}^{\dagger}}{|\underline{A}|} \quad (2.16)$$

donde \underline{A}^{\dagger} se conoce como la matriz adjunta de la matriz \underline{A} y $|\underline{A}|$ representa el determinante de la matriz \underline{A} .

De la ecuación (2.16) se infiere que para que exista la inversa de una matriz se requiere que $|\underline{A}| \neq 0$, es decir, que la matriz sea no singular.

Para la obtención numérica de la matriz inversa es necesario acudir al método de Gauss-Jordan modificado. Esto se hace debido a que para obtener \underline{A}^{-1} en una computadora digital mediante la ecuación (2.16) se requiere una gran cantidad de operaciones y consecuentemente de tiempo. Para obtener la inversa de una matriz (10×10) se requieren más de 340 millones de operaciones con el método directo.

El método de Gauss-Jordan es un método de eliminación sistemática mediante el cual se transforma la matriz original \underline{A} en una matriz identidad \underline{I}_n y al mismo tiempo esta última se transforma en la matriz inversa \underline{A}^{-1} , es decir, partiendo del arreglo:

$$\left[\underline{A} \ ; \ \underline{I}_n \right] \quad (2.17)$$

y aplicando algunas de las siguientes transformaciones al arreglo (2.17):

-intercambio de renglones,

-multiplicación de un renglón por un escalar $\lambda \neq 0$,

-suma de equimúltiplos de un renglón a otro renglón.

se llega al siguiente arreglo:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} I_n & A^{-1} \\ \hline & \end{array} \right]$$

(2.18)

El método parte de la suposición de que A es una matriz no singular, lo cual implica que sus columnas son vectores linealmente independientes, en caso de no serlo el método lo puede detectar; en dicha situación se presenta que todos los elementos de un renglón de la matriz A o de sus matrices transformadas, son nulos.

A fin de minimizar los errores de redondeo, la eliminación de elementos se efectúa pivotando sobre los mayores elementos que quedan en la matriz A o en las matrices obtenidas a partir de esta última por transformación; debe tenerse cuidado de no emplear como pivotes elementos de renglones que ya hayan sido utilizados como pivotes.

2.4.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

SUBROUTINE MATINV(A,N,EPS,DET), obtiene la matriz inversa de la matriz A. El programa principal se emplea para la lectura de datos e impresión de resultados.

b) Descripción de las variables:

Para la subrutina MATINV:

- A(I, J) matriz de la que se buscará la inversa, durante el proceso se convierte en la matriz inversa.
- N orden de la matriz A
- EPS criterio para determinar si el determinante de la matriz es nulo
- DET parámetro que indica si el determinante de la matriz es nulo
- C(I, J) matriz identidad que se emplea para obtener la matriz inversa
- MVR(I) y contadores que indican cuáles renglones
MVC(I) y cuáles columnas de la matriz A ya fueron empleados como pivotes

Fig. 2.9 Diagrama de bloques

del programa principal

21

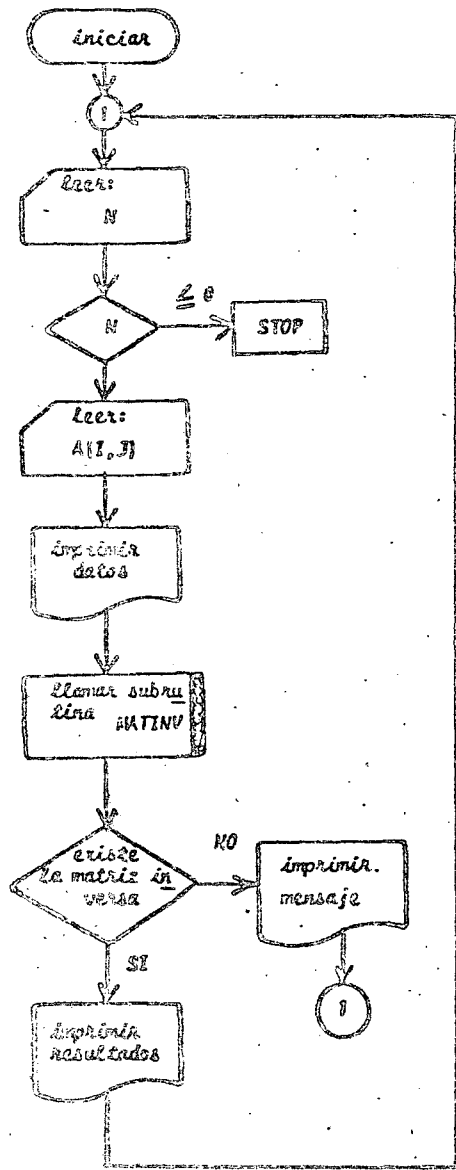
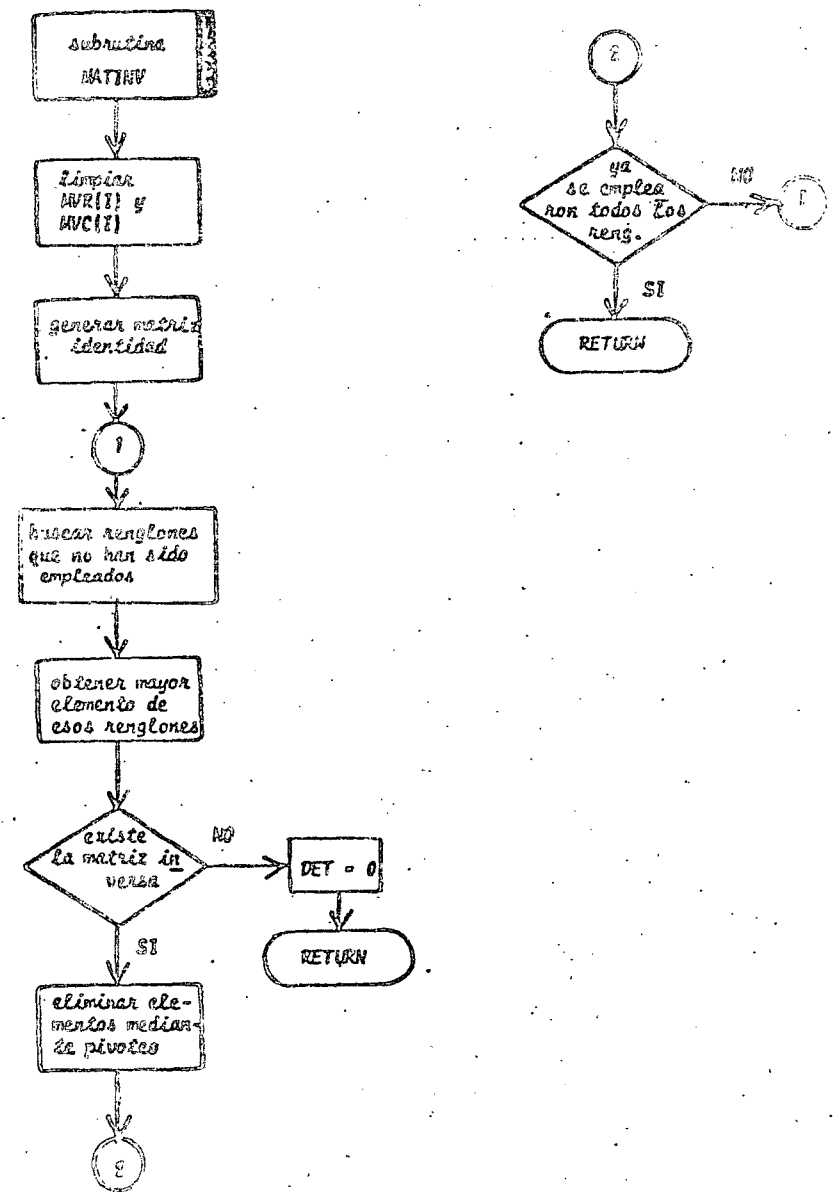


Fig. 2.10 Diagrama de bloques de la subrutina MATINV

22



6) Listado:

```

PROGRAMA PARA INVERTIR MATRICES POR EL METODO DE GAUSS-JORDAN
SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
N=ORDEM DE LA MATRIZ A
A=MATRIZ DE LA QUE SE BUSCA SU INVERSA
EPS=CRITERIO PARA DETERMINAR SI EXISTE O NO LA INVERSA DE LA MATRIZ
DET=PARAMETRO QUE INDICA SI EXISTE O NO LA INVERSA DE LA MATRIZ

DIMENSION A(10,10),C(10,10)
IR=5
IN=0
EPS=0.000001
C LECTURA DE DATOS
1 READ(IR,19) N
  IF(N) 2,2,3
2 CALL EXIT
3 DO 4 I=1,N
4 READ(IR,20) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
C IMPRESION DE DATOS
  WRITE(IN,21)
  DO 5 I=1,N
5 WRITE(IN,22) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
C LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA OBTENER LA MATRIZ INVERSA
  CALL MATINV(A,N,EPS,DET)
  IF(ABS(DET).GT.EPS) GO TO 7
  WRITE(IN,23)
  GO TO 1
7 WRITE(IN,24)
  DO 8 I=1,N
8 WRITE(IN,22) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
  GO TO 1
C FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
19 FORMAT(I5)
20 FORMAT(8F10.0)
21 FORMAT(4(//),5X,'MATRIZ A',//)
22 FORMAT(/,2X,10(E10.3,1X))
23 FORMAT(4(//),5X,'NO EXISTE LA MATRIZ INVERSA')
24 FORMAT(4(//),5X,'INVERSA DE LA MATRIZ A')
  END

```

Fig. 2.11 Listado del programa principal

```

SUBROUTINE MATINV(A, EPS, DET)
C
C SUBROUTINA PARA OBTENER LA INVERSA DE UNA MATRIZ
C EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C A MATRIZ A LA QUE SE BUSCARA SU INVERSA Y QUE DURANTE EL PROCESO
C SE CONVIERTE EN LA MATRIZ INVERSA
C N ORDEN DE LA MATRIZ
C EPS CRITERIO PARA DETERMINAR SI EL DETERMINANTE DE LA MATRIZ ES
C NULO
C DET VALOR ABSOLUTO DEL DETERMINANTE DE LA MATRIZ
C C MATRIZ IDENTIDAD QUE SE UTILIZA PARA OBTENER LA MATRIZ INVERSA
C POR EL METODO DE GAUSS-JORDAN MODIFICADO
C MVR Y MVC CONTADORES QUE INDICAN CUALES RENGLONES Y COLUMNAS YA
C FUERON UTILIZADOS COMO PIVOTES
C
C DIMENSION A(10,10),C(10,10),MVR(10),MVC(10)
C
C OBTENCION DE LA MATRIZ IDENTIDAD Y ACTUALIZACION DE VALORES PARA
C INICIAR EL PROCESO
C
DO 1 I=1,N
MVR(I)=0
1 MVC(I)=0
DO 2 J=1,N
DO 3 J=1,N
IF(I.EQ.J) GO TO 2
C(I,J)=0
GO TO 3
3 C(I,J)=1
3 CONTINUE
4 CONTINUE
C
C OBTENCION DE LA MATRIZ INVERSA
C
DO 12 K=1,N
RAMAX=0
LC=0
LR=0
DO 6 I=1,N
IF(MVR(I).EQ.I) GO TO 4
DO 5 J=1,N
IF(MVC(J).EQ.J) GO TO 5
IF(ABS(RAMAX).GE.ABS(A(I,J))) GO TO 5
RAMAX=A(I,J)
LR=I
LC=J
5 CONTINUE
6 CONTINUE
DET=ABS(RAMAX)
IF(DET.LE.EPS) GO TO 14
IF(LR.EQ.LC) GO TO 8
DO 7 I=1,N
TEMP=A(LR,I)
A(LR,I)=A(LC,I)
A(LC,I)=TEMP
TEMP=C(LR,I)
C(LR,I)=C(LC,I)
7 C(LC,I)=TEMP
DO 9 I=1,N
A(LC,I)=A(LC,I)/RAMAX
9 C(LC,I)=C(LC,I)/RAMAX
GO 11 I=1,N
IF(I.EQ.LC) GO TO 11
TEMP=A(I,LC)
DO 10 J=1,N
A(I,J)=A(I,J) - TEMP*A(LC,J)
10 C(I,J)=C(I,J) - TEMP*C(LC,J)
11 CONTINUE
MVR(LC)=LC
MVC(LC)=LC
12 CONTINUE
DO 13 I=1,N
DO 13 J=1,N
13 A(I,J)=C(I,J)
14 RETURN
END

```

Fig. 7.12 Listado de la subrutina MATINV

2.4.4 Ejemplo

Obtener la inversa de la matriz:

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & -20 & -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -10 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

*SOLUCION

TABLA 2.5 Datos para el problema del ejemplo 2.4.4
N=4

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & -20 & -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -10 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

TABLA 2.6 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 2.4.4

MATRIZ A			
.100E+02	.200E+01	.300E+01	-.100E+01
.100E+01	-.200E+02	-.100E+01	.300E+01
.100E+01	.100E+01	-.100E+02	.200E+01
.200E+01	-.100E+01	-.100E+01	.300E+02
INVERSA DE LA MATRIZ A			
.961E-01	.110E-01	.277E-01	.253E-03
.347E-02	-.490E-01	.553E-02	.471E-02
.876E-02	-.437E-02	.977E-01	.724E-02
-.690E-02	-.253E-02	-.492E-02	.337E-01

2.5 Bibliografía

1. CARNAHAN B., LUTHER W., WILKES J., "Applied Numerical Methods". New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1969. pp.210-218, 282-296.
2. HADLEY G., "Algebra Lineal" . Bogotá: Fondo Educativo Interamericano, 1969. pp.60-131.
3. HAMMING Richard, "Numerical Methods for Scientists and Engineers". New York: Mc Graw Hill Book Co., 1962. pp.366-367.
4. JOHNSTON J., BAILEY PRICE G., VAN VLECK F., "Linear Equations and Matrices". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1966. pp.95-157.
5. KAPLAN Lewis, "Calculus and Linear Algebra Vol.2". New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1971. pp.718-803.
6. KUO S. Shan, "Computer Applications of Numerical Methods". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1972. pp.176-179, 189-194.

3. SOLUCION DE SISTEMAS DE ECUACIONES LINEALES

3.1. Introducción

Por sistemas de ecuaciones lineales se entiende un grupo de ecuaciones que presentan la siguiente estructura:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{array} \right\} \quad (3.1)$$

donde a_{ij} y b_i son constantes y las incógnitas del sistema son los valores x_i , donde $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Dichos sistemas se pueden representar en la forma:

$$\underline{A} \underline{X} = \underline{B} \quad (3.2)$$

donde \underline{A} se conoce como la matriz de coeficientes del sistema, \underline{B} como vector de términos independientes y \underline{X} como vector de incógnitas.

Si el vector de términos independientes es diferente de cero se habla de sistemas de ecuaciones no homogéneas y en caso contrario de sistemas homogéneos.

Antes de proceder a resolver un sistema de ecuaciones es necesario determinar si dicho sistema tiene solución y en caso de tenerla, cuántas posibles soluciones tiene. En base a lo anterior se tiene la siguiente clasificación:

$$\text{Sistema de ecuaciones lineales} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{no homogéneo} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{compatible} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{determinado} \\ \text{indeterminado} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{incompatible} \end{array} \right. \\ \\ \text{homogéneo} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{compatible} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{determinado} \\ \text{(Sol. trivial)} \\ \text{indeterminado} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$

Sistema compatible es aquél que sí tiene solución y para que esto se cumpla se requiere:

$$\text{rango } [A] = \text{rango } [A|B]^* \quad (3.3)$$

donde a la matriz $[A|B]$ se le conoce como la matriz ampliada del sistema.

Sistema incompatible es aquél que no tiene solución y se cumple que:

$$\text{rango } [A] < \text{rango } [A|B] \quad (3.4)$$

Sistema determinado es un sistema compatible que presenta solución única y se verifica que:

$$\text{rango } [A] = \text{número de incógnitas} \quad (3.5)$$

Cuando se presenta esta situación en sistemas homogéneos se habla de solución trivial, ya que $\underline{X} = \underline{0}$.

Un sistema compatible que presenta infinidad de soluciones se conoce como sistema indeterminado y se caracteriza por:

$$\text{rango } [A] < \text{número de incógnitas} \quad (3.6)$$

Para la solución de sistemas de ecuaciones lineales existen diversos métodos de los cuales solo se tratarán: Método de Gauss-Jordan modificado y el Método de Gauss-Seidel.

3.2 Método de Gauss-Jordan modificado.

3.2.1 Objeto

Obtener la solución de sistemas de ecuaciones lineales de la forma:

$$\underline{A} \underline{X} = \underline{B} \quad (3.7)$$

3.2.2 Método

Dado el sistema de ecuaciones:

$$\underline{A} \underline{X} = \underline{B} \quad (3.8)$$

* $\text{rango } [A]$ es la cantidad de vectores linealmente independientes del conjunto de vectores columna que forman la matriz A .

el método consiste en trabajar con la matriz de coeficientes y el vector de términos independientes, es decir, con la matriz ampliada del sistema:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \underline{A} & \underline{B} \end{array} \right] \quad (3.9)$$

A dicha matriz se le aplican una serie de transformaciones que conducen a obtener otra matriz ampliada equivalente:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \underline{I}_{-n} & \underline{C} \end{array} \right] \quad (3.10)$$

donde C representa la solución de cada una de las incógnitas del sistema.

El proceso equivale a premultiplicar la ecuación (3.9) - por A⁻¹, es decir, el método de la matriz inversa, solo que este método consiste en una eliminación sistemática de valores.

La transformación de la matriz (3.9) en la matriz (3.10) se efectúa basándose en tres operaciones que no alteran el sistema de ecuaciones sino que proporcionan sistemas de ecuaciones equivalentes, ellas son:

- intercambio de dos renglones, lo cual equivale a intercambiar dos ecuaciones.
- multiplicación de un renglón por un escalar diferente de cero, lo cual equivale a multiplicar ambos miembros de una ecuación por la misma constante.
- suma de equimúltiplos de un renglón a otro renglón, es decir, multiplicar una ecuación por una constante "K" y sumarla a otra ecuación.

Para aplicar las operaciones anteriores se procede en la siguiente forma:

- ① Seleccionar un renglón pivote y un elemento pivote dentro de dicho renglón.
- ② Normalizar el elemento pivote, es decir, convertirlo en unitario.
- ③ Cancelar elementos que se encuentren en la columna arriba y/o abajo del elemento pivote mediante la suma de equimúltiplos.
- ④ Regresar al paso ① y así sucesivamente hasta que se transforma la matriz de coeficientes A en una matriz --

Identidad I_n .

Debido a que durante el proceso se presentan errores por redondeo, la forma óptima de escoger los elementos pivote es seleccionando el mayor elemento que quede en la matriz A o en sus transformaciones. Hay que tener presente que los elementos de un renglón que ya fue seleccionado como línea pivote no se pueden usar como pivotes, aún cuando el mayor elemento quede colocado en dicho renglón.

Al seleccionar los pivotes en la forma antes mencionada el error se reduce al mínimo y, debido a que puede quedar una matriz no identidad al término de las iteraciones, es necesario efectuar un intercambio de líneas hasta obtener I_n .

Cabe mencionar que el presente método es un método directo de solución que no requiere que se determine con anterioridad si el sistema es compatible y determinado, el método durante el proceso proporciona dicha información.

Si el sistema es compatible y determinado, el procedimiento descrito se puede llevar a cabo sin contratiempos hasta llegar a $[I_n | C]$.

Si el sistema es compatible pero indeterminado, la matriz ampliada adquirirá la configuración:

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \quad (3.11)$$

es decir, un renglón será nulo; en esta situación se obtienen las ecuaciones independientes que restan en el sistema y se aplica la metodología correspondiente a sistemas indeterminados.

Si el sistema es incompatible, se presentará lo siguiente:

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 2 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & \neq 0 \end{array} \right] \quad (3.12)$$

o sea, $0 = \neq 0$, lo cual es una contradicción.

3.2.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

SUBROUTINE GAUTOR (A, B, N, EPS, DET), esta subrutina obtiene la solución del sistema de ecuaciones por el método de Gauss-Jordan modificado, el programa principal solo sirve para entrada y salida de datos.

b) Descripción de las variables:

Para la subrutina GAUTOR:

A(I, J) matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones.

B(I) vector de términos independientes del sistema de ecuaciones, durante el proceso se transforma en la solución.

N orden del sistema de ecuaciones.

RAMAX mayor elemento de la matriz A que se emplea como pivote.

MVR(I) y MVC(I) contadores que indican qué renglón y columnas ya fueron empleados.

EPS criterio para determinar si el determinante de la matriz A es nulo.

DET parámetro que indica si el determinante de A es nulo.

LR y LC indicadores del renglón y columna que se utilizan.

TEMP variable de localización temporal.

Para el programa principal:

A(I, J) matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones.

B(I) vector de términos independientes.

N orden del sistema de ecuaciones.

EPS criterio para determinar si el determinante de A es nulo.

DET parámetro que indica si el determinante de A es nulo.

c) Dimensiones:

La proposición DIMENSION del programa principal y de la subrutina se deberán modificar en el caso de que:

$$N > 10$$

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(I5)	N
2	(8F10.0)	A(I, J), se dan los elementos de A renglón por renglón, empleando tantas -- tarjetas como sean necesarias para cada renglón.
3	(8F10.0)	B(I), el vector de términos independientes se da en una tarjeta o más según la cantidad de elementos.

 otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n

TARJETA EN BLANCO, al finalizar toda la información.

e) Diagrama de bloques:

Fig. 3.1 Diagrama de bloques del programa principal.

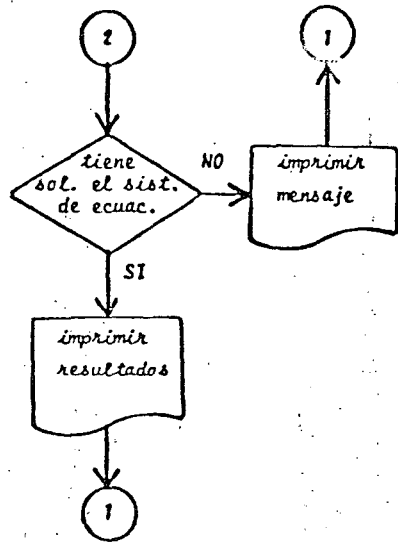
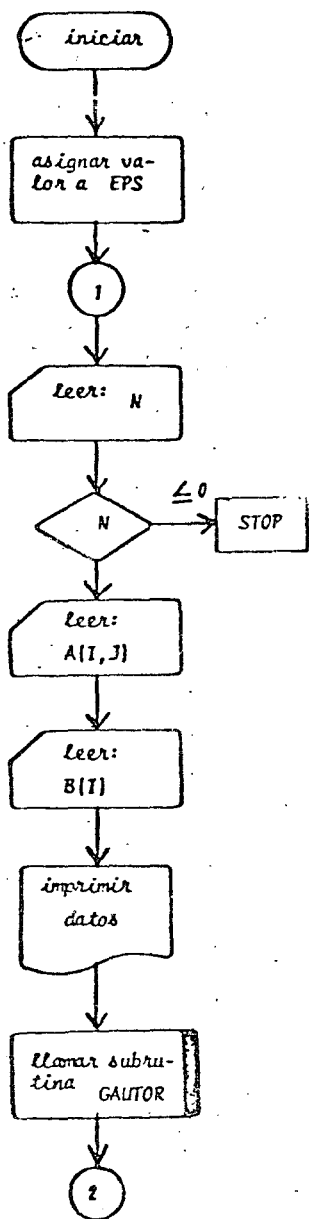
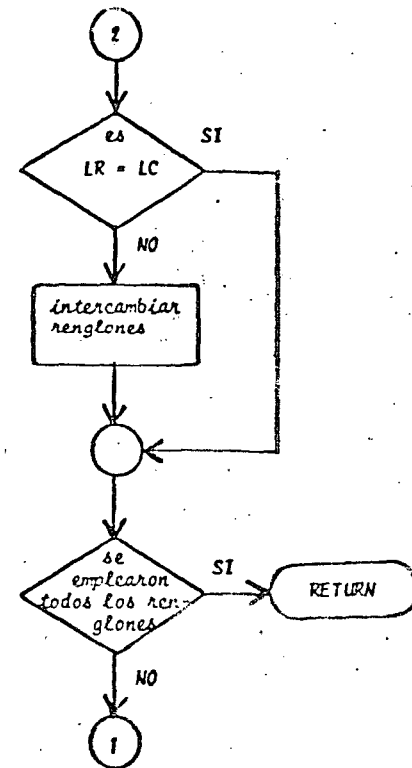
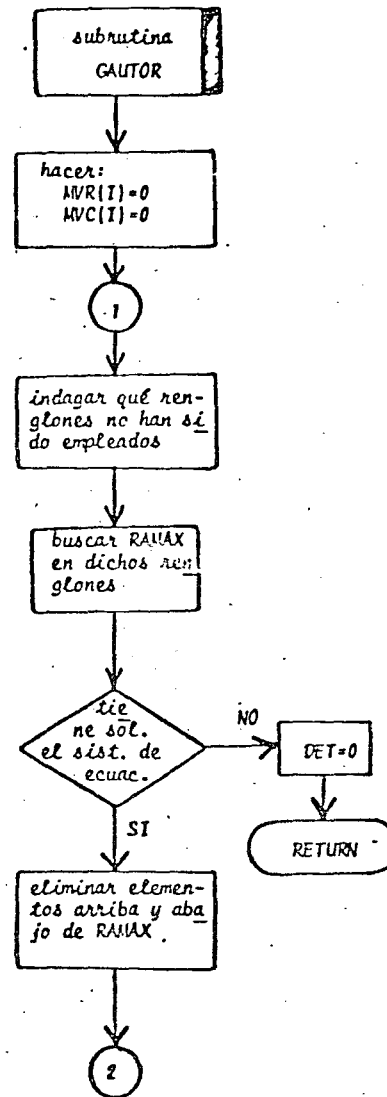


Fig. 3.2 Diagrama de bloques de la subrutina GAUTOR.



6) Listado:

```

C      PROGRAMA PARA RESOLVER SISTEMAS DE ECUACIONES LINEALES POR EL METO
C      DO DE GAUSS-JORDAN
C      SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
C      N°ORDEN DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C      A=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C      D=VECTOR DE TERMINOS INDEPENDIENTES, SE CONVIERTE EN LA SOLUCION
C      CRITERIO PARA DETERMINAR SI EL DETERMINANTE DE A ES DIFERENTE DE 0
C      DEY=VARIABLE QUE INDICA SI EL SISTEMA TIENE O NO SOLUCION

      DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10)
      IR=5
      IN=6
      EPS=0.000001
C      LECTURA DE DATOS
1      READ(1,20) N
      IF(N) 2,203
2      CALL EXIT
3      DO 4 I=1,N
4      READ(1,21) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
      READ(1,21) (B(I),I=1,N)
C      IMPRESION DE DATOS
      WRITE(1,22)
      DO 5 I=1,N
5      WRITE(1,23) (A(I,J),J=1,N),B(I)
C      LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA RESOLVER EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
      CALL GALTOR(A,B,N,EPS,DEY)
      IF(DEY=0) EPS=EPS/2
C      IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
      WRITE(1,24)
      DO 6 I=1,N
6      WRITE(1,25) B(I)
      GO TO 1
7      WRITE(1,26)
      GO TO 1
C      FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
20      FORMAT(I5)
21      FORMAT(8F10.0)
22      FORMAT(4(/),5X,'EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES'//)
23      FORMAT(2(/),2X,10(10.3,1X))
24      FORMAT(4(/),5X,'LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES'//)
      1'5X,'X(1)'//)
25      FORMAT(12X,12(4X,12.5))
26      FORMAT(4(/),5X,'EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES NO TIENE SOLUCION')
      END

```

Fig. 3.3 Listado del programa principal

```

SUBROUTINE GAUTOR(A,N,K,EPS,DET)
C
C SUBROUTINA PARA RESOLVER UN SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES POR EL METODO DE
C GAUSS-JORDAN MODIFICADO
C EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C A=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C B=VECTOR DE TERMINOS INDEPENDIENTES QUE DURANTE EL PROCESO SE
C TRANSFORMA EN LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C N=ORDEN DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C RAMAX=MAYOR ELEMENTO DE LA MATRIZ A QUE SE USA COMO PIVOTE
C HVR Y HVC=CONTADORES QUE INDICAN QUE RENGLON Y QUE COLUMNA YA FUERON
C UTILIZADOS
C EPS=CRITERIO PARA DETERMINAR SI EL DETERMINANTE DE LA MATRIZ A ES
C NULO
C DET=VALOR ABSOLUTO DEL DETERMINANTE DE LA MATRIZ A
C
C DIMENSION A(10,10),B(10),HVR(10),HVC(10)
C
C ACTUALIZACION DE VALORES PARA INICIAR EL PROCESO.
C
C DO 1 I=1,N
C HVR(I)=0
C HVC(I)=0
C
C SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C DO 9 K=1,N
C RAMAX=0.0
C LC=0
C LR=0
C DO 3 I=1,N
C IF(HVR(I).EQ.1) GO TO 3
C DO 2 J=1,N
C IF(HVC(J).EQ.1) GO TO 2
C IF(ABS(RAMAX).GE.ABS(A(I,J))) GO TO 2
C RAMAX=A(I,J)
C LR=I
C LC=J
C 2 CONTINUE
C 3 CONTINUE
C DET=ABS(RAMAX)
C IF(ABS(DET).LE.EPS) GO TO 10
C IF(LR.EQ.LC) GO TO 5
C DO 4 I=1,N
C TEMP=A(LR,I)
C A(LR,I)=A(LC,I)
C 4 A(LC,I)=TEMP
C TEMP=B(LR)
C B(LR)=B(LC)
C U(LC)=TEMP
C DO 6 I=1,N
C 6 A(LC,I)=A(LC,I)/RAMAX
C B(LC)=B(LC)/RAMAX
C DO 8 I=1,N
C IF(I.EQ.LC) GO TO 8
C TEMP=A(I,LC)
C B(I)=B(I)-TEMP*B(LC)
C DO 7 J=1,N
C 7 A(I,J)=A(I,J)-TEMP*A(LC,J)
C 8 CONTINUE
C HVR(LC)=LC
C HVC(LC)=LC
C 9 CONTINUE
C 10 RETURN
C END

```

Fig. 3.4 Listado de la subrutina GAUTOR

3.2.4 Ejemplo

Empleando las leyes de Kirchhoff (ver referencia 2), se obtuvieron las siguientes ecuaciones lineales para el circuito mostrado en la figura 3.5:

$$\begin{aligned}
 i_8 - i_4 - I_A &= 0 \\
 i_4 + i_5 + I_A - i_1 - i_3 &= 0 \\
 i_1 - i_2 - I_B &= 0 \\
 i_2 + I_B + i_3 + i_6 - i_7 &= 0 \\
 I_C - i_8 - i_5 - i_6 - i_9 &= 0 \\
 R_1 i_1 + R_2 i_2 - R_3 i_3 &= 0 \\
 R_4 i_4 - R_5 i_5 + R_8 i_8 &= 0 \\
 R_5 i_5 + R_3 i_3 - R_6 i_6 &= 0 \\
 R_6 i_6 + R_7 i_7 - R_9 i_9 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

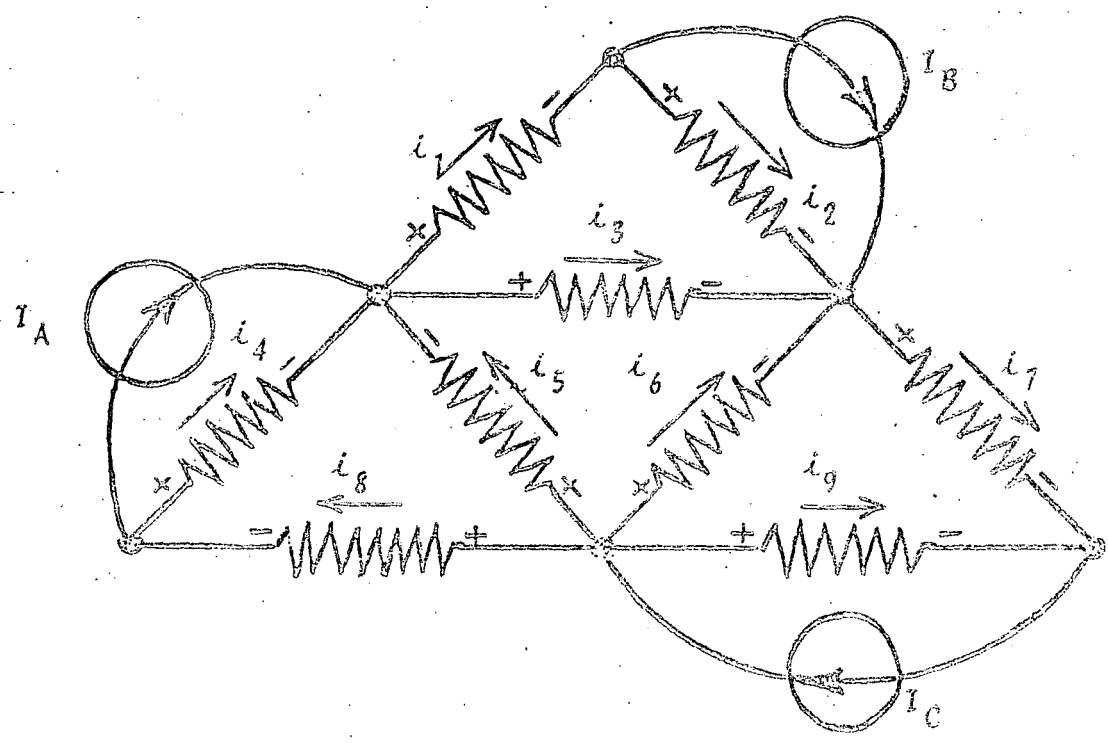


Fig. 3.5 Circuito del ejemplo 3.2.4

Si el valor de las fuentes es $I_A = 2A$, $I_B = 6A$, $I_C = 4A$ y el de las resistencias:

$$R_1 = R_2 = 2 \Omega$$

$$R_4 = R_8 = 3 \Omega$$

$$R_5 = R_6 = 5 \Omega$$

$$R_7 = R_9 = 4 \Omega$$

$$R_3 = 6 \Omega$$

Obtenga las corrientes de rama $i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5, i_6, i_7, i_8, i_9$.

* SOLUCION

TABLA 3.1 Datos para el problema del ejemplo 3.2.4

$$N = 9$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & -5 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 & 5 & -5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 6 \\ -6 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

TABLA 3.2 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 3.2.4

EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES

0.	0.	0.	-.100E+01	0.	0.	0.	.100E+01	0.	.200E+01
-.100E+01	0.	-.100E+01	.100E+01	.100E+01	0.	0.	0.	0.	-.200E+01
.100E+01	-.100E+01	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	.600E+01
0.	.100E+01	.100E+01	0.	0.	.100E+01	-.100E+01	0.	0.	-.600E+01
0.	0.	0.	0.	.100E+01	.100E+01	0.	.100E+01	.100E+01	.400E+01
.200E+01	.200E+01	-.600E+01	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.
0.	0.	0.	.300E+01	-.500E+01	0.	0.	.300E+01	0.	0.
0.	0.	.600E+01	0.	.500E+01	-.500E+01	0.	0.	0.	0.
0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	.500E+01	.400E+01	0.	-.400E+01	0.

LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES

1	-.29761E+01
2	-.34239E+01
3	-.61596E+00
4	-.60359E+00
5	-.23373E+00
6	-.24948E+01
7	.10047E+01
8	.14364E+01
9	.70151E+01

3.3 Método de Gauss-Seidel

3.3.1 Objeto

Obtener la solución de sistemas de ecuaciones lineales -- con la configuración:

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\
 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\
 &\vdots \\
 a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n &= b_n
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3.13}$$

empleando el método de Gauss-Seidel.

3.3.2 Método

El método de Gauss-Seidel es un método de tipo iterativo que sirve para la solución de sistemas de ecuaciones lineales del tipo:

$$\underline{A} \underline{X} = \underline{B}
 \tag{3.14}$$

cuando los valores numéricos de los elementos de la diagonal - principal son mayores que los demás de su correspondiente renglón.

- Para asegurar la convergencia del método se requiere que:
- a) los elementos no nulos de la matriz de coeficientes \underline{A} se acumulen en la diagonal principal.
 - b) los elementos de la diagonal principal de la matriz de coeficientes \underline{A} sean mayores en valor absoluto que la sumatoria de los valores absolutos de los elementos -- restantes del renglón correspondiente, es decir:

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n |a_{ij}|, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n
 \tag{3.15}$$

Para aplicar el método se procede a despejar una incógnita

ta de cada ecuación del arreglo (3.13), es decir, despejar la incógnita x_i de la "i-ésima" ecuación, o sea:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x_1 &= \frac{1}{a_{11}} \left[b_1 - a_{12}x_2 - a_{13}x_3 - \dots - a_{1n}x_n \right] \\ x_2 &= \frac{1}{a_{22}} \left[b_2 - a_{21}x_1 - a_{23}x_3 - \dots - a_{2n}x_n \right] \\ &\vdots \\ x_n &= \frac{1}{a_{nn}} \left[b_n - a_{n1}x_1 - a_{n2}x_2 - \dots - a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} (3.16)$$

y se establecen las siguientes ecuaciones iterativas:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x_1^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{11}} \left[b_1 - a_{12}x_2^{(k)} - a_{13}x_3^{(k)} - \dots - a_{1n}x_n^{(k)} \right] \\ x_2^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{22}} \left[b_2 - a_{21}x_1^{(k+1)} - a_{23}x_3^{(k)} - \dots - a_{2n}x_n^{(k)} \right] \\ &\vdots \\ x_n^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{nn}} \left[b_n - a_{n1}x_1^{(k+1)} - a_{n2}x_2^{(k+1)} - \dots - a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1}^{(k+1)} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} (3.17)$$

donde $x_i^{(k+1)}$ indica el valor de la "i-ésima" incógnita en la iteración "k + 1"

Para arrancar el método se establece una solución inicial \underline{x}_0 :

$$\underline{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^0 \\ x_2^0 \\ \vdots \\ x_n^0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.18)$$

dichos valores se sustituyen en el lado derecho de la ecuación (3.17) para obtener la siguiente solución aproximada:

$$\underline{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ x_n^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.19)$$

y así sucesivamente hasta que

$$\left| \underline{x}_{n+1} - \underline{x}_n \right| < \underline{\varepsilon} \quad (3.20)$$

Para poder emplear este método es necesario verificar con anterioridad que el sistema sea compatible y determinado; además de que cumpla con las condiciones de convergencia del método. - Afortunadamente la mayoría de los problemas de tipo ingenieril cumplen los requisitos mencionados.

Ciertos sistemas que a primera vista no cumplen los requisitos del método pueden llenar los requisitos mediante un simple intercambio en la posición de las ecuaciones.

3.3.3 Descripción del programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

Ninguna.

b) Descripción de las variables.

A(I,J)	matriz de coeficientes del sistema
B(I)	vector de términos independientes
N	orden del sistema de ecuaciones
X(I)	valor inicial de las incógnitas del sistema y variable de localización temporal
Y(I)	valor de las incógnitas en la iteración "n"
XN(I)	valor de las incógnitas en la iteración "n + 1"

M máximo número de iteraciones a efectuar
 E criterio de convergencia
 NCON contador de iteraciones efectuadas
 SUM sumador

c) Dimensiones:

La proposición DIMENSION deberá modificarse cuando se presente el caso de que $N > 20$.

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(2I5, F10.0)	N, M, E
2	(10F8.0)	A(I, J), los elementos de la matriz A se dan renglón por renglón empleando la cantidad de tarjetas necesaria para cada renglón.
3	(10F8.0)	B(I) el vector de términos independientes se da en una tarjeta o más según el orden del sistema.
4	(10F8.0)	X(I), la solución para arrancar el método se da en una tarjeta o más según sea el tamaño de N.

 otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n TARJETA EN BLANCO; al finalizar toda la información.

e) Diagrama de bloques:

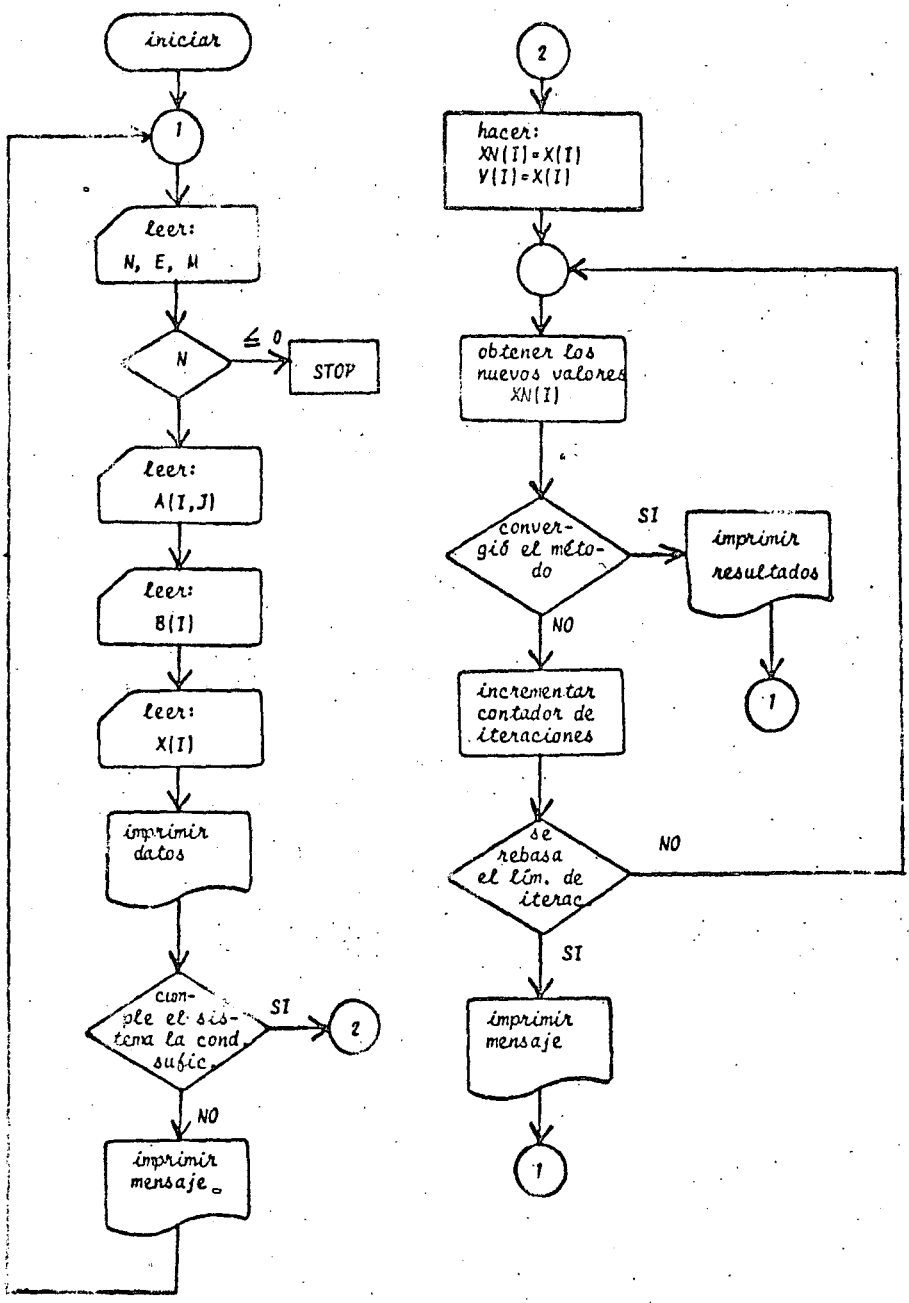


Fig. 3.6 Diagrama de bloques para el programa

6) Listado:

```

C   PROGRAMA PARA RESOLVER SISTEMAS DE ECUACIONES POR EL METODO DE
C   GAUSS-SEIDEL
C   SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
C   A=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   B=VECTOR DE TERMINOS INDEPENDIENTES
C   X=VALOR INICIAL DE LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA
C   XN=SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES EN LA SIGUIENTE ITERACION
C   N=ORDEN DEL SISTEMA
C   Y=VALOR DE LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES EN LA ITERACION
C   ANTERIOR
C   M=MAXIMO NUMERO DE ITERACIONES
C   E=CRITERIO DE CONVERGENCIA

```

```

L
DIMENSION A(20,20),B(20),X(20),Y(20),XN(20)
C   LECTURA DE DATOS
1   READ(5,200) N,M,H,E
   IF(N) 2,2,3
2   CALL EXIT
3   DO 4 I=1,N
-4  READ(5,300) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
   READ(5,300) (B(I),I=1,N)
   READ(5,300) (X(I),I=1,N)
G   IMPRESION DE DATOS
   WRITE(6,400)
   DO 5 I=1,N
9   WRITE(6,500) (A(I,J),J=1,N),B(I)
   WRITE(6,600) (X(I),I=1,N)
C   SE INDAGA SI EL SISTEMA CUMPLE LA CONDICION SUFICIENTE DE CONVER-
C   GENCIA
   DO 7 I=1,N
   DO 6 J=1,N
   IF(ABS(A(I,I)) - ABS(A(I,J))) 8,6,6
6   CONTINUE
7   CONTINUE
   GO TO 9
8   WRITE(6,700) I,J,I,I
   GO TO 1
G   OBTENCION DEL VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS
9   NCCN=1
   DO 10 I=1,N
   XN(I)=X(I)
10  Y(I)=X(I)
11  DO 14 K=1,N
   SUM=0.
   DO 13 I=1,N
   IF(K=I) 12,13,12
12  SUM=SUM + A(K,I)*XN(I)
13  CONTINUE
   XN(K)=(B(K)-SUM)/A(K,K)
14  CONTINUE
   DO 15 I=1,N
G   SE VERIFICA SI YA CONVERGIO EL METODO
   IF(ABS(XN(I)-Y(I))-E) 15,14,16
15  CONTINUE
C   IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
   WRITE(6,800) (XN(I),I=1,N)
   WRITE(6,950) NCCN
   GO TO 1
16  NCCN=NCCN + 1
   IF(NCCN=M) 18,17,17
17  WRITE(6,900) (XN(I),I=1,N)
   WRITE(6,950) NCCN
   GO TO 1
18  DO 19 I=1,N
19  Y(I)=XN(I)
   GO TO 11
C   FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
200  FORMAT (2I5,F10.0)
300  FORMAT (10F3.0)
400  FORMAT (1H1,5(/),15X,'MATRIZ AMPLIADA')
500  FORMAT (/,15X,10(F3.1,5X))
600  FORMAT(4(/),15X,'PRIMERA APROXIMACION DE LA SOLUCION',///,10X,10(F
16.2,5X))
700  FORMAT(4(/),15X,'EL METODO PUEDE NO CONVERGER DADO QUE',///,15X,'A
2',12,'',12,'') ES MAYOR QUE A(',12,'',12,'')
800  FORMAT(4(/),15X,'LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA ES',///,5X,10(F12.5,5X))
900  FORMAT(4(/),15X,'SE LLEGA A LA SOLUCION',///,15X,'LA ULTIMA APR
OXIMACION ENCONTRADA FUE',///,5X,9(F12.5,2X))
950  FORMAT(4(/),15X,'ITERACIONES REALIZADAS=',14)
END

```

Fig. 3.7 Listado del programa

3.3.4 Ejemplo

Para el circuito eléctrico de la fig. 3.8 se sabe que ---
 $I_1 = 1A$ e $I_2 = 2A$, $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = R_5 = R_6 = 1 \Omega$.

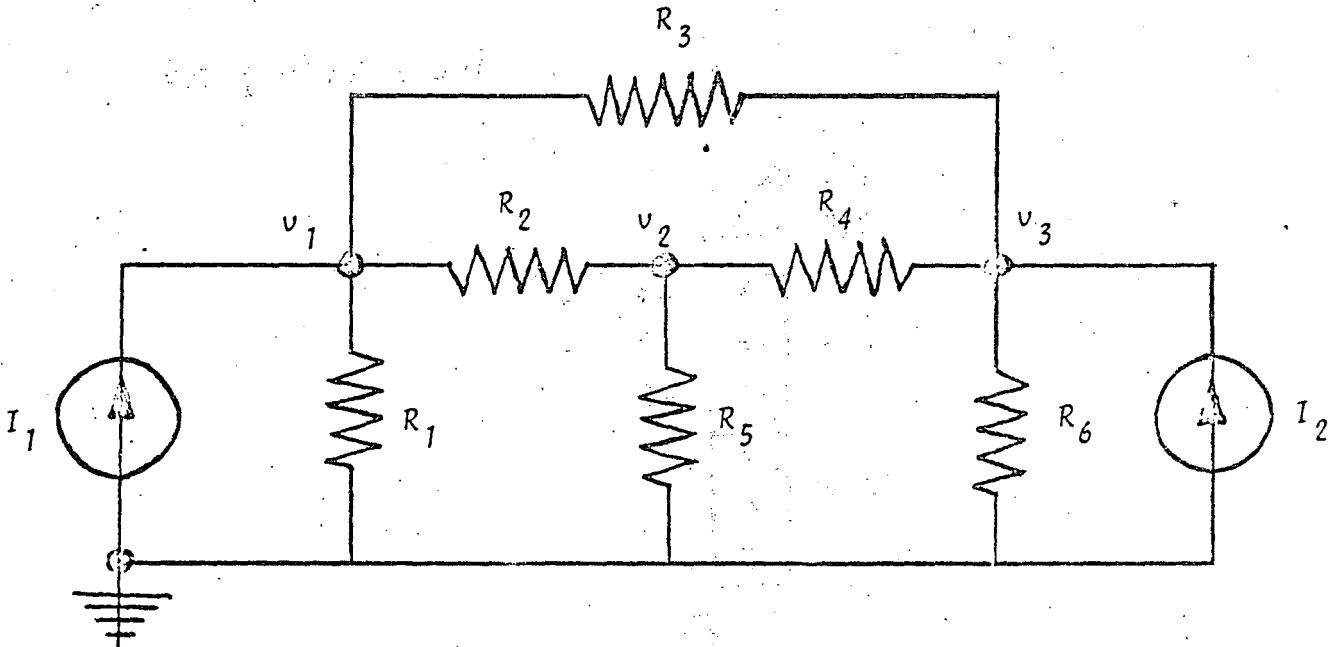


Fig. 3.8 Circuito eléctrico del problema del ejemplo

3.3.4

Se desea obtener el voltaje de los nodos V_1 , V_2 y V_3 .
 Aplicando análisis nodal al circuito se obtiene:

$$3V_1 - V_2 - V_3 = 1$$

$$-V_1 + 3V_2 - V_3 = 0$$

$$-V_1 - V_2 + 3V_3 = 2$$

arreglo que es un sistema de ecuaciones lineales con todas las características propias para aplicar el método de Gauss-Seidel.

Se seleccionará como solución inicial al siguiente vector:

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_1^0 \\ V_2^0 \\ V_3^0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

* SOLUCION

TABLA 3.3 Datos del problema del ejemplo 3.3.4

N = 3
M = 50
EPS = 0.0001

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

TABLA 3.4 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 3.3.4

MATRIX AMPLIADA

3.000	-1.000	-1.000	1.000
-1.000	3.000	-1.000	0.000
-1.000	-1.000	3.000	2.000

--PRIMERA APROXIMACION DE LA SOLUCION

0.30 0.50 0.90

LA SOLUCION DEL SISTEMA ES

0.00000000 0.75000000 0.12500000

--OPERACIONES REALIZADAS= 13

3.4 Bibliografía

1. CARNAHAN B., LUTHER H., WILKES J., "Applied Numerical Methods". New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1969. pp. 269-307.
2. GEREZ G. Víctor, MURRAY LASSO M.A., "Teoría de Sistemas y Circuitos". México: Representaciones y Servicios de Ingeniería, S.A., 1972. pp. 99-123.
3. HADLEY G. "Algebra Lineal": Bogotá: Fondo Educativo Interamericano, 1969. pp. 162-187.
4. HAMMING Richard, "Numerical Methods for Scientists and Engineers". New York: Mc Graw Hill Book Co., 1962. pp. 360-365.
5. JAMES M., SMITH G., WOLFORD J., "Applied Numerical Methods for Digital Computation with FORTRAN". Scranton Penn: International Text Book Co., 1967. pp. 184-230.
6. JOHN STON J., BAILEY PRICE G., VAN VLECK F., "Linear Equations and Matrices", Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1966. pp. 1-94.
7. KUO S. Shan, "Computer Applications of Numerical Methods". Reading Mass.: Addison Wesley Co., 1972. pp. 179-212.
8. OLIVERA S. Antonio, "Apuntes de Métodos Numéricos". México.: Facultad de Ingeniería, UNAM. 1972. pp. 4.1-4.34.

7. APROXIMACION POLINOMIAL Y COEFICIENTE DE CORRELACION

7.1 Introducción

En muchas ocasiones a partir de una serie de valores muestrales, donde existe una variable dependiente y una o varias variables independientes, es necesario ajustar dichos puntos por una curva tal que permita determinar el valor de la variable dependiente para cualquier valor de las variables independientes. La curva de ajuste por el método de los mínimos cuadrados puede ser un polinomio de grado "n", una función de tipo logarítmico, etc.; dicha curva se escoge de acuerdo a la distribución de los puntos muestrales y en forma tal que se minimice la suma de los cuadrados de los errores. En procesos estadísticos a tal tipo de ajuste se le denomina regresión simple o múltiple de la variable dependiente sobre las variables independientes. El grado de relación existente entre la variable dependiente y la independiente se denomina correlación y a la medida de tal relación se le llama coeficiente de correlación, el cual se suele denotar con el símbolo ρ ^{1(2.3...n)}. Donde:

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Variación explicada}}{\text{Variación total}}} \quad (7.1)$$

Si se considera a Y como la variable dependiente, las variaciones se definen en la siguiente forma:

$$\text{variación total} = \sum (Y - \bar{Y})^2 \quad (7.2)$$

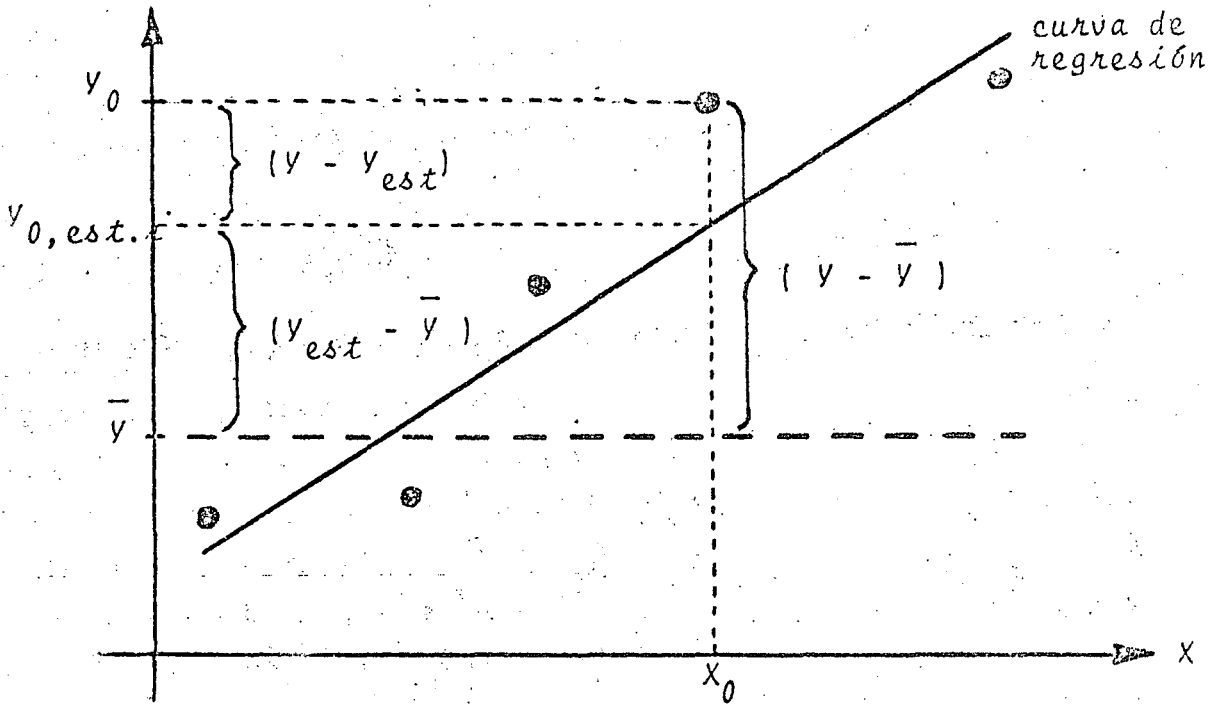
$$\text{variación explicada} = \sum (Y_{est} - \bar{Y})^2 \quad (7.3)$$

$$\text{variación no explicada} = \sum (Y - Y_{est})^2 \quad (7.4)$$

$$\sum (Y - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum (Y_{est} - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum (Y - Y_{est})^2 \quad (7.5)$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N Y_i}{N} \quad \text{para } N \text{ puntos muestrales}$$

Gráficamente, para el caso de regresión simple se tendrá:



7.2 Método de los Mínimos Cuadrados

7.2.1 Objeto

Efectuar la regresión lineal o exponencial, simple o múltiple, de la variable X_1 sobre la(s) variable(s) X_2, \dots, X_n a partir de una tabla de "m" puntos muestrales con la siguiente configuración:

Punto	X_1	X_2	...	X_n
1				
.				
.				
.				
m				

Para efectuar el ajuste se emplea el método de los mínimos cuadrados. Además, se proporciona el coeficiente de correlación y las desviaciones estándar de los parámetros de la cur

va.

Las curvas de ajuste serán del tipo:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X_1 &= A_1 + A_2 X_2 + A_3 X_3 + \dots + A_n X_n \\ \text{ó} \\ X_1 &= e^{A_1} e^{A_2 X_2} e^{A_3 X_3} \dots e^{A_n X_n} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (7.6)$$

Si se desea como curva de ajuste un polinomio de grado " $(n-1)$ " o sea:

$$X_1 = A_1 + A_2 X_2 + A_3 X_2^2 + \dots + A_n X_2^{n-1} \quad (7.7)$$

solo se requerirá efectuar el siguiente cambio de variable:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X_2 &= X_2 \\ X_3 &= X_2^2 \\ X_4 &= X_2^3 \\ &\vdots \\ X_n &= X_2^{n-1} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (7.8)$$

en el momento de proporcionar los datos.

7.2.2 Método

Dadas un conjunto de " m " observaciones de la variable dependiente X_1 sobre una o varias variables independientes X_2, \dots, X_n se busca ajustar los datos mediante la siguiente curva:

$$f(\underline{X}) = \hat{X}_1 = A_1 + A_2 X_2 + A_3 X_3 + \dots + A_n X_n \quad (7.9)$$

El valor de la variable dependiente correspondiente al valor de las variables independientes en un punto muestral \underline{X}_i es $X_{1,i}$ por lo que el error será:

$$e_i = f(\underline{X}_i) - X_{1,i} \quad (7.10)$$

$$e_i = A_1 + A_2 X_{2,i} + A_3 X_{3,i} + \dots + A_n X_{n,i} - X_{1,i} \quad (7.11)$$

^o \hat{X}_1 = valor estimado de X_1

y la suma de los cuadrados de los errores considerando todos los puntos muestrales es:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \left[A_1 + A_2 X_{2,i} + A_3 X_{3,i} + \dots + A_n X_{n,i} - X_{1,i} \right]^2 \quad (7.12)$$

para obtener el mínimo de la suma de los cuadrados de los errores se deriva la expresión (7.12) con respecto a los parámetros A_j y cada una de las derivadas se iguala a cero para toda j :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial A_j} \sum_{i=1}^m e_i^2 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial A_j} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[A_1 + A_2 X_{2,i} + \dots + A_n X_{n,i} - X_{1,i} \right]^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m 2 \left[A_1 + A_2 X_{2,i} + \dots + A_n X_{n,i} - X_{1,i} \right] X_{j,i} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (7.13)$$

lo cual se cumple solo si:

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 \sum_{i=1}^m X_{j,i} + A_2 \sum_{i=1}^m X_{2,i} X_{j,i} + \dots + A_n \sum_{i=1}^m X_{n,i} X_{j,i} &= \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m X_{1,i} X_{j,i} \end{aligned} \quad (7.14)$$

al evaluar (7.14) para toda "j" se tiene:

$$\begin{aligned} m A_1 &+ A_2 \Sigma X_2 &+ A_3 \Sigma X_3 &+ \dots &+ A_n \Sigma X_n &= \Sigma X_1 \\ A_1 \Sigma X_2 &+ A_2 \Sigma X_2^2 &+ A_3 \Sigma X_3 X_2 &+ \dots &+ A_n \Sigma X_n X_2 &= \Sigma X_1 X_2 \\ &\vdots &&&&\vdots \\ &\vdots &&&&\vdots \\ A_1 \Sigma X_n &+ A_2 \Sigma X_2 X_n &+ A_3 \Sigma X_3 X_n &+ \dots &+ A_n \Sigma X_n^2 &= \Sigma X_1 X_n \end{aligned} \quad (7.15)$$

expresando en forma matricial:

$$\begin{bmatrix} m & \Sigma X_2 & \dots & \Sigma X_n \\ \Sigma X_2 & \Sigma X_2^2 & \dots & \Sigma X_2 X_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Sigma X_n & \Sigma X_2 X_n & \dots & \Sigma X_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ \vdots \\ A_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma X_1 \\ \Sigma X_1 X_2 \\ \vdots \\ \Sigma X_1 X_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (7.16)$$

Al resolver el sistema de ecuaciones (7.16) se obtienen los parámetros A_j de la curva de regresión.

Dentro del programa se plantea el sistema de ecuaciones, obteniendo la sumatoria de los puntos muestrales para cada variable, para el cuadrado de la variable y para los productos cruzados. El sistema de ecuaciones se resuelve por el método de Gauss-Jordan modificado.

El coeficiente de correlación se obtiene de la siguiente forma:

$$\begin{aligned} r_{1(23\dots n)} &= \sqrt{\frac{\text{variación explicada}}{\text{variación total}}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2(23\dots n)}{\Sigma x_1^2}} \quad (7.17) \end{aligned}$$

donde:

$$\Sigma x_1^2 = \Sigma x_{1,23\dots n}^2 + \Sigma x_1^2(23\dots n) \quad (7.18)$$

var. total var. no explicada var. explicada

Las componentes de la ecuación (7.18) están dadas por:

$$\Sigma_{i=1}^m x_{1,i}^2 = \Sigma_{i=1}^m x_{1,i}^2 - \frac{(\Sigma_{i=1}^m x_{1,i})^2}{m} \quad (7.19)$$

$$\Sigma x_1^2 (2,3 \dots n) = A_2 \Sigma x_1 x_2 + A_3 \Sigma x_1 x_3 + \dots + A_n \Sigma x_1 x_n \quad (7.20)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Sigma x_1 x_2 &= \Sigma X_1 X_2 - \frac{\Sigma X_1 \Sigma X_2}{m} \\ \Sigma x_1 x_3 &= \Sigma X_1 X_3 - \frac{\Sigma X_1 \Sigma X_3}{m} \\ &\vdots \\ \Sigma x_1 x_n &= \Sigma X_1 X_n - \frac{\Sigma X_1 \Sigma X_n}{m} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (7.21)$$

A los términos de las ecuaciones (7.19) y (7.21) se les denominan elementos de variación y covariación respectivamente, ya que $x = X - \bar{X}$ y la variancia y covariancia se definen como:

$$\sigma_X^2 = E [X - \bar{X}]^2 \quad (7.22)$$

$$cov_{XY} = E [X - \bar{X}] [Y - \bar{Y}] \quad (7.23)$$

A continuación se describe la obtención de la desviación estándar de los parámetros A_j .

Se define a los productos $\underline{X}'\underline{X}$ y $\underline{X}'\underline{Y}$ como:

$$\underline{X}'\underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ X_{2,1} & X_{2,2} & \dots & X_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{n,1} & X_{n,2} & \dots & X_{n,m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{2,1} & \dots & X_{n,1} \\ 1 & X_{2,2} & \dots & X_{n,2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{2,m} & \dots & X_{n,m} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} n & \Sigma X_2 & \dots & \Sigma X_n \\ \Sigma X_2 & \Sigma X_2^2 & \dots & \Sigma X_2 \Sigma X_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Sigma X_n & \Sigma X_2 \Sigma X_n & \dots & \Sigma X_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (7.24)$$

$$\underline{X}'\underline{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ X_{2,1} & \dots & \dots & X_{2,m} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ X_{n,1} & \dots & \dots & X_{n,m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_{1,1} \\ X_{1,2} \\ \vdots \\ X_{1,m} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma X_1 \\ \Sigma X_1 X_2 \\ \vdots \\ \Sigma X_1 X_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (7.25)$$

Sea \underline{A} el vector de los parámetros de la ecuación de regresión, el sistema de ecuaciones (7.16) se puede denotar en base a lo anterior como:

$$(\underline{X}'\underline{X})\underline{A} = \underline{X}'\underline{Y} \quad (7.26)$$

donde \underline{Y} representa el vector de valores muestrales de la variable dependiente. Por lo tanto:

$$\underline{Y} = \underline{X}\underline{A} + \underline{e} \quad (7.27)$$

$$\underline{A} = (\underline{X}'\underline{X})^{-1}\underline{X}'\underline{Y} \quad (7.28)$$

Se asume que la ecuación de regresión es de la forma:

$$\underline{y} = \underline{x}\underline{\alpha} + \underline{\epsilon} \quad (7.29)$$

A partir de las expresiones anteriores se puede demostrar (ver ref. 1) que la variancia de los parámetros A_i está dada por:

$$E(\underline{A} - \underline{\alpha})(\underline{A} - \underline{\alpha})' = \sigma^2 \underline{I}(\underline{X}'\underline{X})^{-1} \quad (7.30)$$

El valor de σ^2 se obtiene mediante la expresión:

$$\sigma^2 = S_{1.23 \dots n}^2 = \frac{\Sigma x_{1.23 \dots n}^2}{m-n} \quad (7.31)$$

donde "m" representa la cantidad de puntos muestrales y "n" la cantidad de variables independientes.

Para efectos de regresión exponencial del tipo:

$$X_j = e^{A_1} e^{A_2 X_j} \dots e^{A_{n+1} X_j} \quad (7.32)$$

² \underline{e} : es el vector de diferencias entre los valores estimados y los valores reales.

el programa aplica el operador "Ln" en ambos términos de la ecuación (7.32) con lo que dicha expresión se linealiza y esta expresión linealizada es la que se utiliza para la obtención de los parámetros A_j .

7.2.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

- SUBROUTINE SISTOR(N,M,C,A,B), plantea el sistema de ecuaciones requerido para la obtención de los parámetros de la curva de regresión.
- SUBROUTINE GAUTOR(A,B,M,EPS,DET), obtiene la solución del sistema de ecuaciones mediante el método de Gauss-Jordan. Consultar el capítulo 3.
- SUBROUTINE MULTMA(A,B,N,M,L,X), efectúa productos matriciales. Consultar el capítulo 2.
- SUBROUTINE MATINV(A,N,EPS,DET), obtiene la inversa de una matriz por el método de Gauss-Jordan. Consultar el capítulo 2.
- SUBROUTINE GRAFI(A,N,M), obtiene la gráfica de los valores muestrales y de los valores estimados. Consultar el capítulo 1.

b) Descripción de las variables:

Para la subrutina SISTOR:

- N cantidad de puntos muestrales
- M cantidad de variables, incluyendo la de pendiente
- C(I,J) valor de la variable X_j para el punto muestral "i"
- A(I,J) matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones
- B(I) vector de términos independientes del sistema de ecuaciones
- SUM variable que guarda la sumatoria de los puntos muestrales

Para el programa principal:

- N cantidad de puntos muestrales
- M cantidad de variables incluyendo la de-

	pendiente
NTIPO	variable que indica el tipo de regresión a efectuar
C(I, J)	valor de la variable X_j para el punto muestral "i"
A(I, J)	matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones
B(I)	vector de términos independientes del sistema de ecuaciones
EPS	criterio para determinar si el determinante de <u>A</u> es nulo
DET	variable que indica si el determinante de la matriz <u>A</u> es o no nulo
PROD(I)	sumatorias de los productos cruzados $X_i X_j$
CM(I, J)	matriz modificada de la matriz <u>C</u> donde $CM(I, I) = 1$
XTR(I, J)	matriz transpuesta de la matriz CM
XI(I, J)	matriz inversa del producto matricial $(XTR)(CM)$
A1	coeficiente de correlación
VAR	variancia no explicada
BVAR(I)	desviación estándar de los parámetros de la curva de regresión
ATEMP(I)	variable de reemplazo

c) Dimensiones:

El programa está estructurado para trabajar como máximo con cinco variables independientes. La proposición DIMENSION deberá modificarse en el caso de que la cantidad de puntos muestrales sea mayor de 30.

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(215, A4)	N, M, NTIPO, para la variable NTIPO se deberá perforar LINE en el caso de regresión lineal y EXPO para regresión exponencial.

2 (8F10.0) C(I,J), los elementos de
. la matriz se dan columna
. por columna. Emplear tan-
. tas tarjetas como sean ne-
cesarias.

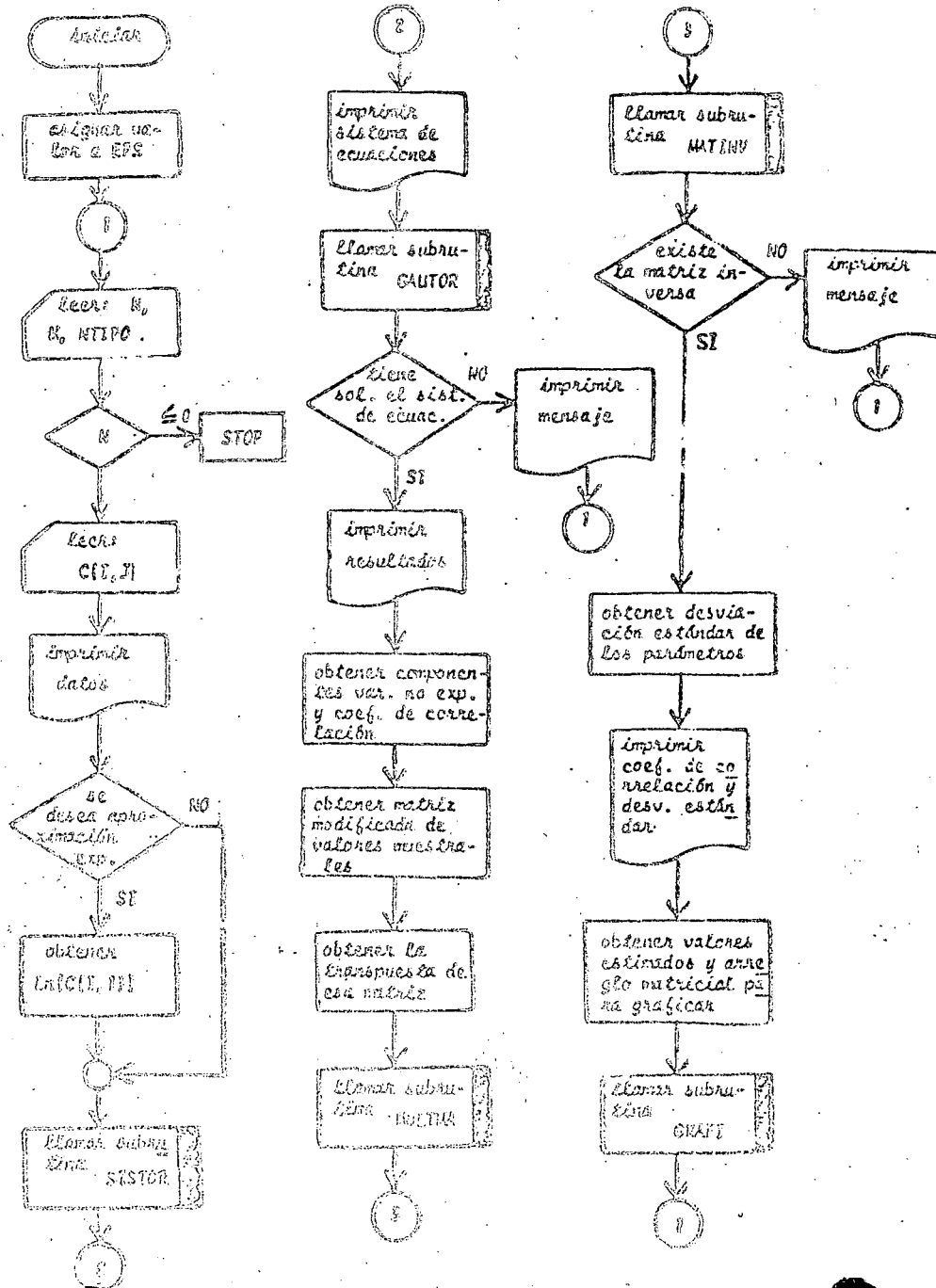
otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n TARJETA EN BLANCO, al fi-
nalizar toda la informa-
ción

e) Diagrama de bloques:

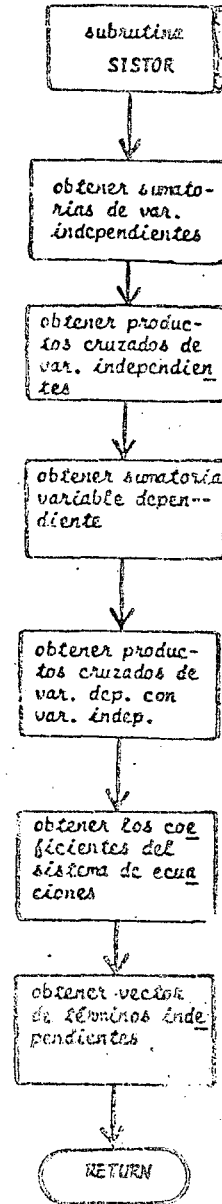
Fig. 7.1 Diagrama de bloques para el programa principal

60



61

Fig. 7.2 Diagrama de bloques para la subrutina SISTOR



6) Listado:

12662

```

C
C PROGRAMA PARA EFECTUAR REGRESION LINEAL O EXPONENCIAL MULTIPLE
C EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C N=CANTIDAD DE PUNTOS MUESTRALES
C M=CANTIDAD DE VARIABLES (INCLUYENDO LA V. DEPENDIENTE)
C NTIPC=VARIABLE QUE INDICA EL TIPO DE REGRESION A EFECTUAR (EXPO O
C LINE)
C C(I,J)=VALOR DE LA VARIABLE X(I) PARA EL PUNTO MUESTRAL I
C C(I,1)=VARIABLE DEPENDIENTE
C A=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES QUE SIRVEN PA-
C RA ENCONTRAR LOS PARAMETROS DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION
C B=PARAMETROS DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION
C EPS=VALOR CON EL QUE SE CONSIDERA NULO EL DETERMINANTE DE LA MA-
C TRIZ A
C DET=VALOR ABSOLUTO DEL DETERMINANTE DE LA MATRIZ A
C PROD=SUMATORIAS DE LOS PRODUCTOS CRUZADOS CON LA V. DEPENDIENTE
C CM=MATRIZ MODIFICADA DE LA MATRIZ C DONDE CM(I,1)=1
C XTR=TRANSPUESTA DE LA MATRIZ CM
C XI=MATRIZ INVERSA DEL PRODUCTO MATRICIAL XTR*CM
C BVAR=DESVIACION ESTANDAR DE LOS PARAMETROS B
C VAR=VARIACION NO EXPLICADA
C A1=COEFICIENTE DE CORRELACION
C
C LA FUNCION DE REGRESION ES DEL SIGUIENTE TIPO
C  $X(1)=B(1) + B(2)X(2) + B(3)X(3) + \dots + B(M)X(M)$ 
C
C DIMENSIONES PARA OBTENER LOS PARAMETROS DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION
C
C DIMENSION C(30,10),X(10),B(10),A(10,10),ATEMP(30)
C
C DIMENSIONES PARA OBTENER LA DESVIACION ESTANDAR DE B(I)
C DIMENSION PROD(10),CM(30,10),XTR(10,30),XI(10,10),BVAR(10)
C
C DATA X/4HX(1),4HX(2),4HX(3),4HX(4),4HX(5),4HX(6),4HX(7),4HX(8),4HX
C 1(9),5HX(10)/
C
C LECTURA DE DATOS
C
C EPS=0.000001
C 1 READ(5,50) N,M,NTIPC
C IF(N) 2,2,3
C 2 CALL EXIT
C 3 DO 4 J=1,M
C 4 READ(5,51) (C(I,J),I=1,N)
C LIN=4*LINE
C
C IMPRESION DE
C
C WRITE(6,52) N,M
C WRITE(6,53) (X(I),I=1,M)
C DO 5 I=1,N
C 5 WRITE(6,54) (C(I,J),J=1,M)
C
C LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA FORMAR EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C IF(NTIPC.EQ.LIN) GO TO 26
C DO 25 I=1,M
C ATEMP(I)=C(I,1)
C 25 C(I,1)=ALOG(C(I,1))
C 26 CALL SISTR(N,M,C,A,B)
C
C IMPRESION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C WRITE(6,551)
C DO 6 I=1,M
C 6 WRITE(6,550) (A(I,J),J=1,M),B(I)
C
C LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA RESOLVER EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C CALL GAUCR(A,B,M,EPS,DET)
C IF(DET.LE.EPS) GO TO 8
C
C IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
C
C WRITE(6,55)
C DO 7 I=1,M
C 7 WRITE(6,56) I,B(I)
C WRITE(6,552) NTIPC
C
C OBTENCION DE SUMX(1)=A1
C
C A1=0.0
C DO 9 I=1,N
C 9 A1=A1 + C(I,1)

```

```

OBTENCION DE SUBRUTINAS PARA SUBRUTINAS
DO 11 I=1,N
A2=0.0
A3=0.0
DO 10 J=1,N
A2=A2+C(I,J)*C(I,J)
A3=A3+C(I,J)
10 PROD(I)=A2*(A3)/FLOAT(N)
11 CONTINUE
WRITE(6,54) (PROD(I),I=1,N)

OBTENCION DE VAR. NO EXPLICADA Y DEL COEF. DE CORRELACION
VAR=0.0
DO 12 I=2,N
12 VAR=VAR+B(I)*PROD(I)
A1=SQRT(VAR/PROD(I))
VAR=PROD(I)*VAR
VAR=VAR/FLOAT(N-1)
WRITE(6,54) VAR

OBTENCION DE LA MATRIZ MODIFICADA DE VALORES NUESTRALES
DO 15 I=1,N
DO 14 J=1,N
IF(J.EQ.I) GO TO 13
C(I,J)=C(I,J)
GO TO 14
13 C(I,J)=1.0
14 CONTINUE
15 CONTINUE

OBTENCION DE CM TRANSUESTA
DO 16 I=1,N
DO 16 J=1,N
16 X(I,J)=C(I,J)

LLAMADO DE SUBRUTINA PARA EFECTUAR PRODUCTO MATRICIAL
CALL MULTPLA(NTR,CM,N,CM,MAXI)

LLAMADO DE SUBRUTINA PARA OBTENER LA MATRIZ INVERSA
CALL MATINV(NI,N,EPS,DET)
IF(DEY.LE.EPS) GO TO 19
DO 201 I=1,N
201 WRITE(6,54) (X(I,J),J=1,N)

OBTENCION DE LA DESVIACION ESTANDAR DE LOS PARAMETROS
DO 17 I=1,N
BVAR(I)=VAR*X(I,I)
17 BVAR(I)=SQRT(BVAR(I))

IMPRESION DE COEFICIENTES Y DESVIACIONES ESTANDAR
WRITE(6,58)
DO 18 I=1,N
18 WRITE(6,59) B(I),BVAR(I)
WRITE(6,60) A1

RECONSTRUCCION DE DATOS PARA GRAFICAR VALORES REALES Y VALORES ESTIMADOS
CON LA FUNCION DE REGRESION
IF(NYIPO.EQ.LIN) GO TO 27
DO 21 I=1,N
C(I,1)=FLOAT(I)
C(I,2)=C(I,1)
SUM=0.0
DO 20 J=2,N
SUM=SUM+C(I,J)*B(J)
C(I,3)=C(I,1)*B(1)+SUM
20 CONTINUE
GO TO 30
27 DO 29 I=1,N
C(I,1)=FLOAT(I)
C(I,2)=FLOAT(I)
SUM=EXP(B(I))
DO 28 J=2,N
SUM=SUM*EXP(C(I,J)*B(J))
28 C(I,3)=SUM
29 CONTINUE

```

```

C
C
C   LLAMADO DE SUBROUTINA PARA GRAFICAR
30 CALL GRAFI(CM,N,3)
   GO TO 1
   6 WRITE(6,57)
   GO TO 1
   19 WRITE(6,61)
   GO TO 1
C
C   FORMATS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
50 FORMAT(2I5,A4)
51 FORMAT(8F10.0)
52 FORMAT(1H1,5(/),5X,35H LA CANTIDAD DE PUNTOS MUESTRALES ES ,15,3(/)
   1,5X,28H LA CANTIDAD DE VARIABLES ES ,15)
53 FORMAT(///,5(/),10X,26H LOS VALORES MUESTRALES SON,///,5X,AS,9(7X,A
   15),///)
54 FORMAT(//,2X,10(1PE11.4,1X))
55 FORMAT(///,5(/),10X,37H LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION
   1 SON,///,46X,1H1,17X,4HB(I),/)
56 FORMAT(//,45X,12,10X,1PE15.8)
57 FORMAT(5(/),5X,42H EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES NO TIENE SOLUCION)
58 FORMAT(1H1,3(/),10X,49H LAS DESVIACIONES ESTANDAR DE LOS COEFICIENT
   1ES SON,///,46X,4HE(I),21X,4HD.S,///)
59 FORMAT(//,40X,2(1PE15.8,10X))
60 FORMAT(5(/),5X,34H EL COEFICIENTE DE CORRELACION ES ,1PE15.8)
61 FORMAT(5(/),5X,82H NO EXISTE LA INVERSA DE LA MATRIZ EMPLEADA PARA
   1CALCULAR LAS DESVIACIONES ESTANDAR)
550 FORMAT(//,2X,1PE10.3,10(1X,1PE10.3))
551 FORMAT(1H1,5(/),5X,27H EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES,/)
552 FORMAT(//,5X,21H TIPO DE REGRESION ,A4)
   END

```

Fig. 7.3 Listado del programa principal

```

C
C
C   SUBROUTINE SISTOR(N,M,C,A,B)
C
C   SUBROUTINA PARA PLANTEAR EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES QUE PERMITE OBTEN
C   ER LOS PARAMETROS DE UNA FUNCION DE REGRESION LINEAL MULTIPLE
C   EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C   M=CANTIDAD DE PUNTOS MUESTRALES
C   H=CANTIDAD DE VARIABLES (INCLUYENDO LA DEPENDIENTE)
C   C(I,J)=VALOR DE LA VARIABLE X(J) PARA EL PUNTO MUESTRAL I
C   A=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   B=VECTOR DE TERMINOS INDEPENDIENTES DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C   EL PLANTEAMIENTO APROVECHA LAS CARACTERISTICAS DE SIMETRIA DE LA
C   MATRIZ A
C
C   DIMENSION C(30,10),A(10,10),B(10)
C
C   OBTENCION DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C
C
C   A(1,1)=M
C   DO 8 I=1,M
C   IF(I.NE.1) GO TO 4
C   SUM=0.0
C   DO 1 J=1,H
C   1 SUM=SUM + C(J,I)
C   B(I)=SUM
C   IP1=I+1
C   DO 3 J=IP1,M
C   SUM=0.0
C   DO 2 K=1,H
C   2 SUM=SUM + C(K,J)
C   A(I,J)=SUM
C   A(J,I)=SUM
C   3 CONTINUE
C   GO TO 8
C   4 SUM=0.0
C   DO 5 J=1,H
C   5 SUM=SUM + C(J,1)*C(I,J)
C   B(I)=SUM
C   DO 7 J=1,H
C   SUM=0.0
C   DO 6 K=1,H
C   6 SUM=SUM + C(K,I)*C(K,J)
C   A(I,J)=SUM
C   A(J,I)=SUM
C   7 CONTINUE
C   8 CONTINUE
C   RETURN
C   END

```

Fig. 7.4 Listado de la subrutina SISTOR.

7.2.4 Ejemplo

Los valores observados para la demanda de energía eléctrica en el sector residencial desde 1962 hasta 1973 son:

ANO	DEMANDA RESIDENCIAL (MWH)
1962	1418.757
1963	1578.572
1964	1816.236
1965	1970.987
1966	2256.216
1967	2548.05
1968	2803.79
1969	3152.095
1970	3582.568
1971	3979.667
1972	4431.655
1973	4930.197

Si se sabe que la demanda de energía eléctrica se encuentra estrechamente relacionada con el tiempo, el PNB, la población y el producto bruto del sector eléctrico del año anterior. Obtenga una curva de tipo lineal y otra de tipo exponencial que se ajuste lo mejor posible a los valores muestrales de la demanda residencial de energía eléctrica.

* SOLUCION

TABLA 7.1 Datos del problema del ejemplo 7.2.4

$$N = 12$$

$$M = 4$$

$$NTIPO = LINE \text{ ó } EXPO$$

DEMANDA RESID. TIEMPO PNB POBLACION PB CFE₋₁

1418.757	62.	165310.	37439.	1609.
1578.572	63.	178516.	38727.	1753.
1816.236	64.	199390.	40059.	2170.
1970.987	65.	212320.	41437.	2529.
2256.216	66.	227037.	42863.	2769.
2548.05	67.	241272.	44338.	3157.
2803.79	68.	260901.	45863.	3533.
3152.095	69.	277400.	47441.	4228.
3582.568	70.	296600.	49031.	4812.
3979.667	71.	306800.	50778.	5357.
4431.655	72.	329100.	52539.	5784.
4930.197	73.	354100.	54560.	6297.

67

TABLA 7.2 Resultados del problema del ejemplo 7.2.4

68

EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES

- 1.290E+01 2.16CE+02 3.049E+06 5.451E+05 4.400E+04 3.444E+04
- 8.190E+02 5.462E+04 2.052E+08 3.701E+07 3.033E+06 2.372E+06
- 3.049E+06 2.082E+08 8.148E+11 1.422E+11 1.224E+10 9.518E+09
- 5.451E+05 3.701E+07 1.422E+11 2.510E+10 2.097E+09 1.636E+09
- 4.400E+04 3.033E+06 1.224E+10 2.097E+09 1.897E+08 1.467E+08

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION SON

I	B(I)
1	1.25536780E+04
2	-4.60828709E+02
3	7.28920646E-04
4	4.61541007E-01
5	1.76002042E-01

TIPO DE REGRESION LINE

LAS DESVIACIONES ESTANDAR DE LOS COEFICIENTES SON

B(I)	D.S.
1.25536780E+04	2.34876970E+03
-4.60828709E+02	9.72189127E+01
7.28920646E-04	3.95854087E-03
4.61541007E-01	6.76429802E-02
1.76002042E-01	8.48344206E-02

EL COEFICIENTE DE CORRELACION ES 9.99738818E-01

EL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES ES

8.260E+01	0.000E+02	1.000E+06	5.451E+09	6.400E+04	9.464E+01
6.130E+02	5.462E+04	2.092E+06	3.701E+07	3.031E+04	6.405E+03
3.000E+00	2.000E+00	0.100E+01	1.022E+11	1.224E+10	2.432E+07
5.051E+05	1.701E+07	1.422E+11	2.310E+10	2.097E+09	4.284E+06
4.466E+05	3.031E+06	1.224E+10	2.097E+09	1.097E+06	3.542E+09

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION DE REGRESION SON

X	B(X)
1	-4.11430552E-01
2	1.38567095E-01
3	5.55134606E-07
4	-2.00140415E-05
5	2.00132652E-05

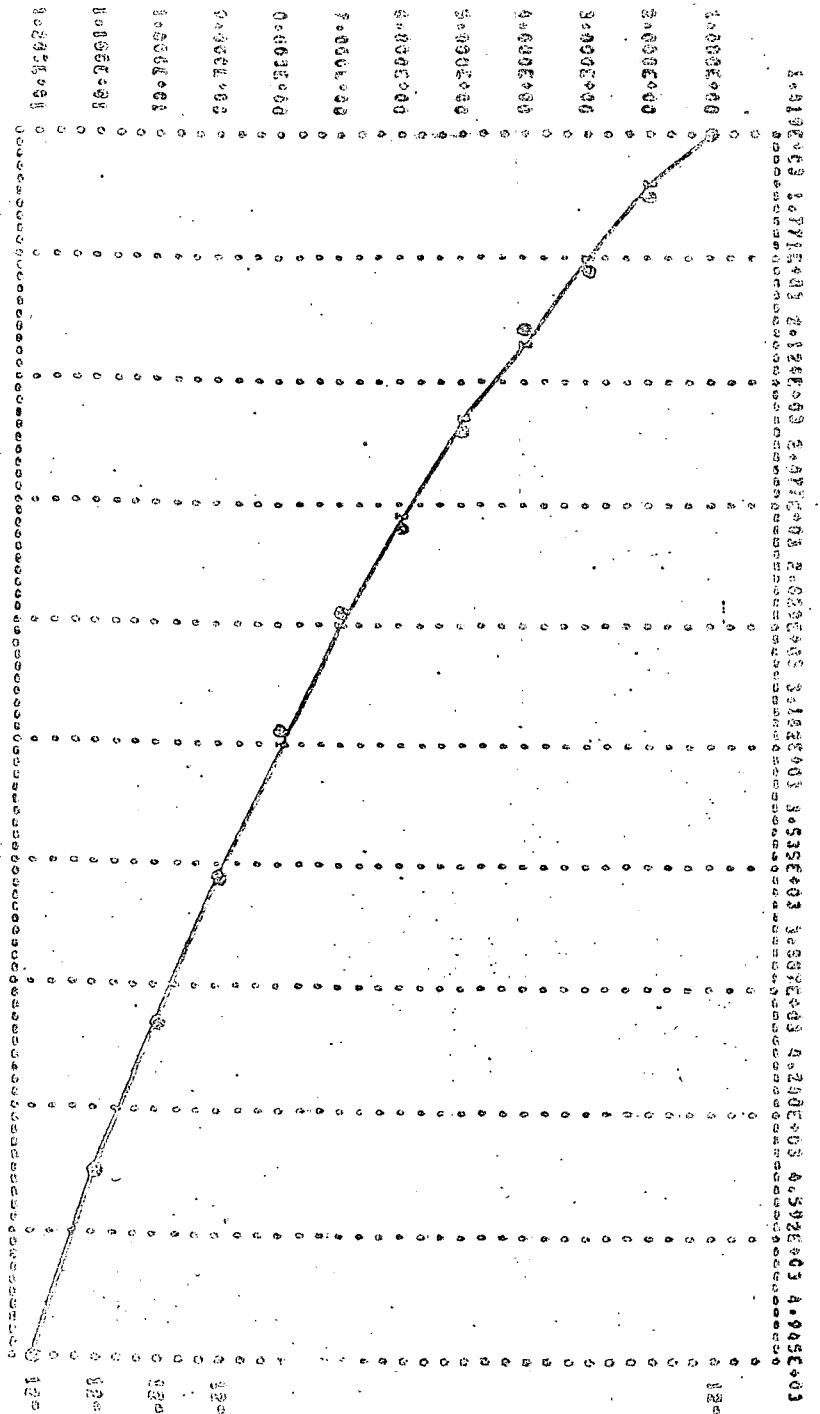
TIPO DE REGRESION EXP0

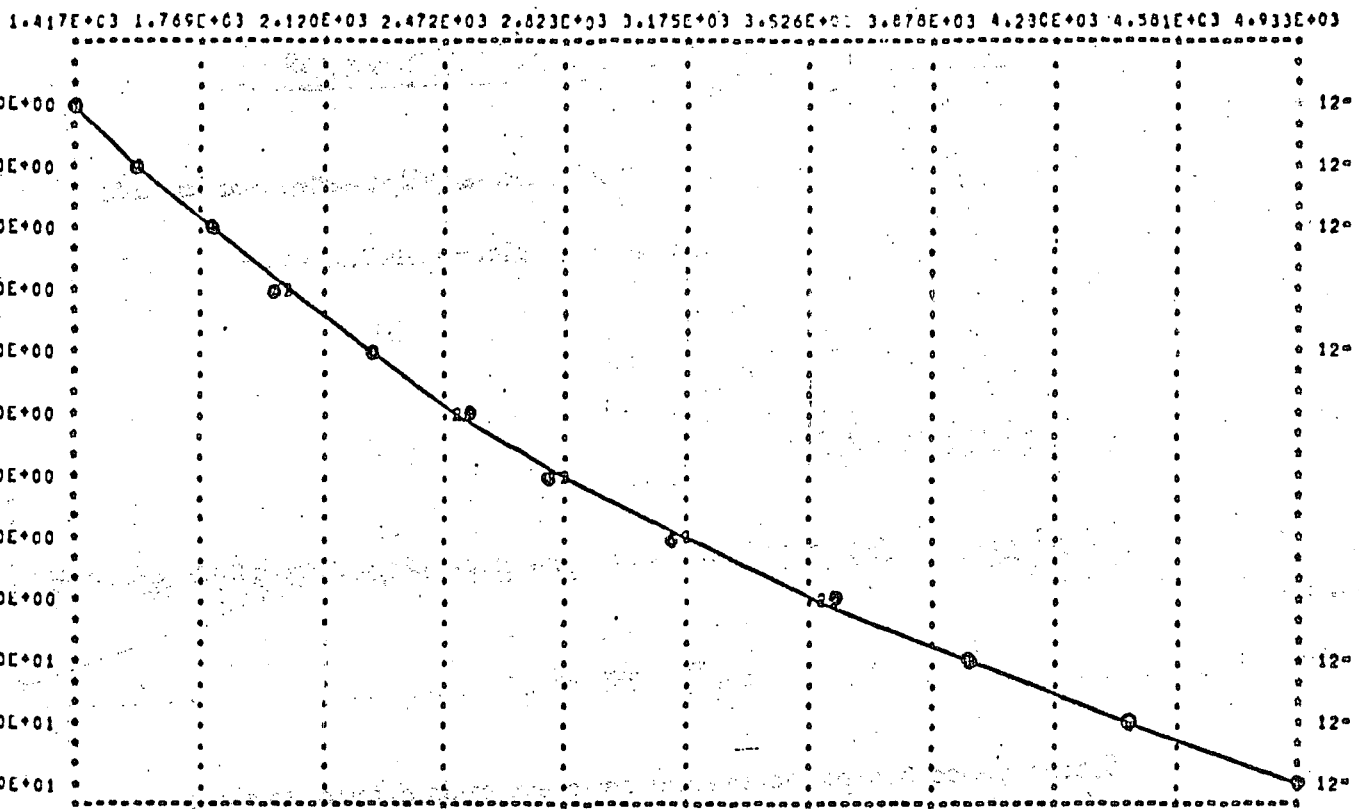
LAS DESVIACIONES ESTANDAR DE LOS COEFICIENTES SON

B(X)	D.S.
-4.11430552E-01	7.00015704E-01
1.38567095E-01	1.92010640E-02
5.55134606E-07	1.31460103E-06
-2.00140415E-05	2.20054052E-05
2.00132652E-05	2.06010449E-05

EL COEFICIENTE DE CORRELACION ES -0.44765458E+01

70





7.3 Bibliografía

1. CROXTON F., COWDEN D., BOLCH B., "Practical Business Statistics". Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1969.
pp.192-263.
2. GEREZ G. Víctor, GRIJALVA L. Luis, "El Enfoque de Sistemas". México: Editorial Limusa S.A., 1976.
pp.150-164.
3. KUO S. Shan, "Computer Applications of Numerical Methods". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1972.
pp.252-261.
4. SPIEGEL Murray, "Estadística". México: Libros Mc Graw-Hill de México, S.A., 1961.
pp.217-282.

VI) SOLUCIÓN ECUACIONES DIFERENCIALES ORDINARIAS.

Las ecuaciones diferenciales ordinarias son aquellas en las que la variable dependiente es función de una sola variable independiente :

$$* Y^{(n)} = (X, Y, Y', \dots, Y^{(n-1)})$$

a) Método de Euler

Se tratará el caso de ecuaciones diferenciales ordinarias de primer orden :

$$dy = y' dx$$

Substituyendo por los incrementos en la expresión anterior se tiene :

$$\Delta y = y' \Delta x \quad (VI.0)$$

Tomando un punto inicial para arrancar y conservando un incremento constante Δx se obtiene la siguiente fórmula iterativa :

$$\begin{array}{l} Y_1 = Y_0 + Y' \\ Y_2 = Y_1 + Y' \\ \vdots \\ Y_{n+1} = Y_n + Y' \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{l} \Delta x \\ (X_0, Y_0) \\ \Delta x \\ (X_1, Y_1) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x \\ (X_n, Y_n) \end{array} \right. \quad (VI.1)$$

$$* Y^{(n)} \equiv \frac{d^n Y}{dx^n}$$

La ecuación VI.1 nos da la fórmula recursiva de Euler. Para aplicar el método se requiere que Δx sea pequeño y además contar con un punto de inicio (X_0, Y_0) . El error producido es del orden de Δx^2 .

b) Euler modificado

El procedimiento básico es el mismo solo que para cada Y_{i+1} se hace una serie de iteraciones con los valores obtenidos sucesivamente de Y_{i+1} a fin de obtener el valor más exacto de Y_{i+1} .

Al tener :

$$Y_{i+1} = Y_i + Y' \Big|_{(X_i, Y_i)} \Delta x \quad (VI.2)$$

se efectúan las siguientes iteraciones :

$$Y_{i+1}^{\prime} = F(X_{i+1}, Y_{i+1})$$

$$\hat{Y}_{i+1} = Y_i + \frac{(Y' \Big|_i + Y' \Big|_{i+1})}{2} \Delta x$$

$$\hat{Y}_{i+1}^{\prime} = F(X_{i+1}, \hat{Y}_{i+1})$$

$$\hat{\hat{Y}}_{i+1} = Y_i + \frac{(Y' \Big|_i + \hat{Y}' \Big|_{i+1})}{2} \Delta x$$

⋮

y así sucesivamente hasta que :

$$\left| \hat{\hat{Y}}_{i+1} - \hat{Y}_{i+1} \right| < \epsilon \quad (VI.3)$$

al cumplirse, se procede a obtener Y_{i+2} y así sucesivamente.

Al igual que en el método anterior es necesario emplear incrementos (Δx) pequeños. El error producido es del orden Δx^3 .

c) Método de Runge - Kutta

Este método utiliza las fórmulas de integración antes vista para llegar a la obtención de su propia fórmula recursiva. Dicho proceso es bastante laborioso por lo que no se tratará.

La solución para una ecuación diferencial de primer orden $Y' = f(x, y)$ está dada por :

$$Y_{n+1} = Y_n + \Delta Y_n$$

donde :

$$\Delta Y_n = \frac{\Delta x}{6} (K_0 + 2K_1 + 2K_2 + K_3)$$

$$K_0 = f(x_n, Y_n)$$

$$K_1 = f\left(x_n + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, Y_n + \frac{K_0 \Delta x}{2}\right)$$

$$K_2 = f\left(x_n + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, Y_n + \frac{K_1 \Delta x}{2}\right)$$

$$K_3 = f(x_n + \Delta x, Y_n + K_2)$$

La fórmula anterior es la de Runge-Kutta de 4o. orden, hay otras fórmulas con mayor cantidad de términos que se obtienen empleando diferencias de mayor orden al deducir la fórmula.

Los parámetros K_i representan la pendiente de la función en los puntos en que se está evaluando. El método da un error del orden de Δx^5 y es uno de los más precisos.

Ejemplo

Obtener la solución de la ecuación diferencial $Y' = -1 - X + 4Y$ y para 5 puntos consecutivos empleando los métodos de Euler, Euler mejorado y Runge - Kutta usando un incremento $\Delta x = 0.1$. Comparar dichos valores con la solución real si $X_0 = 0$, $Y_0 = 1$.

Sol.

La solución exacta está dada por :

$$Y' - 4Y = 1 - X$$

$$Y_h = C e^{4X}$$

$$Y_p = A + BX$$

$$\therefore -4A - 4BX = 1 - X$$

$$A = -\frac{1}{4} \quad ; \quad B = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$Y(x) = C e^{4X} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} X$$

$$Y(0) = 1 = C - \frac{1}{4}$$

$$C = \frac{5}{4}$$

$$Y(x) = \frac{5}{4} e^{4x} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} X$$

las fórmulas de solución para los métodos son :

$$Y_n = Y_{n-1} + Y' \Big|_{n-1} \Delta x \quad (\text{Euler})$$

$$Y_n = Y_{n-1} + Y' \Big|_{n-1} \Delta x$$

$$\hat{Y}_n = Y_{n-1} + \left(\frac{Y' \Big|_{n-1} + Y' \Big|_n}{2} \right) \Delta x$$

Euler mejorado

$$Y_n = Y_{n-1} + \frac{\Delta x}{6} [K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4]$$

$$K_1 = f(X_{n-1}, Y_{n-1})$$

$$K_2 = f\left(X_{n-1} + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, Y_{n-1} + \frac{K_1 \Delta x}{2}\right)$$

Runge Kutta

$$K_3 = f\left(X_{n-1} + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, Y_{n-1} + \frac{K_2 \Delta x}{2}\right)$$

$$K_4 = f(X_{n-1} + \Delta x, Y_{n-1} + K_3 \Delta x)$$

las soluciones se muestran en la siguiente tabla:

K	X_k	Euler	E. Mej.	R.Kutta	Real
0	0	1.	1.	1.	1.
1	0.1	1.5	1.595	1.608	1.609
2	0.2	2.19	2.463	2.505	2.505
3	0.3	3.146	3.737	3.829	3.830
4	0.4	4.774	5.609	5.792	5.794
5	0.5	6.324	8.369	8.709	8.712

d) Diferencias finitas

Este método se emplea cuando se tienen problemas con valores en la frontera.

El procedimiento consiste en lo siguiente : dividir el intervalo de integración en "n" espacios iguales, emplear las fórmulas de derivación de diferencias finitas en la ecuación diferencial (todas las diferencias deben ser del mismo orden), substituir las condiciones de frontera y por último resolver el sistema de ecuaciones planteado. Se tiene que aplicar el operador diferencial a todos los pivotes del intervalo.

Ejemplo

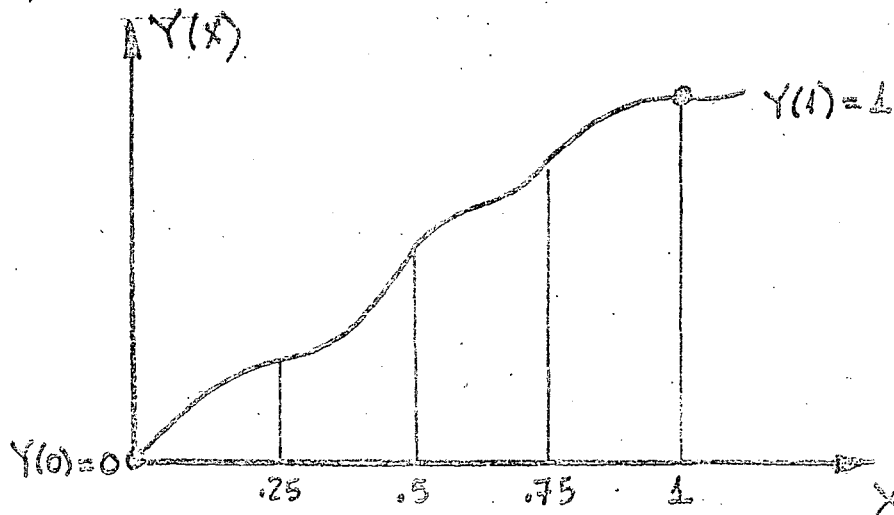
Resolver la ecuación diferencial $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - y = 0$, en el intervalo (0,1)

si $y(0) = 0$, $y(1) = 1$

Sol.

Se divide el intervalo en "n" partes iguales, sean 4 en este caso :

$$\Delta X = \frac{1-0}{4} = 0.25$$



empleando diferencias de 2o. orden :

$$Y_i'' = \frac{1}{(\Delta X)^2} [Y_{i-1} - 2Y_i + Y_{i+1}]$$

substituyendo en la ecuación diferencial :

$$\frac{1}{\Delta X^2} [Y_{i-1} - 2Y_i + Y_{i+1}] - Y_i = 0$$

$$Y_{i-1} - 2.0625 Y_i + Y_{i+1} = 0. \quad (VI.4)$$

las condiciones de frontera son :

$$Y_0 = 0$$

$$Y_4 = 1$$

aplicando VI.4 en los pivotes :

$$X_1 = 0.25$$

$$Y_0 - 2.0625 Y_1 + Y_2 = 0$$

$$- 2.0625 Y_1 + Y_2 = 0$$

(VI.5)

$$X_2 = 0.5$$

$$Y_1 - 2.0625 Y_2 + Y_3 = 0$$

(VI.6)

$$X_3 = 0.75$$

$$Y_2 - 2.0625 Y_3 + Y_4 = 0$$

$$Y_2 - 2.0625 Y_3 = -1$$

(VI.7)

el sistema de ecuaciones es :

$$- 2.062 Y_1 + Y_2 = 0$$

$$Y_1 - 2.062 Y_2 + Y_3 = 0$$

$$Y_2 - 2.062 Y_3 = -1$$

de donde :

$$Y_1 = 0.216$$

$$Y_2 = 0.445$$

$$Y_3 = 0.701$$

NOTA: Cuando se trata de ecuaciones diferenciales de mayor orden y se cuenta como condiciones $y'' = 0$, etc., hay que substituir en dichas ecuaciones las fórmulas de diferencias y despejar de ahí las condiciones de frontera desconocidas.

10.4 Solución de Sistemas de Ecuaciones Diferenciales Lineales No Homogéneas de Primer Orden

10.4.1 Objeto

Obtener la solución de sistemas de ecuaciones diferenciales no homogéneas, lineales, de primer orden mediante el método de Variación de Parámetros.

La representación en forma matricial para este tipo de sistemas de ecuaciones diferenciales es:

$$\underline{\dot{X}}(t) = \underline{A} \underline{X}(t) + \underline{B} \underline{U}(t) \quad (10.16)$$

$$\underline{X}(t_0) = \underline{X}_0$$

donde $\underline{U}(t)$ representa el vector de entradas externas si se habla de sistemas físicos.

Debido a que cuando se modelan sistemas dinámicos lineales las salidas no siempre corresponden a las variables empleadas en las ecuaciones diferenciales, en este programa se considera la representación completa mediante variables de estado de un sistema lineal, la cual es:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \underline{\dot{X}}(t) &= \underline{A} \underline{X}(t) + \underline{B} \underline{U}(t) \\ \underline{Y}(t) &= \underline{C} \underline{X}(t) + \underline{D} \underline{U}(t) \\ \underline{X}(t_0) &= \underline{X}_0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (10.17)$$

donde $\underline{Y}(t)$ representa el vector de salidas del sistema.

10.4.2 Método

El método de variación de parámetros establece que la solución del sistema de ecuaciones diferenciales lineales (10.17) tiene por solución:

$$\underline{X}(t) = e^{\underline{A}(t-t_0)} \underline{X}_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{\underline{A}(t-\sigma)} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma \quad (10.18)$$

donde la matriz $e^{\underline{A}(t - t_0)}$ es la matriz de transición definida en la sección 10.3.2.

Por lo tanto la solución total será la suma de la respuesta debida a las condiciones iniciales más la respuesta debida a las excitaciones externas. Para la primera parte de la solución se discutió su obtención en la sección 10.3.2.

Dado que el primer término de la solución se evalúa mediante una evolución de estados a incrementos iguales de tiempo, la segunda parte de la solución:

$$\int_{t_0}^t e^{\underline{A}(t - \sigma)} \underline{B} \underline{u}(\sigma) d\sigma \quad (10.19)$$

también se evaluará a incrementos iguales de tiempo.

Para poder evaluar la expresión (10.19) mediante la computadora se requiere discretizar el vector de entradas $\underline{u}(t)$, aproximando cada entrada $u(t)$ mediante pulsos o rectas como se muestra a continuación:

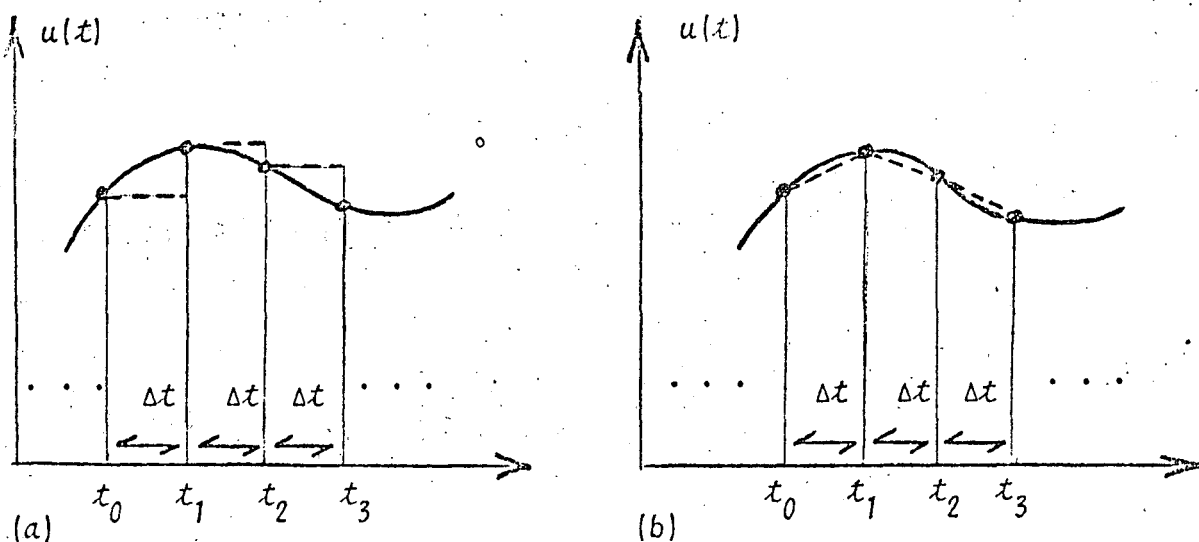


Fig. 10.10 Aproximación de una función mediante:
a) pulsos b) rectas

En el programa se aproxima la función $u(t)$ mediante rectas, las ecuaciones necesarias para la evaluación de (10.19) se desarrollan a continuación.

Sea la función $u(t)$ mostrada en la figura 10.11 :

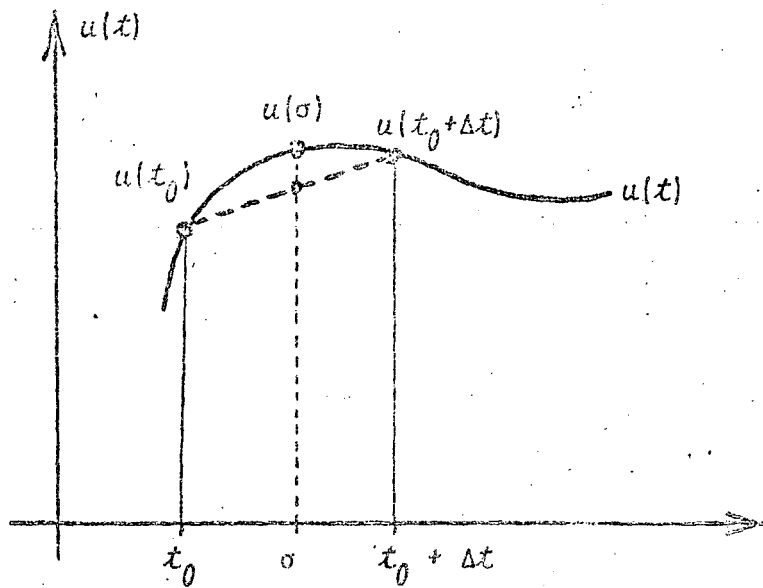


Fig. 10.11 Función $u(t)$ y su aproximación mediante una recta en el intervalo t_0 a $t_0 + t$

Se desea evaluar la expresión (10.19) pero:

$$\int_{t_0}^t e^{\underline{A}(t-\sigma)} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma = e^{\underline{A}t} \int_{t_0}^t e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma \quad (10.20)$$

evaluando de t_0 a $t_0 + \Delta t$:

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \Delta t} e^{\underline{A}(t-\sigma)} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma = e^{\underline{A} \Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma \quad (10.21)$$

de la figura 10.11 se observa que:

$$u(\sigma) \cong \frac{u(t_0 + \Delta t) - u(t_0)}{\Delta t} \cdot \sigma + u(t_0) \quad (10.22)$$

substituyendo (10.22) en (10.21):

$$\Delta t \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} \underline{B} \underline{U}(\sigma) d\sigma = \left\{ e^{\underline{A} \Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} \sigma d\sigma \right\} \cdot \frac{\underline{B} \underline{U}(t_0 + \Delta t) - \underline{B} \underline{U}(t_0)}{\Delta t} + \left\{ e^{\underline{A} \Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} d\sigma \right\} \underline{B} \underline{U}(t_0) \quad (10.23)$$

empleando la siguiente relación:

$$e^{-A\sigma} = \underline{1} - \frac{A\sigma}{1!} + \frac{A^2 \sigma^2}{2!} - \frac{A^3 \sigma^3}{3!} + \dots \quad (10.24)$$

en los términos entre corchetes se llega a:

$$\underline{e}^{\underline{A} \Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} \sigma d\sigma = \frac{\underline{1}(\Delta t)^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{\underline{A}^n (\Delta t)^{n+2}}{(n+2)!} + \dots \quad (10.25)$$

$$\underline{e}^{\underline{A} \Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\underline{A}\sigma} d\sigma = \underline{1}(\Delta t) + \dots + \frac{\underline{A}^n (\Delta t)^{(n+1)}}{(n+1)!} + \dots \quad (10.26)$$

Para la evaluación de las series (10.25) y (10.26) la cantidad de términos a emplear dependerá de la exactitud deseada. Se fija un criterio de convergencia ε tal que si \underline{z} representa a la matriz de la serie (10.25) y \underline{w} a la matriz de la serie (10.26), se cumpla que:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| z_{ij}^{(n+1)} - z_{ij}^{(n)} \right| &< \varepsilon, \text{ para toda } ij \\ \left| w_{ij}^{(n+1)} - w_{ij}^{(n)} \right| &< \varepsilon, \text{ para toda } ij \end{aligned} \quad * \quad (10.27)$$

Como las series (10.25) y (10.26) solo dependen del espaciamiento, se tendrán que evaluar una sola vez.

En el programa para obtener la relación (10.24) hay que evaluar el vector de entradas $\underline{u}(t)$ en cada uno de los puntos en que se subdivide el intervalo de integración.

En términos generales el proceso a seguir es:

- ① evaluar la matriz de transición $\underline{e}^{\underline{A}(\Delta t)}$
- ② evaluar las series de las ecuaciones (10.25) y (10.26)
- ③ obtener la respuesta debida a las condiciones iniciales para t_i

* $z_{ij}^{(n)}$ representa el elemento z_{ij} de la matriz \underline{z} compuesta por la sumatoria de "n" términos.

- ④ evaluar $\underline{u}(t)$ en t_i y t_{i+1}
- ⑤ obtener la respuesta debida a las excitaciones externas mediante la relación (10.23)
- ⑥ hacer $i=i+1$ y regresar al paso ③ hasta barrer todo el intervalo de integración.

10.4.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

SUBROUTINE EXPMA(DELTA, M, A, EXPO), obtiene la matriz de transición. Consultar sección 10.3.3.

SUBROUTINE INTPE(DELTA, M, A, SUMA), obtiene la matriz de la serie (10.26); esta expresión se emplea para evaluar la respuesta debida a las excitaciones externas.

SUBROUTINE INTRE(DELTA, M, A, RECTA), evalúa la expresión dada por la serie de la ecuación (10.25); esta expresión se utiliza para calcular la respuesta debida a las excitaciones externas.

SUBROUTINE MULTMA(A, B, N, M, L, X), obtiene el producto matricial AB. Consultar el capítulo 2.

SUBROUTINE GRAFI(A, N, M), grafica las soluciones de las variables dependientes y de las respuestas del sistema. Consultar el capítulo 1.

SUBROUTINE EXCITA(T, F), evalúa el vector de entradas $\underline{u}(t)$ en el instante t_i .

b) Descripción de las variables:

Para la subrutina INTPE:

DELTA espaciamiento entre los valores de la variable independiente

M cantidad de ecuaciones diferenciales

A(I, J) matriz de coeficientes constantes del sistema de ecuaciones diferenciales

EPS criterio de convergencia

SUMA(I, J) matriz resultante de evaluar la serie

CN contador de iteraciones

DIV factorial divisor

TNEW incremento de la variable independiente elevado a la potencia "n"

CHA(I, J) matriz identidad

$B(I, J)$ matriz A elevada a la potencia "n"

$X(I, J)$ matriz resultante del producto AB

Para la subrutina INTRE:

DELT espaciamento entre los valores de la variable independiente

M cantidad de ecuaciones diferenciales

$A(I, J)$ matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones diferenciales

RECTA(I, J) matriz resultante de evaluar la serie

CMA(I, J) matriz identidad

$B(I, J)$ matriz A elevada a la potencia "n".

$X(I, J)$ matriz resultante del producto AB

EPS criterio de convergencia

TNEW incremento de la variable independiente elevado a la potencia "n"

CN contador

DIV factorial divisor

Para la subrutina EXCITA:

T valor del instante de tiempo en el cual se desea evaluar la expresión $U(t)$

$F(1, 1)$ valor del primer renglón de la expresión $U(t)$ en el instante t_i

$F(2, 1)$ valor del segundo renglón de la expresión $U(t)$ en el instante t_i

$F(3, 1)$ valor del tercer renglón de la expresión $U(t)$ en el instante t_i

$F(4, 1)$ valor del cuarto renglón de la expresión $U(t)$ en el instante t_i

$F(5, 1)$ valor del quinto renglón de la expresión $U(t)$ en el instante t_i

Para el programa principal:

M cantidad de ecuaciones diferenciales

N cantidad de subintervalos en que se divide el intervalo de integración

NS cantidad de salidas del sistema

NU cantidad de entradas del sistema

PERIO intervalo de integración

- DELT magnitud de los subintervalos de integración
- A(I, J) matriz A del sistema de ecuaciones
- B(I, J) matriz B del sistema de ecuaciones
- C(I, J) matriz C del sistema de ecuaciones
- D(I, J) matriz D del sistema de ecuaciones
- X(1, 1) condición inicial de la variable independiente
- X(I, J) condiciones iniciales para cada una de las variables dependientes, $J > 1$
- X(I, J) solución del sistema de ecuaciones
- VY(I, J) valor de las salidas del sistema
- SUMA(I, J) integral del término constante de la ecuación de la recta empleada para aproximar la entrada
- RECTA(I, J) integral del término variable de la ecuación de la recta empleada para aproximar la entrada
- SHOM(I, J) solución del sistema debida a las excitaciones externas
- V(I, J) valor de la entrada en el instante t_{i-1}
- PEND(I, J) pendiente de la recta empleada para aproximar la entrada
- RE(I, J) variable de reemplazo
- F(I, J) variable de reemplazo

c) Dimensiones:

La proposición DIMENSION del programa principal y de las subrutinas deberá modificarse cuando:

$N > 100$ y/o $M > 5$ y/o $NS > 5$ y/o $NU > 5$

Si se modifica la extensión de M, deberán modificarse los argumentos de la subrutina EXCITA.

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(4I5, F10.0)	M, N, NS, NU, PERIO
2	(8F10.0)	A(I, J), los elementos de la matriz se dan renglón por renglón. Emplear tan-

- tas tarjetas como sean ne
cesarias
- 3 (8F10.0) B(I,J), igual que para la
matriz A
- 4 (8F10.0) C(I,J), igual que para la
matriz A
- 5 (8F10.0) D(I,J), igual que para la
matriz A
- 6 (8F10.0) X(I,J), el primer valor de
be corresponder a la condi-
ción inicial de la varia-
ble independiente.

otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n TARJETA EN BLANCO, al fina-
lizar toda la información.

e) Diagrama de bloques:

Fig. 10.12 Diagrama de bloques del programa principal 89

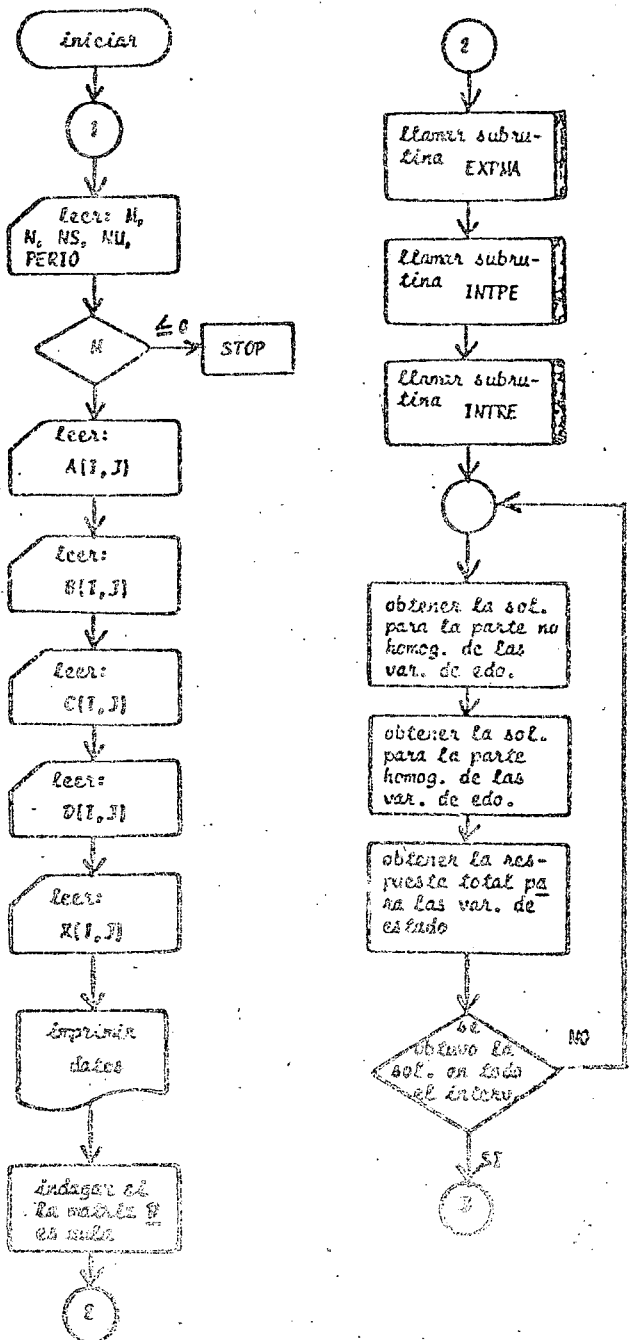


Fig. 10.13 Diagrama de bloques de la subrutina INTPE

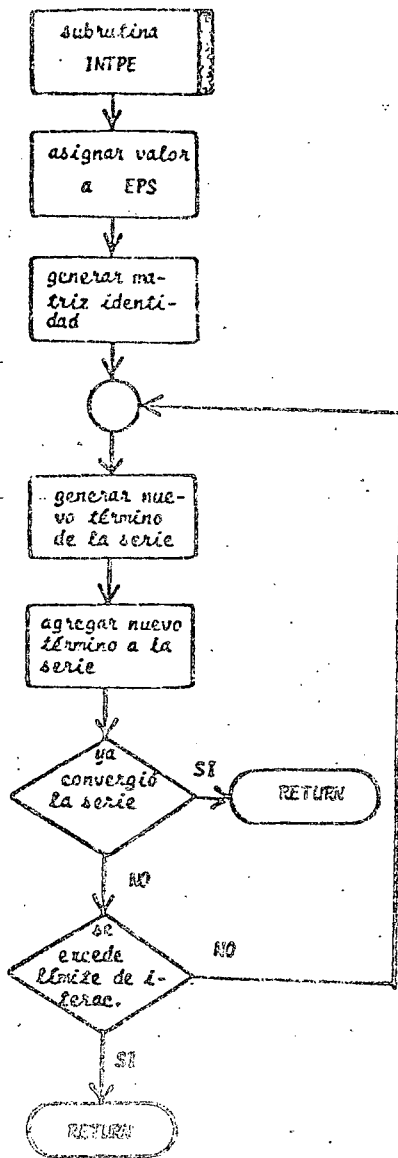
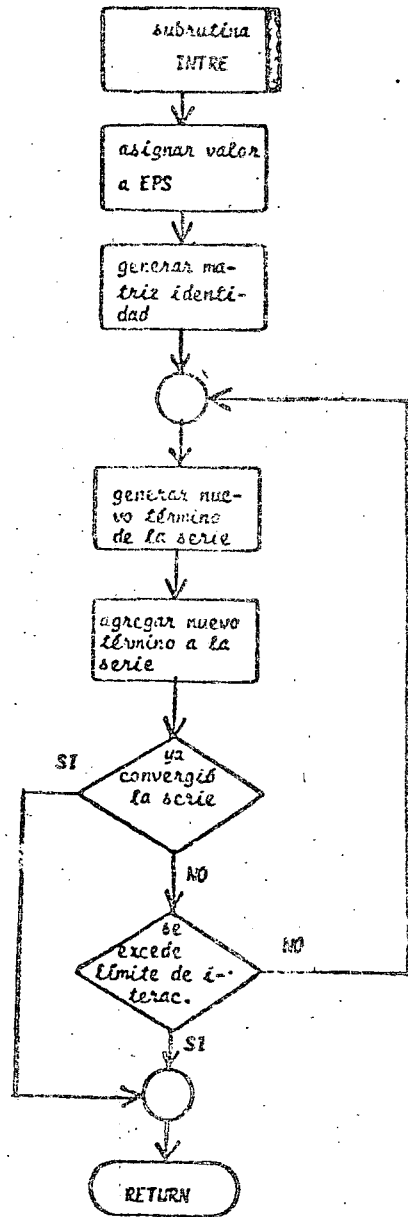


Fig. 10.14 Diagrama de bloques de la subrutina INTRE



6) Listado:

```

C   PROGRAMA PARA SIMULAR SISTEMAS DINAMICOS LINEALES EN UNA COMPUTA-
C   DORA DIGITAL MEDIANTE EL METODO DE VARIACION DE PARAMETROS
C   SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS
C   N=CANTIDAD DE ECUACIONES DIFERENCIALES
C   M=CANTIDAD DE PARTES EN QUE SE SUCCIDE EL INTERVALO DE INTEGRA-
C   CION
C   NS=CANTIDAD DE SALIDAS
C   NU=CANTIDAD DE ENTRADAS
C   PERIO=MAGNITUD DEL INTERVALO DE INTEGRACION
C   DELT=MAGNITUD DE LOS SUBINTERVALOS
C   A=MATRIZ A DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   B=MATRIZ B DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   C=MATRIZ C DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   D=MATRIZ D DEL SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   X(1,J)=CONDICION INICIAL DE LA VARIABLE INDEPENDIENTE
C   X(I,J)=CONDICIONES INICIALES
C   X=SOLUCION PARA LAS VARIABLES DE ESTADO
C   YY=VALOR DE LAS SALIDAS
C   SHOR=RESPUESTA DEBIDA A LAS EXCITACIONES EXTERNAS
C   EXPO=MATRIZ DE TRANSICION
C   SUMA=INTEGRAL DE LA PARTE CONSTANTE DE LA ECUACION DE LA RECTA
C   RECTA=INTEGRAL DEL TERMINO VARIABLE DE LA ECUACION DE LA RECTA
C   Y=VALOR DE LA ENTRADA EN EL INSTANTE T(I-1)
C   F=VALOR DE LA ENTRADA EN EL INSTANTE T(I)
C   P=DEPENDIENTE DE LA RECTA
C   MP1=CANTIDAD DE COLUMNAS DEL APAREJO MATRICIAL X
C   MP=MATRIZ DE REEMPLAZO

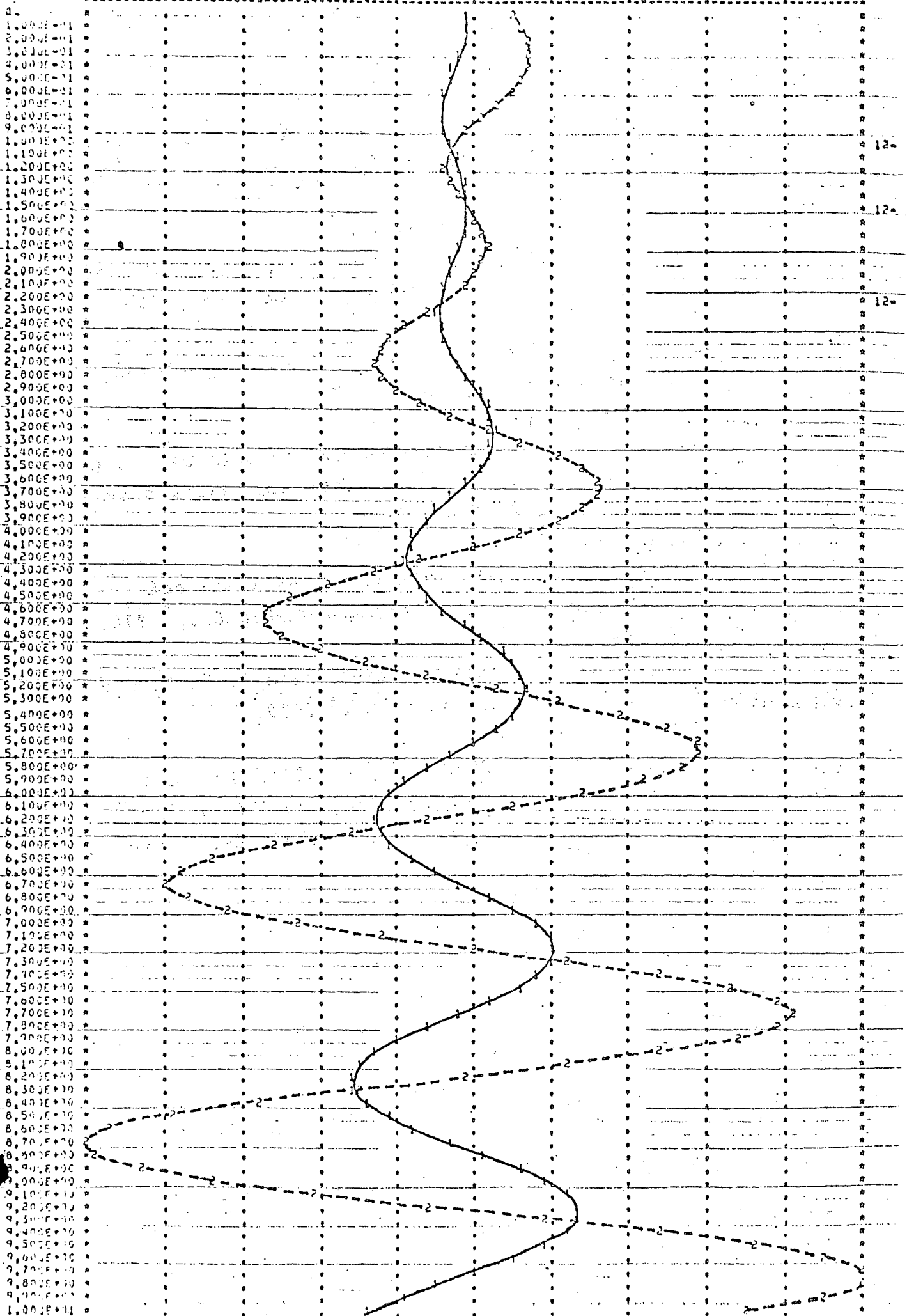
DIMENSION A(6,6),B(6,6),C(6,6),D(6,6),X(101,6),EXPO(6,6),RECTA(6,6
1),SUMA(6,6),SHOR(6,6),Y(6,6),PENO(6,6),PE(6,6),F(6,6),YY(101,6)
IR=5
IN=6
C   LECTURA DE DATOS
1 READ(IR,100) N,N,NS,NU,PERIO
IF(N) 2,2,3
2 CALL EXIT
3 MP1=N+1
DO 4 I=1,N
4 READ(IR,150) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
DO 5 I=1,N
5 READ(IR,150) (B(I,J),J=1,NU)
IF(NS.EQ.0) GO TO 71
DO 6 I=1,NS
6 READ(IR,150) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
DO 7 I=1,NS
7 READ(IR,150) (D(I,J),J=1,NU)
71 READ(IR,150) (X(I,J),J=1,MP1)
C   IMPRESION DE DATOS
WRITE(IN,200)
DO 8 I=1,N
8 WRITE(IN,250) (A(I,J),J=1,N)
WRITE(IN,300)
DO 9 I=1,N
9 WRITE(IN,250) (B(I,J),J=1,NU)
IF(NS.EQ.0) GO TO 72
WRITE(IN,350)
DO 10 I=1,NS
10 WRITE(IN,250) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
WRITE(IN,400)
DO 11 I=1,NS
11 WRITE(IN,250) (D(I,J),J=1,NU)
72 WRITE(IN,450)
WRITE(IN,250) (X(I,J),J=1,MP1)
IF(NS.EQ.0) GO TO 73
C   INDICAR SI LA MATRIZ D ES NULA
DO 12 I=1,NS
DO 12 J=1,NU
IF(D(I,J).EQ.0.0) GO TO 12
ID=1
GO TO 13
12 CONTINUE
73 ID=0
C   OBTENER LA MATRIZ DE TRANSICION
13 DELT=PERIO/LOAT(N)
CALL EXPMAT(DELTA,N,A,EXPO)
C   OBTENER SUMA Y RECTA
CALL INTRECOPLT(N,A,SUMA)
CALL INTRECOPLT(N,A,RECTA)

```

EL VALOR DE LAS GALIAS ES
TIEMPO Y(1)

Y(2)

0	.20000E+00	.20000E+01
.10000E+00	.33093E+00	.23270E+01
.20000E+00	.22451E+00	.26119E+01
.30000E+00	.31105E+01	.27495E+01
.40000E+00	-.19773E+00	.26745E+01
.50000E+00	-.33802E+00	.23309E+01
.60000E+00	-.53127E+00	.19238E+01
.70000E+00	-.59759E+00	.13560E+01
.80000E+00	-.57828E+00	.76453E+00
.90000E+00	-.48086E+00	.23115E+00
.10000E+01	-.32381E+00	-.17406E+00
.11000E+01	-.13392E+00	-.40443E+00
.12000E+01	.57022E+01	-.14242E+00
.13000E+01	.22113E+00	-.30147E+00
.14000E+01	.32072E+00	-.23558E+01
.15000E+01	.30555E+00	.32723E+00
.16000E+01	.32229E+00	.67420E+00
.17000E+01	.20350E+00	.93923E+00
.18000E+01	.25120E+01	.10544E+01
.19000E+01	-.18739E+00	.97213E+00
.20000E+01	-.40241E+00	.67331E+00
.21000E+01	-.59114E+00	.17120E+00
.22000E+01	-.71708E+00	-.49839E+00
.23000E+01	-.75727E+00	-.12316E+01
.24000E+01	-.69716E+00	-.19651E+01
.25000E+01	-.53418E+00	-.25359E+01
.26000E+01	-.27913E+00	-.27957E+01
.27000E+01	.44507E+01	-.31137E+01
.28000E+01	.00303E+00	-.28877E+01
.29000E+01	.75550E+00	-.23033E+01
.30000E+01	.10580E+01	-.13892E+01
.31000E+01	.12724E+01	-.21239E+00
.	.	.
.92000E+01	.05243E+01	-.12505E+01
.93000E+01	.45057E+01	.22904E+01
.94000E+01	.40508E+01	.70160E+01
.95000E+01	.32100E+01	.11285E+02
.96000E+01	.24022E+01	.13746E+02
.97000E+01	.06870E+00	.15330E+02
.98000E+01	-.77116E+00	.15207E+02
.99000E+01	-.21708E+01	.12776E+02
.10000E+02	-.34007E+01	.10940E+02

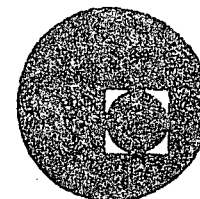


10.5 Bibliografía

1. CANALES Roberto y BARRERA Renato, "Apuntes de Ingeniería de Control I". México: Fac. de Ingeniería, UNAM, 1973.
pp. 1-36 (cap. 3), 1-37 (cap. 5).
2. CARNAHAN B., LUTHER H., WILKES J., "Applied Numerical Methods". New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1969.
pp. 361-380.
3. DORF C. Richard, "Modern Control Systems". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1970.
pp. 250-301, 374-379.
4. GEREZ G. Víctor y MURRAY-LASSO M.A., "Teoría de Sistemas y Circuitos". México: Representaciones y Servicios de Ingeniería S.A., 1972.
pp. 330-385, 459-463.
5. KUO S. Shan, "Computer Applications of Numerical -- Methods". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1972.
pp. 128-166.
6. OGATA Katsuhiko, "Modern Control Theory". Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970.
pp. 663-704.
7. SMITH G., JAMES M., WOLFORD J., "Applied Numerical Methods for Digital Computation with FORTRAN". Scranton Penn.: International Textbook Co., 1967.
pp. 350-356.



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

PROBLEMA DE INVENTARIO Y APLICACIONES

M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON

MARZO, 1979

1918

INSYS

an inventory system model

computes inventory levels and factory output for a factory-wholesaler-retailer inventory system.

Inventory replenishment and lead time policies may be changed in order to test the effect of these policies on the performance of the overall system.

The purpose of an inventory is to provide a separation in time or location between the production of goods and the consumption of goods. In our specialized economy a man is no longer his own butcher, baker, and candlestick-maker. Rather, we have production centers (factories) which are specialized, centrally located, and have high production rates. There is a great gain in production efficiency from this specialization, but it also requires a large increase in inventories to separate the centralized factory from the ultimate consumer. No longer do we follow the example of the little red hen who planted, reaped, milled, baked, and ate (without the help of the pig, cow, rabbit, or duck) her own loaf of bread.

The most common inventory system in our economy is the factory-wholesaler-retailer system. The wholesaler provides a time decoupling service between the factory and the retailer, in that he holds the factory output until ordered by the retailer. The wholesaler also provides a location decoupling, in that he generally ships goods over a wide geographic area. Similarly, the retailer provides a decoupling service between the wholesaler and the consumer, in that he maintains an inventory of goods on display for sale to customers.

The purpose of this exercise is to provide an illustration of the dynamic nature of the factory-wholesaler-retailer inventory system. A computer model is used to calculate week by week how the retail inventory, the wholesale inventory, and the factory output rate change in response to retail sales. The model user may make changes in retail and wholesale inventory policy in an attempt to control the overall inventory system.

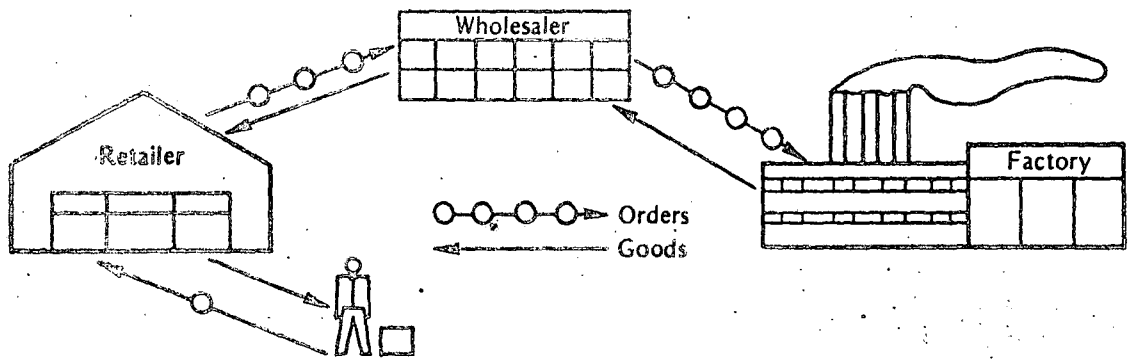


Figure 2-1 The factory-wholesaler-retailer system.

Section 2.1 explains the normal inventory systems and the rules for maintaining inventory levels. The following sections present three illustrated computer problems for maintaining and controlling the inventory system.

2.1 FACTORY-WHOLESALER-RETAILER MODEL

The normal system for the production and distribution of goods in our economy is through the factory-wholesaler-retailer system. A visual conceptualization of this system is shown in Figure 2-1. The function of the retailer in this system is to

- take orders from customers
- deliver goods to customers from on-the-shelf inventory
- reorder goods from the wholesaler
- receive shipments from the wholesaler

The function of the wholesaler is similar to the retailer except that the wholesaler's customer is the retailer and there is a time lag between the ordering and the delivery of goods. The wholesaler must

- receive orders from the retailer,
- ship goods from the warehouse inventory
- reorder goods from the factory
- receive shipments from the factory.

Finally, the factory must produce the goods which are ultimately sold to the customers. The factory may or may not hold inventories. In the current model the factory does not maintain any inventory so that its only functions are to:

- produce goods at some rate
- change production rate as requested by wholesaler

The model just described is a simple abstraction of that which is found in the industrial system. Durable goods, such as appliances, more or less follow the system described. There are variations in that some large retailers order directly from the factory, or the factory may maintain a

showroom and make direct retail sales. In other cases, the factory maintains large inventories and performs the function of the wholesaler. In all of these modifications, however, there is a dynamic interplay of sales with the inventories maintained and the factory rate as illustrated in this model.

Retail Model Formulas

The parameters and formulas for the actual computer model of the retailer are presented in this section. These formulas are a mathematical statement of the verbal model description above. We also present some sample computations using the retail formulas.

Retail sales are controlled by the customer. They are part of the input to the program by the reader. Retail sales in the past have been about 100 units per week.

Retail receipts are the units received from the wholesaler each Monday morning that were ordered Friday one week (10 days) prior.

Retail inventory level is the number of units on hand Friday afternoon at the close of business. The inventory level varies through the week as shown in Figure 2-2. The formula for determining the inventory level is

$$\text{Inventory level} = \text{prior inventory level} + \text{retail receipts} - \text{retail sales}$$

Retail orders are placed with the wholesaler each Friday afternoon after determining the inventory level. The order policy is to order the retail sales for the week plus or minus enough units to return the base stock level to 100 units. Thus

$$\text{Retail order} = \text{retail sales} + (100 - \text{inventory level})$$

The effects of these formulas on inventory level and the retail order can be seen in the following sample computation.

- In a normal week
- Retail sales = 100
- Retail receipts = 100
- Retail inventory level = $100 + 100 - 100$
= 100
- Retail order = $100 + (100 - 100)$
= 100

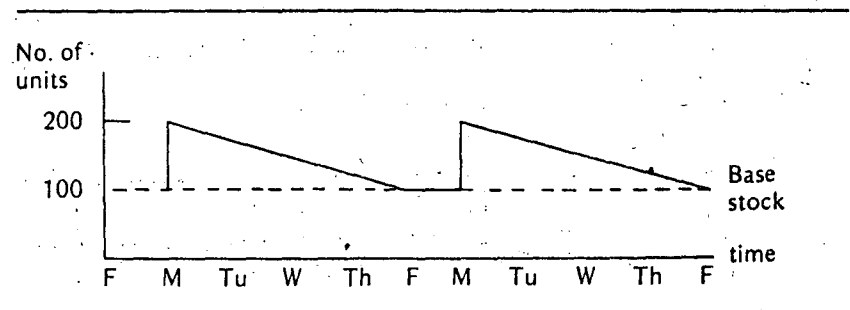


Figure 2-2. Retail inventory level.

$$\text{Wholesale inventory level} = \text{prior inventory level} + \text{wholesale receipts} - \text{wholesale shipments}$$

Wholesale orders are placed with the factory each Friday afternoon after taking inventory. The factory, however, requires a week to change the production rate, so two weeks pass before the wholesaler receives the actual order. The policy is to order the current week's shipments plus enough units to return the base stock to a normal level of 200 units. The formula is

$$\text{Wholesale order} = \text{wholesale shipments} + (200 - \text{inventory level})$$

The effects of the wholesaler's policies can be seen in the following sample computation.

In a normal week:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wholesale shipments} &= 100 \\ \text{Wholesale receipts} &= 100 \\ \text{Wholesale inventory level} &= 200 + 100 - 100 \\ &= 200 \\ \text{Wholesale order} &= 100 + (200 - 200) \\ &= 100 \end{aligned}$$

In a week in which shipments increase

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wholesale shipments} &= 110 \\ \text{Wholesale receipts} &= 100 \\ \text{Wholesale inventory level} &= 200 + 100 - 110 \\ &= 190 \\ \text{Wholesale order} &= 110 + (200 - 190) \\ &= 120 \end{aligned}$$

In a week in which shipments decrease

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wholesale shipments} &= 90 \\ \text{Wholesale receipts} &= 100 \\ \text{Wholesale inventory level} &= 200 + 100 - 90 \\ &= 210 \\ \text{Wholesale order} &= 90 + (200 - 210) \\ &= 80 \end{aligned}$$

It should be noted that in the present simplified model, the wholesaler only services one retailer. This is an obvious oversimplification from the real world and allows the analysis to isolate the effect of a single retailer in the entire system.

**Factory
Production
Rate**

In this model, the factory maintains no inventory. The factory produces at the rate specified by the wholesale order. There is, however, a one-week delay when changing the production rate and a one-week delay for shipping. The net effect is that the wholesaler receives the actual order two weeks after it is placed with the factory. Thus, for example, one might have the situation shown in Figure 2-4.

Week number	Wholesale order	Factory rate	Wholesale receipts
1	100	100	100
2	120	100	100
3	80	100	100
4	100	120	100
5	100	80	120
6	100	100	80

Figure 2-4 Changing factory production rate.

2.2 NORMAL INVENTORY POLICY

This section presents the results of following a normal inventory policy. By "normal" we mean that the retailer and wholesaler follow the rules described in the preceding sections. The most significant rule, which will be analyzed in detail later, is the reorder rule. The normal reorder rule which is followed in the current problem is

Order the current week's sales plus or minus enough to bring the base stock back to its normal level.

Following this reorder rule and the other inventory policies outlined in Section 2.1, one can compute over a number of weeks the inventory level and orders in response to retail sales. For example, if retail sales are 100 in weeks 1 and 2, then increase to 110 in weeks 4, 5, 6, and 7, results will occur as shown in Figure 2-5.

These results are arrived at by following the computation formulas given in the preceding section. For example, the formula for the retail order each week is as follows:

$$\text{Retail order} = \text{weekly sales} + (100 - \text{inventory level})$$

The retail order in week 5 is 120 units, derived from the above formula as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Retail order} &= 110 + (100 - 90) \\ &= 120 \end{aligned}$$

Week No.	Retail					Wholesale		Factory	
	Sales	Rec	Inv	Order	Ship	Rec	Inv	Order	Rate
1	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
2	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
3	110	100	90	120	100	100	200	100	100
4	110	100	80	130	120	100	180	140	100
5	110	120	90	120	130	100	150	180	100
6	110	130	110	100	120	100	130	190	140
7	110	120	120	90	100	140	170	130	180

Figure 2-5 "Normal" inventory policy.

EXERCISE ONE BY ROY HARRIS

25	
01	100
02	100
03	110
04	110
05	110
06	110
07	110
08	110
09	110
10	110
11	110
12	110
13	110
14	110
15	110
16	110
17	110
18	110
19	110
20	110
21	110
22	110
23	110
24	110
25	110

Figure 2-6 Computer input—normal policy.

PROGRAM INSYS FOR EXERCISE ONE BY ROY HARRIS

WEEK NO.	-----RETAIL-----			*****WHOLESALE*****			FACTORY		
	SALES	REC	INV	ORDER	SHIP	REC	INV	ORDER	DATE
1	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
2	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
3	110	100	90	120	100	100	200	100	100
4	110	100	80	130	120	100	180	140	100
5	110	120	90	120	130	100	150	160	100
6	110	130	110	100	120	100	130	190	140
7	110	120	120	90	100	140	170	130	160
8	110	100	110	100	90	180	260	30	190
9	110	90	90	120	100	190	350	0	130
10	110	100	80	130	120	130	360	0	30
11	110	120	90	120	130	30	260	70	0
12	110	130	110	100	120	0	140	180	0
13	110	120	120	90	100	0	40	260	70
14	110	100	110	100	90	70	20	270	180
15	110	90	90	120	100	180	100	200	200
16	110	100	80	130	120	260	240	80	270
17	110	120	90	120	130	270	380	0	200
18	110	130	110	100	120	200	460	0	60
19	110	120	120	90	100	80	440	0	0
20	110	100	110	100	90	0	350	0	0
21	110	90	90	120	100	0	250	50	0
22	110	100	80	130	120	0	130	190	0
23	110	120	90	120	130	0	0	330	50
24	110	130	110	100	120	50	0	320	190
25	110	120	120	90	100	190	90	210	330

25 WEEKS RUN 0 0 0 0

Figure 2-7 Computer output—normal policy.

**Analysis
of the
Normal
Inventory
Policy**

It is quite evident that the so-called normal inventory policy is not a very smart policy. A simple increase in retail sales to a new level 10 percent higher than before has set off uncontrollable fluctuations in the wholesale inventory and in the factory rate. Even though the factory services only one wholesaler and one retailer these uncontrollable swings cause the factory to completely shut down by week 11. Negative inventories, orders, or factory rates are not allowed.

By week 25 the situation is still not in control. The retailer has not stabilized his inventory level back to 100 units, the wholesaler has not stabilized, and the factory is going from boom to bust. This cyclic behavior in the system is the result of the lead times in the system and the "blind" ordering policies of the retailer and the wholesaler. The next two sections consider some methods for bringing this situation under control.

2.3 CONTROLLING THE REPLENISHMENT RATE

This section considers the problem of controlling fluctuation in the inventory system through a change in the reorder policies of the retailer and the wholesaler. The basic concept applied is that of *dampening* the amplitude of change. This concept is implemented by changing the reorder policy to decrease the amount of replenishment of the base stock. The new policy, the computer output, and an analysis of the results are presented here.

**The
Replenishment
Concept**

According to the old policy, the reorder formula for the retailer is

$$\text{Retail order} = \text{retail sales} + (100 - \text{inventory level})$$

This policy says in effect that the retailer wants to replenish the stock he has actually sold during the week. In addition, if sales are above or below the base stock level of 100 units he wants to maintain, he will order enough to bring the base stock to 100.

This policy appears reasonable enough but it is based on the rather nearsighted assumptions that

- future sales will be the same as this week's
- stock replenishment is instantaneous

The first assumption is obviously risky for almost any retail operation. The second assumption is obviously not fulfilled in the present system. The retailer orders on Friday, the goods are shipped on the next Wednesday and received the following Monday. Each Friday, the retailer orders enough "to bring the base stock back to normal" even though the goods he ordered the prior Friday to bring the base stock back to normal still have not arrived. When the order does arrive the retailer overreacts by ordering too little the next time. The net result, as seen in Section 2.2, is that the retailer is never able to stabilize his order or inventory level. Business cycles may be caused by just this kind of behavior.

One way to dampen the swings is to change the replenishment policy to specify that only a percentage of the base stock difference is to be ordered. Thus we change the formula to

$$\text{Retail order} = \text{retail sales} + (100 - \text{inventory level}) (4\%)$$

10

If we set *A* at 50 percent and thus try to make up only one-half the difference, then we can compare the retail order when sales are up to 110 units.

<i>Old Policy</i>	<i>New Policy</i>
Retail order = 110 + (100 - 90)	Retail order = 110 + [(100 - 90) X 0.5]
= 110 + 10	= 110 + 5
= 120	= 115

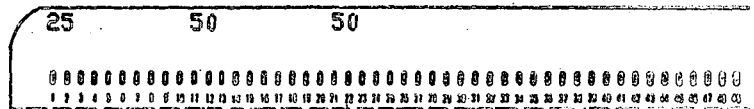
When sales are down to 90 units the result is

<i>Old Policy</i>	<i>New Policy</i>
Retail order = 90 + (100 - 110)	Retail order = 90 + [(100 - 110) X 0.5]
= 90 - 10	= 90 - 5
= 80	= 85

The overall effect of the new policy is that the retailer only partly reacts to increases or decreases in the base stock and allows some time for inventories to return to normal. The wholesaler may follow a similar policy in ordering from the factory by including *B* percent in the wholesale order formula.

Computer
Input
- Replenishment
Rate

User name card remains unchanged. The new reorder policy is implemented by specifying on the *control card* the percentage value for *A* (retailer) in columns 11 and 12, and *B* (wholesaler) in columns 21 and 22.



If the field is left blank, the value for *A* or *B* is set to 100 percent. Otherwise, *A* or *B* may be set from 01 to 99 by the user.

Weekly sales cards are keypunched as in Section 2.2.

A complete data deck listing for the new policy is shown in Figure 2-8. The retailer and the wholesaler only try to make up 50 percent of the difference in base stock under the new policy.

Computer
Output
- Replenishment
Rate

The computer printout for the new 50 percent reordering level policy which is generated from these data cards is shown in Figure 2-9. Note that the last line of the printout includes the input values for *A* and *B* specified in the control card.

Analysis
of the
Replenishment
Rate
Control

The overall result of the new reordering policy is a dramatic improvement in the performance of the inventory system.

- Retail reorders match the new sales level within eleven weeks.
- Wholesale reorders match the new sales level within twelve weeks.
- Factory rate is not yet stable, but appears to be dampening out.

Most significantly, the system is no longer out of control, i.e., caught up in uncontrollable fluctuation. The fluctuations have been dampened out and the system stabilizes itself to the new sales level.

EXERCISE TWO BY ROY HARRIS

25	50	50
01	100	
02	100	
03	110	
04	110	
05	110	
06	110	
07	110	
08	110	
09	110	
10	110	
11	110	
12	110	
13	110	
14	110	
15	110	
16	110	
17	110	
18	110	
19	110	
20	110	
21	110	
22	110	
23	110	
24	110	
25	110	

Figure 2-8 Computer input—replenishment rate.

PROGRAM INSYS FOR EXERCISE TWO BY ROY HARRIS

WEEK	-----RETAIL-----				*****WHOLESALE*****				FACTORY
NO.	SALES	REC	INV	ORDER	SHIP	REC	INV	ORDER	RATE
1	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
2	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
3	110	100	90	115	100	100	200	100	100
4	110	100	80	120	115	100	185	123	100
5	110	115	85	118	120	100	165	138	100
6	110	120	95	113	118	100	148	144	123
7	110	118	103	109	113	123	158	134	138
8	110	113	105	108	109	138	186	116	144
9	110	109	104	108	108	144	223	96	134
10	110	108	101	109	108	134	248	84	116
11	110	108	99	110	109	116	254	82	96
12	110	109	99	111	110	96	240	90	84
13	110	110	99	110	111	84	214	104	82
14	110	111	100	110	110	82	185	118	90
15	110	110	100	110	110	90	165	127	104
16	110	110	100	110	110	104	159	130	118
17	110	110	100	110	110	118	167	126	127
18	110	110	100	110	110	127	185	118	130
19	110	110	100	110	110	130	205	107	126
20	110	110	100	110	110	126	221	99	118
21	110	110	100	110	110	118	229	96	107
22	110	110	100	110	110	107	226	97	99
23	110	110	100	110	110	99	216	102	96
24	110	110	100	110	110	96	201	109	97
25	110	110	100	110	110	97	188	116	102

25 WEEKS RUN 50 50 0 0

Figure 2-9 Computer output—replenishment rate.

However, all is still not perfect. There is still a long time lag before the factory "catches on" to the new rate. Moreover, a simple 10 percent increase in sales still causes a 20 percent change in the wholesale shipments and a 44 percent change in the factory rate. Section 2.4 considers additional control measures for bringing the inventory system under even tighter control.

2.4 CONTROL OF LEAD TIME

This section considers the problem of controlling fluctuations in the inventory system through a decrease in the lead time between the order and the receipt of goods. The basic concept is to change the lead time required to respond to changes in the system. This concept is implemented by testing the effect of faster delivery from the wholesaler and faster changeover to a new production rate by the factory.

Lead
Time
Concept

Under the "normal" system setup the two basic lead times in the system were (1) between the order and receipt of goods by the retailer, and (2) between the order and receipt of goods from the factory. These were as follows:

Retailer normal lead time

Order on	Delivered on
Friday week 1	Monday week 3

Wholesaler normal lead time

Order on	Change rate	Deliver goods
Friday week 1	Week 3	Monday week 4

The effects of these lead times are clearly seen in Section 2.2 when the retailer reorders every Friday to make up goods that have previously been ordered. In effect, he makes a double reorder for the same goods. In addition, the factory takes seven weeks to begin to respond to a change in retail sales.

In the current example we will consider the effects of decreasing this lead time. The new policy is to work the wholesaler on Saturday in order to deliver Friday-afternoon orders the very next Monday. Thus:

Retailer decreased lead time

Order on	Delivered on
Friday week 1	Monday week 2

Similarly the lead time for the wholesaler may be changed if the factory can shift to a new production rate without a week lag and if the factory ships over the weekend:

Wholesaler decreased lead time

Order on	Change rate	Delivered in
Friday week 1	week 2	week 3

PROGRAM INVSYS FOR EXERCISE THREE BY ROY HARRIS

WEEK NO.	-----RETAIL-----				*****WHOLESALE*****				FACTORY RATE
	SALES	REC	INV	ORDER	SHIP	REC	INV	ORDER	
1	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
2	100	100	100	100	100	100	200	100	100
3	110	100	90	115	115	100	185	123	100
4	110	115	95	113	113	100	173	126	123
5	110	113	98	111	111	123	184	119	126
6	110	111	99	111	111	126	199	111	119
7	110	111	99	110	110	119	203	106	111
8	110	110	100	110	110	111	205	106	106
9	110	110	100	110	110	106	205	107	106
10	110	110	100	110	110	103	201	110	107
11	110	110	100	110	110	107	198	111	110
12	110	110	100	110	110	110	198	111	111
13	110	110	100	110	110	111	199	111	111
14	110	110	100	110	110	111	200	110	111
15	110	110	100	110	110	111	200	110	110
16	110	110	100	110	110	110	201	110	110
17	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
18	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
19	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
20	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
21	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
22	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
23	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
24	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110
25	110	110	100	110	110	110	200	110	110

25 WEEKS RUN 50 50 1 1

Figure 2-11 Computer output—lead times.

Wholesaler orders match the new sales rate within eight weeks.
 Factory rate is set to the new sales level in nine weeks.

In addition to cutting response lags down, there is less fluctuation in the inventory levels.

A simple increase in sales of 10 percent causes a 15 percent change in wholesale shipments, down from the prior 20 percent change. Also, the factory rate changes 20 percent, down from the prior 44 percent. Thus, in general, it may be said that the inventory system is now in better control.

There are, however, many complications one could add to the model before it would approximate the real world. For example, customers are never so kind as to provide such nice uniform retail sales. Hence, the user might want to try his hand at controlling the inventory system if retail sales were to randomly fluctuate between, say, 80 units and 120 units in any given week.

REFERENCES Ansoff, H. I., and D. Slevin, "An Appreciation of Industrial Dynamics," *Management Science*, vol. 14, no. 7 (March 1968), pp. 398-415.
 Buffa, E. S., *Modern Production Management*, New York: Wiley, 1969.
 ———, *Models for Production and Operations Management*, New York: Wiley, 1963.

Fetter, R. B., et al, *Decision Models for Inventory Management*, Homewood, Ill.; Irwin, 1961.

Forrester, J. W., *Industrial Dynamics*, Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T., 1961.

———, "Industrial Dynamics—After the First Decade," *Management Science*, vol. 14, no. 7 (March 1968), pp. 398-415.

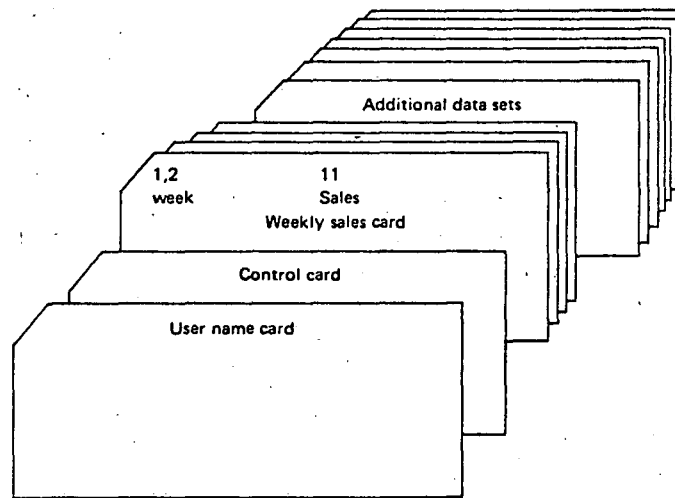
Gavett, J. W., *Production and Operations Management*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1968.

Meier, R. C., W. T. Newell, and H. L. Pazer, *Simulation in Business and Economics*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Olson, R. A., *Manufacturing Management: A Quantitative Approach*, Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1968.

Plossl, G. W., et al, *Production and Inventory Control*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967.

2.5 INSYS DATA DECK STRUCTURE



Control Card	Card columns	Format	Item
	1, 2	I 2	No. of weeks
	11, 12	I 2	Percentage value for retailer
	21, 22	I 2	Percentage value for wholesaler
	31	I 1	Wholesaler lead time
	41	I 1	Factory lead time

13

26 INSYS PROGRAM LISTING

C	PROGRAM INSYS	IBM	1
C	INVENTORY SYSTEM CONTROL MODEL	A	2
C	COPYRIGHT 1969 BY ROY D. HARRIS	A	3
C	THIS VERSION FOR IBM 360	IBM	4
C	DIMENSION ALPHA(10)	A	5
C		A	6
C	HEAD AND PRINT STUDENTS NAME CARD	A	7
C	MI = 5	IBM	8
C	MO = 6	IBM	9
1	HEAD (MI,26) ALPHA	A	10
C	WRITE (MO,27) ALPHA	A	11
C	HEAD CONTROL CARD AND INITIALIZE	A	12
C	READ (MI,28) N, IR, IW, LW, LF	A	13
C	IF (IW) 2,20,3	A	14
2	A = 1.0	A	15
C	GO TO 3	A	16
3	A = IR/100.	A	17
4	IF (IR) 5,5,6	A	18
5	N = 1.0	A	19
C	GO TO 7	A	20
6	S = IW/100.	A	21
7	MI = 100.	A	22
C	MO = 100.	A	23
C	MS = 100.	A	24
C	MI = 200.	A	25
C	MO = 100.	A	26
C	MO = 100.	A	27
C	FR = 100.	A	28
C		A	29
C	PRINT HEADINGS FOR WEEKLY OUTPUT	A	30
C	WRITE (MO,29)	A	31
C	WRITE (MO,30)	A	32
C		A	33
C	START OF DO LOOP THROUGH WEEKLY COMPUTATIONS	A	34
C	DO 24 I = 1, N	A	35
C		A	36
C	HEAD AND CHECK DATA CARD CONTAINING WEEKLY SALES	A	37
C	READ (MI,31) KWEEK, SALES	A	38
C	IF (I=KWEEK) 8,9,8	A	39
8	WRITE (MO,32)	A	40
C	GO TO 25	A	41
C		A	42
C	COMPUTE RETAIL INVENTORY LEVEL AND ORDER	A	43
9	RREC = MS	A	44
C	RINV = RI + RREC - SALES	A	45
C	IF (RINV) 10,10,11	A	46
10	RINV = 0.0	A	47
11	RORD = SALES * ((100. - RINV) * A)	A	48
C	IF (RORD) 12,12,13	A	49
12	RORD = 0.0	A	50
C		A	51
C	SET WHOLESALE DELIVERY RATE FROM CONTROL CARD	A	52
13	IF (LW=1) 15,14,15	A	53
14	WSHIP = RORD	A	54
C	GO TO 16	A	55
15	WSHIP = RO	A	56
C		A	57
C	COMPUTE WHOLESALE INVENTORY LEVEL AND ORDER	A	58
16	WREC = FR	A	59
C	WINV = WI + WREC - WSHIP	A	60
C	IF (WINV) 17,17,18	A	61
C		A	62

17

47
INSYS

17	WINV = 0.0	A	63
18	WORD = WSHIP*((200.-WINV)*B)	A	64
	IF (WORD) 19,19,20	A	65
19	WORD = 0.0	A	66
C		A	67
C	SET FACTORY RATE FROM CONTROL CARD	A	68
20	IF (LF-1) 22,21,22	A	69
21	FRATE = W01	A	70
	GO TO 23	A	71
22	FRATE = W02	A	72
C		A	73
C	PRINT OUT CURRENT WEEK RESULTS	A	74
23	WRITE (MO,33) I, SALES, RREC, RINV, RORD, WSHIP, WREC, WINV, WORD,	A	75
	1 FRATE	A	76
C	UPDATE ORDERING AND FACTORY RATE FOR NEXT WEEK	A	77
	RI = RINV	A	78
	RO = RORD	A	79
	WS = WSHIP	A	80
	WI = WINV	A	81
	W02 = W01	A	82
	W01 = WORD	A	83
	FR = FRATE	A	84
24	CONTINUE	A	85
C		A	86
C	PRINT CONTROL CARD VALUES	A	87
	WRITE (MO,34) N, IR, IW, LW, LF	A	88
25	CONTINUE	A	89
	GO TO 1	A	90
C		A	91
C		A	92
26	FORMAT (10A4)	A	93
27	FORMAT (1H1,18HPROGRAM INSYS FOR ,10A4)	A	94
28	FORMAT (12,9X,I2,8X,I2,8X,I1,9X,I1)	A	95
29	FORMAT (30H0WEEK -----RETAIL-----	A	96
	1 30H*****WHOLESALE***** FACTORY)	A	97
30	FORMAT (1H,36HNO. SALES REC INV ORDER SHIP ,	A	98
	1 23HREC INV ORDER RATE)	A	99
31	FORMAT (12,8X,F3.)	A	100
32	FORMAT (3;H SOMETHING WRONG WITH YOUR DATA)	A	101
33	FORMAT (1H,I2,4F6.0,F7.0,3F6.0,F7.0)	A	102
34	FORMAT (1H0,I2,10H WEEKS RUN,4I3)	A	103
	END	A	104
		A	105-

EOQ

a model for inventory ordering policy
computes the most economical inventory order quantity under a
variety of conditions, including price discounts, shortage cost, and
storage limitations.

A primary purpose of inventories is to decouple production from consumption. Inventories are goods which may be used as a hedge against uncertainty in demand or as a buffer for production fluctuations.

The *replenishment* of inventories is the topic of this exercise. We describe an elementary, but fundamental, inventory replenishment model: the Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) model. In Section 3.1, the development of the basic EOQ model is given. In Section 3.2, the basic EOQ model is extended to include a real world phenomenon: quantity price discounts. In Section 3.3, the basic model is modified to incorporate shortage costs. Consideration of storage limitations and their effects upon the order quantity decision are the subject of Section 3.4.

The rational basis for deciding how much, if any, inventory to hold, and to order, is an economic basis. There are costs associated with holding inventory in stock, e.g., insurance, taxes, interest on capital, and so on. Conversely, there are costs related to not holding inventory, e.g., lost sales, frequent purchase orders, production delays, etc. There is also the cost of purchasing the replenishment for inventories, e.g., paperwork and material handling.

The intent of this exercise is to allow the user an opportunity to get a feel for the *effects* of changing parametric values in the basic economic order quantity formulas. Hence, the reader is encouraged to conduct *sensitivity analysis* on each parameter in the EOQ formula.

3.1 ECONOMIC ORDER QUANTITY

This section introduces the basic Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) model. It also describes in detail the data cards required for the accompanying computer program, and the computer output.

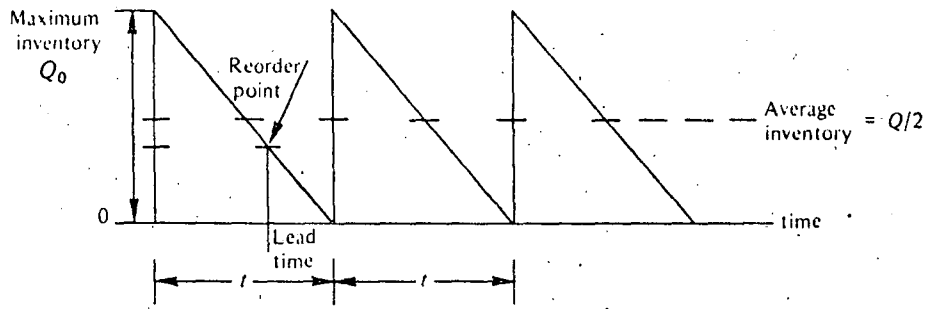


Figure 3-1: Inventory level and usage pattern for EOQ model.

The Economic Order Quantity Inventory Model A basic assumption of the EOQ model is that the consumption of the inventory is constant over time and that it is possible to replenish the inventory on very short notice. The quantity in inventory at any point in time, for this circumstance, is shown in Figure 3-1. The basic EOQ model also assumes no quantity price discounts and no backorders.

In this "sawtooth" usage pattern the inventory is consumed over time until it is depleted. It is then instantly replenished (straight vertical line), and the usage continued.

Inventory Cost The rational basis for determining inventory levels is to balance the cost of holding inventory against the cost of not holding inventory. In the consumption situation described above, the types of cost for holding the inventory are fairly obvious. Storage must be provided for the inventory and the inventory must be financed.

The cost of not holding inventory may not be so obvious. Since it was assumed that the inventory was easily and instantaneously obtainable, then there is no cost attached to being caught short. However, like a housewife who goes to the grocery store three times each day to purchase a single meal, there is a cost attached to procurement of the inventory. Not holding inventory may lead to very high procurement cost.

The issue in the economic order quantity model is to determine how much inventory to order each time. The cost of procurement per unit goes down if more is ordered each time, but the cost of holding inventory goes up. Figure 3-2 shows a graphic representation of these costs as they vary with the size of the order. The total incremental cost of inventory is shown as the top curve on the graph in the figure.

$$\text{Total incremental cost} = \text{holding cost} + \text{ordering cost}$$

The best inventory policy is to order the amount of inventory each time which yields the minimum total cost. This "correct quantity" to order is called the economic order quantity (EOQ).

The following definitions and variables will be used in deriving a mathematical expression for the EOQ.

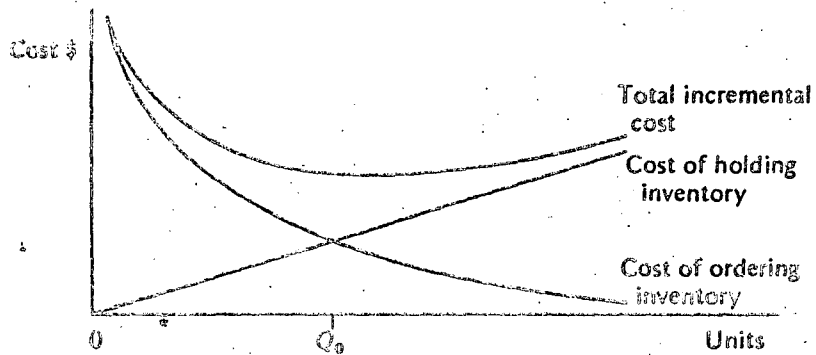


Figure 3-2 Costs of holding and ordering inventory.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Holding cost} &= (\text{average inventory}) \times (\text{unit inventory holding cost per year}) \\ &= (Q/2) \times (P \times FH) \end{aligned}$$

where Q = quantity ordered

P = price per unit

FH = annual unit holding cost as percentage of the unit price

$$\text{Order cost} = (\text{number of orders per year}) \times (\text{cost per order})$$

$$= \left(\frac{R}{Q}\right) \times (C_p)$$

where R = annual requirements in units, level demand

C_p = procurement cost (includes costs of paperwork, handling, etc.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cost of inventory} &= (\text{unit price}) \times (\text{annual requirements}) \\ &= (P) \times (R) \end{aligned}$$

Total cost = holding cost + order cost + cost of inventory

$$\text{Total cost} = \frac{Q \times P \times FH}{2} + \frac{R \times C_p}{Q} + P \times R$$

$$\text{Total incremental cost} = \frac{Q \times P \times FH}{2} + \frac{R \times C_p}{Q}$$

Solving for the economic order quantity Q_0 by algebra: the minimum point on the total incremental cost curve is where the inventory holding cost and the procurement cost curves intersect. Where they intersect they must be equal. Therefore, at Q_0 :

$$\frac{Q}{2} (P \times FH) = \left(\frac{R}{Q}\right) C_p$$

Clearing denominators:

$$Q(Q)(P \times FH) = 2(R)C_p$$

$$Q^2 = \frac{2RC_p}{P \times FH}$$

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{2RC_p}{P \times FH}}$$

27

Solving for Q by calculus: the minimum point on the total incremental cost curve is where the first derivative equals zero. Taking the first derivative with respect to Q and setting it equal to zero:

$$0 = (P \times FH)/2 - (R/Q^2)Cp$$

$$\frac{(P \times FH)}{2} = \frac{RCp}{Q^2}$$

$$Q^2 = \frac{2RCp}{P \times FH}$$

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{2RCp}{P \times FH}}$$

Sample Problem One It is a straightforward matter to find the economic order quantity (EOQ) and the total inventory cost (TC), when the values for R , Cp , P , and FH are known. For example, if

$R = 1600$ units (total annual usage)

$Cp = \$5.00$ (cost of one procurement)

$P = \$1.00$ (unit price of product)

$FH = 0.10$ (unit holding cost per year as percentage of price), then

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 1600 \times 5.00}{1.00 \times 0.1}}$$

$Q = 400$ units

$$\text{Total cost (TC)} = \frac{400 \times 1.00 \times 0.1}{2} + \frac{1600 \times 5.00}{400} + 1.00 \times 1600$$

$$TC = 20.00 + 20.00 + 1600.00$$

$$TC = \$1640.00$$

This computation is not too tedious to do, if there is only one. However, when there are many alternatives to test and when more complicated formulas are required, then a computer program is a great computational aid. The next section introduces the data input and computer output for the simple example shown above. In following sections more complicated problems illustrating the use of the computer program will be presented.

Computer Input - Problem One Before describing the data cards, several comments will be made pertaining to the program itself. The user should keep these comments in mind when using the program.

The program is applicable only to a fixed-order-quantity inventory system, and all quantities in the program are expressed in annual amounts or rates. In the case of R (annual inventory requirement), a level usage rate is assumed throughout the year. In order to convert the program for monthly or seasonal calculations one would have to adjust the inputs to the same time scale.

Although the figure available for inventory holding costs is often stated as an annual cost per unit, this program *requires* that holding costs be expressed as a percentage of the unit value of inventory.

To run the economic order quantity computer model, only two cards

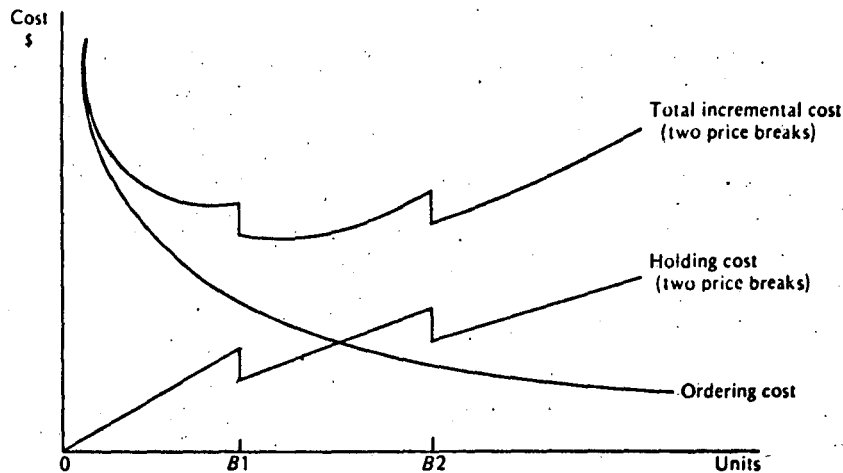


Figure 3-5 The effects of price discounts on the economic order quantity.

as input variables. Inasmuch as price discounts do happen in reality, the extension of the EOQ model to include price discounts will be the subject of this section.

The EOQ Model -With Price Discounts

Referring to Section 3.1, the user should note that in the derivation of the EOQ model the price per unit (P) affects the holding cost $(Q/2) \times (P \times F \times H)$, but not the ordering costs. Nevertheless, if price discounts are introduced as variables, they will influence the total incremental costs (TIC). The effects of price discounts are graphically illustrated in Figure 3-5.

The addition of the quantity discounts to the economic order quantity model makes it somewhat more difficult to obtain a solution. It is not possible to find directly the lowest point on the Total Incremental Cost (TIC) curve shown in Figure 3-4. The general approach used is to investigate the TIC curve at each price break. In addition, the curve must be analyzed at different points near the price break giving the lowest TIC to see if an even better solution can be found. Problem Two illustrates this general search solution when price discounts are to be considered.

Sample Problem Two

The supplier has recently revised his pricing policies and now offers the following price discounts: If one orders in lot sizes of B_1 ($Q_{B_1} = 300$), the price will be \$0.90/unit (P_2); if one orders quantity B_2 ($Q_{B_2} = 2000$), the price will be \$0.80/unit (P_3).

Solution for EOQ with Two Price Breaks

First calculate Q_3 using P_3 ; if it is greater than Q_B , then order Q_3 . If it is less than Q_B , then (using P_3) it is infeasible.

Next, calculate Q_2 using P_2 . If $Q_2 > Q_{B_2}$, then order Q_{B_2} .

If Q_2 is less than Q_{B_2} but greater than Q_{B_1} , i.e., $Q_{B_1} < Q_2 < Q_{B_2}$, then compare TC_2 with TC_{B_2} .

If $TC_2 > TC_{B_2}$, then order Q_{B_2} .


```

PROGRAM EQO FOR MAGGARD EQO PROBLEM TWO, PRICE DISCOUNTS
INPUT DATA IS *****
  R   CP   FH   P1   CS   B1   P2   B2   P3   W
1600 5.00 .10 1.00   0   300 .90 2000 .80   0

ANALYSIS RESULTS ARE ****
OPTIMUM ORDER QUANTITY IS           2000.00
AT A PRICE PER ITEM OF                .80
YIELDING A TOTAL INVENTORY COST OF    1364.00
WHERE THE NUMBER OF ORDER CYCLES PER YEAR IS .80
    
```

Figure 3-7 Computer output—Problem Two.

Computer Output
—Problem Two

The computer printout resulting from the above data is shown in Figure 3-7.

3.3 SHORTAGE COSTS

Just as it is true that in the real world quantity price discounts exist, it is also true that *backorders* are a reality. By allowing backorders we are saying that if an order cannot be filled at this time due to stock shortages, then as soon as inventory is available previously unfilled orders, i.e., backorders, will be the first orders to be filled. However, in an inventory system allowing for backorders (see Figure 3-8) a *shortage cost* is usually input relating to the backorder quantities. Generally, this shortage cost consists of costs due to (1) possible lost sales due to stockouts, (2) decreased customer satisfaction, (3) additional costs associated with rush shipments, and so on.

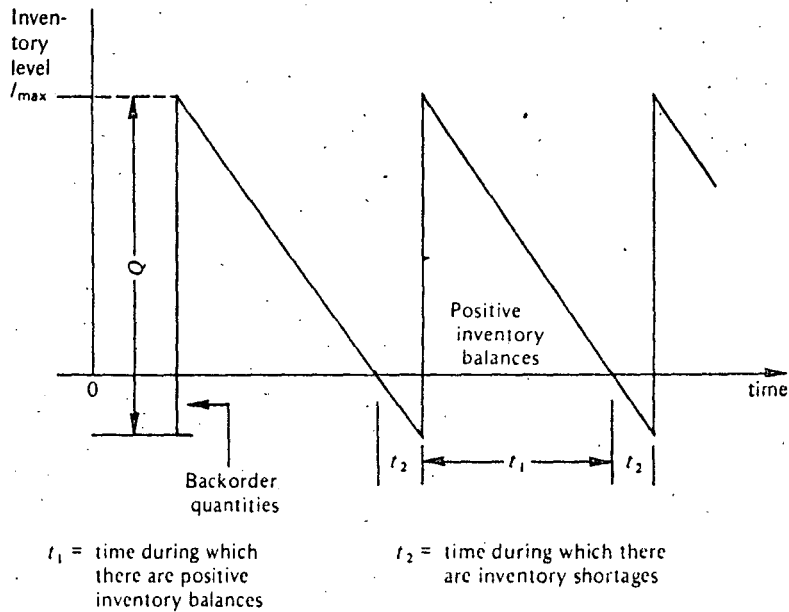


Figure 3-8 An inventory system with $(Q - I_{max})$ backorders allowed.

The basic EOQ formula may be modified to incorporate shortage costs as follows:

1. C_p = procurement cost per order (unchanged)
2. $\frac{(P \times FH)(I_{max})}{2} t_1$ = the holding cost of the *positive inventory balance* during time t_1 (t is on an annual basis, i.e., t = a fraction of a year).
Since $t_1 = I_{max}/R$, this becomes:

$$\frac{(P \times FH) I_{max}^2}{2R}$$

3. $C_s \frac{(Q - I_{max})}{2} t_2$ = the shortage cost of the backorders during time t_2 .
Since $t_2 = \frac{Q - I_{max}}{R}$, this becomes:

$$C_s \frac{(Q - I_{max})^2}{2R}$$

where I_{max} = maximum level of inventory and
 C_s = shortage cost.

Hence, the total incremental cost for one cycle, $t_1 + t_2$, of an inventory system which allows backorders is

$$C_p + (P \times FH) \frac{(I_{max}^2)}{2R} + C_s \frac{(Q - I_{max})^2}{2R}$$

The annual total incremental cost is now obtained by multiplying the above equation through by the number of orders placed per year, R/Q :

$$TIC = \frac{R \times C_p}{Q} + (P \times FH) \frac{(I_{max}^2)}{2Q} + C_s \frac{(Q - I_{max})^2}{2Q}$$

To determine optimal values for Q and I_{max} , take the partial derivatives of the above equations with respect to Q and I_{max} , equate to zero and obtain

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{2RC_p}{P \times FH}} \times \sqrt{\frac{(P \times FH) + C_s}{C_s}}$$

$$I_{max} = \sqrt{\frac{2RC_p}{P \times FH}} \times \sqrt{\frac{C_s}{(P \times FH) + C_s}}$$

$$TIC = \sqrt{2(P \times FH)RC_p} \times \sqrt{\frac{C_s}{(P \times FH) + C_s}}$$

However, if either Q or I_{max} is constrained, their respective values are obtained as follows:

1. When Q is constrained, for example, fixed at price discount quantities, then I_{max} is calculated as

$$I_{max} = \frac{C_s Q}{CH + C_s}$$

29

```

PROGRAM EOQ FOR MAGGARD EOQ PROBLEM FOUR, STORAGE LIMITS
INPUT DATA IS *****
  R   CP   FH   P1   CS   B1   P2   B2   P3   W
1600 5.00  .10  1.00  0    0    0    0    0   100

ANALYSIS RESULTS ARE ****
BEFORE THE WAREHOUSE STORAGE LIMITATION IS APPLIED
OPTIMUM ORDER QUANTITY IS                400.00
AT A PRICE PER ITEM OF                    1.00
YIELDING A TOTAL INVENTORY COST OF        1640.00
WHERE THE NUMBER OF ORDER CYCLES PER YEAR IS 4.00

THE ORDER QUANTITY IS LIMITED BY THE WAREHOUSE SPACE
RESTRICTION AND IS NOT AT AN OPTIMUM. LOOSEN THE
RESTRICTION AND RUN AGAIN OBSERVING THE EFFECT.

ANALYSIS RESULTS ARE ****
AFTER THE WAREHOUSE STORAGE LIMITATION IS APPLIED
OPTIMUM ORDER QUANTITY IS                100.00
AT A PRICE PER ITEM OF                    1.00
YIELDING A TOTAL INVENTORY COST OF        1685.00
WHERE THE NUMBER OF ORDER CYCLES PER YEAR IS 16.00
THIS ORDER QUANTITY IS AT THE MAXIMUM WAREHOUSE CAPACITY
    
```

Figure 3-12 Computer output—Problem Four.

To conclude our discussion of economic order quantity models and, in particular this computer model, we would point out:

1. that the model is, in its present form, limited to only two price breaks.
2. the inclusion of shortage costs certainly complicates the storage limitation problem. In this model, when backorders and storage limitations are included in the same problem, the assumption is made that the backorders are instantaneously filled and that the storage limitation W is a constraint upon I_{max} and not upon Q . The user must remember that if I_{max} is constrained by W then neither Q nor I_{max} will be optimal.
3. this model will solve problems including one or all of the constraints previously described in a single problem. To appreciate this fact the reader may wish to solve the following problem manually and then by the use of the herein described EOQ model.

Data

R	Cp	FH	P ₁	Cs	B1	P ₂	B2	P ₃	W
1600	5.00	0.10	1.00	0.30	300	0.90	500	0.80	350

REFERENCES

Bowman, E. H., and R. B. Fetter, *Analysis for Production and Operations Management*, 3d ed., Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1967.
 Buffa, E. S., *Modern Production Management*, 3d ed., New York: Wiley, 1969.
 ———, *Operations Management: Problems and Models*, 2d ed., New York: Wiley, 1968.
 ———, *Production-Inventory Systems: Planning and Control*, Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1968.

Elton, S., *Elements of Production Planning and Control*, New York: Macmillan, 1962.

Fubrysky, W. J., and P. E. Torgersen, *Operations Economy: Industrial Applications of Operations Research*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Gerrett, L. J., and M. Silver, *Production Management Analysis*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1966.

Hodley, G., and T. M. Whitin, *Analysis of Inventory Systems*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Hopeman, R. J., *Systems Analysis and Operations Management*, Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1969.

Mazze, J. F., and D. M. Boodman, *Production Planning and Inventory Control*, 2d ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

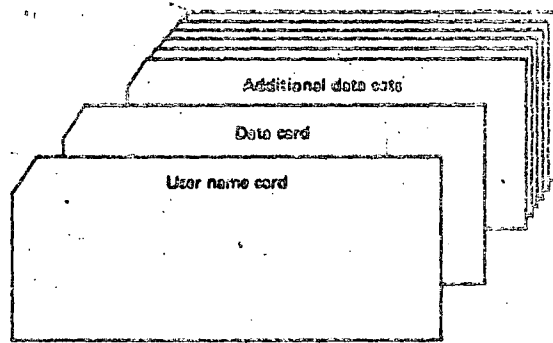
Naddor, E., *Inventory Systems*, New York: Wiley, 1966.

Olsen, R. A., *Manufacturing Management: A Quantitative Approach*, Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1968.

Ploss, G. W., and O. W. Wright, *Production and Inventory Control*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967.

Riggs, J. L., *Production Systems: Planning, Analysis and Control*, New York, Wiley, 1970.

3.5 EOQ DATA DECK STRUCTURE



Data Card	Card column	Format	Item
	1-5	F5.0	annual usage requirement
	6-10	F5.0	ordering cost
	11-15	F5.0	holding cost
	16-20	F5.0	unit price
	21-25	F5.0	shortage cost
	26-30	F5.0	minimum order quantity—first price discount
	31-35	F5.0	unit price—first price discount
	36-40	F5.0	minimum order quantity—second price discount
	41-45	F5.0	unit price—second price discount
	46-50	F5.0	warehouse space available

3.6 EOQ PROGRAM LISTING

```

C      PROGRAM EOQ
C*     ECONOMIC ORDER QUANTITY MODEL
C*     COPYRIGHT ROY D HARRIS OCTOBER 1970
C*     THIS VERSION FOR THE IBM 360
C*
C*     R = ANNUAL USAGE REQUIREMENT, LEVEL DEMAND
C*     CP = COST OF ONE PURCHASE ORDER
C*     FH = HOLDING COST AS A PERCENTAGE OF UNIT PRICE
C*     P(1) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT BEFORE DISCOUNT P(1)=P1
C*     P(2) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT AT FIRST DISCOUNT BREAK POINT
C*     P(3) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT AFTER FIRST DISCOUNT P(3) = P2
C*     P(4) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT AT SECOND DISCOUNT BREAK POINT
C*     P(5) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT AFTER SECOND DISCOUNT P(5) = P3
C*     P(6) = PRICE OF EACH UNIT AT WAREHOUSE CAPACITY RESTRAINT
C*     ECOQ= ECONOMIC ORDER QUANTITY
C*     B(1) = FIRST DISCOUNT BREAK POINT B(1) = B1
C*     B(2) = SECOND DISCOUNT BREAK POINT B(2) = B2
C*     CS = SHORTAGE COST
C*     W = MAXIMUM WAREHOUSE SPACE AVAILABLE
C*     TCST = TOTAL COST AT EOQ
C*     ON = NUMBER OF ORDERS PER YEAR AT EOQ
C*     Q(1) = EOQ AT P(1)
C*     Q(3) = EOQ AT P(3)
C*     Q(5) = EOQ AT P(5)
C*     Q(2) = B(1)
C*     Q(4) = B(2)
C*     Q(6) = W FOR CS=0 Q(6)=OPTIMUM ORDER AT ENV(6) = W FOR CS NOT 0
C*     TC(I) = TOTAL COCST
C*     TC(I) = TOTAL COST AT Q(I) AND ENV(I) FOR I = 1 TO 6
C*     ENV(I) = MOST ECONOMICAL INVENTORY LEVEL AT EOQ =Q(I) I=1 TO 5
C*     ENV(6) = W
C*     ENVT = OPTIMAL INVENTORY WHEN CS NOT 0
C*
C*****
      DIMENSION P(6), Q(6), ENV(6), TC(6), B(3), ALPHA(10)
      MI = 5
      MO = 6
C  READ AND PRINT NAME CARD - - - - -
1  READ (MI,71) ALPHA
   WRITE (MO,72) ALPHA
C  READ AND PRINT DATA CARD - - - - -
C  READ (MI,73) R, CP, FH, P(1), CS, B(1), P(3), B(2), P(5), W
   WRITE (MO,74)
   WRITE (MO,75)
   WRITE (MO,76) R, CP, FH, P(1), CS, B(1), P(3), B(2), P(5), W
C  CHECK OUT THE DATA - - - - -
2  IF (R) 19,19,2
3  IF (CP) 19,19,3
4  IF (FH) 19,19,4
5  IF (P(1)) 19,19,5
6  IF (B(1)) 19,14,6
7  IF (P(3)) 19,19,7
8  IF (B(2)) 19,16,8
   IF (B(2)-B(1)) 19,9,9
C  TWO PRICE BREAKS - - - - -
9  NSEG = 3
10 IF (P(5)) 19,19,11
11 IF (W) 19,12,13
12 W = 1.E25
13 B(3) = W
   IF (CS) 19,20,20
C  NO PRICE BREAKS - - - - -

```

IBM 1
A 2
A 3
IBM 4
A 5
A 6
A 7
A 8
A 9
A 10
A 11
I 12
A 13
A 14
A 15
A 16
A 17
A 18
A 19
A 20
A 21
A 22
A 23
A 24
A 25
A 26
A 27
A 28
A 29
A 30
A 31
A 32
A 33
A 34
A 35
IBM 36
IBM 37
A 38
A 39
A 40
A 41
A 42
A 43
A 44
A 45
A 46
A 47
A 48
A 49
A 50
A 51
A 52
A 53
A 54
A 55
A 56
A 57
A 58
A 59
A 60
A 61
A 62

```

14  NSEC = 1
    Q(1) = 1.E25
    IF (P(1)) 15,15,19
15  P(1) = P(1)
    IF (P(1)) 16,17,19
16  ONE PRICE BREAK - - - - -
17  NSEC = 2
    Q(2) = 1.E25
    IF (P(2)) 19,18,19
18  P(2) = P(1)
    GO TO 16
C  ERROR IN DATA - - - - -
19  WRITE (NO,77)
    GO TO 1
20  P(4) = P(5)
    P(2) = P(3)
    IF (P(5)-P(3)) 22,22,21
21  P(4) = P(3)
22  IF (P(3)-P(1)) 24,24,23
23  P(2) = P(1)
24  P(3) = P(2)
    IF (P(3)-P(1)) 28,30,25
25  IF (P(3)-P(2)) 27,29,26
26  P(4) = P(5)
    GO TO 30
27  P(4) = P(1)
    GO TO 30
28  P(6) = P(1)
    GO TO 30
29  P(6) = P(4)
30  Q(2) = Q(1)
    Q(6) = Q(2)
    Q(6) = Q(3)
    IF (CS) 31,31,61
C  SHORTAGES NOT ALLOWED - - - - -
31  DO 32 I = 1, 3
    J = 2*I-1
C  CALCULATE Q(I) I=1,3,5
32  Q(J) = SQRT(P*CPOR/(FH*P(J)))
    DO 35 I = 1, 6
    IF (Q(I)-1.E25) 33,34,33
C  CALCULATE TC(I) I=1 TO 6
33  TC(I) = (CPOR/Q(I))*P(I)*R+P(I)*FH*Q(I)/2.0
    GO TO 35
34  TC(I) = 1.E25
35  CONTINUE
    DO 36 I = 1, 6
36  ENV(I) = Q(I)
C  TEST FOR FEASIBILITY WITH RESPECT TO THE PRICE BREAKS - - - - -
37  IF (Q(1)-Q(2)) 39,39,38
38  TC(1) = 1.E25
39  IF (Q(2)-Q(3)) 40,40,41
40  IF (Q(3)-Q(4)) 42,42,41
41  TC(3) = 1.E25
42  IF (Q(4)-Q(5)) 44,44,43
43  TC(5) = 1.E25
C  FIND EQ WITH OUT STORAGE LIMITATIONS - - - - -
44  KFLB = 1
    TCST = TC(1)
    EGOV = Q(1)
    ENVT = ENV(1)
    DO 46 I = 1, 5

```

```

A 63
A 64
A 65
A 66
A 67
A 68
A 69
A 70
A 71
A 72
A 73
A 74
A 75
A 76
A 77
A 78
A 79
A 80
A 81
A 82
A 83
A 84
A 85
A 86
A 87
A 88
A 89
A 90
A 91
A 92
A 93
A 94
A 95
A 96
A 97
A 98
A 99
A 100
C 101
C 102
C 103
C 104
C 105
C 106
C 107
C 108
C 109
C 110
C 111
C 112
C 113
C 114
C 115
C 116
C 117
C 118
C 119
C 120

```



```

IF (TCST-TC(I)) 46,46,45
45 TCST = TC(I)
   KFLB = 1
   ECOQ = Q(I)
   ENVT = ENV(I)
46 CONTINUE
   ON = R/ECOQ
C PRINT RESULTS BEFORE STORAGE RESTRICTIONS - - - - -
   WRITE (MO,78)
   IF (W-1.E25) 47,48,47
47 WRITE (MO,79)
48 WRITE (MO,80) ECOQ
   IF (CS) 49,5,49
49 WRITE (MO,90) ENVT
50 WRITE (MO,81) P(KFLB)
   WRITE (MO,82) TCST
   WRITE (MO,83) ON
   IF (W-1.E25) 51,1,51
C TEST FOR FEASIBILITY WITH RESPECT TO THE STORAGE REQUIREMENT - - - - -
51 DO 53 I = 1, 5
   IF (ENV(I)-W) 53,53,52
52 TC(I) = 1.E25
53 CONTINUE
   IF (TC(KFLB)-1.E25) 54,55,54
54 WRITE (MO,84)
   GO TO 1
C FIND EQQ WITH STORAGE LIMITATIONS - - - - -
55 KFLB = 1
   TCST = TC(1)
   ECOQ = Q(1)
   ENVT = ENV(1)
   DO 57 I = 1, 6
   IF (TCST-TC(I)) 57,57,56
56 TCST = TC(I)
   ECOQ = Q(I)
   KFLB = I
   ENVT = ENV(I)
57 CONTINUE
   ON = R/ECOQ
C PRINT RESULTS AFTER STORAGE LIMITATIONS - - - - -
   WRITE (MO,85)
   WRITE (MO,86)
   WRITE (MO,87)
   WRITE (MO,78)
   WRITE (MO,88)
   WRITE (MO,80) ECOQ
   IF (CS) 58,59,58
58 WRITE (MO,90) ENVT
59 CONTINUE
   WRITE (MO,81) P(KFLB)
   WRITE (MO,82) TCST
   WRITE (MO,83) ON
   IF (KFLB-6) 1,60,1
60 WRITE (MO,89)
   GO TO 1
C SHORTAGES ALLOWED - - - - -
61 ENV(6) = Q(6)
   DO 62 I = 1, 5, 2
   ENV(I) = SQRT(2.*CP*R*CS/(FH*P(I)*(FH*P(I)+CS)))
62 Q(I) = SQRT((2.*CP*R*(FH*P(I)+CS))/(FH*P(I)*CS))
   DO 65 I = 1, 2
   J = 2*I

```

A 125
A 126
A 127
A 128
A 129
A 130
A 131
A 132
A 133
A 134
A 135
A 136
A 137
A 138
A 139
A 140
A 141
A 142
A 143
A 144
A 145
A 146
A 147
A 148
A 149
A 150
A 151
A 152
A 153
A 154
A 155
A 156
A 157
A 158
A 159
A 160
A 161
A 162
A 163
A 164
A 165
A 166
A 167
A 168
A 169
A 170
A 171
A 172
A 173
A 174
A 175
A 176
A 177
A 178
A 179
A 180
A 181
A 182
A 183
A 184
A 185
A 186

37

```

93 IF (ENV(1)-1.E25) 64:63:64 A 187
ENV(1) = 1.E25 A 188
GO TO 68 A 189
94 ENV(1) = (C(1)*CS)/IP(J)*FH*CS A 190
95 CONTINUE A 191
IF (ENV(1)-1.E25) 66:67:68 A 192
U(I) = SORT((2.*CP*R*ENV(1)**2*(CS*P(1)*FH)/CS) A 193
96 UO TO I = 1:6 A 194
IF (U(I)-1.E25) 69:69:68 A 195
TC(I) = (CPR/U(I))*FH*P(I)*ENV(1)**2/(2.*P(I)*H*P(I)*CS*(Q(I)-EN A 196
V(I) = (2.*TC(I))/(2.*Q(I)) A 197
GO TO 78 A 198
97 TC(I) = 1.E25 A 199
70 CONTINUE A 200
GO TO 37 A 201

```

TABLE OF FORMATS

Line	Format	Description	Page
71	FORMAT (10A4)		A 202
72	FORMAT (17M) PROGRAM EQQ FOR (10A4)		A 203
73	FORMAT (11F5.0)		A 204
74	FORMAT (26M) INPUT DATA IS *****		A 205
75	FORMAT (16M) R CP FH P1 CS M1 P2 S2 C25M		A 206
76	FORMAT (12M) F6.0*F6.2*F6.0*F6.2*F6.0*F6.2*F6.0		A 207
77	FORMAT (16M) ERROR IN INPUT DATA, CHECK AND RUN AGAIN		A 208
78	FORMAT (26M) ANALYSIS RESULTS ARE *****		A 209
79	FORMAT (54M) BEFORE THE WAREHOUSE STORAGE LIMITATION IS APPLIED		A 210
80	FORMAT (27M) OPTIMUM ORDER QUANTITY IS 20X.F10.2		A 211
81	FORMAT (25M) AT A PRICE PER ITEM OF 22X.F10.2		A 212
82	FORMAT (37M) YIELDING A TOTAL INVENTORY COST OF 10X.F10.2		A 213
83	FORMAT (107M) WHERE THE NUMBER OF ORDER CYCLES PER YEAR IS 10X.F10.2		A 214
84	FORMAT (51M) THE WAREHOUSE LIMITATION HAD NO EFFECT ON THE EQQ		A 215
85	FORMAT (54M) THE ORDER QUANTITY IS LIMITED BY THE WAREHOUSE SPACE		A 216
86	FORMAT (54M) RESTRICTION AND IS NOT AT AN OPTIMUM. LOOSEN THE		A 217
87	FORMAT (54M) RESTRICTION AND RUN AGAIN OBSERVING THE EFFECT		A 218
88	FORMAT (16M) AFTER THE WAREHOUSE STORAGE LIMITATION IS APPLIED		A 219
89	FORMAT (16M) THIS ORDER QUANTITY IS AT THE MAXIMUM WAREHOUSE		A 220
90	FORMAT (26M) WITH OPTIMUM INVENTORY OF 19X.F10.2		A 221
	END		A 222

SUMMARY

(107M) STARS

TEST (158-0M) STARS

NO (158-0M) STARS

1-03 (16-03M) STARS

(158-0M) STARS

2 OF 60

ORIGINA 22470M 2

1010 = (101M) 10

9 27 1 = 1 20 00

110M 110M

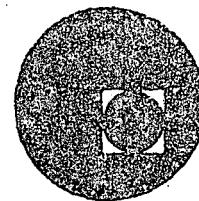
110M 110M

1 2 1 = 1 20 00

125 = 6



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCIÓN A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

PROBLEMA DE COLAS

M. EN C. MARCIAL PORTILLA ROBERTSON

MARZO, 1979



Faint, illegible text at the top right of the page.

0811

QUESIM

a model for queueing systems

is a simulation model for single-phase, multiple-channel queueing systems. The performance of one to nine channels may be investigated under a variety of arrival and service parameters and for a variety of associated costs.

Queues (waiting lines) are common, everyday occurrences. Queues occur in grocery stores, in banks, in front of movie theaters, during university registration, and so on. Queues build up as a result of an interaction between customers arriving for service and a service facility. Almost everyone has experienced being frustrated by waiting in a line. The purpose of this computer exercise is to allow the user to experiment with situations in which queues occur. The model is concerned with more than waiting time in the queues, however. It allows one to look at the entire system from the operation manager's viewpoint, i.e., not only worrying about the customer but also being concerned about the utilization of facilities and the total cost of operation.

The first section provides background information on queueing concepts and how these concepts may be used by the operations manager as an aid for decision making.

The following sections present a situation in which the computer model may be used as a tool for analysis of some possible alternative management decisions. These illustrative problems include complete instructions on how to use the computer program QUESIM.

9.1 THE QUEUEING PROCESS

This section contains an introduction to some queueing concepts. No mathematical formulas are presented, although references are given for those readers interested in a detailed presentation of queueing theory.

Definition
of
Queueing
Terms

The queueing process is centered around a *service system* which has one or more *service channels*. Customers (*arrivals*) are drawn from an *input source*, or population. In queueing models, the customer arrivals from the input source are generally characterized by a probability distribution. The symbol commonly used to represent the mean arrival rate of customers is the Greek letter *lambda* (λ). Any arrival entering the system joins a *queue*, or waiting line (a queue may be of zero length). The customer is selected from the queue for service according to a *queue discipline* or a *priority rule*. Usually, service times follow some probability distribution and the average service rate is commonly represented by the Greek letter *mu* (μ). In order to have a stable queueing process the average service rate (μ) must be greater than the mean arrival rate (λ). After service is completed the customer exits the system. See Figure 9-1.

Generally, a queueing system is characterized by the following properties:

1. Its arrival pattern.
2. Its service time distribution.
3. Its queue discipline.
4. Its layout, or customer-flow pattern.

Arrival
Patterns

The feature that makes some situations into queueing situations and other situations non-queueing is the nature of the arrivals to the system. Arrivals are the customers to the service facility, since they are the people or things that need to be processed.

In the situation where all arrivals are on hand, such as a large stock of raw materials, the service center may process arrivals at will, and there is no real queueing problem as such. In other situations where appointments are made ahead of time, there is also no real, or at least visible, queueing problem.

The really interesting problems, those worthy of being studied as queueing systems, exist when arrivals are not controlled or controllable by the service center. The most common assumption made in these cases is that the time intervals between consecutive arrivals are independent random variables. Each arrival is considered to be unaffected by the time at which

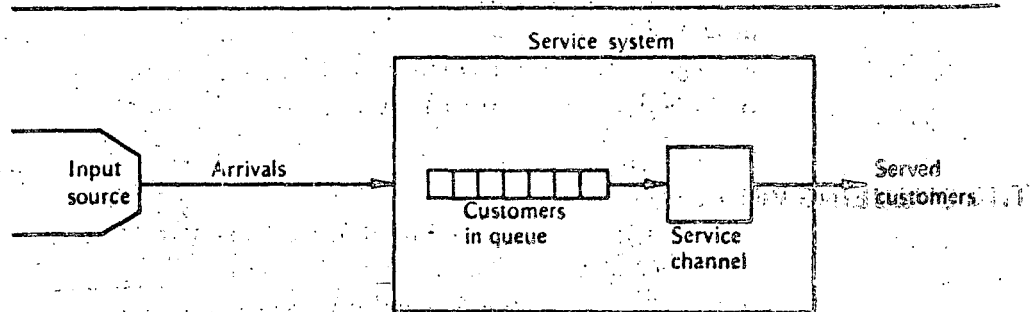


Figure 9-1 Single queue—single channel, single-phase queueing process.

any other arrival occurs or by the number of arrivals which have already taken place. A good example is the placing of telephone calls when each customer does not really know, or care, who else is placing a call.

Studies of queueing systems have revealed that the time intervals between consecutive arrivals are often distributed according to the negative-exponential distribution. (Longer time intervals have a lower probability of occurrence.) In this case the number of arrivals expected forms a Poisson distribution. Other arrival distributions are possible, but the Poisson distribution is the most frequently occurring distribution.

Service Time Distributions

The simplest situation is that in which each arrival requires the same time for service as every other arrival. A vending machine, for example, is usually assumed to have a constant service time. The most commonly assumed service-time density distribution, however, is the negative-exponential distribution. The service process may be further characterized as being single-phase (one operation) or multiple-phase (a series of operations).

Queue Disciplines

The queue discipline is the priority rule by which waiting jobs are selected from the queue for service. Because this represents a directly controllable decision variable, an extensive amount of research has been done in this area of queueing theory.

The most common priority rule is the first-come-first-served rule (FCFS). According to this rule, the first job to arrive in the queue will be the first job to be serviced. In addition, the following priority rules have received much attention: (1) the random rule selects the job which has the smallest value of a random priority assigned at the time of its arrival, and (2) the shortest operation time rule (SOT) selects from the queue the job which requires the least processing time at that service center.

Layout or Customer-Flow Patterns

The layout or flow pattern of a queueing system is largely determined by the specific servicing requirements of the arriving population, and by the physical limitations of the service facility.

This factor of specific servicing requirements is important when the job *must* be processed through a specific service channel or through a particular sequence of operations. If the job has no specific routing requirements, however, this factor becomes negligible. If the job requires several operations, for example, it is possible that the sequencing of these operations is of no consequence.

The physical limitations of the service facility are important, as they affect the facility layout. These physical limitations impose an additional constraint when they tend to limit waiting areas for jobs. As an example, one may prefer to have a single-queue, multiple-channel service facility, but adequate waiting space may not be available. The following arrangements are some examples of system geometry or job-flow patterns: single queue—single channel (Figure 9-1), single queue—multiple channels in parallel (Figure 9-2), multiple queue—multiple channels (Figure 9-3), service centers in tandem (Figure 9-4), and service centers in a network.

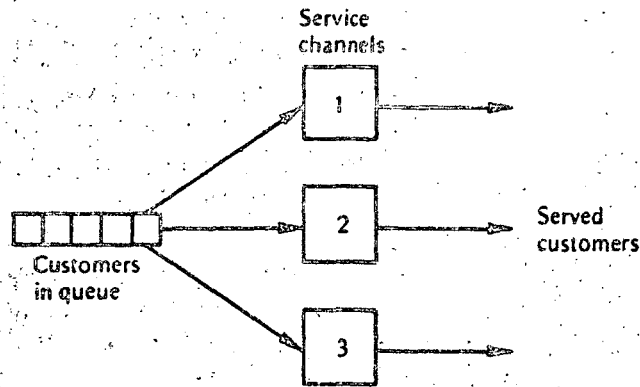


Figure 9-2 Single queue—multiple channel, single-phase.

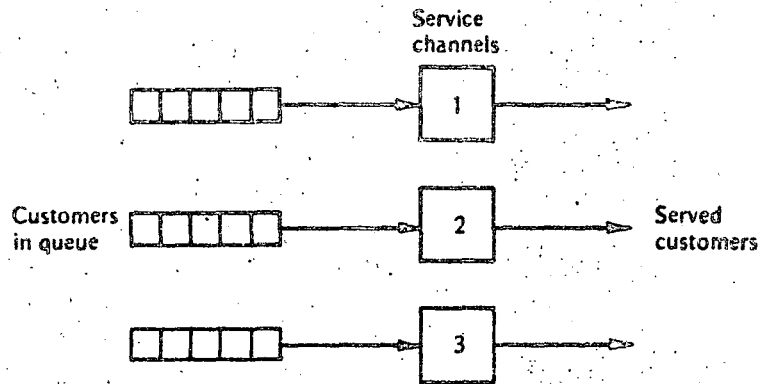


Figure 9-3 Multiple queue—multiple channel, single phase.

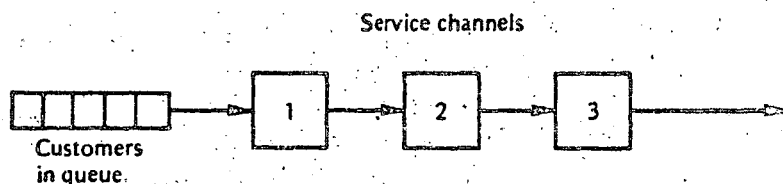


Figure 9-4 Single queue—single channel, multiple-phase.

**Analysis
for
Management
Decision**

One of the primary purposes for studying queueing theory is its predictive capabilities. In turn, this predictive capability is relevant to the design and control of operation systems. Some of the operational characteristics of a queueing system which may be of interest to a manager are the distributions of:

1. Queue length.
2. Customer waiting time (in queue and/or in the system).
3. Idle time of service facilities:
4. Number of customers in the service system.

These distributions may be described by their mean value, standard deviation, and the probability that the variable exceeds a specific value. With

information of this nature the queueing system could then be designed (or altered) so that

1. The resulting operational characteristics are within acceptable limits.
2. An economic criterion such as cost (or profit) may be minimized (or maximized).

An economic criterion may be established if one can associate dollar values with arrivals and service. For example, if one knew the revenues per arrival and the cost of service, it would be possible to set up a profit-maximization objective. Or, if the cost of an arrival waiting in line (or in the system) and the cost of service are known, the measure of effectiveness could be a cost-minimization function.

For solving operational problems which may be characterized as a queueing process there are two methods available. First, if the arrival and service time distributions are well-known mathematical distributions, it is possible to derive formulas for describing the operational characteristics. Secondly, even if the queueing process does not possess properties of well-known distributions, one can still attempt to solve the problem by means of Monte Carlo simulation. In this approach, empirical or assumed data for arrival and service time distributions are used as bases for generating a large number of arrivals and services, on paper. This may be done by hand, but for a large simulation it is most often done on a computer.

Since QUESIM is a computer simulation model for waiting lines, the development of the analytical formulas for solving these problems will not be presented here. For readers interested in the mathematical development of these formulas see Hillier and Lieberman, Morse, and Saaty, in the references for this exercise.

9.2 JOHN'S ICE CREAM SHOPPE

In this section, a sample problem suitable for the application of the computer model QUESIM will be presented. The QUESIM model itself will then be described. This description will point out to the user the types of systems for which QUESIM is applicable and the control options available to the user. Following the above, detailed descriptions of both the computer input and the computer output for the sample problem will be given.

Problem Statement

John Entrepreneur, who is a senior at the local college of business administration, is going to open a campus ice cream shoppe. The store features seventy-eight varieties of ice cream (more than double the number of his competitor), and pretty coed's to serve them. Even though John's store will have more to offer than his competitor's store, called The Establishment, it is hypothesized that in the first few months local business will be roughly divided between both stores.

John also feels that the confection industry has a high index of substitutability and the improved availability of ice cream due to the opening of his shoppe in the near future will marginally increase the gross sales of both stores, rather than merely dividing the present sales market. John's marketing research efforts have turned up the following information:

the distribution of customer arrivals into his shoppe will most likely follow a Poisson distribution, with a mean arrival rate of 60 people per hour. John has planned that upon arrival in his shoppe each customer will take a sequential number and await his turn for service. This will facilitate his servicing of customers on a first-come-first-served basis.

John's preliminary analyses also show that one server (whose wages are \$1.80 per hour) can be expected to service about 30 customers per hour, following a negative-exponential distribution. Moreover, John's marketing research shows that when the service rate is slower than the arrival rate, customers will leave rather than wait in a long line. John estimates that his cost (possible opportunity cost) will be \$0.05 for every minute that a customer must wait.

Thus far, however, John has not been able to ascertain from his research data the optimum number of servers to have on duty. Logically, he knows that more than one server is required, because the mean arrival rate is twice the mean service rate. Furthermore, he realizes that these rates are mean rates of probability distributions, not constant rates.

John recognizes that his problem is one of design, i.e., how many service channels to provide in the above queueing system in order to minimize total costs. He could, in fact, actually operate his shoppe with one server, two servers, three servers, etc., each for a period of time, and calculate his total costs. However, John has an alternative, and that is to simulate his ice cream shoppe operations in a compressed time period with QUESIM. Using QUESIM, John could experiment with using one, two, three servers, and so on, until the model indicates to John the optimum number of service channels to have in his service facility. Moreover, the simulation can be done in a short period of time, as opposed to waiting for weeks of empirical data from actual operations.

**The
Quesim
Model**

QUESIM is a computer model developed for simulating single-queue, single-phase, parallel queueing systems, that is, the type of system proposed by John Entrepreneur. The model determines, through an iterative process, the optimal number of service channels to allocate to a service facility. The configuration, or design, of the service facility is under the control of the user; hence, the user must specify the following characteristics of the queueing system to be studied:

1. The arrival distribution, the mean arrival rate, and the costs associated with arrivals waiting in line.
2. The service time distribution, the mean service time, and the costs of idle servers.
3. The simulation control limits, or the initial and maximum number of service channels (up to nine) which may be considered available to the service facility during a simulation run, and the maximum length of time for the simulation to run.

The above information on arrivals, services, and simulation control limits comprises the input for the computer program, QUESIM.

The computer output includes, at the top of the page, the user's

PROGRAM QUESIM FOR MAGGARD QUESIM PROBLEM ONE
 ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = 1.00 COST = .05
 SERVICE TYPE 2 TIME = 2.00 COST = .03
 NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAX 9
 MAX TIME 60

FIRST TWENTY OCCURANCES FOR **1**SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME---	-----DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER-----
	ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE
0	2.6
.0	3.3
.7	4.6
5.1	5.1
6.9	8.5
8.0	8.6
8.1	8.8
9.1	9.4
11.2	12.7
11.4	12.8
14.6	15.2
15.1	17.8
17.0	18.2
17.4	21.0
19.3	24.6
19.5	26.0
20.1	26.0
20.2	27.3
20.8	28.3
21.4	29.4

AFTER 52 ARRIVED 36 SERVED 60 TIME UNITS
 QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH = 14
 -MEAN LENGTH = 5.5
 -MEAN WAIT TIME = 6.4
 SERVICE UTILIZATION = 89.6 PERCENT
 COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 331.1 UNITS AT \$.05 = \$ 16.55
 IDLE SERVICE 6.2 UNITS AT \$.03 = \$.19
 TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 16.74

Figure 9-6 Computer output—John's Ice Cream Shoppe.

length of the queue, the mean number of customers in queue, and the mean waiting time in the queue are printed out. Then, the percent utilization of the service facilities is printed out. This is followed by the cost calculations. First, the total waiting time cost, which is the total waiting time of all customers in the system multiplied by the cost per unit waiting time, is given. The next line gives idle time cost, calculated as units of idle time (in the service facility) multiplied by the cost per unit of idle time.

The last line printed out is the total cost of operations, which is the idle time cost and the waiting time cost added together. It is this value that the simulator uses as a basis for comparing each iteration to the previous iteration for the purpose of determining when to terminate the simulation.

In the sample problem, the basic issue facing John Entrepreneur is the number of service channels (servers) he should have in his ice cream shoppe. The summary statistics for one channel (Figure 9-6) indicate that he

should at least have more than one server. The average length of the waiting line is greater than five customers (as many as fourteen at one time), and customers must wait, on the average, more than 6 time units (minutes) each. In real life, one would not expect ice cream shoppe customers to be so patient! Moreover, as one would expect with so many customers waiting, the server is busy almost 90 percent of the time.

For the cost structure given in the problem, the waiting time cost of the customers far exceeds the idle time cost of the single server. The total cost of \$16.74 consists almost entirely of waiting time costs.

The *simulation control card* for this problem requested that program QUESIM initially simulate John Entrepreneur's system with one service channel and continue to simulate his system, adding one additional service channel each run, until the simulation terminated. The simulation will terminate either when the total cost of the system with N servers exceeds the total cost with $N - 1$ servers or when the maximum number of allowable service channels has been reached.

For John's problem, the effect of adding additional servers in his shoppe is shown below. The cost figures in Figure 9-7 come directly from the computer printouts for the solution to John's problem. These figures, like all simulation results, are a function of a random number generator which may be different for each computer. Hence, these figures may be slightly different on different computers.

Number of channels	Waiting cost (\$)	Idle time cost (\$)	Total cost of operations (\$)
1	16.55	0.19	16.74
2	7.14	0.49	7.63
3	0.26	2.61	2.87
4	0.96	3.71	4.67

Figure 9-7 The total cost of operations for one to four service channels.

Figure 9-7 shows that adding a second service channel dramatically reduces the cost of customer waiting from \$16.55 to \$7.14. Adding a third service channel (server) continues to decrease waiting time cost and is the number of servers which minimizes the total cost of operations. Thus, the solution to John Entrepreneur's problem, as given by QUESIM, is for John to provide three servers in his shoppe operating under his expected steady state conditions. Keep in mind, however, that if we treat each simulation time unit as one minute, we have simulated only one hour of operations. Thus, John may want better data and/or a longer simulation run before coming to a definite conclusion about his problem.

9.3 JOHN'S ICE CREAM SHOPPE REVISITED

John's New Data Grand Opening!! John Entrepreneur's ice cream shoppe is now open. He is so excited about testing out his previous conclusions on the number of servers to have in his shoppe that after observing only the first fifteen arrivals

The complete input data deck, one card per typewritten line, now appears as shown in Figure 9-8.

Computer Output
—John's Ice Cream Shoppe Revisited

Shown in Figure 9-9 is the computer output for the results of this problem for one channel. On the computer output, the identification information at the top of the page is changed to reflect the changes in the input data. The arrival type, service type, and simulation-run time are different from the previous situation. Furthermore, the simulation table is for only fifteen arrivals and services, as that is the total number of arrivals read in. Notice that on this output a warning message (***WARNING***OUT OF DATA BEFORE TIME LIMIT****) has been printed out. This message is printed out by QUESIM because the last arrival occurred at time 69, which was before the simulation time limit of 100 units. Moreover, the service facility was idle from time 77 to time 100; thus, the actual idle time in the service facility is overstated in the summary statistics. When this message appears, the user of QUESIM must exercise some care in the interpretation of the results or go back and rerun with a lower, more realistic, time limit. The summary statistics and cost information printed out below the simulation table is the same for all computer printouts.

REFERENCES

Bhatia, A., and A. Garg, "Basic Structure of Queueing Problems," *The Journal of Industrial Engineering*, vol. 14, no. 1 (January-February 1963), pp. 13-17.

Buffa, E. S., *Modern Production Management*, 3d ed. New York: Wiley, 1969.

 , *Operations Management: Problems and Models*, 2d ed., New York: Wiley, 1969.

Gavett, J. W., *Production and Operations Management*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1968.

Hillier, F. S., and G. J. Lieberman, *Introduction to Operations Research*, San Francisco, Calif.: Holden-Day, 1967.

Lee, A. M., *Applied Queueing Theory*, London: Macmillan, 1966.

McMillan, C., and R. F. Gonzalez, *Systems Analysis*, rev. ed., Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1968.

Morse, P. M., *Queues, Inventories and Maintenance*, New York: Wiley, 1958.

Panico, J. A., *Queueing Theory*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J. : Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Richmond, S. B., *Operations Research for Management Decisions*, New York: Ronald, 1968.

Saaty, T. L., *Elements of Queueing Theory with Applications*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

9.4 QUESIM DATA DECK STRUCTURE

Arrival Cards

1. Arrival data card must always be included

Column	Format	Item
1	I1	code* for distribution
11-15	F5.0	mean arrival rate per unit time
21-25	F5.0	cost per unit of waiting time
31-33	F3.0	no. of arrivals to be read in

2. Second arrival data card is optional, depending upon the data. Its format is 12F5.0, so that arrival times are punched, 12 to a card, in columns 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, etc.

The complete input data deck, one card per typewritten line, now appears as shown in Figure 9-8.

Computer
Output
-John's Ice Cream
Shoppe
Revisited

Shown in Figure 9-9 is the computer output for the results of this problem for one channel. On the computer output, the identification information at the top of the page is changed to reflect the changes in the input data. The arrival type, service type, and simulation-run time are different from the previous situation. Furthermore, the simulation table is for only fifteen arrivals and services, as that is the total number of arrivals read in. Notice that on this output a warning message (**WARNING**OUT OF DATA BEFORE TIME LIMIT**) has been printed out. This message is printed out by QUESIM because the last arrival occurred at time 69, which was before the simulation time limit of 100 units. Moreover, the service facility was idle from time 77 to time 100; thus, the actual idle time in the service facility is overstated in the summary statistics. When this message appears, the user of QUESIM must exercise some care in the interpretation of the results or go back and rerun with a lower, more realistic, time limit. The summary statistics and cost information printed out below the simulation table is the same for all computer printouts.

REFERENCES

Bhatia, A., and A. Garg, "Basic Structure of Queueing Problems," *The Journal of Industrial Engineering*, vol. 14, no. 1 (January-February 1963), pp. 13-17.

Buffa, E. S., *Modern Production Management*, 3d ed. New York: Wiley, 1969.

Operations Management: Problems and Models, 2d ed., New York: Wiley, 1969.

Gavett, J. W., *Production and Operations Management*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1968.

Miller, F. S., and G. J. Lieberman, *Introduction to Operations Research*, San Francisco, Calif.: Holden-Day, 1967.

Lee, A. M., *Applied Queueing Theory*, London: Macmillan, 1966.

McMillan, C., and R. F. Gonzalez, *Systems Analysis*, rev. ed., Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1968.

Morse, P. M., *Queues, Inventories and Maintenance*, New York: Wiley, 1958.

Panico, J. A., *Queueing Theory*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Richmond, S. B., *Operations Research for Management Decisions*, New York: Ronald, 1968.

Saaty, T. L., *Elements of Queueing Theory with Applications*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

9.4 QUESIM DATA DECK STRUCTURE

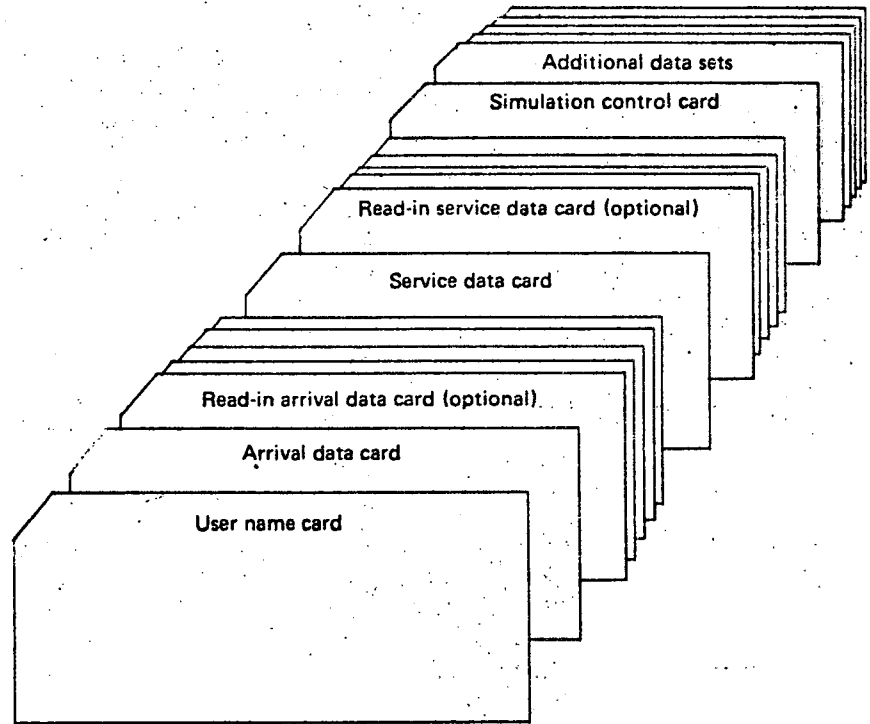
Arrival
Cards

1. Arrival data card must always be included

Column	Format	Item
1	I	code* for distribution
2-5	F5.0	mean arrival rate per unit time
6-9	F5.0	cost per unit of waiting time
10-13	F3.0	no. of arrivals to be read in

2. Read in arrival data card is optional, depending upon the data. Its format is 12F5.0, so that arrival times are punched, 12 to a card, in columns 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, etc.

15



3. Service data card must always be included.

<i>Card columns</i>	<i>Format</i>	<i>Item</i>
1	I1	code* for distribution
11-15	F5.0	mean service time
21-25	F5.0	cost per unit of idle time
31-33	F3.0	no. of service times to be read in

4. Read-in service data card is optional, depending upon the data. Its format is 12F5.0, so that service times are punched, 12 to a card, in columns 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, etc.

5. Control card must always be included.

<i>Card columns</i>	<i>Format</i>	<i>Item</i>
1	I1	beginning no. of service channels
11	I1	maximum no. of service channels
21-25	F5.0	simulation run time

*Code for distribution

- 1 the Poisson distribution
- 2 the negative-exponential distribution
- 3 a constant rate
- 4 historical input data, read-in

9.5 QUESIM PROGRAM LISTING

C	PROGRAM QUESIM	IBM	1
C	COPYRIGHT JUNE 1970 NOY D. HARRIS	A	2
C	THIS VERSION FOR THE IBM/360	IBM	3
C	DICTIONARY OF VARIABLES	A	4
C	AITIME THE HOURS OF SYSTEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL	A	5
C	ANUM,SNUM NUMBER OF HEAD IN ARRIVALS AND SERVICE	A	6
C	AR(SUU) AN ARRAY OF READ IN ARRIVAL TIMES	A	7
C	ARR RT,ARR TM THE ARRIVAL RATE AND MEAN TIME	A	8
C	CH AN ARRAY OF ARRIVAL AND SERVICE ON FIRST 20 CUSTOMERS	A	9
C	CIDLE THE COST OF SYSTEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL	A	10
C	CUMQUE(100) AN ARRAY WHICH STORES IDLE CUSTOMER HOURS	A	11
C	COSTS THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE SERVICE	A	12
C	COSTA THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE CUSTOMERS	A	13
C	CUSERV,KCUS THE NUMBER OF THE CUSTOMER BEING SERVED	A	14
C	CHAIT THE COST OF CUSTOMERS HOURS IN QUEUE- TOTAL	A	15
C	DEP RT,DEP TM THE SERVICE RATE AND MEAN DURATION	A	16
C	HRSNU THE HOURS OF CUSTOMER TIME IN QUEUE- TOTAL	A	17
C	I,J THE CHANNEL NUMBER BEING PROCESSED	A	18
C	I2 NUMBER OF ARRIVALS WHICH HAVE OCCURED	A	19
C	KA,KS OPTION CODES FOR ARRIVALS AND SERVICE	A	20
C	N,MAXS BEGINNING,MAXIMUM NUMBER CHANNELS	A	21
C	PLUTIL THE PERCENT UTILIZATION OF THE SERVICE FACILITY	A	22
C	QUEUE THE NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS IN QUEUE AT ANY POINT	A	23
C	SH(SUU) AN ARRAY OF READ IN SERVICE TIMES	A	24
C	TLOOP THE TOTAL COST OF THE SYSTEM	A	25
C	TIME,TTIME CLOCK TIME,MAX SIMULATION TIME	A	26
C	TNARV THE LATEST ARRIVAL TIME	A	27
C	TNDPH THE DEPARTURE TIME OF THE LATEST DEPARTURE	A	28
C	MAY BE SET ARTIFICIALLY FOR PROGRAM EFFICIENCY	A	29
C	XMNTN,AMNTX MEAN WAIT TIME,MEAN NUMBER IN QUE	A	30
C	COMMON ALPHA(1), ANUM, AR(SUU), ARRRT, ARRTM, CH(20, 10), CUMQUE(A	31
C	1100), CUMUTL, CUSERV, DEPRT, DEPTH, I, IUSERV, I2, KA, KCUS, KS, N	A	32
C	2, NFLAG,QUEUE,SNUM, SH(SLU), STATUS(9), T, TIME, TTIME, TNARV, TND	A	33
C	3PH(9)	A	34
C	NIN = 5	IBM	35
C	NOUT = 6	IBM	36
C	HEAD AND PRINT STUDENT NAME CARD	A	37
C	HEAD (NIN,23) ALPHA	A	38
C	WRITE (NOUT,24) ALPHA	A	39
C	HEAD AND PRINT ARRIVAL DATA CARD	A	40
C	HEAD (NIN,25) KA, ARRRT, COSTA, ANUM	A	41
C	WRITE (NOUT,26) KA, ARRRT, COSTA	A	42
C	HEAD ARRIVAL STATISTICS	A	43
C	IF (ANUM .LE. 0.0) GO TO 2	A	44
C	NUM = ANUM	A	45
C	ARRRT = 1.234	A	46
C	KA = 4	A	47
C	HEAD (NIN,27) (AR(I), I = 1, NUM)	A	48
C	WRITE (NOUT,28) NUM	A	49
C	WRITE (NOUT,29) (AR(I), I = 1, NUM)	A	50
C	SET ARRIVAL TIME AT INVERSE OF ARRIVAL RATE	A	51
C	ARRTM = 1.0/ARRRT	A	52
C	HEAD AND PRINT SERVICE DATA CARD	A	53
C	HEAD (NIN,29) KS, DEPTH, COSTS, SNUM	A	54
C	WRITE (NOUT,30) KS, DEPTH, COSTS	A	55
C	IF (SNUM .LE. 0.0) GO TO 3	A	56
C	NUM = SNUM	A	57
C	DEPTH = 1.230	A	58
C	KS = 4	A	59
C	HEAD (NIN,27) (SR(I), I = 1, NUM)	A	60
C	WRITE (NOUT,31) NUM	A	61

	WRITE (NOUT,29) (SR(I), I = 1, NUM)	A	6c
C	SET SERVICE RATE AT INVERSE OF SERVICE TIME	A	6J
3	DEPRT = 1.0/DEPTM	A	6n
C	READ SIMULATION CONTROL CARD AND PRINT	A	6s
	HEAD (NIN,32) N, MAXS, TTIME	A	6o
	WRITE (NOUT,33) N, MAXS	A	6I
	WRITE (NOUT,34) TTIME	A	6o
C	CHECK SIMULATION RUN LIMITS	A	6v
	IF (TARRRT .LE. 0.0) GO TO 7	A	7u
	IF (DEPTM .LE. 0.0) GO TO 7	A	7I
	IF (TTIME .LE. 0.0) GO TO 7	A	7c
	IF (N .EQ. 0) GO TO 7	A	7J
	IF (MAXS .LT. N) GO TO 7	A	7n
	IF (KA .EQ.) GO TO 7	A	7s
	IF (KA .GT.) GO TO 7	A	7o
	IF (KS .EQ.) GO TO 7	A	7I
	IF (KS .GT.) GO TO 7	A	7o
	IF (ANUM .EQ. 0.0) GO TO 5	A	7y
	IF (ANUM .GT. 500.0) GO TO 7	A	8u
	NUM = ANUM	A	8I
	DO 4 I = 2, NUM	A	8c
	J = I-1	A	8J
	IF (AR(J) .GT. AR(I)) GO TO 7	A	8n
4	CONTINUE	A	8s
5	IF (SNUM .EQ. 0.0) GO TO 8	A	8o
	IF (SNUM .GT. 500.0) GO TO 7	A	8I
	NUM = SNUM	A	8o
	DO 6 I = 1, NUM	A	8y
	IF (SR(I) .LT. 0.0) GO TO 7	A	9u
6	CONTINUE	A	9I
	GO TO 4	A	9c
C	PRINT OUT DATA ERROR MESSAGE	A	9J
7	WRITE (NOUT,35)	A	9n
	WRITE (NOUT,36)	A	9s
	GO TO 1	A	9o
C	END OF INPUT DATA CHECK	A	9I
8	BCOOP = 999999.9	A	9o
C	SIMULATION OF A GIVEN NUMBER OF CHANNELS (N) BEGINS HERE	A	9y
C	INITIALIZE SYSTEM FOR NEXT SIMULATION RUN	A	10u
9	TIME = 0.0	A	10I
	TNARY = 0.0	A	10c
	QUEUE = 0.0	A	10J
	CUMUTL = 0.0	A	10n
	CUSERV = 0.0	A	10o
	IZ = 0	A	10o
	KCUS = 0	A	10I
	NFLAG = 0	A	10o
	IUSERV = 0	A	10n
	SET = RAND(1234567)	A	11u
	DO 10 M = 1, 100	A	11I
10	CUMQUE(M) = 0.0	A	11c
	DO 11 L = 1, N	A	11J
	TNDPR(L) = 999999.9	A	11n
11	STATUS(L) = 0.0	A	11s
	DO 12 I = 1, 20	A	11o
	DO 12 J = 1, 10	A	11I
12	CH(I, J) = 0.0	A	11o
C	PRINT HEADINGS FOR RESULTS	A	11y
	WRITE (NOUT,37)	A	12u
	WRITE (NOUT,38) N	A	12I
	WRITE (NOUT,39)	A	12c
	WRITE (NOUT,40)	A	12J

```

C   SET FIRST ARRIVAL OCCURANCE AT TIME ZERO
    TNARV = 0.0
    CH(1, 1) = 0.0
    IZ = IZ + 1
C   MAIN SIMULATION BRANCH POINT
C   CHECK EACH CHANNEL IN TURN FOR POSSIBLE DEPARTURE
C   IF ALL CHANNELS ARE IDLE (TNOPR = 999999.9) THEN GO TO ARRIVE
C   IF ALL CHANNELS ARE BUSY (TNARV IS .GE. TNOPR) THEN GO TO ARRIVE
C   IF A DEPART IS NEXT (TNOPR IS .GE. TNARV) THEN GO TO DEPART
C   SET AND IVALUE KEEP MULTIPLE DEPARTURES IN CORRECT TIME SEQUENCE
13  SET = 999999.
    DO 14 I = 1, N
      IF (TNOPR(I) .GT. TNARV) GO TO 14
      IF (TNOPR(I) .GT. SET) GO TO 14
      SET = TNOPR(I)
    IVALUE = I
14  CONTINUE
    I = IVALUE
    IF (SET .LT. 999999.) GO TO 15
    CALL ARRIVE
    GO TO 13
15  CALL DEPART
C   ON RETURN FROM DEPART CHECK SIMULATION TIME LIMIT
    IF (TIME .GT. TIME) GO TO 13
C   END OF SIMULATION RUN---PRINT FIRST TWENTY TRIALS
    NI = N + 1
    IF (CUSERV .GE. 20.0) GO TO 16
    NXX = CUSERV
    GO TO 17
16  NXX = 20
17  DO 18 I = 1, NXX
18  WRITE (NOUT,41) (CH(I, J), J = 1, NI)
C   COMPUTE HOURS IN QUEUE FOR SUMMARY PRINTOUT
    HRSNU = 0.0
    MAXQUE = 0
    DO 20 M = 2, 100
      IF (CUMQUE(M) .EQ. 0.0) GO TO 19
      MAXQUE = M - 1
19  XM = M - 1
20  HRSNU = HRSNU + (XM * CUMQUE(M))
      IF (MAXQUE .LT. 99) GO TO 21
      WRITE (NOUT,42)
21  IF (NFLAG .NE. 76) GO TO 22
      WRITE (NOUT,43)
22  XN = N
      XIZ = IZ
C   PRINT SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR THIS NUMBER (N) CHANNELS
      WRITE (NOUT,44) IZ, CUSERV, TIME
      WRITE (NOUT, 5) MAXQUE
      XMNTX = HRSNU / TIME
      WRITE (NOUT, 6) XMNTX
      XMNTM = HRSNU / XIZ
      WRITE (NOUT, 7) XMNTM
      PCUTIL = ((CUMUTL / TIME) * 100.) / XN
      WRITE (NOUT, 8) PCUTIL
      CHAIT = HRSNU * COSTA
      WRITE (NOUT, 9) HRSNU, COSTA, CHAIT
      AITIME = (TIME * XN) - CUMUTL
      CIDLE = AITIME * COSTS
      WRITE (NOUT, 50) AITIME, COSTS, CIDLE
      TCOOP = CIDLE * CHAIT
      WRITE (NOUT, 51) TCOOP

```

A 120
A 125
A 126
A 127
A 128
A 129
A 130
A 131
A 132
A 133
A 134
A 135
A 136
A 137
A 138
A 139
A 140
A 141
A 142
A 143
A 144
A 145
A 146
A 147
A 148
A 149
A 150
A 151
A 152
A 153
A 154
A 155
A 156
A 157
A 158
A 159
A 160
A 161
A 162
A 163
A 164
A 165
A 166
A 167
A 168
A 169
A 170
A 171
A 172
A 173
A 174
A 175
A 176
A 177
A 178
A 179
A 180
A 181
A 182
A 183
A 184
A 185

C	STOP RUN IF TCOOP INCREASED FROM LAST RUN	A	180
	IF (TCOOP .GE. BCOOP) GO TO 1	A	181
C	STOP RUN IF MAXIMUM NUMBER OF SERVERS REACHED	A	180
	IF (N .GE. MAXS) GO TO 1	A	181
C	UPDATE NUMBER OF CHANNELS AND CURRENT TOTAL COST	A	190
	N = N+1	A	191
	BCOOP = TCOOP	A	192
C	RETURN FOR NEXT RUN WITH MORE CHANNELS (N)	A	193
	GO TO 4	A	194
C		A	195
23	FORMAT (10A4)	A	190
24	FORMAT (20M1PROGRAM QUESIM FOR ,10A4)	A	197
25	FORMAT (11,9X,F5.0,5X,F5.0,5X,F3.0)	A	190
26	FORMAT (14M ARRIVAL TYPE ,11,8M RATE = ,F8.2,8M COST =,F8.2)	A	191
27	FORMAT (12F5.3)	A	200
28	FORMAT (1M ,14,28M ARRIVALS READ IN AS FOLLOWS)	A	201
29	FORMAT (1M ,12F5.0)	A	202
30	FORMAT (14M SERVICE TYPE ,11,8M TIME = ,F8.2,8M COST =,F8.2)	A	203
31	FORMAT (1M ,14,28M SERVICES READ IN AS FOLLOWS)	A	204
32	FORMAT (11,9X,11,9X,F5.0)	A	205
33	FORMAT (20M NO. CHANNELS START ,11,5M MAX ,11)	A	200
34	FORMAT (10M MAX TIME ,F6.0)	A	207
35	FORMAT (35M ***ERROR IN QUESIM DATA CARDS***)	A	200
36	FORMAT (35M ***CORRECT DATA AND TRY AGAIN***)	A	201
37	FORMAT (1M0)	A	210
38	FORMAT (31M FIRST TWENTY OCCURANCES FOR **,11,18M**SERVICE CHANNE	A	211
	LS)	A	212
39	FORMAT (8M ARRIVAL,4X,44M-----DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER--	A	213
	1----	A	214
40	FORMAT (8M TIME---,4X,44MONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT	A	215
	NINE)	A	216
41	FORMAT (1M ,F6.1,3X,9F5.1)	A	217
42	FORMAT (50M0***WARNING***QUE EXCEEDED PROGRAM LIMIT OF 99***)	A	218
43	FORMAT (48M0***WARNING***OUT OF DATA BEFORE TIME LIMIT***)	A	219
44	FORMAT (6M0AFTER,16,8M ARRIVED,F6.0,7M SERVED,F6.0,11M TIME UNITS	A	220
	1)	A	221
45	FORMAT (23M QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH =,I7)	A	222
46	FORMAT (23M -MEAN LENGTH =,F7.1)	A	223
47	FORMAT (23M -MEAN WAIT TIME =,F7.1)	A	224
48	FORMAT (23M SERVICE UTILIZATION =,F7.1,8M PERCENT)	A	225
49	FORMAT (20M COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE,F7.1,11M UNITS AT \$,F6.2,4M = \$,	A	220
	1 F9.2)	A	227
50	FORMAT (7X,13HIDLE SERVICE ,F7.1,11M UNITS AT \$,F6.2,4M = \$,F9.2)	A	220
51	FORMAT (7X,24HTOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS,16X,1M\$,F9.2)	A	221
	END	A	230
	SUBROUTINE ARRIVE	B	1
	COMMON ALPHA(10), ANUM, AR(500), ARRRT, ARRTM, CH(20, 10), CUMQUE(B	2
	1100), CUMUTL, CUSERV, DEPRT, DEPTM, I, IUSERV, IZ, KA, KCUS, KS, N	B	3
	2, NFLAG, QUEUE, SNUM, SR(500), STATUS(9), T, TIME, TTIME, TNARV, TND	B	4
	3PR(9)	B	5
C	THIS SUBROUTINE CALLED WHEN AN ARRIVAL IS THE NEXT OCCURANCE	B	6
C	IT UPDATES THE TIME SPENT IN QUEUE	B	7
C	IT UPDATES THE CLOCK TO THE TIME OF THE NEW ARRIVAL (PREVIOUSLY	B	8
	SELECTED)	B	9
C	IT CHECKS EACH CHANNEL TO SEE IF THE NEW ARRIVAL CAN BEGIN SERVICE	B	10
C	IF A CHANNEL IS AVAILABLE IT DOES THE FIRST PART OF THE	B	11
	DEPART PROCESSING OTHERWISE IT ADDS ONE TO THE QUEUE	B	12
C	LASTLY, IT SELECTS THE TIME FOR THE NEXT ARRIVAL TO OCCUR	B	13
	M = QUEUE	B	14
C	CHECK LENGTH OF QUEUE, IF OVER 99 HOLD AT 99	B	15
	IF (M .LE. 99) GO TO 1	B	16

```

H = 49
UPDATE HOURS SPENT IN QUEUE
CUMQUE(M+1) = CUMQUE(M+1) + TNARV - TIME
UPDATE CLOCK TIME TO NEXT ARRIVAL
TIME = TNARV
CHECK EACH CHANNEL. IF STATUS = 0 IT IS AVAILABLE
UU 12 J = 1, N
IF (STATUS(J) .GT. 0.0) GO TO 11
UU FIRST PART OF DEPART PROCESSING
STATUS(J) = 1.0
GO TO (203+4+5), KS
POISSON SERVICE RATE
R = RAND(0)
T = ABS(DEPRT * LOG(R))
GO TO 7
NEGATIVE EXPONENTIAL SERVICE TIME
R = RAND(0)
T = ABS(DEPTH * LOG(R))
GO TO 7
CONSTANT SERVICE TIME
T = DEPTH
GO TO 7
READ-IN SERVICE TIME
IUSERV = KCUS * I
NUM = SNUM
IF (IUSERV .LE. NUM) GO TO 6
RFLAG = 76
T = 666666.
GO TO 7
T = SR(IUSERV)
SET TIME OF NEXT DEPARTURE
TNDPR(J) = TIME + T
STORE FIRST TWENTY DEPARTURE TIMES IN CH
KCUS = KCUS + 1
IF (KCUS .GT. 20) GO TO 6
II = J + 1
CH(KCUS, II) = TNDPR(J)
CONTINUE
CHECK IF OUT OF SIMULATION TIME
IF (TTIME .LT. TNDPR(J)) GO TO 9
ACCUMULATE PROCESSING TIME
CUMUTL = CUMUTL + T
CUSERV = CUSERV + 1.0
GO TO 14
END OF SIMULATION UPDATING
LAST DEPARTURE FORCED OUT AT TTIME
TR = T - (TNDPR(J) - TTIME)
IF (TR .GT. 0.0) GO TO 14
TR = 0.
TNDPR(J) = TTIME
CUMUTL = CUMUTL + TR
GO TO 14
IF (J .GE. N) GO TO 13
CONTINUE
ALL CHANNELS ARE BUSY. ADD ONE TO THE QUEUE
QUEUE = QUEUE + 1
SELECT ARRIVAL TIME (STORE FIRST TWENTY IN CH)
GO TO (15+16+17+18), KA
POISSON ARRIVAL TIME DISTRIBUTION
H = RAND(0)
TNARV = ABS(ARRTH * LOG(R))
TNARV = TNARV + TIME

```

H 17
 H 18
 H 19
 H 20
 H 21
 H 22
 H 23
 H 24
 H 25
 H 26
 H 27
 H 28
 H 29
 H 30
 H 31
 H 32
 H 33
 H 34
 H 35
 H 36
 H 37
 H 38
 H 39
 H 40
 H 41
 H 42
 H 43
 H 44
 H 45
 H 46
 H 47
 H 48
 H 49
 H 50
 H 51
 H 52
 H 53
 H 54
 H 55
 H 56
 H 57
 H 58
 H 59
 H 60
 H 61
 H 62
 H 63
 H 64
 H 65
 H 66
 H 67
 H 68
 H 69
 H 70
 H 71
 H 72
 H 73
 H 74
 H 75
 H 76


```

IZ = IZ+1
IF (IZ .GT. 20) GO TO 20
CH(IZ, I) = TNARV
GO TO 20
C 16 NEGATIVE EXPO ARRIVAL TIME DISTRIBUTION
R = RAND(0)
TNARV = ABS(ARRRT*ALOG(R))
TNARV = TNARV+TIME
IZ = IZ+1
IF (IZ .GT. 20) GO TO 20
CH(IZ, I) = TNARV
GO TO 20
C 17 CONSTANT ARRIVAL TIMES
TNARV = TIME+ARRTM
IZ = IZ+1
IF (IZ .GT. 20) GO TO 20
CH(IZ, I) = TNARV
GO TO 20
C 18 HEAD IN ARRIVAL TIMES
IZ = IZ+1
NUM = ANUM
IF (IZ .LE. NUM) GO TO 19
AR(IZ) = 77777.
NFLAG = 76
C 19 TNARV = AR(IZ)
IF (IZ .GT. 20) GO TO 20
CH(IZ, I) = TNARV
C 20 RETURN
END

```

R	79
R	80
B	81
R	82
B	83
B	84
B	85
H	86
H	87
R	88
B	89
R	90
R	91
B	92
B	93
H	94
B	95
R	96
B	97
B	98
B	99
B	100
B	101
B	102
H	103
B	104
B	105
B	106
H	107

```

SUBROUTINE DEPART
COMMON ALPHA(10), ANUM, AR(500), ARRRT, ARRTM, CH(20, 10), CUMQUE(
1100), CUMUTL, CUSERV, DEPRT, DEPTM, I, IUSERV, IZ, KA, KCUS, KS, N
2, NFLAG, QUEUE, SNUM, SR(500), STATUS(9), T, TIME, TTIME, TNARV, TND
3PR(9)
C THIS SUBROUTINE PROCESSES THE DEPARTURE OF EVERY CUSTOMER
C IT UPDATES THE HOURS SPENT IN THE QUEUE
C IT UPDATES THE CLOCK TO THE NEXT DEPARTURE TIME (PREVIOUSLY
C SELECTED)
C IT CHECKS THE LENGTH OF THE QUEUE
C IF NO ONE IN QUEUE IT SETS THE CHANNEL AT AN IDLE STATUS (THIS
C DEPARTURE WAS PREVIOUSLY PARTIALLY PROCESSED EITHER AT
C ARRIVE OR BY A PRIOR PASS THROUGH DEPART)
C IF A QUEUE EXISTS THEN TAKE ONE FROM THE QUEUE, SET ITS DEPARTURE
C TIME, SET THE CHANNEL AT A BUSY STATUS AND RETURN
M = QUEUE
C CHECK LENGTH OF QUEUE, IF OVER 99 HOLD AT 99
IF (M .LE. 99) GO TO 1
M = 99
C UPDATE THE HOURS SPENT IN QUEUE
C 1 CUMQUE(M+1) = CUMQUE(M+1)+TNDPR(I)-TIME
C UPDATE THE CLOCK TO NEXT DEPARTURE TIME
C TIME = TNDPR(I)
IF (QUEUE.GE.1.0) GO TO 2
C THIS SECTION COMPLETES THE PROCESSING OF A CUSTOMER
C WHEN NO ONE IS WAITING IN THE QUEUE
C STATUS(I) = 0.0
C TNDPR(I) = 999999.9
C RETURN
C THIS SECTION DOES THE DEPART PROCESSING
C WHEN THE CHANNEL HAS BEEN BUSY
C 2 QUEUE = QUEUE - 1.0

```

C	1
C	2
C	3
C	4
C	5
C	6
C	7
C	8
C	9
C	10
C	11
C	12
C	13
C	14
C	15
C	16
C	17
C	18
C	19
C	20
C	21
C	22
C	23
C	24
C	25
C	26
C	27
C	28
C	29
C	30
C	31
C	32

```

GO TO (3,4,5,6), KS
SELECT NEXT DEPARTURE TIME
POISSON SERVICE RATE
3 R = RAND(0)
T = ABS(DEPRT * LOG(R))
GO TO 6
NEGATIVE EXPONENTIAL SERVICE TIME
4 R = RAND(0)
T = ABS(DEPTH * LOG(R))
GO TO 6
CONSTANT SERVICE TIME
5 T = DEPTH
GO TO 6
HEAD-IN SERVICE TIME
6 IUSERV = KCUS * 1.
NUM = SNUM
IF (IUSERV .LE. NUM) GO TO 7
NFLAG = 76
T = 666666.
GO TO 4
7 T = SR(IUSERV)
8 TNOPR(I) = TIME * T
STORE FIRST TWENTY DEPARTURE TIMES IN CH
KCUS = KCUS + 1
IF (KCUS .GT. 20) GO TO 9
I1 = I + 1
CH(KCUS, I1) = TNOPR(I)
9 CONTINUE
CHECK IF OUT OF SIMULATION TIME
IF (TIME .LT. TNOPR(I)) GO TO 10
RESET STATUS BACK TO BUSY AND RETURN
CUMUTL = CUMUTL + T
CUSERV = CUSERV + 1.0
STATUS(I) = 1.0
RETURN
C ADJUST T AND CUMUTL AT TERMINATION OF SIMULATION
LAST CUSTOMER FORCED TO DEPART AT TTIME
10 TK = T - (TNOPR(I) - TTIME)
IF (T .GT. 0.0) GO TO 11
TK = 0.
11 TNOPR(I) = TTIME
CUMUTL = CUMUTL + TK
STATUS(I) = 1.0
RETURN
END

```

C 33
C 34
C 35
C 36
C 37
C 38
C 39
C 40
C 41
C 42
C 43
C 44
C 45
C 46
C 47
C 48
C 49
C 50
C 51
C 52
C 53
C 54
C 55
C 56
C 57
C 58
C 59
C 60
C 61
C 62
C 63
C 64
C 65
C 66
C 67
C 68
C 69
C 70
C 71
C 72
C 73
C 74
C 75
C 76
C 77.

```

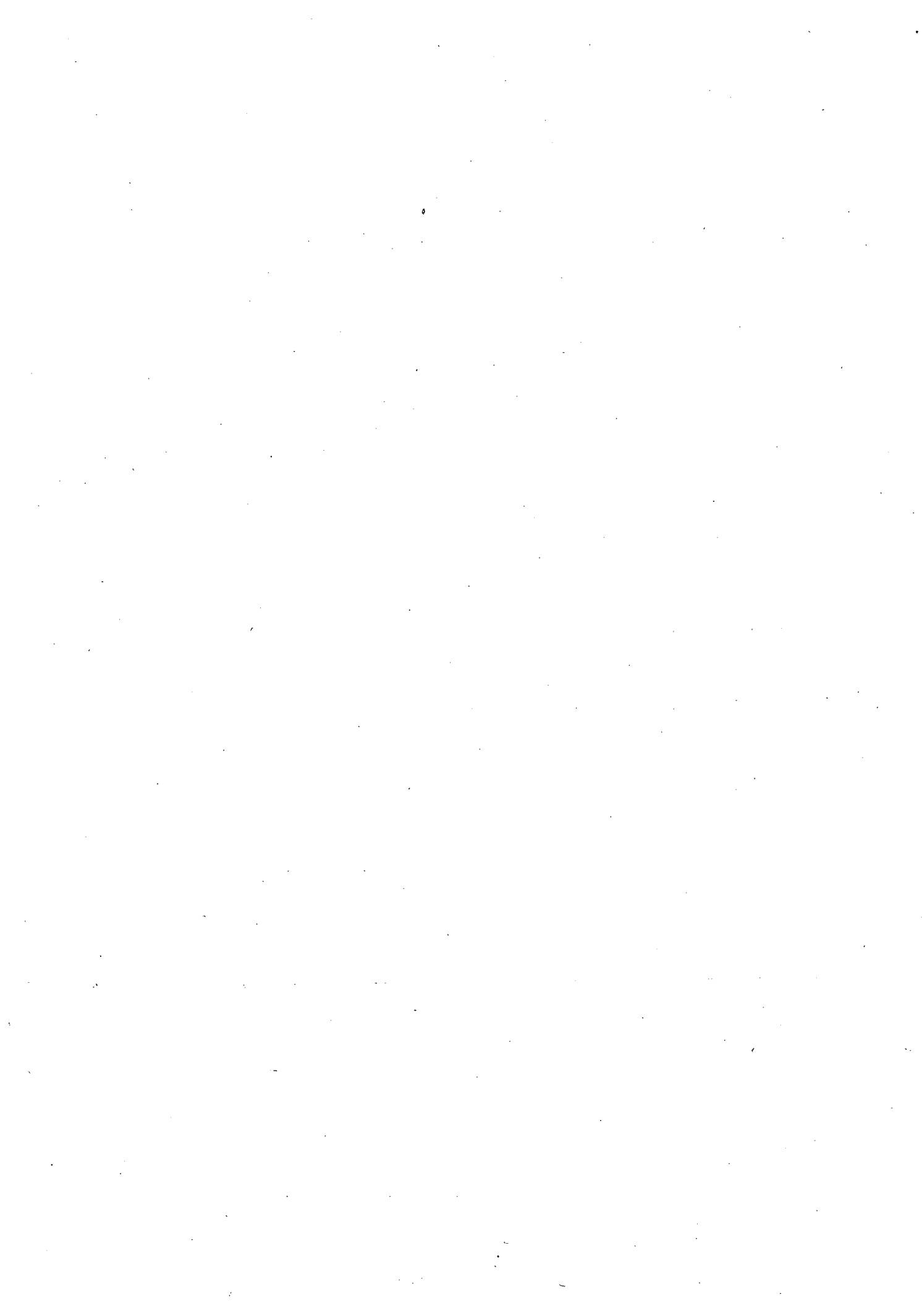
FUNCTION RAND (K)
MACHINE DEPENDENT RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR (0 TO 1)
THIS VERSION IS FOR 32 BIT WORD (IBM 360)
K SET AT POSITIVE ODD INTEGER TO INITIALIZE
K SET AT ZERO TO CONTINUE STRING OF RANDOM NUMBERS
SEE NAYLOR, COMPUTER SIMULATION TECHNIQUES, WILEY *SUNS, 1966
IF (K) 2,2,1
N = K
N = N * 16807
IF (N) 3,4,4
N = N * 2147483647 + 1
AN = N
RAND = AN / 2147483647.
RETURN
END

```

0 1
0 2
IBM 3
0 4
0 5
0 6
0 7
0 8
IBM 9
0 10
IBM 11
0 12
IBM 13
0 14
0 15

DATE 2009 JAN 10
TIME 12:00

YOUR NAME - A1 PREMIUM TRUCK			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	15.	1000.	.133
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - A2 DELUX TRUCK			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	12.	1400.	.167
1	1	6000.	
YOUR NAME - A3 TWO PREMIUM TRUCKS			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	15.	1000.	.133
2	2	6000.	
YOUR NAME - B1 NEW PREMIUM TRACK			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	15.	800.	.10
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - B2 ONE DELUX TRUCK			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	12.	1400.	.167
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - B3 TWO NEW PREMIUM TRUCKS			
1	.05	.1667	2
2	15.	800.	.10
2	2	6000.	
YOUR NAME - C1 PREMIUM / 4 PER HOUR			
1	.0667	.1667	2
2	15.	1000.	.133
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - C2 DELUX / 4 PER HOUR			
1	.0667	.1667	2
2	12.	1400.	.167
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - C3 TWO PREMIUM / 4 PER HOUR			
1	.0667	.1667	2
2	15.	1000.	.133
2	2	6000.	
YOUR NAME - D1 SOT			
1	.05	.1667	3
2	12.	1400.	.167
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - D2 SOT			
1	.05	.1667	1
2	15.	1000.	.133
2	2	6000.	
YOUR NAME - D3 SOT			
1	.05	.1667	3
2	15.	1000.	.133
2	2	6000.	
YOUR NAME - U1 RANDOM			
1	.05	.1667	1
2	15.	1000.	.133
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - U2 RANDOM			
1	.05	.1667	3
2	15.	1000.	.133
1	1.	6000.	
YOUR NAME - U3 RANDOM			
1	.05	.1667	1
2	12.	1400.	.167
1	1.	6000.	
STOP			



25

PROGRAM QUEUES FOR YOUR NAME - A1 PREMIUM TRACK

ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = .05 COST = .17 SCHEDULE RULE 2 (FCFS)

SERVICE TYPE 2 RATE = .15.00
FIXED COST \$ 1000.00 VARIABLE COST \$.13

NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAX 1 MAX TIME 6000

FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 1 SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME-- DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER--
ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE

0	2.4
26.0	45.4
26.2	45.6
40.6	56.4
128.2	193.4
135.6	199.4
148.0	208.7
148.0	208.7
184.8	236.3
200.1	247.4
221.3	263.7
223.0	265.0
243.3	280.2
244.4	281.1
246.7	282.4
249.7	285.0
292.2	324.0
306.8	335.0
310.9	338.1
374.1	421.5

AFTER 276 ARRIVED 272 SERVED 6000 TIME UNITS

QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH 7

-MEAN LENGTH 1.0

-MEAN WAIT TIME 21.5

SERVICE UTILIZATION 74.2 PERCENT

AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT .0460

AVERAGE SERVICE TIME 16.3633

MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM 1.7396

MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM 37.8181

COST INFORMATION ON OPERATIONS

COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 5921.5 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 987.12

SERVICE COST VARIABLE 272.0 UNITS AT \$.13 = \$ 36.18

SERVICE COST FIXED 1000.00 WITH 1 CHANNELS = \$ 1000.00

TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 2023.29

PROGRAM QUEUES FOR YOUR NAME - H1 NEW PREMIUM TRACK

ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = .05 COST = .17 SCHEDULE RULE 2 (FCFS)

SERVICE TYPE 2 TIME = 15.00
 FIXED COST \$ 800.00 VARIABLE COST \$.17

NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAY 1 MAX TIME 6000

FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 1 SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME	DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER								
TIME	ONE	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	SIX	SEVEN	EIGHT	NINE
0	2.4								
26.0	45.4								
26.2	45.4								
40.6	56.4								
128.2	143.4								
135.6	149.4								
148.0	208.7								
148.0	208.7								
184.8	236.4								
200.1	247.4								
221.3	263.7								
223.0	265.1								
243.3	281.2								
244.4	281.7								
246.7	282.4								
249.7	285.1								
292.2	324.0								
316.8	335.0								
310.9	338.1								
374.1	421.5								

AFTER 276 ARRIVED 277 SERVED 6000 TIME UNITS
 QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH 7
 -MEAN LENGTH 1.0
 -MEAN WAIT TIME 21.5
 SERVICE UTILIZATION 74.2 PERCENT
 AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT .0450
 AVERAGE SERVICE TIME 16.3633
 MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM 1.7396
 MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM 37.8191

COST INFORMATION ON OPERATIONS

COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 5421.5 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 921.62
 SERVICE COST VARIABLE 277.1 UNITS AT \$.10 = \$ 27.71
 SERVICE COST FIXED 800.00 WITH 1 CHANNELS = \$ 800.00
 TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 1814.32

PROGRAM QUEUES FOR YOUR NAME - CI PRENUM / 4 PER HOUR

ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = .17 COST = .17 SCHEDULE RULE ? (FCFS)

SERVICE TYPE 2 TIME = 15.0
FIXED COST \$ 1000.00 VARIABLE COST \$.13

NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAY 1 MAX TIME 6000

FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 1 SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME	ONE	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	SIX	SEVEN	EIGHT	NINE
0	2.4								
19.5	39.0								
19.6	39.1								
30.4	49.9								
96.1	161.4								
101.6	167.3								
110.9	176.6								
110.9	176.7								
138.5	204.2								
150.0	215.4								
165.9	231.6								
167.2	232.9								
182.4	248.1								
183.2	249.0								
184.9	250.7								
187.2	252.9								
219.0	284.4								
230.0	295.7								
233.1	298.4								
280.5	346.3								

AFTER 388 ARRIVED 374 SERVED 6000 TIME UNITS
 QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH 17
 -MEAN LENGTH 5.3
 -MEAN WAIT TIME 41.8
 SERVICE UTILIZATION 98.0 PERCENT
 AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT .0647
 AVERAGE SERVICE TIME 15.7217
 MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM 6.3342
 MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM 97.4871

COST INFORMATION OF OPERATIONS

COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 31725.0 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 5288.55
 SERVICE COST VARIABLE 374.0 UNITS AT \$.13 = \$ 49.74
 SERVICE COST FIXED 1000.00 WITH 1 CHANNELS = \$ 1000.00
 TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 6338.30

PROGRAM QUEUES FOR YOUR NAME - DI SOT

ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = .05 COST = .17 SCHEDULE RULE 3
(SOT)

SERVICE TYPE 2 TIME = 12.00
FIXED COST \$ 1400.00 VARIABLE COST \$.17

NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAY 1 MAY TIME 6000

FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 1 SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME --- DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER-----
ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE

0	2.0
26.0	41.5
26.2	41.7
40.6	50.4
128.2	107.7
135.6	105.2
148.0	105.2
148.0	192.5
184.8	201.5
210.1	223.5
221.3	236.5
223.0	237.7
243.3	255.4
244.4	256.1
246.7	257.5
249.7	259.4
292.2	317.6
306.8	326.4
310.9	328.9
374.1	412.1

AFTER 276 ARRIVED 272 SERVED 6000 TIME UNITS

QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH

6

-MEAN LENGTH

.5

-MEAN WAIT TIME

13.4

SERVICE UTILIZATION

59.4 PERCENT

AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT

.0460

AVERAGE SERVICE TIME

13.104

MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM

1.0974

MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM

23.8648

COST INFORMATION OF OPERATIONS

COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 2968.8 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 494.89

SERVICE COST VARIABLE 272.0 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 45.42

SERVICE COST FIXED 1400.00 WITH 1 CHANNELS = \$ 1400.00

TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 1940.32

PROGRAM QUEUES FOR YOUR NAME = D1 RANDOM
 ARRIVAL TYPE 1 RATE = .15 COST = .17 SCHEDULE RULE 1
 (RANDOM)

SERVICE TYPE 2 TIME = 15.30
 FIXED COST \$ 1000.00 VARIABLE COST \$.13

NO. CHANNELS START 1 MAY 1 MAX TIME 6000

FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 1 SERVICE CHANNELS

ARRIVAL TIME	DEPARTURE TIME AT CHANNEL NUMBER								
	ONE	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	SIX	SEVEN	EIGHT	NINE
0	2.4								
26.0	45.5								
26.2	45.6								
40.6	56.4								
128.2	193.4								
135.6	199.4								
148.0	208.7								
148.0	220.3								
184.8	247.4								
200.1	247.4								
221.3	263.7								
223.0	278.4								
243.3	281.1								
244.4	313.0								
246.7	314.7								
249.7	317.4								
292.2	318.6								
306.8	329.6								
310.9	330.4								
374.1	421.5								

AFTER 276 ARRIVED 275 SERVED 6000 TIME UNITS
 QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH 7
 -MEAN LENGTH 1.0
 -MEAN WAIT TIME 22.3
 SERVICE UTILIZATION 74.8 PERCENT
 AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT .0460
 AVERAGE SERVICE TIME 16.3202
 MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM 1.7773
 MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM 38.6374

COST INFORMATION OF OPERATIONS
 COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE 6159.5 UNITS AT \$.17 = \$ 1026.80
 SERVICE COST VARIABLE 275.0 UNITS AT \$.13 = \$ 36.57
 SERVICE COST FIXED 1000.00 WITH 1 CHANNELS = \$ 1000.00
 TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS \$ 2063.37

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

1. The three alternatives available to Rio Valley Electric Co-op (herein referred to as Rio) are:

Alt.	Mean service rate	Variable cost/unit	Fixed cost/simulation run	Description
A-1	15	\$.13	\$1000	one premium truck
A-2	12	.17	1400	one deluxe truck
A-3	15	.13	2000	two premium trucks

For all the alternatives the FCFS priority rule was used and the simulated runs were for 5000 minutes. The results for the runs are:

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
A-1	1.0	21.5	74.2%	\$987.12	\$36.18	\$1000	\$2023.29
A-2	.5	11.5	59.4	529.42	45.42	1400	1975.22
A-3	.1	1.1	37.2	51.25	36.44	2000	2087.69

From the runs Rio should choose alternative A-2 as it has the lowest total cost. However, if the Rio Company is planning to grow it might prefer to choose alternative A-3 since this alternative has the lowest service utilization and thus would allow for the most growth (note the very low waiting cost as compared to alternatives A-1 and A-2).

2. The lower cost of the premium truck definitely changes the optimal cost alternative of question 1. The alternatives now available are:

Alt.	Mean service rate	Variable cost/unit	Fixed cost/simulation run	Description
B-1	15	\$.10	\$ 800	new premium truck
B-2	same as alternative A-2			
B-3	15	.10	1600	two new premium trucks

The results from the computer runs are:

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
B-1	1.0	21.5	74.2%	\$987.12	\$27.12	\$ 800	\$1814.32
B-2	.5	11.5	59.4	529.42	45.42	1400	1975.22
B-3	.1	1.1	37.2	51.25	27.40	1600	1678.65

Clearly Rio should select B-3 as it has by far the lowest cost and because of the low service utilization will allow for the greatest expansion.

3. The alternatives C-1, C-2, and C-3 are the same as A-1, A-2, and A-3. In these runs the arrival rate was increased from 3 to 4 per hour (Poisson). The results of the runs are as follows:

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
C-1	5.3	81.8	98.0%	\$5288.55	\$4974	\$1000	\$6338.30
C-2	1.3	19.8	79.8	1285.83	64.80	1400	2750.62
C-3	.1	2.1	49.9	137.50	51.60	2000	2189.10

Alternative C-3 is the best selection. This is due, as was mentioned in part 1, to the fact that the alternative C-3 had room for expansion while the others were already being highly utilized. There is still quite a difference between the waiting time cost.

4. In this part we are asked to compare the result of part 1 using the other two priority rules, SOT (D-1S, D-2S, and D-3S) and RANDOM (D-1R, D-2R, and D-3R). The results of the computer runs are shown below:

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
A-1	1.0	21.5	74.2%	\$987.12	\$36.18	\$1000	\$2023.29
D-1S	.9	19.0	74.2	873.53	36.18	1000	1909.70
D-1R	1.0	22.3	74.2	1026.80	36.57	1000	2063.37
A-2	.5	11.5	59.4	\$529.42	\$45.42	\$1400	\$1975.22
D-2S	.5	10.8	59.4	494.89	45.42	1400	1940.32
D-2R	.5	10.7	59.4	493.38	45.42	1400	1938.81
A-3	.1	1.1	37.2	\$ 51.25	\$36.44	\$2000	\$2087.69
D-3S	.1	1.1	37.2	51.01	36.44	2000	2087.45
D-3R	.1	1.1	37.2	52.84	36.44	2000	2089.29

In the first set of alternatives, D-1S is the best selection. This is due primarily to the fact that the mean waiting time is less for the SOT rule since the shorter jobs are worked on first and gotten out of the system quickly.

The runs using the deluxe truck, D-2R gave the best result. Here the range was not nearly as wide as for the single premium truck.

In the case of the two premium trucks (A-3, D-3S, and D-3R) the run using the SOT rule gave the best results. The best explanation for this is that because of the large amount of slack in the system (35% utilization) it really doesn't make too much difference which rule is used.

D-2R has the lowest cost of all nine runs. This indicates that under present conditions the deluxe truck would be the best selection and that the RANDOM priority rule should be used. In actuality the company should probably select the deluxe truck and use a modified SOT rule (such SOT between 8am and 8pm, all jobs in QUEUE at 8pm on FCFS until 8am following morning).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the results of the run, the following would be recommended to Rio:

1. If Rio expects the arrival rate of calls to remain about 3/hr, they should buy the deluxe truck, provided the premium is not available at the reduced rate.
2. If arrival rate is expected to increase, buy the two premium trucks.

As is suggested, the two premium trucks are probably the best selection all around. One major reason for this would be that if one of the trucks broke down, the other would still be able to make service calls.

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
C-1	5.3	81.8	98.0%	\$5288.55	\$4974	\$1000	\$6338.30
C-2	1.3	19.8	79.8	1285.83	64.60	1400	2750.62
C-3	.1	2.1	49.9	137.50	51.60	2000	2189.10

Alternative C-3 is the best selection. This is due, as was mentioned in part 1, to the fact that the alternative C-3 had room for expansion while the others were already being highly utilized. There is still quite a difference between the waiting time cost.

4. In this part we are asked to compare the result of part 1 using the other two priority rules, SOT (D-1S, D-2S, and D-3S) and RANDOM (D-1R, D-2R, and D-3R). The results of the computer runs are shown below:

Alt.	Mean length Queue	Mean wait time	Service util.	Cost wait	Var. cost	Fix cost	Total cost
A-1	1.0	21.5	74.2%	\$987.12	\$36.18	\$1000	\$2023.29
D-1S	.9	19.0	74.2	873.53	36.18	1000	1909.70
D-1R	1.0	22.3	74.2	1026.80	36.57	1000	2063.37
A-2	.5	11.5	59.4	\$529.42	\$45.42	\$1400	\$1975.22
D-2S	.5	10.8	59.4	494.89	45.42	1400	1940.32
D-2R	.5	10.7	59.4	493.38	45.42	1400	1938.81
A-3	.1	1.1	37.2	\$ 51.25	\$36.44	\$2000	\$2087.69
D-3S	.1	1.1	37.2	51.01	36.44	2000	2087.45
D-3R	.1	1.1	37.2	52.84	36.44	2000	2089.29

In the first set of alternatives, D-1S is the best selection. This is due primarily to the fact that the mean waiting time is less for the SOT rule since the shorter jobs are worked on first and gotten out of the system quickly.

The runs using the deluxe truck, D-2R gave the best result. Here the range was not nearly as wide as for the single premium truck.

In the case of the two premium trucks (A-3, D-3S, and D-3R) the run using the SOT rule gave the best results. The best explanation for this is that because of the large amount of slack in the system (35% utilization) it really doesn't make too much difference which rule is used.

D-2R has the lowest cost of all nine runs. This indicates that under present conditions the deluxe truck would be the best selection and that the RANDOM priority rule should be used. In actuality the company should probably select the deluxe truck and use a modified SOT rule (such SOT between 8am and 8pm, all jobs in QUEUE at 8pm on FCFS until 8am following morning).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the results of the run, the following would be recommended to Rio:

1. If Rio expects the arrival rate of calls to remain about 3/hr, they should buy the deluxe truck, provided the premium is not available at the reduced rate.
2. If arrival rate is expected to increase, buy the two premium trucks.

As is suggested, the two premium trucks are probably the best selection all around. One major reason for this would be that if one of the trucks broke down, the other would still be able to make service calls.

PROGRAM QUEUES

MARCH 1972 M J MAGGARD

THIS VERSION FOR CDC 3100

DICTIONARY OF VARIABLES

ATTIME	THE HOURS OF SYSTEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL	A	1
ANUM,SNUM	NUMBER OF READS IN ARRIVALS AND SERVICE	A	2
AR(500)	AN ARRAY OF READ IN ARRIVAL TIMES	A	2A
ARR RT,ARR TM	THE ARRIVAL RATE AND TIME	A	3
CH	AN ARRAY OF ARRIVAL AND SERVICE ON FIRST 20 CUSTOMERS	A	4
CIDLE	THE COST OF EYETEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL	A	5
CUMQUE(100)	AN ARRAY WHICH STORES IDLE CUSTOMER HOURS	A	6
COSTS	THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE SERVICE	A	7
COSTA	THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE CUSTOMERS	A	8
CUSERV,KCUS	THE NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS BEING SERVED	A	9
CWAIT	THE COST OF CUSTOMERS HOURS IN QUEUE - TOTAL	A	10
DEP RT,DEP TM	THE SERVICE RATE AND MEAN DURATION	A	11
HRSNQ	THE HOURS OF CUSTOMER TIME IN QUEUE - TOTAL	A	12
I,J	THE CHANNEL NUMBER BEING PROCESSED	A	13
IZ	NUMBER OF ARRIVALS WHICH HAVE OCCURED	A	14
KA,KS	OPTION CODES FOR ARRIVALS AND SERVICE	A	15
N,MAXS	BEGINNING,MAXIMUM NUMBER CHANNELS	A	16
PCUTIL	THE PERCENT UTILIZATION OF THE SERVICE FACILITY	A	17
QUE	THE NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS IN QUEUE AT ANY POINT	A	18
SR(500)	AN ARRAY OF READ IN SERVICE TIMES	A	19
TCOOP	THE TOTAL COST OF THE SYSTEM	A	20
TIME,TTIME	CLOCK TIME,MAX SIMULATION TIME	A	21
TNARV	THE LATEST ARRIVAL TIME	A	22
TNDPR	THE DEPARTURE TIME OF THE LATEST DEPARTURE	A	23
	MAY BE SET ARTIFICIALLY FOR PROGRAM EFFICIENCY	A	24
XMNTN,XMNTX	MEAN WAIT TIME,MEAN NUMBER IN QUE	A	25
AVARRA	AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT	A	26
AVSERV	AVERAGE SERVICE TIME	A	27
AMNIS	MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM	A	28
AMTIS	MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM	A	29
VCOST	TOTAL VARIABLE COST OF OPERATIONS	A	30
VCOSTS	VARIABLE COST PER UNIT	A	31
FCOST	TOTAL FIXED COST OF OPERATIONS	A	32
FCOSTS	FIXED COST PER UNIT	A	33
QSVCT	AN ARRAY OF GUEUED SERVICE TIMES	A	34
KRULE	SCHEDULE RULE CODE (1=RANDOM,2=FCFS,3=SOT)	A	35
COMMON	ILPHA(10),ANUM,ARRRT,ARRTM,CH(20,10),CUMUTL,CUSERV,DEPRT.	A	36
1	DEPTM,I,IUSERV,IZ,KA,KCUS,KS,N,NFLAG,SNUM,STATUS(9),T,	A	37
2	TIME,TTIME,TNARV,TNDPR(9),AVARRA,AVSERV,AMNIS,AMTIS,	A	38
3	VCUST,VCOSTS,FCOST,FCOSTS,KRULE,IQUE,CUMQUE(1:1),	A	39
4	QSVCT(101),AR(500),SR(500)	A	40
COMMON /DATA/ IEND		A	41
DATA (IEND=4HSTOP)		A	42
ISTOP=IEND		A	43
NIN=60		A	44
NOUT=61		A	45
READ AND PRINT USER NAME CARD		A	46
CONTINUE		A	47
READ (NIN,311) ILPHA		A	48
WRITE (NOUT,321) ILPHA		A	49
IF (ILPHA(1).EQ.ISTOP) GO TO 301		A	50
READ AND PRINT ARRIVAL DATA CARD AND SCHEDULE RULE CODE		A	51
READ (NIN,331) KA,ARRRT,CCOSTA,KHULE,ANUM		A	52
WRITE (NOUT,341) KA,ARRRT,COSTA,KHULE		A	53
IF (KA.LT.1) GO TO 291		A	54
IF (KA.GT.4) GO TO 291		A	55
IF (KHULE.LT.1) GO TO 291		A	56
IF (KHULE.GT.1) GO TO 291		A	57
GO TO (21,31,41), KRULE		A	58
CONTINUE		A	59
WRITE (NOUT,351)		A	60
		A	61
		A	62
		A	63
		A	64

PROGRAM QUEUES

MARCH 1972 M J HAGGARD

THIS VERSION FOR CDC 3100

DICTIONARY OF VARIABLES

ARTIME THE HOURS OF SYSTEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL

ANUM,SNUM NUMBER OF READS IN ARRIVALS AND SERVICE

AR(500) AN ARRAY OF READ IN ARRIVAL TIMES

ARR RT,ARR TM THE ARRIVAL RATE AND TIME

CH AN ARRAY OF ARRIVAL AND SERVICE ON FIRST 20 CUSTOMERS

CIDLE THE COST OF SYSTEM IDLE TIME - TOTAL

CUMQUE(100) AN ARRAY WHICH STORES IDLE CUSTOMER HOURS

COSTS THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE SERVICE

COSTA THE COST PER TIME UNIT OF IDLE CUSTOMERS

CUSERV,KCUS THE NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS BEING SERVED

CHAIT THE COST OF CUSTOMERS HOURS IN QUEUE - TOTAL

DEP RT,DEP TM THE SERVICE RATE AND MEAN DURATION

HRSNG THE HOURS OF CUSTOMER TIME IN QUEUE - TOTAL

I,J THE CHANNEL NUMBER BEING PROCESSED

I,Z NUMBER OF ARRIVALS WHICH HAVE OCCURED

KA,KS OPTION CODES FOR ARRIVALS AND SERVICE

N,MAXS BEGINNING,MAXIMUM NUMBER CHANNELS

PCUTIL THE PERCENT UTILIZATION OF THE SERVICE FACILITY

QUE THE NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS IN QUEUE AT ANY POINT

SR(500) AN ARRAY OF READ IN SERVICE TIMES

T,COOP THE TOTAL COST OF THE SYSTEM

TIME,TTIME CLOCK TIME,MAX SIMULATION TIME

TNARV THE LATEST ARRIVAL TIME

TNPR MAY BE SET ARTIFICIALLY FOR PROGRAM EFFICIENCY

XMNTN,XMNTX MEAN WAIT TIME,MEAN NUMBER IN QUE

AVARRA AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT

AVSERV AVERAGE SERVICE TIME

AMNIS MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM

AMTIS MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM

VCOST TOTAL VARIABLE COST OF OPERATIONS

VCOSTS VARIABLE COST PER UNIT

FCOST TOTAL FIXED COST OF OPERATIONS

FCOSTS FIXED COST PER UNIT

QSVCT AN ARRAY OF QUEUED SERVICE TIMES

KRULE SCHEDULE RULE CODE (1=RANDOM,2=FCFS,3=SOT)

COMMON ALPHA(10),ANUM,ARRRT,ARRTM,CH(20,10),CUMUTL,CUSERV,DEPRT,

1 DEPTM,I,IUSERV,I,Z,KA,KCUS,KS,N,AFLAG,SNUM,STATUS(9),T,

2 TIME,TTIME,TNARV,TNPR(9),AVARRA,AVSERV,AMNIS,AMTIS,

3 VCOST,VCOSTS,FCOST,FCOSTS,KRULE,I,QUE,CUMQUE(1:1),

4 QSVCT(10),AR(500),SR(500)

COMMON /DATA/ IEND

DATA (IEND=4*HSTOP)

ISTOP=IEND

NIN=60

NOUT=61

READ AND PRINT USER NAME CARD

CONTINUE

READ (NIN,311) ALPHA

WRITE (NOUT,321) ALPHA

IF (ALPHA(1).EQ.1) GO TO 301

READ AND PRINT ARRIVAL DATA CARD AND SCHEDULE RULE CODE

READ (NIN,331) KA,ARRRT,COSTS,KRULE,ANUM

WRITE (NOUT,341) KA,ARRRT,COSTA,KRULE

IF (KA.LT.1) GO TO 241

IF (KA.GT.4) GO TO 271

IF (KRULE.LT.1) GO TO 241

IF (KRULE.GT.3) GO TO 241

GO TO (21,31,41),KRULE

CONTINUE

WRITE (NOUT,351)

A 1
A 2
A 2A
A 3
A 4
A 5
A 6
A 7
A 8
A 9
A 10
A 11
A 12
A 13
A 14
A 15
A 16
A 17
A 18
A 19
A 20
A 21
A 22
A 23
A 24
A 25
A 26
A 27
A 28
A 29
A 30
A 31
A 32
A 33
A 34
A 35
A 36
A 37
A 38
A 39
A 40
A 41
A 42
A 43
A 44
A 45
A 46
A 47
A 48
A 49
A 50
A 51
A 52
A 53
A 54
A 55
A 56
A 57
A 58
A 59
A 60
A 61
A 62
A 63
A 64

```

      GO TO 51
31 CONTINUE
   WRITE (NOUT,361)
      GO TO 51
41 CONTINUE
   WRITE (NOUT,371)
   READ ARRIVAL STATISTICS
51 CONTINUE
   IF (ANUM.LE.0.0) GO TO 71
   NUM=ANUM
   ARRRT=1.234
   KA=4
   WRITE (NOUT,391) NUM
   IF (ANUM.GT.500.0) GO TO 291
   READ (NIN,381) (AR(I),I=1,NUM)
   WRITE (NOUT,401) (AR(I),I=1,NUM)
   DO 61 I=2,NUM
   J=I-1
   IF (AR(J).GT.AR(I)) GO TO 291
61 CONTINUE
   SET ARRIVAL TIME AT INVERSE OF ARRIVAL RATE
71 CONTINUE
   IF (ARRRT.LE.0.0) GO TO 291
   ARRTM=1.0/ARRRT
   READ AND PRINT SERVICE DATA CARD
   READ (NIN,411) KS,DEPTM,FCOSTS,VCOSTS,SNUM
   WRITE (NOUT,421) KS,DEPTM
   WRITE (NOUT,431) FCOSTS,VCOSTS
   IF (KS.EQ.0) GO TO 291
   IF (KS.GT.4) GO TO 291
   IF (SNUM.LE.0.0) GO TO 91
   NUM=SNUM
   DEPTM=1.234
   KS=4
   WRITE (NOUT,441) NUM
   IF (SNUM.GT.500.0) GO TO 291
   READ (NIN,381) (SR(I),I=1,NUM)
   WRITE (NOUT,401) (SR(I),I=1,NUM)
   DO 81 I=1,NUM
   IF (SR(I).LT.0.0) GO TO 291
81 CONTINUE
   SET SERVICE RATE AT INVERSE OF SERVICE TIME
91 CONTINUE
   IF (DEPTM.LE.0.0) GO TO 291
   DEPRM=1.0/DEPTM
   READ SIMULATION CONTROL CARD AND PRINT
   READ (NIN,451) N,MAXS,TTIME
   WRITE (NOUT,461) N,MAXS,TTIME
   CHECK SIMULATION RUN LIMITS
   IF (N.EQ.0) GO TO 291
   IF (MAXS.LT.N) GO TO 291
   IF (TTIME.LE.0.0) GO TO 291
   END OF INPUT DATA CHECK
   BCOOP=999999.9
   SIMULATION OF A GIVEN NUMBER OF CHANNELS (N) BEGINS HERE
   INITIALIZE SYSTEM FOR NEXT SIMULATION RUN
101 CONTINUE
   TIME=0.0
   TNARV=0.0
   IQUE=1
   CUMUTL=0.0
   CUSERV=0.0
   IZ=0
   KCUS=0
   NFLAG=0
   IUSERV=0

```

```

A 65
A 66
A 67
A 68
A 69
A 70
A 71
A 72
A 73
A 74
A 75
A 76
A 77
A 78
A 79
A 80
A 81
A 82
A 83
A 84
A 85
A 86
A 87
A 88
A 89
A 90
A 91
A 92
A 93
A 94
A 95
A 96
A 97
A 98
A 99
A 100
A 101
A 102
A 103
A 104
A 105
A 106
A 107
A 108
A 109
A 110
A 111
A 112
A 113
A 114
A 115
A 116
A 117
A 118
A 119
A 120
A 121
A 122
A 123
A 124
A 125
A 126
A 127
A 128
A 129
A 130

```

```

SET=RAND(1234567,0)
DO 111 M=1,100
USVCT(M)=0.0
CUMQUE(M)=0.0
111 CONTINUE
C DETERMINE SERVICE TIME FOR THE 1ST ARRIVAL
GO TO (121,131,141,151), KS
C POISSON SERVICE RATE
121 CONTINUE
R=RAND(0,9)
T=ABS(DEPMT*ALOG(R))
GO TO 161
C NEGATIVE EXPONENTIAL SERVICE TIME
131 CONTINUE
R=RAND(0,9)
T=ABS(DEPTM*ALOG(R))
GO TO 161
C CONSTANT SERVICE TIME
141 CONTINUE
T=DEPTM
GO TO 161
C READ IN SERVICE TIME
151 CONTINUE
T=SR(I)
161 CONTINUE
GSVCT(I)=T
DO 171 L=1,N
TNDPR(L)=999999.9
STATUS(L)=0.0
171 CONTINUE
DO 181 I=1,20
DO 181 J=1,10
CH(I,J)=0.0
181 CONTINUE
C PRINT HEADING FOR RESULTS
WRITE (NOUT,471) N
WRITE (NOUT,481)
WRITE (NOUT,491)
C SET FIRST ARRIVAL OCCURANCE AT TIME ZERO
TNARV=0.0
CH(1,1)=0.0
IZ=IZ+1
C MAIN SIMULATION BRANCH POINT
C CHECK EACH CHANNEL IN TURN FOR POSSIBLE DEPARTURE
C IF ALL CHANNELS ARE IDLE (TNDPR = 999999.9) THEN GO TO ARRIVE
C IF ALL CHANNELS ARE BUSY (TNARV IS .GE. TNDPR) THEN GO TO ARRIVE
C IF A DEPART IS NEXT (TNDPR IS .GE. TNARV) THEN GO TO DEPART
C SET AND IVALUE KEEP MULTIPLE DEPARTURES IN CORRECT TIME SEQUENCE
191 CONTINUE
SET=888888.
DO 201 I=1,N
IF (TNDPR(I).GT.TNARV) GO TO 201
IF (TNDPR(I).GT.SET) GO TO 201
SET=TNDPR(I)
IVALUE=I
201 CONTINUE
I=IVALUE
IF (SET.LY.888888.) GO TO 211
CALL ARRIVE
GO TO 191
211 CONTINUE
CALL DEPART
C ON RETURN FROM DEPART CHECK SIMULATION TIME LIMIT
IF (TIME.GT.TIME) GO TO 191
C END OF SIMULATION RUN---PRINT FIRST TWENTY TRIALS
NI=N+1

```

- A 131
- A 132
- A 133
- A 134
- A 135
- A 136
- A 137
- A 138
- A 139
- A 140
- A 141
- A 142
- A 143
- A 144
- A 145
- A 146
- A 147
- A 148
- A 149
- A 150
- A 151
- A 152
- A 153
- A 154
- A 155
- A 156
- A 157
- A 158
- A 159
- A 160
- A 161
- A 162
- A 163
- A 164
- A 165
- A 166
- A 167
- A 168
- A 169
- A 170
- A 171
- A 172
- A 173
- A 174
- A 175
- A 176
- A 177
- A 178
- A 179
- A 180
- A 181
- A 182
- A 183
- A 184
- A 185
- A 186
- A 187
- A 188
- A 189
- A 190
- A 191
- A 192
- A 193
- A 194
- A 195
- A 196


```

      IF (CUSERV.GE.20.0) GO TO 221
      NXX=CUSERV
      GO TO 231
221  CONTINUE
      NXX=20.
231  CONTINUE
      DO 241 I=1,NXX
      WRITE (NOUT,501) (CH(I,J),J=1,N1)
241  CONTINUE
C    COMPUTE HOURS IN QUEUE FOR SUMMARY PRINTOUT
      HRSNQ=0.0
      MAXQUE=0
      DO 261 M=2,100
      IF (CUMQUE(M).EQ.0.0) GO TO 251
      MAXQUE=M-1
251  CONTINUE
      XM=M-1
      HRSNQ=HRSNQ+(XM*CUMQUE(M))
261  CONTINUE
      IF (MAXQUE.LT.99) GO TO 271
      WRITE (NOUT,511)
271  CONTINUE
      IF (NFLAG.NE.76) GO TO 281
      WRITE (NOUT,521)
281  CONTINUE
      XN=N
      IZ=IZ-1
      XIZ=IZ
C    PRINT SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR THIS NUMBER (N) CHANNELS
      WRITE (NOUT,531) IZ,CUSERV,TIME
      WRITE (NOUT,541) MAXQUE
      XMNTX=HRSNQ/TIME
      WRITE (NOUT,551) XMNTX
      XMNTM=HRSNQ/XIZ
      WRITE (NOUT,561) XMNTM
      PCUTIL=((CUMUTL/TIME)*100.)/XN
      WRITE (NOUT,571) PCUTIL
      CWAIT=HRSNQ*COSTA
      AITIME=(TIME*XN)-CUMUTL
C    COMPUTE AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT
      TZ=IZ
      AVARRA=TZ/TIME
      WRITE (NOUT,581) AVARRA
C    COMPUTE AVERAGE SERVICE TIME
      AVSERV=CUMUTL/CUSERV
      WRITE (NOUT,591) AVSERV
C    COMPUTE MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM
      AMNIS=XMNTX+(AVARRA/(1.0/AVSERV))
      WRITE (NOUT,601) AMNIS
C    COMPUTE MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM
      AMTIS=XMNTM+AVSERV
      WRITE (NOUT,611) AMTIS
      WRITE (NOUT,621)
      WRITE (NOUT,631) HRSNQ,COSTA,CWAIT
C    COMPUTE TOTAL VARIABLE COST
      VGCOST = CUSERV*VGCSTS
C    COMPUTE TOTAL FIXED COST
      FCOST=XN*FCOSTS
C    PRINT SUMMARY COST INFORMATION
      WRITE (NOUT,641) CUSERV,VGCSTS,VGCOST
      WRITE (NOUT,651) FCOSTS,N,FCOST
      TCOOP=FCOST+VGCOST+CWAIT
      WRITE (NOUT,661) TCOOP
C    STOP RUN IF TCOOP INCREASED FROM LAST RUN
      IF (TCOOP.GE.BCOOP) GO TO 11
C    STOP RUN IF MAXIMUM NUMBER OF SERVERS REACHED

```

```

A 197
A 198
A 199
A 200
A 201
A 202
A 203
A 204
A 205
A 206
A 207
A 208
A 209
A 210
A 211
A 212
A 213
A 214
A 215
A 216
A 217
A 218
A 219
A 220
A 221
A 222
A 223
A 224
A 225
A 226
A 227
A 228
A 229
A 230
A 231
A 232
A 233
A 234
A 235
A 236
A 237
A 238
A 239
A 240
A 241
A 242
A 243
A 244
A 245
A 246
A 247
A 248
A 249
A 250
A 251
A 252
A 253
A 254
A 255
A 256
A 257
A 258
A 259
A 260
A 261
A 262

```

```

      IF (NORE.MAXS) GO TO 11
      UPDATE NUMBER OF CHANNELS AND CURRENT TOTAL COST
      N=N+1
      SCOP=TCOP
      RETURN FOR NEXT RUN WITH MORE CHANNELS (N)
      GO TO 101
      PRINT OUT DATA ERROR MESSAGE
291 CONTINUE
      WRITE (NOUJ,671)
      WRITE (NOUJ,681)
301 CONTINUE
      WRITE (NOUJ,691)
C
311 FORMAT (10A4)
321 FORMAT (20H1PROGRAM QUEUES FOR ,10A4)
331 FORMAT (11,9X,F5.0,5X,F5.0,5X,11,9X,F3.0)
341 FORMAT (14H0ARRIVAL TYPE ,11,8H RATE = ,F8.2,8H COST = ,F8.2,16H
1-SCHEDULE RULE ,11)
351 FORMAT (54X,8H(RANDOM))
361 FORMAT (55X,6H(FCF5))
371 FORMAT (55X,5H(SUT))
381 FORMAT (12F5.0)
391 FORMAT (1H ,14,28H ARRIVALS READ IN AS FOLLOWS)
401 FORMAT (1H ,12F5.0)
411 FORMAT (11,9X,F5.0,5X,F10.0,F10.0,F3.0)
421 FORMAT (14H0SERVICE TYPE ,11,8H TIME = ,F8.2)
431 FORMAT (14X,13H FIXED COST $,F8.2,9X,14H VARIABLE COST $,F8.2)
441 FORMAT (1H ,14,27H SERVICE READ IN AS FOLLOWS)
451 FORMAT (11,9X,11,9X,F5.0)
461 FORMAT (20H0NO. CHANNELS START ,11,5H MAX ,11,8X,14H MAXI TIME ,F6.
1,0)
471 FORMAT (31H0FIRST TWENTY OCCURRENCES FOR 11,18H SERVICE CHANNE
1LS)
481 FORMAT (18H ARRIVAL,4X,44H-----DEPARTURE TIME,AT (CHANNEL NUMBER--
1-----)
491 FORMAT (14H TIME---,4X,44H ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT
1NINE)
501 FORMAT (1H ,F6.1,3X,9F5.1)
511 FORMAT (10H0***WARNING***QUE EXCEEDED PROGRAM LIMIT OF 99999)
521 FORMAT (14H0***WARNING***OUT OF DATA BEFORE TIME LIMIT)
531 FORMAT (14H0AFTER ,16,8H ARRIVED ,F6.0,7H SERVED ,F6.0,11H TIME IN
1)
541 FORMAT (22H QUEUE-MAXIMUM LENGTH ,8X,17)
551 FORMAT (22H -MEAN LENGTH ,8X,F9.1)
561 FORMAT (22H -MEAN WAIT TIME ,8X,F9.1)
571 FORMAT (22H SERVICE UTILIZATION ,8X,F9.1)
581 FORMAT (32H AVERAGE ARRIVALS PER TIME UNIT ,F10.2)
591 FORMAT (32H AVERAGE SERVICE TIME ,F10.2)
601 FORMAT (32H MEAN NO. IN THE SYSTEM ,F10.2)
611 FORMAT (32H MEAN TIME IN THE SYSTEM ,F10.2)
621 FORMAT (31H0COST INFORMATION OF OPERATIONS)
631 FORMAT (20H COSTS-WAIT IN QUEUE ,F9.1,14H VARIABLE COST
1,F9.2)
641 FORMAT (22H SERVICE COST VARIABLE ,F7.1,11H UNITS ,F7.1,11H
1,F9.2)
651 FORMAT (22H SERVICE COST FIXED ,F7.2,6H WITH ,11,14H CHANNELS
1$ ,F9.2)
661 FORMAT (10H0TOTAL COST OF OPERATIONS ,F7.2,11H UNITS ,F7.2,11H
12)
671 FORMAT (35H0***ERROR IN GUESIM DATA CARDS***
681 FORMAT (35H ***CORRECT DATA AND TRY AGAIN***
691 FORMAT (22H0QUEUES RUN TERMINATED FROM INCREASED COST
END

```

SUBROUTINE ARRIVE

	COMMON ALPHA(10),ANUM,ARRRT,ARRTM,CH(20,10),CUMUTL,CUSERV,DEPRT,	B	2
1	DEPTM,I,IUSERV,IZ,KA,KCUS,KS,N,NFLAG,SNUM,STATUS(9),T,	B	3
2	TIME,TTIME,TNARV,TNDPR(9),AVARRA,AVSERV,AMNIS,AMTIS,	B	4
3	VCUST,VCOSTS,FCOST,FCOSTS,KRULE,IQUE,CUMQUE(101),	B	5
4	QSVCT(101),AR(500),SR(500)	B	6
C	THIS SUBROUTINE CALLED WHEN AN ARRIVAL IS THE NEXT OCCURANCE	B	7
C	IT UPDATES THE TIME SPENT IN QUE	B	8
C	IT UPDATES THE CLOCK TO THE TIME OF THE NEW ARRIVEL (PREVIOUSLY	B	9
C	SELECTED)	B	10
C	IT CHECKS EACH CHANNEL TO SEE IF THE NEW ARRIVEL CAN BEGIN SERVICE	B	11
C	IF A CHANNEL IS AVAILABLE IT DOES THE FIRST PART OF THE	B	12
C	DEPART PROCESSING OTHERWISE IT ADDS ONE TO THE QUE	B	13
C	LASTLY, IT SELECTS THE TIME FOR THE NEXT ARRIVAL TO OCCUR	B	14
	IF (IQUE.LT.100) GO TO 11	B	15
C	CHECK LENGTH OF QUE, IF OVER 99 HOLD AT 99	B	16
	IQUE=100	B	17
C	UPDATE HOURS SPENT IN QUEUE	B	18
11	CONTINUE	B	19
	CUMQUE(IQUE)=CUMQUE(IQUE)+TNARV-TIME	B	20
C	UPDATE CLOCK TIME TO NEXT ARRIVAL	B	21
	TIME=TNARV	B	22
C	CHECK EACH CHANNEL. IF STATUS = 0 IT IS AVAILABLE	B	23
	DO 61 J=1,N	B	24
	IF (STATUS(J).GT.0.0) GO TO 51	B	25
C	DO FIRST PART OF THE DEPART PROCESSING	B	26
	STATUS(J)=1.0	B	27
C	SET TIME OF NEXT DEPARTURE	B	28
	TNDPR(J)=TIME+QSVCT(1)	B	29
C	STORE FIRST TWENTY DEPARTURE TIMES IN CH	B	30
	KCUS=KCUS+1	B	31
	IF (KCUS.GT.20) GO TO 21	B	32
	II=J+1	B	33
21	CH(KCUS,II)=TNDPR(J)	B	34
	CONTINUE	B	35
C	CHECK IF OUT OF SIMULATION TIME	B	36
	IF (TIME.LT.TNDPR(J)) GO TO 31	B	37
C	ACCUMULATE PROCESSING TIME	B	38
	CUMUTL=CUMUTL+QSVCT(1)	B	39
	CUSERV=CUSERV+1.0	B	40
	GO TO 41	B	41
C	END OF SIMULATION UPDATING	B	42
C	LAST DEPARTURE FORCED OUT AT TTIME	B	43
31	CONTINUE	B	44
	TK=QSVCT(1)-(TNDPR(J)-TTIME)	B	45
	IF (TK.GT.0.0) GO TO 41	B	46
	TK=0.	B	47
41	CONTINUE	B	48
	TNDPR(J)=TTIME	B	49
	CUMUTL=CUMUTL+TK	B	50
	GO TO 41	B	51
51	CONTINUE	B	52
	IF (J.GE.N) GO TO 71	B	53
61	CONTINUE	B	54
C	ALL CHANNELS ARE BUSY, ADD ONE TO THE QUE	B	55
71	CONTINUE	B	56
	IQUE=IQUE+1	B	57
C	SELECT ARRIVAL TIME (STORE FIRST TWENTY IN CH)	B	58
81	CONTINUE	B	59
	GO TO (91,101,111,121), KA	B	60
C	POISSON ARRIVAL TIME DISTRIBUTION	B	61
91	CONTINUE	B	62
	R=RAND(0,0)	B	63
	TNARV=ABS(ARRTM*ALOG(R))	B	64
	TNARV=TNARV+TIME	B	65
	GO TO 141	B	66
C	NEGATIVE EXPO ARRIVAL TIME DISTRIBUTION	B	67

```

101 CONTINUE
R=RAND(1000)
TNARV=ABS(ARRRT*ALOG(R))
TNARV=TNARV*TIME
GO TO 141
C CONSTANT ARRIVAL TIME
111 CONTINUE
TNARV=TIME*ARRTM
GO TO 141
C READ IN ARRIVAL TIMES
121 CONTINUE
NUM=ANUM
IZQG=IZ+1
IF (IZQG.LE.NUM) GO TO 131
ARR(IZQG)=777777.
NFLAG=76
131 CONTINUE
TNARV=AN(IZQG)
141 CONTINUE
IZ=IZ+1
IF (IZ.GT.20) GO TO 151
CH(IZ)=TNARV
C BEGIN LOGIC TO STORE ARRIVAL AND SERVICE TIMES IN QUEUE ARRAYS
C FOR EACH WAITING CUSTOMER/PRODUCT
C DETERMINE SERVICE TIME FOR THE NEW ARRIVAL
151 CONTINUE
GO TO (161,171,181,191),K5
C POISSON SERVICE RATE
161 CONTINUE
R=RAND(1000)
T=ABS(DEPR1*ALOG(R))
GO TO 211
C NEGATIVE EXPONENTIAL SERVICE TIME
171 CONTINUE
R=RAND(1000)
T=ABS(DEPTM*ALOG(R))
GO TO 211
C CONSTANT SERVICE TIME
181 CONTINUE
T=DEPTM
GO TO 211
C READ-IN SERVICE TIME
191 CONTINUE
NUM=SNUM
IF (IZ.LE.NUM) GO TO 201
NFLAG=76
T=666666.
GO TO 211
201 CONTINUE
T=SR(IZ)
211 CONTINUE
QSVCT(IQUE)=T
C IF ONLY ONE IN QUE - NO SCHEDULING NECESSARY
IF (IQUE.LE.2) GO TO 241
IQUE=IQUE
C USE SCHEDULE RULE TO REORDER THE QUEUE FOR PROCESSING
C KRULE = 1 FOR RANDOM
C KRULE = 2 FOR FCFS
C KRULE = 3 FOR SOT
GO TO (231,241,221), KRULE
C SOT SCHEDULE RULE
221 CONTINUE
IF (IQUE.LE.2) GO TO 241
IF (QSVCT(IQUE).GE.QSVCT(IQUE-1)) GO TO 241
QTS=QSVCT(IQUE-1)
QSVCT(IQUE-1)=QSVCT(IQUE)

```

```

R 68
R 69
R 70
R 71
R 72
R 73
R 74
R 75
R 76
R 77
R 78
R 79
R 80
R 81
R 82
R 83
R 84
R 85
R 86
R 87
R 88
R 89
R 90
R 91
R 92
R 93
R 94
R 95
R 96
R 97
R 98
R 99
R 100
R 101
R 102
R 103
R 104
R 105
R 106
R 107
R 108
R 109
R 110
R 111
R 112
R 113
R 114
R 115
R 116
R 117
R 118
R 119
R 120
R 121
R 122
R 123
R 124
R 125
R 126
R 127
R 128
R 129
R 130
R 131
R 132
R 133

```

41

B 134
B 135
B 136
B 137
B 138
B 139
B 140
B 141
B 142
B 143
B 144
B 145
B 146
B 147
B 148
B 149

```

QSVCT(IQQ)=QTS
IQQ=IQQ-1
GO TO 221
RANDOM SCHEDULE RULE
231 CONTINUE
    QI=IQUE
    IQQ=(RAND(0,99)*QI)
    IQQ=IQQ+1
    IF (IQQ.LE.1) GO TO 241
    QTS=QSVCT(IQUE)
    QSVCT(IQUE)=QSVCT(IQQ)
    QSVCT(IQQ)=QTS
241 CONTINUE
    QUEUE IS SCHEDULED - RETURN
    RETURN
    END
  
```

```

SUBROUTINE DEPART
COMMON ALPHA(10),ANUM,ARRRT,ARRTM,CH(20,10),CUMUTL,CUSERV,DEPRT,
1  DEPTM,I,IUSERV,IZ,KA,KCUS,KS,N,NFLAG,SNUM,STATUS(9),T,
2  TIME,TTIME,TNARV,TNDPR(9),AVARRA,AVSERV,AMNIS,AMTIS,
3  VCUST,VCOSTS,FCOST,FCOSTS,KRULE,IQUE,CUMQUE(101),
4  QSVCT(101),AK(500),SR(500)
THIS SUBROUTINE PROCSSSES THE DEPARTURE OF EVERY CUSTOMER
IT UPDATES THE HOURS SPENT IN THE QUE
IT UPDATES THE CLOCK TO THE NEXT DEPARTURE TIME (PREVIOUSLY
SELECTED)
IT CHECKS THE LENGTH OF THE QUE
IF NO ONE IN THE QUE IT SETS THE CHANNEL AT AN IDLE STATUS (THIS
DEPARTURE WAS PREVIOUSLY PARTIALLY PROCESSED EITHER AT
ARRIVE OR BY A PRIOR PASS THROUGH DEPART)
IF A QUE EXIST THEN TAKE ONE FROM QUE, ITS DEPARTURE TIME,
SET THE CHANNEL AT A BUSY STATUS AND RETURN
CHECK LENGTH OF QUE, IF OVER 99 HOLD AT 99
IF (IQUE.LT.100) GO TO 11
IQUE=IQQ
UPDATE THE HOURS SPENT IN QUEUE
11 CONTINUE
CUMQUE(IQUE)=CUMQUE(IQUE)+TNDPR(I)-TIME
UPDATE THE CLOCK TO NEXT DEPARTURE TIME
TIME=TNDPR(I)
IF (IQUE.GT.1) GO TO 21
THIS SECTION COMPLETES THE PROCESSING OF A CUSTOMER
WHEN NO ONE IS WAITING IN THE QUE
STATUS(1)=0.0
TNDPR(I)=999999.9
RETURN
THIS SECTION DOES THE DEPART PROCESSING
WHEN THE CHANNEL HAS BEEN BUSY
SET NEXT DEPARTURE TIME
21 CONTINUE
TNDPR(I)=TIME+QSVCT(1)
STORE FIRST TWENTY DEPARTURE TIMES IN CH
KCUS=KCUS+1
IF (KCUS.GT.20) GO TO 31
II=I+1
CH(KCUS,II)=TNDPR(I)
31 CONTINUE
CHECK IF OUT OF SIMULATION TIME
IF (ITIME.LT.TNDPR(I)) GO TO 51
RESET STATUS BACK TO BUSY AND RETURN
CUMUTL=CUMUTL+QSVCT(1)
CUSERV=CUSERV+1.0
STATUS(1)=1.0
SHIFT SERVICE QUEUE UP ONE POSITION
DO 41 II=1,IQUE
  
```

C 1
C 2
C 3
C 4
C 5
C 6
C 7
C 8
C 9
C 10
C 11
C 12
C 13
C 14
C 15
C 16
C 17
C 18
C 19
C 20
C 21
C 22
C 23
C 24
C 25
C 26
C 27
C 28
C 29
C 30
C 31
C 32
C 33
C 34
C 35
C 36
C 37
C 38
C 39
C 40
C 41
C 42
C 43
C 44
C 45
C 46
C 47
C 48
C 49

```

      III=II+1
      QSVCT(II)=QSVCT(III)
41  CONTINUE
      QSVCT(IQUE)=0.0
C   SUBTRACT ONE FROM QUE
      IQUE=IQUE-1
      RETURN
C   ADJUST T AND CUMUL AT TERMINATION OF SIMULATION
C   LAST CUSTOMER FORCED TO DEPART AT TTIME
51  CONTINUE
      TK=QSVCT(II)-(TNDPR(II)-TTIME)
      IF (TK.GT.0.0) GO TO 61
      TK=0.
61  CONTINUE
      TNDPR(II)=TTIME
      CUMUTL=CUMUTL+TK
      STATUS(II)=1.0
      RETURN
      END

      FUNCTION RAND (K, KK)
C   MACHINE DEPENDENT RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR (0 TO 1)
C   THIS VERSION FOR CDC 3100
C   K SET AT POSITIVE ODD INTEGER TO INITIALIZE
C   K SET AT ZERO TO CONTINUE STRING OF RANDOM NUMBERS
C   SEE NAYLOR, COMPUTER SIMULATION TECHNIQUES, WILEY & SONS, 1966
      IF (K) 21,21,11
11  CONTINUE
      R=R
      NN=N
      NNN=N
21  CONTINUE
      IF (KK) 31,31,61
31  CONTINUE
      N=N+2051
      IF (N) 41,51,51
41  CONTINUE
      N=N+8388607*1
51  CONTINUE
      XN=N
      RAND=XN/8388607.
      RETURN
C   POSITIVE KK RUNS SECOND STRING OF RANDOM NUMBERS
61  CONTINUE
      IF (KK-50) 71,71,101
71  CONTINUE
      NN=NN+2151
      IF (NN) 81,91,91
81  CONTINUE
      NN=NN+8388607*1
91  CONTINUE
      XNN=NN
      RAND=XNN/8388607.
      RETURN
C   KK OVER 5 RUNS THIRD STRING OF RANDOM NUMBERS
101 CONTINUE
      NNN=NNN*2.51
      IF (NNN) 111,121,121
111 CONTINUE
      NNN=NNN+8388607*1
121 CONTINUE
      XNNN=NNN
      RAND=XNNN/8388607.
      RETURN
      END

```

```

C 50
C 51
C 52
C 53
C 54
C 55
C 56
C 57
C 58
C 59
C 60
C 61
C 62
C 63
C 64
C 65
C 66
C 67
C 68-

0 1
0 2
0 3
0 4
0 5
0 6
0 7
0 8
0 9
0 10
0 11
0 12
0 13
0 14
0 15
0 16
0 17
0 18
0 19
0 20
0 21
0 22
0 23
0 24
0 25
0 26
0 27
0 28
0 29
0 30
0 31
0 32
0 33
0 34
0 35
0 36
0 37
0 38
0 39
0 40
0 41
0 42
0 43
0 44
0 45-

```



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

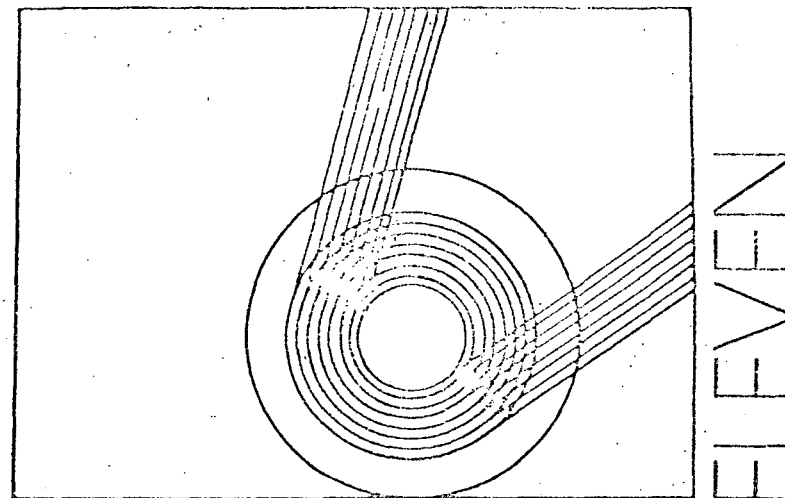
CASOS DE APLICACIONES NO-MATEMATICAS

ING. LUIS CORDERO BORBOA

30 MARZO, 1979



- IF ((A LE B) .OR. (B GT C)) GO TO 43
 cause a transfer of control to the statement number 43?
- (a) A = 25.0, B = 30.0, C = 15.5
 (b) A = 25.0, B = 23.0, C = 15.5
 (c) A = 25.0, B = 23.0, C = 25.5
 (d) A = 6.0, B = 26.0, C = 27.5
- 25 Modify the program in Fig. 10.18 so that razors are sent to families where the answer to question 3 is No and there are two or more males in the family. Test your program.
- 26 Modify the program in Fig. 10.18 so that razors are sent if the answer to question 3 is Yes and four times the number of males over 16 plus two times the number of women over 16 is greater than 15.



NONNUMERICAL ALGORITHMS, FILES, AND DATA STRUCTURES

The use of computers extends through almost every part of our modern lives. The largest usage of computers is, however, in the worlds of business and government. Keeping records (bookkeeping) is always an important part of running a business, and this extends to the business of running the government. For that matter, one of the largest uses of computers by the military is in logistics, which is the control of supplies. Computers also perform such functions as inventory control in factories and warehouses, processing checks and calculating balances in banks, and managing airline and train reservations, and they take part in just about every aspect of business record maintenance. Computers also play major roles in process control and the automation of manufacturing, scheduling of production in factories, monitoring patients after surgery, scheduling aircraft maintenance, and assisting management in making decisions by gathering and calculating statistics on items of interest.

Important applications in science include work in psychology, biology, medicine, and the social sciences in general. Probably no other part of the computer business is growing as fast as the work in these areas, and the potential gain for mankind is truly staggering.

Just as business management finds it advantageous to be able to

process data and gather statistics in business transactions, medical researchers find an important application in gathering statistics on the effects of drugs when used in treating patients. Similarly, biologists and chemists now use the data processing capabilities of computers to gather statistics for their work and to model systems of interest, molecular structures, for instance.

There is an important difference in the use of the computer in business data processing and in most scientific applications. This difference arises from the fact that business data processing generally involves maintaining large files of data while performing relatively few calculations on individual data items. In scientific computing the computer is generally called on to perform many calculations on a relatively small number of input data. Nevertheless, the same computers are used in both application areas (although some computers are better suited to scientific applications and others to business data processing).

The Fortran language was not specifically designed for business data processing applications, although it is often used for this purpose, particularly for smaller systems. The Cobol language was designed especially for data handling and has been the most widely used language of this type, to date. (An official ANSI Cobol is used by the government and many businesses.) Cobol has very limited computational abilities, however, and is rarely used in science and in other applications where much numerical work is called for. A new language, PL/1, developed by IBM, has both business data processing features and a Fortran-like ability to perform numerical calculations (as well as some features for character string handling). The language PL/1 is gaining in popularity, and some manufacturers other than IBM are now providing PL/1 compilers. (PL/1 is a very large language, and a complete compiler is of some size.)

11.1 FILE MAINTENANCE

Since large businesses and governments tend to have large files to maintain, large memories and sophisticated filing techniques are called for. Similarly, scientists who gather data sometimes establish large files of data. As an extreme example, consider the work in automated libraries and information retrieval systems which maintain bibliographic files containing hundreds of millions of items. In these systems it is possible to search millions of abstracts for key items in minutes. It was, in fact, a need for special types of files with extraordinary maintenance procedures which led workers in the field of artificial intelligence to develop certain of the most interesting data structures, which will be described.

When discussing file maintenance, it is useful to define certain terms more carefully. An *item* is an individual piece of information. A *record* is composed of all the items in a file relating to the same object or individual. A collection of related items is called a *file*.

	Automobile			Owner			
	License	Make	Year	Name	Street Address	Town	State
	119-606	Plymouth	1968	J. F. Jones	19 Carey Ave.	Woburn	Mass.
Entries	192-731	Mercury	1973	F. R. Jackson	18 Knoll St.	Belmont	Mass.
in file	473-842	Corvair	1974	J. P. French	163 Kernel St.	Concord	Mass.
	972-167	Cadillac	1974	F. M. Mayo	462 April Ave.	Bedford	Mass.

Note: Each row is a complete record consisting of seven items: (1) the license number, (2) the make of the car, (3) the year of manufacture, (4) the name of the owner, (5) the owner's street address, (6) the town in which the owner resides, (7) the state in which the owner resides.

Figure 11.1 A section of a file

Examples will help clarify these definitions. An *item* might be a name, such as "John M. Jones," or an age, such as "29," or a marital status, such as "M" or "S," or an address, such as "39 Rhodes Avenue, Newton, Iowa." A *record* would then be the set of all items for John M. Jones, which would be John M. Jones, 29, M, 39 Rhodes Avenue, Newton, Iowa. A collection of records such as the above would constitute a file. Figure 11.1 shows a small portion of a typical file for a department of motor vehicles.

Large files can consist of from hundreds of thousands to millions of records, each record containing several items. Consider the files of the Bureau of Census or Internal Revenue Service or the files of any major insurance company. Because of the size of these files, they must be maintained on such storage media as magnetic tape or cards or even, for instance, on microfilm. The maintenance of these files requires considerable work, since they must be continually updated. Further, in order for the files to be really useful, it must be possible to acquire data of a specified class from the files with minimal search time.

In order to maintain large files and to search them effectively for specified records or items in a particular class, these must be carefully designed with regard to their organization.

The term *data structure* refers to the method used for organizing data and the resulting interrelations between the data items and their addresses or identifiers so that an efficient computer implementation results. Data structures form an important area in computer science, as do the algorithms for maintaining and using them.

11.2 OPERATIONS ON FILES

Large files must be continually maintained. This primarily consists of adding new records to the file, deleting old records, and modifying records already in the file. In performing these operations and in locating and

processing data in the files, it is generally efficient to maintain the records in the file in some prescribed order rather than simply adding new items at the end, closing up "holes" when items are deleted, etc.

In order to see the need for ordering the items in a file, consider the way we find a name in a telephone book. If the names in a telephone book were not ordered, we would have to start at page 1 and search the book a name at a time. Since, however, we know last names are arranged in alphabetic order, we can guess at the location of a name, open the book to that point, and see if we have made a good guess or if we need to move forward or backward in the book. Contrast the small amount of hunting necessary to locate a name in a telephone book with the effort required to find a name in a novel or some other book where it is necessary to search at random.

Arranging a given file in a prescribed order is called *sorting* the file. Generally some particular item in each record is chosen (such as last name, social security number, part number), and the file is sorted by arranging the records in the file so that the selected items are in the prescribed order. The selected item is called a *key*, and the file is said to be *sorted on the key*.

For practical purposes, sorting in a computer generally consists of arranging the records by ordering the keys in ascending (or sometimes descending) numerical order. When alphanumeric characters are used in the key, each character will, in actual practice, consist of several binary digits, and the complete set of binary digits in a given key can be considered a binary number. By then arranging the binary numbers for the keys in numerically ascending order, we can "sort on the key." [The order in which an alphanumeric code causes the characters in the code to be arranged when they are in ascending numerical (binary) order is called the *collating sequence* for the code.]

Since sorting is such an important function in file maintenance, many algorithms have been invented for it, and several of them are examined in the following sections.

Another important operation is that of *searching*. When a particular record or a set of records with some specific characteristic in a file is required, searching the file is necessary. The simplest form of a search is the *linear search* where the records are examined one at a time in order. This is time-consuming for most memories but is natural for tape memories. If a file has been sorted, the most efficient *binary search* can be used. Some aspects of the search problem are examined in following sections.

A most interesting and important aspect of files involves the ways in which the data are stored in the file and the overall organization of the file structure. There are, in fact, many ways to organize a file in a memory, and some are examined in the final sections of this chapter.

11.3 SORTING AND MERGING

An important operation in maintaining business and other information system files consists of sorting a file on a selected key. As was mentioned previously, the sorting places the records in the file in an order so that the key items in the records are in nondescending order. If no two records in the file have the same value for the key (for instance, if the key was a social security number in a personnel file), the records would be arranged with the keys in ascending order. In an actual file consisting of many records each containing several items, sorting the file would involve moving the entire records around (or at least pointers to the records—as will be discussed later). The actual sorting is generally done on an array of the values of the key, however, as this is more efficient, and the records can be moved after the new arrangement for the keys has been found. In fact, for most large files it is necessary to keep the file on some mass storage device such as magnetic tape, and to sort the file in stages, moving portions of the file from and into the mass storage devices. Our concern will be with the sorting process only; excellent descriptions of file maintenance procedures for mass storage devices will be found in several of the references.

Chapters 3 and 7 have already presented an algorithm and subprogram for sorting an array so that the elements are in nondescending order. The existence of this algorithm is assurance that we can sort an array into nondescending order; the remaining questions concern the efficiency of the sorting technique.

In order to examine sorting techniques, we limit the problem to that of sorting an array M with integer values $M(1), M(2), \dots, M(N)$ so that $M(I)$ is less than or equal to $M(J)$ when I is less than J .

Perhaps the most natural or intuitive way to sort such an array is to search through the set of values in the array and find the smallest value, call this value $M(K)$, then place this value in $M(1)$ by exchanging this $M(K)$ with $M(1)$. Next examine $M(2), M(3), \dots, M(N)$ and find the smallest element, call this element $M(J)$, and place this element in $M(2)$ by exchanging $M(2)$ and $M(J)$.

These steps are repeated for $M(3), M(4)$, and so on until $M(N-1)$ and $M(N)$ are finally compared and arranged.

The above description details the procedure generally used by people when arranging a bridge hand or when sorting a deck of index cards into order. A flow chart for the algorithm is shown in Fig. 11.2, and a Fortran subprogram is in Fig. 11.3.

Examination of the flow chart and the program indicates that there is an outer and inner loop in the algorithm. For an array with N elements, the outer loop is performed $N-1$ times; the first time the smallest of element $M(1), M(2), \dots, M(N)$ is found and moved into $M(1)$, the final time the smallest of $M(N-1)$ and $M(N)$ is found and moved into $M(N-1)$.

The inner loop in the algorithm sequences through the set of elements

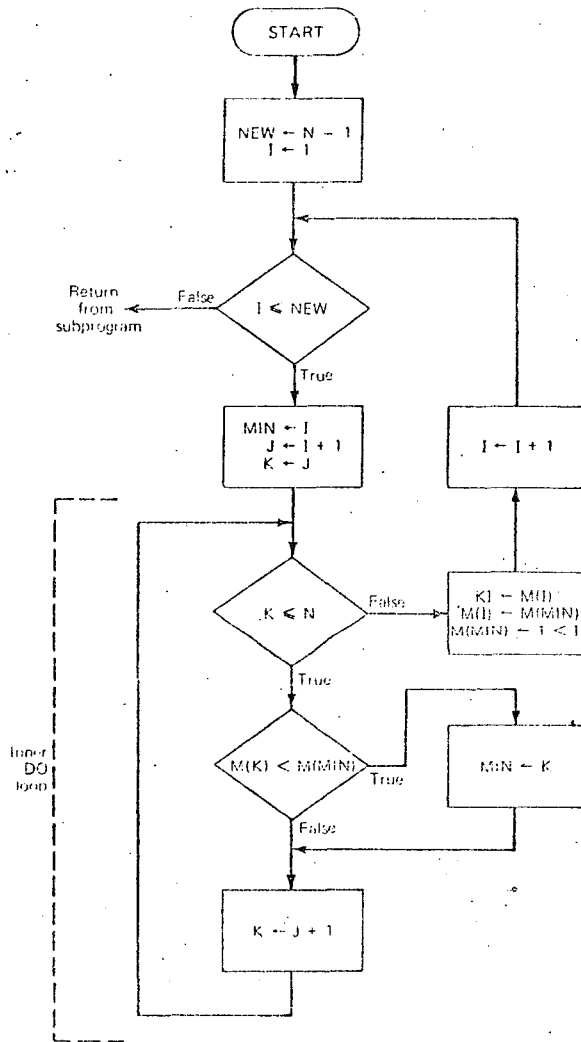


Figure 11.2 Flow chart of a replacement sort. An array called M of N elements is sorted

under consideration, determining the smallest of them, and moving this element into the correct position.

In order to evaluate the efficiency of this algorithm, we count the number of passes which are made through the inner loop. Let us set N equal to 10

we have an array of 10 elements. First the algorithm examines $M(1)$, $M(2)$, ..., $M(10)$, finding the smallest and placing it in position $M(1)$. This requires nine passes through the inner "comparison" loop. Then the algorithm examines $M(2)$, $M(3)$, ..., $M(10)$, finding the smallest element, which involves eight passes through the inner loop. We now see the basic pattern: on the third pass through the outer loop seven passes will be made through the inner loop; on the fourth pass through the outer loop, five passes will be made through the inner loop; and on the final ninth pass through the outer loop one pass will be made through the inner loop. Thus, the algorithm requires $9 + 8 + 7 + 6 + \dots + 2 + 1$ passes through the inner loop, that is, 45 passes.

The general case is as follows. To sort an array of N elements, the algorithm makes $N - 1$ passes through the outer loop. The first pass requires $N - 1$ passes through the inner loop; the second pass through the outer loop requires $N - 2$ passes through the inner loop; and this pattern continues until on the final or $(N - 1)$ st pass through the outer loop, when one pass is required through the inner loop. Thus, we arrive at the following sum for the number of passes through the inner loop: $(N - 1) + (N - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1$.

Then let us call P the value of the above sum. Now, $P = N(N - 1)/2$ or, written another way,

$$P = \frac{N^2 - N}{2}$$

This sum grows very quickly as N becomes larger. For instance, for $N = 100$ the value of P is 4,950, but for $N = 1,000$ the value of P is 499,500.

¹This can be shown as follows. The average value in the sum $(N - 1) + (N - 2) + \dots + 1$ is $[(N - 1) + 1]/2$, which is also $N/2$, and there are $N - 1$ terms, so the sum has value $N/2 \cdot N - 1$ or $[N(N - 1)]/2$.

```

SUBROUTINE SORT(M,N)
  DIMENSION M(100)
  NEW=N-1
  DO 3 I=1,NEW
    SELECT THE ELEMENT M(I) AS A POSSIBLE SMALLEST
    MIN=I
    C SEARCH ARRAY FOR SMALLEST VALUE
    J=I+1
    DO 5 K=J,N
      IF (M(K) .LT. M(MIN)) MIN=K
    5 CONTINUE
    C EXCHANGE THE SMALLEST WITH M(I)
    KI=M(I)
    M(I)=M(MIN)
    M(MIN)=KI
    3 RETURN
  END
  
```

Figure 11.3 Subprogram for replacement sort. M is the array to be sorted and N is the number of elements in the array M .

Another sorting algorithm which resembles the above but which can be more efficient on the average is the "bubble sort." When the bubble sort is used, comparisons are made only between *adjacent* elements in the array, and the elements are exchanged if they are out of order. In the first pass of a bubble sort to sort an array M of N elements, $M(1)$ is compared with $M(2)$ and if $M(2)$ is smaller, they are exchanged. Then $M(2)$ is compared with $M(3)$, and the elements are swapped if they are out of order. This is continued until $M(N-1)$ is finally compared with $M(N)$, and a swap made if necessary. During the second pass the same general procedure is followed except only adjacent items from $M(1)$ to $M(N-1)$ are considered; on the third pass $M(1)$ to $M(N-2)$ is considered, and on the final pass only $M(1)$ and $M(2)$ are compared. When this sort is used, larger items float down and small items "bubble up," hence the name. A subprogram to implement this sort is shown in Fig. 11.4.

The subprogram in Fig. 11.4 has an additional feature, which can improve its efficiency. Each time a pass is made through the section of the array being examined by the outer loop, a test is made, and if no exchanges are made, the program discontinues its sort, for the array is already in non-descending order. The test is made by setting the variable of "flag" J to 0 each time the outer loop is entered and then setting J equal to 1 if an exchange is made in the inner loop. A test at the end of the outer loop determines if an exchange has been made; if not, the program returns to the calling program; if an exchange is made, the program continues.

In the worst case (when the array is originally in descending order) it can be shown that this program requires $N(N-1)/2$ passes through the inner loop. However, in the best case (if the array is already in the correct

```

SUBROUTINE SORT(M,N)
DIMENSION M(100)
NEW=N-1
DO 10 I=1,NEW
  J=0
C   SET A FLAG TO SEE IF EXCHANGES OCCUR
  IFLAG=0
  DO 5 K=1,J
    KI=K+1
    IF (M(K) .LE. M(KI)) GO TO 5
C   EXCHANGE THE TWO ELEMENTS AND SET THE FLAG
    KSWAP=M(KI)
    M(KI)=M(K)
    M(K)=KSWAP
    IFLAG=1
  5  CONTINUE
C   SEE IF EXCHANGES HAVE BEEN MADE BY TESTING IFLAG
  IF (IFLAG .EQ. 0) GO TO 10
  10 CONTINUE
  15 CONTINUE
  RETURN
END

```

Figure 11.4 Subprogram for bubble sort

order) the program requires only $N-1$ passes through the inner loop. In general, this program exploits the tendency of lists to be already somewhat ordered; thus, as a result, for large values of N the program tends to be more efficient than the previous algorithm.

The sorting of files is so important in business and information processing that many studies have been made of sorting algorithms and many algorithms have been invented. In programming languages such as Cobol there is a SORT operation on a file which is a subprogram in the system just as SINE, COSINE, SQUARE ROOT, and other functions are provided in Fortran.

The studies of file-sorting techniques show that the number of operations required grows approximately as N^2 divided by some constant for "interchange sorting algorithms" such as those mentioned. More sophisticated sorting techniques such as "radix sorts" and "merge sorts" require NK times some constant number of operations or $N^{1.5}$ times some constant operations, where N is the number of elements and K is the number of bits in each element. These sorting techniques require more complicated programs, with the result that they are generally not used for small numbers of elements.

More detailed introductions can be found in the book by Flores and the paper by W. A. Martin listed in the Bibliography.

For a really comprehensive treatment of sorting techniques the reader is referred to volume 3 in the series of books by Knuth which devotes nearly 400 pages to this subject. It is very difficult to evaluate mathematically many of the more complicated sorting techniques, and so quite often the algorithms are programmed, sample arrays (or lists) are sorted, and the results evaluated.[†] The book by Rich analyzes a number of the best sorting techniques by programming and evaluating the time required, storage required, and other factors for a number of sample problems.

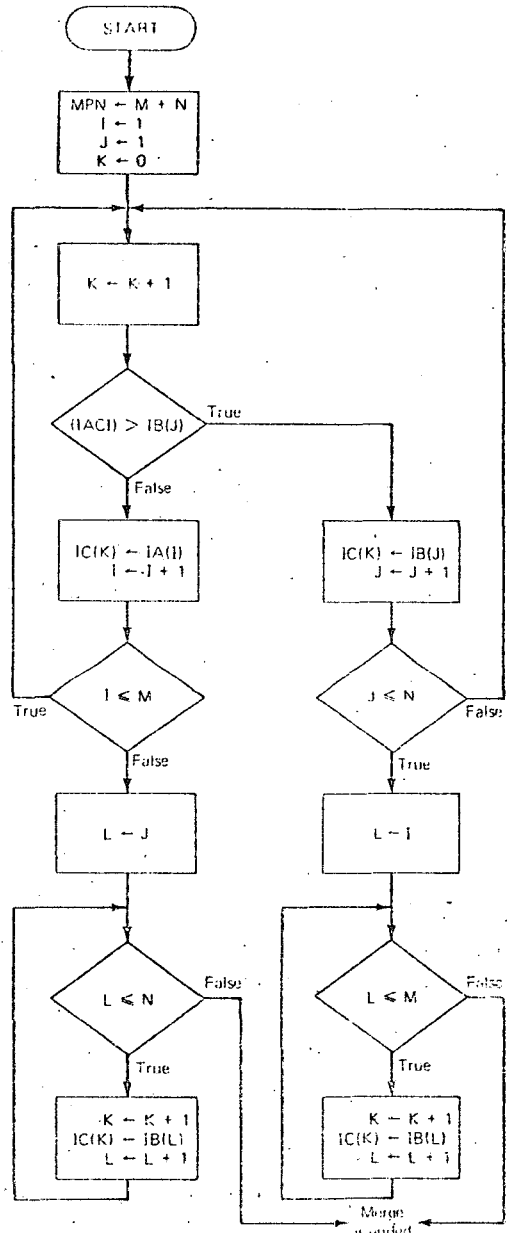
Another important operation in maintaining files is that of *merging*. Two sets are said to be merged when they are combined into a single set; however, if the two sets have been ordered by sorting in ascending (or non-descending) order, the resulting set of items must also be sorted in ascending (or non-descending) order.

In order to study the merging operation, we shall again restrict ourselves to internal merging rather than merging files on tapes (the files could be copied into the core memory, if they are not too large). Let us consider two arrays of integers $M1$ and $M2$, with $M1$ having $K1$ elements and $M2$ having $K2$ elements. The arrays $M1$ and $M2$ are assumed to be sorted in non-descending order, and we wish to develop an array $M3$ with $K1 + K2$ elements which is sorted in non-descending order.

The first step in the algorithm is to compare $M1(1)$ with $M2(1)$ and place

[†] This book describes such sorts (giving Fortran programs) as the "monkey puzzle sort" and the "four-

5



Note: This algorithm merges two sorted arrays IA and IB, with M and N elements, respectively, into an array IC with M + N elements.

Figure 11.5 Flow chart of merge algorithm

```

SUBROUTINE MERGE(IA, IB, IC, M, N, MPN)
DIMENSION IA(100), IB(100), IC(100)
MPN=M+N
I=1
J=1
K=0
5  K=K+1
   IF (IA(I) .GT. IB(J)) GO TO 10
   IC(K)=IB(J)
   I=I+1
   IF (I .LE. M) GO TO 5
C  ARRAY IA IS EXHAUSTED WE LOAD THE REST OF IB
  DO 15 L=J,N
   K=K+1
15  IC(K)=IB(L)
   GO TO 20
10  IC(K)=IB(J)
   J=J+1
   IF (J .LE. N) GO TO 5
C  ARRAY IB IS EXHAUSTED SO THE REMAINDER OF IA IS LOADED
  DO 25 L=I,M
   K=K+1
25  IC(K)=IA(L)
20  CONTINUE
   RETURN
   END
    
```

Figure 11.6 Subprogram for merge algorithm

the smaller of the two in M3(1). If the item M1(1) is selected, we then consider M1(2) and M2(1), placing the smaller in M3(2); if M2(1) was selected in the preceding step, we consider M1(1) and M2(2), placing the smaller in M3(2). This basic process continues with M1(I) being compared with M2(J) at each step until we reach the end of either M1 or M2 [that is, we select either M1(K1) or M2(K2)]. When this occurs, the remaining elements in the other array are simply copied into the remainder of M3.

Figure 11.5 shows a flow chart for this algorithm, and Fig. 11.6 shows a Fortran subprogram to merge two arrays. (Languages such as Cobol provide MERGE subprograms in their basic library, and a programmer can simply write MERGE A AND B rather than writing his own subprogram.)

The exercises at the end of the chapter investigate the efficiency of the above program as well as show a short program for merging arrays with a special STOP element in the last position.

A *merge sort* is a sorting algorithm which breaks sets of elements into subsets, sorts the subsets, and then merges these sorted subsets. By dividing the original set of elements into an appropriate number of subsets, so that the sorting is efficient, and then depending on the natural efficiency of merging, an efficient sorting algorithm can be obtained. The exercises develop this procedure. Knuth's book as well as several of the others in the Bibliography also treat this sorting procedure in detail.

11.4 SEARCHING A FILE

Probably the most frequently performed operation in business or information systems is that of searching the files for elements which satisfy some specified condition. The condition specified ranges from equality—for instance, "Find the record of the person with social security number 972-85-36,"—to "Produce a list of the parts in our inventory which cost more than \$45." In any case, a file must be searched, and it is important that the file be organized so that it can be efficiently searched. It is also important to have an efficient search algorithm so that too much computer time is not expended on searching.

The organizing of files and of search procedures are important topics in systems design for data processing systems. If large files must be maintained in mass-storage devices and if these files must be regularly maintained by adding new records and modifying and deleting old records, and if it is further necessary to search the files frequently for records which satisfy some specified criteria, then a file organization must be found which is not too expensive to update, which does not require too much storage space, and which can be conveniently searched. Designing a good data structure for the file and programming efficient file maintenance and search algorithms are interesting and still developing aspects of data processing systems design.

We shall first examine a particular aspect of file searching and maintenance, that of finding a specified element in an array. This will include showing how the search algorithm can be greatly speeded up if the array is sorted.

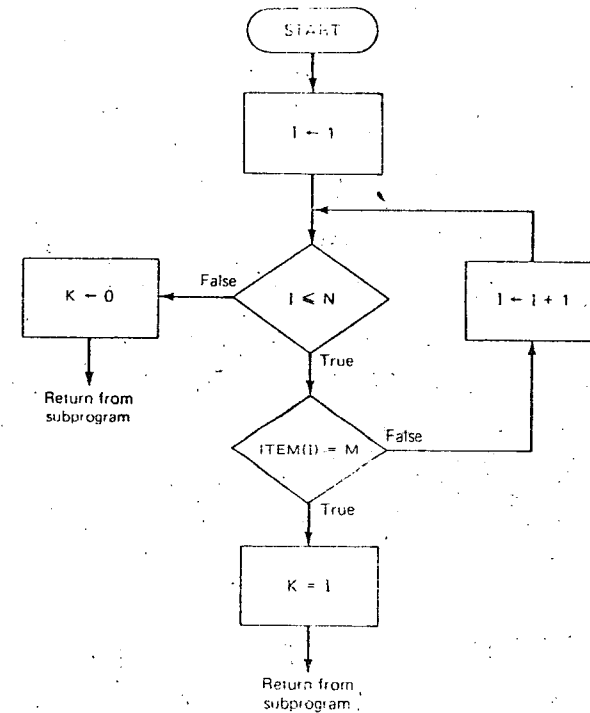
If a table or array is searched for a given item, the search *succeeds* if the item is found and *fails* if it is not found. If we store our table in an array which we call ITEM, at a given time ITEM will contain N elements. If these elements are not ordered, in order to find a given item in the array, the most natural search algorithm is to examine ITEM(1), ITEM(2), ITEM(3) and so on up to ITEM(N), each time seeing if the value is the desired one.

In order to convert this procedure to flow chart form, we let the values in ITEM be integers and call the value to be found M. A flow chart of the resulting search algorithm is shown in Fig. 11.7a. An integer variable K is set to 0 if the search fails; otherwise it will have a value such that ITEM(K) = M.

A Fortran subprogram implementing this algorithm is shown in Fig. 11.7b.

The question now arising is, "How efficient is this algorithm?" It is clear that if the desired value is not in the array, N steps or passes through the search loop will be required. If, however, the item is in the array (and we are not required to find duplicate values in the array), on the average $N/2$ passes through the array will be required.

Now let us assume the array has been sorted so that the elements are in numerically ascending (or nondescending) order. We now sequence through the array, starting with ITEM(1) and proceeding through ITEM(2), ITEM(3), etc., in turn as before. However, at each step we also test to see if



Note: This algorithm searches an array ITEM of N elements to find an element M. If for some I does ITEM(I) = M, then I is placed in the variable K; if for no I does ITEM(I) = M, then K is given the value 0.

(a)

```

SUBROUTINE FIND1(M, ITEM, N, K)
DIMENSION ITEM(100)
DO 5 I=1, N
IF (ITEM(I)-M) 5, 10, 5
5 CONTINUE
K=0
RETURN
10 K=I
RETURN
END
  
```

(b)

Figure 11.7 Searching a linear array. (a) Linear search algorithm. (b) Subprogram to search a linear array.

again element $ITEM(i)$ is greater than $MATCH$, and if it is, the search is immediately terminated, since the element is not in the array. This will improve the efficiency of the search procedure since the entire pass through the array will not be required in cases where an element is not in the array. (Also, if duplicates are required, the entire array need not be searched.) A program for this algorithm is shown in Fig. 11.8.

An even more efficient algorithm for searching a sorted array is the *binary search algorithm*. It closely follows the procedure used by most people in trying to locate a name in a dictionary, index card file, or other alphabetically ordered file. The file is opened to its middle, dividing it in half, the middle entry is examined to see in which half the desired item would be, and that half is again opened to the middle, and an examination then indicates in which half the item lies; this process continues until the particular item is located.

In order to make the above procedure more precise, we assume a table of N items, and we shall refer to these as $ITEM(1), ITEM(2), \dots, ITEM(N)$. If N is even, we can divide the table into two equal sets of $N/2$ items and then determine in which half the value to be located might lie. If N is odd, the table is "divided" into two sets, one with $INT(N/2)$ and one with $INT(N/2) + 1$ items, where INT is the "integer" function which takes a number X into the largest integer which is not greater than X . [In Fortran $IFIX(X)$ is a "compiler supplied" function which takes a real value X into the largest integer not greater than X . If we write $I = N/2$, however, I will have the value we call $INT(N/2)$, since the value of I will automatically be truncated, not rounded, to an integer value.]

The largest element in the "lower half" of the table with the lowest values is now examined to see in which part of the table the desired item lies; this is done by seeing if the desired element has a value greater than the largest element in the "lower half." If so, the upper half is selected; if not, the lower half is selected. This step continues until either the item is found or the discovery is made that no such item is in the table. Figure 11.9 shows a flow chart of this algorithm and Fig. 11.10, a Fortran subprogram.

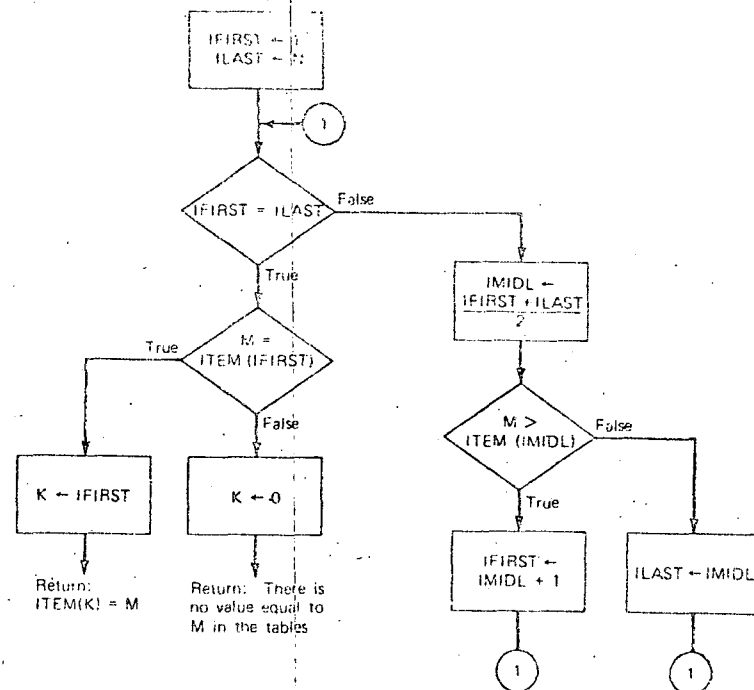
In both the flow chart and the program, an array called $ITEM$ containing N elements is searched for an item called M . An integer variable K is set to 0 if the value M is not in the array. The variable K is set so that $ITEM(K) = M$ if M is in the array.

```

SUBROUTINE FIND2(M, ITEM, N, K)
DIMENSION ITEM(100)
DO 5 I=1, N
  IF (ITEM(I) = M) GO TO 5
5 CONTINUE
K=0
RETURN
10 K=I
RETURN
END

```

Figure 11.8 Linear search of a sorted array



Note: This algorithm searches a table called $ITEM$ with N entries. The algorithm searches for an element called M , and if this element is in the table there sits an integer value in K such that $ITEM(K) = M$. If no element in the table called $ITEM$ is equal to M , then the value 0 is placed in K .

Figure 11.9 Binary search algorithm

```

SUBROUTINE FIND3(M, ITEM, N, K)
DIMENSION ITEM(100)
IFIRST=1
ILAST=N
GO TO 5
10 IMIDL=(IFIRST+ILAST)/2
IF (M .GT. ITEM(IMIDL)) GO TO 15
C ITEM IS IN LOWER HALF OF TABLE
ILAST=IMIDL
GO TO 5
C ITEM IS IN UPPER HALF OF TABLE
15 IFIRST=IMIDL+1
5 IF (IFIRST .NE. ILAST) GO TO 10
IF (M .EQ. ITEM(IFIRST)) GO TO 20
K=0
RETURN
20 K=IFIRST
RETURN
END

```

Figure 11.10 Subprogram for binary search algorithm

How efficient is the binary search algorithm? The efficiency of the algorithm is most easily evaluated for tables with N entries, where $N = 2^l$ for some l (that is, tables with 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, etc., entries), for then the table is reduced to one-half its original size the first step, one-fourth its original size the second step, and so on until it is reduced to a single element, which either is or is not the item desired. Since our rule is that after j steps the table has been reduced to a subtable of size $2^{-j} \times N$; and since $N = 2^l$ for some l , then when $2^{-l} \times 2^l = 1$, each of the two parts will contain a single element and one of these must be the desired element. Thus, for a table with N elements, where $N = 2^l$ for some integer l , exactly l passes through the basic loop are required to find an element using the program or flow chart which has been shown. This value is less than N for N greater than 2 and is much less than N for large N .

For any given N which is not a power of 2 (that is, not equal to 2^l for some l), we can determine the number of passes through the loop as follows. Let K be the smallest integer such that $2^K \geq N$; then K passes through the loop are required.¹

Can we improve on this algorithm? It might seem that before each pass through the loop it would be a good idea to test whether the largest element in the lower half is indeed the item desired and to terminate the search if it is. This would mean that sometimes the search could be terminated early. For instance, if we had a table with four elements which were the integers 1, 3, 7, 9 and we search it for the integer 3, then the table is divided into two parts, 1, 3 and 7, 9. The greatest integer in the lower half, which is 3, is selected, and, instead of seeing if the desired item 3 is greater than 3, we also test to see if it is equal to 3, and stop if it is. In this case it is the desired element, and only one pass through the major loop has been made, whereas the previous algorithm required two.

It can be shown, however, that on the average the number of passes through the major loop is decreased by only 1. That is, if L passes are required on the average for the first binary search algorithm, then $L - 1$ passes are required for the second algorithm. If L is large, the additional time required to test for equality, which lengthens the basic loop, will probably exceed the time required for a single pass through the loop, and the original procedure will run faster on the average.

The above analysis is typical of that performed on algorithms for system use. In many cases, it is impossible to completely and precisely analyze subtle points, and it is either necessary to test the algorithms with a number

¹In general, if we define $\log_2(N)$ to be a function with value X such that $2^X = N$, then $\log_2(N)$ is called the *binary logarithm* of N , and if $X = \log_2(N)$, X will be some positive real number for each positive integer N . Now, in the general case it can be shown that the number of passes required is exactly $\text{CEIL}(\log_2(N))$, where CEIL has value the smallest integer larger than or equal to $\log_2(N)$. This shows that the number of passes through the loop increases at a logarithmic rate.

of test cases and compare results or to generate simulated data, try the algorithms on the simulated data, and compare results.

11.5 ARRANGING ARRAYS AND LINEAR LISTS IN MEMORY

The structure of the data which are processed in business systems can be quite complicated. Further, in fields such as information retrieval, the quantity of data used is quite large, and the structure of the data is quite complex. The manner of organizing the data in the computer's memory can be very important when large volumes of data which are interrelated in a complicated way must be processed.

The simplest and most direct way to organize data in a computer memory is by placing them in a one-dimensional array. Consider a table or array of data consisting of N items. By using the name TABLE, the items can be referred to as TABLE(1), TABLE(2), through TABLE(N). If the memory of the computer is word-organized and each item in the list can fit in a single word in memory, then by assigning a starting address in memory for the table, say B , we can find a given item TABLE(l) with index l by looking at address $B + l - 1$ in the memory. This organization is shown in Fig. 11.11a.

Example We assign the starting location B to location 4000 in memory. Now if the items in the array are referred to as TABLE(1), TABLE(2), through TABLE(100), the values in TABLE will be stored in locations 4000 through 4099 in memory, and TABLE(1) will be at location $B + 1 - 1$, which will be $4000 + 1 - 1$ or 4000; TABLE(2) will be at $4000 + 2 - 1$, which is 4001; TABLE(50) will be at the address $4000 + 50 - 1$, etc.

The basic idea of placing the words in an array or linear list in consecutive addresses in memory can be extended to arrays with two (or more)

Address in memory	Contents	Address in memory	Contents
3999		5000	
4000	Table(1)	6000	MAT(1, 1)
4001	Table(2)	6001	MAT(1, 2)
4002	Table(3)	6002	MAT(1, 3)
4003	Table(4)	6003	MAT(2, 1)
4004	Table(5)	6004	MAT(2, 2)
4005		6005	MAT(2, 3)
		6006	

Figure 11.11 Organization of one- and two-dimensional arrays in memory. (a) Storing an array with five elements of consecutive addresses in memory. (b) Storing a 2-row, 3-column array in memory (by row)

dimensions or indexes. Consider an array called MAT with four rows and three columns. If each entry in MAT requires a single word in memory, then 12 words will be required. If we choose address 200 to be the address of the MAT(1,1), then 211 will contain the last entry MAT(4,3). There are two ways to "lay in" the array, however; by rows or by columns. Let us use rows;[†] the elements will then appear in memory in this order: MAT(1,1), MAT(1,2), MAT(1,3), MAT(2,1), MAT(2,2), MAT(2,3), MAT(3,1), and so on until MAT(4,2), MAT(4,3). If MAT(1,1) is at address 200, MAT(1,2) will be at 201, MAT(1,3) at 202, etc. To find the address of an element MAT(I,J) in memory, we calculate as follows: MAT(I,J) is at memory address $200 + 3(I - 1) + (J - 1)$. Thus, to find MAT(3,2), we form $200 + 3(3 - 1) + (2 - 1)$, which is 207.

The general rule is: For an array with M rows and N columns with one word per element in memory, and where the first element is to go in address B, the element in the Ith row and the Jth column goes at address $B + N(I - 1) + (J - 1)$. This organization is shown in Fig. 11.11b.

Similar rules can be derived for arrays with more than two indexes and for arrays where elements require more than a single word in memory. Notice the ease with which an element can be located in an array stored in the above manner. Arrays are very desirable data structures.

The tables or arrays which have been considered above have contained items of fixed size. Many data are alphanumeric, consisting of names, addresses, written text, etc. The individual items in this kind of data have mixed lengths. For instance, suppose we wish to store a list of names. These names will be of differing numbers of alphanumeric characters, which obviously complicates the problem.

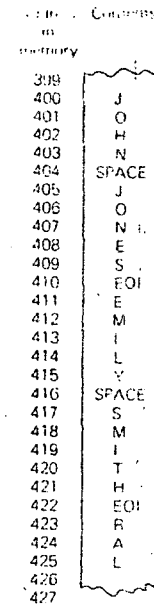
A simple solution is to allocate a number of locations in memory sufficient to hold the longest name and then to allocate each name that amount of space.

Example A list of 200 names is to be kept in memory. The computer, an IBM System/370, stores one character in a single address (a byte-per-address). The longest name has 20 characters in it. The list is to begin at location 1000. We allocate 20×200 addresses in the memory so the list will start at 1000, and the last character will be at location 4999. If we call the list NAME, the kth element in NAME [that is, NAME(k)] will begin at $1000 + 20k - 1$ and end at $1000 + 20k + 19$.

If the names are of widely varying lengths, the above technique causes an inefficient use of memory. Fortunately, several alternatives are possible. One is to have a special END OF ITEM character and to place this character after each name.[‡] This is shown in Fig. 11.12. Another is to keep a table of

[†]It should be noted that by official decree Fortran arrays are stored by listing columns (rather than rows) in consecutive order. This is discussed in the exercises at the end of the chapter.

[‡]This is a special character. In this case it is used for end of name. The special character's name just happens to be END OF ITEM.



Note. EOI is the END OF ITEM character. The memory stores one character at each address.

Figure 11.12 Storing character strings using END OF ITEM characters

the addresses at which each name begins. This is shown in Fig. 11.13a. Still another technique is to have a starting address and a table containing the number of characters in each name as shown in Fig. 11.13b. (We then find the location of element I by adding the lengths of the names preceding I at the starting address in the table.)

Which technique should be used depends on the characteristics of the data, the computer word length, and the premium on memory space and search time. The last technique (that in Fig. 11.13b) uses less memory, in general, but requires more time to find an item.

Judgment as to which technique to use must be made dependent on the particular file characteristics. For example, an inventory control system file might consist of a set of records, where each record consists of several items. Figure 11.1 shows a section of such a file, where each record consists of the license number, make, year, name of owner, street address of owner, town in which owner resides, and state in which owner resides. Since these particular items are either numbers or alphanumeric strings of limited variations in length, it would be practical to store these records in a fixed-length format with a fixed number of computer words in memory for each record.

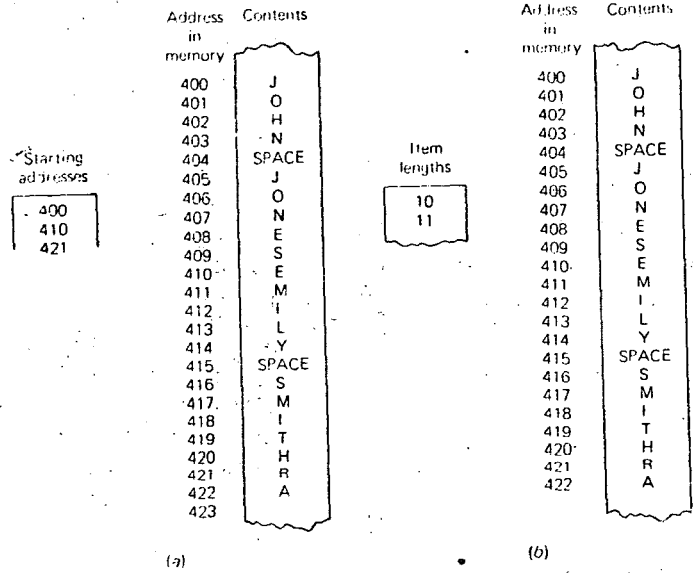


Figure 11.13 Techniques for storing lists with items of different lengths. (a) Table with the address of first character in each item. (b) Table with length of each item.

When lists of records with each record containing several items are sorted, they are sorted on a key which consists of one of the items. Thus, the file shown in Fig. 11.1 might well be sorted with the license number as the key. Then, to locate a particular record given the license number, a binary search would be performed on the list. If the list were sorted on license number and we wished to search the file for some other attribute, a sequential search would be necessary. (Sometimes tables or "dictionaries" which list attributes-versus-key or location in memory are used to cut down the search time. Files organized in this way are called *inverted files*. Refer to the Bibliography for works giving details.) For example, if the file were sorted using license numbers as a key and we wished to obtain the names of all car owners with Cadillacs from some particular town, it would be necessary to search through the file sequentially, looking at each record in the file to see if the owner were from the town and owned a Cadillac.

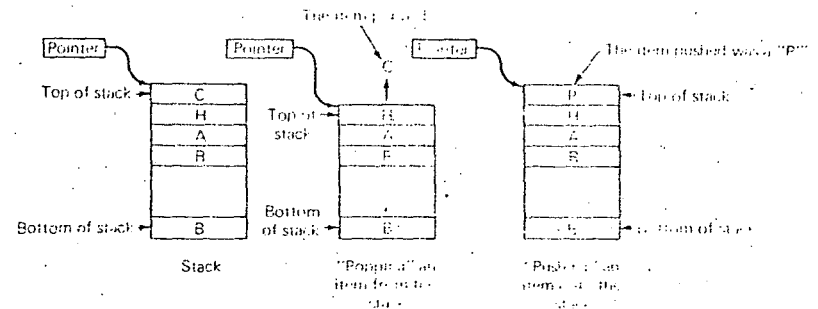
If a file consisted of a set of records, with each record containing sentences in the English language (as might be the case in an information retrieval system), the varying lengths of these sentences would make a storage technique involving use of an END OF ITEM character or one of the table techniques for keeping track of the ends of the sentences more efficient.

11.6 STACKS, DEQUES, AND QUEUES

A useful data structure in computers, particularly in systems programs, is called a *stack*. The name *stack* is derived from the fact that the data items are arranged in a stack in memory which resembles a stack of plates in a cafeteria. In other words, the items are stacked one on the other. With a stack the assumption is made that only the last item placed on the stack is immediately available. This shows the resemblance to a stack of plates. Only the top plate is immediately available. Similarly, items can be placed only on the top of the stack. (This "last-in first-out" principle leads to stacks sometimes being called *LIFO lists*.) Placing an item on top of a given stack (that is, adding an element to the stack) is called *pushing*, and removing an item from a stack is called *pulling*. As an example, suppose we have the set of items 1,2,3,4,5,6 arranged in order, a stack called STACK, and two operations on the stack PUSH and POP. If each item is placed in order in a new ordered set when it is "popped" or removed from the stack, then the sequence of operations PUSH, PUSH, PUSH, POP, POP, PUSH, POP, PUSH, POP, POP, POP will result in 3,2,4,5,6,1 being the order in the new ordered set. Figure 11.14 shows examples of pushing and popping.

Stacks are very useful in managing complicated sequences of interrupt or other unpredictable operations. Placing information concerning program state on a stack where it can be later found is a convenient way to manage task sequencing in system programming. Stacks are so convenient for systems' use that several computers have automatic stacking of interrupt information.

A *queue* is similar to a stack except that new items are added to the top of the list but items are removed from the bottom. Thus, a queue is operated on a first-in first-out (sometimes called *FIFO*) basis just like a waiting line



Note: In this case each item in the stack is a number. In other cases it could be a name, a record, etc. The pointer contains the address of the "top of the stack."

Figure 11.14 Stack operations

or queue for a theatre. Queues are useful in managing tasks when it is desirable to service requests on a basis where "those who have waited longest" get attention first.

A *deque* is simply a linear list where it is possible to add or remove items from both ends.

Some applications for stacks are developed in the exercises at the end of the chapter. The algorithms in Sec. 11.7 use stacks.

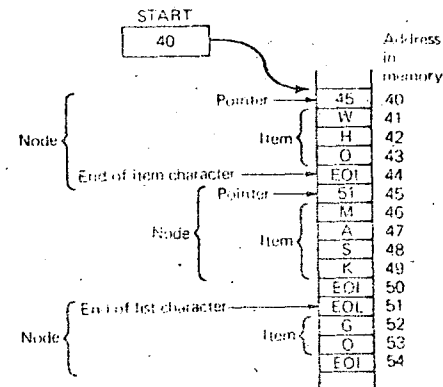
11.7 LINKED LISTS

The most natural and efficient method for maintaining data in a computer memory is the one-dimensional array, which is often called a *linear list* by those working with data structures. There are problems, however, with maintaining linear lists when many additions and deletions are necessary and the lists must be maintained in order.

For instance, in some systems where textual data must be frequently searched and strings of characters must be added, modified, and deleted, a data structure called a *linked list* has been found to be useful. Insertions and deletions can be easily made in a linked list; searches are moderately efficient, but the data structure requires more storage space than in linear lists.

A linked list essentially consists of a set of *nodes*. Each node has two parts: a *pointer* and a *data item*.¹ The pointer gives the (beginning) address of another node while the data item contains the actual data at the node.

¹The term *data item* is used here instead of simply *item* to help differentiate the data part from the pointer part.



Note: The address in START gives the address of the first item in the list. Each pointer "points" to or gives the address of the next node in the list.

Figure 11.15 Linked list arrangement in memory

This is shown in Fig. 11.15. In actual practice the pointer will probably not contain the full address of the next node, but will simply contain an index into an array containing the actual addresses or perhaps an amount to be added to some beginning address to form the actual address.

In order to manage a linked list, two other things are necessary: (1) The address of the first node must be stored somewhere so we can enter the linked list. (2) A special value or symbol which we shall call EOL (for END OF LIST) must be placed in the pointer of the last node in the linked list. (This could be a negative number or 0 if addresses or indexes are used as pointers, since either value would indicate that this was not a valid pointer to another node.)

In order to represent a linked list diagrammatically, we use the technique shown in Fig. 11.16. Here each node is shown as a rectangle containing two parts, the data item and pointer. The START box gives the address of the first node (a special value in the START box will indicate that there are no nodes in the list). An arrow on the drawing indicates to which node the pointer points.

The addition or deletion of nodes is straightforward for a linked list, and herein lies their primary advantage. To add a node, we simply place the node in memory at some convenient unused address. Then the pointer in the node which is to precede the new node is changed to give the beginning address in the new node, and the pointer in the new node is set to the address of the node which is to follow it.

The deletion of a node is also straightforward. The pointer in the node preceding it in the linked list is simply changed to the address of the node which follows the node to be deleted. Examples of adding and deleting entries are shown in Fig. 11.17.

A problem arises after many changes have been made to a linked list. If a number of nodes have been deleted, there will be "holes" in the actual memory space used because entries which have been deleted will still reside in memory even though they are effectively "dead." In order to use this space, sometimes "garbage collection" programs are written to collect

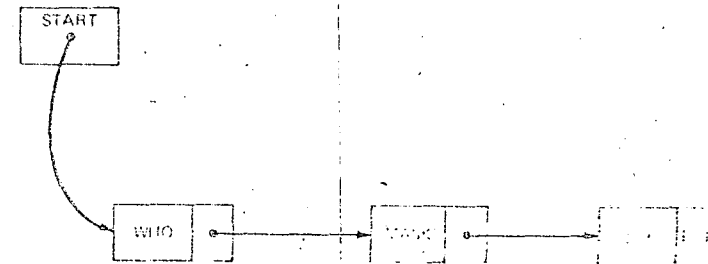


Figure 11.16 Symbolic representation of a linked list

12

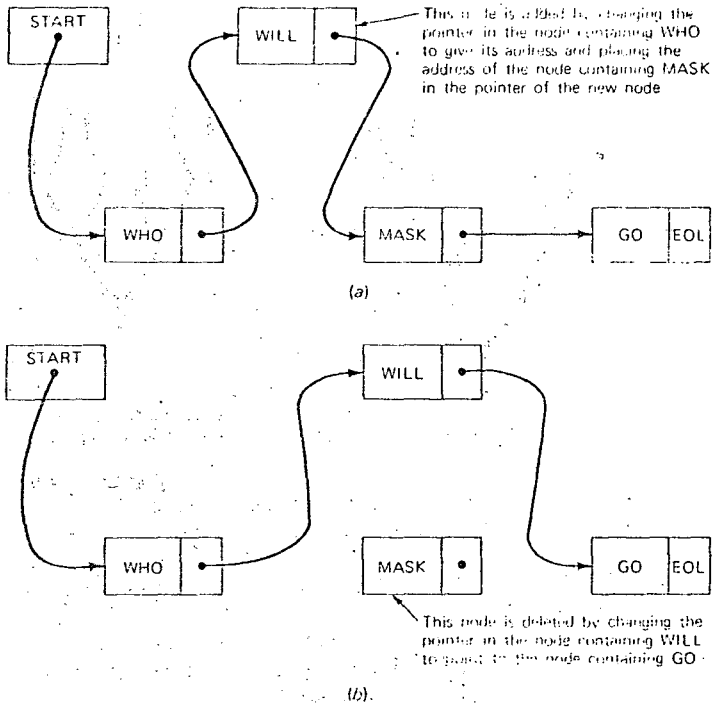


Figure 11.17 Adding and deleting nodes in a linked list. (a) The linked list in Fig. 11.16 with an added node. (b) The linked list in (a) with a node deleted

lists of "free space" which can be used for new entries. Similarly, some systems maintain lists of free space continuously so that memory is not wasted. A particularly advantageous strategy consists of maintaining the list of free space in a stack and pushing or popping nodes from the stack as nodes are released from or added to the linked list, respectively. More details of these procedures can be found in the exercises and still further details in the works in the Bibliography.

Note that a linked list must be searched sequentially, even though it is maintained in sorted order, because the entries are not actually in order in the memory. (Separate tables can be kept to facilitate searching, but this involves using even more space in memory.)

11.8 TREES

As can be deduced from the preceding descriptions of data structures and the algorithms for searching and for deleting and inserting new items, the

data structure employed has a profound effect on the efficiency of the algorithm used and the amount of memory required. A particular class of data structures, called *trees* provides for reasonably efficient search algorithms and insertion and deletion algorithms, with the penalty of additional memory required for implementing the structure.

The term *tree* derives from the name of the familiar "woody perennial plant,"[†] but usage in computer science appears to derive from a mathematical structure in graph theory. A *directed graph* is a collection of *nodes* and *branches* with each branch connecting two nodes. Each branch indicates a direction (an arrowhead is used at one end of the branch in our figures).[‡] Figure 11.18 shows a drawing of a graph with several nodes and branches. The position of the arrows on the branches is important, for if two nodes are connected by a branch, the node at the end of the branch with no arrowhead is called the *predecessor* of the node at the end of the branch to which the arrow points. Further, if node *A* is the predecessor of node *B*, then *B* is called the *successor* of *A*.

In order for a set of nodes and branches composing a directed graph to qualify as a *tree*, two other properties are required:

1. There is a single node which has no predecessor. This node is called the *root*.
2. Every node, excepting the root, is connected to the root by a unique *path*, where a path consists of the branches connecting a sequence of nodes N_1, N_2, \dots, N_M , where N_i is the predecessor of N_{i+1} for all i from 1 to $M - 1$. (Notice that there can be only one path between two nodes if the path is unique.)

[†]This is from the definition in "Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary," G & C Merriam Co., Springfield, Mass.

[‡]The graphs in Fig. 11.19 are all *directed* graphs. Undirected graphs (or just plain graphs) have no direction to the branches. Consider a road map. The cities are like the nodes and the roads are like branches for an undirected graph since we can drive in either direction.

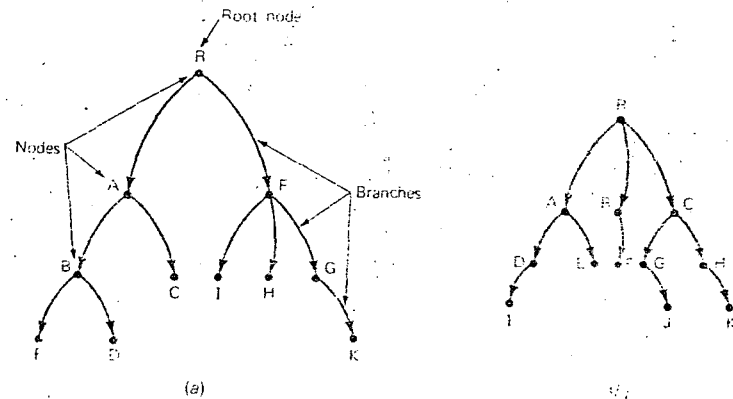


Figure 11.18 Trees

13

Figure 11.18 shows several trees. For the tree in Fig. 11.18a, a path from the root node *R* to the node *D* follows the nodes *R.A.B.D*. Does this satisfy requirement 2 above? Yes, for *R* is the predecessor of *A*, *A* is the predecessor of *B*, etc.

There is a considerable literature in mathematics concerning trees. Several of the works in the Bibliography cover this material.

In computer usage, a most important kind of tree is called a *binary tree*. It has the characteristic that each node has at most two successors. Figure 11.19 shows several binary trees.

One reason that the binary tree is so useful as a data structure for computers relates to the means of storing a tree structure in a computer memory. Let us assume that we are to store a number of data items in a memory using a binary tree structure. First we shall represent the data structure to be used as the graph of a binary tree. Each data item will be stored at a node on the binary tree. For convenience of description we shall assume the data items to be simply English letters, and we can then use each letter as the name of a node. Figure 11.19 shows this arrangement.

We can now store this tree in memory by associating with each node on the graph several words in memory which contain (1) the data item at the node and (2) two pointers, one to the leftmost successor node and the other to the rightmost successor node on the graph. A START pointer which gives the address of the root node will be required so we can enter the tree, and a special pointer value will also be required which can be placed in any pointer and which indicates that no (leftmost or rightmost, whichever the case may be) successor exists. An example of this arrangement is shown in Fig. 11.20.[†]

[†]As before, the pointers may be simply indexes into an array, values to be added to some base value, etc., thus saving memory space.

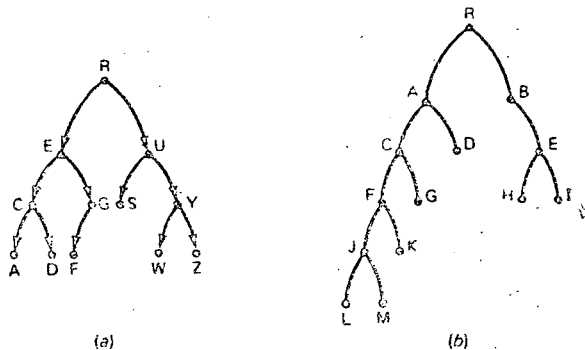


Figure 11.19 Binary trees

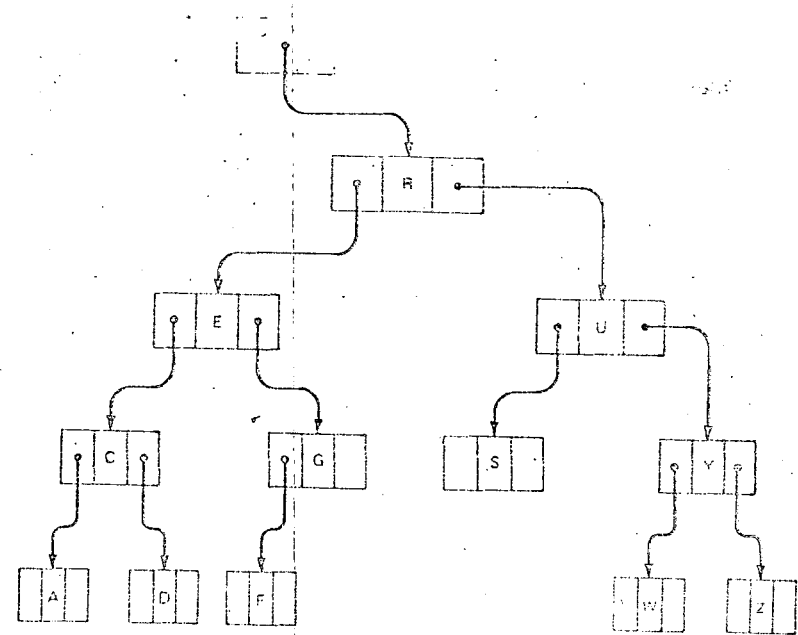


Figure 11.20 Data structure for binary tree in Fig. 11.19a

As may be surmised, the storing of two pointers with each data item is somewhat uneconomical in the use of memory. The compensating factors lie in the ease with which items can be entered into or deleted from the binary tree and the facility with which the tree can be searched (provided the nodes are correctly arranged).

Notice that the tree in Fig. 11.20 has the nodes ordered[†] in a specific manner. The leftmost successor node always precedes its predecessor in alphabetical order, while the rightmost successor always follows its predecessor in alphabetical order. When a tree is arranged in this way, it is considered to be sorted.

An important use of trees in the data structures for files involves a tree where each data entry is a single symbol. This structure is called a *symbol tree*. Figure 11.21 shows a graph of a symbol tree for several English words. At each leaf in the tree the address of the record for the word which terminates in the leaf is stored. Thus, to find the record corresponding to a given

[†]A leaf in a symbol tree is a node at the end of a word.

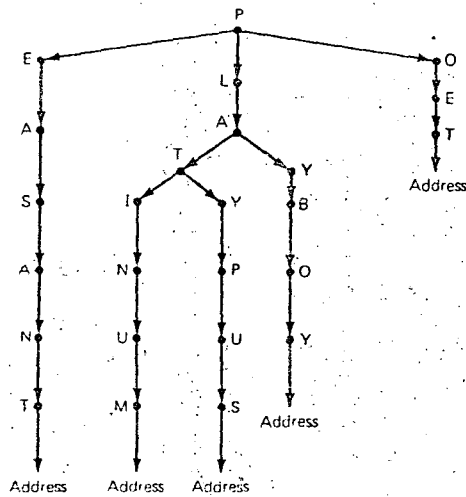


Figure 11.21 Symbol tree

word, we search the tree for the word; and if it is found, the record for the word would be pointed to by the pointer in the last symbol in the word.[†]

An important point can be noted here. The tree in Fig. 11.21 has several nodes with more than two successor nodes and is therefore not a binary tree. The graph can be stored as a binary tree, however, as shown in Fig. 11.22. (Notice the method for handling nodes with more than two successors.)

(The trees in Figs. 11.21 and 11.22 could be used in a directory for an *inverted file*, see questions 6 and 7.)

In order to search trees such as those in Figs. 11.21 and 11.22, one can use a version of the binary search algorithm. The search is almost as efficient as the binary search for linear lists or arrays. The insertion or deletion of a name of word in these files is straightforward and efficient characteristics that compensate for the additional search time for many files of interest.

In order to be searched efficiently, a binary tree must be maintained in what is called *balanced form*. The exercises that follow investigate this subject along with algorithms for balancing trees, searching trees, and inserting and deleting nodes from trees.

[†]A possible use is to have the words be those in a dictionary and the records be their definitions. Or the words might be the Dewey decimal notation for books in a library and the records the description of the books.

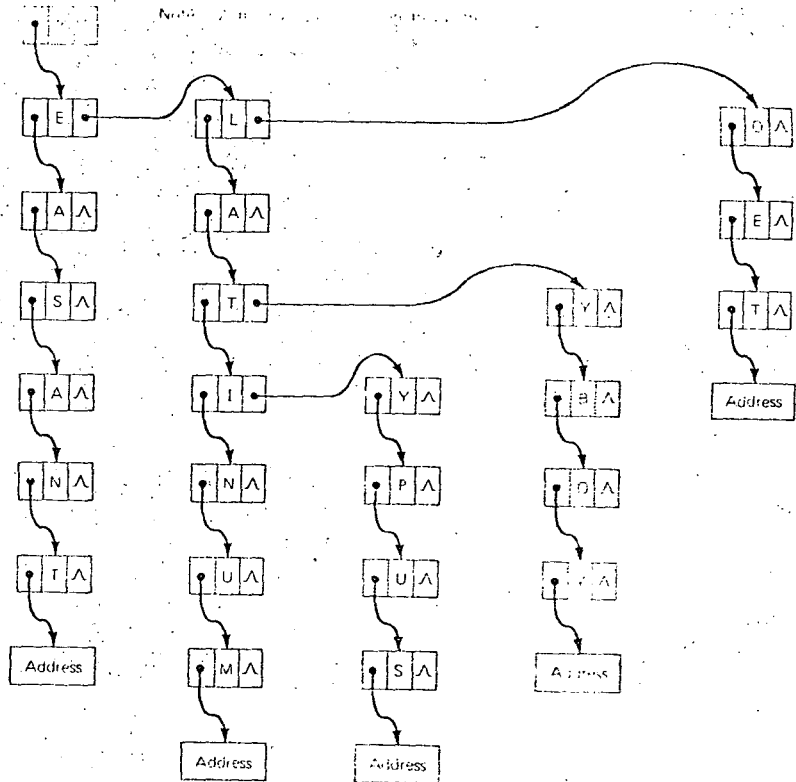


Figure 11.22 Data structure for symbol tree

EXERCISES

- 1 For Fig. 11.1 list the record relating to F. R. Jackson.
- 2 A good key for Fig. 11.1 would be license number. If we use name of owner for key, a key may not be unique. Why?
- 3 Give the collating sequence for letters and numbers in the ANSI (or ASCII) code in Chap. 2.
- 4 Give the collating sequence for letters and numbers for the EBCDIC code in Chap. 2.
- 5 Discuss sorting a list of names in EBCDIC or ASCII using the numerical values as numbers (integers) in the sort routine.
- 6 To search the file in Fig. 11.1 for a record given the license number, we would probably keep the file sorted with license number as a key. If many demands were made to search the file for "name of owner," it would be convenient to

6.1

Tree examples

The use of flowcharts to represent algorithms has helped us to recognize their underlying *structure*. Furthermore, attention paid to the structure of an algorithm usually results in a better understanding of the computational process, and often results in our recognizing alternatives and potential improvements to the original design. Similar rewards result from attention paid to the structural relationships among the components of a set of data.

There is, in fact, a close connection between the steps we need to express an algorithm and the way we choose to think about or *represent* the data that are to be transformed by that algorithm. Experience in constructing algorithms fosters an increased appreciation of this interdependence. You will gain some of this experience by studying the next several chapters. Your ability to analyze the structure of a set of data and how alternate representations of it can affect algorithms using such data, undoubtedly will improve. We have already considered two structural forms for data, lists and arrays. Another type of structure is called a *tree* (Figure 6.1). Tree structures are important in representing certain types of data and, oddly enough, the essential steps of a number of algorithms exhibit a treelike structure.

First we will give two simple examples of a process whose strategy of execution (algorithm) can be pictured as a tree and two examples of data that can be pictured as a tree. Later, we will tackle three fascinating problems, the first one at the end of this chapter and the other two in Chapter 7. When we have finished this study, we may claim the title *tree expert*.

Let us agree now, before we get too far along, that trees in this chapter will be drawn upside down (Figure 6.2). We

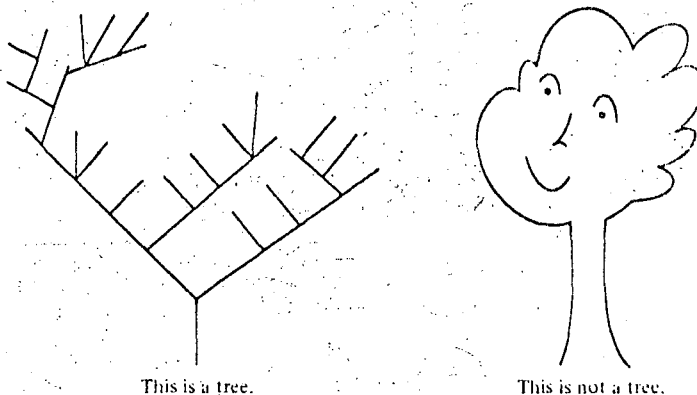


FIGURE 6-1

do this only because it is convenient. You have to be willing to think of a tree growing toward the earth, its trunk “hanging” from the sky.

Example 1. Treelike Algorithms

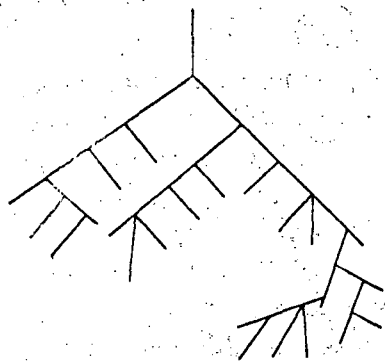


FIGURE 6-2
This is an upside-down tree.

Our first example shows how we can represent the 16 conclusions to the well-known eight-coin problem as a “decision tree.” The problem is this. You are given eight coins, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, and *h*, and are told that they are all of uniform weight except one, which is either heavier or lighter than the others. You are given an equal arm balance, but you may only use it three times for comparing coins or groups of coins. Your job is to determine the maverick coin and whether it is lighter or heavier than the rest.

Here is a strategy to use (see Figure 6-3) for all possible cases.

1. Compare the weights of two subsets of equal numbers of coins and consider the significance of the *three* possible outcomes. If the weights of the two subsets are equal, the coin in which we are interested cannot belong to either of the compared subsets.
2. Once we have isolated a pair containing the “odd” coin and we want to know whether one of them is heavy or light, we weigh one of the two candidates against any other that is known to be “standard.”

There are 16 possible cases, each of which may occur, given the eight labeled coins. The algorithm shown in Figure 6-3 has a treelike structure. Conclusions are reached by follow-

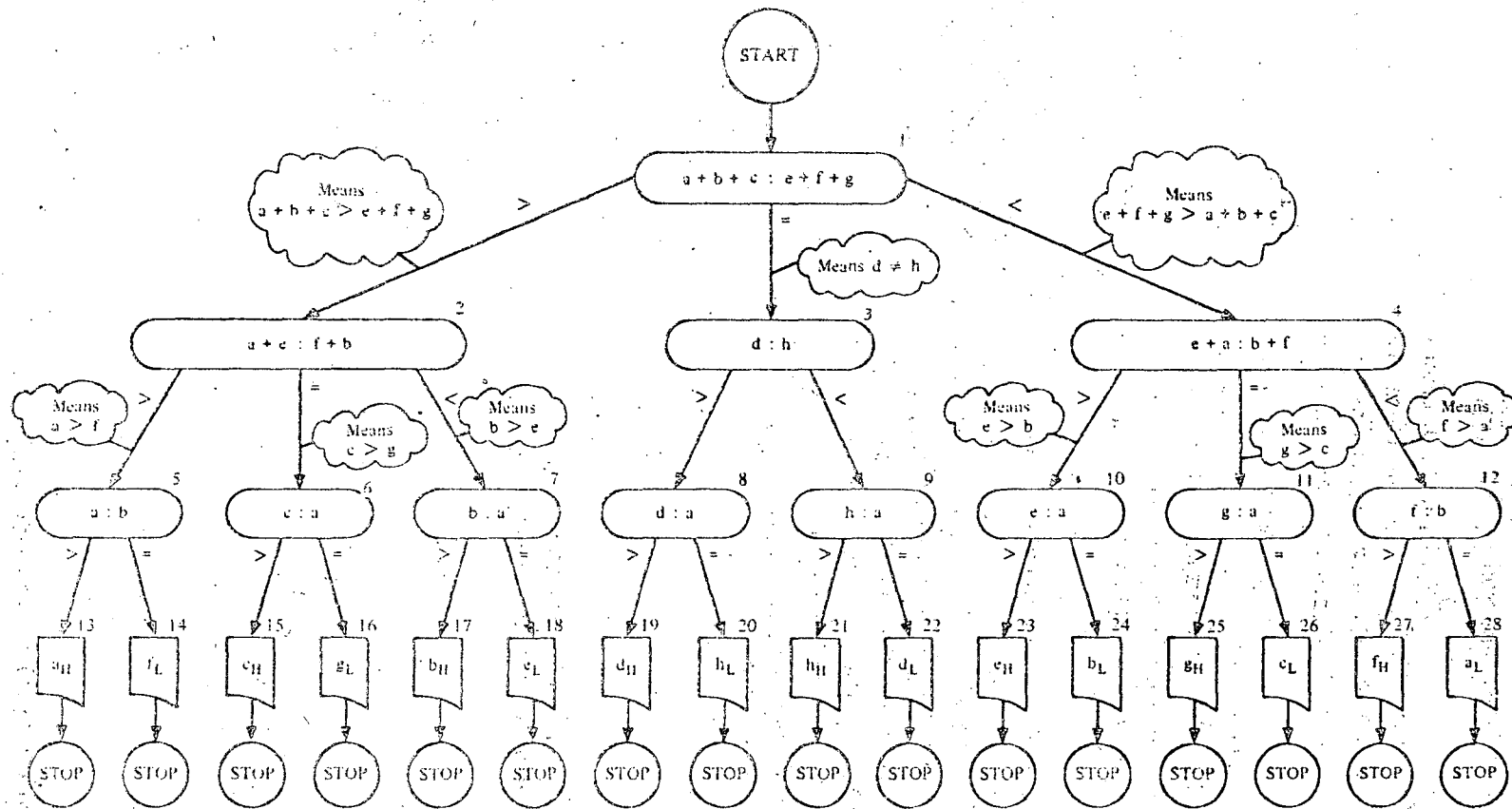
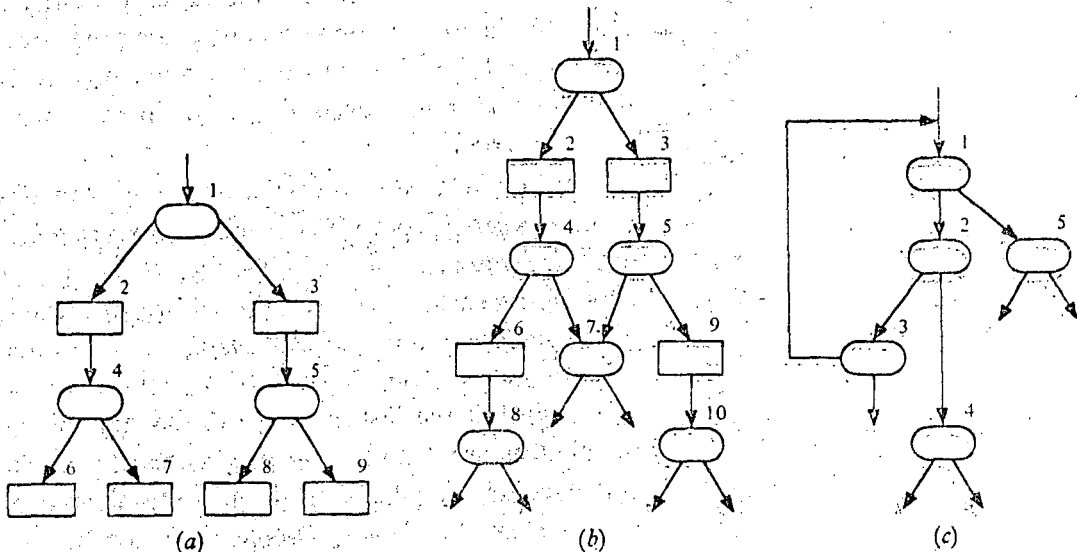


FIGURE 6-3
 Tree diagram of a strategy to identify the odd coin.
 Conclusions are subscripted:
 subscript H means heavy;
 subscript L means light.

ing a unique path (a sequence of three weighings) from the top or *root* of the tree diagram to one of the terminal boxes or *leaves* at the bottom.

EXERCISES 6.1,
SET A

1. For decision box 2 in Figure 6.3, explain why:
 - (a) If the relation $a + e > f + b$ is true, one may conclude that $a > f$.
 - (b) If the relation $a + e = f + b$ is true, one may conclude that $c > g$.
 - (c) If the relation $a + e < f + b$ is true, one may conclude that $b > e$.
2. Explain why *b* may be regarded as a "standard" coin at decision box 5 but not at decision box 7.
3. Suppose you are given 12 seemingly identical balls and are told that one ball is *heavier* than the others, which are of the same weight. Draw the tree diagram algorithm to identify the heavy ball in three weighings.
4. Suppose you are given 12 seemingly identical balls and are told that one ball is *different* in weight (either heavier or lighter). Draw a tree diagram algorithm to identify the odd ball and to determine whether it is heavier or lighter in three weighings.
5. Are all decision sequences tree structures? Consider the three flowcharts below.



- (a) Which of these are tree structures?
- (b) Consider the following attempt to define a tree structure.

- (1) A node having no segments extending from it is a *terminal* node.
- (2) A node having one or more segments extending from it is a *nonterminal* node.
- (3) A tree structure is a terminal node or a nonterminal node whose segments consist either of terminal nodes or tree structures.

What corrections or additions, if any, are needed in the above definition so that, when applied to flowcharts *a*, *b*, and *c*, you will reach the same conclusions that you came to in the answer to part a of this problem?

Example 2. Game Trees

A more interesting type of decision tree, frequently referred to as a *game tree*, shows the moves made by the players. Each time a player makes a move, he selects among the available choices of "legal" moves. Each line segment of the tree represents one choice by one player during the playing of one game. Figure 6-4 is a tree for the game of "Eight." This two-player game is so trivial you may not enjoy playing it very long. Its tree is simple enough, however, that we can study it easily, and it serves as a good illustration of similar but far more complicated games.

The rules of "Eight"

Each player takes a turn at picking a number from one to three, adding this number to a running sum that is initially set at zero. The first player has a free choice of numbers 1, 2, and 3. The choice in each play thereafter is restricted. A player may not choose the opponent's preceding selection. The player who brings the running sum to a total of exactly eight wins the game; a player exceeding eight loses. There is no draw possible.

When we study the game tree, we can observe that a complete game from start to finish is represented by one path (e.g., the colored line) from the beginning or *root* of the tree down to an end or terminal point. Player A always moves first. Thus, on the green line, A chooses 1 from among the three initial choices. Then B chooses 3, then A chooses 1, and so forth, until at the last move for A the running sum is 7, and his choices are 1 and 3. So he chooses 1 to make the sum 8 and wins. Triangular-shaped endpoints denote a win for A. Square-shaped endpoints denote a win for B.

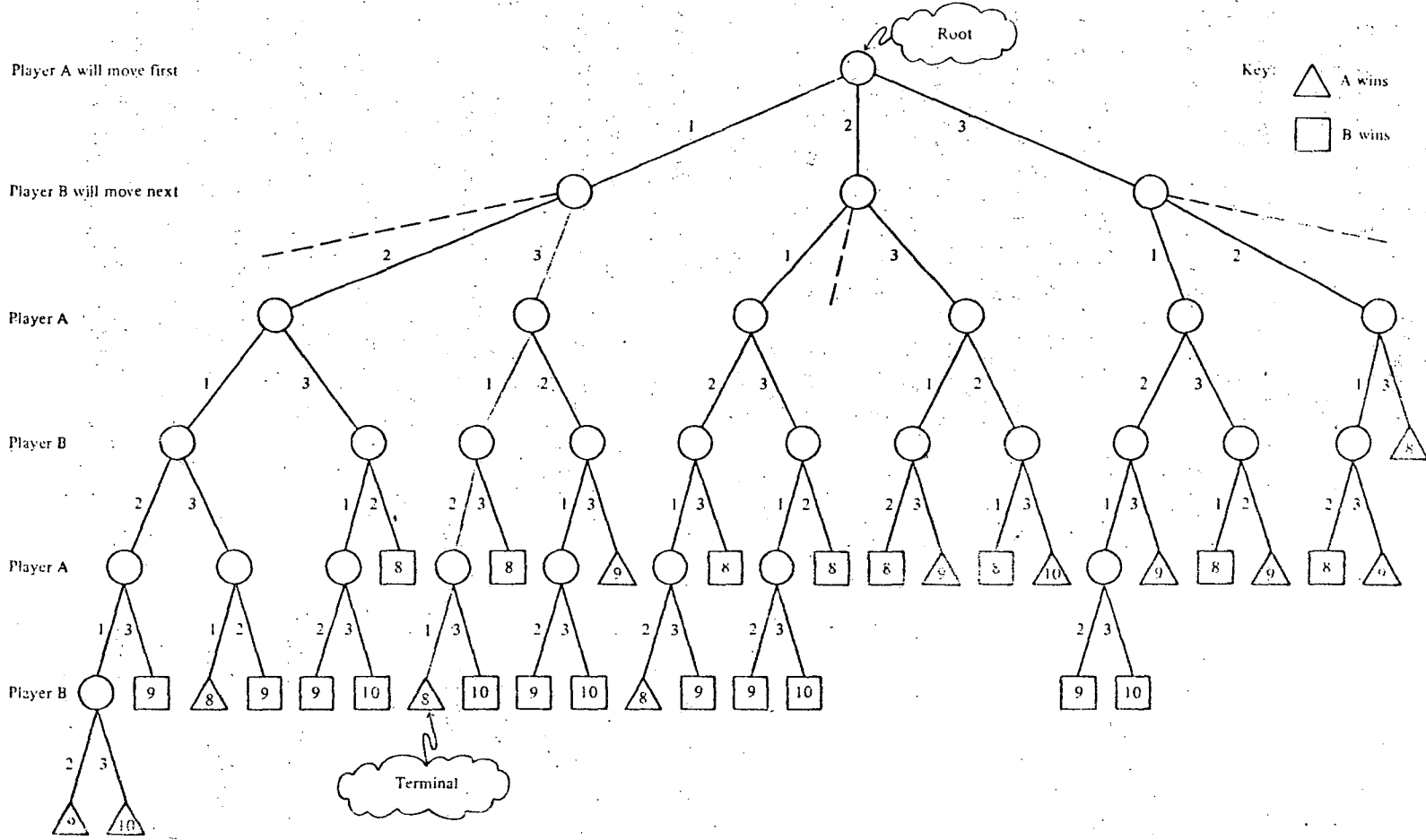


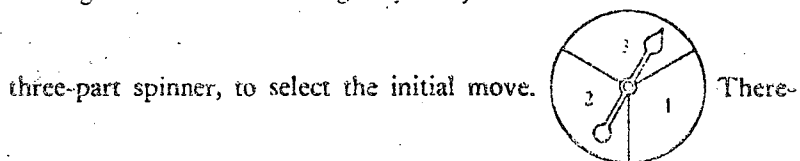
FIGURE 6-4
 Tree for the game of Eight.

Each time a player makes a move, you can imagine he looks at three choices 1, 2, and 3. After the very first choice he rules out one of these, as the game rules demand. *Inadmissible* moves would not ordinarily appear in the tree because they tend to clutter the diagram. We have shown them as dashed lines for B's first move only as a reminder.

EXERCISES 6-1,
SET B

1. (a) How many distinct games of "Eight" are there?

Imagine the game of Eight is played by children at the local kindergarten in the following way. Player A twirls the arrow of a



after, each player flips a coin to decide among the two admissible choices. (heads the smaller, tails the larger.)

- (b) What percentage of games played will follow the color line path in Figure 6-4?
 (c) What are A's chances of winning? Express this result as the number of games won for every 100 games played.
 (d) If each player chooses each move as shrewdly as possible, what do you think are A's chances of winning if A plays first? The answer is 0 times out of 100. See if you can develop a proof of this assertion. In Chapter 7 we will take another look at this problem.

In each of the next two exercises, you are given the rules of a simple, two-player game. Your job in each case is to show part or all of the game tree with at least four complete games displayed.







		Column		
		1	2	3
Row	1	 1	 2	 3
	2		4	5
	3	 7	 8	 9

FIGURE 6-5
Board position at the beginning of the game of Hex.

2. The game of *Hex* (or Hexapawn) uses a 3 by 3 checkerboard. Each player begins the game with three pieces on his base line, as shown in Figure 6-5. Play alternates between green and gray. The rules of the game are as follows.

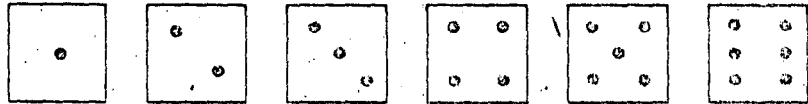
- (a) Either green or gray, in his turn, can move forward one space to an unoccupied position.
 (b) Or he can move diagonally one space to capture an opponent. A captured piece is removed from the board.
 (c) The game is won by reaching the opponent's baseline.
 (d) Or by leaving the opponent without a move.
 (e) Or by capturing all opponent pieces.

Hint Each segment of the tree should be labeled to indicate the move it represents. One way would be to show the *before* and *after* row,

column values of the piece that is moved. For example, on green's first play he has three choices: $(3,1) \rightarrow (2,1)$, or $(3,2) \rightarrow (2,2)$, or $(3,3) \rightarrow (2,3)$. Each of these moves can be further abbreviated to four-digit numbers without loss of information, that is, 3121, 3222, and 3323, respectively.

Alternatively, if we give the squares of the board the explicit names shown as small digits in the lower right corner of each square in Figure 6-5, then we can use a somewhat more compact representation of a move. Instead of four-digit abbreviations (e.g., 3121, 3222, and 3323), we can use two-digit abbreviations (e.g., 74, 85, and 96, respectively) with no risk of confusion.

3. *The game of "31."* Take a die and roll it. The side that turns up gives the running sum's initial value. Thereafter, each player moves by tilting the die over on its side (one of four possible sides, of course, and remember that opposite faces



always add to seven). The side that turns up after the tilt-over is then added to the running sum. The game proceeds tilt after tilt. A player whose tilt brings the total to exactly 31 wins the game; a player exceeding 31 loses. There are no draws.

Data Trees

Flowcharts of algorithms often have the characteristic treelike structure, but it is also interesting that *data* can be arranged in a treelike structure. Here are two examples.

Example 3. Monotone Subsequences

Suppose you are given a sequence (i.e., a list) of N numbers, all guaranteed to be different. What is the longest *monotone subsequence* in the given sequence?

By a *subsequence* we mean the list that remains after "crossing out" some numbers in the original list. If, for example, the given list is

5 0 9 6 1 12 3 7 2,

then one of the 511 ($2^9 - 1$) possible subsequences of this sequence is:

5 0 9 6 1 12 3 7 2

that is, 9-6-12-3-2.

The reason for explaining this idea in terms of "crossing out" is to make it absolutely clear that the order of the *remaining* terms is not altered. By a *monotone* subsequence we mean one in which either the values are increasing from left to right or one in which they are decreasing. Thus the preceding subsequence,

9 6 12 3 2

is not monotone, but the following two are, the first being increasing and the second decreasing.

5 0 9 6 1 12 3 7 2
5 0 9 6 1 12 3 7 2

You can check that the increasing subsequence is the longest possible; that is, there is no increasing subsequence with more than four elements. The decreasing one is not the longest possible, since the subsequence

9 6 3 2

is longer.

It is possible to develop an algorithm for determining longest monotone subsequences of a given sequence. Our interest here is a bit different. Suppose you are asked to picture *all* the possible monotone decreasing subsequences of our example sequence,

5 0 9 6 1 12 3 7 2

A hopeless task? Not if we think in terms of trees! See the answer in Figure 6-6.

A most revealing discovery! We have taken a string of numbers, posed a particular problem concerning that string, and discovered that the problem's answer could lie in inspecting a related tree. Notice that every monotone decreasing subsequence in S can be represented as a *path* running from the root S to one of the terminal squares. From now on, we'll call these circles and squares *nodes*.

The longest of such subsequences is easy for the eye to pick out once the tree is drawn. It is the one whose *terminal node* is found at a level of the tree farthest from the root node. In this example, only one path reaches to level 4, so there is only one longest monotone decreasing subsequence.

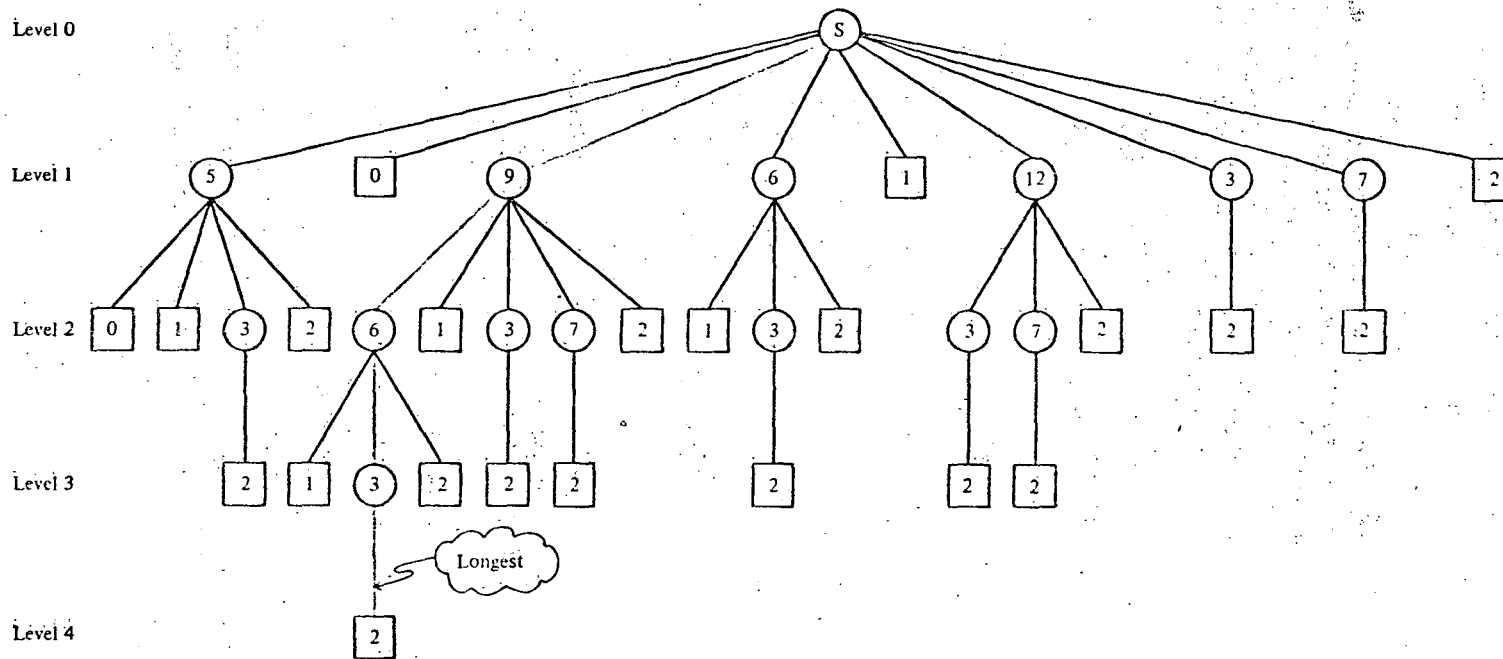


FIGURE 6.6
 Tree of monotone *decreasing*
 subsequences for the list
 $S = 5, 0, 9, 6, 1, 12, 3, 7, 2$.

If a computer is to be used for this approach, we must have an algorithm that, in effect, systematically scans the entire tree. This is the interesting part, which will be taken up starting with the next section.

EXERCISES 6-1,
SET C

1. Construct a tree that displays all monotone increasing subsequences of the same sequence given in Figure 6-6.
2. Draw the tree that displays all monotone decreasing subsequences for the sequence S defined as

$$S = \{3, 2, 1, 0\}$$

3. Imagine you are a student registering at a university and you have decided to enroll in a particular group of five courses. The five courses, together with the available sections and the times each will be taught, are listed in Figure 6-7. We presume these data are extracted from the official class schedule. Notice that the time periods are letter coded for convenience.

Course	Open Sections	
ENG 132	D (9-10	MWF)
	E (10-11	MWF)
	F (11-12	MWF)
FRE 141	F (11-12	MWF)
	H (1-2	MWF)
	Q (10-11:30	TTH)
HIS 231	F (11-12	MWF)
	H (1-2	MWF)
MTH 172	D (9-10	MWF)
	F (11-12	MWF)
	Q (10-11:30	TTH)
CSC 131	F (11-12	MWF)
	H (1-2	MWF)

Timetable

Course	Letter Codes for Possible Sets				
	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5
ENG 132					
FRE 141					
HIS 231					
MTH 172					
CSC 131					

FIGURE 6-7
Data taken from the printed
class schedule.

Does a possible set of nonconflicting sections for the five courses exist? That is, is it possible to select a set with no time conflicts? If so, how many distinct feasible sets can be selected? To be distinct, a set need differ in no more than one section from other possible sets. Complete a column of the timetable shown in Figure 6.7 for each feasible set.

Hint This problem and others like it can be solved systematically by constructing a tree of labeled nodes. The structure for the tree could be such that the set of nodes along any path emanating from the root represents a set of nonconflicting course sections. For example, labeled nodes at level 1 could represent the various available sections of ENG 132 (Figure 6.8). Nodes at level 2 could correspond to various sections of FRE 141, and so forth. Any path running from the root to level 5 such that every node has a different label would represent a feasible set of courses.

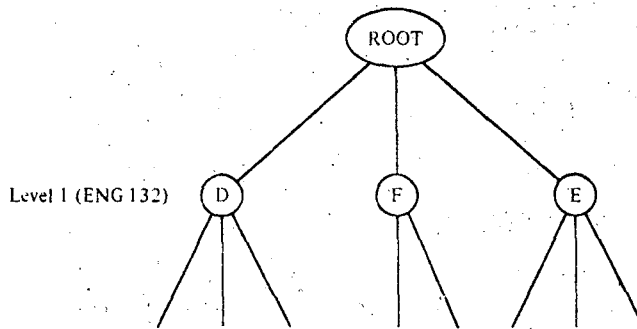


FIGURE 6.8

- Imagine you are a student registering at a university and assume that you have decided to enroll in the following six courses:

Communications 267	(COM 267)
English 337	(ENG 337)
French 231	(FRE 231)
Geography 233	(GGY 233)
Mathematics 272	(MTH 272)
Music 120A	(MUS 120A)

Below are data taken from the printed class schedule. Imagine that when you reach the registration desk, you find that certain sections of four of the desired courses are closed (as indicated). Prepare a tree diagram that shows whether there are one or more possible programs open to you at this time, permitting you to enroll in all six of the desired courses with no time conflicts. If one (or more) program(s) is (are) available, prepare a filled-out timetable whose format is similar to that given in Figure 6.7.

- A student who was planning to work every afternoon (1–5 p.m.) for the Athletics Department was also hoping to enroll in all of the following six courses: COM 267, MUS 120A, GGY 233, MTH 272,

COM 267 F601	TV-FILM SCENE AND LIGHT 117-KUHT	930-11AM TTH	COLLINS
MUS 120A E601 H602 P603 Q604	MUSICIANSHIP I 129-E 129-E 129-E 101-E	10-11AM WF 1-2PM WF 9-10AM TTH 10-11AM TTH	MILLER MILLER HORVIT BENJAMIN
GGY 233 F601 H602 S603 U604	WORLD REALMS 101-AH 101-AH 210-AH 101-AH	11-12 MWF 1-2PM MWF 1-2:30PM TTH 4-5:30PM TTH	HYER PALMER SHERIDAN COFFMAN
MTH 272 D602 E603 H604 P607 P608 S610	CALCULUS III 204-AH 216-AH 116-T 7-AH 111-Z 211A-SR	9-10AM MWF 10-11AM MWF 1-2PM MWF 8:30-10AM TTH 8:30-10AM TTH 1-2:30PM TTH	RADER RADER
FRE 231 E601 F602 H603 I604 Q605 S606	INTERMEDIATE FRENCH 303-AH 106-Z 105-Z 105-Z 111-Z 112-Z	10-11AM MWF 11-12 MWF 1-2PM MWF 2-3PM MWF 10-11:30AM TTH 1-2:30PM TTH	MCLENDON JANSSENS MCDERMOTT HOWARD
ENG 337 D601 E602 P604 S605	SHAKESPEARE 105-C 110-C 110-C 113-C	9-10AM MWF 10-11AM MWF 8:30-10AM TTH 1-2:30PM TTH	HENDERSON A EAKER EAKER THOMAS

closed sections

FRE 231, and ENG 337. He received special permission to register early (i.e., no *closed sections* to worry about). How many different feasible programs could he select, given the printed schedule used in Problem 4 (ignoring closed sections), and still take the afternoon job without a time conflict?

Example 4.
Tree Representation
of Expressions

Suppose we are given

$$((a \times w + b) \times w)^2 / (d \times y)$$

It seems obvious that whoever first wrote this string of characters intended that it have a mathematical meaning. By now, you are quite expert at interpreting such strings. This interpretation, remember, involved the application of a relatively complicated set of rules (Tables 2.1 and 2.3). Figure 6.9

29

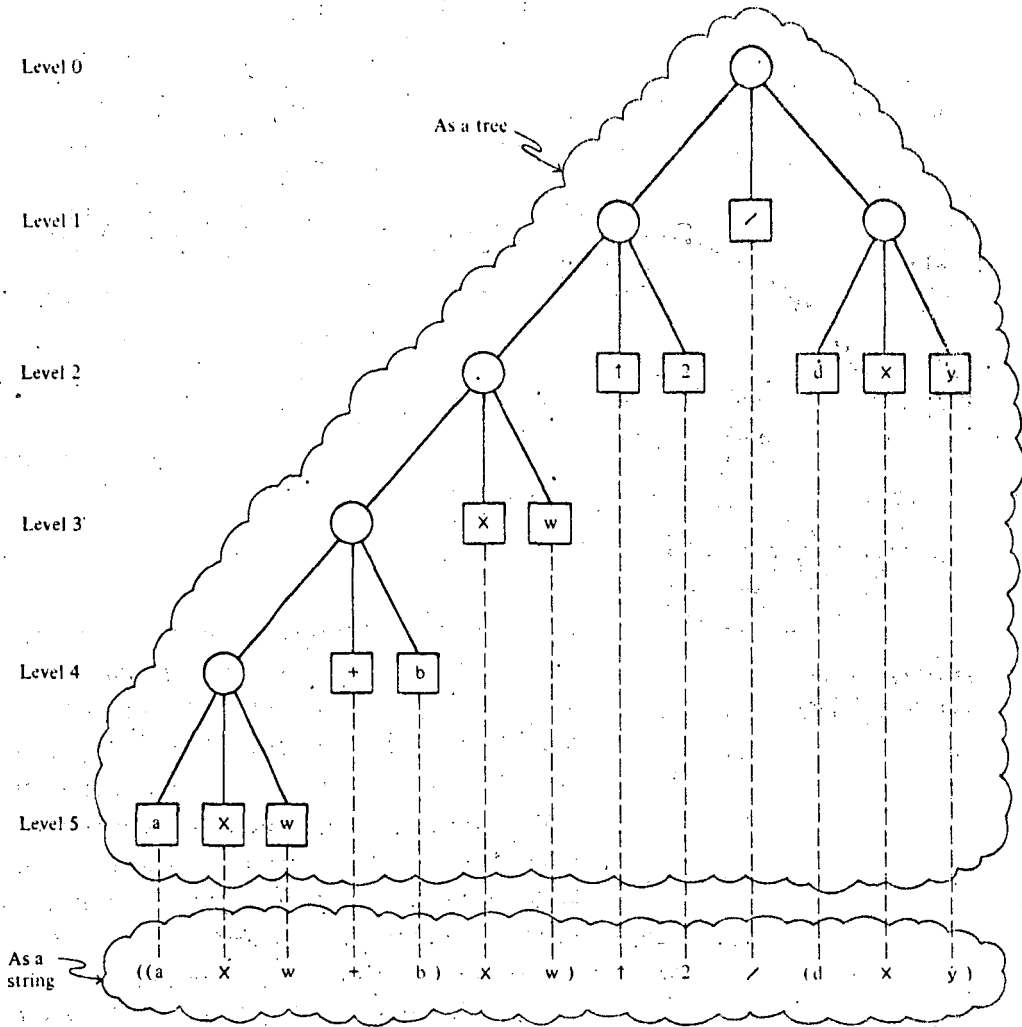


FIGURE 6-9
A tree representation of an arithmetic expression.

shows how we can represent the same string as a tree and give it the same interpretation. We will quickly discover that the rules for evaluating an expression represented as a tree are much simpler to state because *part of the interpretation is inherent in the structure of the tree.*

Before proceeding with this line of thought, it will be helpful to summarize and supplement the tree terminology developed thus far. This is done with the aid of Figure 6-10a.

We see that every tree has a *root node* from which extend *segments* (one or more) to other nodes, which in turn branch to others, eventually ending in *terminal* or *leaf nodes*. (Notice that a root node alone is not a tree.) Every segment leads to the root of a subtree, which may be a terminal node. Nodes

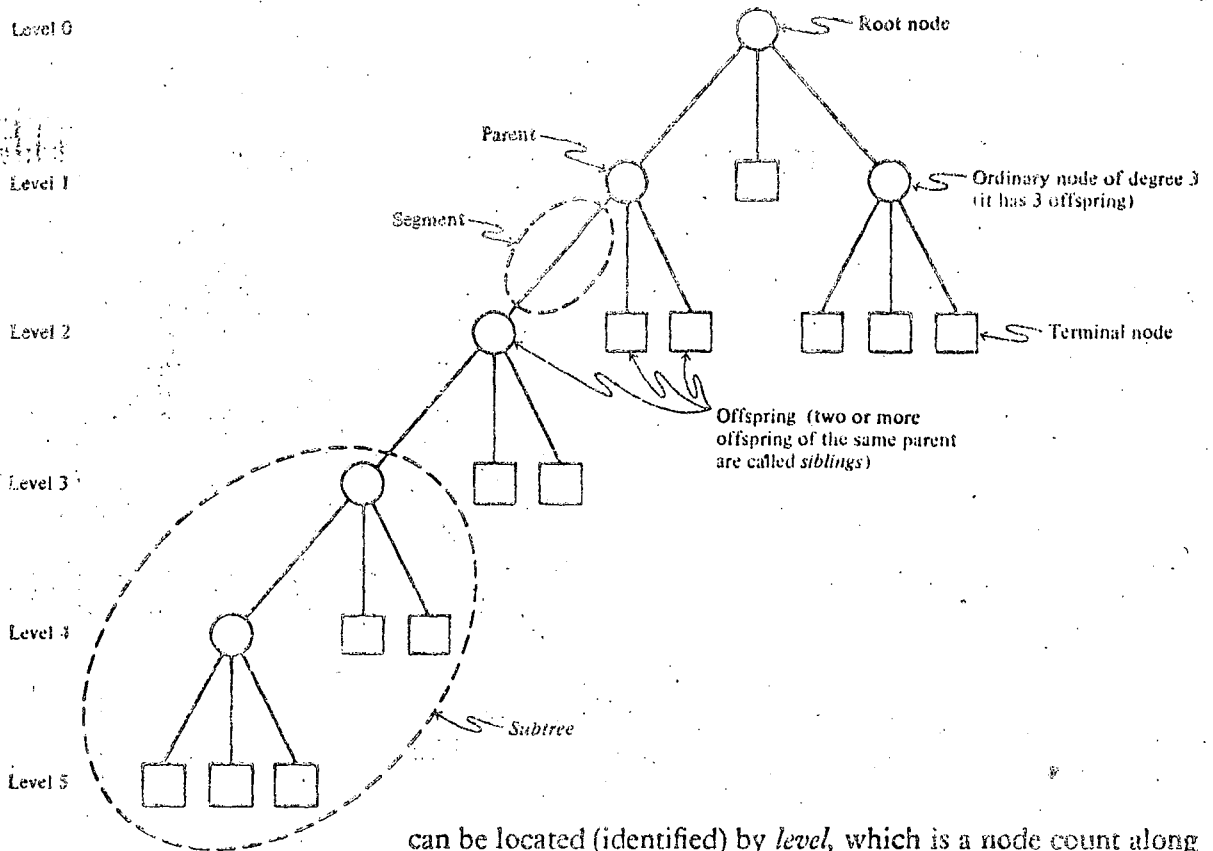


FIGURE 6-10a
Tree terminology.

can be located (identified) by *level*, which is a node count along a *path* from the root node to a terminal. The level we associate with the root node is purely arbitrary, but we will usually take it to be zero. The nodes along a path are often thought of as having an *ancestral* relationship one to another. By analogy with family trees, moving from a root toward a terminal, each node is the *parent* of its immediate successor nodes (*offspring*). Two or more nodes having a common parent are sometimes called *siblings*. Finally, we can say that the *degree* of a node is the number of its immediate offspring.

A node may also be identified in terms of the *path* that leads from the root to that node. How can we represent that path? An answer comes to mind when we realize that representing a tree in two dimensions imposes an ordering on the segments that emanate from each node. And we might as well recognize this fact of life by numbering the segments in some way, say from left to right or right to left. For simplicity and consistency we will generally number segments from left to right, as suggested in Figure 6-10b. These ordinal numbers amount, in effect, to *names* for the segments.

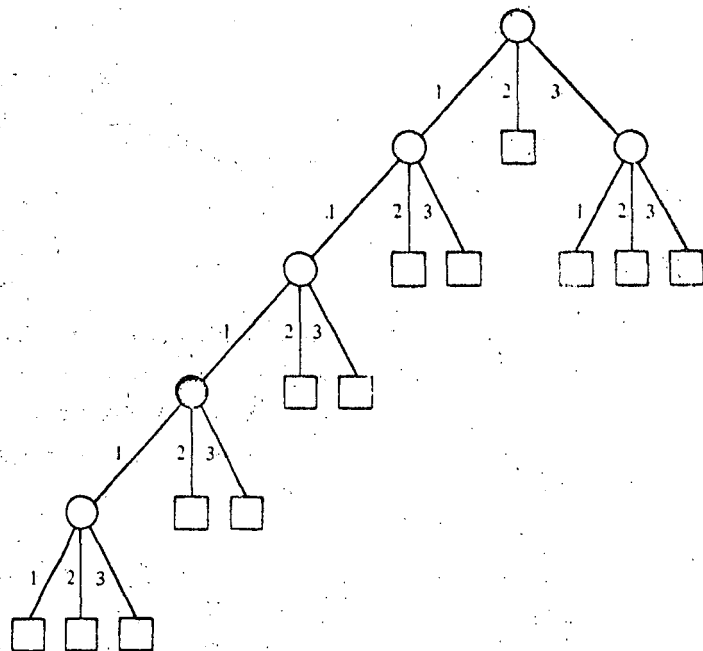


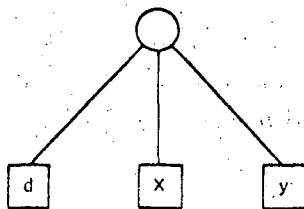
FIGURE 6-10b

Now a node can be designated uniquely by listing the *names of all the segments in the path leading to that node*. For example, the light green node in Figure 6-10b may be designated by the list (1, 1, 1, 1, 2), the dark green node by the list (3, 1), the gray node by the one-element list (2), and the black node by (1, 1, 1). (How would the root node be designated in this scheme?) Distinct nodes have distinct paths and hence distinct lists.

The *expression tree*, by its very structure, provides the key to evaluating the expression that is represented. For example, suppose values for the variables of our expression are:

a	w	b	d	y
3	2	2	-1	7

A subtree of the form shown in Figure 6-11, together with the above table, can be understood to mean: Look up the values of a and w, compute $a \times w = 3 \times 2 = 6$, and replace the subtree by the terminal node 6.



Correspondingly, the subtree shown on the left can be interpreted as: Compute $d \times y = -1 \times 7 = -7$ and replace the subtree by the terminal node -7.

Figure 6-12 represents a sequence of meaningful substi-

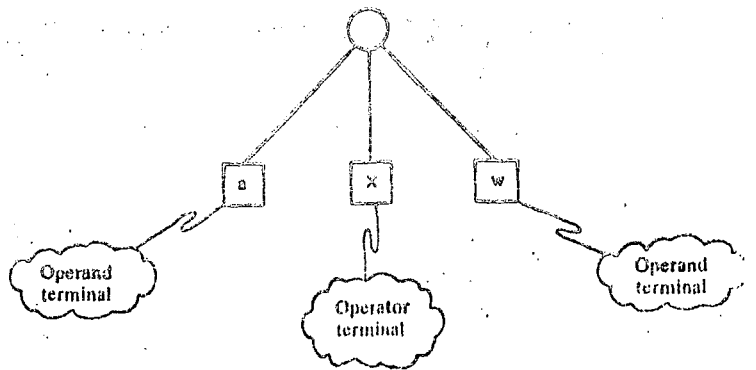


FIGURE 6-11

tutions that, when carried out, will ultimately lead to the replacement of the whole tree, root node and all, by a single terminal, which represents the value of the expression.

Proper evaluation is guaranteed if we follow one simple *replacement rule* that says:

Whenever you find a subtree consisting of a root node leading to three terminals (an operator and two operands), replace that subtree by a single terminal value.

Thus the replacement sequence in Figure 6-13, although different from that of Figure 6-12, leads us irrevocably to the

same value, $\frac{-256}{7}$. A computer performing either sequence

would evaluate the same indicated quotient $\frac{-256}{7}$, notwithstanding

the fact that computer operations on floating-point numbers are nonassociative, a fact explained in Chapter 11. Another point to note from the figures is that the treelike representation of a complicated arithmetic expression allows us to see all the meaningful subexpressions (all the subtrees) at a glance.

Once an expression is represented as a tree, evaluation depends only on repeatedly searching and finding subtrees that are subject to the replacement rule. At any given time, an expression tree, if not already fully evaluated, will exhibit at least one such subtree.

A question that has no doubt been uppermost in the minds of some readers is: How should tree structures be represented in storage? Linked lists, introduced in Chapter 4, suggest one

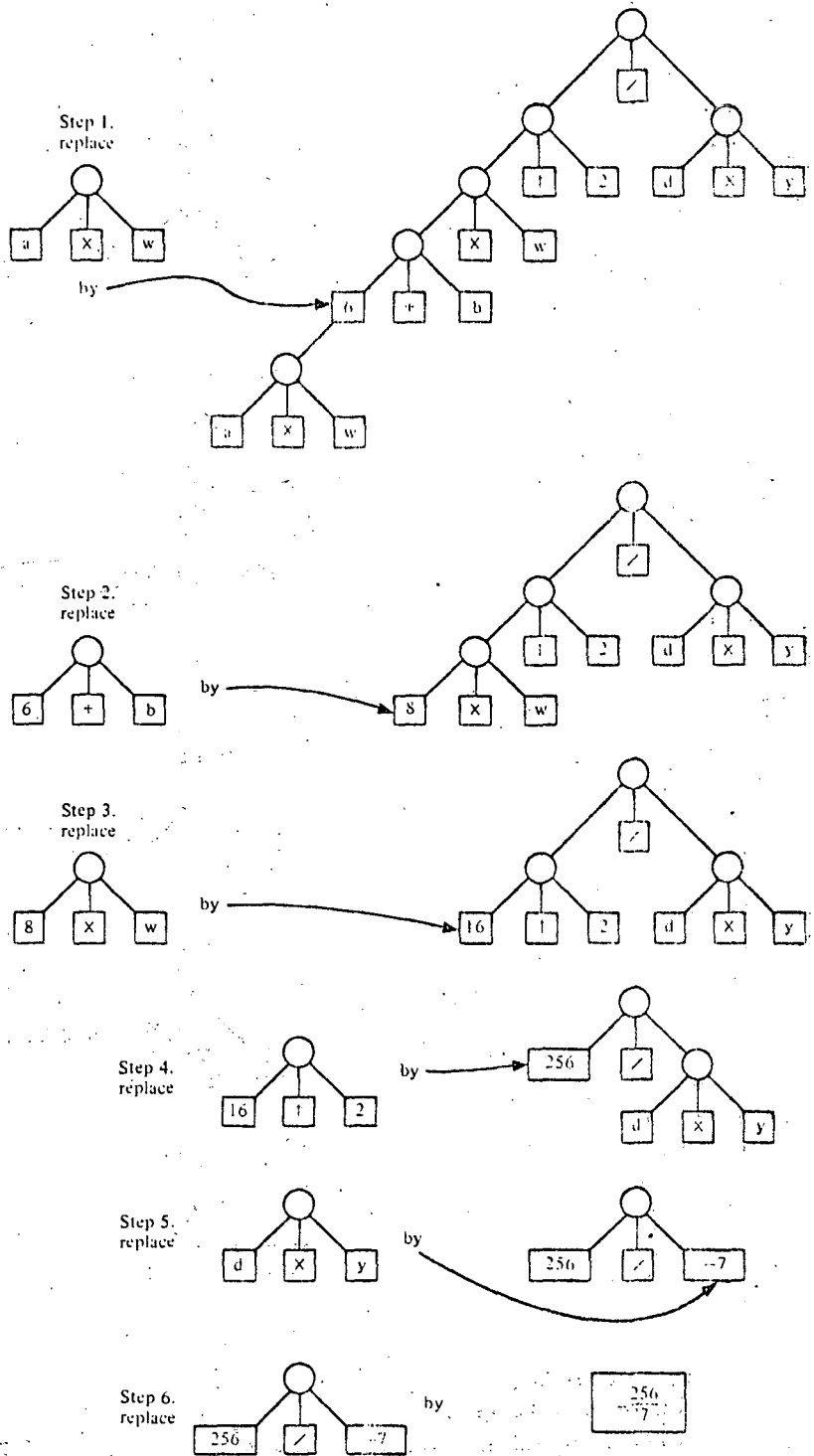


FIGURE 6-12
A stepwise evaluation of a tree expression.

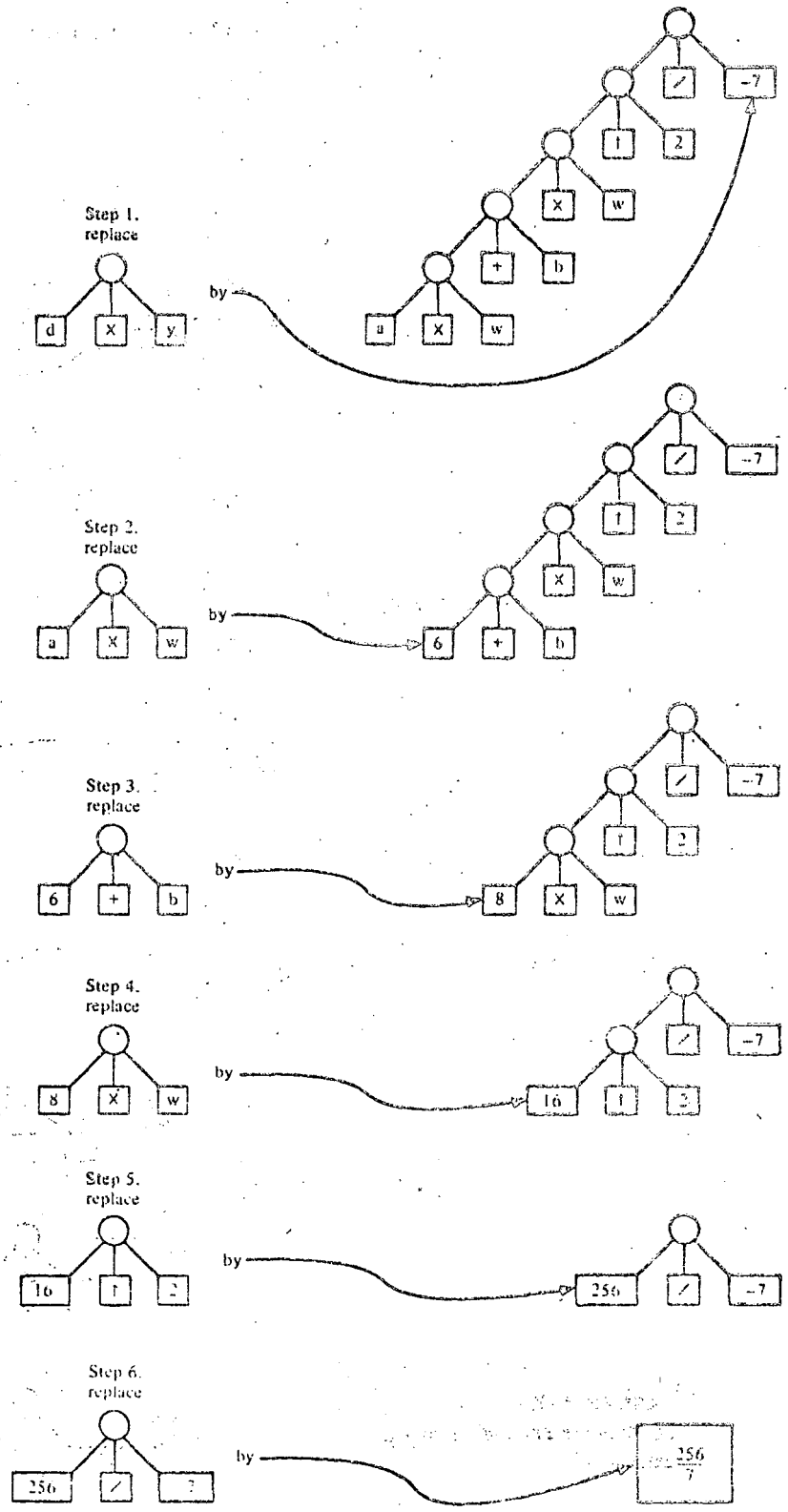


FIGURE 6-13
 Alternative replacement
 sequence for evaluating the
 tree expression.

way. With this approach, one storage representation for the expression

$$((a \times w + b) \times w)^2 / (d \times y)$$

is shown in Figure 6.14. A four-column table is used. Each row represents a node with row 1 representing the root node.

Tree Table

Node Number	Value (String)	Links		
		Left	Middle	Right
1	□	2	15	16
2	□	3	13	14
3	□	4	11	12
4	□	5	9	10
5	□	6	7	8
6	a	—	—	—
7	x	—	—	—
8	w	—	—	—
9	+	—	—	—
10	b	—	—	—
11	x	—	—	—
12	w	—	—	—
13	↑	—	—	—
14	2	—	—	—
15	/	—	—	—
16	□	17	18	19
17	d	—	—	—
18	x	—	—	—
19	y	—	—	—

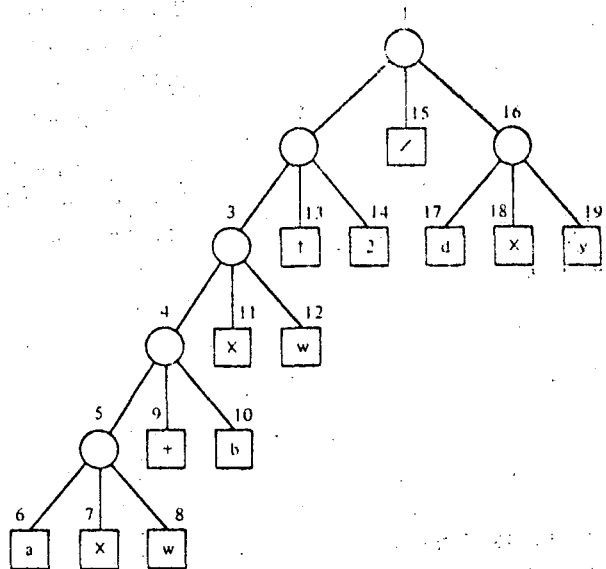
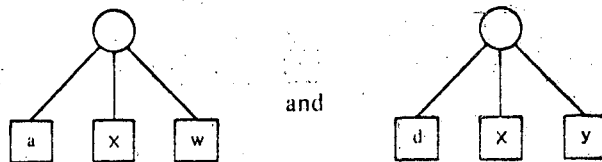


FIGURE 6.14 Tabular representation of an expression tree.

The first column holds the value of the node if it is a terminal or some special mark, for example, □, if the node is nonterminal. The remaining three columns hold node numbers that designate the left, middle, and right offspring. These positions may be left empty (undefined) for terminal nodes. Node numbers in the left, middle, and right columns serve as *links* to other nodes. Other tabular descriptions of tree structure using the linked list approach are discussed in Chapter 7.

A Peek at Some Future Models of SIMPLOS We noticed in the expression tree of Figure 6.12 that two separate subtrees



had only terminal nodes as offspring. At the start of evaluation we could invoke the replacement rule on either of these subtrees. It was immaterial which we picked first. This will always be the case for subtrees whose root nodes are siblings or the offspring of sibling nodes (i.e., cousins once or more removed). From the standpoint of expression evaluation, such subtrees are *mutually independent*.

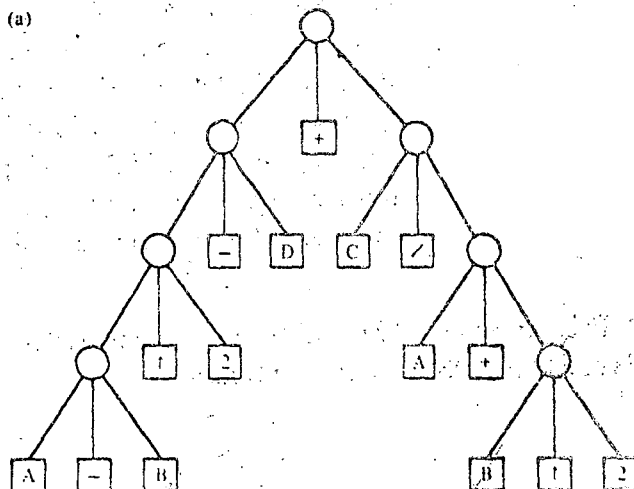
Under what circumstances can a computer work on the evaluation of two or more independent subtrees at the same time? With our present SIMPLOS model the answer is never, because at any one time there is only one team of personnel (Master Computer, Affixer, Reader, and Assigner) available to do work. On the other hand, advanced models of computer systems having several, perhaps many teams of personnel, are quite feasible.

Although it may boggle the mind to think about it, one may anticipate that future computers will evaluate mutually independent subtrees concurrently, that is, *in parallel*, whenever more than one team of personnel is available for the purpose. In cases where speed is essential the capability of concurrent computation offers the opportunity to solve problems that cannot be solved fast enough in any other way. Examples of such problems already abound in our technological society. More can be found on this topic in advanced texts.

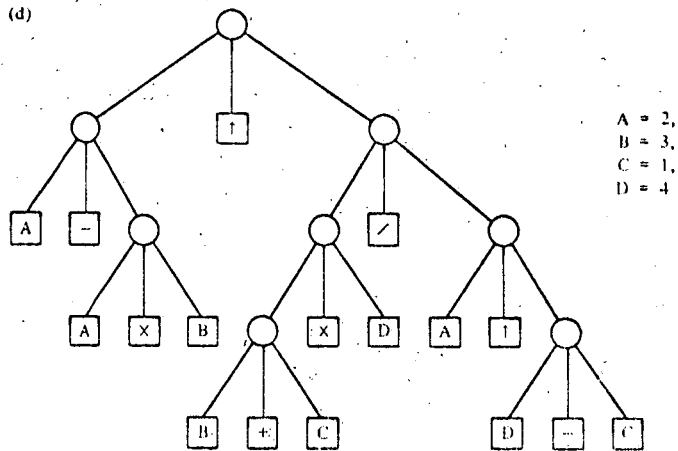
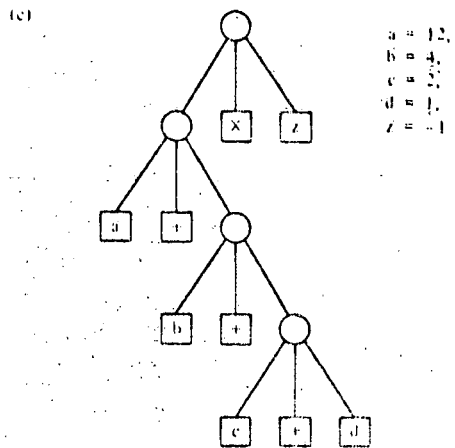
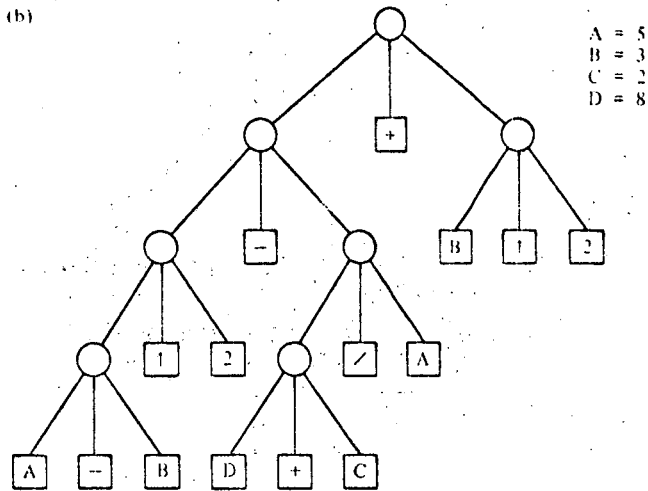
EXERCISES 6-1,
SET D

1. Evaluate the expression trees below, using the given values for the variables.

(a)



A = 1
B = -3
D = 10
C = -60



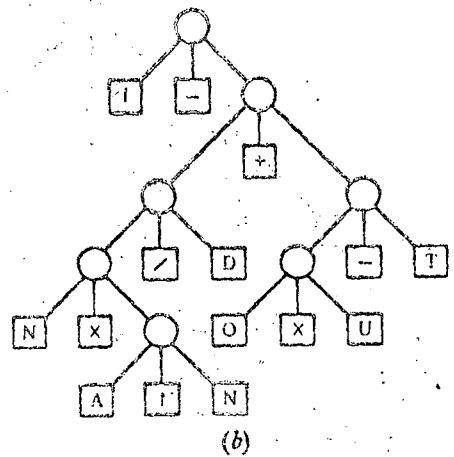
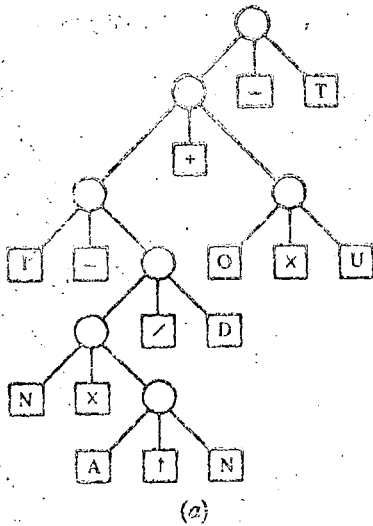
2. Draw a tree representation for the expression

$$B \uparrow 2 - 4 \times A \times C$$

3. The following are two proposed tree representations for the expression

$$I - N \times A \uparrow N / D + O \times U - T$$

Which, if either, of these trees, evaluated by the replacement rule, yields a result computationally equivalent to the result we get by following the evaluation rules laid down in Tables 2.1 and 2.3? If the evaluation of either one of the trees is not compatible with these rules, describe the discrepancy.

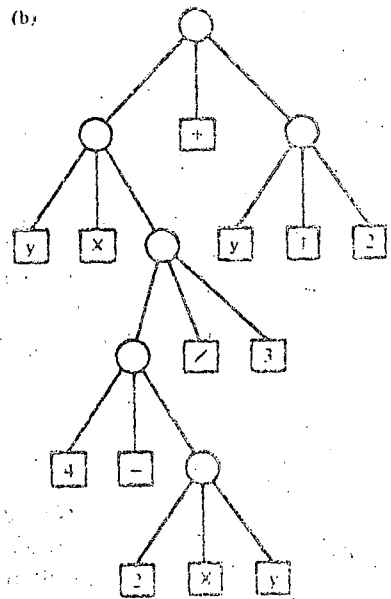
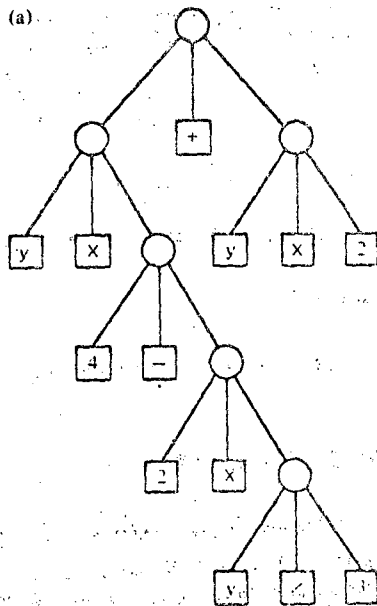


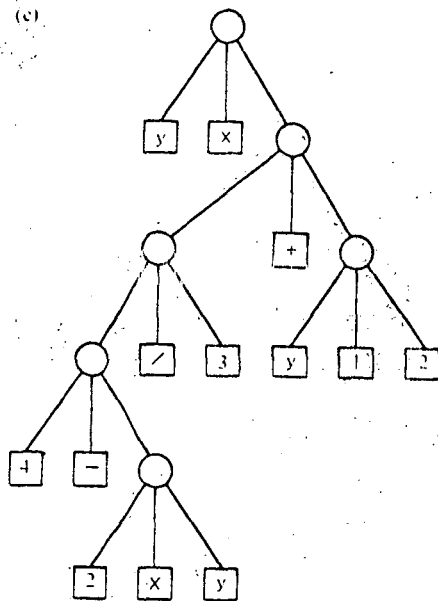
4. Draw a tree representation for the expression

$$(a - b) \times (c - d) / (e \times (f + g))$$

5. Find which of the three trees given below correctly represents the given expression and exhibit the expression represented by each of the other trees.

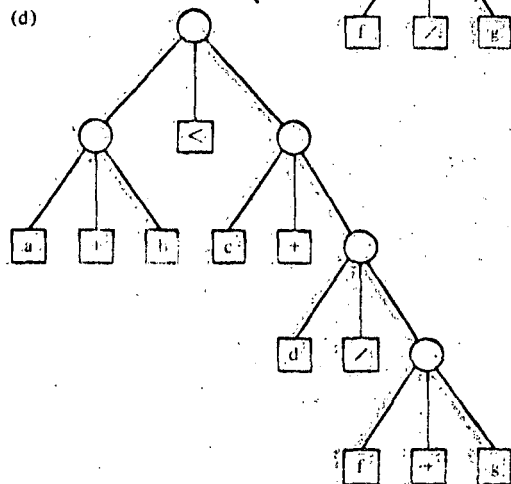
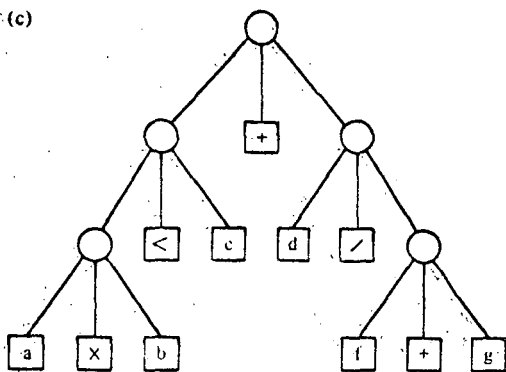
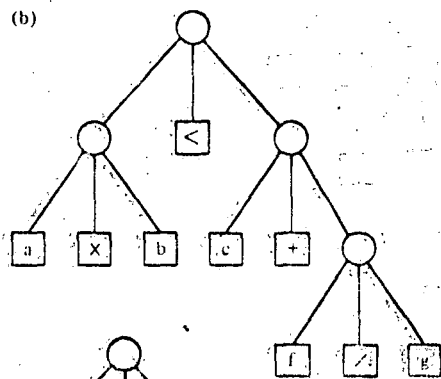
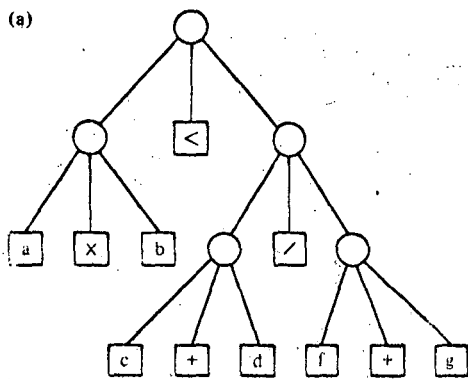
$$y \left(\frac{4 - 2y}{3} \right) + y^2$$



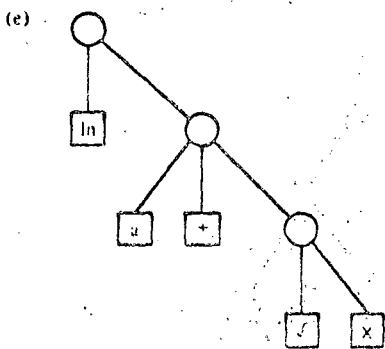
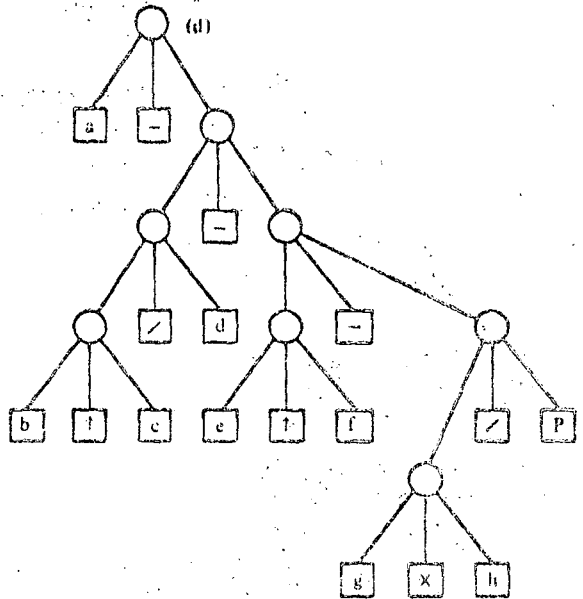
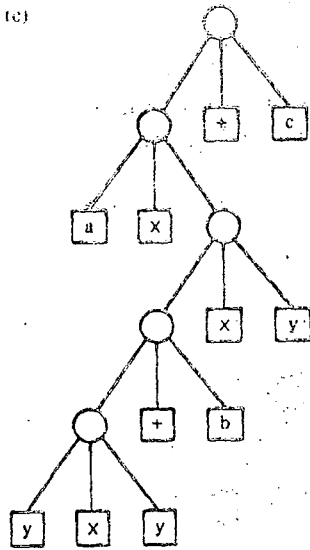
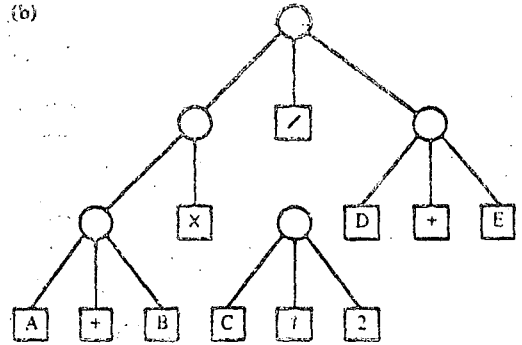
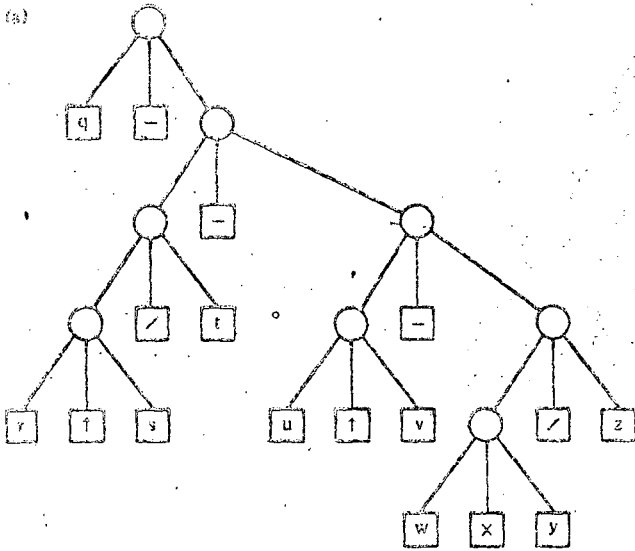


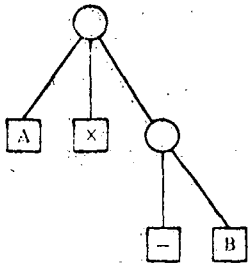
6. Find the tree among the four given below that represents the given expression correctly and exhibit the expressions represented by each of the other trees.

$$a \times b < c + d / (f + g)$$



7. Convert the trees below into the corresponding arithmetic expressions.





8. How would you draw the expression tree for the expression $A \times (-B)$? The problem here is to decide how one should represent a unary operation. One possibility is shown in the tree on the left.

Here the subtree expression $-B$ is treated as a root node having a unary operator $-$ and one argument B as offspring nodes. One can deduce that the operator is unary by the fact that the (left-hand) operand node is missing. Functions such as $\sqrt{\quad}$, \cos , and so forth, can be thought of as unary operators. Using the above expression scheme, or another of your own choosing, develop expression trees for:

- (a) $A + \sqrt{x}$
- (b) $\cos(x^2 + y^2)$
- (c) $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \times (1 + q / \sqrt{p^2 + q^2})}$

9. Which of the following statements is false?

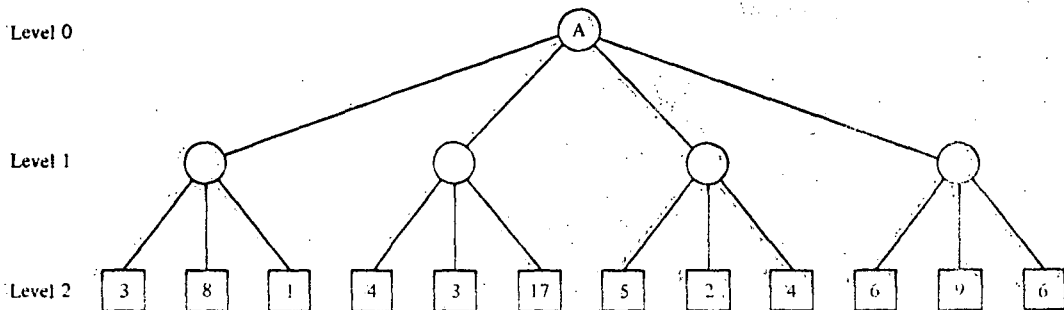
- (a) A terminal node has one ancestor node and no descendant nodes.
- (b) A root node has no ancestor nodes and may have no descendant.
- (c) A nonterminal node has no descendant nodes.
- (d) A nonterminal node may have only one ancestor node.
- (e) A terminal node can be connected to an ancestor.

Hint If you have any question as to the meaning of "ancestor" and "descendant" just think of a family tree.

10. Any given two-dimensional matrix can be represented as a tree. For example, the matrix

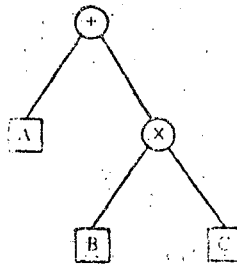
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 3 & 2 & 9 \\ 1 & 17 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

can be expressed as the tree:

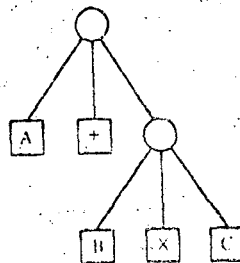


- (a) Given the representation above, the four nodes at Level 1 correspond to (choose one):
 - (1) The four elements of the main diagonal of the given matrix.
 - (2) The four elements of row 1 of the given matrix.

- (3) The four columns of the given matrix.
 (4) The sums of the elements in each of the columns of the given matrix.
 (5) None of the above.
- (b) Show at least one other way to represent the matrix A as a tree structure.
11. Using list notation, give the paths for the nodes labeled \boxed{D} , \boxed{U} , and \boxed{t} , in the second of the two trees referred to in Problem 3 of this exercise set.
12. Develop a scheme to denote the saving in time that, in principle, is possible in a computer having multiple processing units that can execute concurrently in the same expression. Show how your scheme would work on the following expressions.
- (a) $a^2 + b^2 + c^2$
 (b) $(a - b) \times (c - d) / (e \times (f + g))$
 (c) $(\sqrt{x} + \cos y) / z$
13. In the text we have always shown the operator symbol of an expression tree as a terminal node, so each nonterminal node of the tree has three offspring if the operator has two operands, and two offspring if the operator has one operand. Another way to draw the tree is to place each operator symbol *at* its parent (nonterminal) node. For example, the tree for the expression
 $A + B \times C$
 may be drawn as



instead of as



The new form, which we shall call a *binary expression tree*, has fewer nodes but the same amount of information.

Refer to Figure 6.14 and:

- (a) Produce the binary expression tree equivalent to the expression tree given in the figure.
- (b) Show how the tree table in that figure can be changed in structure and in content to represent the binary tree you developed in part a.
- (c) Which tree table would require less storage in a computer representation?

6.2 Tree searches

We have now seen enough of trees to have observed their main structural characteristics; segments of a subtree always connect to new nodes that form a continuation of the same subtree; there is no looping back to nodes closer to the root; and there is no crossing or crisscrossing between subtrees.

There are many ways one can construct and store a tree structure. Depending on what use is to be made of the tree, some representations (we will call these *storage structures*) are better than others. Trees are searched for one reason or another, either to gain specific information, to reach a conclusion, or to modify the tree in a certain way. A tree search lies at the heart of a number of mathematical problems and a great number of games.

Natural-order Tree Search

There is a systematic way to scan all the nodes of a tree that is used frequently in solving problems. We call it *natural-order searching*. Although a squirrel may have better ways of finding nuts in a tree, it will help us to understand natural-order search if we imagine a nutseeking squirrel willing to follow these rules.

1. Start at the trunk (root) and don't stop trying segments until you reach a leaf (terminal node) unless you find a nut and choose to stop at that point.
2. Upon reaching a terminal without finding a nut, back up to the node you just passed, that is, to the *parent* node of this terminal.
3. Now, choose the next untried segment, if any, and move forward along it toward another leaf node.

4. If there are no untried segments, crawl backward to the predecessor (parent) node and repeat the process of trying to reach another leaf node.
5. If you ever find yourself back at the root having already tried all segments from the root without finding a nut, you have finished searching the entire tree in natural order and can report a failure to find a nut.

Figure 6-15 shows a natural-order search of a tree. The numbers beside the nodes indicate the sequence in which they

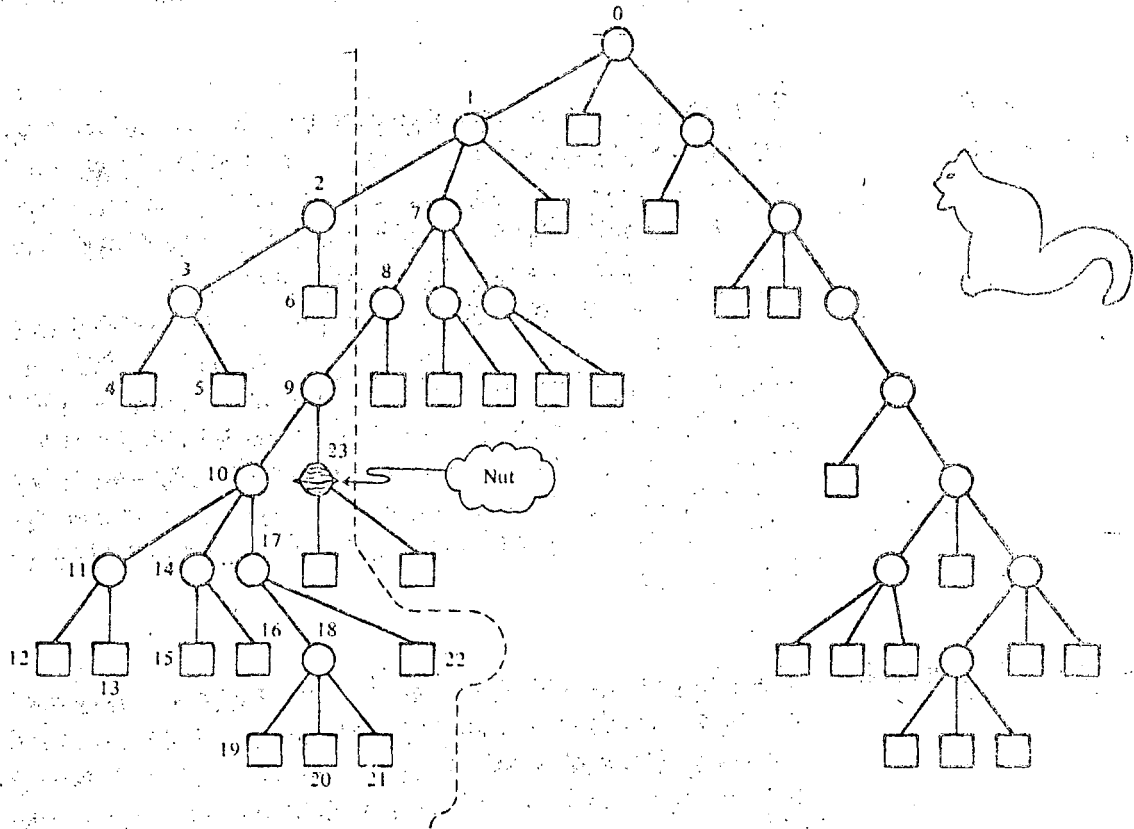


FIGURE 6-15
Systematic (natural-order)
search for a nut.

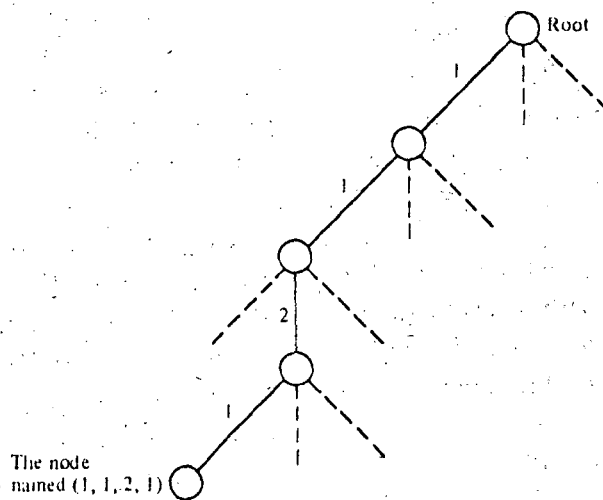
are first encountered (i.e., as the squirrel sees them in its forward progress). We picture one of these nodes as a nut. It is the 23rd node encountered. Notice the systematic, left-to-right selection of segments at each node.

Algorithm for Natural-Order
Tree Search

Now suppose we wish to construct a tree search algorithm that generally follows the stated set of rules. One of our problems is how to interpret rule 3, that is, how to choose among the

remaining untried segments. If we recall, however, that the segments emanating from each node are, or always can be, *ordered*, then a simple interpretation comes quickly to mind: choose the segment, if any, whose ordinal number name is one higher than that of the segment previously tried.

To make this choice implies that the algorithm can always identify the ancestor or parent node from which the "previously tried" segment emanated. That is, the algorithm can only identify additional segments in terms of the common parent. This *backup* capability is assured if the algorithm at all times has an up-to-date record of where it is in the tree search and can represent this data in the form of a path list. For example, suppose it has been discovered that the segments from the node whose path designation is $(1, 1, 2, 1)$ need be examined no further (Picture 1).

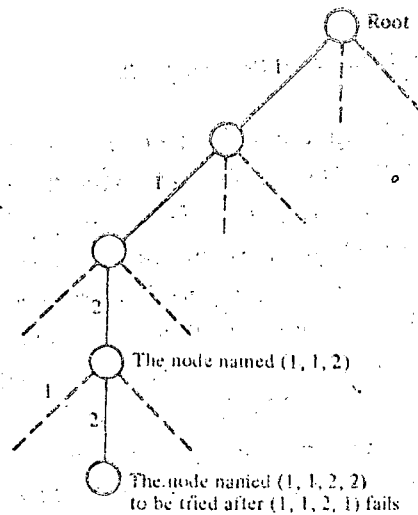


PICTURE 1

What is the path name for the parent of that node? The answer is $(1, 1, 2)$.

How do we apply rule 3 to this parent $(1, 1, 2)$? (Rule 3: choose the next untried segment, if any, and move forward along it toward another leaf node.) The answer is, if there is a node whose path is $(1, 1, 2, 1 + 1)$, try it (Picture 2).

In general, suppose we have tried the segment leading from node $(1, 1, 2)$ to node $(1, 1, 2, i)$ and the subtree whose root is $(1, 1, 2, i)$ has failed to contain the nut we are looking for. To select the next untried segment, if any, of node $(1, 1, 2)$, we have only to check whether there exists a valid node



PICTURE 2

whose path is $(1, 1, 2, i + 1)$. If so, select the segment leading to this node and if not, back up, and check whether there is a valid node $(1, 1, 2 + 1)$. If so, select the segment leading to this node, but if not, back up again and see whether $(1, 1 + 1)$ is valid, and so on.

We now sense that by starting out with a path list that represents the root node (an empty list of segments), and by continuing to update that list as we move through the tree to reflect where we are in the search, then simple adjustments to the path allow us to determine each new direction of search.

Figure 6-16 shows a systematic procedure, that is, an algorithm for conducting natural-order tree search. The algorithm is represented in top-down style, with Figure 6-16a giving the topmost view. Any necessary data are input in box 1 and the tree search begins at box 2. In *Tree_Search*, whose details are given in Figure 6-16b, there are two key variables: *level* and *path*. The value of *level* tells us the number of elements in path. Values of these two variables determine the *current node* of the search. In a sense the current node is the one we are standing on while we try to find the next node to move to. These variables are initialized in box 1 of Figure 6-16b. *Tree_Search* sets some sort of switch to indicate success or failure. (Recall that a root node by itself does not constitute a tree. There must be at least one subtree. For this reason the first-time box 2.2 is executed the Yes outlet will be taken.) Upon exit from *Tree_Search*, the main program, in effect, tests

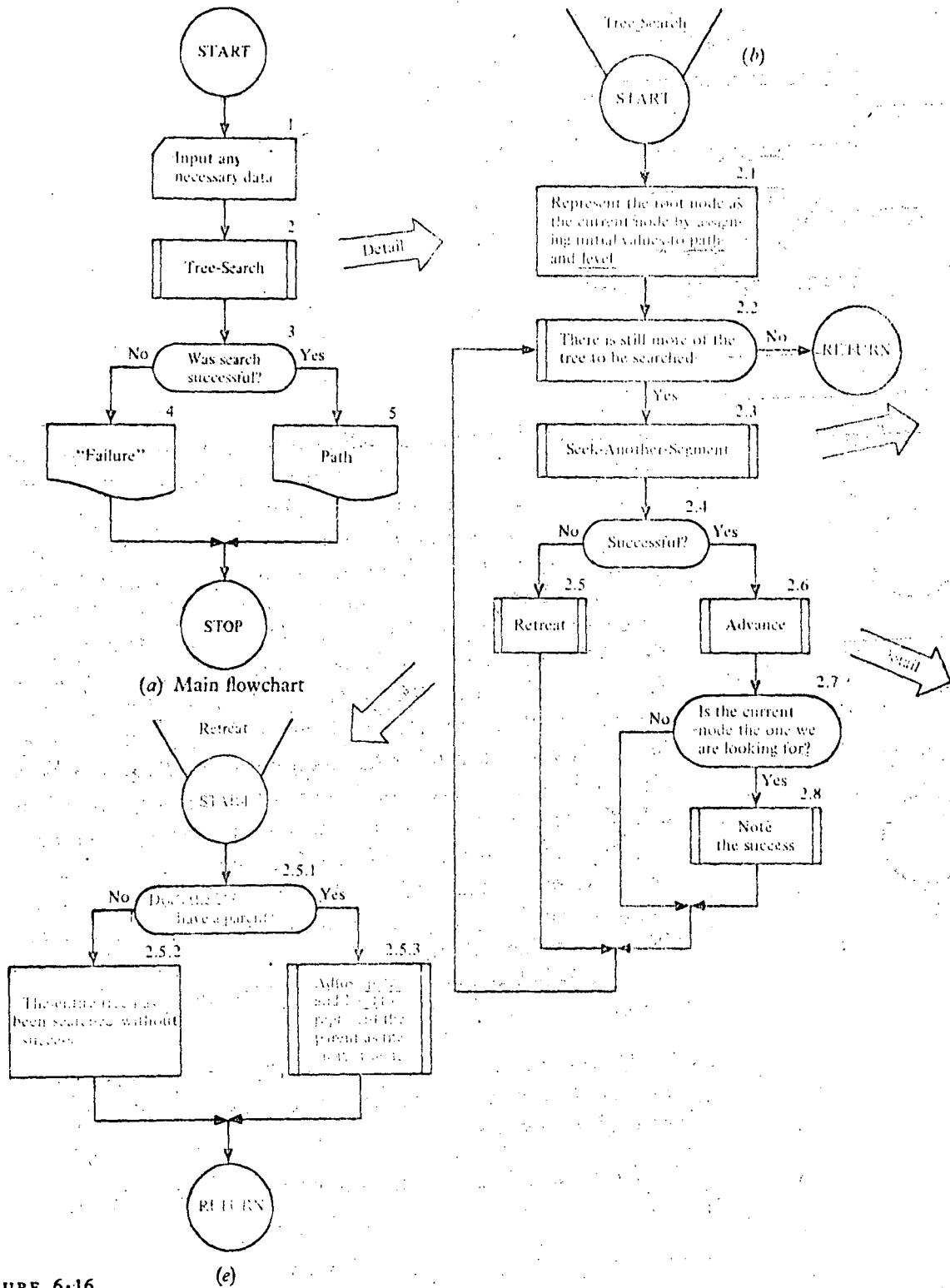
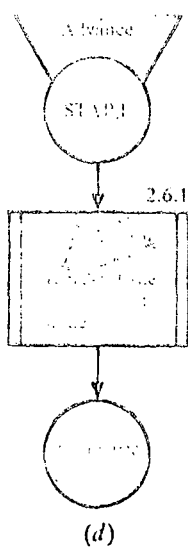
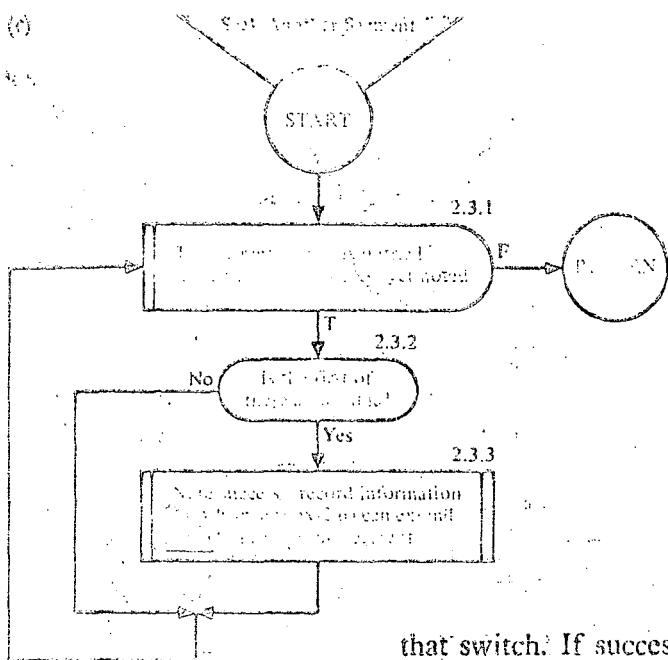


FIGURE 6-16
 Top-down development of an
 algorithm for natural-order
 tree search.



that switch. If success is indicated, the path list is displayed, identifying the location in the tree where the nut was found; otherwise a failure message is displayed.

To simplify the details of *Tree_Search*, three of its boxes are given in more detail in Figure 6.16c, 6.16d, and 6.16e. Notice that rule 3 is implemented in box 2.3 as a call to a procedure, "Seek_Another_Segment," whose details (Figure 6.16c) include a test for admissibility of untried segments. Although not shown in the level of detail given in Figure 6.16c, we imagine that some sort of switch is set by *Seek_Another_Segment*, which can be tested upon return to *Tree_Search* so that the former's success or failure can be determined at box 2.4. If successful, there is a new node to which the search may *advance* (details in Figure 6.16d). If unsuccessful, it is necessary to *retreat* to the parent node, if any (Figure 6.16e). (Remember that *Seek_Another_Segment* reports failure only after *all* segments have been tested.)

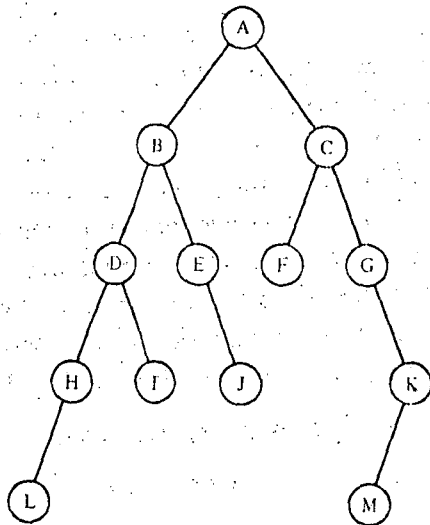
The bookkeeping of the retreat operation (box 2.5.3) is a two-step process.

1. Detach the last element of *path*, which is a segment number, and save it to use the next time *Seek_Another_Segment* is called at box 2.3.
2. Decrement *level* by one to reflect the shortened length of *path*.

The segment number saved in step 1 is needed in boxes 2.3.1 and 2.3.3. When a new segment number is selected in box 2.3.3, it in turn is saved for use by Advance, the next time that procedure is called at box 2.6. Advance increments *level* by one and appends the new segment number on to the end of *path*. We leave to the reader the pleasure of reviewing these details and convincing himself of their correctness. As a parting remark, it is worth observing that the nature of the admissibility check hinted at in box 2.3.2 may be crucial to the success of the search. As many inadmissible structures as possible must be ruled out at each stage. For example, the squirrel should recognize each dead limb and not search it. Otherwise, the proportion of useless paths may grow rapidly, meaning that the efficiency of the search method can plummet toward zero. Next we examine several interesting problems that employ this type of search in their algorithmic solution.

EXERCISE 6.2

1. List the nodes of the tree below in the order in which they would be encountered in a natural-order search.



6.3 The four-color problem

Maps are colored to make it easy to see at a glance the extent of each country. It is necessary that neighboring countries (i.e. countries with a common boundary line) be assigned different colors. Does the mapmaker then need more than four colors to do his job? He doesn't care, but we *do*.

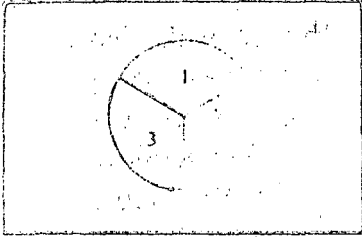


FIGURE 6-17

This problem was one of the most celebrated challenges in mathematics. It is of great intellectual interest and has intrigued many people from all paths of life. Actually, its solution has little or nothing whatsoever to do with making maps. A mapmaker is and always will be able to print maps using as many different colors as he needs.

A checkerboard is an example of a map that can be colored with only *two* colors. The four-country map shown in Figure 6-17 requires *four* colors. Because each pair of countries is adjacent, no two can have the same color.

It didn't take us long to find a map requiring four colors. Yet, in over 100 years of searching, no one has succeeded in finding a map requiring five! It is natural to conjecture that every map can be colored with four colors, and many mathematicians have racked their brains trying to prove this conjecture. The best they have been able to do so far is to show that every map can be colored using no more than five colors.*

We are about to see how computer methods can be applied to the four-color problem. We will not use the computer to show that the four-color conjecture is *true*. Indeed, it is entirely possible that no computer can ever prove this. However, true or false, we can use the computer to determine whether a *particular map* can be colored in only four colors. This is the task for which we want to construct an algorithm.

Before starting on this algorithm, a few remarks concerning the coloring of maps may be helpful.

A *minimal five-color map* is a map requiring five colors, so that every other map requiring five colors has at least as many countries. Of course, no minimal five-color map has ever been found. But mathematicians have shown that if such maps exist at all, then some of them satisfy these two conditions:

1. No point is a boundary point of more than three countries.
2. Each country is a neighbor of at least five others.

Moreover, it can be shown that *every* minimal map, if any exist, must satisfy the second condition.

It is therefore customary to consider as candidates for counterexamples to the four-color conjecture only maps fulfilling these conditions.

*A simple proof of the five-color theorem exists. It may be found, for example, in *What is Mathematics?*, Oxford University Press (1941), by Courant and Robbins.

Four-Coloring as a Tree Search

We can model the problem of four-coloring a given map, say, the one pictured in Figure 6-18, as one of traveling along a path through a tree such as that shown in Figure 6-19. Each segment represents a decision to color a country, with colors 1, 2, 3, or 4. The *i*th segment in a path from the root corresponds to the coloring of the *i*th country of the map.

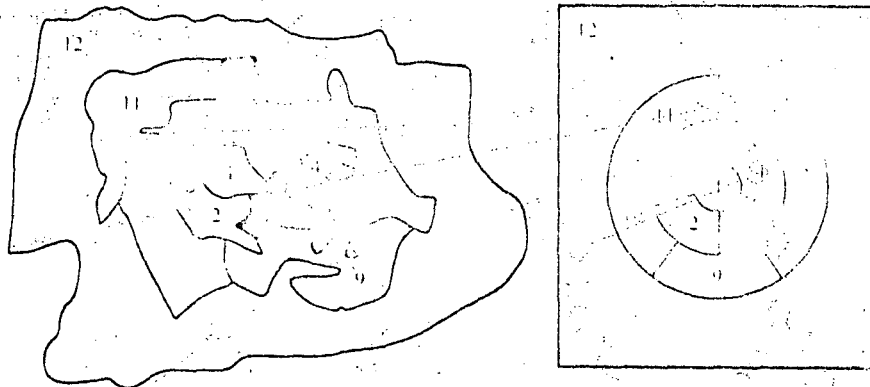


FIGURE 6-18

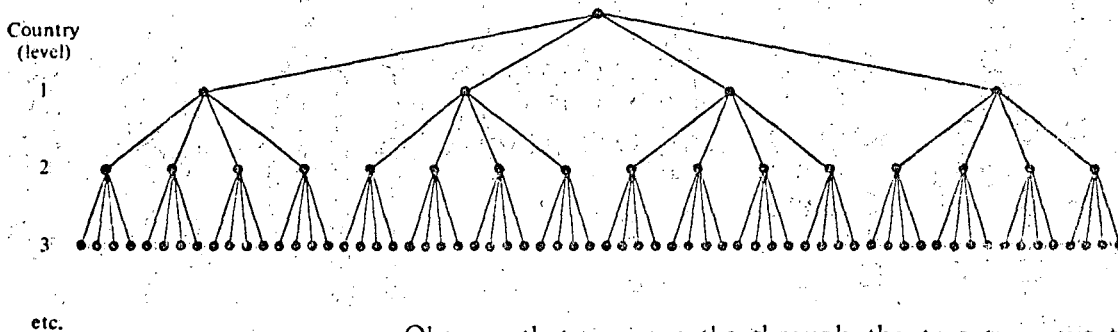


FIGURE 6-19

Observe that many paths through the tree turn out to represent identical colorings of the map except for renaming of the colors, and it is desirable to avoid searching through such duplicate patterns. (E.g., the two heavy-line paths in Figure 6-20 represent the same coloring patterns with different names used for the colors.) One way to avoid the unnecessary search is to fix at the outset in a quite arbitrary way the colors for neighboring countries 1, 2, and 3 and to begin the real search with the coloring of country 4.

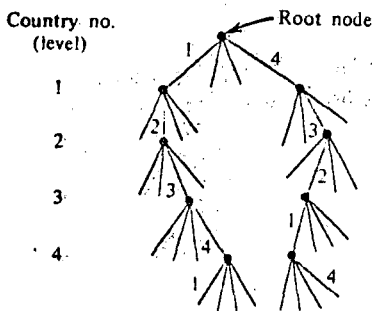


FIGURE 6-20

In coloring all countries, from the fourth country on, as seen in Figure 6-21, we assume that all four choices are possible. Most of the time, however, as can be seen in Figure 6-22, only one, two, or three of these choices will be admissible. Sometimes even all four choices will be inadmissible, as ex-

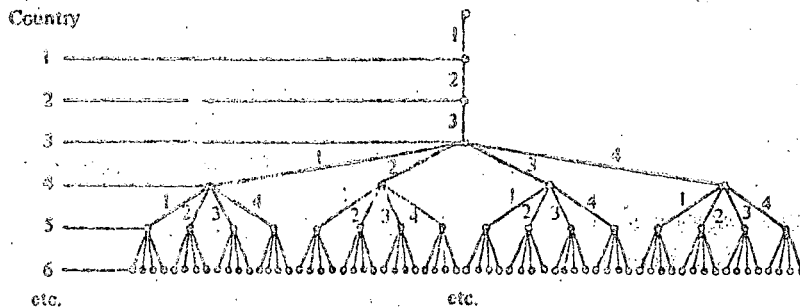


FIGURE 6-21
Showing coloring tree and one path representing the coloring of the first six countries (colored line).

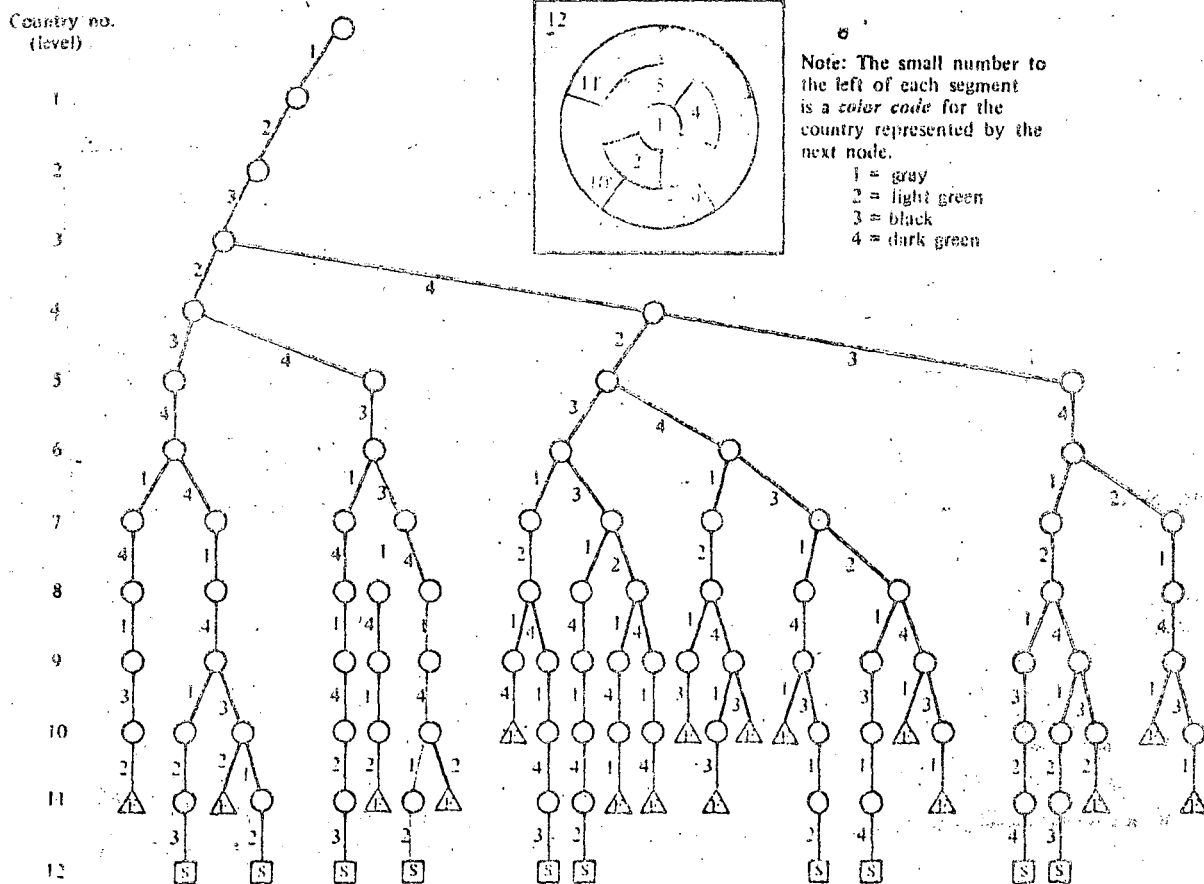


FIGURE 6-22
An entire coloring tree showing how to four-color the map of Figure 6-18.

10 Successes, marked by terminal nodes of the form \square

16 Failures, marked by terminal nodes of the form \triangle

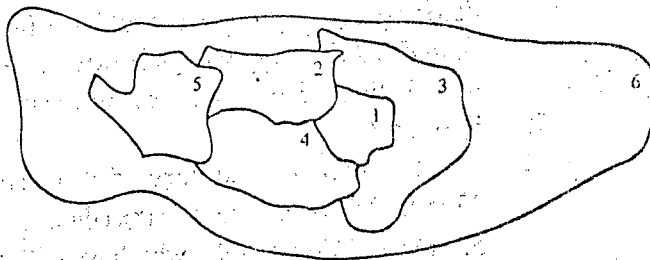
emphified by terminal nodes marked \square in Figure 6-22. Only 10 paths lead to S (success) terminals.

EXERCISES 6-3,
SET A

1. Compute the theoretical maximum number of possible terminal nodes for the coloring tree of the 12-country map in Figure 6-18.

Hint Use Figure 6-21 as a guide.

2. Assume that it takes only 1 microsecond to check another path to a terminal, and that the search of half of these paths is required before the desired terminal is reached. How long would the computer chug away before it found what it was looking for in a 39-country map? Assume all segments to be admissible. Express your answer in units of years.
3. By renumbering the countries on the map of Figure 6·18, show that a coloring tree can have nodes with three and even four permissible segments emanating from them.
4. Using a form similar to that of Figure 6·22, draw a "coloring tree" for the map shown below.



A Four-Coloring Algorithm

Let us see how to apply what we have just learned about tree search to an actual problem. It is one thing to discuss a tree in the abstract and another to start with a problem, define in some detail the tree search that is involved, and then develop a detailed flowchart algorithm. In this case, we will take as our problem statement: Develop a detailed flowchart algorithm for four-coloring any n-country map.

The first step toward this objective might be to devise a method to represent any n-country map. To do this we need a sample map for study as, for example, in Figure 6·23. The

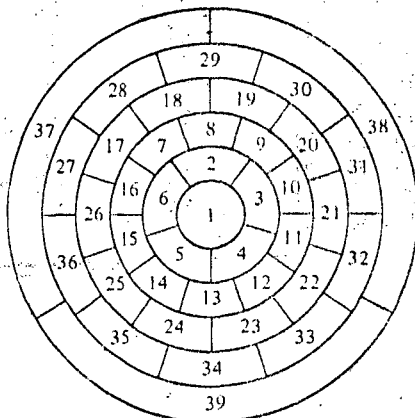


FIGURE 6·23
Example of map to be four-colored by a computer algorithm.

map consists of 39 countries, and the countries have been numbered or indexed in the order that the algorithm will attempt to "color" them.

The efficiency of the algorithm will be greatly improved if each country borders on as many lower-numbered countries as possible. We do not absolutely insist on this but, if you have done Problem 3 of Exercise 6.3, you will appreciate why we recommend this approach. We do, however, require that the first three countries all be neighbors of each other.

How do we represent the map in computer storage? One way is to construct a "connection table," listing after each country all of its neighbors in increasing order. This is shown for our example in Table 6.1.

Our algorithm should consult this table when deciding how to color a particular country. For example, if we were coloring country 15, we could see in row 15 that countries 5, 6, and 14 are neighbors already colored. Our choice of color for 15, then, depends solely on the currently chosen colors for 5, 6, and 14.

Knowing that country 15 also has neighbors numbered 16, 25, and 26 appears to be superfluous. This leads us to the idea of a shaved-down table, which we will call the "reduced connec-

TABLE 6.1
The Connection Table for the Map in Figure 6.23

Country	Neighbors	Country	Neighbors
1.	2 3 4 5 6	21.	10 11 20 22 31 32
2.	1 3 6 7 8 9	22.	11 12 21 23 32 33
3.	1 2 4 9 10 11	23.	12 13 22 24 33 34
4.	1 3 5 11 12 13	24.	13 14 23 25 34 35
5.	1 4 6 13 14 15	25.	14 15 24 26 35 36
6.	1 2 5 7 15 16	26.	15 16 17 25 27 36
7.	2 6 8 16 17 18	27.	17 26 28 36 37
8.	2 7 9 18 19	28.	17 18 27 29 37
9.	2 3 8 10 19 20	29.	18 19 28 30 37 38
10.	3 9 11 20 21	30.	19 20 29 31 38
11.	3 4 10 12 21 22	31.	20 21 30 32 38
12.	4 11 13 22 23	32.	21 22 31 33 38 39
13.	4 5 12 14 23 24	33.	22 23 32 34 39
14.	5 13 15 24 25	34.	23 24 33 35 39
15.	5 6 14 16 25 26	35.	24 25 34 36 39
16.	6 7 15 17 26	36.	25 26 27 35 37 39
17.	7 16 18 26 27 28	37.	27 28 29 36 38 39
18.	7 8 17 19 28 29	38.	29 30 31 32 37 39
19.	8 9 18 20 29 30	39.	32 33 34 35 36 37 38
20.	9 10 19 21 30 31		

TABLE 6.2
Reduced Connection Table for the Map in Figure 6.23

Country i	Neighbors CONN _{ij}	Width w _i	Country i	Neighbors CONN _{ij}	Width w _i
1		0	21	10 11 20	3
2	1	1	22	11 12 21	3
3	1 2	2	23	12 13 22	3
4	1 3	2	24	13 14 23	3
5	1 4	2	25	14 15 24	3
6	1 2 5	3	26	15 16 17 25	4
7	2 6	2	27	17 26	2
8	2 7	2	28	17 18 27	3
9	2 3 8	3	29	18 19 28	3
10	3 9	2	30	19 20 29	3
11	3 4 10	3	31	20 21 30	3
12	4 11	2	32	21 22 31	3
13	4 5 12	3	33	22 23 32	3
14	5 13	2	34	23 24 33	3
15	5 6 14	3	35	24 25 34	3
16	6 7 15	3	36	25 26 27 35	4
17	7 16	2	37	27 28 29 36	4
18	7 8 17	3	38	29 30 31 32 37	5
19	8 9 18	3	39	32 33 34 35 36 37 38	7
20	9 10 19	3			

tion table." It is constructed by striking out of each row in the table all numbers greater than the number of the row itself. The reduced connection table for our example is seen in Table 6.2 and can be thought of in this case as a 39-row by 7-column array called CONN. The number of nonnull elements in each row is given by elements of an associated list w . Thus the algorithm can search the first w_i elements in the i th row of CONN to determine which neighbors have already been colored.

If we are to apply our generalized tree search algorithm (Figure 6.16) to the map-coloring problem, we must also decide how to represent the *current node* (i.e., how to represent the variables *path* and *level*). The variable *path* is a list of elements, each of which designates a segment choice. Our decision to use color codes 1, 2, 3, and 4 for the four possible color choices leads us directly to the decision that a search from a node may be accomplished by selecting (trying) the segments in the same order, 1, 2, 3, and 4. The decision to make this correspondence between the color codes and the segment order imposes the required ordering on the segments from each node of our coloring tree. Moreover, the i th element

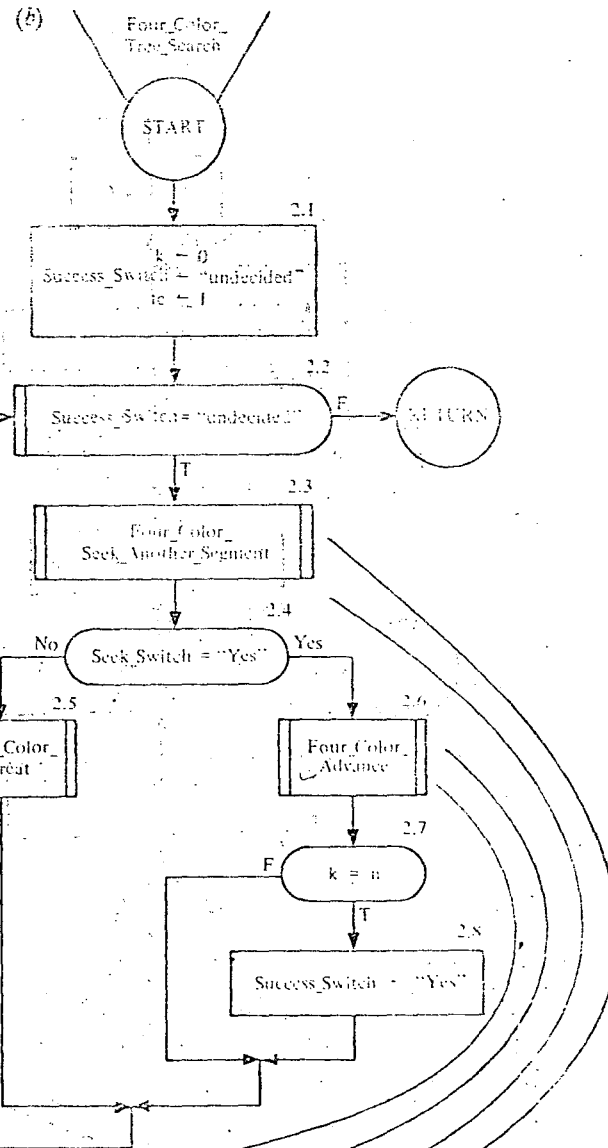
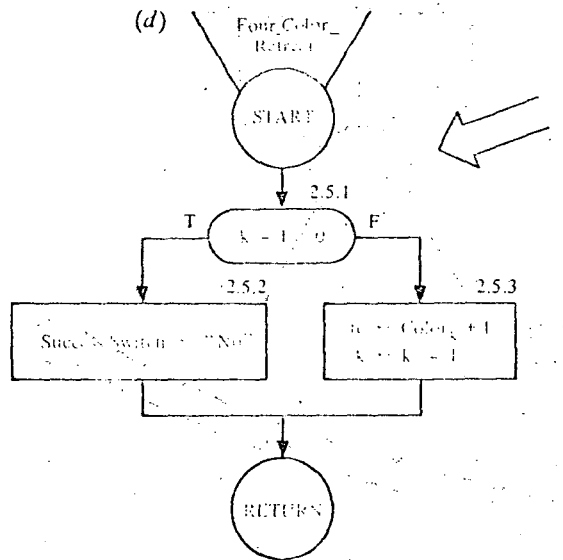
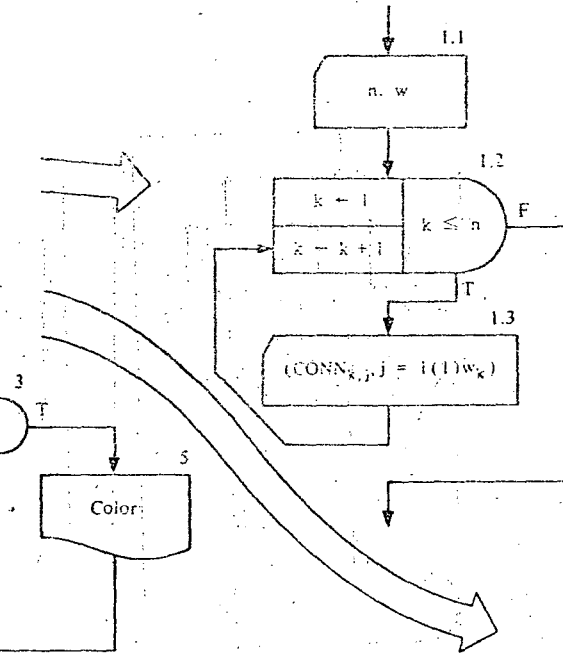
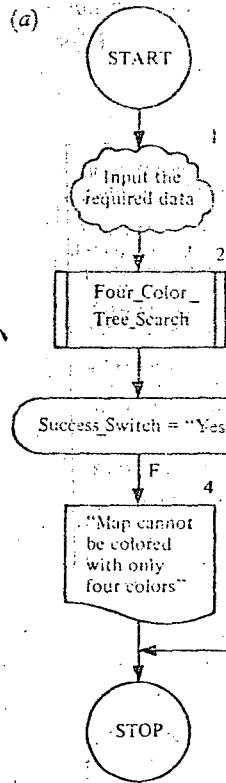
of *path* automatically identifies the color chosen for the *i*th country! This means that whenever we have been able to choose a valid color for the *n*th country, the current contents of the path is the desired list of colors for the *n* countries of the map. Nothing could be simpler. For this problem, let us call the path list COLOR, since it is more suggestive of our desired objective.

Figure 6-24 shows a flowchart algorithm incorporating the foregoing concepts and details and following the identical top-down structure given in the generalized search (Figure 6-16). It will be easy to verify the claimed similarity. If you have any difficulty in following Figure 6-24, remember that boxes with corresponding numbers in the generalized flowchart have similar meanings. Only Figure 6-24's detail of the admissibility test in box 2.3.2, is really new.

Discussion

Box 1 of Figure 6-24 is a counterpart to box 1 of Figure 6-16. In the detailed algorithm we must input the data explicitly to represent the map if we are going to deduce the actual structure of the tree. In Figure 6-24b, to keep track of what tree level has been reached, a level or path length counter *k* is needed. This counter is initially set to 0 in box 2.1 to reflect the start of the search at the root node. [The algorithm could be made more efficient by initializing the level counter to 3 and path to (1, 2, 3) to reflect coloring the first three countries with the first three colors, as suggested in Figure 6-21.]

Success_Switch is a three-valued switch variable that is initially set to "undecided" (at box 2.1), and then is set to either "Yes" if the tree search succeeds or to "No" if the search fails. To see why or where this switch is set to either "Yes" or to "No," you may have to descend to the next levels of detail. Thus, whenever we discover that the search is about to backtrack to level zero, the search has failed (boxes 2.5.1 and 2.5.2 of Retreat). If $k - 1 = 0$ in box 2.5.1, the current node is at level 1. In other words we have backtracked to the first country. The first country was colored with color 1 at the beginning of the search. We have not tested colors 2, 3, or 4 on country 1. Should we? Not really, because we know that any coloring we find will simply be a remaining of a previous coloring (if any) when country 1 had color 1. We won't find



25

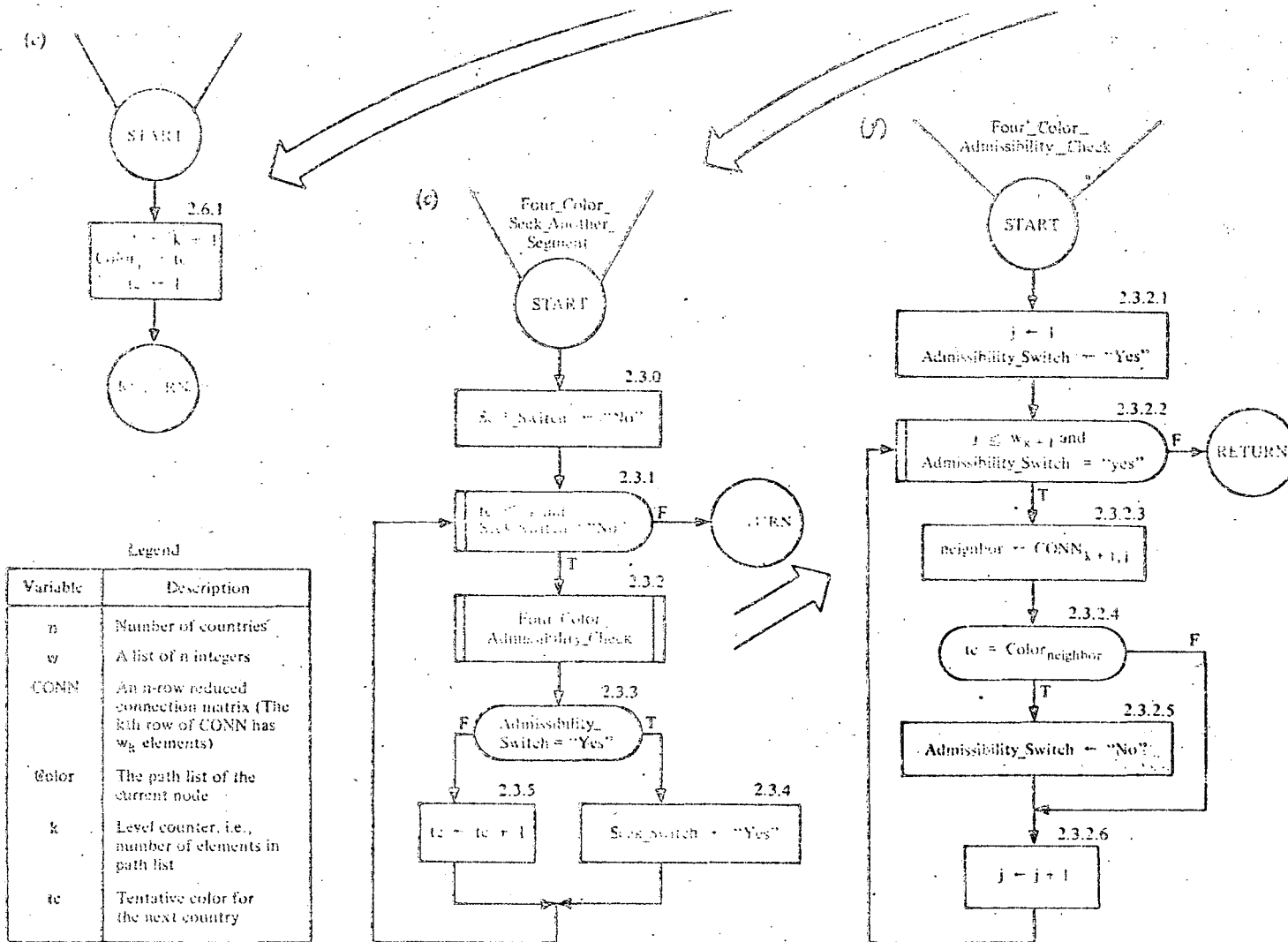
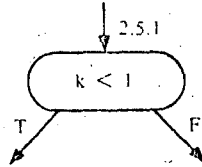


FIGURE 6-24
Four-coloring algorithm.
Top-down approach.

any new patterns. If we want to search the complete tree, however, including the four possible colors for the first country, we have only to change the test in box 2.5.1 to read



Whenever the level counter k is found to equal n (boxes 2.7 and 2.8 of *Tree_Search*), *Success_Switch* is set to "Yes." The variable *Seek_Switch* tested by *Tree_Search* in box 2.4 is set to either "Yes" or "No" by *Seek_Another_Segment* (Figure 6.24c). This procedure in turn reports success if and only if the subprocedure *Admissibility_Check* reports success. This latter procedure (Figure 6.24f) determines whether any of the previously colored neighbors (there are w_{k+1} of them) have the same color as the tentative color, tc , that is being considered for the $k + 1$ st country. If so, *Admissibility_Switch* is set to "No" so that, after the RETURN to *Seek_Another_Segment*, another (the next) color may be tried. Notice that only in *Admissibility_Check* is there any reference to the map's representation. This suggests that detailed flowcharts for different natural-order tree search problems will differ mainly in the details of this particular part of the search algorithm.

The bookkeeping of *Retreat* and *Advance* in Figure 6.24 uses auxiliary variable, tc , tentative color. This variable is also used in *Seek_Another_Segment* during the search for an admissible segment and, in box 2.3.5, tc is incremented whenever an inadmissible segment is found. In *Advance*, k is incremented to represent the longer successful coloring path. The successful tentative color is stowed away in $Color_k$, and the auxiliary variable tc is reset to 1. (See box 2.6.1.) During *Retreat* the current color choice for country k must be remembered so that the search for another segment of country k 's parent can resume at a value of tc that is one greater than the last one tried. The saving of this information is accomplished by the assignment step,

$$tc \leftarrow Color_k + 1$$

as seen in box 2.5.3. Then the path length k is shortened by 1.

In the problem set that follows, you are introduced to several well-known problems involving tree search. Here is your chance to apply our generalized natural-order tree search method.

EXERCISES 6-3,
SET B

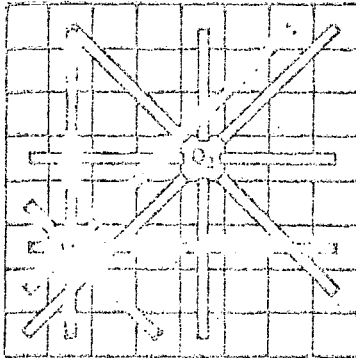


FIGURE 6-25
A chessboard with two
Queens on different rows,
columns, and diagonals.

1. *The Eight Queens Problem.* A chessboard is an eight-by-eight array of positions. The Queen is the most powerful piece in the game of chess in that it can capture any other piece encountered on the same row, column, or diagonal. The problem is to so place eight Queens on the chessboard so that no Queen can capture another Queen.

If there is a solution to the Eight Queens Problem, it is evident that each Queen must be on a different row, column, and diagonal of the chessboard (Figure 6-25). This suggests the need for a systematic way of placing the eight Queens on the board, one at a time. It is certainly immaterial where the first Queen should go but, to be systematic, we can think of putting it somewhere in column 1 with the object of placing each successive Queen in a succeeding column.

In placing the first Queen in column one, there are eight choices, each of which eliminates some of the choices for placing a Queen in column two. These eight choices may be represented by a tree with eight segments emanating from the root node. As one moves down this tree of choices, there will be fewer and fewer admissible branches. A solution to the Eight Queens Problem is represented by a path through the tree reaching all the way to level eight.

The natural-order tree search is suitable for searching the tree, but it is necessary to be explicit about the test to determine which segments of the tree are admissible. Although it is tempting to represent the chessboard as an eight-by-eight array, it is easy to see that a single eight-element list, say $\{Q_i, i = 1(1)8\}$, will suffice, since in the Q list we can store the row number for each Queen.

Suppose that k Queens have already been placed admissibly in the first k columns of the board. To determine whether the next Queen can be placed in position $j, k + 1$, at least two tests must be made.

- (a) Is there already a Queen in row j ? That is, has the value j already been assigned to an element of the Q list? If so, this position $(j, k + 1)$ is inadmissible.
- (b) Is there already a Queen on one of the two diagonals that pass through the new position? The first diagonal, which we will call a "major" diagonal, slants from upper left to lower right. The second one, a "minor" diagonal, slants from lower left to upper right.

If the answers to all these tests are negative, the new position is admissible. You should give thought to various ways of representing the needed data and performing the required tests. One way to record the positions of the Queens (least amount of storage) is with a single eight-element list whose i th element is the row number of the i th



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam

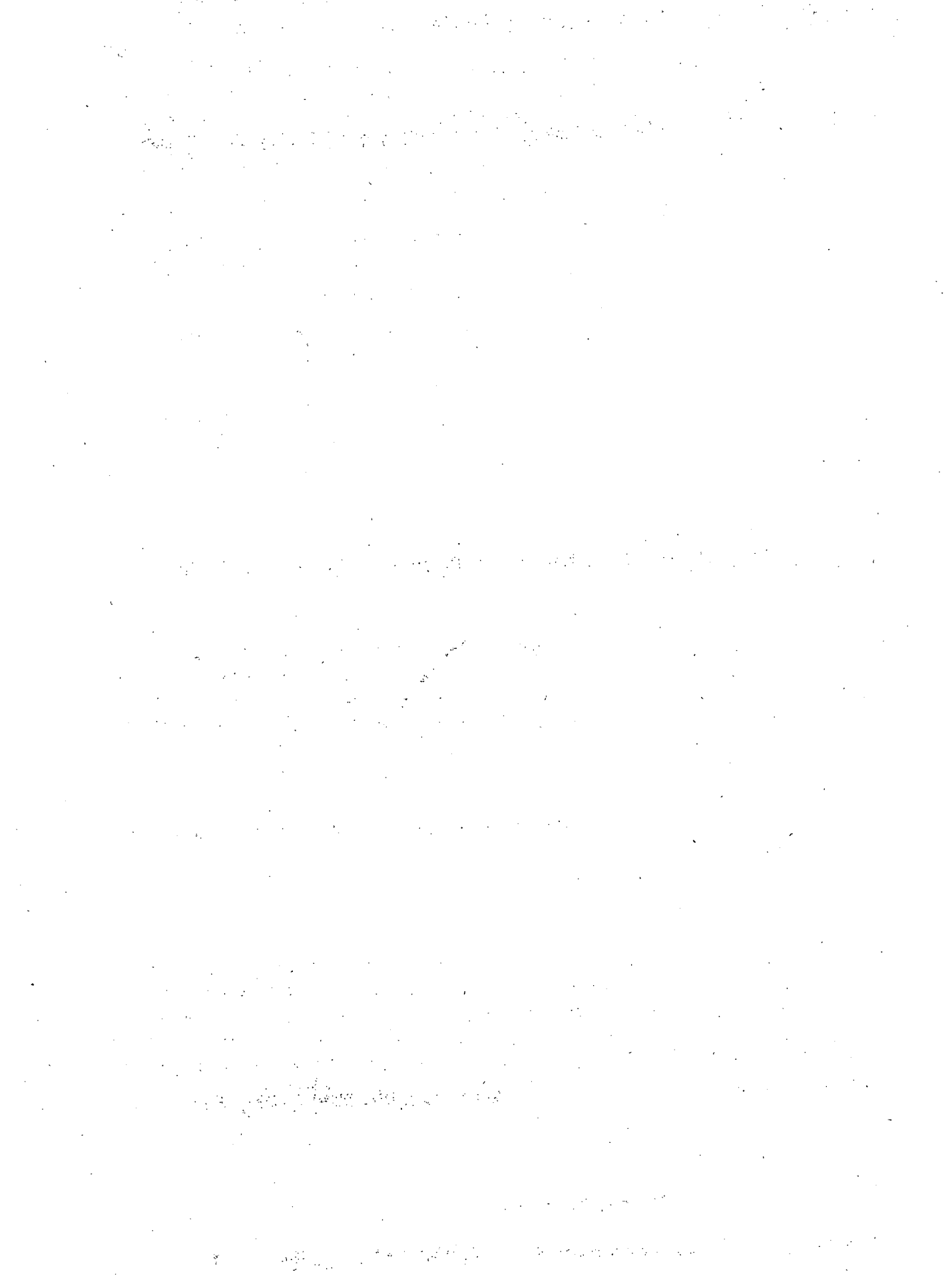


INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

PROGRAMACION LINEAL EL SIMPLEX Y PROBLEMA DE TRANSPORTE

DR. VICTOR GEREZ GREISER

MARZO, 1979



MODELO 1

EL PROBLEMA DE LA DIETA Y SU DUAL

DEFINICION DEL PROBLEMA DE LA DIETA.

Suponga que un dietista está tratando de seleccionar una combinación de cinco tipos de alimentos (naranja, manzana, lechuga, chicharo y zanahoria) de manera que el alimento resultante de esta combinación reúna ciertos requerimientos nutricionales y tenga un costo mínimo. Los requerimientos nutricionales que debe tener el alimento resultante es de al menos 21 unidades de vitamina A y al menos 12 unidades de vitamina B. Las propiedades de los cinco elementos disponibles son:

ALIMENTO	CONTENIDO DE VITAMINA A POR UNIDAD DE ALIMENTO.	CONTENIDO DE VITAMINA B POR UNIDAD DE ALIMENTO.	COSTO POR UNIDAD DE ALIMENTO
1 (Naranja)	1	0	20
2 (Manzana)	0	1	20
3 (Lechuga)	1	2	31
4 (Chicharo)	1	1	11
5 (Zanahoria)	2	1	12

El problema a que se enfrenta el dietista se puede modelar como un problema de programación lineal (o programa lineal), de la siguiente manera.

Sea x_i la cantidad de alimento i ($i=1, 2, \dots, 5$) que debe estar en el alimento resultante de la combinación de los cinco alimentos. Por lo tanto, el costo de introducir el alimento i en la mezcla será su costo unitario por la cantidad x_i que esta presente en la mezcla. El costo total de la combinación de los cinco alimentos será la suma de los costos al combinar x_1, x_2, \dots y x_5 unidades de cada alimento, ie. si z es el costo total entonces

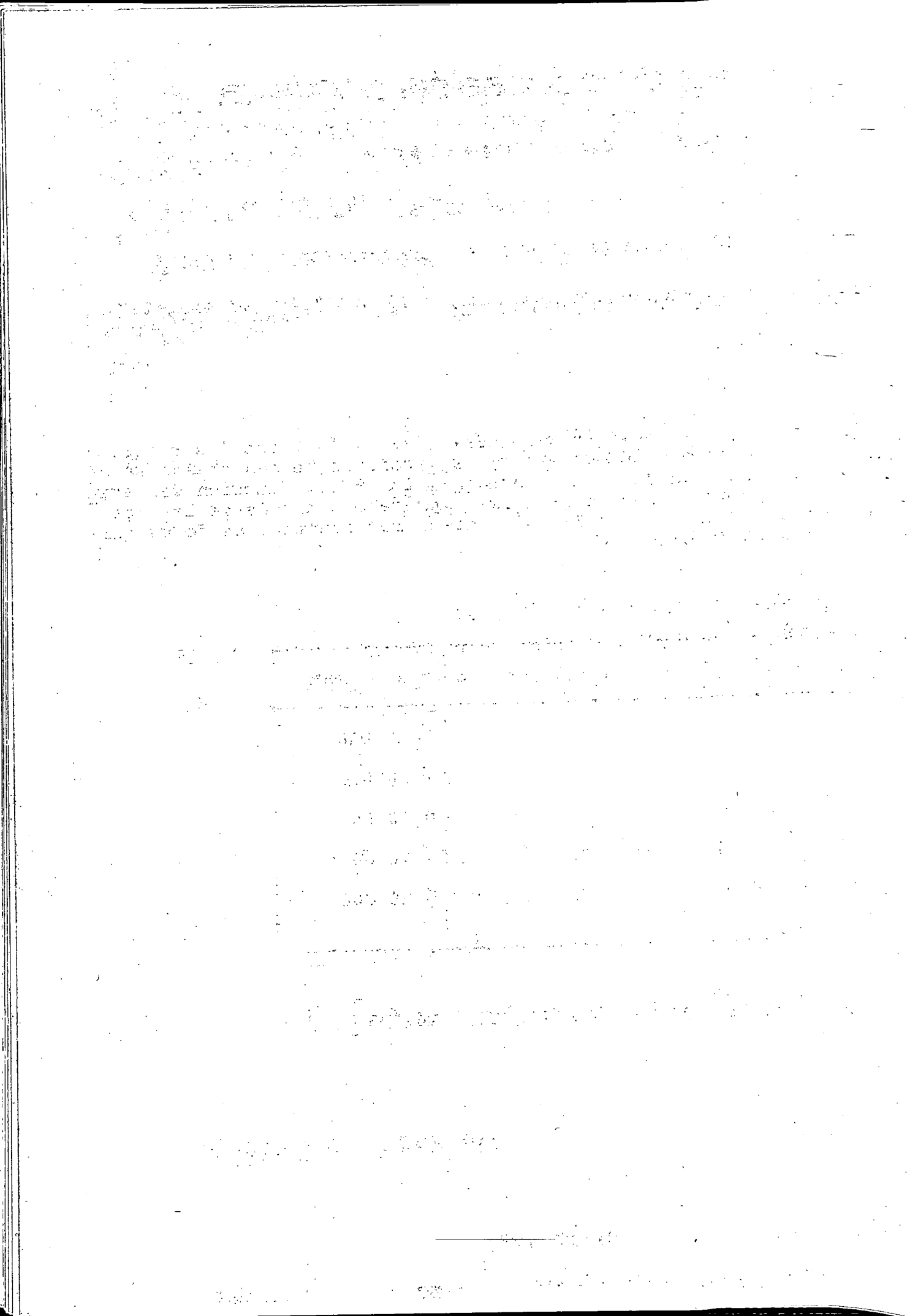
$$z = 20x_1 + 20x_2 + 31x_3 + 11x_4 + 12x_5$$

Ya que el objetivo del dietista es minimizar este costo total, entonces este objetivo se puede representar a través de la siguiente función objetivo

$$\min z = 20x_1 + 20x_2 + 31x_3 + 11x_4 + 12x_5 \quad (1)$$

Los requerimientos nutricionales de vitamina A se pueden representar en la siguiente forma. Si el alimento nutricional i está presente en una cantidad x_i entonces proporciona una cantidad de vitamina A igual al producto de vitamina A que contiene una unidad de alimento por la cantidad x_i . La cantidad total proporcionada por los cinco alimentos será la suma de vitamina A con que contribuye cada alimento y esta deberá ser mayor que el contenido mínimo requerido que es de 21 unidades, ie.

$$x_1 + x_3 + x_4 + 2x_5 \geq 21 \quad (2)$$



C O N T E N I D O

	Página
Objetivo General	1
Objetivos Específicos	2
1 Resumen General de los Métodos Existentes para Planeación Programación y Control de Proyectos.	3
1.1 Diagrama de Barras	3
1.2 Deficiencias al Utilizar un Diagrama de Gantt en Planeación Programación y Control de Proyectos.	5
1.3 Ventajas del Diagrama de Gantt, Cuando Muestra los Resultados de CPM	6
1.4 Antecedentes de los Métodos CPM y PERT (Métodos de Planeación, Programación y Control).	6
1.5 Bases de los Métodos de Planeación Programación y Control.	7
1.6 Análisis Básicos de los Métodos CPM y PERT.	8
1.7 Gráfica y Análisis que se Pueden Hacer - Habiendo Utilizado los Métodos CPM y PERT	8
1.8 Aplicación del CPM y PERT al Control de Ejecución de un Proyecto.	9
1.9 Ventajas de los Métodos CPM y PERT	9
1.10 Aplicación de Computadoras Electrónicas en los Métodos CPM y PERT.	12
2 Tablas de Secuencia	13
2.1 Primera Fase en la Planeación de un Proyecto.	13
2.2 Segunda Fase en la Planeación de un Proyecto.	14

3	Creación de la Red de un Proyecto.	15
3.1	Términos Básicos.	16
4	Reglas de la Red.	19
4.1	Reglas Básicas de una Red Lógica.	19
4.2	Reglas Impuestas por los Computadores ó Métodos de Cálculo.	19
4.3	Interpretación de las Reglas.	19
4.4	Errores Comunes.	20
4.5	Reglas para Introducir el Problema a una Computadora.	21
4.6	El Uso de las Actividades Ficticias.	22
5	Cálculos Básicos para la Programación.	24
5.1	Nomenclatura.	25
5.2	Cálculo Hacia Adelante.	26
5.3	Reglas para el Cálculo Hacia Adelante.	27
5.4	Cálculo Hacia Atrás	28
5.5	Reglas para Cálculo Hacia Atrás	28
5.6	Definición e Interpretación de Holguras	30
5.7	Holgura Total por Actividad.	30
5.8	Holgura Libre por Actividad.	30
5.9	Identificación de la Ruta Crítica.	31

6 **Uso de Símbolos Especiales en Cálculos Programados.**

32

7 **Ejemplo Ilustrativo.**

35

Conclusiones.

Bibliografía Recomendada.

OBJETIVO GENERAL

Los directivos de un proyecto adquirirán un enfoque muy útil y preciso en cuanto corresponde a los métodos CPM y PERT, (CRITICAL PATH METHOD y PROGRAM EVALUATION AND REVIEW TECHNIQUE), para planificar y controlar proyectos complejos de gran importancia, permitiéndoles comparar y evaluar de una manera rápida y eficaz los distintos programas de trabajo. Además de proporcionar los efectos de cada variación o retraso en los planes adoptados, y con ello identificar las operaciones que requieran cambios.

Nos permitimos acercarnos a todos los que directa o indirectamente tienen contacto con proyectos vitales de alguna Empresa, con el afán de aumentar su gran potencial en cuanto a la planificación, programación y control de los mismos.

Trataremos de dar respuesta a preguntas que siempre surgen entre los directivos de un proyecto.

- ¿ Cómo identificar las actividades que se deben terminar de acuerdo a lo planeado ?.
- ¿ Si el proyecto compuesto se va a terminar de acuerdo también al programa ?.
- ¿ Cómo revisar los avances del proyecto conforme pasa el tiempo ?.

Rogamos que si nuestro trabajo hace nacer en ustedes una inquietud de crítica siempre constructiva, uniremos nuestros esfuerzos para dar contestación a las interrogantes que presentaren.

OBJETIVOS ESPECIFICOS

En suma el objetivo general antes expresado es la conjunción de los siguientes objetivos específicos:

1. - Informar sobre los antecedentes del CPM y PERT.
2. - Resaltar que la diferencia entre CPM y PERT no es substancial solo de forma, formato y nombre.
3. - Valorar las ventajas que nos proporcionan estos métodos CPM y PERT.
4. - Ver que el diagrama de GANTT presenta serias dificultades para los fines de control en cualquier tipo de proyecto.
5. - Saber elaborar una tabla de secuencias necesarias para la coordinación de actividades dentro del proyecto.
6. - Diagramar la red lógica de actividades, apoyándose en tablas de secuencias.
7. - Interpretar la programación de un proyecto con ayuda de CPM y PERT.
8. - Calcular la solución de una red lógica de actividades por los métodos CPM y PERT.
9. - Llevar al éxito todas las etapas de un proyecto al utilizar métodos CPM y PERT.
10. - Mejorar la planeación, programación y control con ayuda de estas técnicas CPM y PERT.

6

- RESUMEN GENERAL DE LOS METODOS EXISTENTES PARA
PLANEACION PROGRAMACION Y CONTROL DE PROYECTOS

1.1 Diagrama de Barras:

No es nada nuevo el saber utilizar el diagrama de barras, o diagrama de Gantt, para poder elaborar programas de trabajo y ejecutar un proyecto, ya que se forma como sigue:

- a. - Se determinan cuales son las actividades importantes de un proyecto.
- b. - Se asigna una estimación de tiempo para cada actividad.
- c. - Se representa cada actividad por una recta horizontal acotada en tiempo.
- d. - Se hace una lista de actividades por cada renglón y con un cierto orden de ejecución se colocan las barras según el tiempo efectivo.
- e. - Se convierten los tiempos efectivos a una escala de fechas de calendario, y se hace coincidir el inicio del proyecto con esta escala de fechas calendario.
- d. - Se ajustan las posiciones de las barras representativas de las actividades, tomando en cuenta las fechas no laborables (días de descanso, festivos, vacaciones).

Un diagrama resultante, será el demostrado en la figura siguiente:

DESCRIPCION ACTIVIDAD	CALENDARIO EN DIAS														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
ACTIVIDAD 1	█	█													
ACTIVIDAD 2	█	█													
ACTIVIDAD 3	█														
ACTIVIDAD 4		█	█	█	█	█									
ACTIVIDAD 5						█	█								
ACTIVIDAD 6		█	█	█	█	█	█								
ACTIVIDAD 7		█	█	█	█	█	█	█	█	█					
ACTIVIDAD 8							█	█	█	█	█				
ACTIVIDAD 9											█	█	█	█	
ACTIVIDAD 10	█	█	█	█											
ACTIVIDAD 11										█	█	█	█	█	█

DIAGRAMA DE BARRAS

1.2 DEFICIENCIAS AL UTILIZAR UN DIAGRAMA DE GANTT. EN

PLANEACION PROGRAMACION Y CONTROL DE PROYECTOS.

- a.- Existen problemas para representar la coordinación lógica de actividades, acrecentándose aún más cuando el proyecto es complejo. Al final de cuentas no es posible evaluar el progreso sin intervención continua del personal principal.
- b.- No se logra por este método diferenciar la planeación y programación, y no es posible ver claramente que actividades necesitan ser iniciadas al término de alguna actividad en cuestión.
- c.- No se detectan fácilmente cuales son las actividades que en realidad controlan la duración del proyecto, ya sea que aparentemente todas tienen la misma importancia, y por consiguiente si se llega a retrasar alguna principal, el proyecto sufre una descompensación con respecto a la duración de lo anteriormente programado sin poder predecir este tipo de efectos, tomándose a poco tiempo de iniciado un proyecto, medidas de aceleración del mismo, para compensar estas deficiencias.
- d.- No es posible asegurar ninguna fecha de terminación de ciertas actividades ya que pueden ocurrir retrasos inevitables de condiciones de trabajo, clima, etc., provocando muy serios problemas.
- e.- Es importante también hacer notar que el diagrama de Gantt, tampoco es recomendable para distribución de recursos (material, personal equipo, capital, etc.,) y programación de un proyecto.

1.3 VENTAJAS DEL DIAGRAMA DE GANTT, CUANDO MUESTRA

LOS RESULTADOS DE CPM

Un diagrama de Gantt que represente a un proyecto con el auxilio de los métodos de programación, muestra objetivamente las duraciones, o sea las fechas de iniciación y de terminación posibles, y las holguras para cada actividad de que consta el proyecto, así como para determinar la distribución en el tiempo, de los recursos necesarios para el proyecto.

1.4 ANTECEDENTES DE LOS METODOS CPM Y PERT (METODOS DE PLANEACION, PROGRAMACION Y CONTROL).

A últimas fechas se idearon dos métodos para la planeación, programación y control:

- a.- Método de la ruta crítica (CPM), duración determinística.
- b.- Método PERT, duración probabilística.

Para efectos de nuestro trabajo, hablaremos de CPM y PERT indistintamente.

El método de la ruta crítica fue desarrollado en los Estados Unidos, a principios de 1957, por el Sr. Morgan R. Walder, en ese entonces, miembro del Departamento de Ingeniería de la Compañía E. I. Dupont de Nemours & Co., y por el Sr. James E. Kelley, Jr., entonces investigador de la Compañía Remington Rand.

A partir de ello, el método CPM, lo utilizó la Compañía Dupont desde 1957, dedicándose a construir y modernizar plantas químicas con excelentes resultados en la etapas de planeación, programación y control. (ver referencias bibliográficas).

10

En México, el CPM se ha utilizado en diversos organismos:

En 1961, en la Dirección General de Construcción de Edificios, y en la Secretaría de Obras Públicas, En 1962 en la Comisión Federal de Electricidad y después en el Combina-
do Industrial Sahagún, y en otras grandes compañías constructoras del País.

El método PERT, fue desarrollado en los Estados Unidos en el año de 1958, por un grupo de investigadores de la Boos, Allen y Hamilton de Chicago, a solicitud de la "Special Projects Offices" de la Marina de los Estados Unidos.

Este método permitió acortar la duración del proyecto Polaris, en dos años.

1.5 BASES DE LOS METODOS DE PLANEACION PROGRAMACION Y

CONTROL

Veremos a continuación en forma breve, los fundamentos de los métodos CPM y PERT, y los análisis que pueden efectuarse en ellos.

Sus Bases son:

- a. - Permitir la diferenciación entre planeación y programación.
- b. - Reconocer en la planeación:
 - 1) Actividades componentes del proyecto
 - 2) Coordinación de las actividades en orden lógico.
- c. - Presentar un proyecto en diagrama de flechas.
- d. - Asignar a las duraciones de cada actividad, en el Método PERT, tres tiempos: Más probable, Optimista, Pesimista, mediante los cuales se ajusta una distribución conveniente de probabilidad para la duración de la actividad.

- e. - Dar información para hacer un análisis, en relación a cuanto se aminora el costo de una actividad si reducimos su duración.
- f. - Proporcionar datos para analizar los recursos requeridos, para cada duración posible de cada actividad.
- g. - Apoyarse en métodos como la programación lineal.
- h. - Para el método PERT, se auxilia en métodos estadísticos.

1.6 ANALISIS BASICOS DE LOS METODOS CPM y PERT

Al tener la presentación de un proyecto, por medio de un diagrama de flechas, se procede a la programación o al análisis de tiempos.

En el diagrama la longitud de cada flecha es:

- a. - En el Método CPM, la duración de la actividad.
- b. - En el Método PERT, la duración probable de la actividad correspondiente.

Con base a estas longitudes, se consigue la duración de la ruta mas larga dándonos la mínima duración del proyecto, proporcionándonos así, una ruta crítica y las actividades que son excluyentes de las anteriores se consideran tener holguras, las cuales son importantes para programación de recursos, siempre y cuando no se consuman duraciones mayores de las permitidas y retrasen el proyecto.

En el método PERT, además es posible determinar las probabilidades de que se pueda terminar un determinado grupo de actividades, del proyecto en conjunto a un determinado tiempo.

1.7 GRAFICA Y ANALISIS QUE SE PUEDEN HACER HABIENDO UTILIZADO LOS METODOS CPM y PERT

Habiendo utilizado en un proyecto, los métodos de CPM y PERT, es posible elaborar diagramas de Gantt, que nos represen

12

te todas y cada una de las actividades con holgura respectiva decreciente, hasta llegar a holgura cero, siendo ésta la actividad crítica de un proyecto. Las holguras son parámetros importantes en cuanto a elaborar con ellos gráficas tipo recursos requeridos vs. tiempo, evaluando el exceso o falta de ciertos recursos para poderlos distribuir óptimamente a través de todo el proyecto.

Si la ruta crítica de un proyecto, da fechas mayores a la deseada, se puede recurrir a métodos de programación lineal, optimizando para la actividad en cuestión un costo mínimo a menor duración, lo mismo logrando reunir estos parámetros para las actividades de un proyecto, podemos decidir alcanzar el objetivo a un mínimo costo y a un mínimo tiempo.

1.8 APLICACION DEL CPM Y PERT AL CONTROL DE EJECUCION DE UN PROYECTO

Los métodos CPM y PERT, permiten determinar las actividades críticas y las que tienen holguras pequeñas. Si el proyecto en cuestión sufre retrasos, en alguna actividad crítica, estas técnicas nos proporcionan información sobre el nuevo estado del proyecto.

Queda al Consejo Directivo decidir el comprimir la red, o dada la imposibilidad de hacerlo, llevar a cabo un estricto control de la nueva ruta crítica y de las actividades con pequeña holgura.

También la información permite la asignación óptima de recursos, conforme a los progresos alcanzados por el proyecto.

1.9 VENTAJAS DE LOS METODOS CPM Y PERT

- a. - Desglosar un proyecto en todas sus actividades - componentes, el poder clasificar en orden de - importancia y organizar la planeación, programación y control de ejecución del mismo, bajo esas mismas reglas.

- 13
- b. - Coordinar de una manera eficiente a todos los organismos involucrados en el proyecto en las etapas de planeación, programación y control de ejecución del proyecto.
 - c. - Utilizar la experiencia de un grupo directivo de distintos organismos responsables y elaborar en conjunto un proyecto maestro que enfoque todas las actividades del mismo.
 - d. - Determinar cuales son las actividades del proyecto que controlan la duración (actividades críticas), y las holguras o márgenes de tiempo disponibles para retrasar la terminación de las otras actividades, sin retrasar la terminación del proyecto.
 - e. - Determinar de antemano y con toda precisión los recursos (materiales, personal, equipo capital, etc.), necesarios en cualquier tiempo durante la ejecución del proyecto.
 - f. - Comparar planes y programas alternativos para el mismo proyecto, o para una de sus partes, y ajustarse a las condiciones propias de la empresa en cuestión.
 - g. - Analizar los efectos de cualquier situación imprevista y de tomar las medidas correctivas eficientes.
 - h. - Permitir que el personal directivo de un proyecto sólo tenga que intervenir cuando ocurre alguna situación imprevista.
 - i. - Permitir el delegar responsabilidad de los diferentes organismos encargados de un proyecto o algunas de sus partes.
 - j. - Poder sustituir personal directivo en cualquier momento, sin trastornar la ejecución del proyecto o de una parte del mismo.
 - k. - Encauzar la experiencia adquirida en la ejecución de proyectos productivos similares, por lo tanto, la elaboración de planes standard.

1. - Comparar ordenadamente los datos estimados con los valores de ejecución y determinar el efecto de las desviaciones.

1.10 APLICACION DE COMPUTADORAS ELECTRONICAS EN LOS METODOS

CPM y PERT.

Calcular los métodos CPM y PERT se puede hacer a mano, sin embargo, por la magnitud de los proyectos se hace imprescindible la ayuda del computador.

Tenemos a nuestro alcance computadoras de firmas como Burroughs, IBM, CDC, BULL, UNIVAC, que proporcionan todos los cálculos para la base de programación, y expedir programas de costos.

2 TABLAS DE SECUENCIA

Al iniciar la planeación de un proyecto deberemos tomar en consideración sus diversas fases para lograr una base sólida en la aplicación de los métodos de programación CPM y PERT.

Sin embargo antes de iniciar la primera fase que será la de enumerar todas las actividades por orden de importancia, debemos de cumplir con tres reglas básicas:

- a.- Debemos de tener colaboradores experimentados y con amplios conocimientos en la parte específica del proyecto, que les corresponde.
- b.- Se requiere además información sobre los recursos disponibles como los humanos, económicos, equipo, espacio para la realización del proyecto.
- c.- Hay que tomar en consideración fechas claves para el cumplimiento de determinadas actividades y su efecto al medio ambiente que influye en forma importante, en el desarrollo del proyecto.

2.1 PRIMERA FASE EN LA PLANEACION DE UN

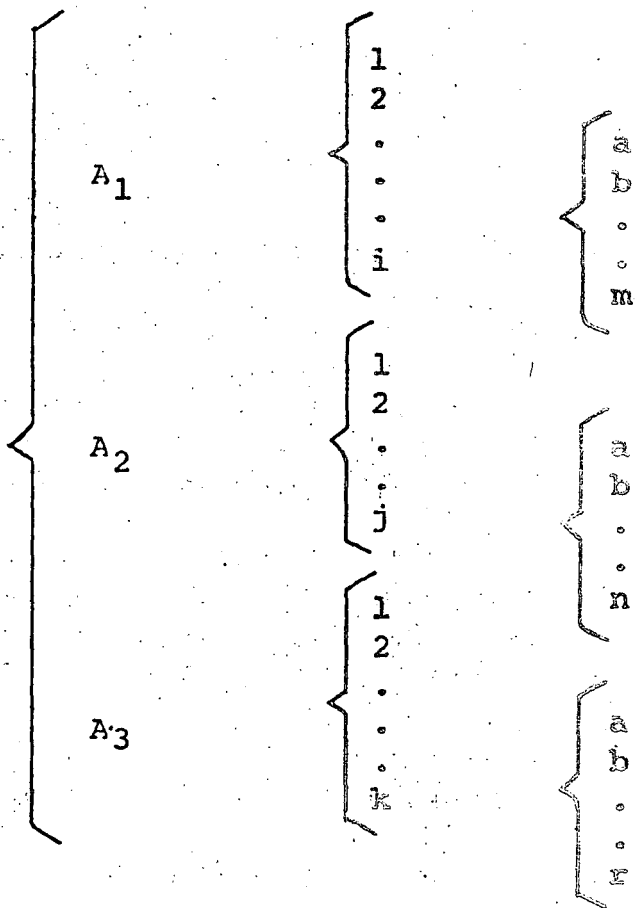
PROYECTO.

La primera fase es la elaboración de una lista de actividades componentes de un proyecto en actividades de primer orden o principales, y subdividir cada una en actividades de segundo orden y continuar así sucesivamente.

Esta división mencionada anteriormente se puede representar en la siguiente ilustración:

Número de Orden de las Actividades.	1°	2°	3°
-------------------------------------	----	----	----

I PROYECTO



2.2 SEGUNDA FASE EN LA PLANEACION DE UN PROYECTO

En esta fase se especifican el orden de secuencia de ejecución de actividades del proyecto, para lo cual se toman en cuenta los requisitos del proyecto, ya sean condiciones necesarias de una persona o empresa.

Para cumplir esta fase de planeación es recomendable preparar una tabla de secuencias.

La tabla de secuencias es una matriz cuadrada donde se describen todas las actividades en los renglones y columnas, de manera que a cada actividad renglón le corresponde una actividad columna.

Se siguen dos reglas para formar una tabla de secuencias:

- a. - Se analiza cada actividad correspondiente al renglón en turno y se determinan cuales actividades se pueden hacer inmediatamente después, colocando una cruz en el casillero correspondiente.
- b. - Se analizan las actividades columna y se determinan cuales actividades se pueden hacer inmediatamente antes de dichas actividades, colocando una cruz en el casillero correspondiente.

La aplicación de las reglas anteriores se pueden hacer en cualquier orden, una vez determinada la tabla de secuencias debe ser revisada una y otra vez para mejorar la planeación del proyecto.

Esta tabla de secuencia es esencial para la ejecución de un proyecto mas no forma parte del método CPM y PERT. Solo es una investigación de objetivos, métodos y elementos disponibles.

Toda esta etapa nos aclara si nuestro proyecto satisface nuestros objetivos y si es costeable su realización. Cuando dispongamos de un conocimiento de redes aunado a la tabla de secuencias, entonces podemos elaborar el diagrama de red de un proyecto en particular.

3 CREACION DE LA RED DE UN PROYECTO

El primer paso para utilizar los métodos de ruta crítica es la identificación de todas las actividades contenidas en el proyecto, y la representación de estas actividades por medio de un diagrama de flechas.

Este paso es usualmente llamado "fase de planeación". Aquí nos limitaremos a indicar las reglas básicas para hacer un primer dibujo de una red.

Existen ciertas reglas y convencionalismos que deberán seguirse en preparar redes, éstas nos mostrarán un alto grado de conocimiento sobre el proyecto y todos los juicios lógicos que hay que conservar. Por supuesto las reglas lejos de ser rígidas son muy flexibles dependiendo del usuario, sobre el conocimiento de los conceptos y su experiencia en métodos de CPM y PERT.

Hay varias formas de dibujar una red. Aquí enfatizaremos el convencionalismo existente en el ramo industrial como la construcción de usar en métodos de ruta crítica, el sistema de actividad en una flecha.

3.1 TERMINOS BASICOS

Varios de los más comunes términos en trabajos de redes se definen a continuación:

Definición:

Una actividad es una porción de un proyecto que esta conforme a los siguientes indicadores: Esta no puede comenzar a menos que sus predecesoras en orden lógico sean terminadas.

Las actividades siempre tienen un principio y un fin y pueden estar asociados a las mismas, tiempos, recursos del proyecto. Las actividades se representan graficamente por flechas acompañada de la descripción y el tiempo estimado de la misma.

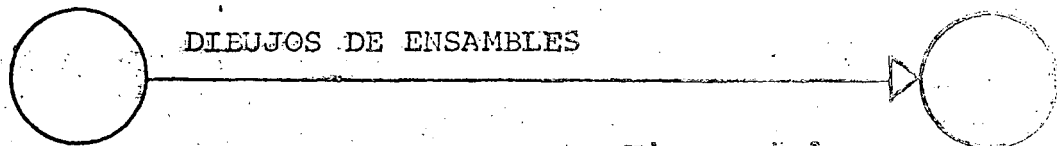
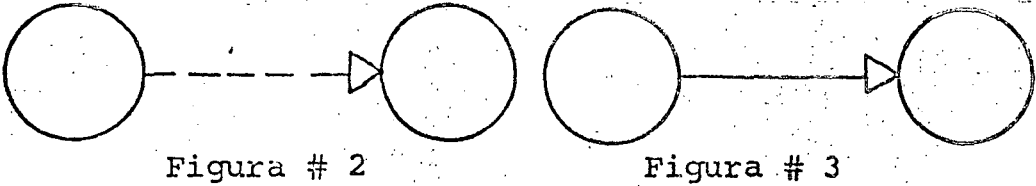


Figura # 1

Definición:

Una flecha que sólo indica una dependencia de una actividad con otra, es una actividad ficticia. Una ficticia tie-

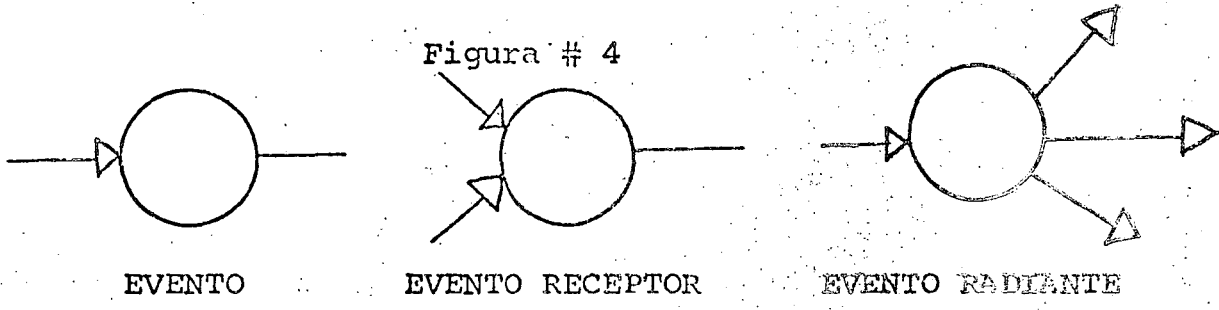
ne duración de cero y se representa tan comúnmente como una flecha de línea interrumpida (Figura # 2), o una flecha sólida asociada con cero duración (figura # 3).



Definición:

Los puntos iniciales y los finales de las actividades son llamados EVENTOS.

Teóricamente los eventos son puntos instantáneos en el tiempo. Hay sinónimos como Nodos y Conectores. Si un evento representa la llegada final de más de una actividad, éste es llamado evento Receptor. Si un evento representa el punto de partida de varias actividades se llama evento Radiante. Un evento se presenta a menudo como una figura geométrica como está a continuación en la figura # 4.



Definición:

Una red es una representación gráfica de la planeación de un proyecto, mostrando las interrelaciones de varias actividades. Las redes pueden ser llamadas "Diagramas de Flechas". Figura # 5 cuando los resultados de los tiempos estimados y computados han sido agregados a la red, se puede usar como para programar un proyecto.

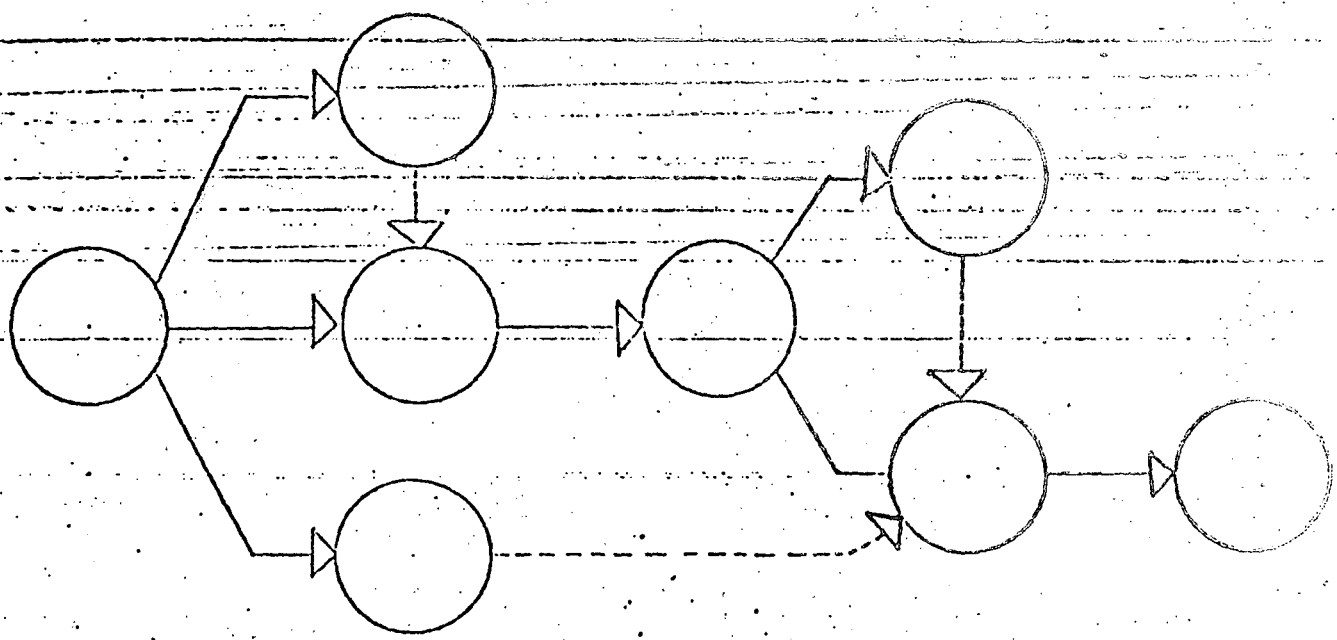


Figura # 5

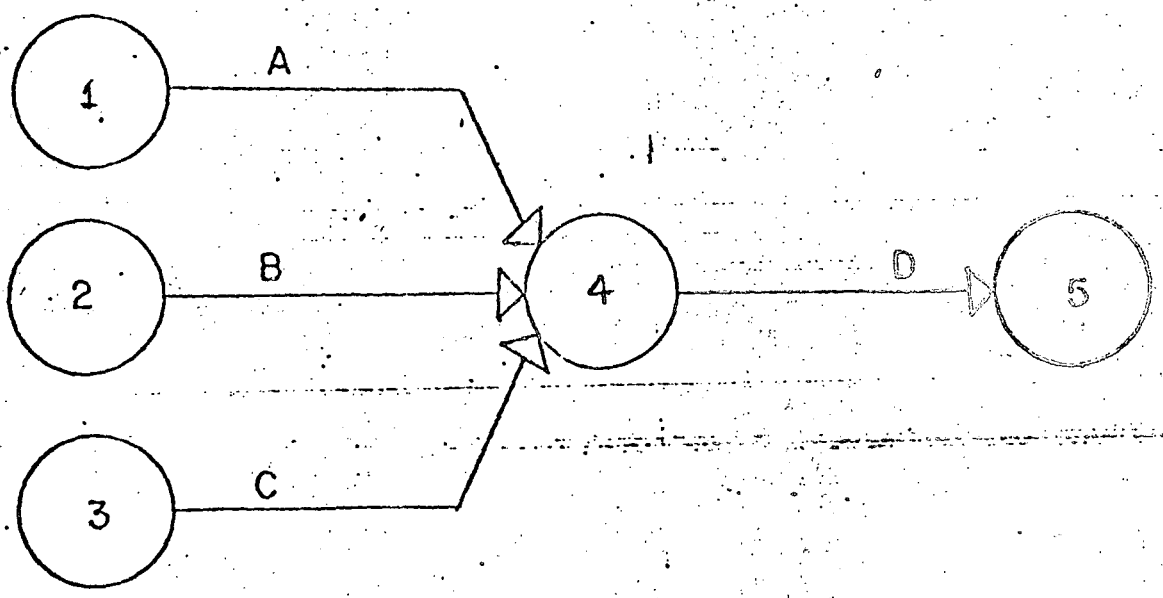


Figura # 6

4 REGLAS DE LA RED

Las pocas reglas para redes pueden ser clasificadas como todas comunes a todas las actividades de un diagrama de flechas, y estas reglas son impuestas para el uso de computadoras que manejen los métodos CPM y PERT.

4.1 REGLAS BASICAS DE UNA RED LOGICA

Regla 1.- Antes de iniciar una actividad, todas las actividades precedentes deben terminarse.

Regla 2.- Las flechas sólo implican una precedencia lógica. La longitud de la flecha no tiene ningún significado. (A menos que se utilice la escala tiempo para la red).

4.2 REGLAS IMPUESTAS POR LOS COMPUTADORES O METODOS DE CALCULO

Regla 3.- Dos eventos pueden directamente conectar una sola actividad.

Regla 4.- Los números de los eventos no deben estar duplicados.

Reglas.- Las Redes deben tener solo un evento inicial que no tenga predecesor), solo un evento final (que no tenga sucesor).
Existen paquetes de computadora que no tienen esta restricción.

4.3 INTERPRETACION DE LAS REGLAS

La regla 1 y 2 pueden ser interpretadas si conocemos la porción de una red de la figura # 6.

De acuerdo a la regla 1, este diagrama establece que antes de que la actividad D pueda iniciarse, las actividades A, B, y C deben ser completadas.

Note que esta no implica que las actividades A, B y C sean completamente simultáneas.

Note que además que el evento 4 es un evento receptor por que ahí terminan las actividades A, B y C y comienza la actividad D.

4.4 ERRORES COMUNES

Los errores más comunes que se presentan son al no respetar la Regla 1.

Nos ilustraremos con la misma figura 6, supongamos que la actividad B, depende de haber terminado la actividad B y C de solo una parte de la actividad A y completar la segunda parte de A totalmente independiente. El diagrama que ilustra correctamente esta situación es:

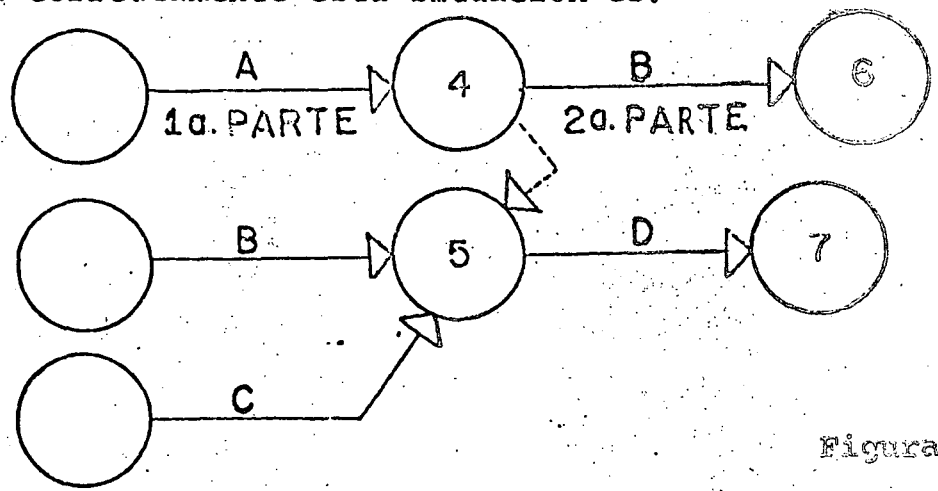


Figura # 7

Donde la actividad se divide en dos actividades A la parte y A 2a. parte además de introducir una actividad ficticia, como veremos en la figura # 7, la actividad ficticia se ha usado para corregir el problema.

Otra condición se puede presentar en una red, se ilustra en la figura # 8.

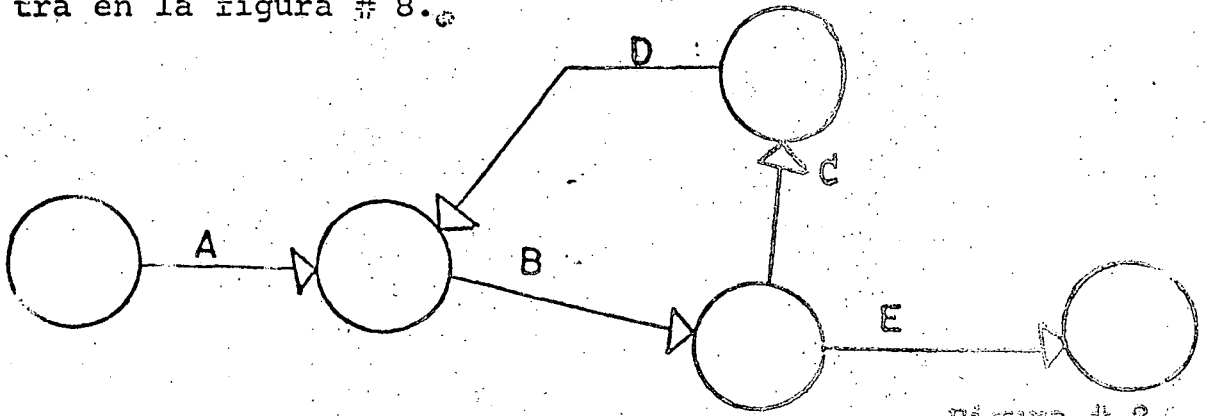


Figura # 8

Las actividades B, C, D, forman un loop, el cual es en la indicación de un error en la lógica de la red.

En la figura 8 la actividad B no puede iniciarse hasta no completar la actividad D asimismo la D no se inicia al no terminarse la C y la C no principia porque no se ha terminado la B y caemos en un circuito cerrado que impide la lógica de la red.

4.5 REGLAS PARA INTRODUCIR EL PROBLEMA A

UNA COMPUTADORA

Las reglas para redes la 3, 4 y 5 son los procedimientos para codificar redes para el análisis por computadora. La regla 3 se viola cuando ocurre lo demostrado en la figura # 9.

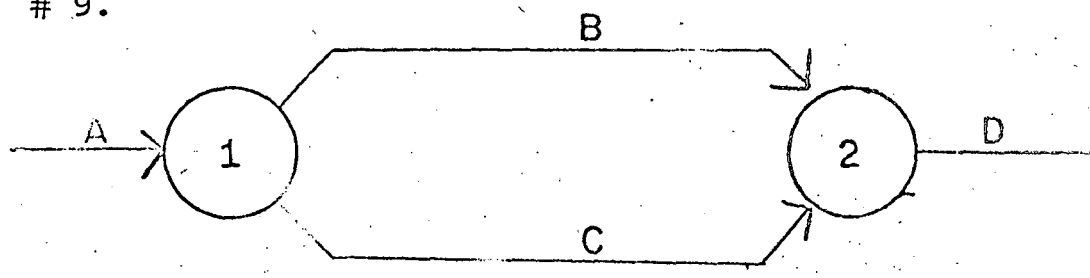


Figura # 9

Las actividades B y C puede llamarse actividades repetidas; como la forma de distinguir las actividades son sus nodos

Quedará así:

Código Computadora	Descripción Actividad
1 - 2	Actividad B
1 - 2	Actividad C

Enconces tenemos que recurrir a las actividades ficticias para no caer en error de la regla 3, como se demuestra en la figura # 10.

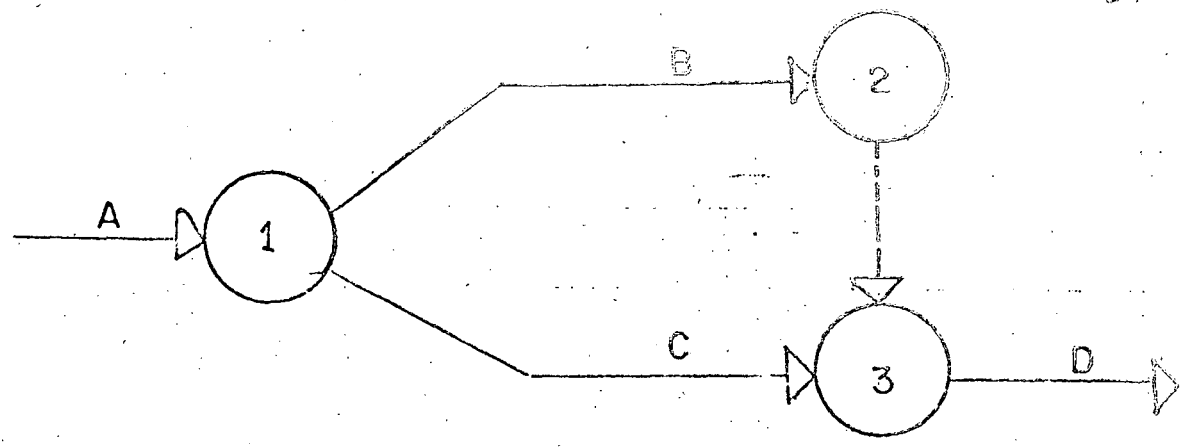


Figura # 10

Ahora si se pueden distinguir las dos actividades al ser bautizadas de la siguiente manera:

Código Computadora	Descripción Actividad
1 - 2	Actividad B
1 - 3	Actividad C
2 - 3	Actividad Ficticia

4.6 EL USO DE LAS ACTIVIDADES FICTICIAS

Algunas veces se emplean actividades ficticias en forma redundante como en la figura # 11.

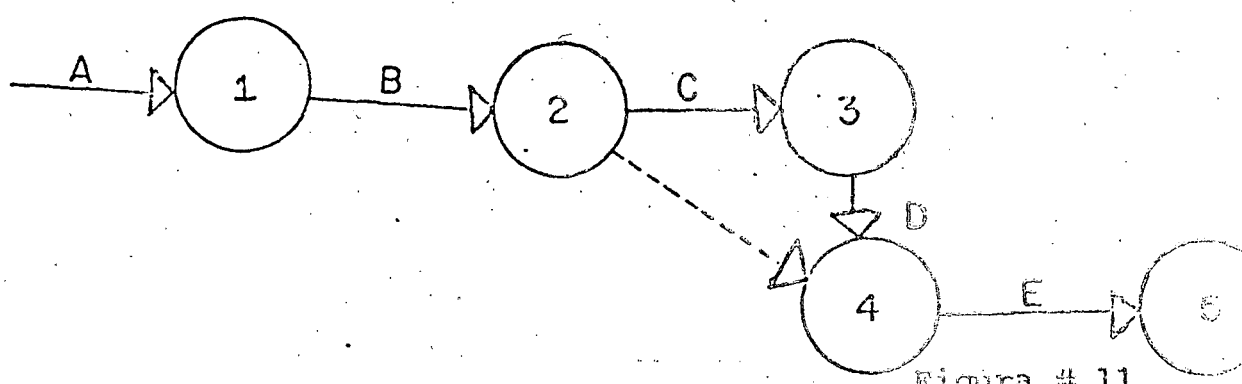


Figura # 11

Donde evidentemente para iniciar la actividad E es solo si se ha concluido la actividad D, C y B por lo tanto remarcar que la actividad B es necesaria para iniciar la actividad E, viene siendo redundante.

Otro caso donde las actividades ficticias no son necesarias es la figura 12.

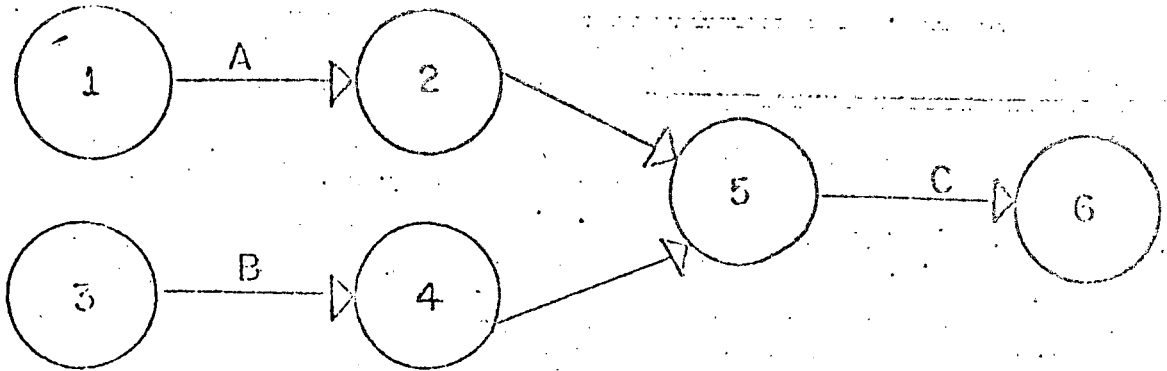


Figura # 12

En donde las actividades 2-5 y 4-5 que al ser ficticias no tienen duración si podemos prescindir de ellas y modificamos la figura 12 a la figura 13 siguiente:

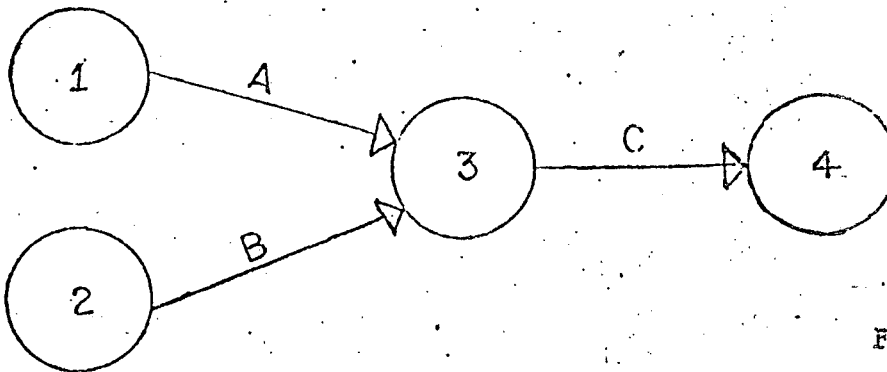


Figura # 13

Otro uso importante de las actividades ficticias es ta ilustrado en este ejemplo. Supongamos en una parte de un proyecto de la figura 14 este se realiza

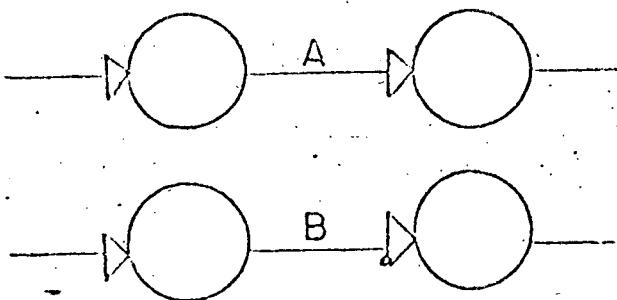


Figura # 14

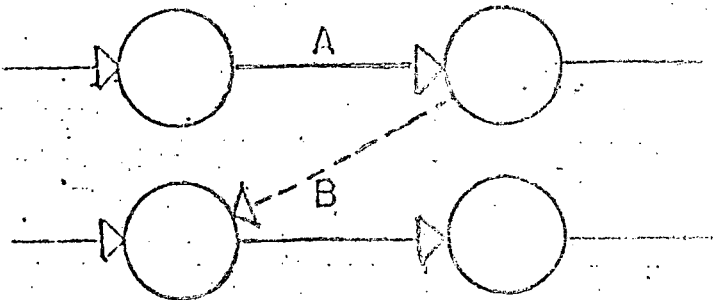


Figura # 15

que la actividad B depende de la actividad A por tener en común el mismo recurso, ya sea una persona en especial o una máquina específica. En este caso B debe dibujarse como dependiente de A por el uso de una actividad ficticia figura 15.

5 CALCULOS BASICOS PARA LA PROGRAMACION

Con base a los fundamentos para diseñar la red de un proyecto queda por calcular los tiempos aproximados que se asignarán a cada una de las actividades; y así comenzar a programarlas y calcular la ruta crítica de la red; en el caso de utilizar el método CPM los tiempos son determinísticos o sea una sola duración por cada actividad; en el método PERT los tiempos son probabilísticos en donde se asocian tres para cada una de las actividades, salvo esta diferencia entre los métodos CPM y PERT todos los cálculos que describiremos aquí son idénticos para ambos.

La programación de un proyecto comprende dos pasos básicos, el primero que hace un cálculo hacia adelante y el segundo es el cálculo hacia atrás en la red.

Basándose en un tiempo de ocurrencia del nodo inicial de red, el cálculo hacia adelante de la fecha de inicio más temprano y tardío para cada actividad, e indirectamente el inicio más temprano y más tardío para cada uno de los eventos.

Los tiempos reales, se conocen sólo después de haber concluido varias actividades y poder comparar contra los tiempos esperados, pueden diferir por las desviaciones entre los tiempos reales y estimados de los tiempos planeados, para cada actividad.

Por la especificación de los tiempos de ocurrencia terminales para los eventos de una red el cálculo hacia atrás nos calculará la terminación más temprana y tardía para cada actividad e indirectamente la terminación permitida de tiempo para cada evento. Después de un cálculo hacia adelante y hacia atrás se ha realizado, queda por hacer el cálculo de las holguras para cada actividad y determinar los arcos críticos de una red. Cuando una actividad tiene holgura, hay más tiempo disponible para hacer lo que esta actividad desea.

Casi siempre se adopta la unidad de trabajo de un día. Es muy conveniente planear los tiempos de las actividades en días de trabajo, en las redes comenzando con un

tiempo inicial de cero en el evento inicial del proyecto. La conversión de estos cálculos a fechas calendario requiere de hacer un calendario que contemple sólo los días de trabajo numerados. En suma se comprende que el proyecto tiene solamente un evento inicial y terminal y que la terminación permitida para el proyecto es igual a la iniciación más tardía obtenida de los cálculos hacia atrás. Estas consideraciones, se asocian normalmente con el método CPM, pero no usualmente para el método PERT. Finalmente, se toma en consideración que un diagrama de flechas para representar un proyecto es el que se usa para iniciar con los cálculos mencionados.

5.1 NOMENCLATURA

La siguiente nomenclatura se deberá usar en las fórmulas que describen los cálculos para la programación:

N = Conjunto de todos los eventos de un proyecto.

N_i = Nodo que representa el evento i $i = 1 \dots m$.
Llamado también Nodo Inicial.

N_j = Nodo que representa el evento j $j = 1 \dots n$
Llamado también Nodo Final.

A = Conjunto de todas las actividades de un proyecto

A_{ij} = Es la actividad que se inicia en el Nodo Inicial i y termina en el Nodo Final j .

t_{ij} = Duración de la actividad del N_i al N_j .

\bar{l}_k = k -ésima Cadena que conduce del evento inicial N_i al evento final N_j .

k = Número posible de cadena que conectan el evento inicial N_i al evento final N_j .

$t(\bar{l}_k)$ = Duración total de la cadena \bar{l}_k .

$$t(\bar{l}_k) = \sum_{A_{ije} \bar{l}_k} t_{ij}$$

- Ei = Tiempo de ocurrencia más temprana para el evento inicial i.
- Li = Tiempo de ocurrencia más tardía del evento inicial i.
- ESij = Tiempo de iniciación más temprana para la actividad (i-j).
- LFij = Tiempo de terminación más tardía para la actividad (i-j).
- EFij = Tiempo de terminación más temprana de una actividad i-j.
- LSij = Tiempo de iniciación más tardía para la actividad (i-j).
- Sij = Holgura total para la actividad i-j.
- FSij = Holgura libre para la actividad i-j.
- Ts = Tiempo programado para la terminación de un proyecto o la ocurrencia de eventos claves en un proyecto.

5.2. CALCULO HACIA ADELANTE

Como se vio anteriormente el cálculo hacia adelante es el cálculo de la iniciación más temprana y más tardía para cada actividad en el proyecto apoyado en un día de trabajo específico. Complementando esto, el cálculo hacia adelante se inició en un tiempo cero dada una fecha base y todas las actividades subsecuentes empiezan lo más pronto posible, aconteciendo todos su eventos sucesores. De acuerdo a la lógica de una red, un evento final ocurre cuando todas las actividades predecesoras se han terminado y entonces, el tiempo más temprano para que ocurra un evento es igual al mayor tiempo de iniciación tardía de todas las actividades que lleguen al evento en cuestión. Estas consideraciones o reglas están resumizadas abajo.

5.3 REGLAS PARA EL CALCULO HACIA ADELANTE

1. - El tiempo de ocurrencia del primer evento inicial de la red se considera cero. $E_1 = 0$ para el primer evento.
2. - Cada actividad comienza tan pronto como sea posible hasta que ocurra su evento predecesor.

Para una actividad arbitraria (i-j) se puede escribir:

ES_{ij} = El mayor EF de las actividades inmediatamente precedentes de la actividad (i-j).

3. - El tiempo de terminación más temprana de una actividad es la suma de su tiempo de iniciación más temprana y la duración estimada por actividad. Para una actividad arbitraria (i-j) esta se puede escribir como:

$$E_j = \text{Al mayor de } EF_{ij} = ES_{ij} + T_{ij}$$

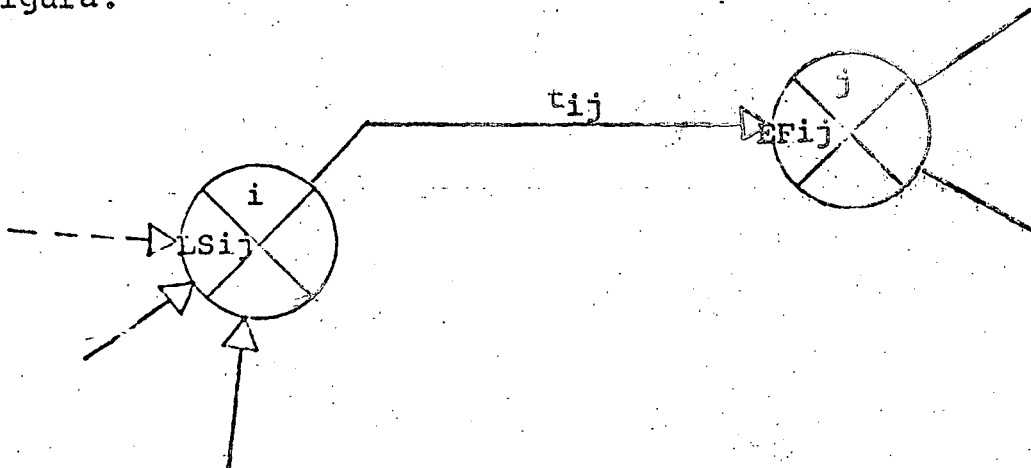
E_j = Máximo de los valores EF_{ij} de las actividades que llegan al evento j.

$$E_j = \text{Max}_k t(\bar{1}lk).$$

$$E_j = \text{Max}_{i \in B(j)} (ES_{ij} + t_{ij}) = \text{Max}_{i \in B(i)} (EF_{ij}) \quad j=2,3,\dots,m$$

Donde

$B(j)$ = Es el conjunto de nodos que conectan con N_j - Estas reglas las podemos representar como las mostramos en la figura.



1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions.

2. It is essential to ensure that all entries are supported by appropriate documentation and receipts.

3. Regular audits should be conducted to verify the accuracy of the records and identify any discrepancies.

4. The second part of the document outlines the procedures for handling cash and credit transactions.

5. It is important to establish clear policies regarding the use of company funds and to ensure that all employees are aware of these policies.

6. The final part of the document provides a summary of the key points discussed and offers recommendations for further action.

7. It is recommended that all staff members receive training on the procedures outlined in this document.

8. The document concludes with a statement of the author's responsibility for the accuracy of the information provided.

9. The author is confident that the information provided in this document will be helpful in ensuring the accuracy and integrity of the organization's financial records.

Regla 2.- El tiempo de terminación más tardía para una actividad arbitraria (i-j) es igual a la más pequeña, o más temprana, de los tiempos de iniciación más tardía de sus actividades sucesoras.

LF_{ij} = Mínimo de las LS de las actividades directamente dirigidas a la actividad (i-j)

Regla 3.- El tiempo de iniciación más tardía para una actividad arbitraria (i-j) es su tiempo de terminación más tardía menos la duración estimada de la actividad.

$LS_{ij} = LF_{ij} - T_{ij}$

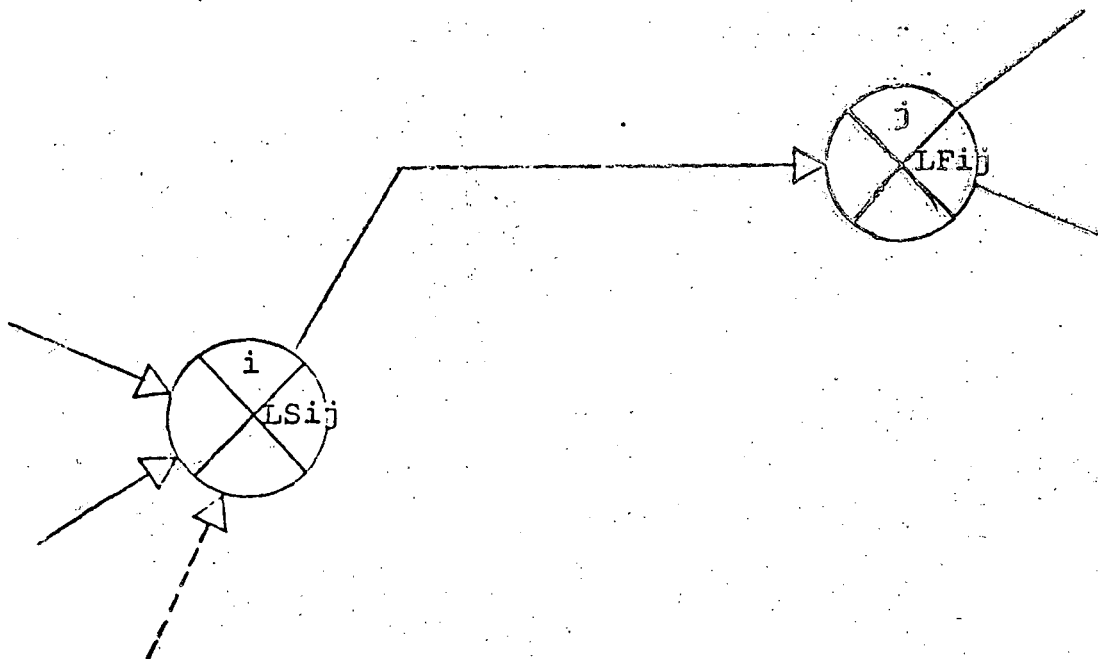
LF_{ij} = El menor de LS_{ij} para un evento con n actividades que salen.

$B(i)$ = Conjunto de eventos.

$LS_{ij} = LF_j - T_{ij}$

$LF_{ij} = \min(LF_{ij} - T_{ij})$

Estas reglas se presentan en la figura.



5.6 DEFINICION E INTERPRETACION DE HOLGURAS

De muchos tipos de holguras definidos en literatura sobre el tema, solo discutiremos dos clases, la holgura total por actividad, o simplemente holgura total, y holgura libre por actividad, o simplemente holgura libre, cada holgura tiene una interpretación y aplicación diferente como los describiremos a continuación.

5.7 HOLGURA TOTAL POR ACTIVIDAD

Definición:

Holgura total por actividad es igual a la diferencia entre lo más temprano y lo más tardío permitido entre el tiempo inicial o final para una actividad en cuestión. Entonces, para la actividad (i-j), la holgura total esta dada por:

$$S_{ij} = LS_{ij} - ES_{ij}$$

ó

$$S_{ij} = LF_{ij} - EF_{ij}$$

5.8 HOLGURA LIBRE POR ACTIVIDAD

Definición:

Holgura libre por actividad es igual tiempo de inicio más temprano de las actividades sucesoras menos el tiempo de terminación más temprana de la actividad en cuestión. Entonces, para la actividad (i-j), la holgura libre esta dada por lo siguiente;

j - k muestra a una actividad sucesora a la actividad en cuestión.

$$FS_{ij} = ES_{jk} - EF_{ij}$$

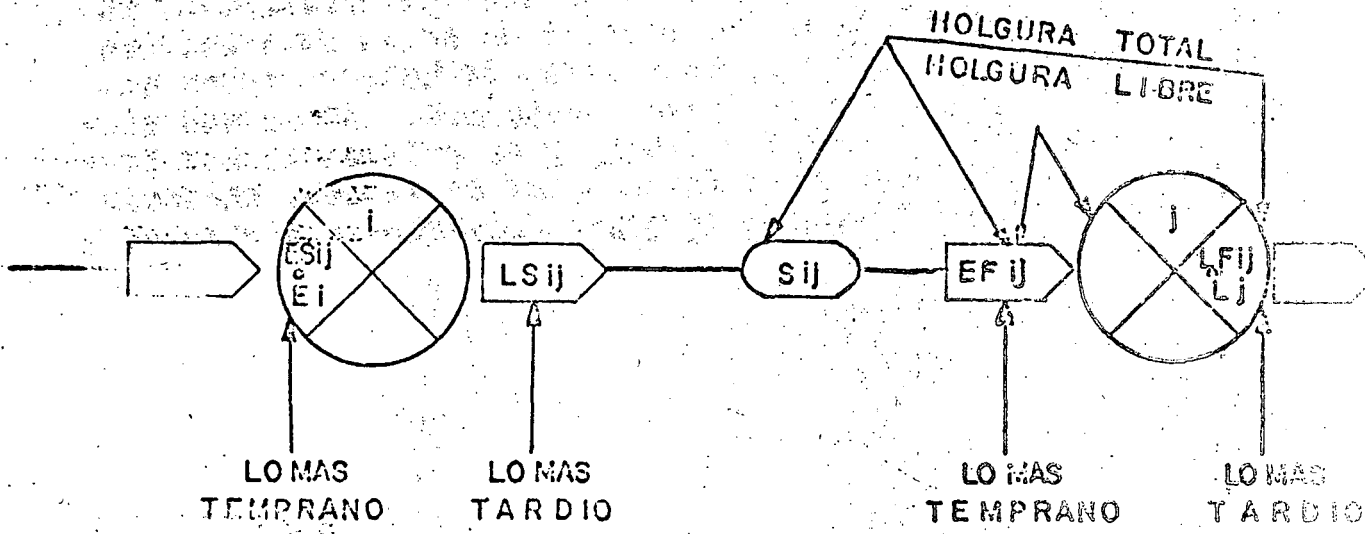
5.9 IDENTIFICACION DE LA RUTA CRITICA

Definición:

La ruta crítica es "la curva con la menor holgura total". Si la holgura cero como un convencionalismo LF para el evento final de la red presentada en la ruta crítica tendrá holgura cero; de lo contrario, la holgura sobre una ruta crítica puede ser positiva o negativa. Si la red tiene un solo evento inicial y final, y no existen fechas programadas impuestas a nodos intermedios de la red, entonces la ruta crítica es también la mayor trayectoria dentro de la red.

6 USO DE SIMBOLOS ESPECIALES EN
CALCULOS PROGRAMADOS.

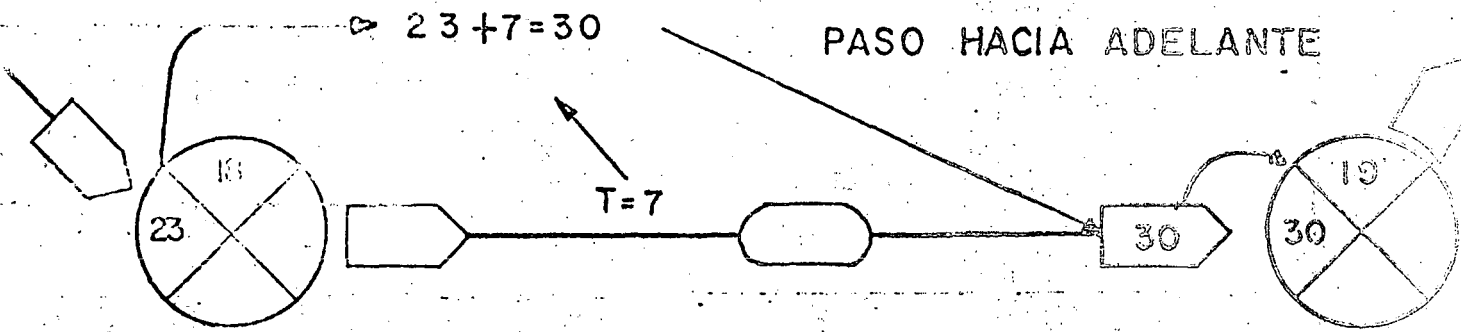
Utilizaremos unos símbolos para facilitar los cálculos de una RED. La ilustración es la siguiente:



TIEMPOS INICIALES
POR ACTIVIDAD (i-j)

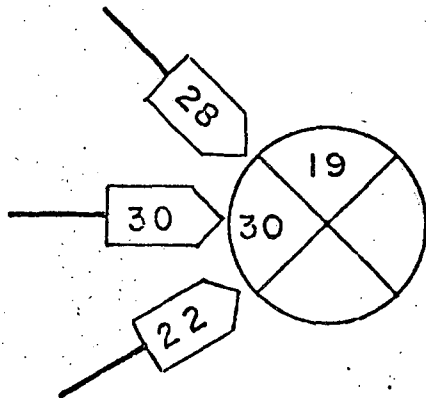
TIEMPOS FINALES
POR ACTIVIDAD (i-j)

PASOS EN LA PROGRAMACION USANDO SIMBOLOS
ESPECIALES PARA ACTIVIDADES Y EVENTOS.



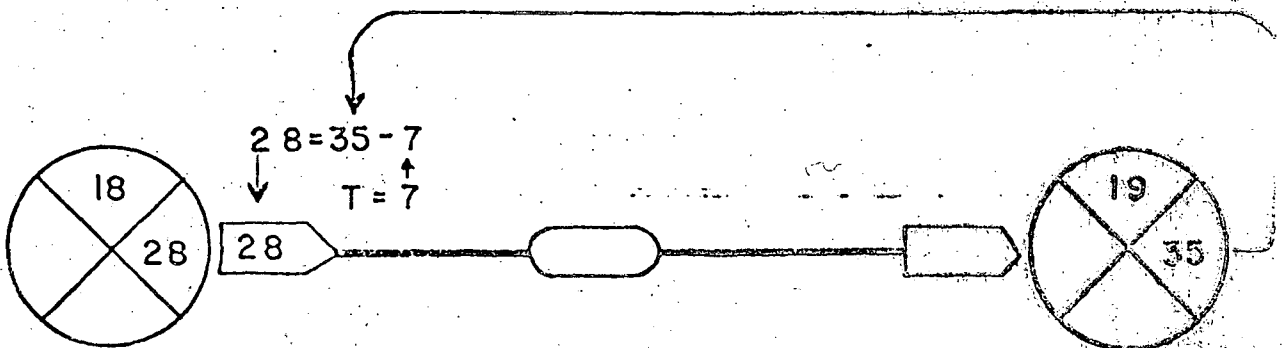
Para una actividad cualesquiera (18-19), su tiempo de iniciación más temprano (digamos 23 en este caso) en el cuadrante de la izquierda del símbolo del evento.

Entonces agregaremos su duración (7) a tiempo de iniciación más temprano y obtendremos su tiempo de terminación más temprano (30). Escribiremos 30 en la punta de la flecha.

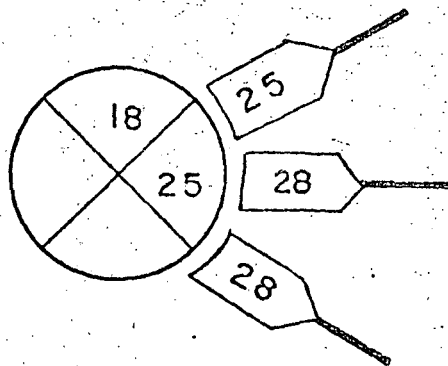


Supongamos que tres actividades llegan al Nodo 19 se anotará en el cuadrante de la izquierda al mayor tiempo de terminación más temprana.

PASO HACIA ATRAS

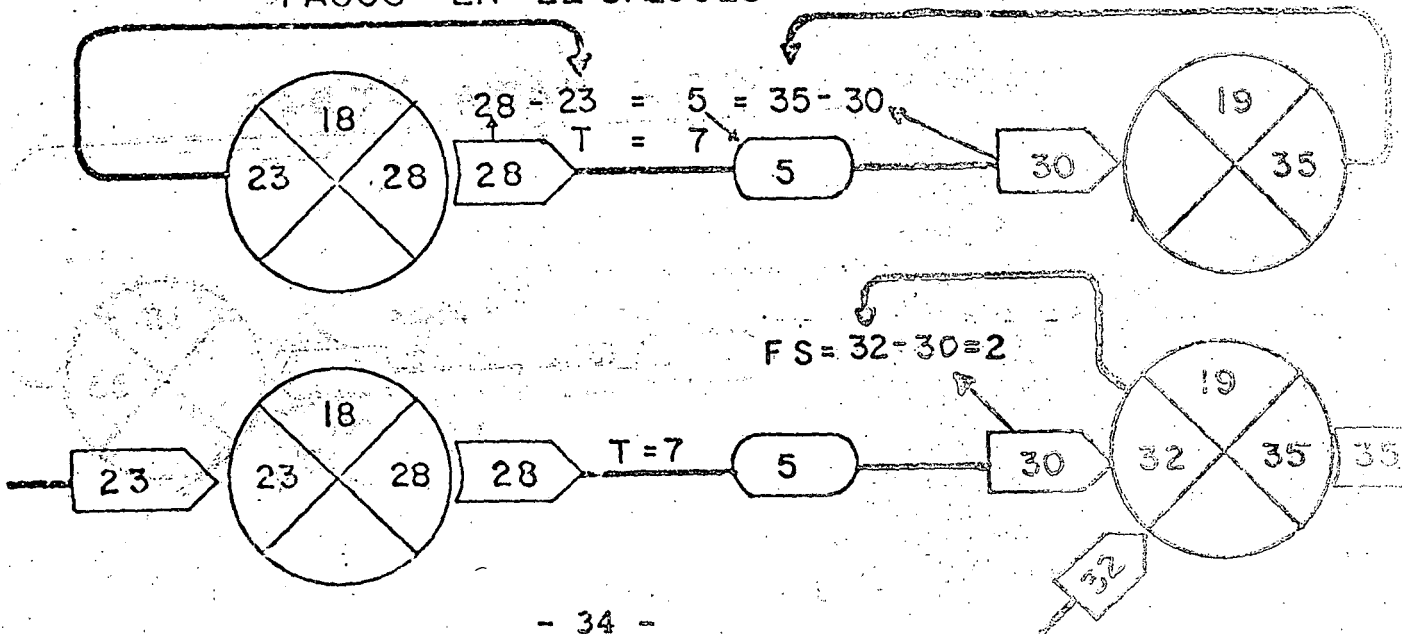


El tiempo programado para el evento final de una actividad en cuestión (18-19) deberá ser colocado a la derecha del símbolo del evento. Para otros eventos se insertará el tiempo de ocurrencia más tardío. Para este caso especial, hay que sustraer su duración (7) del tiempo de terminación más tardío (35) para obtener el tiempo de iniciación más tardío (28). Deberá escribirse 28 al final de la flecha.



Cuando dos o más actividades salen de un evento, se debe colocar en el cuadrante de la derecha el valor más pequeño de los tiempos de iniciación más tardía para la actividad.

PASOS EN EL CALCULO DE LAS HOLGURAS



37

7 EJEMPLO ILUSTRATIVO

Hasta el momento tenemos información sobre las tablas de secuencias, las reglas para elaborar una red y a partir de ésta efectuar los cálculos básicos.

Con éstos elementos podemos obtener todos los datos para planificar, programar y controlar cualquier proyecto.

Si ejemplificamos un determinado proyecto que nos muestre las diferencias entre un proyecto que no utilice las técnicas CPM y PERT contra otro en el cual si se tomen en consideración, veremos, la gran diferencia que se hizo resaltar con anterioridad.

El método antiguo solo disponía de Diagramas de Gantt para coordinar proyectos, como el siguiente:

82

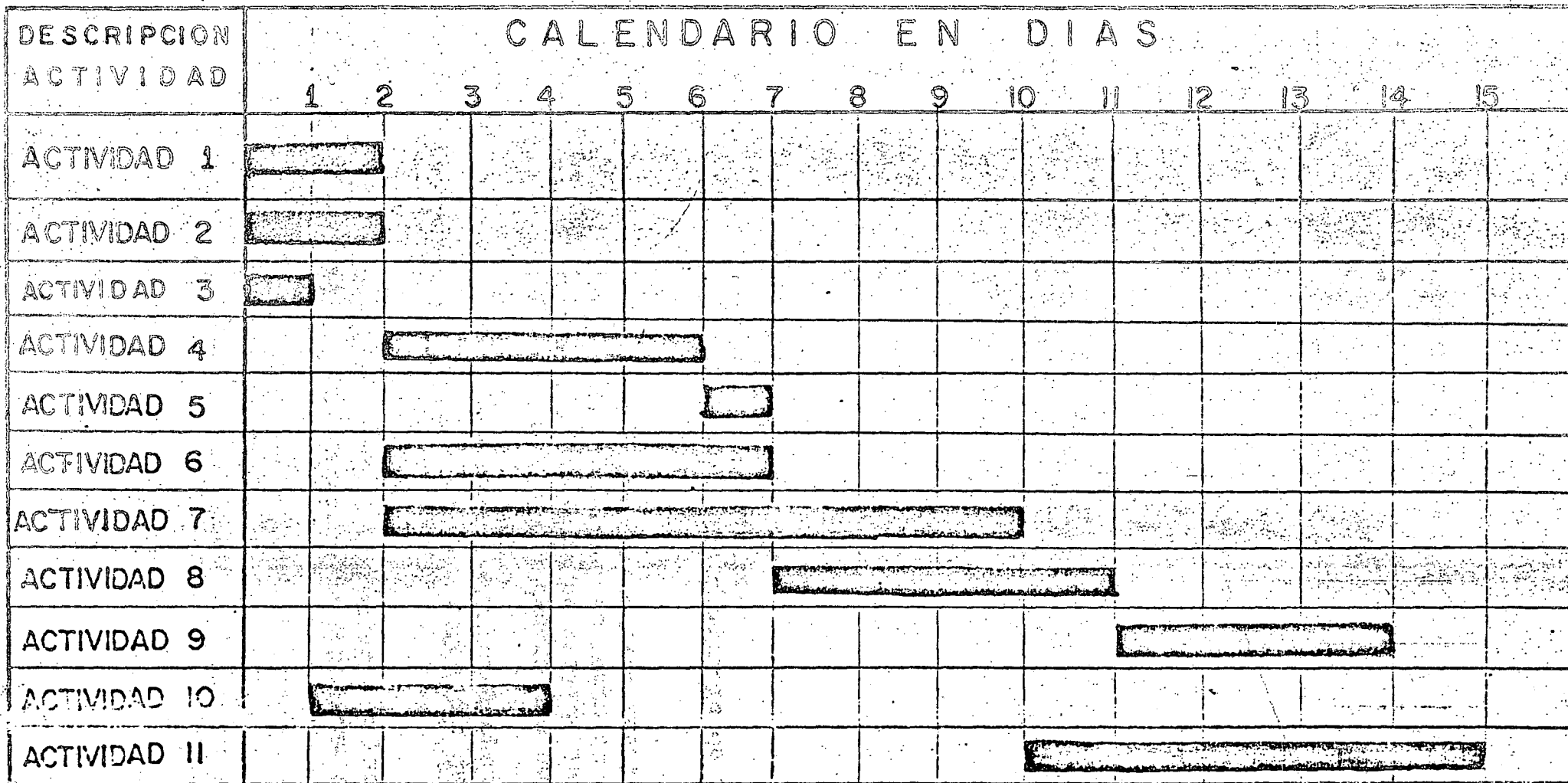


DIAGRAMA DE BARRAS

39

En el diagrama anterior las actividades no tienen ninguna relación entre sí y es difícil investigarlo.

El cumplimiento de un proyecto con las características mencionadas es una tarea muy árdua ya que el responsable por actividad al no tener información de otras actividades no cuenta con datos para iniciar la suya propia y en cierta medida tendrá aún problemas para terminarla y controlarla.

Hagamos uso de las técnicas antes mencionadas e interpretar correctamente lo visto hasta ahora.

Primero se diseña un listado de todas las actividades de nuestro proyecto, no importando el orden de colocación.

Lista de Actividades

Actividad 1

Actividad 2

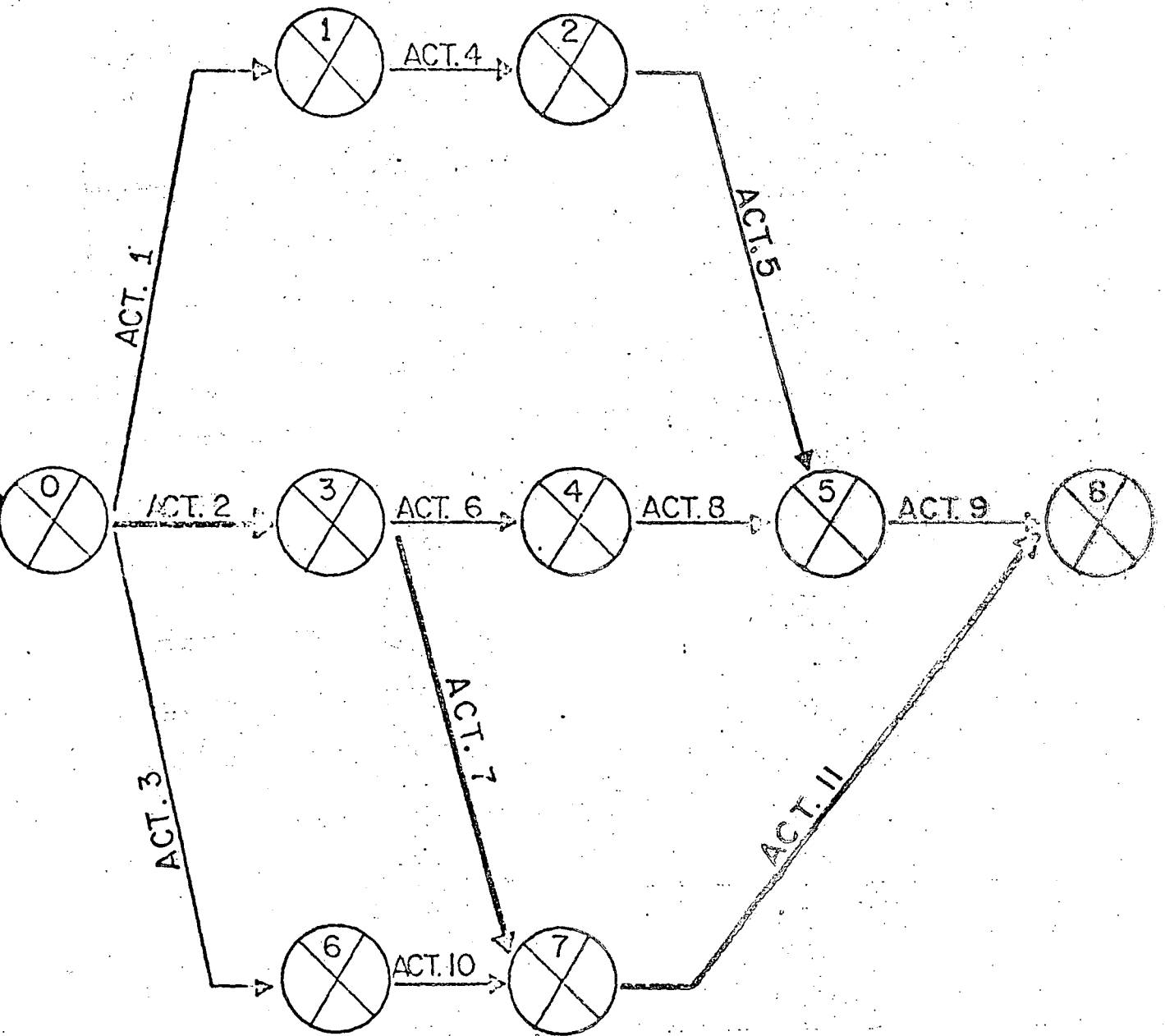
Actividad 11

El siguiente paso es elaborar la matriz de secuencias.

ACT. INM. SIG. / ACT. INM. ANTERIOR	ACT. 1	ACT. 2	ACT. 3	ACT. 4	ACT. 5	ACT. 6	ACT. 7	ACT. 8	ACT. 9	ACT. 10	ACT. 11
ACT. 1				X							
ACT. 2						X	X				
ACT. 3										X	
ACT. 4					X						
ACT. 5									X		
ACT. 6								X			
ACT. 7											X
ACT. 8									X		
ACT. 9											
ACT. 10											X
ACT. 11											

MATRIZ DE SECUENCIAS

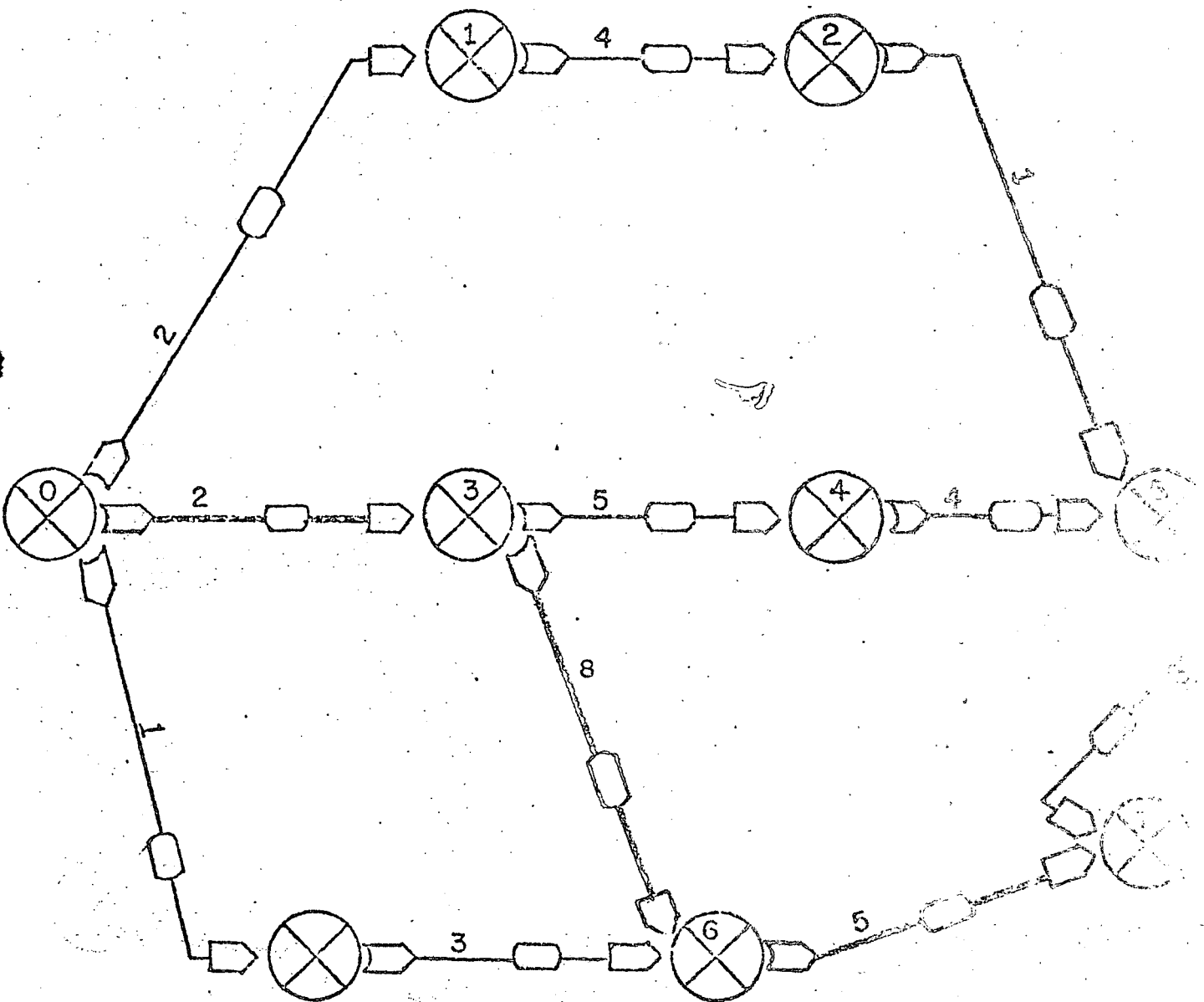
A partir de la matriz de secuencias se elabora la red y se enumeran los nodos.



Al tener lista la red se complementa con la información adecuada,

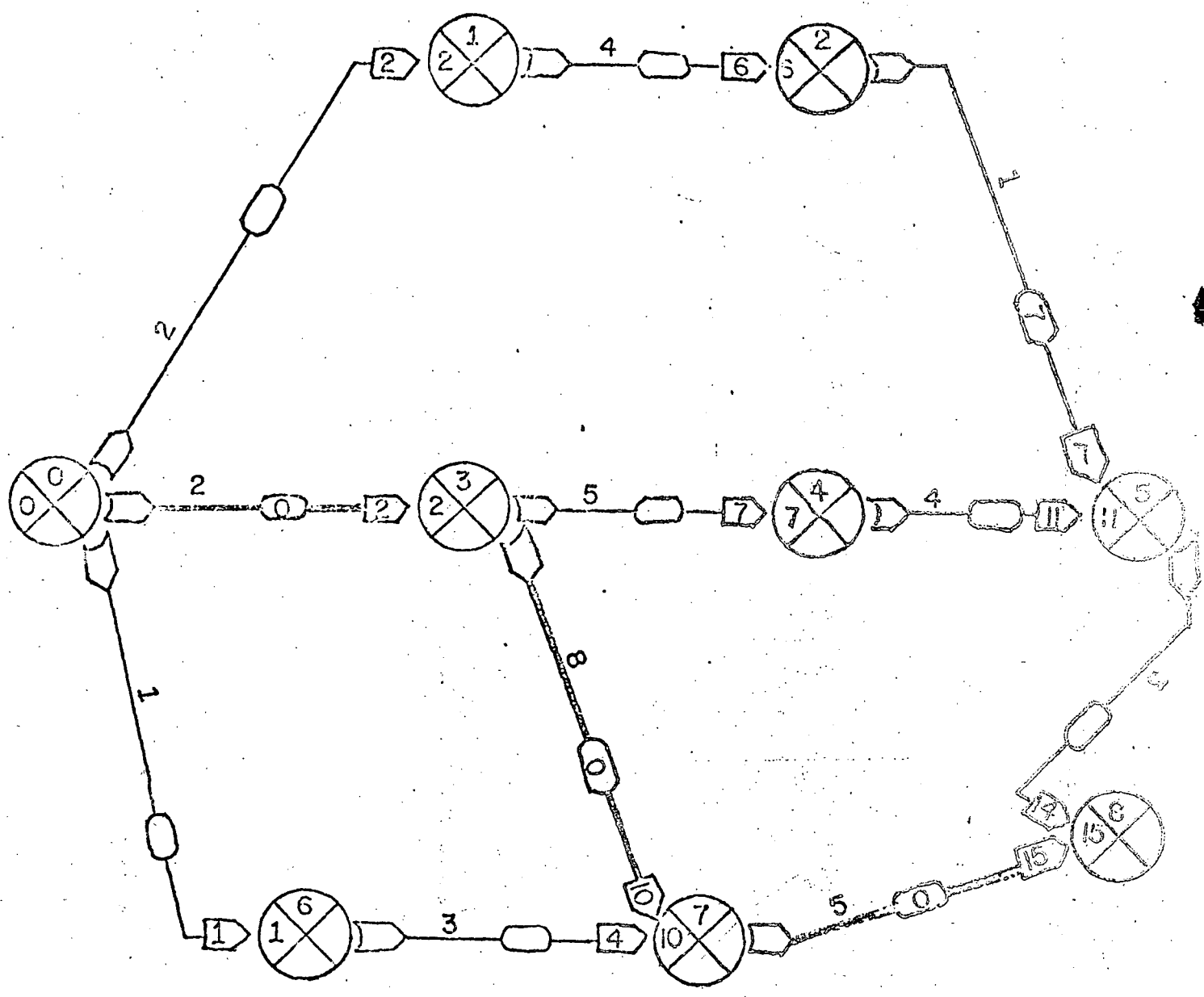
DESCRIPCION ACTIVIDAD	CODIGO DE IDENTIFICACION		DURACION EN DIAS
	NODO INICIAL	NODO FINAL	
ACT. 1	0	1	2
ACT. 2	0	3	2
ACT. 3	0	6	1
ACT. 4	1	2	4
ACT. 5	2	5	1
ACT. 6	3	4	5
ACT. 7	3	7	8
ACT. 8	4	5	4
ACT. 9	5	8	3
ACT. 10	6	7	3
ACT. 11	7	8	5

Con toda la información procedemos a calcular nues-
tro proyecto con los símbolos especiales.

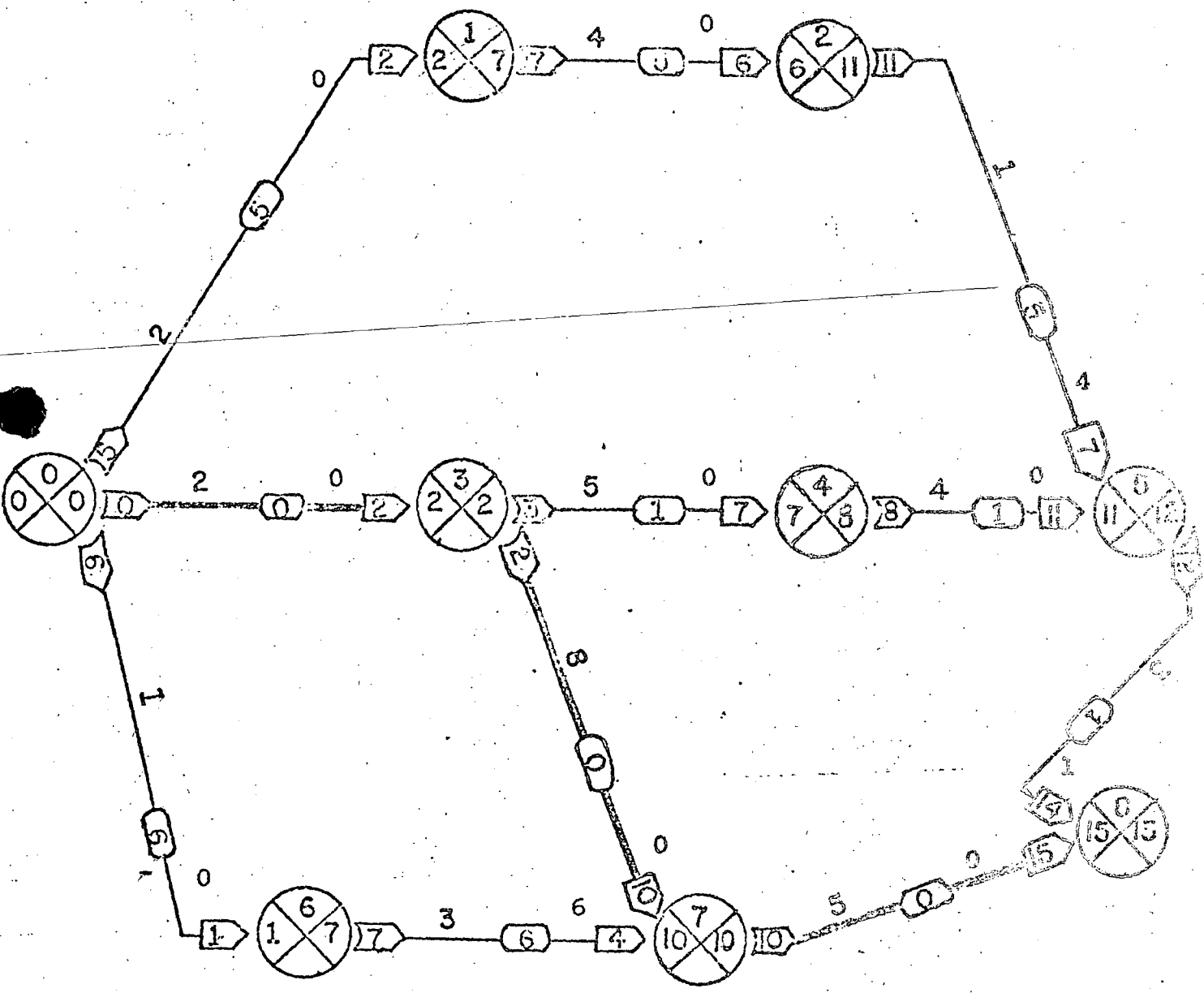


97

Red ilustrativa del proyecto utilizando los símbolos especiales, para los eventos, actividades y el paso hacia adelante.



Ejemplo que ilustra la red del proyecto utilizando los símbolos especiales para los eventos, actividades, los pasos hacia adelante, hacia atrás, las holguras total y libre.



$L_8 = E_8 = 15$

Podemos resumir todos los datos contenidos en el proyecto en la lista de abajo.

Actividad	Lo Más Temprano		Lo Más Tardío		Holgura Total	Criticalidad
	ES _{ij} ó E _i Tiempo de Inicio.	EF _{ij} Tiempo de Terminac.	LS _{ij} Tiempo de Inicio.	LF _{ij} ó L _j Tiempo de Terminac.		
0-3	0	2	0	2	0	CRIT
3-7	2	10	2	10	0	CRIT
7-8	10	15	10	15	0	CRIT
3-4	2	7	3	8	1	
4-5	7	11	8	12	1	
5-8	11	14	12	15	1	
0-1	0	2	5	7	5	
2-5	6	7	11	12	5	
0-6	0	1	6	7	6	
6-7	1	4	7	10	6	
1-2	2	6	7	11	5	

C O N C L U S I O N E S

La utilización de dichas técnicas en un proyecto en el cual intervenga el lector, será la experiencia más provechosa por su realidad y que considere este manual como una herramienta que se apoya en su propia motivación.

CONTROL DATA. Advanced Planning and Control Executive -
(APACE) User Information Manual, Austria, Control
Data Corporation, 1970. 49

CLARK, FRANK J. y OTROS. Procedimientos Informáticos en
Sistemas Empresariales; Tr. del Inglés por Barto-
lomé Fabian-Frankel, España, Prentice-Hall Intern-
cional, 1973.

CONWAY, RICHARD W. y OTROS. Theory of Scheduling. Addi-
son-Wesley Publishing Company, 1967 Massachusetts.

ECHAVARRY GAYTAN, IRAN ZADOK. Visión General del Método
de Camino Crítico. Boletín No. 1, Residencia de -
la Comisión de Relaciones Humanas en el Medio y
Bajo Balsas. Secretaria de Recursos Hidraulicos,
México, Diciembre, 1973.

ECHAVARRY GAYTAN, IRAN ZADOK y GONZALEZ-DUHART G., HORACIO.
Programación y Control de la Construcción de Co-
ches del Metro. Ponencia 12.2 Memoria de la VI -
Asamblea Nacional Bienal el Desarrollo de la Tec-
nología en México, México, Noviembre, 1974.

ESCOLANO JUAN, RAMON. Planeación Programación y Control
por el Método de la Secuencia Crítica, México, Re-
vista Ingeniería Petrolera, Marzo 1964.

FAVRET, ANDREW G. Introduction To Digital Computer Appli-
cations. New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold Company,
1970.

FORD, L. R. y FULKERSON, D. R. Flows in Networks, New Jer-
sey, Princeton University Press, 1962.

FULKERSON, D. R. Expected Critical Path Lengths in PERT -
Networks. Operations Research, Vol. 10, No. 6, No-
vember-December, 1962.

GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY. Critical Path Scheduling. User's,
Guide, 803211, General Electric Company, Information
Service Department, 1968.

GONZALEZ M., J. y OTROS. Tres Algoritmos de Investigación
de Operaciones. México, Instituto de Ingeniería, C.
U., 1970.

HILLIER, FREDERICK S. y LIEBERMAN, GERALD J. Introduction
to Operations Research; 2 Ed. San Francisco, Holden-
Day, Inc., 1974.

- 50
- IBM SYSTEM - 370, Project Analysis and Control System - (PROJACS). General Informatica, GH19-1055-0. Francia, IBM Corporation, 1973.
- IBM SYSTEM - 370. Project Analysis and Control System (PROJACS). Operations Guide, SH19-1085-0, Francia, IBM Corporation, 1974.
- IBM SYSTEM - 370, Project Analysis and Control System - (PROJACS). Program Reference Manual, SH19-1080. Francia, IBM Corporation, 1973.
- IBM. Project Control System - 360. Program Description - and Operations Manual, GH20-0376-3, New York, IBM Corporation, 1967.
- IBM. Project Management System IV (PMS IV). Cost Processor, Program Description and Operation Manual, SH20-0898-0, New York, IBM Corporation. 1971.
- IBM. Project Management System IV (PMS IV). Report Processor, Program Description and Operation Manual - SH20-0901-1, New York, IBM Corporation. 1971.
- IBM. Project Management System IV (PMS IV). Resource Allocation Processor Program Description and Operation Manual, SH20-0900-0, New York, IBM Corporation, - 1971.
- JAUFFRED, M. FRANCISCO J. y OTROS. Métodos de Optimización Programación Lineal-Gráficos. México, Representaciones y Servicios de Ingeniería, S. A., 1974.
- LOWE, CECIL W. Critical Path Analysis By Bar Chart. New York, Brandon-System Press, 1966.
- MADRID. FEDERAL ELECTRIC CORPORATION. El Método PERT; Tr. del Inglés por Miguel Díaz Galvez y Otros, Madrid, Ciencia y Técnica, S. L., 1963.
- MARTINO, R. L. Determinación de la Ruta Crítica, Tr. del Inglés por Abelardo Cruz. México, Editora Técnica, S. A., 1965. N. I.
- MAYNARD, C. H. B. y OTROS. Industrial Engineering Handbook. 3 ed. New York, Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, 1971.

MEXICO. CATALYTIC CONSTRUCTION COMPANY. Método Crítico; Tr. del Inglés por Manuel Arce Rincón. México, Diana, 1970.

MILLER, ROBERT W. Schedule, Cost, and Profit Control - with PERT. Estados Unidos de Norteamérica, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963.

MIZE, JOE H. y OTROS. Planificación y Control de Operaciones; Tr. del Inglés por Enrique Sierra Barreneche, Prentice-Hall Internacional, España, 1973.

MODER, J.J. How to Do CPM Scheduling Without a Computer. Engineering News-Record, March 14, 1963.

MODER, JOSEPH J. y PHILLIPS, CECIL R. Project Management With CPM and PERT. 2ed. New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1970.

MONTAÑO, G. AGUSTIN. Iniciación al Método del Camino Crítico; 2ed, México, Trillas, 1970.

O'BRIEN, JAMES J. Método de la Línea Crítica Debiera Estar Usándolo. Harvard Business Review, Agosto, 1971.

PHILLIPS, CECIL R. Fifteen Key Features of Computer Programs for CPM and PERT, Journal of Industrial Engineering, January-February, 1967.

PRAWDA W, JUAN. Investigación de Operaciones, México. Próxima Publicación en Limusa S. A., 1976.

RADCLIFFE, BYRON M. y OTROS. Critical Path Method. Chicago, Division of Cahners Publishing Company, Inc., 1967.

RODRIGUEZ CABALLERO, MELCHOR. Aplicaciones en Ingeniería de Métodos Modernos de Planeación, Programación y Control de Procesos Productivos. México, Limusa-Wiley, S. A., 1970.

ROSEBOOM, J. y OTROS. Applications of a Technique for Research and Development Program Evaluation, Operations Research, Vol. 7, No. 5, September-October, 1959.

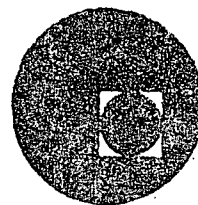
52

UNIVAC. PERT. Exec II and Exec 8, Programmer Reference,
up-7616, UNIVAC 1100 series, U.S.A. 1968.

WAGNER, HARVEY M. Principles of Operations Research; 2nd.
New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs,
1975.



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA

CAPITULO 5 PROGRAMACION LINEAL Y RUTA CRITICA

M. EN C. JOSE A. TORRES FENTANES

ABRIL, 1979.



14. PROGRAMACION LINEAL

14.1-Introducción

En diversas situaciones para la toma de decisiones relacionadas con el uso eficiente de una serie de recursos o asignación óptima de recursos limitados, es necesario construir un modelo matemático. Si dicho modelo matemático se puede expresar como un sistema de desigualdades lineales, dadas por las restricciones en la disponibilidad de los recursos, y una función que representa la meta u objetivo a alcanzar, también de tipo lineal, se dice que se trata de un problema de programación lineal. La función objetivo generalmente representa costos o utilidades.

En términos generales el sistema de desigualdades lineales tendrá más variables o incógnitas que desigualdades, para su solución se requerirá convertir el sistema de desigualdades en ecuaciones pero el sistema será de tipo indeterminado, sin embargo, la combinación de las restricciones con la función objetivo transforma el sistema determinado en un sistema determinado que tendrá solución única y además dicha solución optimizará la función objetivo.

El propósito de la programación lineal es encontrar dicha solución óptima. De los métodos existentes probablemente el más empleado sea el método Simplex de Dantzig.

La estructura general de un problema de programación lineal es:

$$\begin{array}{l} \max \\ \delta \\ \min \end{array} Z = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i X_i \quad (14.1)$$

sujeta a:

$$X_i \geq 0, \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n A_{ki} X_i \leq B_k, \quad k=1, \dots, b$$

(14.2)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ki} X_i &\geq B_k, \quad k=g+1, \dots, g \\ \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ki} X_i &= B_k, \quad k=g+1, \dots, m \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (14.2)$$

donde $m < n$, Z es la función objetivo a optimizar, a los valores C_i se les denomina coeficientes de costos, las variables X_i son las incógnitas del problema, a los coeficientes A_{ki} se les denomina coeficientes estructurales y a las constantes B_k se les denomina estipulaciones. Las restricciones del problema están dadas por el sistema de desigualdades (14.2)

Las características que debe reunir un problema de programación lineal son:

- 1) que el modelo sea determinístico,
- 2) variables positivas,
- 3) que el único objetivo sea maximizar o minimizar
- 4) divisibilidad de las variables, es decir, que puedan adquirir valores fraccionarios.

Se denomina solución básica factible del sistema:

$$\sum_{i=1}^l A_{ki} X_i = B_k, \quad k=1, \dots, m \quad (14.3)$$

a un conjunto de "m" valores X_i tal que satisfaga el sistema de ecuaciones (14.3) y que no necesariamente optimiza la función objetivo. A cada una de las "m" variables X_i se les denomina variables básicas y deberán ser positivas para garantizar una posible solución y evitar que degenera el método a emplear.

Para convertir las desigualdades en igualdades es necesario agregar ciertas variables al sistema como se muestra a continuación.

Sea el sistema de desigualdades:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 &\leq 10 \\
 x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 &= 5 \\
 x_1 - 3x_3 &\geq 12
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{14.4}$$

considerando que toda x_i es positiva, la conversión de las desigualdades en igualdades se logran agregando o restando cantidades positivas como se muestra a continuación:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 + x_4 &= 10 \\
 x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 + x_6 &= 5 \\
 x_1 - 3x_3 - x_5 + x_7 &= 12
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{14.5}$$

Las variables x_1, x_2, x_3 se conocen como variables estructurales y tienen significado físico; las variables x_4 y x_5 se conocen como variables de holgura, tienen significado físico y sus coeficientes en la función objetivo son nulos; a las variables x_6 y x_7 se les denomina variables artificiales, no tienen significado físico alguno y se agregan para poder formar la primera solución básica del sistema, pero se debe garantizar su exclusión de la solución óptima del sistema. Esto último se logra asignándoles coeficientes de costos C_i muy negativos cuando se desee maximizar o mucho mayores que cero cuando se desee minimizar.

14.2 Método Simplex

14.2.1 Objeto

Dado el modelo de programación lineal para un sistema, en la forma:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \max & \\
 \delta & \\
 \min & \\
 s/a &
 \end{aligned}
 \quad
 z = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i X_i
 \tag{14.6}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n A_{ki} X_i \geq B_k, \quad k=1, \dots, m$$

obtener los valores X_i que optimizan la función Z mediante el método Simplex en forma computacional.

14.2.2 Método

Para obtener la solución del modelo (14.6) es necesario convertir las desigualdades en igualdades, o sea, llegar al siguiente sistema de ecuaciones:

$$\begin{array}{l} \max \\ \text{ó} \\ \min \end{array} Z = \sum_{i=1}^l C_i X_i \quad (14.7)$$

s/a

$$\sum_{i=1}^l A_{ki} X_i = B_k, \quad k=1, \dots, m$$

donde las variables X_i para $i=n+1, \dots, l$ son variables de holgura y/o artificiales y los coeficientes C_i desde $i=n+1, \dots, l$ tienen el siguiente valor:

$$C_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{si corresponde a una variable de holgura} \\ \gg 0 & \text{si corresponde a una variable artificial y se está minimizando } Z \\ \ll 0 & \text{si corresponde a una variable artificial y se está maximizando } Z \end{cases}$$

$i=n+1, \dots, l$

A continuación se forma la siguiente tabla que suele denominarse como TABLEAU:

I		II								
Base C de la base		Sol. básica	C_1	C_2	\dots	C_l	\dots	C_n	\dots	C_l
			P_1	P_2	\dots	P_l	\dots	P_n	\dots	P_l
X_1^*	C_1^*	B_1^*	A_{11}^*	A_{12}^*	\dots	A_{1l}^*	\dots	A_{1n}^*	\dots	A_{1l}^*
.
.
X_k^*	C_k^*	B_k^*	A_{k1}^*	A_{k2}^*	\dots	A_{kl}^*	\dots	A_{kn}^*	\dots	A_{kl}^*
.
.
X_m^*	C_m^*	B_m^*	A_{m1}^*	A_{m2}^*	\dots	A_{ml}^*	\dots	A_{mn}^*	\dots	A_{ml}^*
valor de Z	Z_0	$Z_1 - C_1$	$Z_2 - C_2$	\dots	$Z_l - C_l$	\dots	$Z_n - C_n$	\dots	$Z_l - C_l$	

Fig. 14.1 Tableau para aplicar el Método Simplex computacional

La primera solución básica estará formada por las variables de holgura y variables artificiales que tengan coeficiente unitario positivo, habrá "m" variables que cumplan lo anterior; las variables que no forman parte de la base tienen valor nulo.

El proceso del método Simplex consiste en ir cambiando las variables que pertenecen a la base en forma sistemática hasta optimizar la función objetivo. Para describir el proceso se considerará que se desea $\min Z$, lo anterior no origina ninguna restricción puesto que $\min Z$ equivale a $\max(-Z)$.

Al seleccionar la primera base o solución factible inicial del sistema, los elementos del Tableau de la fig. 14.1 tendrán el siguiente valor:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{ki}^* &= A_{ki} \\ B_k^* &= B_k \\ Z_i & \end{aligned}$$

$$Z_0 = C_1^* B_1^* + \dots + C_m^* B_m^*$$

X_1^*, \dots, X_m^* : variables que forman la primera solución básica

C_1^*, \dots, C_m^* : coeficientes de costos correspondientes a las variables de la solución básica

Para resolver el sistema de ecuaciones representado por el Tableau se aplica el método de Gauss-Jordan a la sección II del Tableau, la selección del elemento pivote para efectos de minimización se describe a continuación:

- ① Analizar los elementos $Z_i - C_i$ para toda "i" a fin de determinar si ya se optimizó la función objetivo. El mínimo se obtiene cuando $(Z_i - C_i) \leq 0$ para toda "i", si se cumple lo anterior se detiene el proceso y el valor de las incógnitas que forman la base es la solución óptima. En caso contrario continuar.
- ② Buscar todos los $(Z_i - C_i) > 0$ y seleccionar como columna del elemento pivote aquella columna "i" para la que se cumpla que $(Z_i - C_i) > 0$ es el máximo.
- ③ Para asegurar la factibilidad de la nueva solución, el renglón "k" del elemento pivote será aquél para el cual se tenga el $\min_k (B_k^* / A_{ki}^*)$ tal que $A_{ki}^* > 0$, "i" corresponde a la columna seleccionada en el paso ②. La solución será no acotada cuando $A_{ki}^* \leq 0$ para toda "k".
- ④ Introducir en la base la nueva variable básica X_i , es decir, hacer $X_k^* = X_i$ y $C_k^* = C_i$
- ⑤ Aplicar el método de eliminación de Gauss-Jordan a la sección II del Tableau pivotando sobre el elemento A_{ki}^* . Al efectuar esta eliminación, los nuevos valores B^* corresponderán a los valores de las variables que forman la base X^* .
- ⑥ Regresar al paso ①

Se puede presentar el caso de que el problema sea cíclico o degenerativo, lo cual es una posibilidad muy remota en

problemas reales. En previsión a lo anterior, se debe establecer un máximo número de iteraciones al implementar el algoritmo en una computadora. Si se tiene un sistema con "m" restricciones se requerirán aproximadamente "2m" cambios de base para llegar a la solución óptima, en base a esto se puede establecer el máximo número de iteraciones a efectuar.

En el caso de que aparezcan variables artificiales, si es que se emplearon, en la solución óptima será necesario modificar sus coeficientes de costos y volver a aplicar el método Simplex al sistema de ecuaciones.

Las variables que no formen parte de la base correspondiente a la solución óptima tienen valor nulo.

14.2.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

Ninguna

b) Descripción de las variables:

M	cantidad de renglones de la matriz de coeficientes del sistema de ecuaciones
N	cantidad de columnas de la matriz de coeficientes = variables estructurales + variables de holgura + variables artificiales
B(I, J)	matriz de coeficientes que contiene los elementos A_{ki}
PO(I, 1)	vector de términos independientes del sistema de ecuaciones o estipulaciones B_k
C(I, J)	coeficientes de costos de la función objetivo
ASK	variable que indica el tipo de optimización a efectuar, puede ser MAX o MIN
LA(I, 1)	incógnitas que forman parte de la base
COI(I, 1)	coeficientes de costos de las incógnitas que forman parte de la base
D(I, J)	índices que indican cuando detener el proceso, son los valores $Z_i - C_i$

VALZ	valor de la función objetivo
X(I)	caracteres alfanuméricos que se utilizan en la impresión para representar las variables X_i
L	contador
K	identificador de las variables que formarán la primera base
ITERA	contador de iteraciones
LLL	variable de reemplazo
LIM	límite de iteraciones
AMAX	valor del máximo índice $Z_i - C_i > 0$
AMIN	valor del mínimo cociente B_k^*/A_{ki}^*
LR	identificador de la variable que saldrá de la base
LC	identificador de la variable que entrará a la base
ATEMP	variable de reemplazo

c) Dimensiones:

Las proposiciones DIMENSION y DATA deberán modificarse cuando:

$$M > 30 \quad \text{y/o} \quad N > 30$$

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(2I2)	M, N
2	(8F10.0)	B(I, J), los elementos de la matriz se dan renglón por renglón. Emplear las tarjetas que sean necesarias.
3	(8F10.0)	PO(I, 1), los términos independientes se dan uno a continuación del otro en una o más tarjetas según se requiera.
4	(8F10.0)	C(1, J), los coeficientes de costos se dan uno a conti--

-
-
-
- 5 (A3) nuación del otro. Emplear
las tarjetas que sean nece
sarias.
ASK puede adoptar dos va
lores:
MIN cuando se desea minimi
zar
MAX cuando se desea maximi
zar

 otros paquetes de datos (opcional)

n

TARJETA EN BLANCO, al fina-
lizar toda la información

e) Diagrama de bloques:

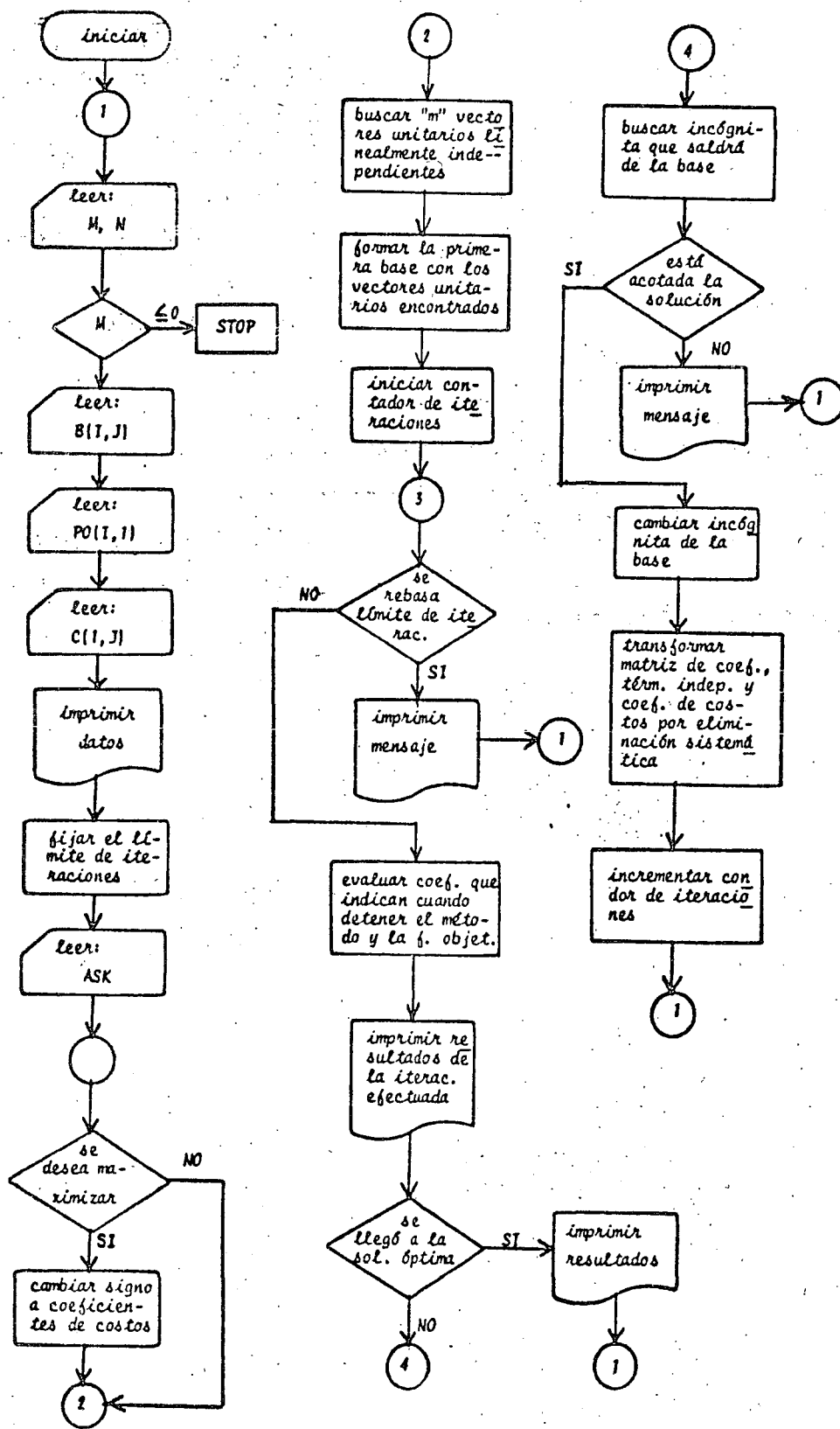


Fig. -14-2 Diagrama de bloques del programa principal

6) Listado:

```

C   PROGRAMA PARA APLICAR EL METODO SIMPLEX EN UN SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES
C   LINEALES LINEALMENTE INDEPENDIENTES DE ORDEN MXN QUE CONTIENE M
C   VECTORES UNITARIOS LINEALMENTE INDEPENDIENTES
C   EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES EMPLEADAS ES
C   M=NUMERO DE RENGLONES DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES
C   N=NUMERO DE COLUMNAS DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES
C   U=MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES
C   PO=VECTOR DE CONSTANTES INDEPENDIENTES
C   C=COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR
C   ASK=VARIABLE CON LA QUE SE INDICA EL TIPO DE OPTIMIZACION(MAX,MIN)
C   LA Y COI=INCOGNITAS Y SUS COEFICIENTES EN LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR
C   QUE FORMAN LA BASE
C   U=INDICES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL METODO
C   VALZ=VALOR DE LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR
C   LIM=LIMITE DE ITERACIONES

```

```

DIMENSION B(30,30),PO(30,1),C(1,30),LA(30,1),COI(30,1),X(30),D(1,3
10)
DATA X(1),X(2),X(3),X(4),X(5),X(6),X(7),X(8),X(9),X(10),X(11),X(12
1),X(13),X(14),X(15),X(16),X(17),X(18),X(19),X(20),X(21),X(22),X(23
2),X(24),X(25),X(26),X(27),X(28),X(29),X(30)/2HX1,2HX2,2HX3,2HX4,2H
3X5,2HX6,2HX7,2HX8,2HX9,3HX10,3HX11,3HX12,3HX13,3HX14,3HX15,3HX16,3
4HX17,3HX18,3HX19,3HX20,3HX21,3HX22,3HX23,3HX24,3HX25,3HX26,3HX27,3
5HX28,3HX29,3HX30/
DATA ALF/3HMIN/
5   LECTURA DEL ORDEN DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES
    IR=5
    IW=6
    READ(IR,100) M,N
    IF(M) 2,2,3
    2   CALL EXIT
C   LECTURA DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES
    3   DO 4 I=1,M
C   LECTURA DEL VECTOR DE CONSTANTES INDEPENDIENTES
    4   READ(IR,150) (B(I,J),J=1,N)
C   LECTURA DE LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR
    READ(IR,150) (PO(I),I=1,M)
C   IMPRESION DE DATOS
    WRITE(IW,950) M,N
    WRITE(IW,200)
    DO 5 I=1,M
    5   WRITE(IW,250) (B(I,J),J=1,N)
    WRITE(IW,300)
    DO 6 I=1,M
    6   WRITE(IW,350) PO(I)
    WRITE(IW,400)
    WRITE(IW,250) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
C   LECTURA DEL TIPO DE OPTIMIZACION DESEADO.
    LIM=400
    READ(IR,450) ASK
    IF(ALF.EQ.ASK) GO TO 8
    DO 7 J=1,N
    7   C(I,J)=-C(I,J)
C   BUSQUEDA DE LOS M VECTORES UNITARIOS LINEALMENTE INDEPENDIENTES
    8   DO 10 J=1,N
        L=0
        K=0
        DO 9 I=1,M
            IF(B(I,J).EQ.0.0) GO TO 9
            K=I
            L=L+1
        9   CONTINUE
            IF(L.NE.1) GO TO 10
            IF(B(K,J).NE.1) GO TO 10
            LA(K,1)=J
            COI(K,1)=C(I,J)
    10  CONTINUE
        ITERA=1
    11  IF(ITERA.LT.LIM) GO TO 12
        WRITE(S,500)
        GO TO 1
    12  DO 13 I=1,N
    13  B(1,I)=0.0
        VALZ=C.0
C   DETERMINACION DEL VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO
    DO 14 I=1,M
    14  VALZ=VALZ + PO(K,1)+COI(K,1)

```

```

C CALCULO DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL METODO
DO 17 J=1,N
DO 16 I=1,M
16 B(I,J)=C(I,J) + B(I,J)*COI(I,1)
   U(I,J)=C(I,J) - C(I,J)
17 CONTINUE
C IMPRESION DE LOS VALORES OBTENIDOS EN LA ITERACION EFECTUADA
WRITE(IW,550) ITERA
WRITE(IW,600)
DO 18 I=1,M
   LLL=LA(I,1)
18 WRITE(IW,650) X(LLL),PO(I,1)
   WRITE(IW,750)
   WRITE(IW,250) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
   AMAX=D(I,1)
   LC=1
C SE INDAGA SI YA TERMINO EL PROCESO, EN CASO CONTRARIO SE BUSCA LA
C INCOGNITA QUE ENTRARA A LA BASE
DO 19 J=1,N
   IF(AMAX.GE.D(I,J)) GO TO 19
   AMAX=D(I,J)
   LC=J
19 CONTINUE
   IF(AMAX.GT.0.0) GO TO 21
C IMPRESION DE LOS VALORES QUE OPTIMIZAN LA FUNCION
WRITE(IW,800)
DO 20 I=1,M
   LLL=LA(I,1)
20 WRITE(IW,850) X(LLL),PO(I,1)
   WRITE(IW,850) VALZ
   GO TO 1
21 L=0
   K=0
C BUSQUEDA DE LA INCOGNITA QUE SALDRA DE LA BASE
DO 25 I=1,M
   IF(B(I,LC).LE.0.0) GO TO 22
   GO TO 23
22 L=L+1
   GO TO 25
23 K=K+1
   IF(K.NE.1) GO TO 24
   AMIN=PO(I,1)/B(I,LC)
   LR=I
   GO TO 25
24 ATEMP=PO(I,1)/B(I,LC)
   IF(AMIN.LE.ATEMP) GO TO 25
   AMIN=ATEMP
   LR=I
25 CONTINUE
C INVESTIGANDO SI LA SOLUCION ESTA ACOTADA
IF(L.NE.M) GO TO 26
WRITE(IW,900)
GO TO 1
C INSERCION DE LA INCOGNITA EN LA BASE
26 LA(LR,1)=LC
   COI(LR,1)=C(I,LC)
C TRANSFORMACION DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES Y DEL VECTOR DE CONSTANTES INDEPENDIENTES
ATEMP=9(LR,LC)
DO 27 J=1,N
27 U(LR,J)=B(LR,J)/ATEMP
   PO(LR,1)=PO(LR,1)/ATEMP
DO 29 I=1,M
   IF(I.EQ.LR) GO TO 29
   ATEMP=9(I,LC)
DO 28 J=1,N
28 U(I,J)=B(I,J) - ATEMP*B(LR,J)
   PO(I,1)=PO(I,1) - ATEMP*PO(LR,1)
29 CONTINUE
   ITERA=ITERA + 1
   GO TO 11

```

IF(ASK, EQ, ALF) WRITE (IW, 700) VALZ
 IF(ASK, NE, ALF) WRITE (IW, 700) -VALZ

```

C   FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
100 FORMAT (2I2)
150 FORMAT (8F13.0)
200 FORMAT (3(/),45X, 'LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA ES',/)
250 FORMAT (/5X,8( E13.5,2X))
300 FORMAT (3(/),45X, 'EL VECTOR DE CONSTANTES INDEPENDIENTES ES',/)
350 FORMAT (/52X,E13.5)
400 FORMAT (3(/),42X, 'LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR SON
1',/)
450 FORMAT(A3)
500 FORMAT(3(/),54X, 'EL PROBLEMA ES CICLICO')
550 FORMAT(5(/),53X, '+++ ITERACION NUMERO ',I2)
600 FORMAT(5(/),18X, 'INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE',32X,'VALOR DE LA
15 INCOGNITAS',/)
650 FORMAT(/,31X,A3,50X,E15.8)
700 FORMAT(3(/),35X, 'VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO ',E
115.8)
750 FORMAT(3(/),33X, 'VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DE
1TENER EL PROCESO',/)
800 FORMAT(5(/),43X, '+++ LOS VALORES QUE OPTIMIZAN LA FUNCION SON',/
1/,28X, 'INCOGNITA',43X, 'VALOR',/)
850 FORMAT(3(/),41X, 'EL VALOR OPTIMO DE LA FUNCION ES ',E15.8)
900 FORMAT(5(/),51X, 'LA SOLUCION NO ESTA ACOTADA')
950 FORMAT(1H1,5(/),42X, 'EL ORDEN DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES ES ',
112, 'X',I2)
END

```

Fig. 14.3 Listado del programa principal

14.2.4 Ejemplo

En un taller se cuenta con tres tipos de máquinas: cortadora (A), torno (B) y taladro (C). En dicho taller se fabrican cuatro productos: 1, 2, 3, 4. Cada producto debe de pasar por cada máquina con la secuencia ABC. El tiempo (horas) empleado por cada máquina para el acabado del producto, la cantidad de horas efectivas de trabajo de cada máquina y la utilidad neta obtenida por la venta de cada producto terminado son:

Tipo de Mâq.	Tiempo útil de trabajo	Productos			
		1	2	3	4
A	3,500	2	1.5	3.0	1.5
B	8,000	1.5	5.5	1.5	4.0
C	4,500	2	3.5	4.0	1.5
utilidad unitaria (\$)		70	90	100	60

Para que la producción sea rentable se requiere que la cantidad de artículos elaborados sea mayor de 500.

Determine la cantidad de artículos de cada tipo que se deben producir en el año para que la ganancia obtenida sea máxima. Considere que todos los productos elaborados son vendidos.

* SOLUCION

El modelo matemático del problema planteado es:

$$\max Z = 70X_1 + 90X_2 + 100X_3 + 60X_4$$

$$s/a \quad 2X_1 + 1.5X_2 + 3.0X_3 + 1.5X_4 \leq 3500$$

$$1.5X_1 + 5.5X_2 + 1.5X_3 + 4.0X_4 \leq 8000$$

$$2X_1 + 3.5X_2 + 4.0X_3 + 1.5X_4 \leq 4500$$

$$X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4 \geq 500$$

EL ORDEN DE LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES ES 4x 9

LA MATRIZ DE COEFICIENTES DEL SISTEMA ES

0.	.20000E+01	.15000E+01	.30000E+01	.15000E+01	.10000E+01	0.	0.	0.
0.	.15000E+01	.55000E+01	.15000E+01	.40000E+01	0.	.10000E+01	0.	0.
0.	.20000E+01	.35000E+01	.40000E+01	.15000E+01	0.	0.	.10000E+01	0.
0.	.10000E+01	.10000E+01	.10000E+01	.10000E+01	0.	0.	0.	.10000E+01

EL VECTOR DE CONSTANTES INDEPENDIENTES ES

.35000E+04
.80000E+04
.45000E+04
.50000E+03

LOS COEFICIENTES DE LA FUNCION A OPTIMIZAR SON

0.	.70000E+02	.90000E+02	.10000E+03	.60000E+02	0.	0.	0.	0.
----	------------	------------	------------	------------	----	----	----	----

*** ITERACION NUMERO 1

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X5	.35000000E+04
X6	.80000000E+04
X7	.45000000E+04
X9	.50000000E+03

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO =.50000000E+07

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

0.	.10070E+05	.10090E+05	.10100E+05	.10060E+05	0.	0.	0.	.10000E+05
----	------------	------------	------------	------------	----	----	----	------------

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X5	.20000000E+04
X6	.72300000E+04
X7	.25000000E+04
X3	.50000000E+03

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO .50000000E+05

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

.30000E+02	.10000E+02	0.	.40000E+02	0.	0.	0.	.10000E+03
.10100E+05							

*** ITERACION NUMERO 3

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X5	.12500000E+03
X6	.63125000E+04
X8	.62500000E+03
X3	.11250000E+04

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO .11250000E+06

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

.20000E+02	.25000E+01	0.	.22500E+02	0.	0.	.25000E+02	0.
.10000E+05							

*** ITERACION NUMERO 4

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X4	.33333333E+03
X6	.51666667E+04
X8	.83333333E+03
X3	.10000000E+04

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO .12000000E+06

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

.10000E+02	.70000E+02	0.	0.	.40000E+02	0.	.20000E+02	0.
.10000E+05							

*** ITERACION NUMERO 5

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X4	.14022989E+04
X2	.35632184E+03
X8	.15459770E+04
X3	.28735632E+03

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO .14494253E+06

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

.85057E+01	0.	0.	0.	-.15747E+02	-.48276E+01	-.11379E+02	0.
-.10000E+05							

*** ITERACION NUMERO 6

INCOGNITAS QUE FORMAN LA BASE

VALOR DE LAS INCOGNITAS

X4	.11086957E+04
X2	.50000000E+03
X8	.16521739E+04
X1	.54347826E+03

VALOR DE LA FUNCION QUE SE ESTA OPTIMIZANDO .14956522E+06

VALOR DE LOS COEFICIENTES QUE INDICAN CUANDO DETENER EL PROCESO

0.	0.	-.16067E+02	0.	-.20000E+02	-.26087E+01	-.13043E+02	0.
-.10000E+05							

*** LOS VALORES QUE OPTIMIZAN LA FUNCION SON

INCOGNITA

VALOR

X4	.11086957E+04
X2	.50000000E+03
X8	.16521739E+04
X1	.54347826E+03

EL VALOR OPTIMO DE LA FUNCION ES .14956522E+06

14.3 Bibliografía

1. AGUILAR J. Rodolfo, "Systems Analysis and Design in Engineering, Architecture, Construction and Planning". Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1973.
pp.97-163.
2. GASS Saul, "Linear Programming". New York: Mc Graw-Hill Book Co., 1964.
pp.1-81.
3. GEREZ G. Víctor y GRIJALVA L. Luis, "El Enfoque de Sistemas". México: Editorial Limusa S.A., 1976.
pp.308-345.
4. KUESTER James and MIZE Joe, "Optimization Techniques with FORTRAN". New York: Mc Graw-Hill Book Co., 1973.
pp.9-63.
5. KUO S. Shan, "Computer Applications of Numerical Methods". Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Co., 1972.
pp.346-379.
6. LOOMBA N. Paul and TURBAN Efraim, "Applied Programming for Management". New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston Inc., 1974.
pp.260-305.

16. RUTA CRITICA

16.1 Introducción

Todo sistema o proyecto complejo se encuentra formado por gran cantidad de actividades, las cuales pueden o no estar interrelacionadas. Mediante el proceso de jerarquización es posible determinar cuáles de esas actividades deben realizarse antes de poder efectuar algunas otras.

Cada actividad generalmente tendrá asociado un tiempo de duración y la subordinación entre actividades puede ser representada mediante una red gráfica de flujo.

Para poder lograr el correcto avance del proyecto o desarrollo del sistema así como para establecer el control y plan de avance es necesario contar con la información de los tiempos que emplea cada actividad. Por otro lado, el conocimiento acerca de las actividades a las que no se puede modificar su tiempo de inicio o de terminación, así como de las actividades que pueden ser modificadas en su tiempo de inicio o duración - permite una asignación más eficiente de recursos, la reasignación de tiempos de duración y la redefinición de relaciones en forma tal que el sistema o proyecto cumpla su objetivo en el tiempo que se le habla asignado y en la forma más económica posible.

Un método para efectuar el control antes mencionado es el método de Ruta Crítica (CPM), este método fue desarrollado en 1956 en U.S.A. y es una de las herramientas básicas en la planeación y dirección de proyectos.

16.2 Método de la Ruta Crítica

16.2.1 Objeto

Dada una serie de actividades que forman parte de un proyecto, las cuales pueden ser simultáneas o secuenciales así como sus tiempos de ejecución, determinar:

- a) actividades que forman parte de la ruta crítica, son aquéllas que no pueden adelantarse ni retrasarse y que por lo tanto con

- trolan el tiempo total de duración del proyecto,
- b) los tiempos de holgura existentes entre actividades secuenciales que no pertenecen a la ruta crítica y,
- c) tiempo total necesario para llevar a cabo el proyecto.

16.2.2 Método

Para la representación gráfica de la secuencia de actividades se utilizan nodos (círculos) y ramas (segmentos dirigidos). Los nodos representan eventos o actividades y los segmentos dirigidos la relación entre actividades. A toda red se le asignan dos nodos o actividades ficticias de duración nula: el nodo inicial y el nodo terminal.

Como ejemplo de una red de secuencia de actividades se tiene:

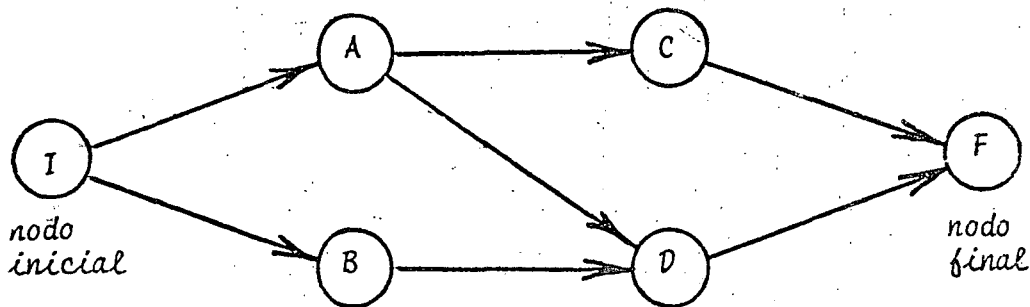


Fig. 16.1 Red gráfica de la secuencia de actividades

La duración de una actividad es el tiempo necesario para llevarla a cabo, dicho tiempo se determina en base al conocimiento que tenga del proyecto el encargado del mismo. Como se mencionó con anterioridad, la duración del evento inicial y del evento final es nula.

Para la descripción del método es necesario definir algunos conceptos:

- 1) Tiempo más próximo de inicio (EST) de una actividad, es lo más pronto que puede comenzarse su ejecución.
- 2) Tiempo más próximo de terminación (EFT) de una actividad, es igual al EST de la actividad más su duración.
- 3) Tiempo más lejano de terminación (LFT) de una actividad, es

el tiempo más remoto en que se puede terminar dicha actividad sin retrasar el inicio de cualquier actividad subordinada.

- 4) Tiempo más lejano de inicio (LST) de una actividad, es igual al LFT de la actividad menos su duración.
- 5) Tiempo de Holgura Total de una actividad, es la cantidad total de tiempo que se puede retrasar la actividad sin retrasar el tiempo de terminación del proyecto.
- 6) Tiempo de Holgura Libre de una actividad, es la cantidad de tiempo que se puede retrasar la actividad sin retrasar cualquier otra actividad.

Los primeros cuatro conceptos se representan en la gráfica de la red en la siguiente forma:

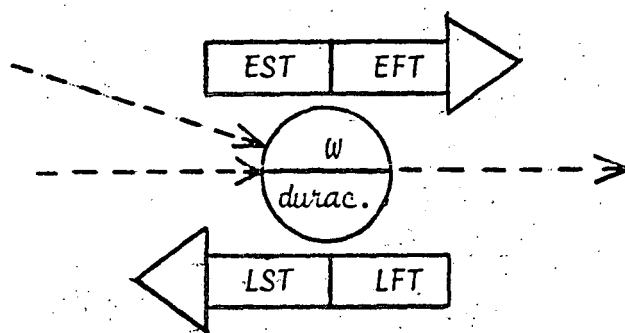


Fig. 16.2 Representación gráfica de una actividad con su duración, EST, EFT, LST, LFT.

Para obtener los valores EST y EFT se recorre la red en sentido directo desde el nodo inicial hasta el nodo final a través de todas sus ramas y para la "i-ésima" actividad de la red se tendrá:

$$EST_i = \max \text{ EFT de todas las actividades precedentes inmediatas de la actividad "i" } \quad (16.1)$$

$$EFT_i = EST_i + \text{ Duración de la actividad } \quad (16.2)$$

Los valores LST y LFT se obtienen recorriendo la red en sentido inverso desde el nodo final hasta el nodo inicial a través de todas las ramas y para la "i-ésima" actividad se tendrá:

$$LFT_i = \min \text{ LST de todas las actividades de las cuales la actividad "i" es precedente inmediato} \quad (16.3)$$

$$LST_i = LFT_i - \text{Duración} \quad (16.4)$$

Los tiempos de holgura para una actividad "i" se evalúan como a continuación se indica:

$$(\text{HOLGURA TOTAL})_i = LST_i - EST_i = LFT_i - EFT_i \quad (16.5)$$

$$(\text{HOLGURA LIBRE})_i = (\min \text{ EST de todas las actividades de las cuales la actividad "i" es precedente inmediato}) - EFT_i \quad (16.6)$$

Siempre se cumple que:

$$\text{HOLGURA LIBRE} \leq \text{HOLGURA TOTAL} \quad (16.7)$$

La ruta crítica está formada por todas las actividades que tienen holgura total nula.

Para desarrollar el proceso en una computadora digital es necesario proporcionar las conexiones existentes entre las actividades mediante una matriz binaria G . Si existen "n" actividades, incluyendo las ficticias, la matriz será de orden (n x n) y sus elementos estarán dados en la siguiente forma:

$$g_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & , \text{ si } i = j \\ 1 & , \text{ si la actividad "j" es precedente inmediato de la actividad "i"} \\ 0 & , \text{ si la actividad "j" no es precedente inmediato de la actividad "i"} \end{cases}$$

16.2.3 Descripción del Programa

a) Subrutinas requeridas:

Ninguna.

b) Descripción de las variables:

N	cantidad de actividades incluyendo las dos actividades ficticias
G(I, J)	matriz binaria <u>G</u> que indica cuáles actividades se encuentran directamente interconectadas
D(I)	vector con la duración de todas las actividades
GB(I, J)	matriz binaria que da las relaciones directas entre actividades al efectuar el recorrido de la red en sentido inverso
CS(I)	contador
EST(I)	fecha más próxima de inicio
EFT(I)	fecha más próxima de terminación
LST(I)	fecha más lejana de inicio
LFT(I)	fecha más lejana de terminación
NCON	contador
FF(I)	holgura libre
TF(I)	holgura total
RC(I)	variable en la que se archivan las actividades que forman parte de la ruta crítica
L(I)	identificador de todas las actividades precedentes o consecuentes en forma inmediata a una actividad
IDASH(I)	guión (-) se emplea para impresión

c) Dimensiones:

La proposición INTEGER deberá modificarse cuando:

$$N > 100$$

d) Formatos para los datos de entrada:

SEC. TARJETAS	FORMATO	INFORMACION
1	(I3)	N
2	(40I2)	G(I, J) los elementos de la matriz binaria se dan renglón por renglón empleando la cantidad de
.		
.		
.		

6) Listado:

```

PROGRAMA PARA OBTENER LA RUTA CRITICA DE UN CONJUNTO DE ACTIVIDADES.
EL SIGNIFICADO DE LAS VARIABLES USADAS ES
N=CANTIDAD DE ACTIVIDADES, G=MATRIZ DE SUBORDINACION DE ACTIVIDADES,
D=DURACION DE LAS ACTIVIDADES, CS=CONTADOR ACTIVIDADES YA
REALIZADAS, EST=FECHA MAS TEMPRANA DE INICIO, LFT=FECHA MAS TEMPRANA
DE TERMINO, LST=ULTIMA FECHA DE INICIO, LET=FECHA DE TERMINO
MAS TARDIA, NCON=CONTADOR, FF=TIEMPO LIBRE FLOTANTE, TF=TIEMPO
FLOTANTE TOTAL, RC=VECTOR EN EL QUE SE ARCHIVAN LAS ACTIVIDADES
DE LA RUTA CRITICA

INTEGER G(30,30),CS(30),L(30),RC(30),ICASH(30)
REAL D(30),EST(30),LFT(30),LST(30),LET(30),FF(30),TF(30)
COMMON N,G,D,LST,EFT,LSI,LET,FF,TF,CS,L,RC,RCM,BLAN
DATA ICASH/30*1H-/
DATA RCM/41P.C./
DATA BLAN/41/
LECTURA DEL NUMERO DE ACTIVIDADES, SUBORDINACION ENTRE ELLAS Y DURACION
DE LAS MISMAS
2 READ(5,100) N
IF(N) 3,3,4
3 CALL EXIT
DU 5 I=1,N
5 READ(5,150) (C(I,J),J=1,N)
READ(5,160) (L(I),I=1,N)
IMPRESION DE LA MATRIZ DE SUBORDINACION
WRITE(6,200)
DU 6 I=1,N
WRITE(6,240) (I,I=1,N)
WRITE(6,250) (G(I,J),J=1,N)
CALL FUCCI
IMPRESION DE RESULTADOS
WRITE(6,300)
WRITE(6,340) ICASH
DU 26 I=1,N
26 WRITE(6,350) I,D(I),EST(I),EFT(I),LST(I),LET(I),FF(I),TF(I),RC(I)
FORMATOS DE LECTURA E IMPRESION
100 FORMAT(I3)
150 FORMAT(40I2)
160 FORMAT(16F5.0)
200 FORMAT(1F1.4(/),40X,"MATRIZ DE SUBORDINACION DE ACTIVIDADES",//)
240 FORMAT(/,2Y,2E10.2,12)
245 FORMAT(5X,30(12,2X))
250 FORMAT(6X,30(11,3X))
300 FORMAT(50(/),48X,"LOS RESULTADOS OBTENIDOS SON",//,17X,"ACTIVIDAD"
1,2X,"DURACION",4X,"EST",7X,"EFT",7X,"LST",7X,"LET",7X,"FF",7X,"TF"
340 FORMAT(11X,100A1,/)
350 FORMAT(/,20X,13,5X,7(F7.2,5X),A4)
END

```



```

SUBROUTINE RUCBI, G, D, EST, EFT, LST, LFT, FF, TF, CS, L, RC, RCM, FLAN
DIMENSION LFF(30), LFT(30), LSI(30), LTI(30), RC(30), D(30), EST(30), EFT(30),

```

C

```

REAL MAX, MIN
OBTENER EST Y EFT
DO 1 I=1, N
1 CS(I)=0
NM1=N-1
EST(1)=0.0
EFT(1)=0.0
LSI(1)=0.0
LTI(1)=0.0
RC(1)=RCM
CS(1)=1
10 NCON=C
DO 14 J=2, N
IF (CS(J).EQ.1) GO TO 14
NUM=0
DO 12 T=1, N
IF (I.EQ.J) GO TO 12
IF (G(J, I).EQ.0) GO TO 12
IF (CS(T).EQ.1) GO TO 11
NCON=NCON + 1
GO TO 14
11 NUM=NUM + 1
L(NUM)=I
CONTINUE
12 MAX=EFT(L(I))
DO 13 T=1, NUM
IF (MAX.GE.EFT(L(T))) GO TO 13
MAX=EFT(L(T))
13 CONTINUE
EST(J)=MAX
EFT(J)=MAX + L(J)
CS(J)=1
CONTINUE
14 OBTENER LST Y EFT
LST(N)=EFT(N)
LFT(N)=EFT(N)
FF(N)=0
TF(N)=0
RC(N)=RCM
GO 15 T=2, NM1
15 CS(T)=0
16 NCON=C
DO 20 T=2, NM1
I=N+1-T
IF (CS(T).EQ.1) GO TO 20
NUM=0
DO 18 J=1, N
IF (I.EQ.J) GO TO 18
IF (G(J, I).EQ.0) GO TO 18
IF (CS(J).EQ.1) GO TO 17
NCON=NCON + 1
GO TO 20
17 NUM=NUM + 1
L(NUM)=I
CONTINUE

```

C

```

MIN=LST(L(1))
DO 19 J=1,NUM
IF(MIN.LE.FST(L(J))) GO TO 19
19 MIN=LST(L(J))
CONTINUE
FT(I)=MIN
EST(I)=MIN-D(I)
CS(I)=1
20 CONTINUE
IF(ACEN.NE.0) GO TO 16
OBTENER HOJAS Y ACTIVIDADES DE LA RUTA CRITICA
DO 25 J=1,MM1
NUM=0
DO 21 I=1,MM1
IF(I.EQ.J) GO TO 21
IF(G(I,J).EQ.0) GO TO 21
NUM=NUM+1
L(NUM)=I
21 CONTINUE
MIN=EST(L(1))
DO 22 I=1,NUM
IF(MIN.LE.FST(L(I))) GO TO 22
22 MIN=EST(L(I))
CONTINUE
FT(J)=MIN-FFT(J)
IF(J)=LST(J)-LST(J)
IF(FT(J).EQ.0) GO TO 23
RC(J)=PLAN
GO TO 25
23 RC(J)=RCM
25 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

```

16.2.4 Ejemplo

Obtener para la jerarquía no trivial del ejemplo 15.2.4 - la ruta crítica de las actividades si la duración de las mismas es como se muestra a continuación:

<u>Actividad</u>	<u>Duración (segundos)</u>
A) Detener el coche	8
B) Poner freno de mano	2
C) Bajar del vehículo y checar llanta mala	30
D) Abrir cajuela	30
E) Sacar llanta buena	30
F) Sacar gato y ponerlo	40
G) Sacar llave de cruz	15
H) Quitar tapón	20
I) Aflojar y quitar tuercas	60
J) Subir coche	35
K) Desmontar llanta mala	15
L) Montar llanta buena	25
M) Apretar tuercas y poner tapón	70
N) Bajar el coche y guardar gato	20
O) Guardar llanta mala	20
P) Guardar llave de cruz	15
Q) Cerrar cajuela	5
R) Subirse al coche y quitar freno de mano	15
S) Arrancar	10

* SOLUCION

La red de actividades aparece en la Fig. 16.5

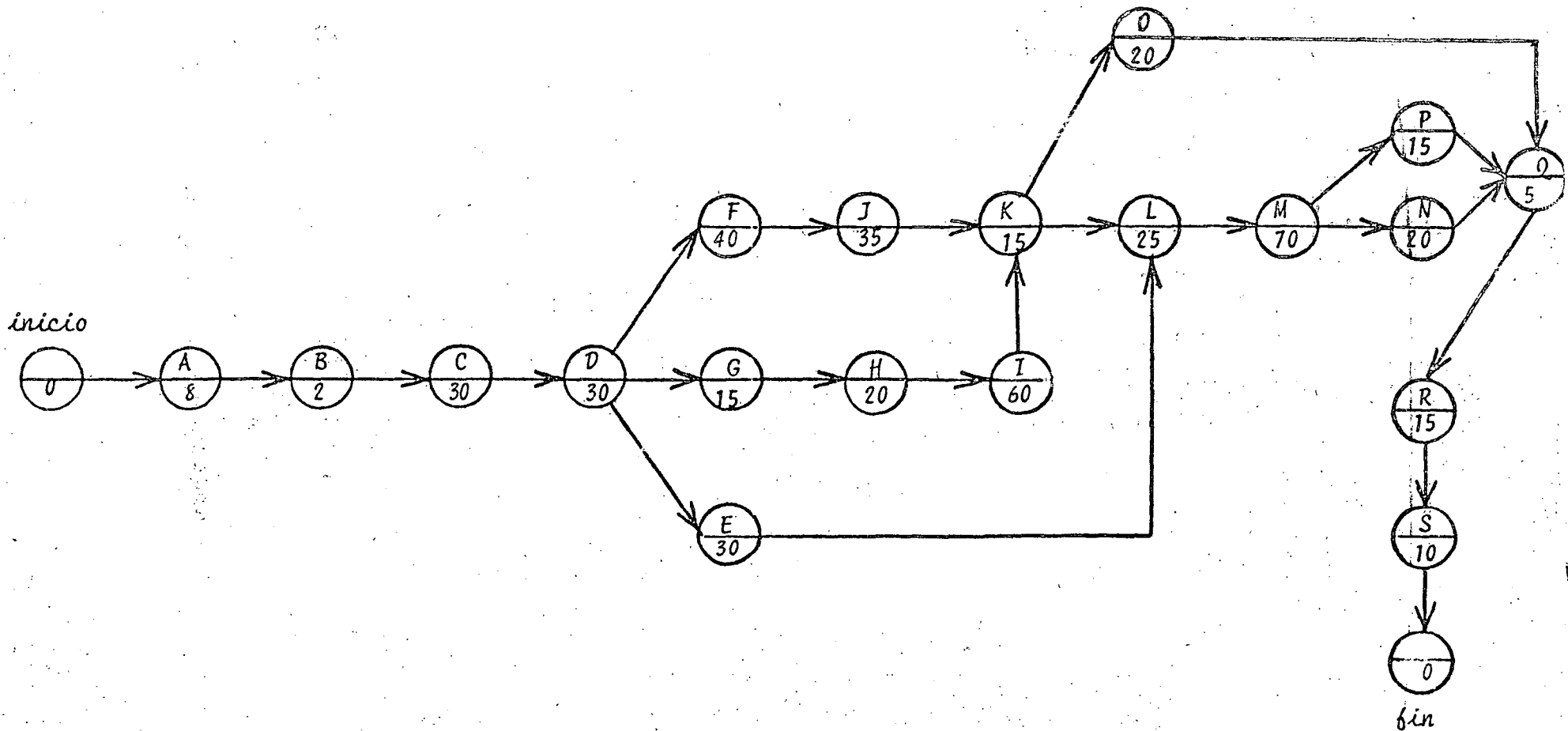


Fig. 16.5 Red de la secuencia de actividades del problema del ejemplo 16.2.4

TABLA 16.1 Datos para el problema del ejemplo 16.2.4

<u>Actividad</u>	<u>Indice asociado</u>
<i>inicio</i>	1
A	2
B	3
C	4
D	5
E	6
F	7
G	8
H	9
I	10
J	11
K	12
L	13
M	14
N	15
O	16
P	17
Q	18
R	19
S	20
Fin	21

$D = (0, 8, 2, 30, 30, 30, 40, 15, 20, 60, 35, 15, 25, 70, 20, 20, 15, 5, 15, 10, 0)$

$N = 21$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
G = 11	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

TABLA 16.2 Resultados del ejemplo 16.2.4

LOS RESULTADOS OBTENIDOS SON

ACTIVIDAD	DURACION	EST	EFT	LST	LFT	FF	TF	
1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
2	8.00	0.00	8.00	0.00	8.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
3	2.00	8.00	10.00	8.00	10.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
4	30.00	10.00	40.00	10.00	40.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
5	30.00	40.00	70.00	40.00	70.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
6	30.00	70.00	100.00	150.00	180.00	80.00	80.00	
7	40.00	70.00	110.00	90.00	130.00	0.00	20.00	
8	15.00	70.00	85.00	70.00	85.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
9	20.00	85.00	105.00	85.00	105.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
10	60.00	105.00	165.00	105.00	165.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
11	35.00	110.00	145.00	130.00	165.00	20.00	20.00	
12	15.00	165.00	180.00	165.00	180.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
13	25.00	180.00	205.00	180.00	205.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
14	70.00	205.00	275.00	205.00	275.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
15	20.00	275.00	295.00	275.00	295.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
16	20.00	180.00	200.00	275.00	295.00	95.00	95.00	
17	15.00	275.00	290.00	280.00	295.00	5.00	5.00	
18	5.00	295.00	300.00	295.00	300.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
19	15.00	300.00	315.00	300.00	315.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
20	10.00	315.00	325.00	315.00	325.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.
21	0.00	325.00	325.00	325.00	325.00	0.00	0.00	R.C.

16.3 Bibliografía

1. AGUILAR J. Rodolfo, "Systems Analysis and Design in Engineering, Architecture, Construction and Planning". Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1973.
pp.226-263.
2. BARNETSON Paul, "Critical Path Planning". Great Britain: Newnes Books, 1968.
pp.1-41.
3. GEREZ G. Víctor y GRIJALVA L. Luis, "El Enfoque de Sistemas". México: Editorial Limusa S.A., 1976.
pp.368-379.
4. GOMEZ C. Guillermo, "Planeación y Organización de Empresas". México: Editorial Diseño y Composición Litográfica S.A., 1974.
pp.66-98.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes the need for transparency and accountability in financial reporting.

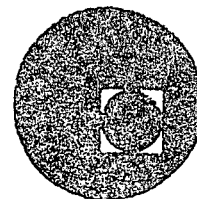
2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods and techniques used to collect and analyze data. It highlights the importance of using reliable sources and ensuring the accuracy of the information gathered.

3. The third part of the document focuses on the interpretation and analysis of the collected data. It discusses the various statistical tools and techniques used to identify trends and patterns in the data.

4. The fourth part of the document provides a detailed overview of the findings and conclusions drawn from the analysis. It discusses the implications of the results and offers recommendations for future research and action.



centro de educación continua
división de estudios superiores
facultad de ingeniería, unam



INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION Y COMPUTACION

ELECTRONICA

COPIA DE MICAS

M. EN C. VERONICA CZITROM

ABRIL, 1979.

INVERSO DE UNA MATRIZ.

NUM. REALES: $a \neq 0$ $a \cdot b = b \cdot a = 1$ $b = a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$
 $8 \cdot b = b \cdot 8 = 1 \Rightarrow b = \frac{1}{8} = .125$

MATRICES: $A \cdot B = I$, $B \cdot A = I$
 $A \cdot B = B \cdot A = I \Rightarrow A$ cuadrada.

$$B = A^{-1}$$

INVERSA MULTIPLICATIVA

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2 = B \cdot A$$

$$A = B^{-1} \quad B = A^{-1}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = ? = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+2c & b+2d \\ a+4c & 3b+4d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a+2c=1 \\ 3a+4c=0 \\ b+2d=0 \\ 3b+4d=1 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} a = 1-2c \\ 3(1-2c)+4c=0, -2c=-3 \\ c = \\ a = 1-2 \cdot \frac{3}{2} = -2 \end{array}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad A^{-1} = ?$$

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c=1, c=0 \quad d=0, d=1$$

$\therefore A^{-1}$ no existe

MATRICES CUADRADAS SIN INVERSO: SINGULARES.
MATRICES CUADRADAS CON INVERSO: NO SINGULARES
O' REGULARES

PROPIEDADES:

1) CONMUTATIVIDAD: $A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = I$

2) UNICIDAD

3) $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

4) $(A \cdot B)^{-1} = B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}$ (ANÁLOGO $(AB)' = B' \cdot A'$)

DEM. $(B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}) (AB) = B^{-1} \underbrace{A^{-1} \cdot A}_I \cdot B = B^{-1} \underbrace{B}_I = I$

$\therefore (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}$

5) $(A')^{-1} = (A^{-1})'$

UTILIDAD DEL INVERSO: $A \underline{x} = \underline{b}$
 $\underline{x} = A^{-1} \underline{b}$

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 = 4 \\ 3x_1 + 4x_2 = -2 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} \underline{A} \quad \underline{x} = \underline{b} \\ \quad \quad \quad ? \\ \underline{x} = \underline{A}^{-1} \underline{b} \end{matrix}}$$

$$\underline{A}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -10 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \nearrow x_1 \\ \searrow x_2 \end{matrix}$$

$$\underline{A} \underline{x} = \underline{b} \quad \text{varias diferentes, invertir } \underline{A}$$

A VECES, LAS COMPONENTES DE \underline{A}^{-1} TIENEN INTERPRETACION ESPECIAL.

AJUSTE POR MINIMOS CUADRADOS:

\underline{A}^{-1} : COMPONENTES \rightarrow CLASE Y MAGNITUD DE ERRORES, EN LOS DATOS.

INVERSION DE MATRICES

④

MÉTODOS: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ALGEBRAICOS (EXACTOS)} \\ \text{NUMERICOS (APROXIMACIONES} \\ \text{SUCCESIVAS).} \end{array} \right.$

ALGEBRAICOS

ADJUNTA

$$A^{-1} = \frac{ac^{-1}A^T}{|A|}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} \\ - \begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} \\ + \begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ e & f \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} a & d \\ d & f \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ d & e \end{vmatrix} \end{pmatrix}^T$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= a(ei - fh) - b(di - fg) + c(dh - eg)$$

(5)

INVERSION POR PARTICIPACION

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \Delta_1 & \Delta_2 \\ \hline \Delta_3 & \Delta_4 \end{array} \right) \quad A^{-1} = B = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} B_1 & B_2 \\ \hline B_3 & B_4 \end{array} \right)$$

$$AA^{-1} = AB = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \Delta_1 & \Delta_2 \\ \hline \Delta_3 & \Delta_4 \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} B_1 & B_2 \\ \hline B_3 & B_4 \end{array} \right) = I = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} I & O \\ \hline O & I \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} \Delta_1 B_1 + \Delta_2 B_3 & \Delta_1 B_2 + \Delta_2 B_4 & & \\ \Delta_3 B_1 + \Delta_4 B_3 & \Delta_3 B_2 + \Delta_4 B_4 & & \\ \hline & & I & O \\ & & O & I \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} I & O \\ O & I \end{array} \right)$$

$$A^{-1} = B = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A^{-1}(I - \Delta_3 B_3) & -\Delta_1^{-1} \Delta_2 B_4 \\ \hline -B_4 \Delta_3 A^{-1} & (\Delta_4 - \Delta_3 A_1^{-1} \Delta_2)^{-1} \end{array} \right)$$

INVERTIR, A^{-1} Y $(\Delta_4 - \Delta_3 A_1^{-1} \Delta_2)^{-1}$

DE ORDENES MENORES QUE Δ

SOL. NUMERICA
SISTS. ECS

- SOL. NUM. ECS. DIFS. OR-
DINARIAS Y PARCIALES.
- ANALISIS ESTRUCTURAL
- ANALISIS DE REDES
- OPTIMIZACION.
- ANALISIS DE DATOS

50

$$A\bar{x} = \bar{b}$$

POR REGLA DE CRAMER:

NUMERO OPERACIONES $\sim n^4$
IMPRACTICO

POR INVERSION DE MATRICES:

CUANDO HAY MUCHAS \bar{b} DIFERENTES.

MATRIZ SIST. ECS. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{LLENA} \\ \text{MUCHOS CEROS} \end{array} \right.$

METODOS DE SOL: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{DIRECTOS} \\ \text{ITERATIVOS.} \end{array} \right.$

SOLUCION SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES (3)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AB = I$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} 6a + 2c = 1 \\ 2a + c = 0 \\ 6b + 2d = 0 \\ 2b + d = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$a = 0.5$$

$$c = -1$$

$$b = -1$$

$$d = 5$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

A DE 3×3 $A^{-1} = B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

HAY QUE RESOLVER

$$A \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ b_{31} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A \begin{pmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ b_{32} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A \begin{pmatrix} b_{13} \\ b_{23} \\ b_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

DIAGONALIZACION (GAUSS-JORDAN)

(10)

$$[A \mid I]$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$[I \mid A^{-1}]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{nn} \end{array} \right]$$

POR OPERACIONES ELEMENTALES DE
RENGLON:

- 1) INTERCAMBIO DE RENGLONES.
- 2) MULTIPLICAR UN RENGLOON POR UN ESCALAR.
- 3) MULTIPLICAR UN RENGLOON POR UN ESCALAR Y SUMARLO A OTRO RENGLOON.

POTENCIAS DE UNA MATRIZ

$$A^n = A \cdot A \dots A$$

(n FACTORES)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^2 = A \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^0 = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (a^0 = 1)$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^{-2} = (A^{-1})^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix} =$$

PROPIEDADES DE MATRICES

1) NUMEROS REALES: $ab = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a = 0 \\ b = 0 \end{cases}$

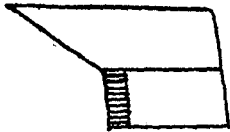
MATRICES: $AB = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A = 0 \\ B = 0 \end{cases}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 7 & -7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\neq 0$

$\neq 0$

ESCOGER PIVOTE :



PIVOTEO PARCIAL.



PIVOTEO TOTAL.

OPERACIONES GAUSS - JORDAN : $O(n^3)$
CRAMER : $O(n^4)$

MATRICES DE BANDA :



$O(n)$

ALMACENAMIENTO MAT. LLENA : $n^2 + 2h$

MAT. BANDA : $5h$

GAUSS - SEIDEL

$|x_i^{(l-1)} - x_i^{(l)}| \leq \epsilon$: CRITERIO ABSOLUTO CONVER.

$\left| \frac{x_i^{(l-1)} - x_i^{(l)}}{x_i^{(l)}} \right| \leq \epsilon$: CRITERIO RELATIVO CONVER.

CONV. GARANTIZADA SOLO SI : $|c_{ii}| > \sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}|$
(DIAGONALMENTE DOMINANTE) (x_j)

2) $ab = ac \Rightarrow b = c$
 $AB = AC \not\Rightarrow B = C$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 14 & 20 \end{pmatrix}$
 $\parallel \quad \# \quad \parallel$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & -2 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 14 & 20 \end{pmatrix}$

3) $ab = ba$
 $AB \neq BA$ EN GENERAL

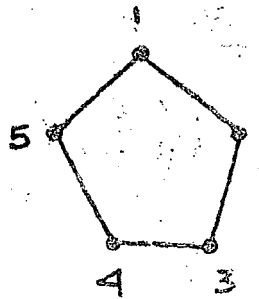
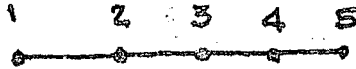
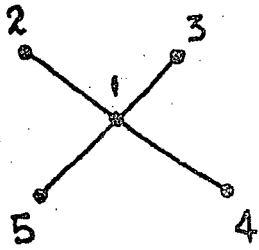
4) $ab = 1 \Rightarrow b = \frac{1}{a} = a^{-1}$
 $AB = I$ $B = A^{-1}$ NO SIEMPRE EXISTE

5) NO EXISTE TRANSPUESTO DE NUMERO REAL
 $A \quad A'$ $(A')' = A$

APLICACIONES DE MATRICES

1.-) TEORIA DE REDES.

GRAFICAS QUIMICAS O ESTRUCTURALES.



ENLACE : 1
NO ENLACE : 0

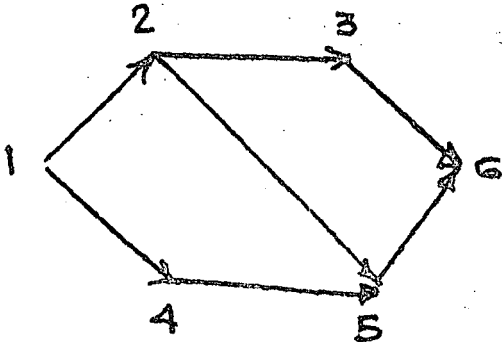
MATRIZ DE INCIDENCIA.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

RUta CRITICA.



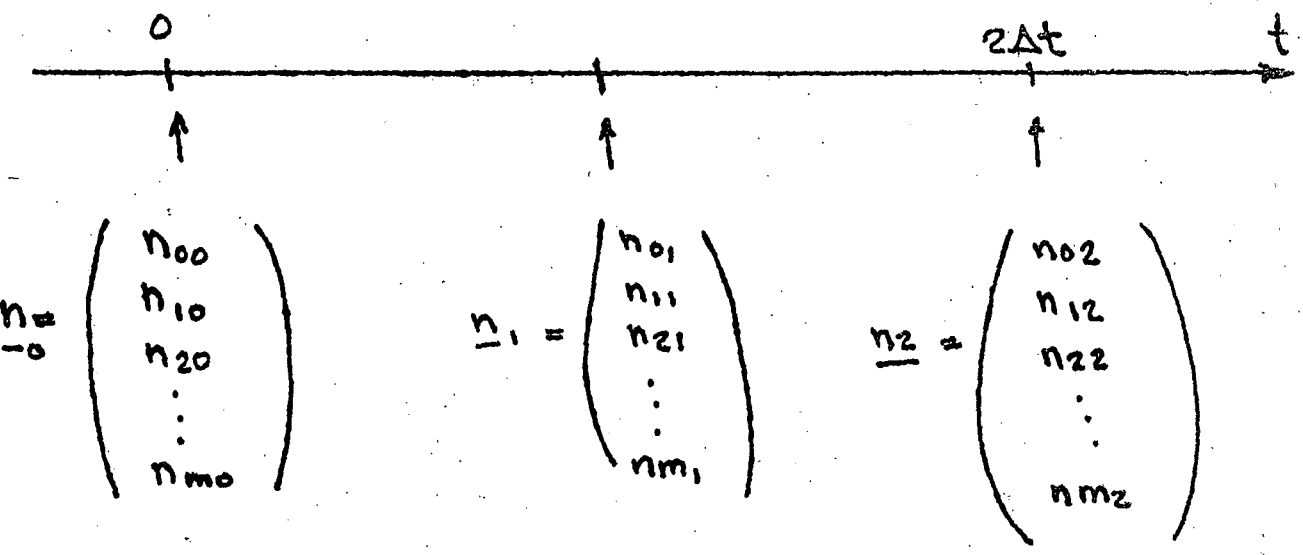
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2) DINAMICA DE POBLACION.

Δt = INTERVALO DE TIEMPO

GRUPO DE EDADES	EDAD	NUMERO PROMEDIO DE HIJAS	PROBABILIDAD DE QUE UNA HEMBRA VIVA PARA ESTAR PRESENTE EN EL SIG. GRUPO DE EDADES $X+1$
$X=0$	$0 - \Delta t$	F_0	P_0
$X=1$	$\Delta t - 2\Delta t$	F_1	P_1
$X=2$	$2\Delta t - 3\Delta t$	F_2	P_2
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$X=m$	$m\Delta t - (m+1)\Delta t$	F_m	$P_m = 0$

Δt



n_{xk} = NUMERO DE HEMBRAS EN EL GRUPO DE EDADES X AL TIEMPO $k \Delta t$.

NUM. HIJAS NACIDAS EN $0 - \Delta t$

$$F_0 n_{00} + F_1 n_{10} + \dots + F_m n_{m0} = n_{01}$$

$$P_x n_{xk} = n_{x+1, k+1} \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$$

TRANSICION DE LA POBLACION DE $t=0$ A $t = \Delta t$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_0 & F_1 & \dots & F_{m-1} & F_m \\ P_0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P_1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & P_{m-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_{00} \\ n_{10} \\ n_{20} \\ \vdots \\ n_{m0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} n_{01} \\ n_{11} \\ n_{21} \\ \vdots \\ n_{m1} \end{pmatrix}$$

0 SEA :

$$\boxed{M \underline{n}_0 = \underline{n}_1}$$

$$M \underline{n}_1 = \underline{n}_2, \quad \underline{n}_2 = M \underline{n}_1 = M(M \underline{n}_0) = M^2 \underline{n}_0$$

$$M \underline{n}_2 = \underline{n}_3, \quad \underline{n}_3 = M \underline{n}_2 = M(M \underline{n}_1) = M^3 \underline{n}_0$$

$$\boxed{M \underline{n}_{k-1} = \underline{n}_k}$$

$$\boxed{\underline{n}_k = M^k \underline{n}_0}$$

M = MATRIZ DE PROYECCION.

$$\underline{n}_k = M \underline{n}_{k-1}$$

$$\underline{n}_{-k} = M^k \underline{n}_0$$

1) DADA UNA POBLACION INICIAL Y SU DISTRIBUCION (\underline{n}_0) , Y DADA M :

SE PUEDE CALCULAR POBLACION FUTURA Y SU DISTRIBUCION.

2) DADA UNA POBLACION INICIAL Y SU DISTRIBUCION, ¿QUE PROPIEDAD DEBE TENER M PARA TENER POBLACION ESTABLE $(\underline{n}_0 = \underline{n}_1 = \underline{n}_2 \dots)$?

$$\underline{n}_k = M \underline{n}_{k-1}$$

$$0 = (M - I) \underline{n}_k$$

$$\Rightarrow |M - I| = 0$$

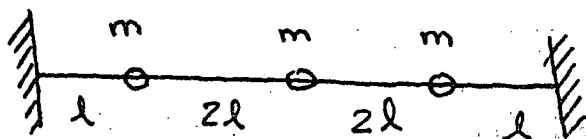
$$F_0 + F_1 P_0 + F_2 P_0 P_1 + \dots + F_m P_0 P_1 \dots P_{m-1} = 1$$

3) DADA UNA POBLACION INICIAL Y SU DISTRIBUCION DE EDADES ESTABLE, ¿CUAL ES LA POBLACION?

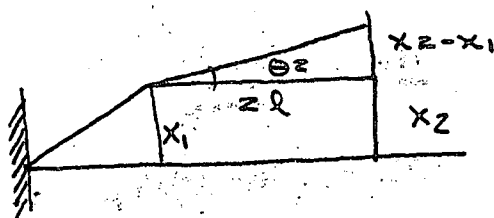
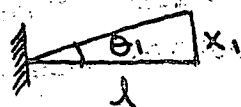
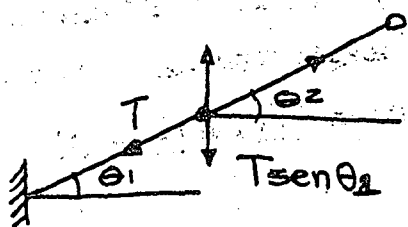
$$\underline{n}_{k+1} = \lambda \underline{n}_k$$

$$M \underline{n}_k = \lambda \underline{n}_k$$

VALORES Y VECTORES CARACTERISTICOS.



$T \text{ sen } \theta_2$



$$T \text{ sen } \theta_1 \approx T \frac{x_1}{2}$$

$$T \text{ sen } \theta_2 \approx T \frac{x_2 - x_1}{2l}$$

$$F = m a = m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}$$

$$m \frac{d^2 x_1}{dt^2} = T \frac{(x_2 - x_1)}{2l} - T \frac{x_1}{l}$$

$$m \frac{d^2 x_2}{dt^2} = -T \frac{(x_2 - x_1)}{2l} + T \frac{(x_3 - x_2)}{2l}$$

$$m \frac{d^2 x_3}{dt^2} = -T \frac{(x_3 - x_2)}{2l} - T \frac{x_3}{l}$$

$$\boxed{X_i = X_i e^{i\omega t}}$$

$$\lambda = \omega^2 m l / F$$

$$\begin{cases} (3-\lambda)x_1 & -x_2 & = 0 \\ -x_1 + (2-\lambda)x_2 & & \\ & -x_3 + (3-\lambda)x_3 & = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A\underline{x} = \lambda \underline{x}$$

$$(A - \lambda I) \underline{x} = 0$$

$$\exists \text{ sol} \Rightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3-\lambda & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(1-\lambda)(3-\lambda)(4-\lambda) = 0$$

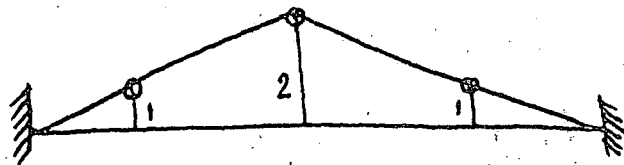
$$1) \quad \lambda_1 = 1$$

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 - x_2 = 0 \\ -x_1 - x_2 - x_3 = 0 \\ -x_2 + 2x_3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{x_2}{2} = x_3$$

$$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

MODO DE VIBRACION.

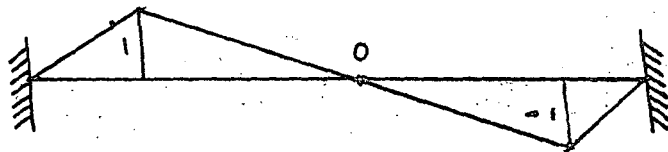


$$\omega^2 = \frac{\lambda T}{2ml} = \frac{T}{2ml}$$

FRECUENCIA ANGULAR DE VIBRACION.

$$2:) \quad \lambda_2 = 3$$

$$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



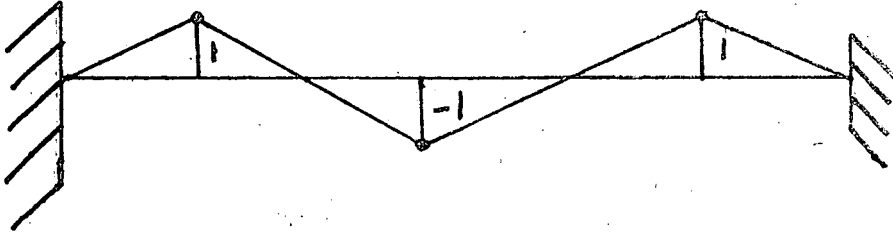
$$\omega^2 = \frac{3T}{2ml}$$

$$\lambda = 4,$$

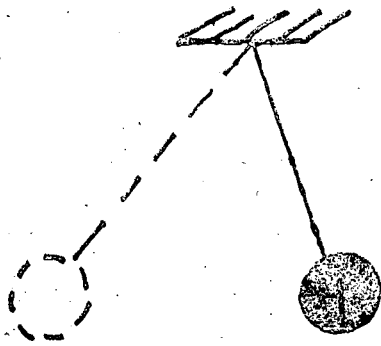
$$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$w = \frac{4T}{2m}$$

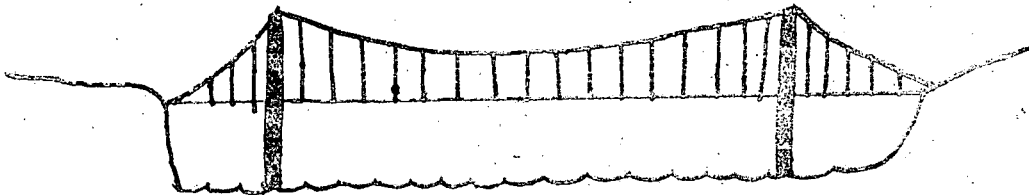
(17)



RESONANCIA



FUENTE DE TACOMA



7 NOV 1940, 4 MESES DE INaugurADO

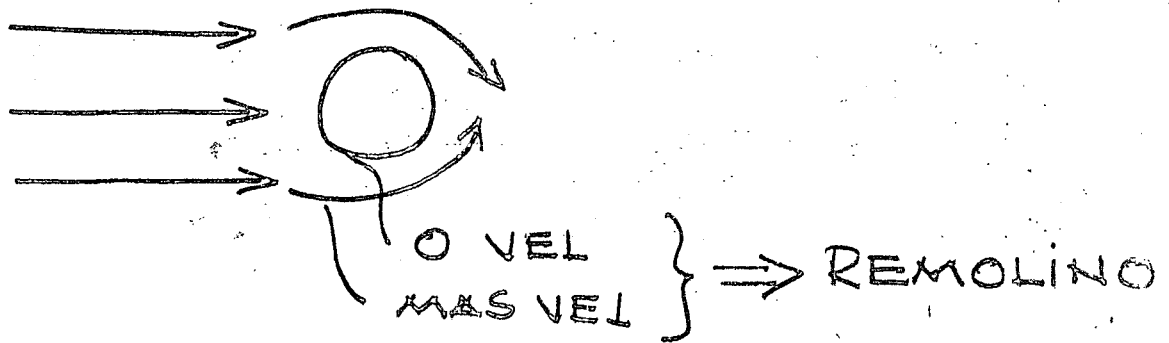
VIENTO 67 Km/h

12 m x 853 m.

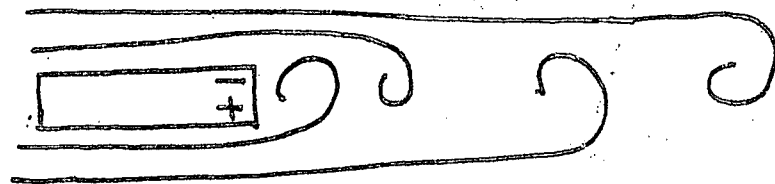
OSCILACIONES TORSIONALES

IMPULSO INVESTIGACION AERODINAMICA.

FLUIDO CON OBSTÁCULO: VORTICES DE VON KÁRMÁN



TACOMA



VORTICES DE VON KÁRMÁN:

ALTERNADOS EN TIEMPO Y ESPACIO

- RUGOSIDAD MEDIO
- FORMA
- VELOCIDAD FLUIDO

PROBLEMA: SI LA FRECUENCIA DE LOS VORTICES DE VON KÁRMÁN COINCIDE CON FREC. NATURAL DE OSCILACION TORSIONAL DEL PUENTE.

THEODORE VON KÁRMÁN (1881-1963) (19)

PIONERO, USO MATEMÁTICAS EN CIENCIAS BÁSICAS (AERONÁUTICA, ASTRONÁUTICA)

1911: ANÁLISIS DE LOS VORTICES.

$$A \underline{x} = \lambda \underline{x}$$

SOLUCION $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{x} = 0 \quad \text{TRIVIAL} \\ \underline{x} \neq 0 \iff |A - \lambda I| = 0 \end{array} \right.$

$$A \underline{x} = \lambda \underline{x}$$

$A; n \times n$

$$A \underline{x} = \lambda I \underline{x}$$

$$(A - \lambda I) \underline{x} = \underline{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0 \quad \text{ECUACION CARACTERISTICA}$$

$$P(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I| = \text{POLINOMIO CARACTERISTICO}$$

POLINOMIO EN λ DE GRADO n

RAICES: $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ EIGEN VALORES

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

VALORES PROPIOS

VALORES CARACTERISTICOS

$$\lambda_i \longrightarrow c \underline{x}_i$$

\underline{x}_i : EIGENVECTOR

VECTOR CARACTERISTICO

VECTOR PROPIO

CORRESPONDIENTE A λ_i

\underline{x}_i SE OBTIENE SUSTITUYENDO EN

$$(A - \lambda I) \underline{x} = 0$$

CON $\lambda = \lambda_i$

EJEMPLO

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & -1 \\ 4 & -2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(3 - \lambda)(-2 - \lambda) + 4 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{+1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4(-2)}}{2} = \frac{+1 \pm 3}{2}$$

$$\lambda_1 = -1$$

$$(A - \lambda I) \underline{x} = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{cases} (3 - \lambda)x_1 - x_2 = 0 \\ 4x_1 - (2 + \lambda)x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

(21)

1) $\lambda_1 = -1$

$$\begin{cases} 4x_1 - x_2 = 0 \\ 4x_1 - x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore x_2 = 4x_1$$

$$\underline{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 4x_1 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

2) $\lambda_2 = 2$

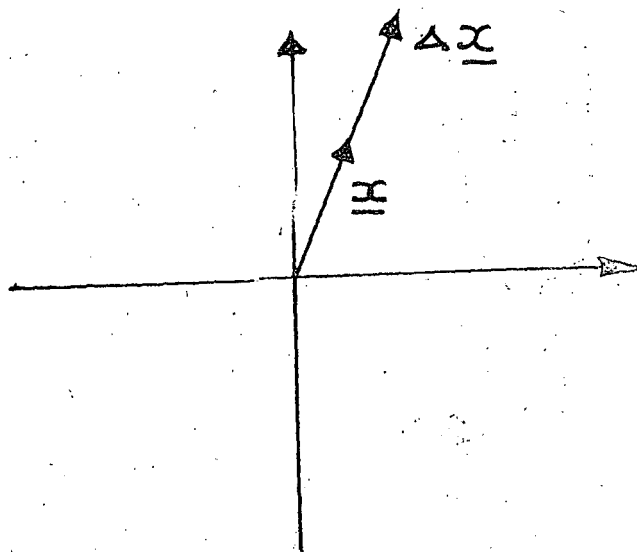
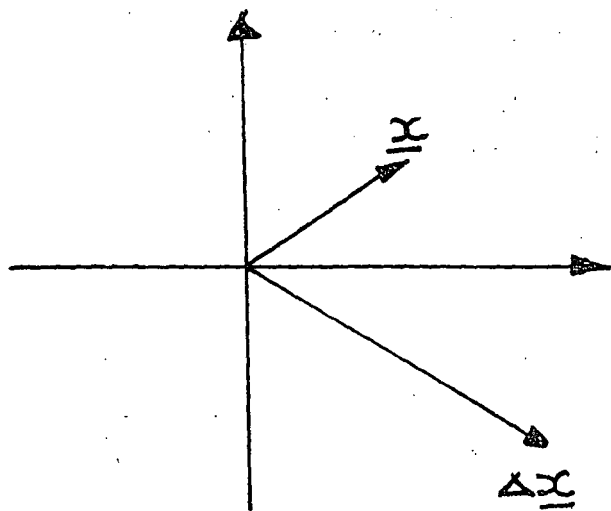
$$\begin{cases} x_1 - x_2 = 0 \\ 4x_1 - 4x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore x_2 = x_1$$

$$\underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

INTERPRETACION GEOMETRICA



$$\Delta x = \lambda x$$

OBTENCION DE LOS VALORES CARACTERISTICOS

METODO DE KRYLOV

$$\left. \begin{aligned} |A - \lambda I| &= 0 \\ P(\lambda) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ ECUACION CARACTERISTICA}$$

1º OBTENER NUMERICAMENTE LOS COEFICIENTES C_i DEL POLINOMIO CARACTERISTICO.

$$P(\lambda) = \lambda^n + C_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + C_1\lambda + C_0$$

2º OBTENER NUMERICAMENTE LOS VALORES CARACTERISTICOS λ_i , QUE SON LAS RAICES DE LA ECUACION CARACTERISTICA

$$P(\lambda) = 0$$

$$\lambda^n + C_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + C_1\lambda + C_0 = 0$$

1º OBTENER COEFICIENTES C_i

TEOREMA DE CAYLEY - HAMILTON:

$$\text{SI } P(\lambda) = 0 \Rightarrow P(A) = 0$$

$$P(A) = 0$$

$$A^n + C_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \dots + C_1A + C_0 = 0$$

POSTMULTIPLICANDO POR UN VECTOR ARBITRARIO \underline{y} CONOCIDO, $\underline{y} \neq \underline{0}$:

$$A^n \underline{y} + C_{n-1}A^{n-1} \underline{y} + \dots + C_1A \underline{y} + C_0 \underline{y} = \underline{0}$$

REPRESENTA UN SISTEMA DE ECUACIONES CON INCOGNITAS C_{n-1}, \dots, C_1, C_0

SE RESUELVE EL SISTEMA DE ECS. Y SE DETERMINAN LAS C_i

EJEMPLO:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

EC. CARACT: $\lambda^2 + C_1\lambda + C_0 = 0$

CAYLEY-HAMILTON: $A^2 + C_1A + C_0I = 0$

POR \underline{y} : $A^2 \underline{y} + C_1A \underline{y} + C_0 \underline{y} = \underline{0}$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \text{ SEA } \underline{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

SUST :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + c_0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} + c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_1 + c_0 = -3$$

$$2c_0 = -4$$

$$c_0 = -2 \quad c_1 = -1$$

ECUACION CARACTERISTICA:

$$\lambda^2 + (-1)\lambda + (-2) = 0$$

SE DEBEN OBTENER NUMERICAMENTE LAS RAICES DE LA ECUACION CARACTERISTICA

METODO DE APROXIMACIONES SUCCESIVAS

MAYOR O MENOR EIGENVALOR Y EIGENVECTOR CORRESPONDIENTE.

$$A \underline{x}, = \lambda_1 \underline{x}_1$$

NUEVA APROXIMACION A EIGENVECTOR.

1ª APROXIMACION A λ

APROXIMADO

$$\underline{x}_0 \simeq \underline{x}$$

$$A \underline{x}_0 = \lambda_1 \underline{x}_1$$

$$A \underline{x}_1 = \lambda_2 \underline{x}_2$$

$$A \underline{x}_n = \lambda_{n+1} \underline{x}_{n+1}$$

ALTO: SI $|\lambda_{n+1} - \lambda_n| < \epsilon$

MENOR EIGENWERT

$$A \underline{x} = \lambda \underline{x}$$

A^{-1}

$$A^{-1} A \underline{x} = A^{-1} \lambda \underline{x}$$

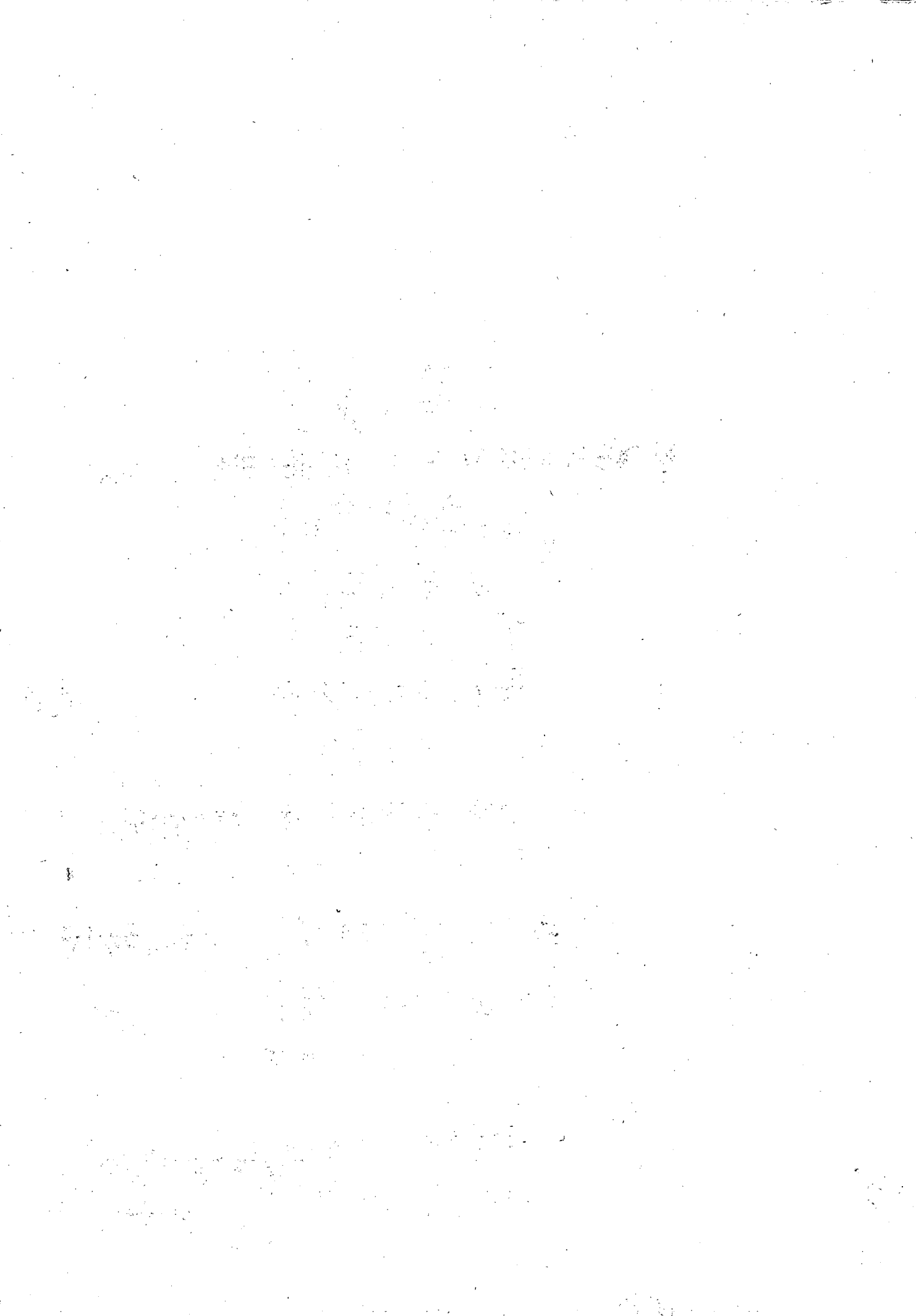
$$\underline{x} = \lambda A^{-1} \underline{x}$$

$$A^{-1} \underline{x} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \underline{x}$$

$$A^{-1} \underline{x} = \lambda^* \underline{x}$$

MAJOR $\lambda \longrightarrow$ MENOR λ

$$\lambda^* = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$



DIRECTORIO DE ALUMNOS DEL CURSO INTRODUCCION A LA PROGRAMACION
Y COMPUTACION ELECTRONICA 1979.

1. RICARDO ACOSTA ROSALES
S.A.R.H.
REFORMA 35 ENTREPISO
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 546.62.30
Xochitepec, Xochimilco
México 23, d.f.
2. J. ALFREDO ALVAREZ MAGAÑA
S. A. H. O.P.
JEFE DE LA SECCION DE ESTUDIOS
COMPLEMENTARIOS
XOLA 1755
MEXICO 12, D.F.
TEL. 530.30.85
Copilco 178 Edif. 21-501
México 20, D.F.
Tel. 548.12.16
3. HUMBERTO EDUARDO ANTIMA MIRANDA
SECRETARIA DE LA DEFENSA NACIONAL
LOMAS DE SOTELO
MEXICO, D.F..
TEL. 557.34.22
4. ROBERTO AREVALO RAMOS
S. A. R. H.
P. DE LA REFORMA 45
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL.592.00.90
Montevideo 470
Col. Lindavista
México 14, D.F.
Tel. 586.48.27
5. GUADALUPE ELDA LILI BARRERA GARCÍA
S. DE LA DEFENSA NACIONAL
AV. INDUSTRIA MILITAR
MEXICO 10, D.F.
TEL. 557.45.00
Gral. A. Obregón 17
Col. Huizachal
México, D.F.
6. ING. JOSE GUSTAVO BARRERA VILLARREAL
SECRETARIA DE LA DEFENSA NACIONAL
LOMAS DE SOTELO
MEXICO 10, D.F..
TEL. 557.88.86
P. de la Reforma Nte. 668 Depto.
1022
Col. Tlatelolco
Tel. 597.49.67
7. JOSE LUIS BASTIDAS NUÑEZ
FONDO NACIONAL DE FOMENTO AL TURISMO
I. LA CATOLICA 24-4°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL. 585.30.44 Ext.156
Ajusco 55
Col. Alpes
México 20, D.F.
Tel.593.64.37
8. GLORIA BAUTISTA NIETO
S. A. R. H.
REFORMA 51-13°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL. 535.64.56
Austriacos 60
Col. Paraiso
México 18, D.F.

9. ADDY ASTRYD BETANCOURT PIMENTEL
FINANCIERA NACIONAL AZUCARERA S.A.
HUMBOLDT 26
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL. 521.16.87
10. RICARDO R. BOISSON GARCIA
S. A. R.H.
DIRECCION GENERAL DE ESTUDIOS
REFORMA 20 DESP.105
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 546.46.76
11. JOSE EDUARDO CARREON GUTIERREZ
S. A. R.H.
Av.OBSERVATORIO 192
COL. TACUBAYA
MEXICO 18, D.F.
TEL.516.37.96
12. LUIS E. DELPECH DEL A.
PEMEX
MARINA NAL.329
MEXICO 17, D.F.
TEL.45.06.92
13. MANUEL DEL SC DODERO R.
AVE. UNIVERSIDAD 1704
COYOACAN
MEXICO 21, D.F.
TEL. 548.30.00
14. FRANCISCO DEVEREUX VAZQUEZ
S. A. R.H.
AV. OBSERVATORIO 192
MEXICO 18, D.F.
TEL.515.58.97
15. ROBERTO ESPINOZA FELIX
DIR.GRAL. DE CAPTACIONES Y CONDUCCIONES
DE AGUA
S.A.R.H.
IGNACIO RAMIREZ 20-4°
MEXICO , D.F.
TEL.566.35.71
16. JOSE LUIS GARCIA GARDUÑO
FIDEICOMISO PARA OBRAS DE INFRAESTRUCTURA
RURAL
CAMPECHE 280
MEXICO 11, D.F.
TEL. 574.75.76
- Unidad II Depto. 325
Col. Jardín Balbuena
México 9, D.F.
Tel.571.13.64
- Arenas Guzmán 156
Col. Villa de Cortés
México 13, D.F.
- Av.Universidad 1953-35-303
Col. Oxtopulco
México 20, D.F.
Tel.516.37.96
- Cda.Plan de Ayala 11-1
Col.Sto. Tomás
México 17, D.F.
Tel.541.65.25
- Corona 181
Col. Industrial
México 14, D.F.
- Av. Coyoacán 1018-401
Col. Del Valle
México 12, D.F.
Tel.559.58.94
- Paseo Saucos 226
Col. Casa Blanca
Toluca, México

17. ALICIA GÓMEZ AGUILAR
S.A.R.H.
P.DE LA REFORMA 35-11°
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 591.03.83
18. JOSE LUIS GONZALEZ MATUS
S. A. R. H.
P. DE LA REFORMA 35 ENTREPISO
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.546.59.28
19. NOE LEOVIGILDO GONZALEZ RODRIGUEZ
S. A. R.H.
TEL.592.00.90
20. JUAN MANUEL GUTIERREZ ARRIETA
SECRETARIA DE PROGRAMACION Y
PRESUPUESTOS
FRAY S. T. DE MIER 77
MEXICO 1, D.F.
21. JOSE RICARDO GUZMAN NAVA
S. A. R.H.
TePIC 40
MEXICO 7, D.F.
TEL.574.10.73
22. RAFAEL HAM YEE
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, d.f.
TEL.550.52.15 EXT.4608
23. ING. ROBERTO HEATLEY CORTES
SEFI
TACUBA 5 ENTREPISO
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.512.33.53
24. MA.PATRICIA HERRERA FIGUEROA
FINANCIERA NACIONAL AZUCARERA S.A.
HUMBOLDT 26
México 1,D.F.
TEL.521.16.87
- Canal de Miramontes 1626
Campestre Churubusco
México 21, D.F.
Tel.544.17.79
- Vértiz 953-11
Col. Narvarte
México 12, D.F.
Tel.543.73.63
- Río Carmen 15
Col. Paseos de Churubusco
México 13, D.F.
- Ahorro Postal 65 Depto.401-A
Col. Postal
México 13, D.F.
- Fundidores 48
Col. Trabajadores del Hierro
México 15, D.F.
Tel.567.21.16
- Héroes Ferrocarriles 12-5
Col.Guerrero
México 3, D.F.
- Augusto Rodín 358-307
Col. Nochebuena
México 19, D.F.
Tel.598.16.35
- Payta 706
Col.Lindavista
México 14, D.F.
Tel.586.22.89

25. JOSE MARCELINO HERNANDEZ GUERRERO
S.A.R.H.
P. DE LA REFORMA NO.20-105
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.546.4.676
26. MOISES HERNANDEZ MIRANDA
S.A.R.H.
P. DE LA REFORMA 51-15°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.535.54.83
27. J. JESUS LANDEROS ORTIZ
COMISION DE AGUAS DEL VALLE DE MEXICO
BALDERAS 55-2°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.585.50.66 EXT.206
28. JORGE LAVALLE REYES
DIRECCION GENERAL DE CAPTACIONES Y
CONDUCCIONES DE AGUA
IGNACIO RAMIREZ 20
c COL. SAN RAFAEL
MEXICO 4, D.F.
TEL.566.35.71
29. ARMANDO LOPEZ GASCA
UNIVERSIDAD AUTONOMA DEL ESTADO DE
MORELOS
AV. UNIVERSIDAD 1001
CUERNAVACA, MOR.
TEL.3.28.57
30. ALEJANDRO LOREA HERNANDEZ
INDUSTRIAS RESISTORL S.A.
BOSQUES DE CIRUELOS 99
BOSQUES DE LAS LOMAS
MEXICO 10, D.F.
TEL.596.04.59
31. FERNANDO IRIGOYEN MACIAS
UNAM
TACUBA NO. 5-1°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
32. JOSE LUIS MACIEL HERNANDEZ
FINANCIERA NACIONAL AZUCARERA S.A.
HUMBOLDT 26
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.521.16.87

Manzana 3 Lote 86 UCTM EL RISCO
UNIDAD C.T.M.
MEXICO 14, D.F.

1° DE MAYO 63 Bis
Col. Nativitas
México 13, D.F.
Tel.579.49.28

Av. Ezequiel 78-9
Col. Gpe. Tepeyac
México 14, D.F.
Tel.537.40.54

BEJEN 85-97
Col. Tacubaya
México 18, D.F.
Tel. 16.53.36

Allende 100
Lomas Selva
Cuernavaca, Moreloes
Tel.3.18.08

Pitágoras 1217-17
Col. del Valle
México 12, D.F.

Sur 109 No. 1113-8
Col. A.Militar
México 9, D.F.
Tel. 552.07.23

Aragón 83-101
Col. Alamos
México 13, D.F.
Tel.530.63.39

33. JESUS MARTINEZ SOSA

UNAM
PROGRAMADOR
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL.550.52.15 EXT.4000

Sur 145 L 7 M.21
Col. RAMOS MILLAN
México 8, D.F.
Tel.657 90.57

34. SERGIO MENDEZ SANTILLAN

COMISION DEL PLAN NACIONAL HIDRAULICO
TEPIC 40
MEXICO 7, D.F.

Edif.85 A Dep.3020
Col. Lindavista
México 14, D.F.
Tel. 587.12.73

35. MARIO MORALES BALDIZON

FONATUR
I. LA CATOLICA 24
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.585.50.44

4to. Callejón de Chilalpa 15
Col. Xochimilco
México 23, D.F.
Tel.676.50.62

36. JOSE DE JESUS MORALES MARTINEZ

COMISION DE AGUAS DEL VALLE DE MEXICO
BALDERAS NO.55
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.585.50.66 EXT.600

Edificio G-6 Depto.43
Col. Lomas de Platares
México 19, D.F.
Tel.6510359

37. JORGE NAVA FLORES

S.A.R.H.
P. DE LA REFORMA NO. 69
MEXICO , D.F.

Valle de México 96
Col. Valle de Aragón
México, D.F.

38. ARTURO PEREZ CABELLO

SECRETARIA DE LA DEFENSA NACIONAL
LOMAS DE SOTELO
MEXICO 10, D.F.
TEL.557.33.54

39. RICARDO QUEVEDO ROBLES

FONDO NACIONAL DE FOMENTO ALTURISMO
NAFINSA
I. LA CATOLICA 24-4°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.585.30.44 Ext.142

Ciruelos 78
Jardines de Sn. Mateo
Naucalpan, Edo. de Méx.
Tel.373.57.88

40. LUIS RAMIREZ ZAMORANO CRUZ

V. M. Alemán 190
COLINAS DE BUEN S.A.
MEXICO ,D.F.
TEL. 538.45.38

San Borja 1358
Col. Narvarte
México 12, D.F.
Tel.559.73.95

41. TARSICIO RAMIREZ CARREÑO

S.A.H.O.P.
Blvd. XOLA 1755 9°
MEXICO 12, D.F.

Av. Morelos 605 Edif. C-2
Jardín Balbuena
México ,D.F.
Tel.768.73.09

42. VICTOR ROMERO CERVANTES
SECRETARIA DE PROGRAMACION Y PRESUPUESTO
F. S.T. DE MIER 77-8°
MEXICO 8, D.F.
TEL. 761.40.44 EXT. 264
43. AMALIA ROMERO SOLORZANO
PEMEX
MARINA NAL 329-3° EDIF. A
MEXICO 17, D.F.
TEL. 254.08.56
44. SERGIO ROMO JOVE
PEMEX
MARINA NAL. 329
MEXICO 17, D.F.
TEL. 531.15.31
45. FRANCISCO SAENZ DE CAMARA AGUIRRE
S.A.R.H.
P. DE LA REFORMA 20-4°
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 546.95.45
46. CARLOS ARTURO SALAZAR ORTEGA
S.A.R.H.
DIR. GRAL. DE CAPTACIONES Y CONDUCCIONES
DE AGUA
IGNACIO RAMIREZ 20
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 592.36.84
47. LUIS SALAZAR ZAZUETA
S.A.R.H.
SUBDIRECCIN DE PROMOCION Y PROGRAMAS
P. DE LA REFORMA 35-11°
MEXICO, D.F.
TEL. 591.03.83
48. ESPERANZA SEGOVIANA AGUILAR
UNION DE PROFESORES
FACULTAD DE INGENIERIA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL. 550.52.15 EXT. 3748
49. LUIS HUMBERTO SOTO BERUMEN
UNIVERSIDAD TECNOLOGICA DE MEXICO
A. MARINA NACIONAL 162
MEXICO 17, D.F.
TEL. 527.03.18
- Sta. Ma. Nativitas No. 35-1
Col. Niños Héroes
México 13, D.F.
Tel. 579.78.75
- Manantial 14
Col. Pastores
Naucalpan Edo. de Méx.
- Ret. 11 Lic. Genaro García 9-
Col. Jardín Balbuena
México 9, D.F.
Tel. 552.43.55
- Asturias 31
Col. Alamos
México 13, D.F.
Tel. 519.29.94
- Thiers 173-4
México 5, D.F.
Tel. 531.59.45
- Pitágoras 1239-12
México 12, D.F.
- Tizayuca 18
México 2, D.F.
Tel. 526.30.79
- Cerro de Sn. Andrés 278-108
Col. Churubusco
México 21, D.F.
Tel. 549.98.23

50. ROMAN VAZQUEZ BERBER
COMISION DE VIALIDAD Y TRANSPORTE URBANO
AV. JUAREZ 42 EDIF. B-2°
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.585.10.11 EXT.222
- Vía Láctea 12 Depto.6
Col. Prado Churubusco
México 13, D.F.
51. MIGUEL ANGEL VAZQUEZ PEREZ
DEPT. DEL DISTRITO FEDERAL
PLAZA DE LA CONSTITUCION NO. 1
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.518.66.18
- Ing. Antonio Narro 109 Int.3
Col. Industrial
México 14, D.F.
Tel.537.44.71
52. FRANCISCO VEGA GARCIA
DEPARTAMENTO DE ESTADISTICA
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL.550.52.15 EXT.4000
- José Ma. Correa 226 Altos
Col. Asturias
México 8, D.F.
Tel.530.02.89
53. CELIA PATRICIA VEGA MARTINEZ
D. D. F.
PROCESAMIENTO DE DATOS
PLAZA DE LA CONSTITUCION NO.1
MEXICO 1, D.F.
TEL.521.17.95
- Manzana 4 Gpo.3 Casa 31
Col. Sta. Fé
México 18, D.F.
54. JESUS RUBEN ZAMBRANO PACHECO
UNAM
MEXICO 20, D.F.
TEL.550.52.15 EXT.4000
- Quéretaro 37
Col. Progreso Tizapán
55. ENRIQUE ZARATE LEYVA
S.A.R.H.
REFORMA NO. 45
MEXICO , D.F.
TEL.592.00.90

