FUNDAMENTALS OF QUANTITATIVE MODELING

Richard Waterman

Module 2: deterministic models and optimization



Module 2 content

- Linear models
- Growth and decay in discrete time
- Growth and decay in continuous time
- Classical optimization

Deterministic models

- There are no random/uncertain components (inputs and/or outputs) in these models
- If the inputs to the model are the same then the outputs will always be the same
- The downside of deterministic models: it is hard to assess uncertainty in the outputs

Linear models

- Recall the formula definition of a straight line: y = mx + b
- Characterization of a line: the slope is constant
- The change in y for a one-unit change in x is the same,
 regardless of the value of x
- In practice you should ask if the constant slope assertion is realistic
- If it is not realistic, then a straight line model is probably not the way to go

A linear cost function

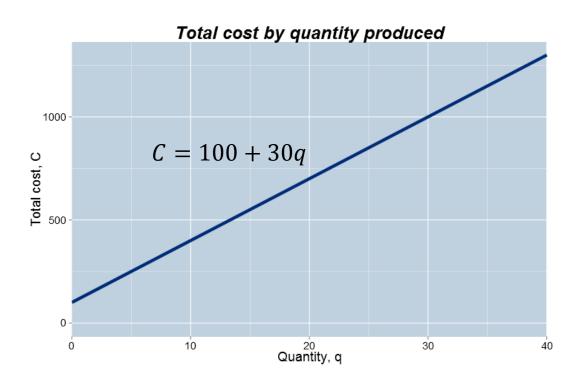
- Call the number of units produced q, and the total cost of producing q units C
- Define:

$$C = 100 + 30q$$

• Calculate some illustrative values:

q	С
0	100
10	400
20	700

Graphing the cost function



Interpretation

- The two coefficients in the line are the intercept and slope: b and m in general, 100 and 30 in this particular instance
- b: the total cost of producing 0 units
 - A better interpretation: that part of total cost that doesn't depend on the quantity produced: the *fixed* cost
- m: the slope of the line
 - The change in total cost for an incremental unit of production: the *variable* cost

Example with a "time-to-produce" function

- It takes 2 hours to set up a production run, and each incremental unit produced always takes an additional 15 minutes (0.25 hours)
- Call T the time to produce q units, then

$$T = 2 + 0.25q$$

- Interpretation
 - b: the **setup time** (2 hours)
 - m: the *work rate* (15 minutes per additional item)

Graphing the time-to-produce function



Linear programming

- One of the key uses of linear models is in *Linear Programming (LP)*, which is a technique to solve certain optimization problems
- These models incorporate *constraints* to make them more realistic
- Linear programming problems can be solved with add-ins for common spreadsheet programs

Growth in discrete time

- Growth is a fundamental business concept
 - The number of customers at time t
 - The revenue in quarter q
 - The value of an investment at some time t in the future
- Sometimes a linear model may be appropriate for a growth process
- But an alternative to a *linear (additive) growth* model is a proportionate one
- Proportionate growth: a constant percent increase (decrease) from one period to the next

Simple interest

- Start off with \$100 (principal) and at the end of every year earn 10% simple interest on the initial \$100
- Simple interest means that interest is only earned on the principal investment

Year	0	1	2	3	4	10
Value	100	110	120	130	140	200

 Every year the investment grows by the same amount (\$10)

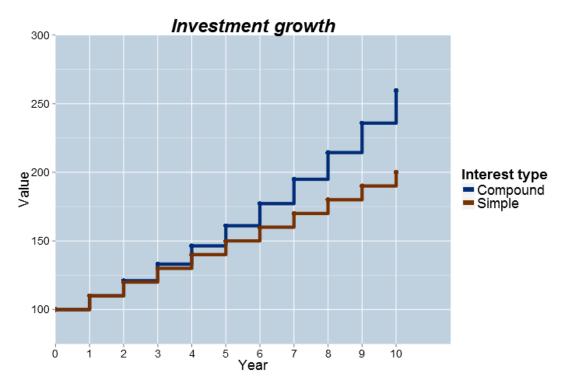
Compound interest

- Start off with \$100 (*principal*) and at the end of every year earn 10% *compound interest* on the initial \$100
- Compound interest means that the interest itself earns interest in subsequent years

Year	0	1	2	3	4	10
Value	100.00	110.00	121.00	133.10	146.41	259.37

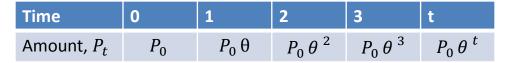
 Notice that the growth is no longer the same absolute amount each year, but it is the same proportionate (relative) amount (10%)

The growth of the two investments



Constant proportionate growth

- Denote the initial amount as P₀
- Denote the constant proportionate growth factor by θ (for example 10% growth means multiply by 1.1 at the end of each time period)
- The growth progression is



- $\theta > 1$ means the process is growing
- θ < 1 means the process is declining/decaying
- This type of progression is called a **geometric progression** or **geometric series**

Example

- An Indian Ocean nation caught 200,000 tonnes of fish this year
- The catch is projected to fall by a constant 5% factor each year for the next 10 years



- How many fish are predicted to be caught 5 years from now?
- Including this year, what is the total expected catch over the next 5 years?

The constant multiplier

- For the catch to fall by 5% each year, means that the multiplier is $\theta = 0.95$
- In general, if the process is changing by R% in each time period, then the multiplier is

$$\theta = 1 + \frac{R}{100}$$

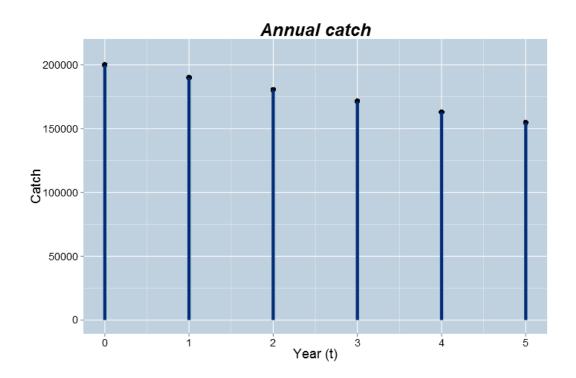
- Example:
 - if the increase is 5% then θ = 1.05
 - If the decrease is 5% then θ = 0.95

Working out the fish catch

- With $P_0 = 200,000$ and $\theta = 0.95$, in 5 years the catch will be $200,000 \times 0.95^5 = 154,756$
- Over the next 5 years:
- We get the total catch summing over the years in question

Year	Catch
0	200,000
1	190,000
2	180,500
3	171,475
4	162,901.25
5	154,756.1875
Total	1,059,632

Graphing the annual fish catch



The sum of the geometric series

• If we denote the sum up to time t as S_t , then

$$S_t = P_0 \frac{1 - \theta^{t+1}}{1 - \theta}$$

• With the fisheries example:

$$S_5 = 200,000 \frac{1 - 0.95^{(5+1)}}{1 - 0.95} = 1,059,632$$

 The mathematical formulation of the model can sometimes provide more direct answers than a spreadsheet

Present and future value

- If there is no inflation and the prevailing interest rate is 4%, then which of the following options would you prefer?
 - \$1000 today or \$1500 in ten years?
- Either look to see how much \$1000 will be worth in ten years, or
- Calculate how much you would have to invest today to get \$1500 ten years from now
- The latter approach relies on the concept of *present value*
 - the expected current value of an income stream

The present value calculation

- We know that $P_t=P_0\,\theta^{\ t}$ and making P_0 the subject of the formula means that $P_0=P_t\,\theta^{\ -t}$
- Therefore \$1500 in ten years time in a 4% interest rate environment is worth $1500 (1 + 0.04)^{-10}$ in today's money
- This equals \$1013.346, which is more than \$1000, so you should prefer the second investment of \$1500 received in ten years
- This straightforward proportionate increase model allows for a simple discounting formula

Uses of present value

- A primary use is in discounting investments to the present time
- An annuity is a schedule of fixed payments over a specified and finite time period
- The present value of an annuity is the sum of the present values of each separate payment
- Present value is also used in *lifetime customer value* calculations

Continuous compounding

- The compounding period for an investment can be yearly, monthly, weekly, daily etc.
- As the compounding period gets shorter and shorter, in the limit, the process is said to be *continuously compounded*
- If a principal amount P_0 is continuously compounded at a nominal annual interest rate of R%, then at year t, $P_t = P_0 e^{rt}$ where $r = \frac{R}{100}$

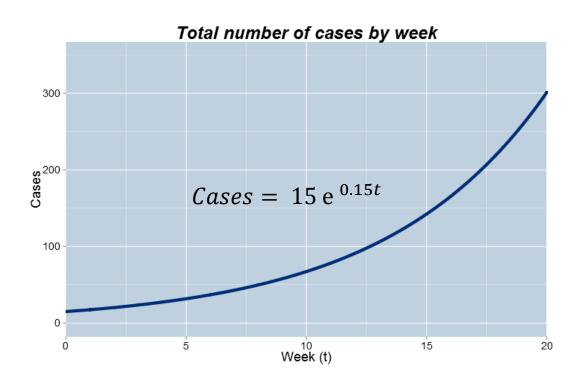
Continuous compounding

- In this model, t can take on any value in an interval,
 whereas in the discrete model t could only take on distinct values
- \$1000 continuously compounded at a nominal annual interest rate of 4% is worth $1000 \, \mathrm{e}^{\ 0.04} = 1040.80$ after one year
- Note that this is a little more than if the 4% was earned at the very end of the time period, in which case you would have exactly \$1040 at the end of the year

Modeling an epidemic

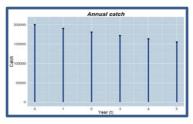
- The model $P_t = P_0 e^{rt}$ doesn't just describe money growing
- This model is called exponential growth or decay depending on whether r is positive or negative respectively
- A continuous time model for the initial stages of an epidemic states that the number of cases at week t is $15~{\rm e}^{~0.15t}$
- Halfway through week 7, how many cases do you expect?

Graphing the epidemic



Calculating the expected number of cases

- Halfway through week 7, means t = 7.5
- $15 e^{0.15 \times 7.5} = 46.2 \approx 46 \text{ cases}$
- Interpretation of the 0.15 coefficient:
 - There is an approximate 15% weekly growth rate in cases
- Continuous models allow calculation at any value of t, not just a set of discrete values



Discrete model



Continuous model

Using a model for optimization

- A common modeling objective is to perform a subsequent optimization
- The objective of the optimization is to find the value of an input that maximizes/minimizes an output
- Example: find the price at which profit is maximized

Demand model

Consider the demand model:

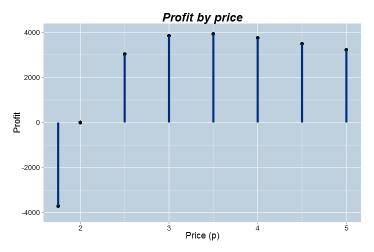
Quantity =
$$60,000 \text{ Price}^{-2.5}$$

- If the price of production is constant at c = 2 for each unit, then at what price is profit maximized?
- Profit = Revenue Cost
- Revenue = Price × Quantity = p × q
- Profit = p q c q = q (p c) = $60,000 \text{ p}^{-2.5} (p - 2)$
- Goal: Choose p to maximize this equation

Brute force approach

Choose different values of p and plot profit

Price	Profit
1.75	-3702.509
2.0	0.000
2.5	3035.787
3.0	3849.002
3.5	3927.104
4.0	3750.000
4.5	3491.885
5.0	3219.938



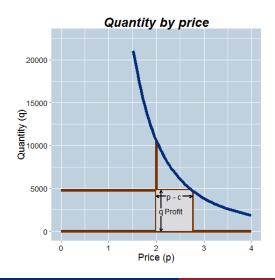
The optimal price is somewhere between 3 and 4

Calculus approach

- Profit is maximized when the *derivative* (rate of change)
 of profit with respect to price equals 0
- Through *calculus* one obtains the optimal value of price as $p_{opt} = \frac{c \ b}{1+b}$, where c is the production cost and b is the exponent in the power function
- In this example c = 2 and b = -2.5. This gives $p_{opt} = \frac{2 \times -2.5}{(1-2.5)} \approx 3.33$
- The value (-b) is known as the price elasticity of demand

Visualizing the calculus solution

 The area of the gray shaded box is the profit and the objective is to find the value of price for which the area of the box is largest



Summary

- Linear models
- Growth and decay in discrete time: geometric series models
- Growth and decay in continuous time: exponential growth models
- Present and future value
- Use classical optimization (calculus) to gain additional value from the model





ONLINE