

Chapter 3:

Data-driven Uncertainty Set Design

Chance constraints

- Charnes and Cooper introduced in 1959, a concept now referred as chance constraint. Namely, given a distribution F for a random vector Z and a tolerance $\epsilon > 0$.
One can impose that

$$\mathbb{P}(a(Z)^T x \leq b(Z)) \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

- This also gives rise to the notion of Value at Risk for a return

$$\text{VaR}_{1-\epsilon}(c(Z)^T x + d(Z)) := -\sup\{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid \mathbb{P}(c(Z)^T x + d(Z) \geq y) \geq 1 - \epsilon\}$$

- Both involve verifying whether a constraint is satisfied with high probability
- E.g. minimizing the value at risk of a portfolio of stocks

$$\min_{x: x \geq 0, \sum_i x_i = 1} \text{VaR}_{1-\epsilon}(r^T x)$$

SOCPr reformulation for normal distribution

- The three following constraints are equivalent when the random return vector « r » is normally distributed $N(\mu, \Sigma)$
 - (1) $\mathbb{P}(r^T x \geq y) \geq 1 - \epsilon$
 - (2) $\mu^T x - \Phi^{-1}(1 - \epsilon) \sqrt{x^T \Sigma x} \geq y$
 - (3) $r^T x \geq y, \forall r : \|\Sigma^{-1/2}(r - \mu)\| \leq \Phi^{-1}(1 - \epsilon)$
- For general distribution, verifying whether the chance constraint is satisfied for a fixed « x » is NP-hard.

Robust optimization as an approximation to chance constraints

Theorem 3.2. : *Given some $\epsilon > 0$ and some random vector Z distributed according to F , let \mathcal{Z} be a set such that*

$$\mathbb{P}(Z \in \mathcal{Z}) \geq 1 - \epsilon ,$$

then one has the guarantee that any x satisfying the robust constraint

$$a(z)^T x \leq b(z) , \forall z \in \mathcal{Z} ,$$

will also satisfy the following chance constraint

$$\mathbb{P}(a(Z)^T x \leq b(Z)) \geq 1 - \epsilon .$$

Note that the converse is not true so that the two constraints are generally not equivalent.

Robust optimization as an approximation to chance constraints

Theorem 3.2. : Given some $\epsilon > 0$ and some random vector Z distributed according to F , let \mathcal{Z} be a set such that

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then one has the guarantee that any x satisfying the robust constraint

In particular, in the example:

$$\mathbb{P}(r^T x \geq y) \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

if r is normally distributed and an ellipsoidal set is used one would get the following uncertainty set

$$r^T x \geq y , \forall r : \|\Sigma^{-1/2}(r - \mu)\| \leq \sqrt{F_{\chi_m^2}^{-1}(1 - \epsilon)} \neq \Phi^{-1}(1 - \epsilon)$$

How RO approximates chance constraints

Let $m = 2$, $\epsilon = 5\%$, and $\Sigma = I$, r_2

$$\Phi^{-1}(1 - \epsilon) = 1.645, \sqrt{F_{\chi^2_2}(1 - \epsilon)} = 2.445$$

Let

$$\mathcal{U}(\gamma) := \{r \mid \|\Sigma^{-1/2}(r - \mu)\|_2 \leq \gamma\}$$

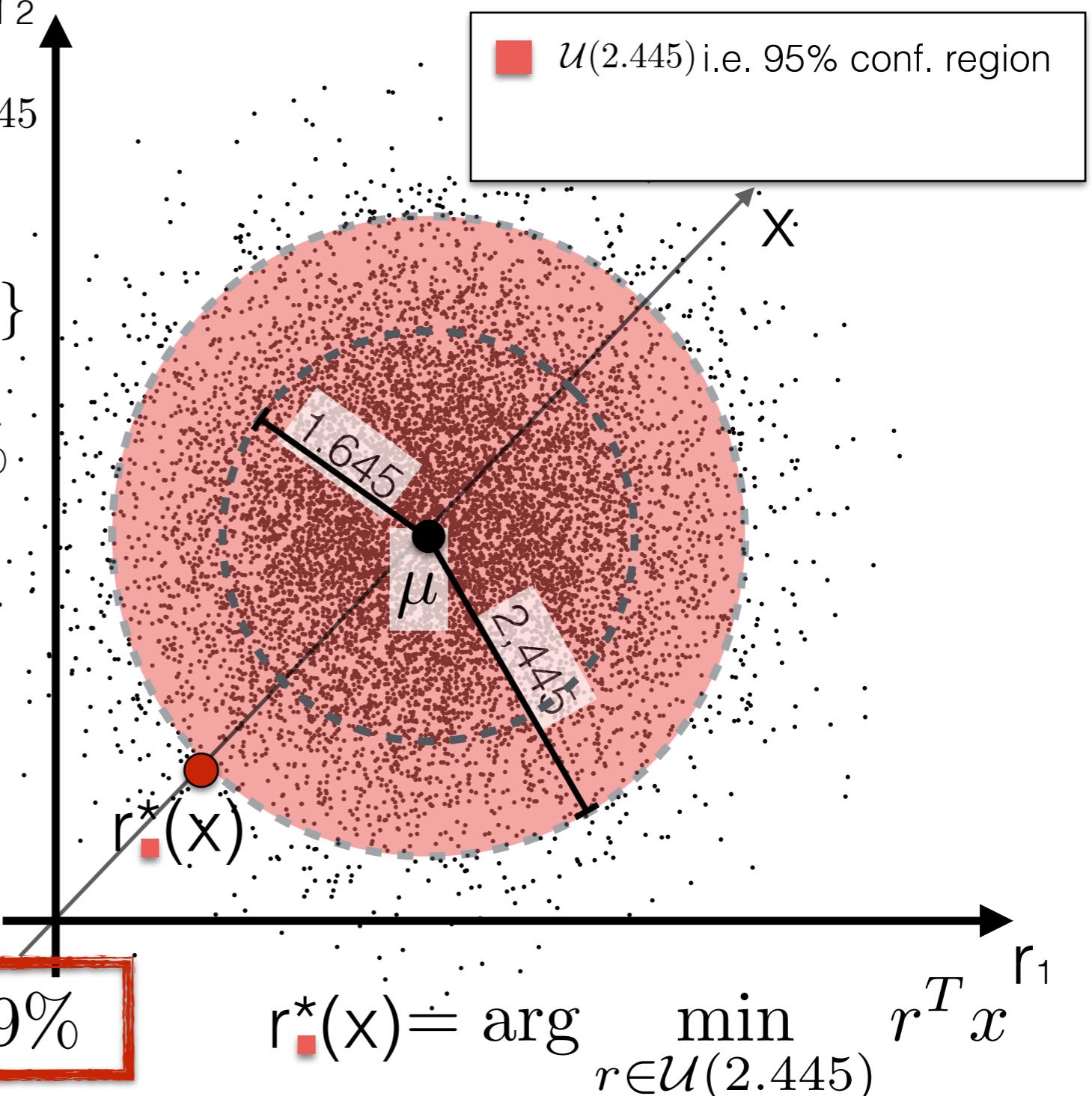
Since $P(r \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)) = 95\%$

$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)$$



$$P(r^T x \geq y) \geq 95\%$$

Actually, $P(r^T x \geq y) \geq 99\%$



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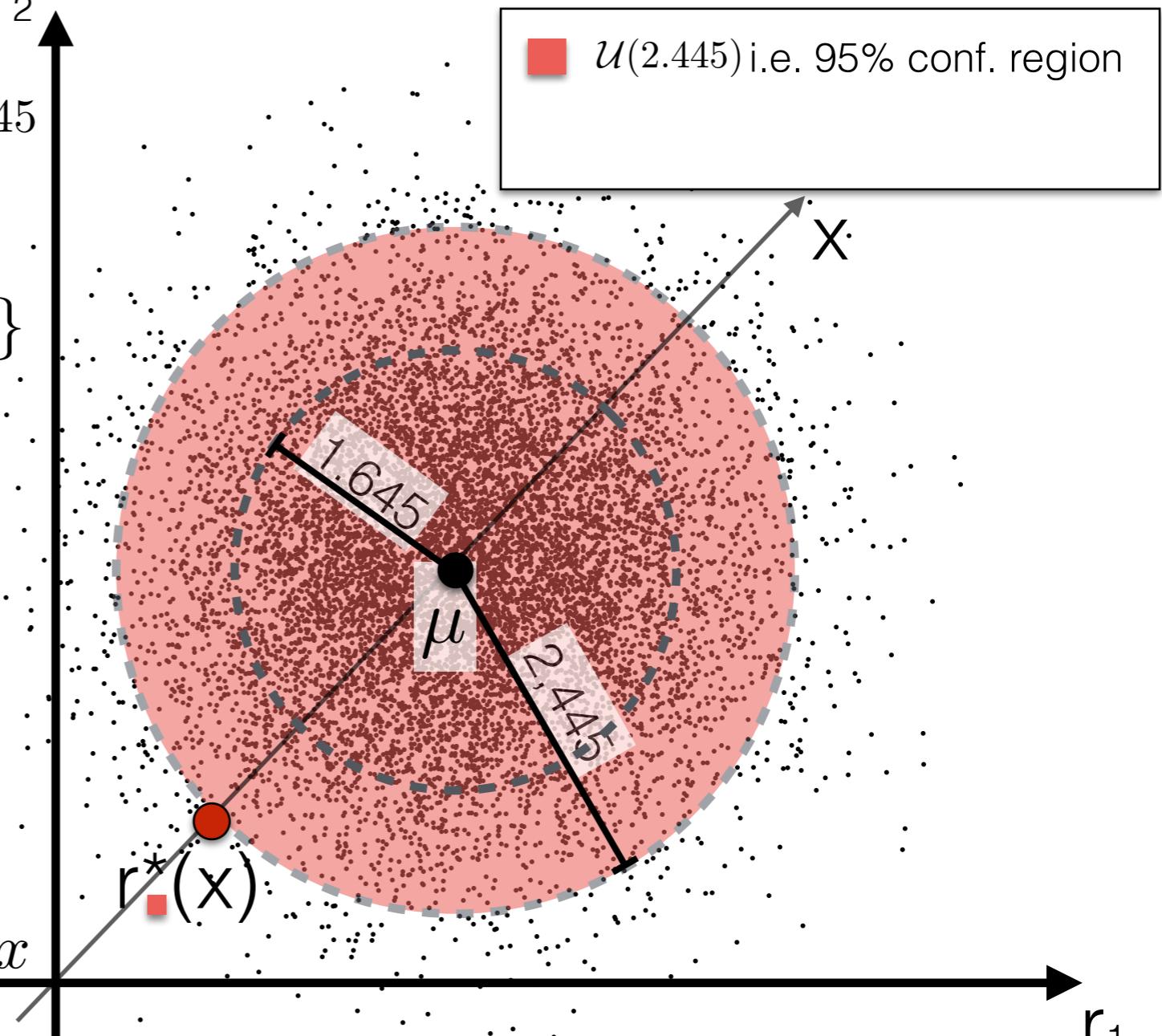
$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)$$



$$\min_{r \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)} r^T x \geq y$$



$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r : r^T x \geq \min_{\bar{r} \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)} \bar{r}^T x$$



$$r^*(x) = \arg \min_{z \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)} r^T x$$

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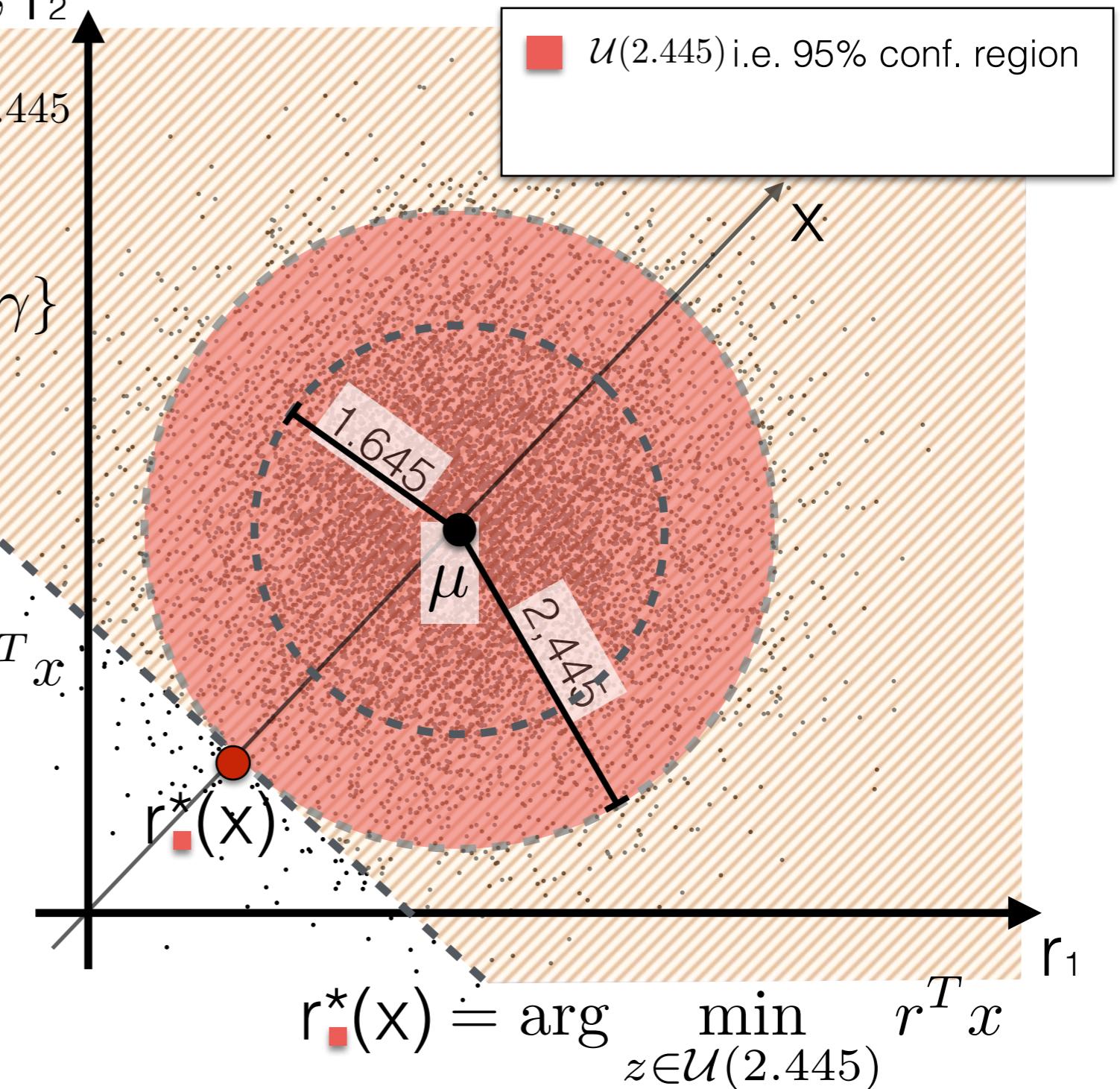
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How RO approximates chance constraints

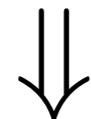
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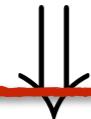
$$\mathcal{U}(\gamma) := \{r \mid \|\Sigma^{-1/2}(r - \mu)\|_2 \leq \gamma\}$$

$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}(2.445)$$

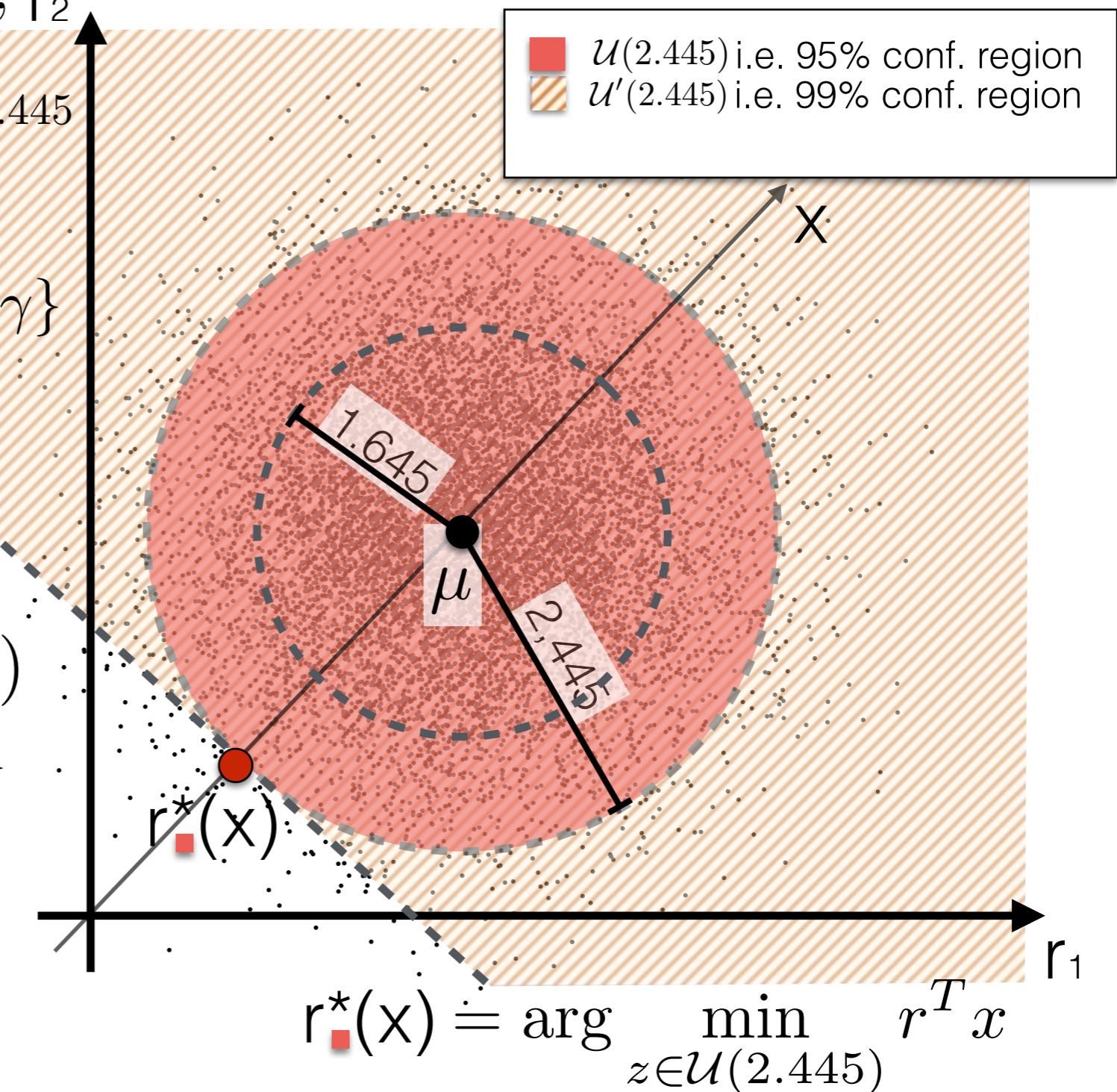


$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}'(2.445)$$

$$\mathcal{U}'(\gamma) := \{r \mid r^T x \geq \min_{r \in \mathcal{U}(\gamma)} r^T x\}$$



$$P(r^T x \geq y) \geq 99\%$$



How RO approximates chance constraints

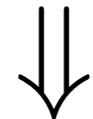
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$$\mathcal{U}(\gamma) := \{r \mid \|\Sigma^{-1/2}(r - \mu)\|_2 \leq \gamma\}$$

$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}(1.645)$$

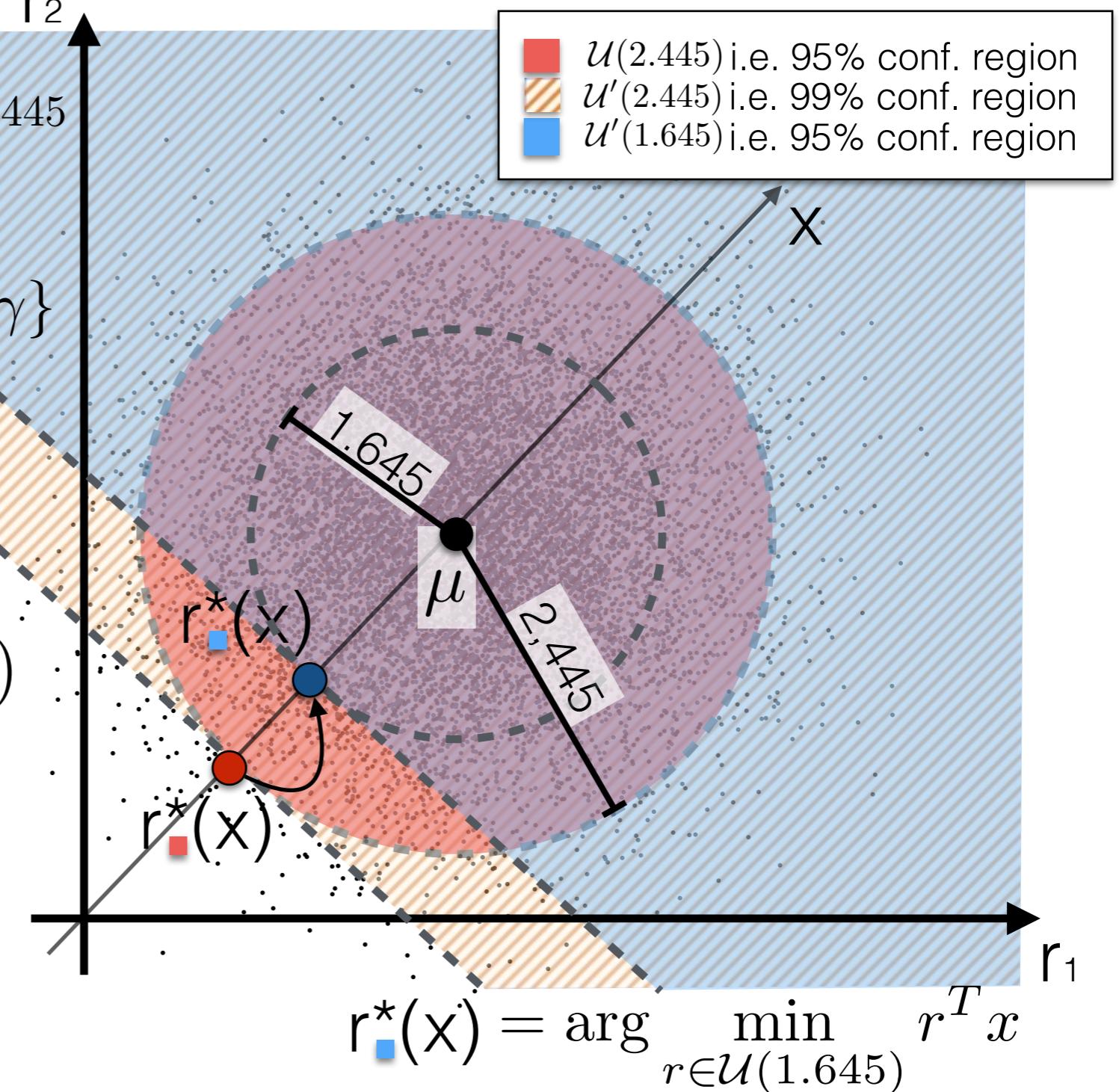


$$r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}'(1.645)$$

$$\mathcal{U}'(\gamma) := \{r \mid r^T x \geq \min_{r \in \mathcal{U}(\gamma)} r^T x\}$$



$$P(r^T x \geq y) \geq 95\%$$



Implication for LP-RC

Corollary 3.3. : Given some $\epsilon > 0$ and some random vector Z distributed according to F , let \mathcal{Z} be a set such that

$$\mathbb{P}(Z \in \mathcal{Z}) \geq 1 - \epsilon ,$$

then the LP-RC optimization problem (2.1) is a **conservative approximation** of the stochastic program

$$\begin{aligned} \text{minimize}_{x} \quad & \text{VaR}_{1-\epsilon}(Z^T P_0^T x + q_0^T Z + p_0^T x + r_0) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \mathbb{P}(Z^T P_j^T x + p_j^T x \leq q_j^T Z + r_j) \geq 1 - \epsilon , \forall j = 1, \dots, J , \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{VaR}_{1-\epsilon}(\cdot)$ is as defined in definition 3.1. Specifically, by conservative approximation we mean that an optimal solution to the LP-RC problem will be feasible according to the above stochastic program where it will achieve an objective value that is lower than what was established by the LP-RC optimization model.

Example: Portfolio with minimum VaR

You are given a set of historical monthly returns of 10 stocks for year 2000 - 2009, and are asked to approximate the following “value-at-risk” problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x,y}{\text{minimize}} && -y \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbb{P}(r^T x \geq y) \geq 1 - \epsilon \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1 \quad x \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where $\epsilon = 5\%$ and the distribution of r is considered as the empirical distribution of the monthly stock returns over the whole period of 2000-2009, in other words, any monthly return vector observed in this period is as likely to occur.

Our answer: Let's consider the following approximation to the value-at-risk problem described above:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x,y}{\text{minimize}} && -y \\ & \text{subject to} && r^T x \geq y, \forall r \in \mathcal{U} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1 \quad x \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where we will use the uncertainty set:

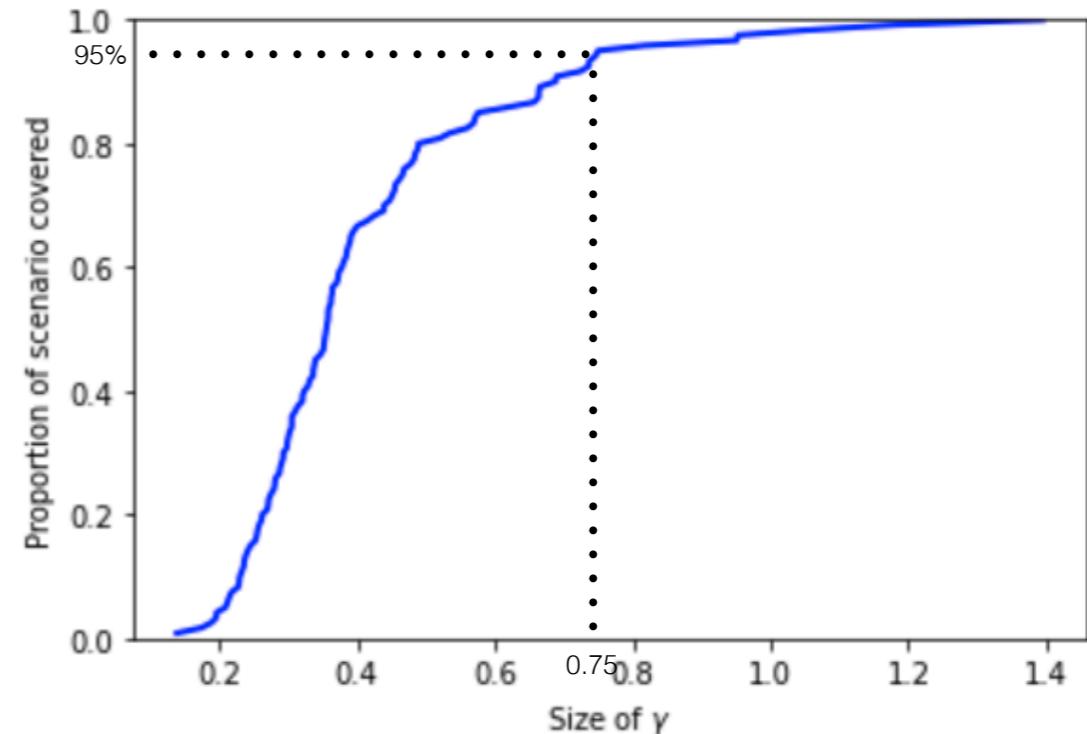
$$\mathcal{U}(r_0, \gamma) := \{r \in \mathbb{R}^{10} \mid \|r - r_0\|_2 \leq \gamma\},$$

How would you calibrate « r_0 » and γ ?

Example: Portfolio with minimum VaR (Google Colab)

- We center the set at the mean
- We choose a radius such that the ball includes 95% of the samples

```
[ ] r0=np.mean(Rs, axis=1)
```



- In this example, the radius ends up being 0,75 while with a normal distribution we would use 0,24

Example: Portfolio with minimum VaR (Google Colab)

- The robust solution offers a bound on 95%-VaR of 21%
- In-sample, the VaR is 6.3%
- Out-of-sample, the VaR is 6.6%

```
[ ] n = Rs.shape[0]

#Create model
model = ro.Model('RobustPorfolioVaR')
# Define variables
x=model.dvar(n)
y=model.dvar(1)
# Define uncertain parameters
r=model.rvar(n)

UncertaintySet=(rso.norm(r-r0,2)<=gamma)

model.min(-y)
model.st((r@x>=y).forall(UncertaintySet))
model.st(sum(x)==1)
model.st(x<=1)
model.st(x>=0)

model.solve(my_solver)
```

Risk-return tradeoff approximation

- In practice a decision maker is interested in the possible tradeoffs between risk and return
- In portfolio selection problem, this can be done with stochastic prog. or robust optimization

Stochastic Prog.

$$\text{maximize} \quad \mathbb{E}[r^T x]$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \mathbb{P}(r^T x \geq 0) \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1$$

$$x \geq 0 .$$

Robust optimization

$$\text{maximize} \quad \mu^T x$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad r^T x \geq 0, \forall r \in \mathcal{U}(\Gamma)$$

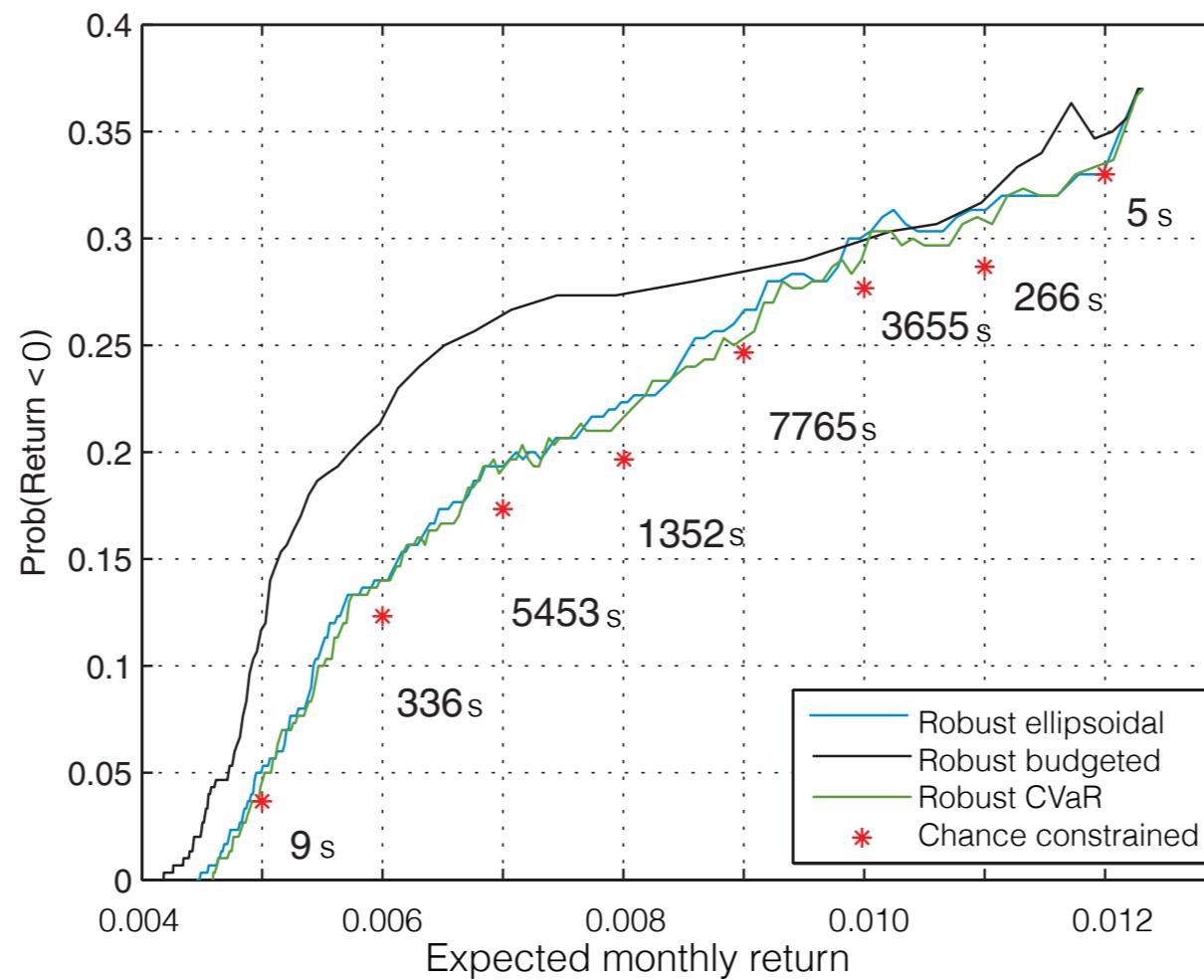
$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1$$

$$x \geq 0 ,$$

Risk-return tradeoff approximation

- In Bertsimas et al. 2011, the authors show that while RO only requires a fraction of computations needed by SP, it identifies solutions that are nearly optimal w.r.t. SP efficient frontier

Mean return vs. Loss probability Pareto frontier



RO as approximation to ambiguous chance constraints

Assumption 3.4. : Let $Z \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be a random vector for which the distribution is not known, yet what is known of the random vector is that all Z_i 's are independent from each other and that each of them is symmetrically distributed on the interval $[-1, 1]$.

Theorem 3.5. : *Given some $\epsilon > 0$ and some random vector Z that satisfies assumption 3.4, one has the guarantee that any x satisfying the robust constraint*

$$a(z)^T x \leq b(z), \quad \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}_{ell}(\gamma),$$

where

$$\mathcal{Z}_{ell}(\gamma) := \{z \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \|z\|_2 \leq \gamma\}$$

and $\gamma := \sqrt{2 \ln(1/\epsilon)}$ is guaranteed to satisfy the following chance constraint

$$\mathbb{P}(a(Z)^T x \leq b(Z)) \geq 1 - \epsilon.$$

even though the distribution of Z is not known.

A corollary result for the budgeted uncertainty set

Corollary 3.8. : *Given some $\epsilon > 0$ and some random vector Z that satisfies assumption 3.4, one has the guarantee that any x satisfying the robust constraint*

$$a(z)^T x \leq b(z), \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}_{\text{budg}}(\Gamma),$$

where

$$\mathcal{Z}_{\text{budg}}(\Gamma) := \{z \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid z_i \in [-1, 1], \|z\|_1 \leq \Gamma\}$$

and $\Gamma := \sqrt{2m \ln(1/\epsilon)}$ is guaranteed to satisfy the following chance constraint

$$\mathbb{P}(a(Z)^T x \leq b(Z)) \geq 1 - \epsilon.$$

even though the distribution of Z is not known.

Definition of Coherent Risk Measures

In [2], Artzner et al. introduce for the first time the notion of a family of risk measures that are rational to employ. He indicates that such measures ρ should satisfy the following properties when defined in terms of an uncertain income:

- Translation invariance : the risk of a position to which we add a guaranteed income is reduced by the amount of the income, i.e. $\rho(Y + c) = \rho(Y) - c$ when c is certain
- Subadditivity: the risk of the sum of risky positions should be lower than the sum of the risks, i.e. $\rho(X + Y) \leq \rho(X) + \rho(Y)$
- Positive homogeneity : if the consequences of a risky position are scaled by the same positive amount $\lambda \geq 0$, then the risk should be scaled by the same amount, i.e. $\rho(\lambda Y) = \lambda \rho(Y)$
- Monotonicity: A risky position that is guaranteed to return larger income than another risky position should be considered less risky, i.e. $X \geq Y \Rightarrow \rho(X) \leq \rho(Y)$.
- Relevance : if a risky position has the potential of leading to a loss, then the risk should be strictly positive, i.e. $X \leq 0 \& X \neq 0 \Rightarrow \rho(X) > 0$.

Based on these five axioms, the authors are able to demonstrate that the risk measure must be representable in the following form:

$$\rho(Y) := \sup_{F \in \mathcal{D}} \mathbb{E}_F[-Y] ,$$

RO as imposing a bound on a coherent risk measure

Theorem 3.9. : *Given a coherent risk measure $\rho(\cdot)$, there always exists a convex uncertainty set \mathcal{Z} such that the no risk constraint*

$$\rho(b(Z) - a(Z)^T x) \leq 0$$

is equivalent to imposing the robust constraint

$$a(z)^T x \leq b(z), \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}; .$$

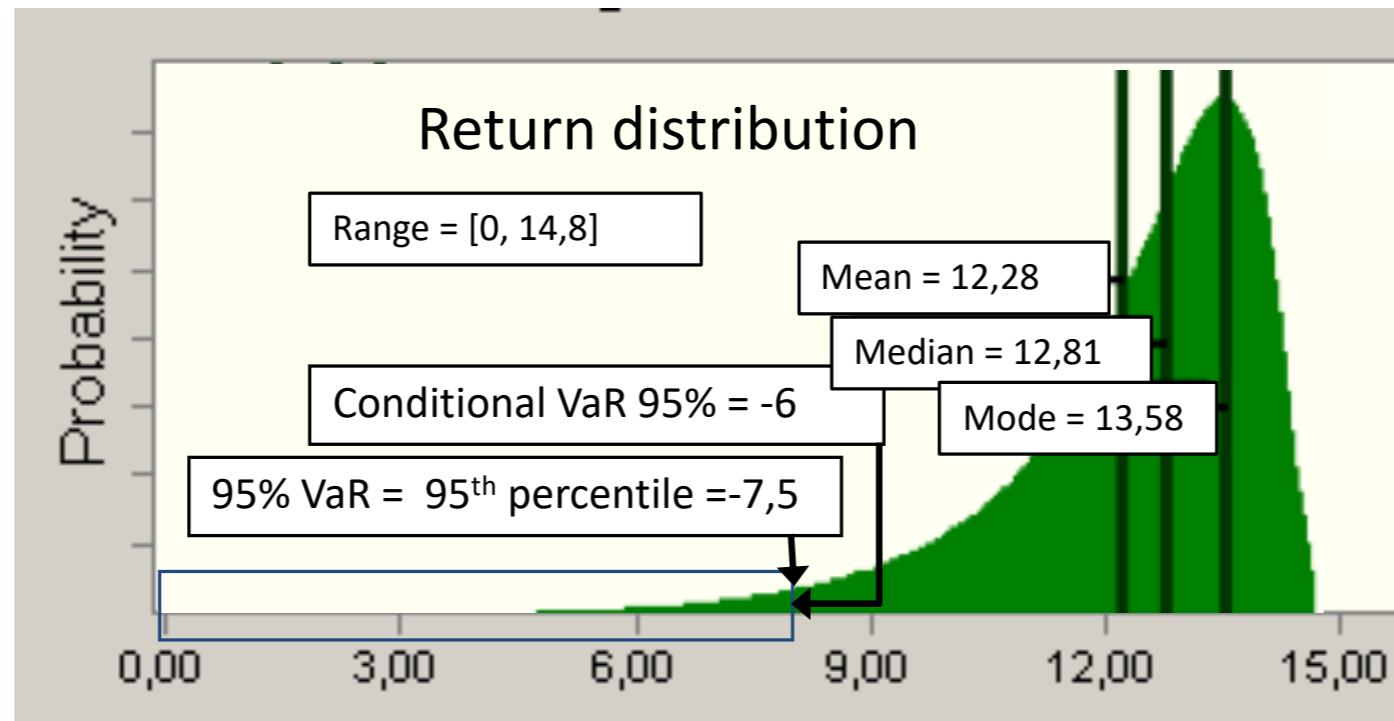
The converse is also true.

The Case of Conditional Value-at-Risk

Mathematically, the most popular representation for the CVaR measure appeared in [34] and takes the following form when the random variable Y represents an uncertain revenue

$$\text{CVaR}_{1-\epsilon}(Y) := \inf_t t + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathbb{E} [\max(0, -Y - t)] .$$

Intuitively, it is worth knowing that at optimum the value t^* will captures the value at risk for the given uncertain revenue so that



The Case of Conditional Value-at-Risk

Use Theorem 3.9 to show that when the distribution of z is

$$\mathbb{P}(Z = \bar{z}_i) = p_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, K$$

the bounded CVaR constraint

$$CVaR_{1-\epsilon}(b(Z) - a(Z)^T x) \leq 0$$

can be equivalently reformulated as the following robust constraint

$$a(z)^T x \leq b(z), \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}_{\text{CVaR}}(\epsilon)$$

where

$$\mathcal{Z}_{\text{CVaR}}(\epsilon) = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \exists q \in \mathbb{R}^K, q \geq 0, q_i \leq p_i/\epsilon, \sum_{i=1}^K q_i = 1, z = \sum_{i=1}^K \bar{z}_i q_i\}$$