AAE 706: Applied Risk Analysis

Nonconvexity

Thomas F. Rutherford

Department of Agricultural and Applied Economics University of Wisconsin, Madison

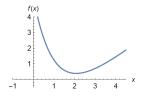
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Convex programs



- We have covered LP, QP and NLP
- Convex programs can be solved reliably and efficiently
- Optimal cost can be bounded above and below (duality)
- Local optima are global optima



Outline

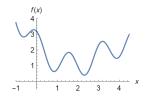


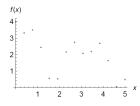
- Convex Programs
- Discrete and nonconvex models
- Mixed-integer programming
- A trivial example
- A nonlinear example

Nonconvex programs



- In general, cannot be efficiently solved
- Cost cannot be bounded easily
- Usually we can only guarantee local optimality
- Difficulty depends strongly on the instance





Topics in Nonconvex Programming



- Integer linear programs
 - It's an LP where some or all variables are discrete (boolean, integer, or general discrete-valued)
 - If all variables are integers, its called IP or ILP
 - If the model involves a mixture of continuous and discrete variables, it's called MIP or MILP
- Nonconvex nonlinear programs
 - If all variables are continuous, the problem class is NLP (but a global optimization code may be required).
 - If some variables are discrete, it's called MINLP, and a specialized solver for this type of model is required.
- Approximation and relaxation
 - Can we solve a convex problem instead?
 - If not, can we approximate?

Discrete variables



Why do we need discrete variables?

- 1. A decision variable may be fundamentally discrete.
 - The light is either on or off {1,0}
 - Number of widgets produced $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$
 - Bill amount {\$1,\$5,\$10,\$20,\$50,\$100}

Discrete variables



Why do we need discrete variables?

- 2. Discrete variables provide an *algebraic* representation of various logical conditions.
 - At most two of the three machines can run at once.

$$z_1 + z_2 + z_3 \le 2$$

- in which $(z_i = 1 \text{ if machine } i \text{ is running}).$
- If machine 1 is running, so must machine 2.

$$z_1 \leq z_2$$

Outline



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- Discrete and nonconvex models
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- A nonlinear examples

Back to Making Beer

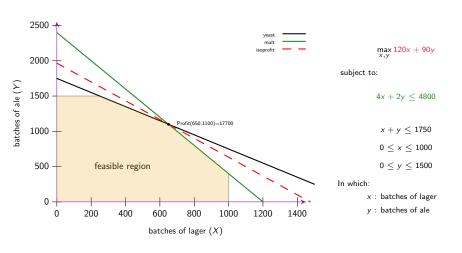


The local brewery produces two varieties of beer (lagers and ales) which are marketed in taverns and grocery around town. At the moment, they are planning production for fall. Each beer requires malt, hops and yeast. The lagers return \$120 in profit per batch while ales earn only \$90 per batch. Lagers are made with German hops, while ales are made with Wisconsin hops. There are currently sufficient German hops in stock for 1000 batches of lager and Wisconsin hops for 1500 batches of ale. Lager requires 4 kg of malt per batch while ale uses only 2 kg. Both beers require one kg of yeast per batch. There are 1,750 kg of yeast and 4800 kg of malt on hand.

What quantities of lager and ale should be produced from these supplies to maximize total profit assuming that all that are made can be sold?

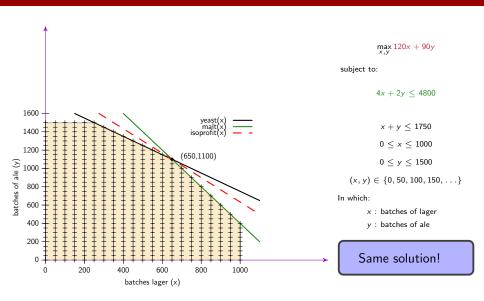
Brewery Optimization





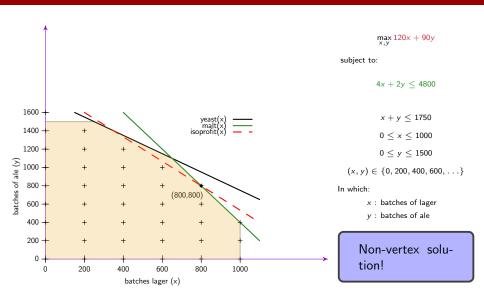
Restrict Solution to 50 Batch Shipments





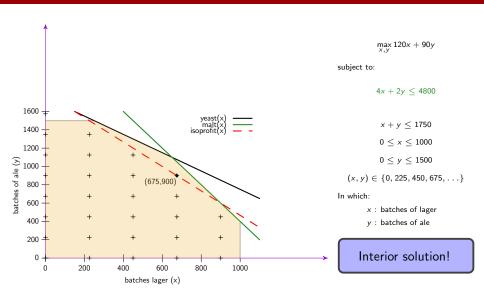
Restrict Solution to 200 Batch Orders





Restrict Solution to 225 Batch Shipments





Why integrality?



Consider the manufacture of television sets. A linear programming model might give a production plan of 205.7 sets per week. In such a model, most people would have no trouble stating that production should be 205 sets per week (or even "roughly 200 sets per week"). On the other hand, suppose we were buying warehouses to store finished goods, where a warehouse comes in a set size. Then a model that suggests we purchase 0.7 warehouse at one location and 0.6 somewhere else would be of little value. Warehouses come in integer quantities, and we would like our model to reflect that fact.

Seemingly Innocuous



This integrality restriction may seem rather innocuous, but in reality it has far reaching effects. On one hand, modeling with integer variables has turned out to be useful far beyond restrictions to integral production quantities. With integer variables, one can model logical requirements, fixed costs, sequencing and scheduling requirements, and many other problem aspects.

Formulating an IP is Easy



```
variables
       X(i,j) Shipment quantities in cases
       Z total Transportation costs in thousands of dollars;
integer variable X;
equations
       cost
                      define objective function
       supply(i)
                       observe supply limit at plant i
       demand(j)
                       satisfy demand at market j;
cost.. Z = E = sum((i,j), c(i,j)*X(i,j));
supply(i).. sum(j, X(i,j)) = L = a(i);
demand(j)... sum(i, X(i,j)) = g = b(j);
Model transport /all/;
X.LO(i,j) = 0;
solve transport using mip minimizing Z;
```

Terminology



An integer programming problem in which all variables are required to be integer is called a pure integer programming problem. If some variables are restricted to be integer and some are not then the problem is a mixed integer programming problem. The case where the integer variables are restricted to be 0 or 1 comes up surprisingly often. Such problems are called pure (mixed) 0-1 or *binary* programming problems.

Outline



- Convex Programs
- Discrete and nonconvex models
- Mixed-integer programming
- A trivial example
- A few less trivial examples

Board Game



The Christmas board game "22" involves a board with 13 holes and 13 pegs which fit in the holes. The pegs are numbered from 1 to 13. Hole are situated at the 12 intersection points on a six-pointed star and in the center of the star. To play the game, a peg is inserted in each hole.

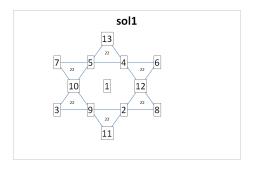


¹The game is currently on sale in the Christmas market at the Zürich train station.

Winning 22



A winning configuration is one in which the sum of values for each of the six triangles sums to 22. Here, for example, is a winning assignment:



GAMS Code



```
$title Board Game "22" -- Slow Version Ignores Symmetry
       n0 All nodes (include center node 0) /n0*n12/.
set
       n(n0) Assigned nodes /n1*n12/
              Pieces /1*13/,
               Triangles /t1*t6/
       ŧ.
       tri(t,n)
                      Assignment of triangles to nodes
                       t1.(n1,n3,n4),
                       t2.(n4,n5,n7),
                       t3.(n7,n10,n11),
                       t4.(n9,n10,n12),
                       t5.(n6,n8,n9),
                       t6.(n2,n3,n6)/,
                       All possible solutions /sol1*sol5000/,
       S
       ss(s) Solutions which have been found,
       cut(s,p,n) Cut renders prior solutions infeasible;
cut(s,p,n) = no;
ss(s) = no;
```

Declarative GAMS Code: The Model



```
variable
               OBJ Vacuous objective;
binary
variable
               Z(p,n) Assignment of piece p to node n;
equations
              objdef, used, filled, linesum, othersol;
objdef..
         OBJ =e= 0:
used(p).. sum(n, Z(p,n)) = L= 1;
filled(n).. sum(p, Z(p,n)) = E = 1;
linesum(t).. sum((p,tri(t,n)), p.val*Z(p,n)) = e= 22;
othersol(ss).. sum(cut(ss,p,n), Z(p,n)) = 1 = 11;
model ip /all/;
solve ip using mip maximizing obj;
```

Procedural GAMS Code: Find All Solutions



```
parameter
                nsol
                                Solution count /0/,
                sollist(p.*.*) Solution assignments:
       Restrict model output to improve performance:
ip.limrow=0: ip.limcol=0: option solprint=off:
        We need to solve a number of models -- to make this go
       more rapidly, let GAMS load the solver in memory to
        avoid the cost of reloading the library each time:
ip.solvelink = %solvelink.LoadLibrarv%:
        Outer loop over s=sol1 provides an "anchor point" for
        assignments to the offet reference s+nsol:
loop(s$sameas(s, "sol1"),
       Find solutions with peg pp in the center hole:
 loop(pp,
       Omit pp from the assignment into nodes other than 0:
       Z.FX(pp.n) = 0:
       First solution:
        solve ip using mip maximizing obi:
```

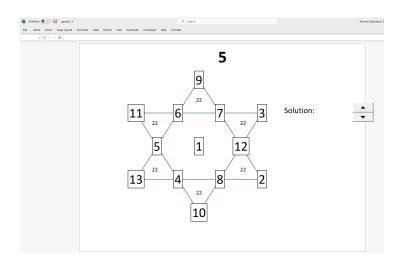
Procedural GAMS Code: Find All Solutions



```
While we have a solution and we have found 9 or
fewer solution with peg pp in the center, continue
solving:
while (((ip.modelstat<>10) and (nsol<=9)),
We have a solution in hand at this. Add this to the
list of cuts, using "s+nsol" to refer to this new solution:
 cut(s+nsol.p.n)$Z.L(p.n) = ves:
Add the new solution to the list of cuts:
 ss(s+nsol) = yes;
Keep record of which pegs are in which holes for this
solution:
 sollist(pp, "n0", s+nsol) = pp.val:
 loop((p,n)$Z.L(p,n), sollist(pp,n,s+nsol) = p.val; );
See if we can find another solution:
 nsol = nsol + 1:
 solve ip using mip maximizing obj;
);
```

Visualization of Results





Route Choice with Risk



Last lecture we formulated a linear programming model with dual objectives: minimize distance and minimize risk. I mentioned at the end of class that there is a compact nonlinear programming formulation which is efficient but non-convex. Convexity is a typical in economic equilibrium models but it is often elusive in general decision problems.



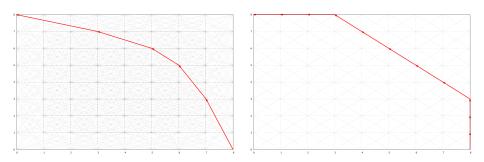
Maximum Weight Flow LP Model in GAMS



```
variable
                OB.T
                                Objective function;
nonnegative
variables
                X
                                Route choice:
equations conservation, objdef;
objdef..
        OBJ =e= sum(a, X(a) * dist(a)*(lamda - (1-lamda)*log(p(a))));
conservation(k)...
        sum(a(i,k), X(a)) + 1start(k) =e= sum(a(k,j),X(a)) + 1send(k);
model routechoice /conservation, objdef/;
```

In the LP Model, Discretization Matters ($\lambda = 0.4$)





GAMS Code: The NLP Formulation



```
set.
                  pt
                          Points on the route /0*20/.
variable
               0BJ
                                Objective function;
nonnegative
variables
               X(pt)
                               Route choice -- X dimension
               Y(pt)
                               Route choice -- Y dimension
               P(pt,h)
                               Proximity from hazard h
               R(pt,h)
                               Risk from hazard h on passage from pt-1 to pt
               Z
                                Overal hazard rate
                                Overall length of route,
                                Distance between points;
equations
               objdef, length, proximity, risk, hazard, distance, monotone;
       Define the objective as a weighted sum of travel distance and probability
       of reading the target:
         OBJ =e= lamda * L + (1-lamda) * Z;
objdef..
```

GAMS Code: The Model (cont.)



```
Total length of the path:
length..
                       L = e = sum(pt, sqrt(sqr(X(pt+1)-X(pt))+
                                           sqr(Y(pt+1)-Y(pt))) - 1;
        Hazard of the path = 1 - probability (no failure):
hazard..
                       Z = e = 1 - prod(pt, prod(h, 1-R(pt,h)));
       Distance between point pt and pt+1:
distance(pt+1).. sqr(D) = sqr(X(pt+1)-X(pt)) + sqr(Y(pt+1)-Y(pt));
```

GAMS Code: The Model (cont.)



```
Proximity of point pt to hazard h:
proximity(pt+1,h)..
       P(pt+1,h) = e = sqrt(sqr((X(pt+1)+X(pt))/2-hloc(h,"x")) +
                         sqr((Y(pt+1)+Y(pt))/2-hloc(h,"y")));
       Risk imposed on passage from point pt to pt+1:
R(pt+1,h) = e= exp(-0.5*sqr(P(pt+1,h)/var(h)))*D;
model routechoice /objdef, length, proximity, risk, hazard, distance/;
```

GAMS Code: Bounds and Initialization



```
No risk on the arc leading to point 0:
R.FX("0",h) = 0;
* Upper bound on total length:
L.UP = 2.2;
* Points much lie in the unit square:
X.LO(pt) = 0; X.UP(pt) = 1;
Y.LO(pt) = 0; Y.UP(pt) = 1;
D.LO = 0.001; D.UP = 1;
* Assign some initial values:
P.L(pt,h) = 0.1; D.L = 1/20; X.L(pt) = 1/2; X.L(pt) = 1/2;
* Start in the southeast (1,0) and traverse to the northwest (0,1):
X.FX("0") = 1; Y.FX("0") = 0;
X.FX("20") = 0; Y.FX("20") = 1;
```

GAMS Code: Loop over Weights



```
Scenarios to compare /0.30.60.90.minRisk/.
set
        scn
        theta(scn)
                        Angle which determines lamda (degrees) /0,30,60,90/
parameter
               rc(scn,pt,xy) Route choice,
                step(scn) Step length;
loop(theta,
        lamda = cos(pi*theta.val/180)/(cos(pi*theta.val/180)+sin(pi*theta.val/180)
        solve routechoice using nlp minimizing obj;
        Report the location of each step on this route:
        step(theta) = D.L;
        rc(theta,pt,"x") = X.L(pt) + eps;
        rc(theta,pt,"y") = Y.L(pt) + eps;
);
```

GAMS Code: Finding the Global Optimum



```
Find a route which runs through the northeast corner:
Y.FX("10") = 1; X.FX("10") = 1;
        Almost all weight on distance:
lamda = 0.01:
solve routechoice using nlp minimizing obj;
       Verify local optimality.
D.L0 = 0: D.UP = 1:
Y.UP("10") = 1; X.UP("10") = 1;
solve routechoice using nlp minimizing obj;
rc("minRisk",pt,"x") = X.L(pt) + eps;
rc("minRisk",pt,"y") = Y.L(pt) + eps;
step("minRisk") = D.L;
```

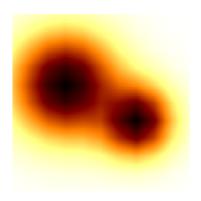
An NLP Formulation



```
xy Planar dimensions /x,y/;
set
parameter
            lamda Weight on speed (1=shortest path) /1/;
      h
                   Hazards /h1,h2/;
set
table hloc(h,xy) Hazard locations
      X
h1 0.3 0.6
  0.7 0.4;
h2
parameter var(h) Variance /h1 0.15, h2 0.1/;
```

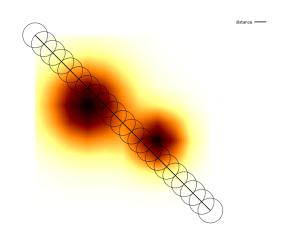
Risk Geometry





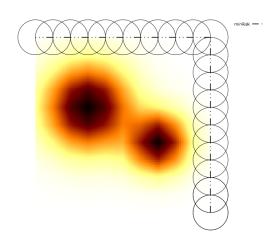
The Shortest Path





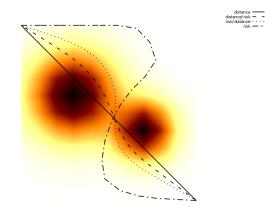
The Safest Path





A Sequence of Solutions for $\theta = \{0, 30, 60, 90^{\circ}\}$

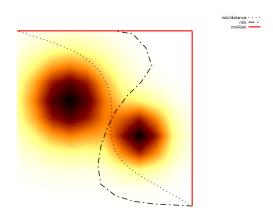




Local versus Global



The starting point determines which solution is returned. When initiating from the $\theta=60^\circ$ solution, we find a local optimum. If we initiate from a boundary route, we find the global solution:



Cash Flow Models



Companies a liability stream reaching several years into the future:

- payouts on insurance products
- home owner mortgages (with fxed or variable payments)
- lottery payouts

For this reason it can be useful to determine a portfolio of bonds (obligations) whose cash-fows replicate that of the liability stream.

One way for insurance companies to demonstrate solvency is to assess the fair market value of their liabilities. This can be done by replicating portfolio consisting of default-free bonds, such as Treasuries.

The Deterministic Case



- $T = \{0, ..., m\}$ The set of time periods, for instance measured in years, from t = 0 (now) to t = m (the time horizon).
- $\emph{U} = \{1, \dots, n\}$ The *universe* of assets under consideration for inclusion in the portfolio.
 - $F_{i,t}$ The cash flow arising from asset i at time t.
 - L_t The liability due in period $t \ge 1$.

Cash Flows



The cash flows $F_{i,t}$ can be both positive and negative; by convention, a positive number indicates incoming cash and a negative number outgoing cash.

For a bond which is purchased today at price P_i per unit face value, with an annual coupon payment of c_i and a maturity of 4 years we would have

$$F_{i,\cdot} = (-P_i, c_i, c_i, c_i, 1 + c_i, 0, \dots, 0).$$

Cash Flow Matching Model



Decision variables for the fund manager are x_i $i \in U$, the amount in face value of bond i to be purchased:

 $\min \lambda$

subject to:

$$\sum_{i} F_{i,0} x_{i} + \lambda \ge 0$$

$$\sum_{i} F_{i,t} x_{i} \ge L_{t} \quad \forall t$$

$$x_{i} \ge 0$$

Reinvesting and Borrowing



Short-term reinvesting and borrowing can be modeled by adding variables r_t and b_t to represent the amount of cash reinvested or borrowed from period t to t+1:

 $\min \lambda$

subject to:

$$\sum_{i} F_{i,0} x_i + b_0 + \lambda \ge r_0$$

$$\sum_{i} F_{i,t} x_i + (1 + \rho_t) r_{t-1} + b_t \ge L_t + r_t + (1 + \beta_t) b_{t-1} \quad t \ge 1$$

$$b_m = 0$$

$$x_i, r_t, b_t \geq 0$$

Tradeability Considerations



Large institutional bond investors are usually interested in purchasing large blocks of individual bonds, in round numbers (even lots) of face value. This is primarily because such blocks are more easily traded than smaller or *odd-lot* holdings, but also for liquidity reasons, to avoid the risk of getting stuck with a small holding of a bond with poor liquidity. We may therefore wish to modify our model to enforce:

- even-lot purchases, i.e., face-value amounts in multiples of, say, \$100,000, and/or
- 2 minimum-lot purchases, i.e., purchase either none or at least some amount, say \$500,000, of each bond.

Even Lot Purchases: Mixed Integer Programming



Suppose decision variables x_i denote the number of \$100 bonds to purchase and lots in multiples of \$100,000 to be implemented. Add integer variables y_i and constraints

$$x_i = (100000/100)y_i$$

to the cash flow model.

Minimum-lot purchases can be implemented using *binary variables*, $b_i \in \{0,1\}$ and

$$(500000/100)b_i \leq x_i$$

and

$$x_i \leq M b_i$$

where M is a large number (big M). These constraints assure that when $b_i = 0$ then $x_i = 0$, and $b_i = 1$ then $x_i \ge (500000/100)$.

Transactions Costs



Investments may include transactions costs such as brokerage fees and bid-ask spreads. Portfolios containing small amounts of a large number of securities introduce administrative costs. We distinguish between two types of transactions costs: *fixed* and *variable*. Fixed costs are introduced with binary variables $z_i \in \{0,1\}$ and *big M* constraints:

Fixed cost =
$$F \sum_{i} z_{i}$$

 $x_{i} \leq M z_{i}$

Variable, or proportional, transactions costs, on the other hand, are easily modeled without any penalty in model complexity.

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