

# Stochastic Programming

remark:

- difference between stochastic & robust
- stochastic programming:
  - we know the distribution
  - optimize the expected value
- robust programming:
  - we do not know the data information
  - optimize w.r.t. worst-case

## The Farmers Problem

- a farmer grows
- wheat, corn, soybeans
- 300 m<sup>2</sup> land
- 200 kg water

$\rightarrow x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \leq 200$

$\rightarrow 200 T \text{ water} \rightarrow x_i \text{ m}$

can grow in big

100% yield

100% cost

if big not high

20% crop loss

10% if bigger > 200T

2.5% loss

3% loss

20% loss

150% loss

200% loss

250% loss

300% loss

350% loss

400% loss

450% loss

500% loss

550% loss

600% loss

650% loss

700% loss

750% loss

800% loss

850% loss

900% loss

950% loss

1000% loss

1050% loss

1100% loss

1150% loss

1200% loss

1250% loss

1300% loss

1350% loss

1400% loss

1450% loss

1500% loss

1550% loss

1600% loss

1650% loss

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1800% loss

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1900% loss

1950% loss

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2050% loss

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2150% loss

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**Stochastic Linear Program**  
linear program w/ uncertain data  
**Recourse Program**  
decisions/recourse action taken  
after uncertainty is disclosed  
 $\eta = \eta(w)$  known after experiment

- 1st-stage decisions - prior to experiments
- 2nd-stage decisions - after the experiments.

$$x \rightarrow \eta(w) \rightarrow y(w, x)$$

1st stage  
resource of the action variable  
known at experiment

2nd stage

### 2-stage stochastic linear program

$$\min \bar{z} = Cx + E_T [\min_{R^N} b(w)^T y(w)]$$

st.  $Ax = b$ ,  $R^N$

$Ax = b$  fixed recourse

$R^N$  random recourse

$x \geq 0$ ,  $y(w) \geq 0$

we have a lot of  $w$

$$z^T(w) = [g(w)^T, h(w)^T, T_1(w), \dots, T_m(w)]$$

$R^N = R^{n_1} \times \dots \times R^{n_m}$

note that  $R^N$  is then known

Probability space

one event  $\omega$

one set of  $w$

one set of  $x$

one set of  $y$

( $x, y$ ) making one

random variable  $\eta$

$$\eta^T(w) = (g(w)^T, h(w)^T, T_1(w), \dots, T_m(w))$$

support of  $\eta$

$$E \in R^N$$

$P(\eta) = 1$  (all outcomes of  $\eta$ )

\* Based on outcome  $w \rightarrow \eta(w)$

decide  $y$ :

for each  $w$

$y(w)$  is the solution to "A"

linear program  $b(w)^T y(w)$

Let

$$Q(x, \eta(w)) = \min_y \{ b(w)^T y \mid W(y) = h(w) - T(w)x, y \geq 0\}$$

convex  $\downarrow$  convex  $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$  convex

$$\Rightarrow \min \bar{z} = Cx + E_T [Q(x, \eta(w))]$$

st.  $Ax = b$   $\downarrow$  deterministic

$x \geq 0$

min  $\bar{z} = Cx + Q(x)$

st.  $Ax = b$

$x \geq 0$

examples: location problem

•  $d_i$ : int, ...,  $m$  clients demand

•  $x_j$ :  $j=1, \dots, n$  potential sites

•  $\theta \in \{0, 1\}$

• problem:  $x_j = ?$  (open how many sites, minimize profit)

-  $C_{ij}$  fixed cost of  $x_j$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

-  $V_{ij}$  usual cost of  $x_j$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

-  $y_{ij}$  fraction client of  $i$  from  $j$

-  $t_{ij}$  transport cost from  $j$  to  $i$

-  $s_i$  unit price charge to  $i$  customer

-  $\theta_{ij} = (\bar{s}_i - V_{ij} - t_{ij}) d_i$

total revenue from  $i$  with  $y_{ij}$

customer  $i$

Uncapacitated Facility Location Problem (UFLP):

$$\max \bar{z}(x, \eta) = - \sum_{j=1}^n C_j x_j + \sum_{i=1}^m d_i \theta_{ij}$$

st.  $\sum_{j=1}^n y_{ij} \leq 1$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

$0 \leq y_{ij} \leq 1$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

$x_j \in \{0, 1\}$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

$j=1, \dots, n$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

$j=1, \dots, n$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

$j=1, \dots, n$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   $\downarrow$

sum = 1: based on the above

uncertainties can then be added.

- Basic Properties**
  - 1. formulations of deterministic program equivalent to stochastic program
  - 2. forms of feasible region objective function
  - 3. conditions for optimality
- Recall**

$$\begin{aligned} \min \bar{z} &= Cx + E_T [\min_{R^N} b(w)^T y(w)] \\ \text{st. } Ax &= b \\ \text{including } x \geq 0 &\quad \text{recourse matrix } R^N \\ y(w) &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

we have a lot of  $w$

$$z^T(w) = [g(w)^T, h(w)^T, T_1(w), \dots, T_m(w)]$$

$$R^N = R^{n_1} \times \dots \times R^{n_m}$$

$\exists \Xi \in R^N$ , support of  $\eta$

$$P(\Xi) = 1$$

$$\min \bar{z} = Cx + E_T [Q(x, \eta(w))]$$

$$\text{st. } Ax = b$$

$$x \geq 0$$

$$y(w) \geq 0$$

$$W(y) = h(w) - T(w)x$$

$$W(y) = h(w) - T(w)x</math$$

## Stochastic Integer Programs.

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$

s.t.  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

$$2(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_y \min \{ f(\mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{w}) \mid$$

$\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{w}) = h(\mathbf{w}) - T(\mathbf{w})\mathbf{x},$   
 $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{Y} \}$

$$\mathbf{X} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$$

$\mathbf{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$

## Recourse Problems

**Proposition 20**  
The expected recourse function  $Q(x)$  of an integer program is in general lower semicontinuous, nonconvex and discontinuous.

**Proposition 21**  
The expected recourse function  $Q(x)$  of an integer program with an absolutely continuous random variable is continuous.

**Proposition 22**  
The second-stage feasibility set  $K_2(\xi)$  is in general nonconvex.

## Simple Integer Recourse

$$\min \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$

+  $\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{y}$

$$\begin{aligned} \min (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{B}^T)^T \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{T} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{h} \quad \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^m \end{aligned}$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y} \\ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z} \end{array} \right\}$

s.t.  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}$  and non-negative continuous

recall

$$\mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{w}) = h(\mathbf{w}) - T(\mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}$$

In stochastic programming, the second stage decision involves decisions under uncertainty, where first-stage decisions are known with certainty. The constraints involve uncertainty, part of the mathematical formulation used to represent the second stage.

The third form  $\mathbf{w} = h - T \mathbf{x}$  represents an equality constraint. This implies the resources consumed or produced in the second stage, denoted by  $\mathbf{y}$ , exactly balance out against the predetermined demands  $\mathbf{h}$ . Minimizes the effect of the stage decisions  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ . This is more important than the first stage decisions, since the second stage decisions are subject to the balancing of resources.

In practice, the decisions  $\mathbf{x}$  are more continuous and because it provides flexibility and allows for a broader range of choices available. A related decision makes it possible for uncertainty and manage risks effectively by setting constraints as inequalities, such as demand, price, or resource limits.

So the reason for preferring the inequality form in practice is to make the model more robust and adaptable to real-world uncertainties.

however we can use our setting  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{I}]$  & determine  $\mathbf{I}$  of  $\mathbf{y}^*$  based on the output of  $\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{T}\mathbf{x}$

now

$\mathbf{z}$

$$\min \mathbf{z} = 100\mathbf{x}_1 + 150\mathbf{x}_2$$

$\mathbf{x}_1 \geq 0, \mathbf{x}_2 \geq 0$

$$\mathbf{x}_1 \geq 0, \mathbf{x}_2 \geq 0$$

&lt;

## Robust Optimization

$$\min c^T x + d$$

$$x \in Ax \leq b$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix}$$

△ prediction errors

△ measurement errors

△ artificial data uncertainties  
↳ implementation error

△ Definition

$$\min_{x \in U} \{c^T x + d : Ax \leq b\}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{U}$$

$$U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \times \{Ax \leq b\}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{U}$$

$$U = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{U} \right\}$$

$$\exists \in Z \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

e.g.

•  $Z$  is parallelogram

$$\{z \in \mathbb{R}^k : -1 \leq z_j \leq 1, j=1 \dots k\}$$

•  $Z$  is a ball

$$\{z \in \mathbb{R}^k : \|z\|_2^2 \leq r^2\}$$

All the decision variables in (1.0) represent "here and now" decisions; they should be assigned specific numerical values as a result of solving the problem at hand. In other words, the actual value of a decision variable is fully responsible for consequences of the decisions to be made, and only when the actual data is within the pre-specified uncertainty set, the decisions are robust.

The constraints in (1.0) are "hard" — we cannot tolerate violations of constraints, even small ones, when the data is in  $U$ .

△ Robust feasible solution

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is robust feasible solution

if  $Ax \leq b \wedge \forall (c, d, a, b) \in U$

△ Worst-Case-Oriented Assumptions

robust value

$$\hat{c}(x) = \sup_{(c, d, a, b) \in U} [c^T x + d]$$

$\hat{c}(x)$  is the robust optimal value

$\hat{c}(x)$  is the robust optimal solution

$\hat{c}(x)$  is the robust optimal solution

△ observation

(A) RC scenario w/ epigraph

$$\min_{x \in U} \{z : c^T x + d \leq z \wedge Ax \leq b\}$$

(B) decompose  $U$ ,  $U$  is convex hull of

our certain objective of LO  $U$

$\min_{x \in U} \{c^T x + d : Ax \leq b, \forall (a, b) \in U\}$

$\Rightarrow U = U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_m$

i.e.,  $a_i^T x \leq b_i \wedge (a_i, b_i) \in U_i$

(C)  $x$  is robust feasible solution

$$- \bar{a}_i^T x = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \leq b_i$$

$$\leq \sum_j a_{ij} b_j = b_i$$

$$- [\bar{a}_i^T \bar{b}_i] \in \text{conv}(U_i)$$

we loose nothing when considering sets  $U_i$  are closed!

(D) avoid adding slack variables

i.e., avoid converting  $\geq$  to  $\leq$

• eliminate state variables

• sometimes a good idea to RO suboptimality modeling requires eliminating "state" variables — those which are readily given by variables representing actual decisions — via the corresponding "state equations"

Example: Time dynamics of an inventory is given in the simplest case by the state equations

$$x_t = x_{t-1} + u_t, t = 0, 1, \dots, T$$

A wise approach to the RO proceeding would be to eliminate the state variables

$x_t$  by setting:

$$x_t = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} u_i + 0, 1, \dots, T$$

△ NP hard

$U$  is infinite,

— computationally intractable

— NP-hard

△ Traceability Analysis.

↓

△ chance constraint

↳ stochastic

↳ stochastic major

↳ robust programming

△ review

— stochastic

— robust (before dimen.)

## Traceability Analysis

- as  $U$  has infinite elements
- has NP-hardness
- has computational intractability
- do traceability analysis

The RC of the uncertain LO problem with uncertainty set  $U$  is computationally tractable whenever the convex uncertainty set  $U$  itself is computationally tractable.

The latter means that we know in advance the affine hull of  $U$ , a point from the relative interior of  $U$ , and we have access to an efficient membership oracle that, given a point  $u$ , reports whether  $u \in U$ .

An efficient convex representation of  $U$  is called a **safe convex approximation** of  $U$ . It is a convex set  $S$  such that  $S \subseteq U$  and  $S$  contains all points  $u \in U$  for which  $\mathbb{P}\{u \in U\} > 0$ . This means that  $S$  is a safe convex approximation of  $U$  if  $\mathbb{P}\{u \in S\} = 1$ .

Implementation of a membership oracle depends on the choice of how the uncertainty set  $U$  is defined. Some common ways are discussed below.

Big-constraint

$\Delta \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax \leq b\} \subseteq U$

$$U = \{[a, b] = [a^0, b^0] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n [a^i, b^i] : \{a^i, b^i\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}\}$$

⇒ tractable representation

$$Ax \leq b \wedge \forall \{a^i, b^i\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

↳ tractable representation

$\Delta \{z \in \mathbb{R}^L : \|z\|_\infty \leq 1\}$

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{j=1}^L |x_j| \leq 1\}$$

⇒ tractable representation

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## Statistical Estimation

### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Maximum Likelihood Estimator

Liverpool won 39/38 last year  
What is the winning probability in next year?

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = \frac{39}{38} \rightarrow \text{this is MLE}$$

However, the average winning percentage is 50% actually 50% for the past 10 years. Is your guess still  $\hat{\theta}$ ?

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{2} \sim \frac{39}{38} \rightarrow \text{this is MAP}$$

$\Delta$  MLE (what would best describe my data)

assume binomial distribution

$$P(k|n|\theta) = \binom{n}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{n-k}$$

read: the prob of  $k$  wins given a winning model (modeling)

let's say  $\theta = 0.1$

$$\Rightarrow P(\text{39/38} | \theta=0.1) = 2.1 \times 10^{-11}$$

似然度数  
似有  $2.1 \times 10^{-11}$  的似然度数

$\theta=0.1$  是 1D model

似有  $2.1 \times 10^{-11}$  的似然度数

39/38 似然度数

$\Delta$  maximize  $P(D|\theta)$ !

$$\frac{dP(D|\theta)}{d\theta} = \left[ \binom{38}{k} (\theta^{k+1}(1-\theta)^{38-k}) - (\binom{38}{k-1} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{37}) \right]$$

$$= \binom{38}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{38-k} (\ln(\theta) + \ln(1-\theta))$$

$$= 0$$

$$\text{If } \theta = 0.1, \frac{dP}{d\theta} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{39/38} = 78.9\%$$

$\Delta$  MAP

can be useful when prior is weak

e.g.  $\min \frac{1}{\theta} \max \frac{1}{\theta}$

$$\text{MLE} = 100\%$$

$\hookrightarrow$  variability avg winning prob

$\hookrightarrow$  use prior mean of 50%

$$\rightarrow \arg \max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \arg \max_{\theta} \frac{P(D|\theta) P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \arg \max_{\theta} P(D|\theta) P(\theta)$$

Let  $P(\theta)$  be beta distribution

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

conjugate prior of binomial is beta



A conjugate prior is a prior distribution that, when combined with a likelihood function, results in a posterior distribution from the same family of distributions. In other terms, it's a prior distribution that, when updated with data using Bayes' theorem, conveniently remains in the same family of distributions.

For example, if you're estimating something like the mean of a normal distribution and you choose a normal distribution as your prior, the posterior distribution will also be normal. This makes calculating much easier because you can update your prior belief with new data.

Conjugate priors are particularly useful because they can simplify the Bayesian analysis process by allowing for closed-form solutions rather than requiring computationally intensive methods like Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling. However, conjugate priors are not always realistic or appropriate for all situations, and there are many more non-conjugate priors or non-standard priors like MCMC that are necessary.

Using the Beta distribution as the prior is advantageous because when combined with the binomial likelihood function for data, the resulting posterior distribution is also a Beta distribution. This makes updating or beliefs about what we observed data straightforward and computationally efficient.

$$P(D|\theta, \alpha, \beta) = \binom{38}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{38-k} \frac{(\Gamma(\alpha+\beta))^{-1} (\theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1})}{\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)}$$

$$= \binom{38}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{38-k} (\alpha-1) \theta^{\alpha-2} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

$$= \binom{38}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{38-k} (\alpha-1) \theta^{\alpha-2} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1} (\alpha-1) \theta^{\alpha-2} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

$$= \binom{38}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{38-k} (\alpha-1) \theta^{\alpha-2} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

$$= 0$$

$$\theta = \frac{k+\alpha-1}{n+\alpha+\beta-2}$$

In this example, assuming we use  $\alpha=10$  and  $\beta=10$ , then  $\theta=(30+10)/(38+10)=69.4\%$

$\Delta$  Binomial Distribution



$\hookrightarrow$   $n=10$ ,  $p=0.5$

$\hookrightarrow$   $n=10$ ,  $p=0.2$

$\hookrightarrow$   $n=10$ ,  $p=0.8$

$\hookrightarrow$   $n=10$ ,  $p=0.1$

$\hookrightarrow$   $n=10$ ,  $p=0.9$

### Histogram density estimator

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= [0, \frac{1}{M}] \\ B_2 &= [\frac{1}{M}, \frac{2}{M}] \\ &\vdots \\ B_M &= [\frac{M-1}{M}, 1] \end{aligned}$$

M no. of bins  
n = no. of samples  
w = width of each bin

$$\hat{P}_n(x) = \frac{1}{n w} \sum_{i=1}^n I(x_i \in B_j)$$

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△ Dynamical Systems

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

$$e^A = \exp A$$

$$= I + A + \frac{1}{2!} A^2 + \frac{1}{3!} A^3 + \frac{1}{4!} A^4 \dots$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{df}{dx}(a)(x-a)$$

$$+ \frac{d^2f}{dx^2}(a)(x-a)^2$$

$$+ \frac{d^3f}{dx^3}(a)(x-a)^3$$

e.g.

$$f(x) = \sin(x) \text{ at } a=0$$

$$= \sin(0) + \cos(0)x + -\sin(0) \cdot \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$f(x) = \cos(x) \text{ at } a=0$$

$$= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$e^{ix} = 1 + ix + \frac{(ix)^2}{2!} + \frac{(ix)^3}{3!}$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{-x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots\right)$$

$$+ i \left( ix - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{ix^5}{5!} + \dots\right)$$

$$= \cos x + i \sin x$$