

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 m² 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 > 20%

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

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1500% loss

1550% loss

1600% loss

1650% loss

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1850% loss

1900% loss

1950% loss

2000% loss

2050% loss

2100% loss

2150% loss

2200% loss

2250% loss

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13000% loss

13050% loss

13100% loss

13150% loss

13200% loss

13250% loss

13300% loss

13350% loss

13400% loss

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 first 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 form, because it produces better integer solutions due to the exact balancing of resources.

In practice, the second stage is more complex and because it involves flexibility and allows for a broader range of choices, advanced, it makes decision-making for uncertainty and manage risks effectively. By setting constraints as inequalities, the model allows for a buffer to accommodate variations in the uncertain parameters without violating feasibility.

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 \mathcal{Y} of \mathbf{y} based on the output of $\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{T}\mathbf{x}$

now

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

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

$$\mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

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

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

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

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

$$\text{basic defn } D$$

$$U = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \begin{bmatrix} c^T & d \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} : \right.$$

$$\exists z \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$

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. This is often not the case in practice. In fact, the decision maker 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 will be feasible.

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

△ observation

(A) RC scenario w/ epigraph

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{x \in U} \{z : c^T x + d \leq z \\ & \quad \forall (c, d, a, b) \in U\} \end{aligned}$$

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

(C) x is robust feasible solution

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

$$- [\bar{a}_1^T \bar{a}_2^T \dots \bar{a}_m^T] \in \text{conv}(U)$$

we loose nothing when assuming

sets U_i are closed!

(D) avoid adding slack variables

i.e., avoid converting imp. \rightarrow eq.

• eliminate state variables

Some times a good idea to RO methodology: 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

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

A wise approach to the RO proceeding would be 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 dinner)

Traceability Analysis

- as U has infinite elements
- has NP-hardness
- has computational tractability
- 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 is an affine hull representation of U that is a linear combination of a few points in U plus a linear combination of non-negative vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .

Such representations are called "safe convex approximations" and are used to reduce the complexity of the problem.

It is important to note that the affine hull of U is not necessarily unique.

For example, the affine hull of U is the same as the affine hull of U' if and only if $U' \subseteq U$.

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Chance constraints

robust optimization

recall

$$\{ax \leq b\}_{a,b} \in U$$

where

$$U = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a^T & b \\ A & b \end{bmatrix} : a^T x \leq b \right\}$$

randomly drawn

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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 $\hat{\theta}$?

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

Δ 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 2.1×10^{-11} 的似然度数

$\theta=0.1$ 是 1D model

似有 2.1×10^{-11} 的似然度数

39/38 似然度数

Δ maximize $P(D|\theta)$!

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

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

$$= 0$$

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

Δ 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 the posterior distribution 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 the belief about the parameter of interest much straightforward and computationally efficient.

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

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

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

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

$$= 0$$

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

In this example, assuming we use $\alpha=10$ and $\beta=10$, then $\theta=(30+10)/(38+10-2)=30/50=60\%$

Δ Binomial Distribution



Histogram density estimator

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

$$\hat{P}_M(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{B_i}(x)$$

$$P_M(x) = f(x; \hat{\theta})$$

$$\hat{P}_M(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{B_i}(x)$$

$$\text{bin width} = \frac{1}{M}$$

$$\text{no. of samples} = n$$

$$\text{width of each bin} = \frac{1}{M}$$

$$\text{M: no. of bins}$$

$$\text{N: no. of samples}$$

$$\text{w: width of each bin}$$

$$\text{p: bin width}$$

$$\text{prob of } x \in B_i = \frac{1}{M}$$

$$\text{prob of } x \in B_i = \frac{1}{M}</math$$

△ 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.

$$f(x) = \sin(x) \quad @ \quad a=0$$

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

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

$$f(x) = \cos(x) \quad @ \quad a=0$$

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

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

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

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

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

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