Scenario Generation and Sampling Methods

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Let's Start with a Recap

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Sample Average Approximation

We want to solve the "true" problem

$$\min_{x \in X} \left\{ g(x) := \mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)] \right\},$$
 (SP)

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We want to solve the "true" problem

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but it is typically very difficult or impossible to solve.

Generate a sample $\{\xi^1, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^N\}$ and solve the Sample Average Approximation (SAA):

$$\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \hat{g}_N(x) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N G(x, \xi^j) \right\}.$$
 (SP_N)

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Sample Average Approximation

Recall

$$x^* :=$$
 an optimal solution of (SP)
 $S^* :=$ the set of optimal solutions of (SP)
 $\nu^* :=$ the optimal value of (SP)

and

$$\hat{x}_N :=$$
 an optimal solution of (SP_N)
 $S_N :=$ the set of optimal solutions of (SP_N)
 $\nu_N :=$ the optimal value of (SP_N)

View (x^*, S^*, ν^*) as "statistical estimators" of (\hat{x}_N, S_N, ν_N)

So far... **Standard Monte Carlo**: $\{\xi^1, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^N\}$ generated independent and identically distributed (iid) as ξ

And... Looked at the properties of statistical estimators

- Negative Bias: $\mathbb{E}[\nu_N] \leq \nu^*$
- Strong Consistency: e.g., $\nu_N \rightarrow \nu^*$, w.p.1.
- Rates of Convergence: e.g., $\sqrt{N}(\nu_N - \nu^*) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Normal}(0, \sigma(x^*))$
- Large Deviations; Exponential Rates of Convergence; ...

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• Consider $g(x) = \mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]$ for a fixed $x \in X$.

• Estimate
$$g(x)$$
 by $\hat{g}_N(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N G(x,\xi^j)$

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- Estimate g(x) by $\hat{g}_N(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N G(x,\xi^j)$
- For illustration purposes, suppose we provide a Confidence Interval (CI) on the value of g(x) as

$$\left[\hat{g}_{\mathcal{N}}(x) - 2\sqrt{\mathsf{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{\mathcal{N}}(x)\right]}, \ \hat{g}_{\mathcal{N}}(x) + 2\sqrt{\mathsf{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{\mathcal{N}}(x)\right]}\right]$$

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Suppose we have 2 estimators:

Estimator	$\mathbf{\hat{g}}_{N}(\mathbf{x})$	Var[$\mathbf{\hat{g}_{N}}(\mathbf{x})]$	CI
1	10	25	[0, 20]
2	10	0.25	[9, 11]

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Which one is preferable? Clearly...

Suppose we use standard Monte Carlo with iid $\{\xi^1, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^N\}$. In this case:

$$\operatorname{Var}[\hat{g}_N(x)] = \operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^N G(x,\xi^j)\right] = \frac{\operatorname{Var}[G(x,\xi)]}{N}.$$

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So... to decrease variance we can increase the sample size N

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NOTE: Although $Var[G(x, \xi)]$ is typically unknown, it can be estimated by a sample variance as follows:

$$S_N^2(x) := rac{\sum_{j=1}^N [G(x,\xi^j) - \hat{g}_N(x)]^2}{N-1}$$

The above estimator is unbiased, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[S_N^2(x)] = Var[G(x,\xi)]$.

However, increasing the sample size is not desirable:

- Estimation of $G(x,\xi^j)$ for a fixed $x \in X$ could be very expensive
- When we also optimize (min_{x∈X} ĝ_N(x)), computational burden of optimization can significantly increase with N

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WANT: decrease variance without increasing sample size

- A well studied topic in statistics and simulation
- When we optimize $\min_{x \in X} \hat{g}_N(x)$, variance reduction can be more important
- Poor estimates of objective and/or gradients can slow down the convergence of Monte Carlo simulation-based methods

Variance Reduction Techniques

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We will discuss:

- Antithetic Variates
- Latin Hypercube Sampling
- Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC) and Randomized QMC

- Importance Sampling
- Control Variates

We will:

- Introduce these techniques in the context of estimating $G(x,\xi)$ for a fixed $x \in X$
- Point to literature that uses them for stochastic optimization
- Discuss the properties of resulting statistical esimators when used in the context of stochastic optimization

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Some common themes to reduce variance:

- Exploitation of Correlations
- Sampling more "uniformly" than random sampling (or "filling in the space better")

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Oncentrating the sampling to important regions

Antithetic Variates (AV)

Suppose N is even and components of ξ are independent:

- Sample observations { U¹, ..., U^{N/2} } from a U(0,1)^{d_ξ} distribution.
- **2** Calculate the antithetic pairs $\{U^{1'}, \ldots, U^{\frac{N'}{2}}\} = \{1 U^1, \ldots, 1 U^{\frac{N}{2}}\}.$
- Apply the inverse cumulative distribution function to obtain N observations {ξ¹, ξ^{1'}, ξ², ξ^{2'}..., ξ^{N/2}, ξ^{N/2'}}.

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AV estimator of $\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]$ is:

$$\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{AV}}(x) = rac{1}{N/2} \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} rac{G(x,\xi^j) + G(x,\xi^{j'})}{2}$$

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• Unbiased: $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{AV}}(x)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[G(x,\xi)\right]$

• Has variance:

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{AV}}(x)\right] = \underbrace{\frac{\operatorname{Var}\left[G(x,\xi)\right]}{N}}_{\operatorname{Var of Standard MC!}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{N}\operatorname{Cov}\left[G(x,\xi^{j}),G(x,\xi^{j'})\right]}_{\operatorname{If Cov<0, AV reduces var!}}$$

The amount of variance reduction depends on how much negative correlation between U and U' is preserved when:

- (i) Transforming to ξ and ξ'
- (ii) Applying $G(x, \cdot)$

It is well known that $G(x, \cdot)$ preserves negative correlation when:

(i) $G(x, \cdot)$ is bounded and monotone in each component of ξ

(ii) $G(x, \cdot)$ is not constant in the interior of Ξ

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When do we have monotononicity?



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Example: Two-stage stochastic linear programs with recourse

$$\min_{x} \mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)] = \mathbb{E}[cx + h(x,\xi)]$$

s.t. $Ax = b, x \ge 0,$

where $h(x,\xi)$ is the optimal value of the linear program

$$h(x,\xi) = \min_{y} \quad \tilde{q}y$$

s.t. $Wy \ge \tilde{r} - Tx, \quad y \ge 0.$

Here, ξ is a random vector that is comprised of random elements of \tilde{q} , \tilde{r} .

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Example Cont'd: Two-Stage Stochastic Linear Programs are Monotone when:

- The recourse matrix W is fixed
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Be careful! AV can backfire

hows when monotonicity is lost, AV can increase variance

When used for optimization:

• nalytically show the extent of variance reduction using AV on a newsvendor problem

- Decreases bias of ν_N ($\mathbb{E}[\nu_N] \leq \nu^*$)
- Can increase or decrease variance depending on parameters
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Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS)

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Idea: use statified sampling but in a less computationally intensive way

Suppose components of ξ are independent:

- For each component of $\tilde{\xi}$:
 - 1.1 Sample observations $U^i \sim U(\frac{i-1}{N}, \frac{i}{N})$ for $i = 1, \dots, N$.
 - 1.2 Randomly permute these N observations.
- Apply the inverse cumulative distribution function to obtain {ξ¹,...,ξ^N}.

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Example: Dimension $d_{\xi} = 2$ and sample size N = 4



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 is unbiased: $\mathbb{E}\left[G(x, \xi_{\mathcal{L}}^{j})\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[G(x, \xi)\right]$

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- However, $G(x,\xi^j_{\mathcal{L}})$, $j=1,2\ldots N$ are not independent!

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- More generally

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{LHS}}(x)\right] \leq \frac{N}{N-1} \operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{N}(x)\right]$$

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• Inalytically show the extent of variance reduction using on a newsvendor problem

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 - Completely removes bias of ν_N (𝔼 [ν_N] = ν^{*}) −A really nice side effect!
 - Decreases variance considerably
- Many studies show LHS effectively reduces variance and bias for several classes of stochastic programs; e.g., (22)?)

Quasi-Monte Carlo (QMC) and Randomized Quasi-Monte Carlo (RQMC)

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Idea: use a low-discrepancy sequence to sample more uniformly. The sequence doesn't have to be independent or random.



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(Image: Homem-de-Mello and Bayraksan (2014))

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Many different ways to generate these sequences:

- Sobol'
- Niederreiter
- Lattice rules
- Digital nets and sequences
- . . .

For simplicity, we will assume ξ is a random vector with independent components, each with uniform distribution over [0, 1]

How to measure the quality (or "uniformity") of these sequences?

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Star Discrepancy

- Consider a d_{ξ} dimensional unit cube $[0,1)^{d_{\xi}}$
- A point set $P = \{\xi^j\}_{j=1}^\infty$ inside $[0,1)^{d_\xi}$
- P_N denotes the first N points from the point set P
- Consider hyper-rectangles with a corner at the origin

$$B(\mathbf{v}) = \mathsf{\Pi}_{i=1}^{d_{\xi}}[0, v_i]$$

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where **v** is a vector $(v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_{d_{\xi}})$

Star Discrepancy is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance between the point set and the uniform distribution over the unit cube:

$$D^*(P_N) := \sup_{\mathbf{v} \in [0,1)^{d_{\xi}}} \left| \frac{\text{Number of } \xi^j \in B(\mathbf{v})}{N} - \prod_{i=1}^{d_{\xi}} v_i \right|$$

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Example (Lemieux, 2009):



 $v_1=0.4,~v_2=0.7$ and 6/23 points inside the box, gives a discrepancy of $|6/23-0.4\times0.7|=0.019$

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- Koksma-Hlawka inequality gives a bound on the error

$$|\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{QMC}}(x) - g(x)| \leq D^*(P_N)V(G(x,\cdot))$$

where $V(G(x, \cdot))$ is the total variation in the sense of Hardy and Krause

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So if $V(G(x, \cdot)) < \infty$ and we use a low-discrepancy sequence

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- For large d_{ξ} , QMC can backfire! (esp. with low N)

Low-Discrepancy Sequences

So if $V(G(x, \cdot)) < \infty$ and we use a low-discrepancy sequence

$$|\hat{g}_{N, ext{QMC}}(x) - g(x)| \in O\left(rac{(\log N)^{d_{arepsilon}}}{N}
ight)$$

Compare with Standard Monte Carlo error bound: $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\right)$

Observations:

- MC error bound is free of dimension
- If N is large and d_{ξ} is small, then, QMC is expected to give a better approximation
- For large d_{ξ} , QMC can backfire! (esp. with low N)
- One way to deal with this is to find the "effective" dimension of the problem and use LHS or Standard MC on the other dimensions; e.g., (Drew and Homem-de-Mello, 2006; Drew, 2007)

Koksma-Hlawka inequality is difficult to compute, is only a bound; so, how to know the errors?

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We want the randomization to be performed so that

(i) Each point follows Uniform distribution over the unit cube

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Many different ways to do randomization

- Random shift
- Digital shift (for digital nets)
- Scrambling and Permutations, ...

Generate a random vector $\mathbf{u} \sim U([0.1)^{d_{\xi}})$

Let

$$ilde{\xi}^j = (\xi^j + \mathbf{u}) \mod 1$$

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RQMC: Estimation of Error

Generate *m* iid RQMC sequences \tilde{P}_N

$$\hat{g}^{I}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} G(x, \tilde{\xi}^{j}), \quad I = 1, 2, \dots m$$

and use the estimator

$$\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}(x) = rac{1}{m} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}'(x)$$

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and use the estimator

$$\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}^{l}(x)$$

- This estimator is unbiased: $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}(x)\right] = g(x)$
- And the error can be estimated through the variance

$$\frac{1}{m-1}\sum_{l=1}^{m}\left(\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}^{l}(x)-\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{RQMC}}(x)\right)^{2}$$

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Importance Sampling (IS)

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Importance Sampling: Motivation

Idea: Concentrate samples to most important areas. Especially can be useful for "rare" events.



$$\mathsf{CVaR}_{1-\alpha}[\mathsf{G}(\mathsf{x},\xi)] = \min_{\eta} \left\{ \eta + \frac{1}{\alpha} \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathsf{G}(\mathsf{x},\xi) - \eta)_{+} \right] \right\}$$

If $\alpha = 0.05$, 95% of the standard Monte Carlo samples do not contribute to positive values in this expectation!

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IS: How does it work?

For simplicity, suppose ξ has density f. Then,

$$g(x) = \mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)] = \int_{\Xi} G(x,\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$

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Now consider another density q over Ξ such that q(E) = 0 for every set E for which f(E) = 0 and rewrite

$$\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)] = \int_{\Xi} G(x,\xi) \mathcal{L}(\xi) q(\xi) d\xi$$

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$$\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)] = \int_{\Xi} G(x,\xi) \mathcal{L}(\xi) q(\xi) d\xi$$

Here, $\mathcal{L}(\xi) = \frac{f(\xi)}{q(\xi)}$ is the likelihood ratio, which we assume is well defined

(for this, we may set \mathcal{L} to zero whenever both f and q are zero).

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Standard MC: iid sample $\{\xi^1, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^N\}$ from density fImportance Sampling: iid sample $\{\tilde{\xi}_q^1, \tilde{\xi}_q^2, \dots, \tilde{\xi}_q^N\}$ from density q

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The importance sampling estimator:

$$\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{IS}}(x) = rac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} G(x, \tilde{\xi}_q^j) \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\xi}_q^j)$$

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• Unbiased: $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{IS}}(x)\right] = g(x)$

How to obtain q?



How to obtain q?

 \rightarrow To reduce variance! To understand this better, let's take a look at the variance of the IS estimator.

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Consider the following facts:

- $\mathbb{E}[G(x, \tilde{\xi}_q)\mathcal{L}(\tilde{\xi}_q)] = \mathbb{E}[G(x, \xi)]$
- $\mathbb{E}[G^2(x, \tilde{\xi}_q)\mathcal{L}^2(\tilde{\xi}_q)] = \mathbb{E}[G^2(x, \xi)\mathcal{L}(\xi)]$
- Therefore, the variance of the IS estimator is

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{IS}}(x)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \left[\mathbb{E}[G^2(x,\xi)\mathcal{L}(\xi)] - (\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)])^2 \right],$$

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 \rightarrow Reduce Variance when $\mathbb{E}[G^2(x,\xi)\mathcal{L}(\xi)] < \mathbb{E}[G^2(x,\xi)]$

When $G(x, \cdot) \ge 0$, setting $Var[\hat{g}_{N,IS}(x)] = 0$ results in the **optimal** zero-variance density

$$\mathbf{q}^*(\xi) = \frac{f(\xi)G(x,\xi)}{\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]}$$

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Too good to be true?



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$$\mathbf{q}^*(\xi) = \frac{f(\xi)G(x,\xi)}{\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]}$$

Too good to be true? YES! Requires knowledge of unknown quantity!

Nevertheless, select q

$$q(\xi) \propto f(\xi)G(x,\xi)$$

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to achieve variance reduction even though the proportionality constant may not be known

BE Careful! If *q* is not chosen properly, IS can backfire! Can actually increase the variance!



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Also q should be easy to sample from



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Also q should be easy to sample from

Many different ways to obtain the IS distribution

- Exponential Tilting
- Using Large Deviations
- Nonparametric methods, ...
- Exploit the problem structure
- Still an open area of research

Kozmík and Morton (2015) apply IS to solve multistage stochastic programs with Mean-CVaR objectives. Here is a 'gist':

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- Suppose ξ has a finite support, taking $|\Xi|$ realizations
- The 'nominal' distribution puts equal mass on each point. The nominal probability mass function (pmf) is: f(ξ) = 1/|Ξ|

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- Suppose ξ has a finite support, taking $|\Xi|$ realizations
- The 'nominal' distribution puts equal mass on each point. The nominal probability mass function (pmf) is: f(ξ) = 1/|=|
- Instead of the expensive evaluations G(x, ξ), suppose there is a good approximation function H(x, ξ) that:

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- estimates the value of $G(x,\xi)$ cheaply and
- orders the values $G(x,\xi)$ in the same way

• Suppose at a given x, the Value at Risk at level $1 - \alpha$ of the approximation function is obtained \rightarrow Let's denote it V_H

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- Suppose at a given x, the Value at Risk at level 1α of the approximation function is obtained \rightarrow Let's denote it V_H
- The 'IS' pmf is

$$g(\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{|\alpha| \Xi|}, & \xi : H(x, \xi) \ge V_H \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{|\Xi| - \lfloor \alpha| \Xi|}, & \xi : H(x, \xi) < V_H \end{cases}$$

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- Barrera et al. (2016) apply IS to a chance constrained problem with rare probabilities.
- They show consistency of the SAA problem formed using IS (optimal values converge, etc.)
- They make two important improvements:
 - The IS distribution typically depends on ξ . They enhance it to depend on x as well.

- Find an IS distribution that works for a set of x
- Adapted IS yields significantly better results, but the resulting problem can get difficult to solve

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Think of $\mathcal{L}_{x}(\xi)$ instead of $\mathcal{L}(\xi)$

- Find an IS distribution that works for a set of x
- Adapted IS yields significantly better results, but the resulting problem can get difficult to solve

Control Variates (CV)

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Let C be a *control variable* with

- $\mathbb{E}[C] = 0$
- C is correlated with $G(x,\xi)$ —can be positively or negatively correlated

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With λ a scalar, the control variate estimator of $\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]$ is given by

$$\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x) = rac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left(G(x,\xi^j) + \lambda C^j \right)$$

The CV estimator (for a given λ):

• Unbiased: $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x)\right] = g(x)$

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- Has variance:

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \left(\sigma^{2}(x) + \lambda^{2} \operatorname{Var}[C] + 2\lambda \operatorname{Cov}[G(x,\xi),C]\right)$$

where $\sigma^{2}(x) = \operatorname{Var}\left[G(x,\xi)\right]$

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where $\sigma^{2}(x) = Var\left[G(x,\xi)\right]$

 \bullet We can minimize this variance by setting λ to

$$\lambda^* = \frac{-\operatorname{Cov}[G(x,\xi),C]}{\operatorname{Var}[C]}.$$

Plug λ^* back in:

$$\mathsf{Var}[\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}^*(x)] = \frac{1}{N} \left(\sigma^2(x) - \frac{\mathrm{Cov}^2[\mathcal{G}(x,\xi),\mathcal{C}]}{\mathsf{Var}[\mathcal{C}]} \right)$$

If C and $G(x,\xi)$ are correlated, the variance of the CV estimator is less than the variance of the standard MC estimator

Plug λ^* back in:

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If C and $G(x,\xi)$ are correlated, the variance of the CV estimator is less than the variance of the standard MC estimator

Can be estimated, but when an estimator of λ^* is used:

- $\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x)$ No longer unbiased
- Can still yield significant variance reduction
- Obeys a Central Limit Theorem (CLT) of the form (Nelson, 1990)

 $\sqrt{N}\left(\hat{g}_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x) - \mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]\right) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathrm{Normal}(0,\mathsf{Var}[\hat{g}^*_{N,\mathrm{CV}}(x)])$

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CV: Use in Optimization

Use in Optimization: Only for a **fixed** $x \in X$ to estimate $\mathbb{E}[G(x,\xi)]$ or its subgradients, etc.

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Example (Pierre-Louis et al., 2011): Consider two-stage stochastic programs of the form:

$$\min_{x\in X} \{g(x) := c(x) + \mathbb{E}[Q(x,\xi)]\},\$$

where

$$egin{aligned} Q(x,\xi) &= & \min_{y\geq 0} & q(y) \ & ext{ s.t. } & g(y) \leq h(\xi) - T(x,\xi). \end{aligned}$$

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CV: Example Use in Optimization

Assume:

- (A1) $Q(x, \cdot)$ is convex on $co(\Xi)$ for all $x \in X$;
- (A2) ξ has independent components, and $h(\cdot)$ and $T(x, \cdot)$ are affine on $\mathbb{R}^{d_{\xi}}$ for all $x \in X$.

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This class of problems could be:

- Two-Stage Stochastic Linear Program
- Two-Stage Stochastic Convex Program
- X can have integrality restrictions, leading to a Stochastic Integer Program

CV: Example Use in Optimization

Use the first-order Taylor approximation of $Q(x, \cdot)$ as the control random variable

$$C(x,\xi)=Q(x,ar{\xi})+
abla_{\xi}Q(x,ar{\xi})(\xi-ar{\xi})$$
 where $ar{\xi}=\mathbb{E}\left[\xi
ight]$



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To Sum Up...

Some change the way we Sample:

- Antithetic Variates
- Latin Hypercube Sampling
- Quasi-Monte Carlo (deterministic!)
- Randomized Quasi-Monte Carlo
- Importance Sampling

Some applied typically for a fixed x and exploits problem structure:

- Importance Sampling
- Control Variates

Some can backfire if not used properly:

- Antithetic Variates (if cannot induce negative correlation)
- Randomized Quasi-Monte Carlo (for high dimensions)
- Importance Sampling (if IS distribution not selected properly)

Can significantly improve the performance of SAA if used well (and sometimes with minimal effort)

How about properties of SAA with variance reduction?

Bias of
$$\nu_N$$
: Let $\xi^1, \xi^2, \ldots, \xi^N$ satisfy

$$\mathbb{E}\left[rac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}G(x,\xi^{j})
ight]=\mathbb{E}\left[G(x,\xi)
ight],\,\,orall x\in X$$

Then, $\mathbb{E}[\nu_N] \leq z^*$.

Unbiasedness condition above is satisfied by many variance reduction techniques we discussed: AV (with adjustments to estimator), LHS, RQMC, IS, CV (under certain conditions)

For AV, LHS, and RQMC Bias reduction have been observed.

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Then, $\mathbb{E}[\nu_N] \leq z^*$.

Unbiasedness condition above is satisfied by many variance reduction techniques we discussed: AV (with adjustments to estimator), LHS, RQMC, IS, CV (under certain conditions)

For AV, LHS, and RQMC Bias reduction have been observed.

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Strong Consistency of Resulting Estimators: For many of these Variance Reduction Techniques (VRT), under appropriate conditions:

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- AV: Because AV pairs $(\xi^j, \xi^{j'})$ are iid, results typically follow from iid case with modifications to notation
- LHS: Might require additional conditions. For instance, pointwise Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN) requires:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[(G(x,\xi))^2\right] < \infty$$

Conditions under which consistency results hold are discussed in, e.g., (Drew, 2007; Stockbridge, 2013).

• **RQMC:** One condition that is needed is that the star discrepancy of QMC sequence shrinks to zero

$$D^*(P_N)\searrow 0$$

as $N \nearrow \infty$. Then, through *epi-convergence* and under additional assumptions, consistency results are shown (Koivu, 2005)

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• QMC: Similar results through epi-convergence have been shown for QMC discretization, e.g, (Pennanen and Koivu, 2005)

Rates of Convergence of Optimal Values: can be obtained for a class of problems that satisfy (Homem-de-Mello, 2008):

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Assumption PLF

Suppose either

- (i) X is convex and compact polyhedron
- (ii) $G(\cdot,\xi)$ is convex and piecewise linear
- (iii) ξ has finite support

or X is finite.

Suppose assumption PLF holds and the "true" problem has a unique optimal solution x^* .

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Suppose CLT holds pointwise for estimators $\hat{g}_N(x)$, esp. at x^* :

$$\frac{\hat{g}_{N}(x^{*}) - g(x^{*})}{\sigma_{N}(x^{*})} \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathsf{Normal}(0,1)$$

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where $\sigma_N(x^*) = \operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_N(x^*)\right]$.

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where $\sigma_N(x^*) = \operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{g}_N(x^*)\right]$.

Then, optimal values also obey a CLT:

$$\frac{\nu_{N}-\nu^{*}}{\sigma_{N}(x^{*})} \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathsf{Normal}(0,1)$$

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Rates of Convergence

 Standard MC: We have seen earlier that the rate of convergence is O(N^{-1/2})

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Rates of Convergence

• **Standard MC:** We have seen earlier that the rate of convergence is $O(N^{-1/2})$

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• AV: Also by iid case above, $O(N^{-1/2})$

Rates of Convergence

- Standard MC: We have seen earlier that the rate of convergence is O(N^{-1/2})
- AV: Also by iid case above, $O(N^{-1/2})$
- LHS: Pointwise CLT for LHS holds when G is bounded

$$\sup_{x \in X, \xi \in \Xi} |G(x,\xi)| < M$$
 for some $0 < M < \infty$

and $G(x^*, \cdot)$ is not additive.

Then, rate of convergence is same as standard MC: $O(N^{-1/2})$

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• **RQMC:** For a RQMC where pointwise CLT holds, rate of convergence is

$$O\left(\left[\frac{(\log N)^{d_{\xi}-1}}{N^3}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)$$

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This rate is asymptotically better than standard MC.

Rates of Convergence of Optimal Solutions: have similar properties (Homem-de-Mello, 2008).

For simplicity, let's assume assumption PLF holds.



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For simplicity, let's assume assumption PLF holds. If exponential rate of convergence holds pointwise

$$P(|\hat{g}_N(x) - g(x)| \ge \delta) \le C_x e^{-N\gamma_x(\delta)}, \quad \forall x \in X$$

for all $N \ge 1$ and $\delta > 0$ with some constant $C_x > 0$ and function $\gamma_x(\cdot)$ such that $\gamma_x(0) = 0$ and $\gamma_x(z) > 0$ if z > 0

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Then,

$$P(\hat{x}_{N} \notin S^{*}) \leq K e^{-lpha N}$$
 for all $N \geq 1$

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 for all $N \geq 1$

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LHS: Pointwise large deviations results (i.e., exponential rates of convergence) holds, for instance, when $G(x, \cdot)$ is monotone in each component of ξ

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Some Final Remarks

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- Variance Reduction can be very important for optimization because it can significantly improve the statistical estimators
- Many asymptotic (and other) properties of SAA can be recovered when variance reduction techniques are used (sometimes, though, under more stringent conditions)
- If not used properly, some techniques may backfire
- Still more to do with respect to algorithmic (optimization wise) and application-based advances

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Thank you

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