

On Variance Reduction of Mean-CVaR Monte Carlo Estimators



Václav Kozmík

Faculty of Mathematics and Physics
Charles University in Prague

April 3, 2014

Outline

- Risk-Averse optimization
 - Mean-risk objectives with CVaR are often used
 - To solve complex models, we need to use approximations
 - Monte-Carlo methods
- Standard estimators are not convenient for mean-CVaR operators
 - They lead to high variance, due to the properties of CVaR
 - We propose a sampling scheme based on importance sampling
 - Analytically evaluated under the assumption of normal distribution
 - For general setup, algorithm is given to find a suitable sampling scheme
 - We validate our results with a numerical example, which uses Stochastic Dual Dynamic Programming algorithm



Basic model

- CVaR formula:

$$\text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z] = \min_u \left(u + \frac{1}{\alpha} \mathbb{E} [Z - u]_+ \right)$$

- Consider following mean-risk functional:

$$\mathcal{Q}_\alpha [Z] = (1 - \lambda) \mathbb{E} [Z] + \lambda \text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z]$$

- Z represents random losses
- convex sum: $\lambda \in [0, 1]$
- suppose that Z follows a pdf f
- Such functionals are present in many types of models, static cases, multistage cases
 - Wide range of applications of our sampling scheme



Standard Monte Carlo

- Standard Monte Carlo approach is not convenient for estimation of CVaR

Example

Consider the following estimator of $\text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z]$, where Z^1, Z^2, \dots, Z^M are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) from the distribution of Z :

$$\min_u \left(u + \frac{1}{\alpha M} \sum_{j=1}^M [Z^j - u]_+ \right).$$

If $\alpha = 0.05$ only about 5% of the samples contribute nonzero values to this estimator of CVaR.



Importance sampling

- Aims to solve the issues mentioned in previous example
- Suppose we want to compute $\mathbb{E} [Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)]$ with respect to the pdf f of the random variable Z
- Therefore: $\mathbb{E}_f [Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q(\mathbf{x}, z)f(z)dz$
- Choose another pdf g of some random variable and compute:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q(\mathbf{x}, z)f(z)dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q(\mathbf{x}, z)\frac{f(z)}{g(z)}g(z)dz = \mathbb{E}_g \left[Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)\frac{f(Z)}{g(Z)} \right]$$

- Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}_f [Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)] = \mathbb{E}_g \left[Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)\frac{f(Z)}{g(Z)} \right]$$



Importance sampling

- In the context of Monte Carlo, $\mathbb{E}_f [Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)]$ is replaced with:
 - Sample Z^1, Z^2, \dots, Z^M from distribution with pdf f
 - Compute

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j)$$

- The importance sampling scheme is as follows:
 - Sample Z^1, Z^2, \dots, Z^M from distribution with pdf g
 - Compute

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) \frac{f(Z^j)}{g(Z^j)}$$

- Function g should be chosen such that the variance of the sum above is minimal



Further variance reduction

- The term $w^j = \frac{f(Z^j)}{g(Z^j)}$ could be considered as a weight:

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) w^j$$

- In expectation, we have $\mathbb{E}[w^j] = 1$, but the term itself is random and has nonzero variance
- Replace the $M = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j=1}^M w^j\right]$ with the actual value:

$$\frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^M w^j} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) w^j$$



Further variance reduction

- We no longer have the expectation equality:

$$\mathbb{E}_g \left[\frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^M w^j} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) w^j \right] \neq \mathbb{E}_f \left[\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) \right]$$

- But we can show consistency:

$$\mathbb{E}_g \left[\frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^M w^j} \sum_{j=1}^M Q(\mathbf{x}, Z^j) w^j \right] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}_f [Q(\mathbf{x}, Z)], \text{ w.p. } 1,$$

as $M \rightarrow \infty$.

- The benefit is usually significant variance reduction over the standard importance sampling scheme



Mean-CVaR estimation

- What is a suitable importance sampling scheme for mean-CVaR?

$$Q_\alpha [Z] = (1 - \lambda) \mathbb{E} [Z] + \lambda \text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z]$$

- The functional clearly depends on all outcomes of Z
- We have observed that CVaR is hard to estimate with standard Monte Carlo approach
- We will divide the support of the distribution into two atoms:
 - “CVaR” atom
 - “non-CVaR” atom
- We can select the same weight for both atoms, but is it a reasonable choice?



Mean-CVaR estimation

- Since $\text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z] = \mathbb{E} [Z | Z > \text{VaR}_\alpha [Z]]$, we can easily define the “CVaR” atom
- Using the pdf f , we compute the value at risk $u_Z = \text{VaR}_\alpha [Z]$
 - the threshold can be also estimated using sampling
- The proposed importance sampling pdf is, with $\beta \in (0, 1)$:

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta}{\alpha} f(z), & \text{if } z \geq u_Z \\ \frac{1-\beta}{1-\alpha} f(z), & \text{if } z < u_Z \end{cases}$$

- We are more likely to draw sample observations above $\text{VaR}_\alpha [Z]$
- Suitable choice of β should be tailored to the values of α and λ



Variance reduction

- We define:

$$Q^s = (1 - \lambda) Z + \lambda \left(u_Z + \frac{1}{\alpha} [Z - u_Z]_+ \right)$$

$$Q^i = \frac{f}{g} \left((1 - \lambda) Z + \lambda \left(u_Z + \frac{1}{\alpha} [Z - u_Z]_+ \right) \right)$$

- It clearly holds $Q = \mathbb{E}_g [Q^i] = \mathbb{E}_f [Q^s]$
- Our aim is to minimize variance, e.g. finding suitable parameter β , so that $\text{var}_g [Q^i] < \text{var}_f [Q^s]$
- With another random variable, we will write Q_X^s, Q_X^i , etc.



Basic properties

- The variance of our importance sampling estimator is invariant to addition of a constant and scales well with transformations

Proposition

Let X, Y be random variables, $Y = X + \mu$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, f_X and f_Y the corresponding pdfs. Suppose that their importance sampling versions g_X and g_Y are defined using the same value of parameter β . Then $\text{var}_{g_Y} [Q_Y^i] = \text{var}_{g_X} [Q_X^i]$.

Proposition

Let X, Y be random variables, $Y = \sigma X$, $\sigma > 0$, f_X and f_Y the corresponding pdfs. Suppose that their importance sampling versions g_X and g_Y are defined using the same value of parameter β . Then $\text{var}_{g_Y} [Q_Y^i] = \sigma^2 \text{var}_{g_X} [Q_X^i]$.

Normal distribution

- We will now suppose that the losses follow normal distribution, with $\phi(x)$ as its pdf and $\Phi(x)$ its distribution function

Proposition

Let $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ be a random variable. In order to minimize the variance $\text{var}_g [Q_Z^i]$ the optimal value of the importance sampling parameter β can be obtained by solving the quadratic equation:

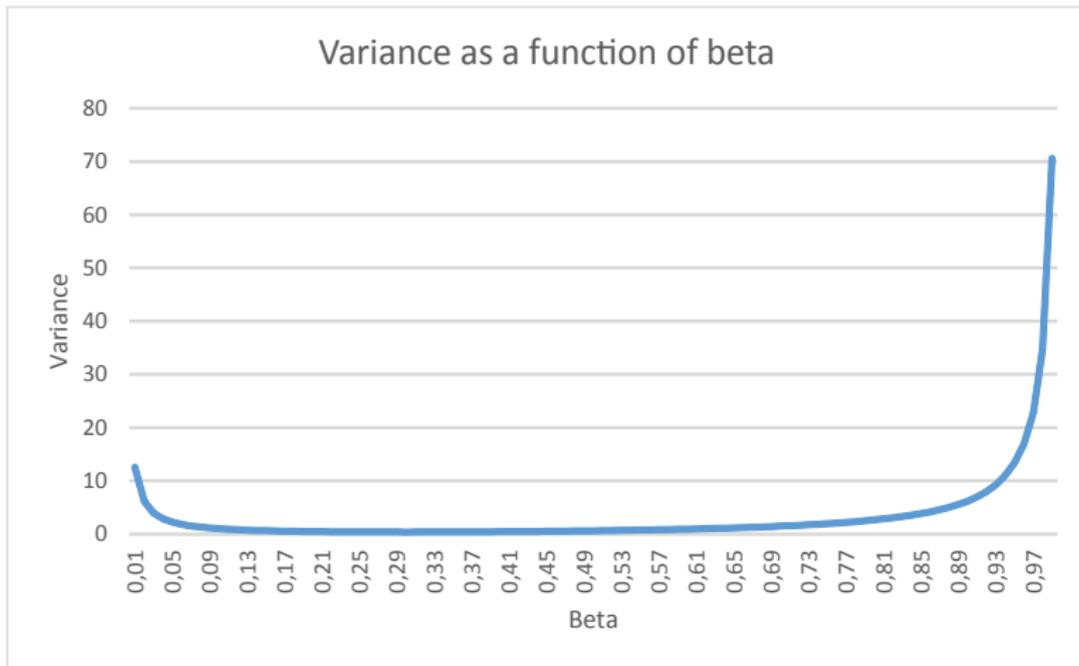
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\text{var}_g [Q_Z^i]) = 0$$



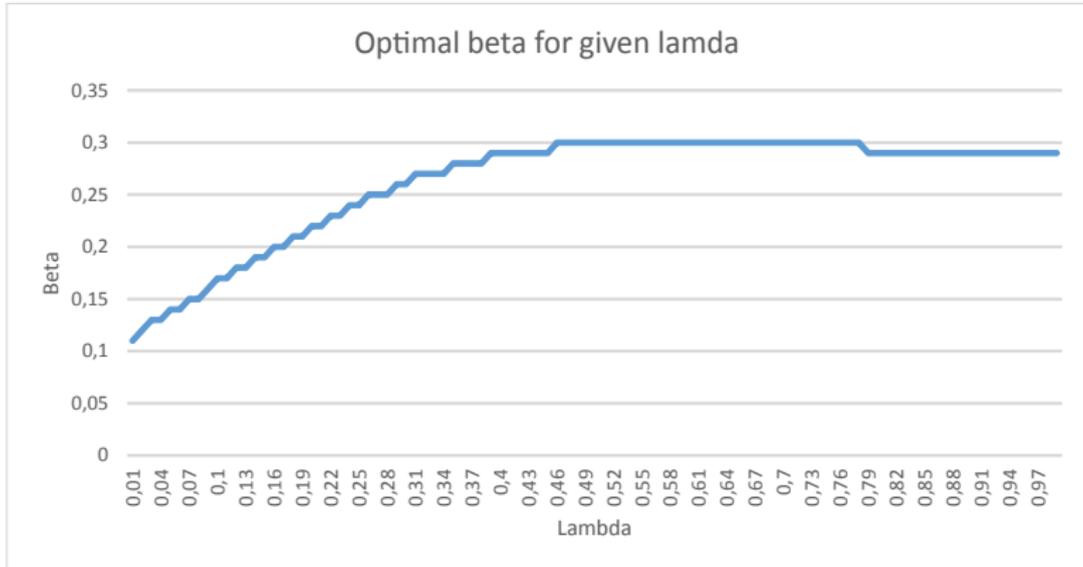
Normal distribution

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\dots) &= \frac{1 - \alpha}{(1 - \beta)^2} (1 - \lambda)^2 (1 - \alpha - u_Z \phi(u_Z)) \\ &\quad - \frac{\alpha}{\beta^2} (1 - \lambda)^2 (\alpha + u_Z \phi(u_Z)) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda^2}{\alpha \beta^2} (\alpha - u_Z \phi(u_Z) + u_Z^2 \alpha) \\ &\quad + \lambda^2 u_Z^2 \left(\frac{(1 - \alpha)^2}{(1 - \beta)^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{\beta^2} \right) \\ &\quad - 2 \frac{\lambda(1 - \lambda)\alpha}{\beta^2} + 2\lambda u_Z (1 - \lambda) \phi(u_Z) \left(-\frac{\alpha}{\beta^2} - \frac{1 - \alpha}{(1 - \beta)^2} \right) \\ &\quad + 2 \frac{\lambda^2}{\beta} u_Z (\phi(u_Z) - \alpha u_Z)\end{aligned}$$

Example - normal distribution with $\lambda = 0.5$



Example - normal distribution

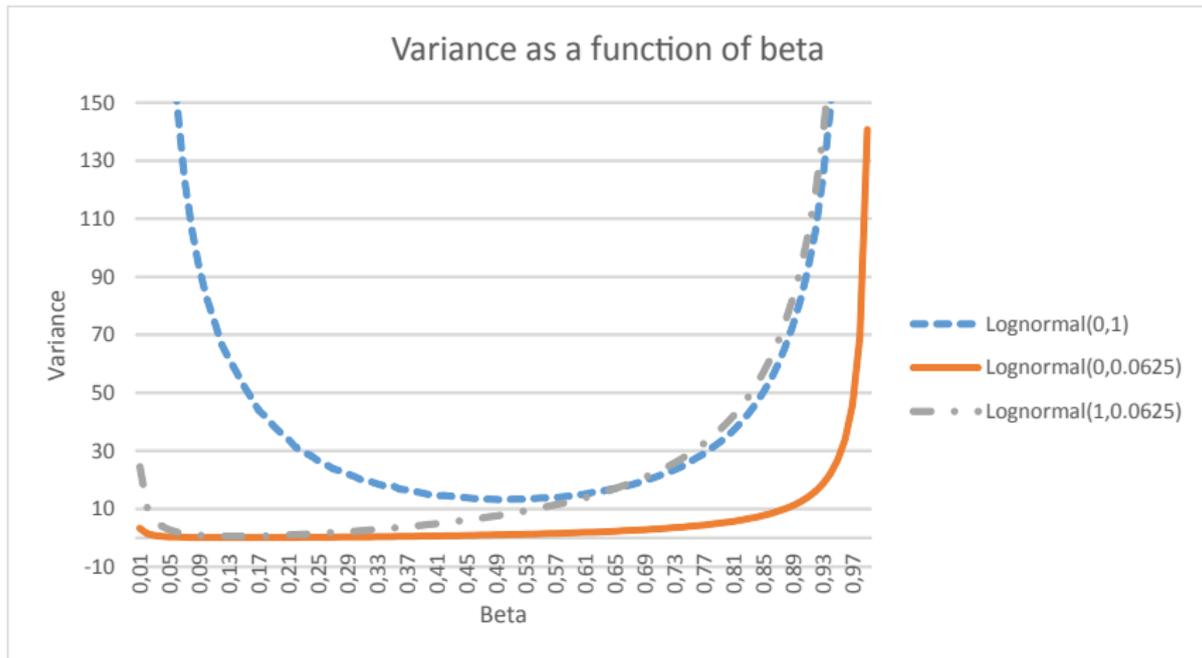


Other distributions

- For other distributions, the same analysis can be performed and the derivative computed
- If this is not possible due to the complexity of the evaluations, we can estimate the suitable β by sampling
 - We choose a mesh of possible values, e.g. $\mathcal{B} = \{0.01, 0.02, \dots, 0.99\}$
 - For each of them, we sample prescribed number of scenarios, Z^j
 - We compute the mean and variance of the values Q^j given by Z^j
 - The lowest variance is selected as a suitable choice of β
- In general, the solutions depend on the distribution parameters



Example - lognormal distribution



Risk-averse multistage model

- Inspired by Ruszczyński and Shapiro
- Given risk coefficients λ_t and random loss variable Z we define:

$$\rho_{t, \xi_{[t-1]}} [Z] = (1 - \lambda_t) \mathbb{E} [Z | \xi_{[t-1]}] + \lambda_t \text{CVaR}_{\alpha_t} [Z | \xi_{[t-1]}]$$

- Nested model can be written:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{x}_1 \geq 0} \mathbf{c}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1 + \rho_{2, \xi_{[1]}} & \left[\min_{\mathbf{B}_2 \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{x}_2 \geq 0} \mathbf{c}_2^\top \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots \right. \\ & \left. \dots + \rho_{T, \xi_{[T-1]}} \left[\min_{\mathbf{B}_T \mathbf{x}_{T-1} + \mathbf{A}_T \mathbf{x}_T = \mathbf{b}_T, \mathbf{x}_T \geq 0} \mathbf{c}_T^\top \mathbf{x}_T \right] \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Convex optimization problem
- We assume feasibility, relatively complete recourse and finite optimal value



Model properties

- Allows to develop dynamic programming equations, using:

$$\text{CVaR}_\alpha [Z] = \min_u \left[u + \frac{1}{\alpha} \mathbb{E} [Z - u]_+ \right]$$

- Denote $Q_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{\xi}_t)$, $t = 2, \dots, T$ as the optimal value of:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}_t, u_t} \mathbf{c}_t^\top \mathbf{x}_t + \lambda_{t+1} u_t + Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{x}_t, u_t)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \mathbf{B}_t \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{A}_t \mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{b}_t$$

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

- Recourse function is given by ($Q_{T+1}(\cdot) \equiv 0$):

$$Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{x}_t, u_t) = \mathbb{E} \left[(1 - \lambda_{t+1}) Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{x}_t, \boldsymbol{\xi}_{t+1}) + \frac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\alpha_{t+1}} [Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{x}_t, \boldsymbol{\xi}_{t+1}) - u_t]_+ \right]$$



Asset allocation model

- At stage t we observe the price ratio between the new price and the old price \mathbf{p}_t
- \mathbf{x}_t contains the optimal allocation (in USD, say)
- The total portfolio value is tracked as a multiple of the initial value
- Dynamic programming equations are very simple:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}_t, u_t} -\mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x}_t + \lambda_{t+1} u_t + Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{x}_t, u_t)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \mathbf{p}_t^\top \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x}_t = 0$$

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

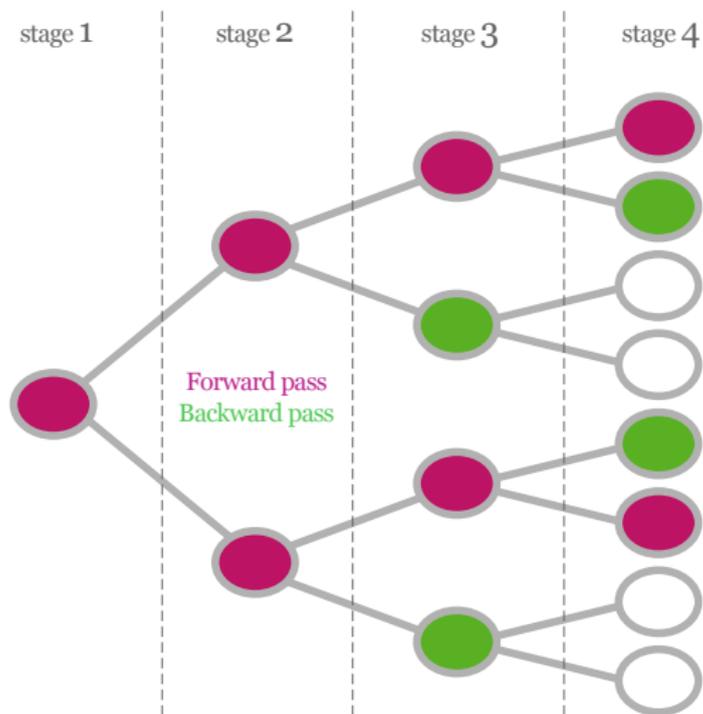


SDDP algorithm properties

- First designed to solve hydro-scheduling problems
- Relies on the stage-independence assumption
- Each iteration runs with linear complexity
- Provides approximate solution using Benders' cuts
 - Cuts provide polyhedral approximation of the recourse function
 - LP duality - subgradient computed from the dual variables
 - Lower bound
- Policy evaluation procedure
 - Upper bound
- Upper bound requires estimation
 - Precise calculation fails to scale with T
 - Algorithm stops if lower bound is close enough to confidence interval for the upper bound
 - rarely done in a statistically rigorous manner



SDDP scheme



SDDP algorithm outline

- Because of the stage independence, cuts collected at any node from the stage t are valid for all nodes from that stage
- Algorithm consists of forward and backward iterations
- Forward iteration
 - Samples ξ^1, \dots, ξ^J sample paths
 - Policy is evaluated using all the cuts collected so far
 - Value of the policy gives the upper bound
- Backward iteration
 - Subset of the scenarios from the forward iteration is chosen
 - For every chosen node the Benders' cut is calculated
 - Using all of its immediate descendants (not just scenarios from the forward pass)
 - Optimal value of the root problem gives the lower bound
- The bounds are compared and the process is repeated



Inter-stage independence

- In order to use SDDP some form of independence is required
 - Efficient algorithms usually rely on an inter-stage independence assumption
 - Otherwise, memory issues arise even for modest number of stages
- This assumption can be weakened
 - One extension is to incorporate an additive dependence model
 - See Infanger & Morton [1996]
 - Another approach to bring dependence into the model is the use of a Markov chain in the model
 - See Philpott & Matos [2012]
 - Yet another approach couples a “small” scenario tree with general dependence structure with a second tree that SDDP can handle
 - See Rebennack et al. [2012]



Upper bound overview

- Risk-neutral problems
 - The value of the current optimal policy can be estimated easily
 - Expectation at each node can be estimated by single chosen descendant
- Risk-averse problems
 - To estimate the CVaR value we need more descendants in practice
 - Leads to intractable estimators with exponential computational complexity
- Current solution (to our knowledge)
 - Run the risk-neutral version of the same problem and determine the number of iterations needed to stop the algorithm, then run the same number of iterations on the risk-averse problem
 - Inner approximation scheme proposed by Philpott et al. [2013]
 - Works with different policy than the outer approximation
 - Probably the best alternative so far

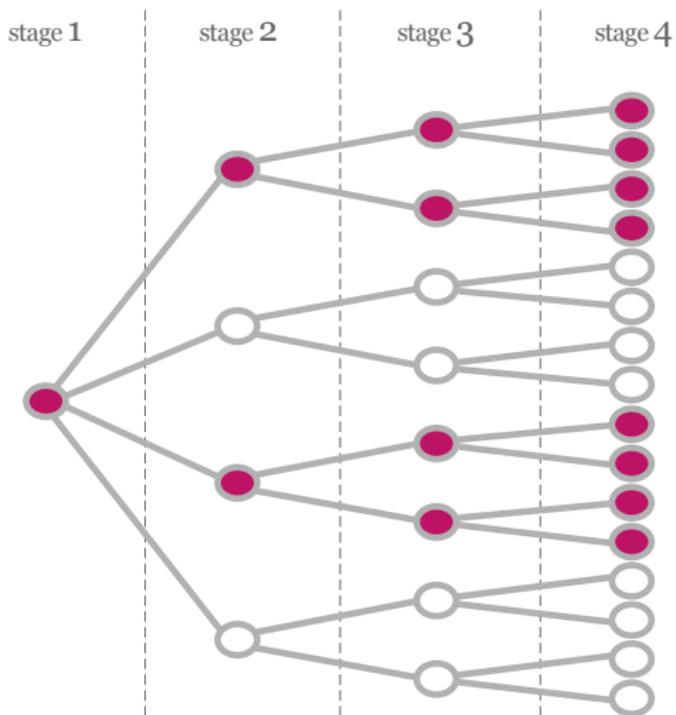


Our SDDP implementation

- Using own software developed in C++
- CPLEX and COIN-OR used as solvers for the LPs
- Stock assets allocation problem used as the example
- SDDP applied to a sampled tree from the continuous problem
- The algorithm can be implemented for parallel processing
 - We have not done so
- Testing data from US stock indices
- Log-normal distribution of returns is assumed
- Risk aversion coefficients set to $\lambda_t = \frac{t-1}{T}$
- Tail probability for CVaR set to 5% for all stages



Exponential estimator scheme



Exponential estimator

- Described by Shapiro
- For stages $t = 2, \dots, T$, we form:

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t-1}^i) = \frac{1}{M_t} \sum_{j=1}^{M_t} \left[(1 - \lambda_t) \left((\mathbf{c}_t^j)^\top \mathbf{x}_t^j + \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{t+1}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t^j) \right) + \lambda_t u_{t-1}^i + \frac{\lambda_t}{\alpha_t} \left[(\mathbf{c}_t^j)^\top \mathbf{x}_t^j + \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{t+1}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t^j) - u_{t-1}^i \right]_+ \right]$$

- $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{T+1}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_T^i) \equiv 0$
- The final cost is estimated by:

$$U^e = (\mathbf{c}_1)^\top \mathbf{x}_1 + \hat{\mathbf{v}}_2$$



Exponential estimator results

- Results for the exponential estimator:
 - $\sim 1,000$ LPs solved to obtain the estimator ($\sim 20,000$ for $T = 10$)
 - As number of stages grows so does bias (and variance)
 - \underline{z} denotes the lower bound

T	desc./node	M_t	\underline{z}	U^e (s.d.)
2	50,000	1,000	-0.9518	-0.9518 (0.0019)
3	1,000	32	-1.8674	-1.8013 (0.0302)
4	100	11	-2.7811	-2.6027 (0.0883)
5	50	6	-3.6794	-2.9031 (0.5207)
10	50	3	-7.6394	1.5×10^7 (1.3×10^6)



Upper bound enhancements

- We would like an estimator with linear complexity
- Ideally it should be unbiased, or in practice, have small bias
- We will incorporate two ideas:
 - Linear estimator from the risk-neutral case
 - Importance sampling, with an additional assumption needed

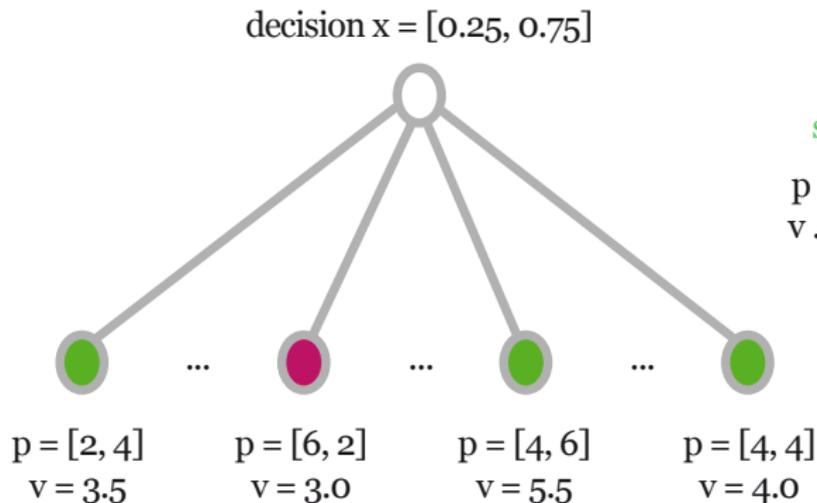
Assumption

Let $h_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \xi_t)$ approximate the recourse value of our decisions \mathbf{x}_{t-1} after the random parameters ξ_t have been observed, and let $h_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \xi_t)$ be cheap to evaluate.

- For example in our portfolio model:
$$h_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \xi_t) = -\xi_t^\top \mathbf{x}_{t-1} = -\mathbf{p}_t^\top \mathbf{x}_{t-1}$$



Importance sampling example



CVaR node
standard node

p .. price scenario
 v .. portfolio value



Importance sampling

- We start with standard pmf, all probabilities equal for D_t scenarios:

$$f_t(\xi_t) = \frac{1}{D_t} \mathbb{I}[\xi_t \in \{\xi_t^1, \dots, \xi_t^{D_t}\}]$$

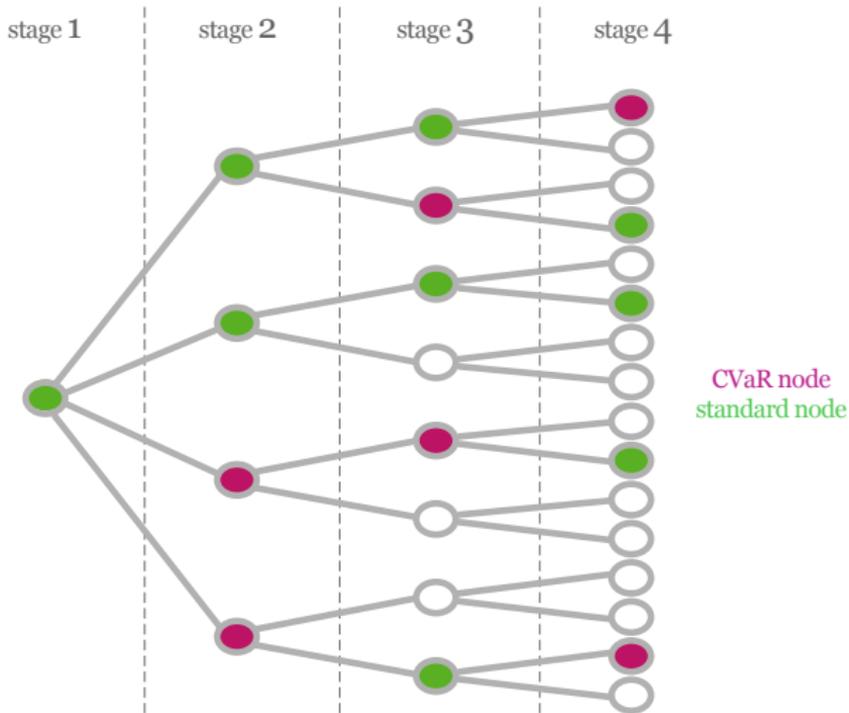
- We change the measure to put more weight to the CVaR nodes:

$$g_t(\xi_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta_t}{\alpha_t} f_t, & \text{if } h_t \geq \text{VaR}_{\alpha_t} [h_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \xi_t)] \\ \frac{1 - \beta_t}{1 - \alpha_t} f_t, & \text{if } h_t < \text{VaR}_{\alpha_t} [h_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \xi_t)] \end{cases}$$

- We select forward nodes according to this measure
- $\mathbb{E}_{f_t} [Z] = \mathbb{E}_{g_t} \left[Z \frac{f_t}{g_t} \right]$
- $w(\xi^j) = \prod_{t=2}^T \frac{f_t(\xi_t)}{g_t(\xi_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})}$



Linear estimator scheme



Linear estimators

- The nodes can be selected randomly from the standard i.i.d. measure or from the importance sampling measure
- For stages $t = 2, \dots, T$ is given by:

$$\hat{v}_t(\xi_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}}) = (1 - \lambda_t) \left((\mathbf{c}_t^{j_t})^\top \mathbf{x}_t^{j_t} + \hat{v}_{t+1}(\xi_t^{j_t}) \right) + \lambda_t u_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}} + \frac{\lambda_t}{\alpha_t} \left[(\mathbf{c}_t^{j_t})^\top \mathbf{x}_t^{j_t} + \hat{v}_{t+1}(\xi_t^{j_t}) - u_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}} \right]_+$$

- $\hat{v}_{T+1}(\xi_T^{j_T}) \equiv 0$
- Along a single path for scenario j the cost is estimated by:

$$\hat{v}(\xi^j) = \mathbf{c}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1 + \hat{v}_2$$



Linear estimators

- For scenarios selected via the original pmf we have the naive estimator

$$U^n = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \hat{v}(\xi^j)$$

- With weights again defined via

$$w(\xi^j) = \prod_{t=2}^T \frac{f_t(\xi_t)}{g_t(\xi_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})}$$

- For scenarios selected via the IS pmf we have the IS estimator

$$U^i = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^M w(\xi^j)} \sum_{j=1}^M w(\xi^j) \hat{v}(\xi^j)$$



Linear estimator results

- Results for both linear estimators—with and without importance sampling ($\beta = 0.5$)
 - $\sim 1,000$ LPs solved to obtain the estimator, $\sim 10,000$ for $T = 10$
 - Still fails for bigger setups - for 10 stages the bias grows large

T	\underline{z}	U^n (s.d.)	U^i (s.d.)
2	-0.9518	-0.9515 (0.0020)	-0.9517 (0.0012)
3	-1.8674	-1.8300 (0.0145)	-1.8285 (0.0108)
4	-2.7811	-2.4041 (0.1472)	-2.3931 (0.1128)
5	-3.6794	-3.4608 (0.1031)	-3.4963 (0.1008)
10	-7.6394	9.3×10^4 (1.4×10^4)	9.0×10^4 (8.7×10^4)



Upper bound enhancements

- The reason for the bias of the estimator comes from poor estimates of CVaR
 - Once the cost estimate for stage t exceeds u_{t-1} the difference is multiplied by α_t^{-1}
 - When estimating stage $t - 1$ costs in the nested model we sum stage $t - 1$ costs and stage t estimate which means that we usually end up with costs greater than u_{t-2} so another multiplication occurs
 - This brings both bias and large variance

Assumption

For every stage $t = 2, \dots, T$ and decision \mathbf{x}_{t-1} the approximation function h_t satisfies:

$$Q_t \geq \text{VaR}_{\alpha_t} [Q_t] \text{ if and only if } h_t \geq \text{VaR}_{\alpha_t} [h_t].$$



Improved estimator

- Provided that the equivalence assumption holds we can reduce the bias of the estimator
 - The positive part operator in the equation is used only in the case of CVaR node
- For stages $t = 2, \dots, T$ we have

$$\hat{v}_t^h(\xi_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}}) = (1 - \lambda_t) \left((\mathbf{c}_t^{j_t})^\top \mathbf{x}_t^{j_t} + \hat{v}_{t+1}^h(\xi_t^{j_t}) \right) + \lambda_t u_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}} + \\ + \mathbb{I}[h_t > \text{VaR}_{\alpha_t}[h_t]] \frac{\lambda_t}{\alpha_t} \left[(\mathbf{c}_t^{j_t})^\top \mathbf{x}_t^{j_t} + \hat{v}_{t+1}^h(\xi_t^{j_t}) - u_{t-1}^{j_{t-1}} \right]_+$$

- $\hat{v}_{T+1}^h(\xi_T^{j_T}) \equiv 0$
-

$$U^h = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^M w(\xi^j)} \sum_{j=1}^M w(\xi^j) \hat{v}^h(\xi^j)$$



Improved estimator results

- Results compared to exponential estimator

T	\underline{z}	U^e (s.d.)	U^h (s.d.)
2	-0.9518	-0.9518 (0.0019)	-0.9517 (0.0011)
3	-1.8674	-1.8013 (0.0302)	-1.8656 (0.0060)
4	-2.7811	-2.6027 (0.0883)	-2.7764 (0.0126)
5	-3.6794	-2.9031 (0.5207)	-3.6731 (0.0303)
10	-7.6394	NA	-7.5465 (0.2562)
15	-11.5188	NA	-11.0148 (0.6658)

- For problems with up to 5 stages $\sim 1,000$ LPs solved
- For 10 stages 10,000 LPs, for 15 stages 50,000 LPs
- We test challenging instances in terms of risk coefficients λ_t



Improved estimator results

T	z	U^n (s.d.)	U^l (s.d.)	U^h (s.d.)	U^e (s.d.)
2	-0.9518	-0.9515 (0.0020)	-0.9517 (0.0012)	-0.9517 (0.0011)	-0.9518 (0.0019)
3	-1.8674	-1.8300 (0.0145)	-1.8285 (0.0108)	-1.8656 (0.0060)	-1.8013 (0.0302)
4	-2.7811	-2.4041 (0.1472)	-2.3931 (0.1128)	-2.7764 (0.0126)	-2.6027 (0.0883)
5	-3.6794	-3.4608 (0.1031)	-3.4963 (0.1008)	-3.6731 (0.0303)	-2.9031 (0.5207)
10	-7.6394	9.3×10^4 (1.4×10^4)	9.0×10^4 (8.7×10^4)	-7.5465 (0.2562)	1.5×10^7 (1.3×10^6)
15	-11.5188	NA	NA	-11.0148 (0.6658)	NA

- For $T = 2, \dots, 5$ variance reduction of U^h relative to U^e :
3 to 25 to 50 to 300.
- Computation time for U^n for $T = 5, 10, 15$:
8.7 sec. to 31.6 sec. to 67.4 sec.
- Computation time for U^h for $T = 5, 10, 15$:
6.8 sec. to 30.0 sec. to 66.5 sec.



Computational setup for variance reduction

- Risk aversion coefficients set to $\lambda_t = \frac{1}{2}$
- Tail probability for CVaR set to 5% for all stages
- We formed 100 i.i.d. replicates of the estimators with approx. 10,000 LPs solved for each of them
- All 100 replicates used the same single run of SDDP
- Large-scale problems, $T = 5; 10$ and 15
- 50 descendant scenarios per node



Suitable β

- Our random inputs are supposed to have log-normal distribution
- The portfolio value is a sum of log-normal distributions
 - We don't have exact analytical form of the resulting distribution
 - It's sometimes approximated with log-normal distribution
- But, what does the convex combination of expectation and CVaR do with the distribution?
- Nested structure of the model brings additional complex transformations
- Different values of β should be selected for every stage, as the parameters of the distributions also vary
- For small ratios of standard deviation over the mean, log-normal distribution can be approximated by normal distribution, see Hald [1952]
- We have used $\beta = 0.3$ which came out from our normal-distribution analysis for $\lambda = 0.5$



Results

- Standard Monte Carlo setup \hat{Q}^s ($\beta_t = \alpha_t = 0.05$)
- Improved estimator \hat{Q}^i with $\beta_t = 0.3$
- Lower bound \underline{z}

T	total scenarios	\underline{z}	\hat{Q}^s (s.d.)	\hat{Q}^i (s.d.)
5	6,250,000	-3.5212	-3.5166 (0.0168)	-3.5158 (0.0042)
10	$\approx 10^{14}$	-7.3885	-7.2833 (0.2120)	-7.2741 (0.0315)
15	$\approx 10^{25}$	-10.4060	-10.1482 (0.8184)	-10.1246 (0,1266)

- Variance reduction by a factor between 4 and 7
- Negligible effect on computation times



Conclusion

- We propose a new approach to estimate functionals that incorporate risk via CVaR
 - Allows to tweak existing procedures which rely on sampling in estimation of mean-risk objectives
 - Significantly smaller variance than a standard Monte Carlo estimator
 - Negligible effect on computation times in optimization problems
- Future research
 - Applications such as hydroelectric scheduling under inflow uncertainty
 - Other risk measures, different importance sampling pdfs



References

- HALD, A. (1952): *Statistical Theory with Engineering Applications*, John Wiley & Sons, New York
- INFANGER, G. and MORTON, D. P. (1996): *Cut sharing for multistage stochastic linear programs with interstage dependency*, *Mathematical Programming* 75 pp. 241-256.
- KOZMÍK, V. and MORTON, D. (2013): *Risk-averse Stochastic Dual Dynamic Programming*, *Optimization Online*
- PEREIRA, M. V. F. and PINTO, L. M. V. G. (1991): *Multi-stage stochastic optimization applied to energy planning*, *Mathematical Programming* 52, pp. 359–375. pp. 63-72.

References

- PHILPOTT, A. B., DE MATOS, V. L.: *Dynamic sampling algorithms for multi-stage stochastic programs with risk aversion*. Eur. J. of Oper. Res. 218, pp. 470–483 (2012)
- REBENNACK, S., FLACH, B., PEREIRA, M. V. F., PARDALOS, P. M.: *Stochastic hydro-thermal scheduling under CO₂ emissions constraints*. IEEE Transactions on Power Systems 27, pp. 58–68 (2012)
- RUSZCZYNSKI, A. and SHAPIRO, A. (2006): *Conditional risk mappings*, Mathematics of Operations Research 31, pp. 544–561
- SHAPIRO, A. (2011): *Analysis of stochastic dual dynamic programming method*, European Journal of Operational Research 209, pp. 63–72.

Conclusion

Thank you for your attention!

Václav Kozmík
vaclav@kozmetik.cz

