Optimization and Modeling

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- Data science: motivation (slides adapted from Steve Wright)
- Optimization: basic components and tradeoffs
- Modeling: using constraints to add domain knowledge
- Uncertainty: how to deal with randomness

Data Science

- Extract meaning from data: learning
- Use this knowledge to make predictions: inference
- Optimization provides tools for modeling / formulation / algorithms
- Modeling and domain-specific knowledge is vital in practice: "80% of data analysis is spent on the process of cleaning and preparing the data."

Typical Setup

After cleaning and formatting, obtain a data set of m objects:

- Vectors of features: a_j , $j = 1, 2, \ldots, m$
- Outcome / observation / label y_i for each feature vector

The outcomes y_j could be:

- a real number: regression
- a label indicating the a_j lies in one of M classes (for $M \ge 2$): classification. (M can be very large)
- no labels (y_j is null):
 - subspace identification: locate low-dimensional subspaces that approximately contain the (high-dimensions) vectors a_j
 - clustering: partition the a_j into clusters; each cluster groups objects with similar features.

Optimization

There is an objective (function) which we are seeking to maximize or minimize described by:

$$f: S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty/-\infty\} =: \bar{\mathbb{R}}$$

- Objective function of variables (or unknowns) f(x) where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- Variables could be subject to constraints such as h(x) = 0.
- The feasible set is described by

$$\Omega = \{x | h(x) = 0, g(x) \le 0\}$$

• This generates a program of the form

$$\min_{x} f(x) \text{ s.t. } x \in \Omega$$

- Unconstrained problems have $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$ which is the whole space
- What about $\Omega \neq \mathbb{R}^n$?
- Constrained problems can be treated in various ways, including nonlinear, nonconvex problems and convex cones for example.

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Four components to optimization



- Calculus (analysis, probability)
- ② Geometry or structure (convexity, polyhedral, discrete)
- Computation (using linear algebra and sparse tools)
 Data
- Iterative algorithms generate a series of points which hopefully converge to the solution: issues about well defined (computable), how fast, what they converge to, and how to check properties of the end point.
- Will need all four components; understanding how they link together is important for full command of optimization

Continuous Vs. Discrete





• In a discrete problem, only the points would be feasible. In a continuous problem, the whole shaded region is feasible. H. f(x)>0 => g

• Use case: discrete entities,/logic

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Supported by NSF, DOE 6 / 16 Linear vs. Nonlinear / Stochastic vs Deterministic



- Linear problems tend to come from the decision sciences whereas nonlinear problems often arise from physical systems.
- A problem is stochastic if data is not known beforehand. It may arise from some known distribution or assumed via statistical measurements.
- Note the difference between stochastic data and stochastic programs and stochastic algorithms.



The local minimum is clearly a minimum only within its neighborhood.

Convex functions are ones for which local minimizers are global minimizers.

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Fundamental Data Analysis

Seek a function ϕ that:

- approximately maps a_j , to y_j for each j; $\phi(a_j) \approx y_j$, j = 1, 2, ..., m
- satisfies additional properties to make it "plausible" for the application, robust to perturbations in the data, generalizable to other data samples from the same distribution.

Can usually define ϕ in terms of some parameter vector x - thus identification of ϕ becomes a data-fitting problem:

- Find a nice x such that $\phi(a_j; x) \approx y_j$ for j = 1, 2, ..., m
- Objective function in this problem often built up of *m* terms that capture mismatch between predictions and observations for data item (a_j, y_j)
- The process of finding ϕ is called learning or training.

What's the use of the mapping ϕ ?

- Prediction: Given new data vector a_k , predict outputs $y_k \leftarrow \phi(a_k; x)$.
- Analysis: ϕ (more particularly the parameter x) reveals structure in the data
- Many possible complications:
 - Noise or errors in *a_j* and *y_j*
 - Missing data:
 - Overfitting: φ exactly fits the set of training data (a_j, y_j) but predicts poorly on "out-of-sample" data (a_k, y_k)

ML models in practice

- Regression: $\phi(a_j; x) = a_j^T x$. $\min_{x} f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (a_j^T x - y_j)^2$
- Add $\ell_2 = ||x||^2$ reduces sensitivity to noise in y
- Add $\ell_1 = ||x||_1$ yields solutions x with few non-zeros (Feature selection)
- loss function $+\lambda * R(x)$
- Sparse PCA.
- Linear Support Vector Machines (kernel SVM)
- Logistic Regression
- Deep learning

All of these modelscan be augmented by domain specific knowledge, leading to nonlinear and/or constrained optimization

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Design/Impact

What is meant by a model?

- Many of us build (computer/mathematical) models that capture physics, dynamics, stochastics, discrete choices, and to some extent behavior: collaboration, competition
- Model of system $m_{x}(s, d)$
- Actions or designs d affect state s, parameters x energy example: state s = electricity flow, actions d = investment/operations, parameters x = loss rate/fuel cost
- Optimization determines model parameters x (based on data machine learning) (training)
- Can use $m_x(s,d)$ to predict state evolution or specific outcomes
- Validation ensures predictions are good (testing)

What does optimization add?

- Value of outcome v(s, d) (e.g s electricity flows in network, d capacity expansion, v is operation profit)
- How to use model to suggest good actions/designs?
- Constrained optimization chooses (feasible) actions to maximize value

$$\max_{s,d} v(s,d) \text{ s.t. } \overbrace{m_x(s,d), (s,d) \in \mathcal{F}}$$

- Optimization can be hard to solve (non-convex)
- Models can be complex and difficult to explain, often ignored by decision makers, yet their solution can lead to fundamentally new insights
- Simple rules (policies) $d = \pi(s)$, reduce complexity of optimization, enhance explainability

Planning models treat uncertainty at different time scales

- Demand growth, technology change, capital costs are long-term uncertainties (years)
- Seasonal inflows to hydroelectric reservoirs are medium-term uncertainties (weeks)
- Levels of wind and solar generation are short-term uncertainties (half hours)
- Very short term effects from random variation in renewables and plant failures (seconds)



- Tradeoff: Uncertainty, cost and operability, regulations, security/robustness/resilience
- Needs modelling at finer time scales

Simplified two-stage stochastic optimization model

• Investment decisions are z at cost K(z)

s.t.

• Operating decisions are: generation y at cost C(y), loadshedding q at cost Vq.

 $(K(z)) + \mathbb{E}_{\omega}[C(y(\omega)) + Vq(\omega)]$

 $\begin{pmatrix} y(\omega) \leq z, \\ y(\omega) \geq d(\omega) - q(\omega), \\ z_{\mathcal{N}} \leq (1 - \theta) z_{\mathcal{N}}(2017) \end{cases}$

• Random demand is $d(\omega)$.

P: $\min_{z,y,q\in X}$

Minimize capital cost plus expected operating cost:

Who do you have on your bench, what reserves are in your plan?



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Approaches

Value of (constrained) optimization

- Constraints can capture domain knowledge much more than a single objective
- Machine learning can be used to inform models
- Informed strategic decisions and tradeoffs
- Facility location: where to locate reserves, agents, sizing
- Disaster recovery: hedging risk, promoting flexibility, dynamics, windows and staging
- Risk models: not all outcomes are equally bad, trade risk
- Extreme event models: small tails, change policies

Truth is in the details