

Big data decision making: real-time optimization for real-world problems

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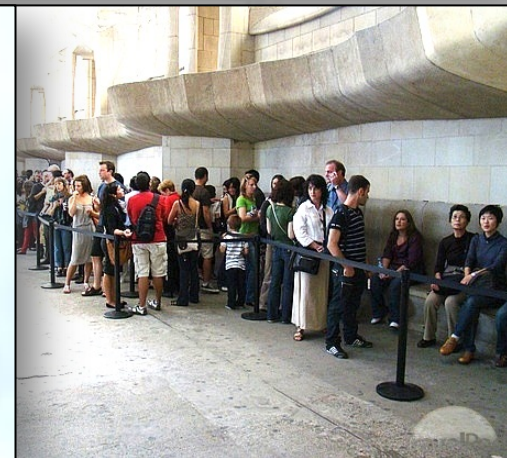
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Decision making in practice

- Sunday, September 23:
 - What to do with the time between 10am and 3pm?



Decision making in practice



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Meer perspectief

The challenge of data

Data problems in the real world:

- **Bad data**
 - We have the data, but it is not correct
- **Uncertainty in forecasted data**
 - Our decisions need to consider events in the future, but we cannot forecast them perfectly
- **Incomplete information**
 - We are simply not modeling certain costs or physical constraints
- **Errors in implementation**
 - The decisions recommended by the model are not the decisions that are implemented in the field

The challenge of language

The languages of “optimization over time”

	Engineering	OR/AI/Probability	OR/Math programming
Discipline	Optimal control	Markov decision processes	Stochastic programming
Decision (English)	Control	Action	Decision
Decision (Math)	u	a	x
"Value function" (English)	Cost-to-go	Value function	Recourse function
"Value function" (Math)	J	V	Q
State variable	x	S	tenders
Optimality equations	Hamilton-Jacobi	Bellman	Huh?

The challenge of methodology

Competing methodologies:

- Deterministic optimization
 - Problem is NP-complete
 - Heuristics provide high-quality overall solutions, but can produce quirky solutions when evaluated up close
 - Puts equal weight on decisions now and in the future
 - Models “here and now” and the future at the same level of detail
- Simulation
 - Able to handle a very high level of detail, but ...
 - Does not attempt to provide the best possible solution
 - Suffers from complex rules needed to make decisions
- Stochastic programming
 - Explodes problem size
- Dynamic programming/Markov decision processes
 - You have to be kidding!

A progression of models

Major problem classes

	Simple attributes	Complex attributes
Single entity	Textbook Markov decision process	Classical AI applications
Multiple entities	Classical OR applications	Opportunity for combining AI/OR

A resource allocation model

Attribute vectors:



$$a = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Asset class} \\ \text{Time invested} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Type} \\ \text{Location} \\ \text{Eqmnt} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Location} \\ \text{ETA} \\ \text{Home} \\ \text{Experience} \\ \text{Driving hours} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Location} \\ \text{ETA} \\ \text{A/C type} \\ \text{Fuel level} \\ \text{Home shop} \\ \text{Crew} \end{bmatrix}$$

A resource allocation model

Modeling resources:

- The attributes of a single resource:

a = the attributes of a single resource

$a \in A$, the attribute space

- The resource state vector:

R_{ta} = the number of resources with attribute a

$R_t = \left(R_{ta} \right)_{a \in A}$, the resource state vector

- The information process:

\hat{R}_{ta} = change in the number of resources with attribute a

A resource allocation model

Modeling demands:

- The attributes of a single demand:

b = the attributes of a demand to be served

$b \in B$, the attribute space

- The demand state vector:

D_{tb} = the number of demands with attribute b

$D_t = \left(D_{tb} \right)_{b \in B}$, the demand state vector

- The information process:

\hat{D}_{tb} = the change in the number of demands with attribute b

Energy resource modeling

The system state:



$S_t = (R_t, D_t, \rho_t)$ = system state, where:

R_t = resource state (how much capacity, reserves)

D_t = market demands

ρ_t = "system parameters"

State of the technology (costs, performance)

Climate, weather (temperature, rainfall, wind)

Government policies (tax rebates on solar panels)

Market prices (oil, coal)

Energy resource modeling

The decision variable:



$x_t =$

New capacity
Retired capacity
for each:
Type
Location
Technology

Energy resource modeling

Exogenous information:



$$W_t = \text{new information} = (\hat{R}_t, \hat{D}_t, \hat{\rho}_t)$$

\hat{R}_t = exogenous changes in capacity, reserves

\hat{D}_t = new demands for energy from each source

$\hat{\rho}_t$ = exogenous changes in parameters

Energy resource modeling

The transition function:

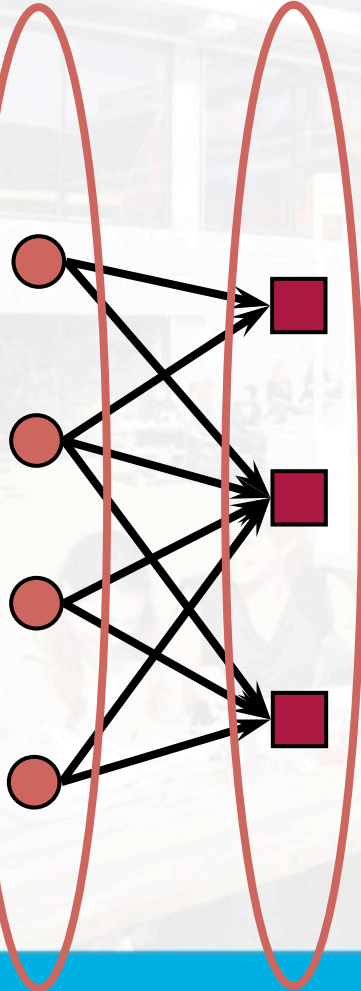


$$S_{t+1} = S^M(S_t, x_t, W_{t+1})$$

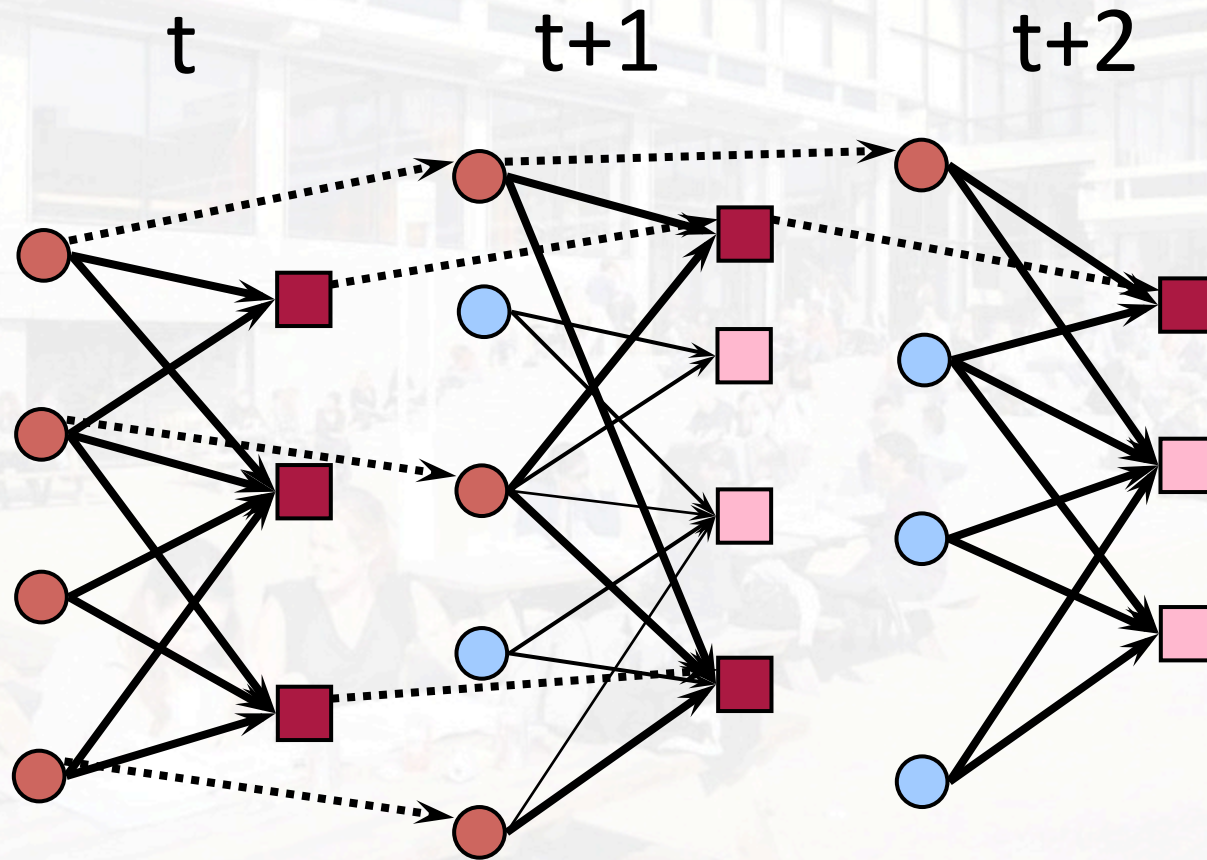
A resource allocation model

Resources

Demands

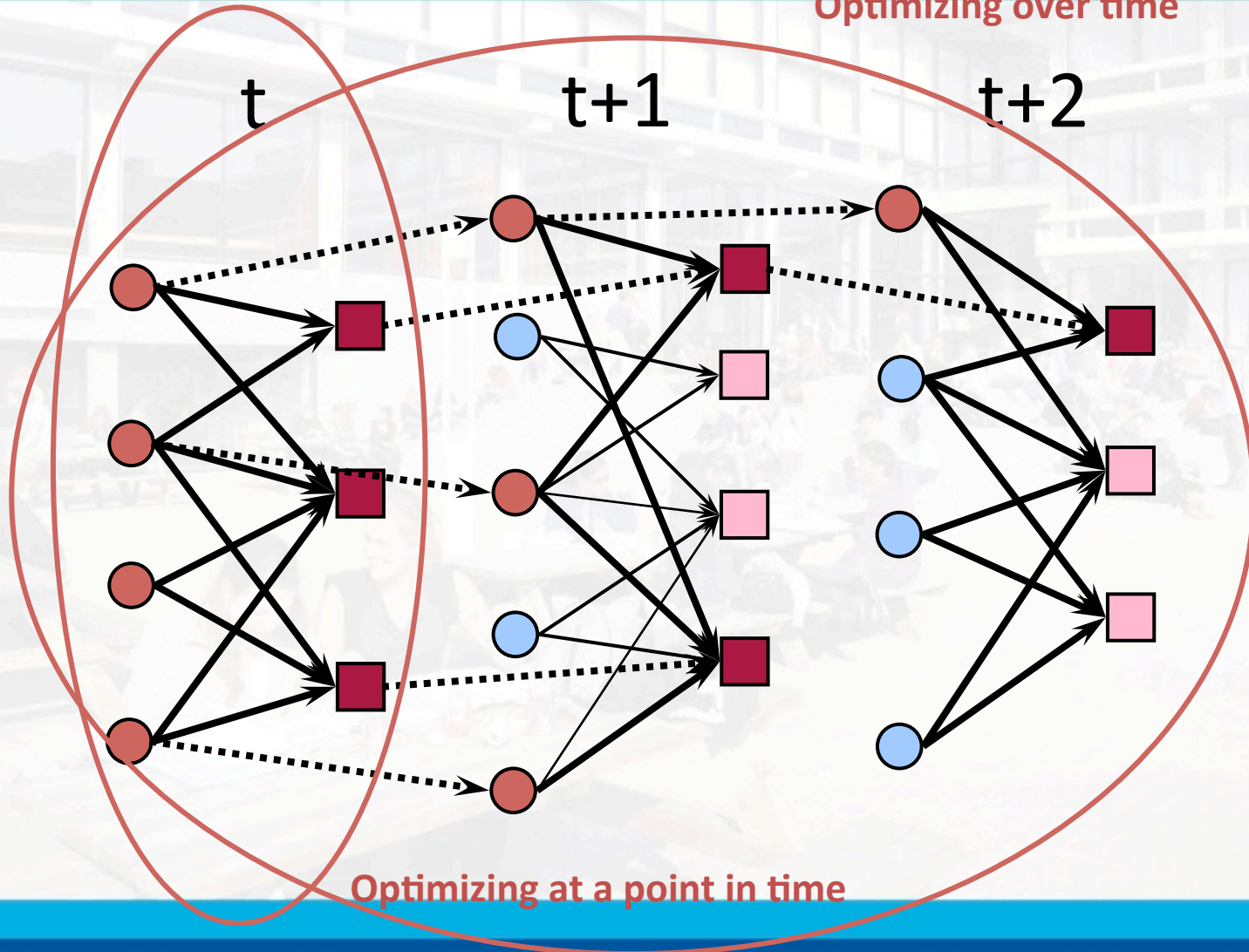


A resource allocation model



A resource allocation model

Optimizing over time



Optimizing at a point in time

Curse of dimensionality

- We just solved Bellman's equation:

$$V_t(S_t) = \max_{x \in X} C_t(S_t, x_t) + E \{V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) | S_t\}$$

- We found the value of being in each state by stepping backward through the tree.
- Problem: Curse of dimensionality

Curse of dimensionality

The computational challenge:

$$V_t(S_t) = \max_{x \in X} (C_t(S_t, x_t) + E\{V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) | S_t\})$$

How do we find $V_{t+1}(S_{t+1})$?

How do we compute the expectation?

How do we find the optimal solution?

Modeling stochastic optimization problems

Policies:

- 1) Myopic policies
 - Take the action that maximizes contribution (or minimizes cost) for just the current time period:

$$X^M(S_t) = \arg \max_{x_t} C(S_t, x_t)$$

- 2) Lookahead policies
 - Plan over the next T periods, but implement only the action it tells you to do now:

$$X^M(S_t) = \arg \max_{x_t, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+T}} \sum_{t'=t}^T C(S_{t'}, x_{t'})$$

Modeling stochastic optimization problems

Policies:

- 3) Policies based on value function approximations

Let $\bar{V}_t(S_t)$ be an approximation of the value of being in state S_t

$$X^M(S_t) = \arg \max_{x_t} (C(S_t, x_t) + \gamma E \bar{V}_{t+1}(S_{t+1}))$$

- 4) Policy function approximations

Let $\bar{X}(S_t)$ be a function that directly tells you an action given that you are in a state S_t .

Approximate Dynamic Programming

Classical ADP:

- Most applications of ADP focus on the challenge of handling multidimensional state variables
 - Start with

$$V_t(S_t) = \max_{x \in X} \left(C_t(S_t, x_t) + E \{ V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) | S_t \} \right)$$

- Now replace the value function with some sort of approximation

$$V_t(S_t) \approx \bar{V}_t(S_t)$$

Approximate Dynamic Programming

Approximating the value function:

- We have to exploit the structure of the value function (e.g., convexity, submodularity, etc.)
 - We might approximate the value function using a simple polynomial

$$\bar{V}_t(S_t | \theta) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 S_t + \theta_2 S_t^2$$

- ... or a complicated one:

$$\bar{V}_t(S_t | \theta) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 S_t + \theta_2 S_t^2 + \theta_3 \ln(S_t) + \theta_4 \sin(S_t)$$

- Sometimes, they get really messy

Approximate Dynamic Programming

- We can write a model of the observed value of being in a state as:

$$\hat{v} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 S_t + \theta_2 S_t^2 + \theta_3 \ln(S_t) + \theta_4 \sin(S_t) + \varepsilon$$

- This is often written as a generic regression model:

$$Y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 X_1 + \theta_2 X_2 + \theta_3 X_3 + \theta_4 X_4$$

- The ADP community refers to the independent variables as *basis functions*:

$$Y = \theta_0 \varphi_0(S) + \theta_1 \varphi_1(S) + \theta_2 \varphi_2(S) + \theta_3 \varphi_3(S) + \theta_4 \varphi_4(S)$$

$$= \sum_{f \in F} \theta_f \varphi_f(S)$$

$\varphi_f(R)$ are also known as *features*

Approximate Dynamic Programming

- Methods for estimating θ
 - Generate observations $\hat{v}^1, \hat{v}^2, \dots, \hat{v}^N$, and use traditional regression methods to fit θ
 - Stochastic gradient for updating θ^n :

$$\begin{aligned}\theta^n &= \theta^{n-1} - \alpha_{n-1} \left(\bar{V}^{n-1}(S^n | \theta^{n-1}) - \hat{v}^n \right) \nabla \bar{V}^{n-1}(S^n | \theta^{n-1}) \\ &= \theta^{n-1} - \alpha_{n-1} \left(\bar{V}^{n-1}(S^n | \theta^{n-1}) - \hat{v}^n \right) \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1(S) \\ \varphi_2(S) \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_F(S) \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Approximate Dynamic Programming

Other statistical methods:

- Regression trees
 - Combines regression with techniques for discrete variables
- Data mining
 - Good for categorical data
- Neural networks
 - Engineers like this for low-dimensional continuous problems
- Kernel/locally polynomial regression
 - Approximations portions of the value function locally using simple functions
- Dirichlet mixture models
 - Aggregate portions of the function and fit approximations around these aggregations.

Approximate Dynamic Programming

What you will struggle with:

- Stepsizes
 - Can't live with 'em, can't live without 'em
 - Too small, you think you have converged but you have really just stalled (“apparent convergence”)
 - Too large, and the system is unstable
- Stability
 - There are two sources of randomness:
 - The traditional exogenous randomness
 - An evolving policy
- Exploration vs. exploitation
 - You sometimes have to choose to visit a state just to collect information about the value of being in a state



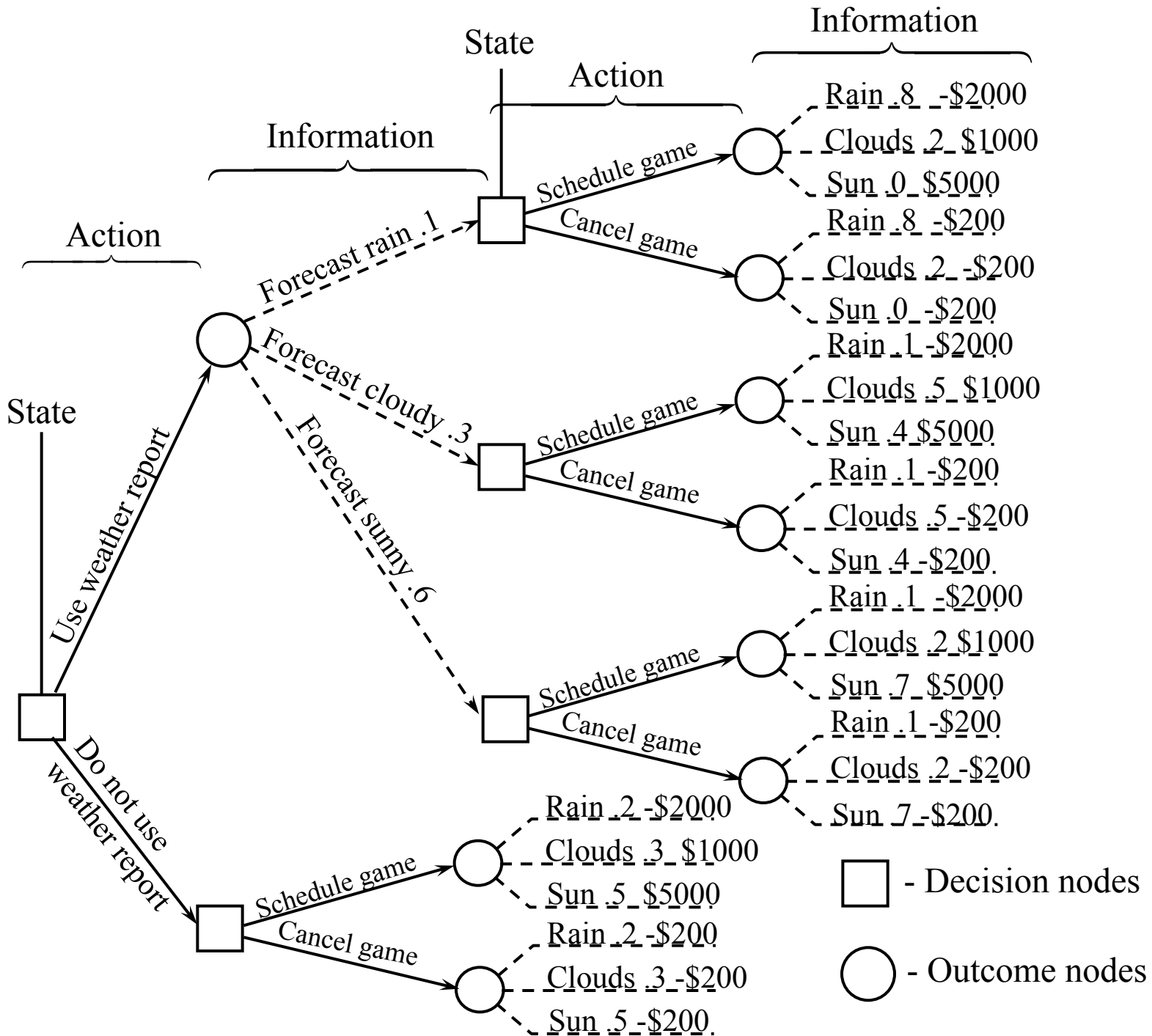
Approximate Dynamic Programming

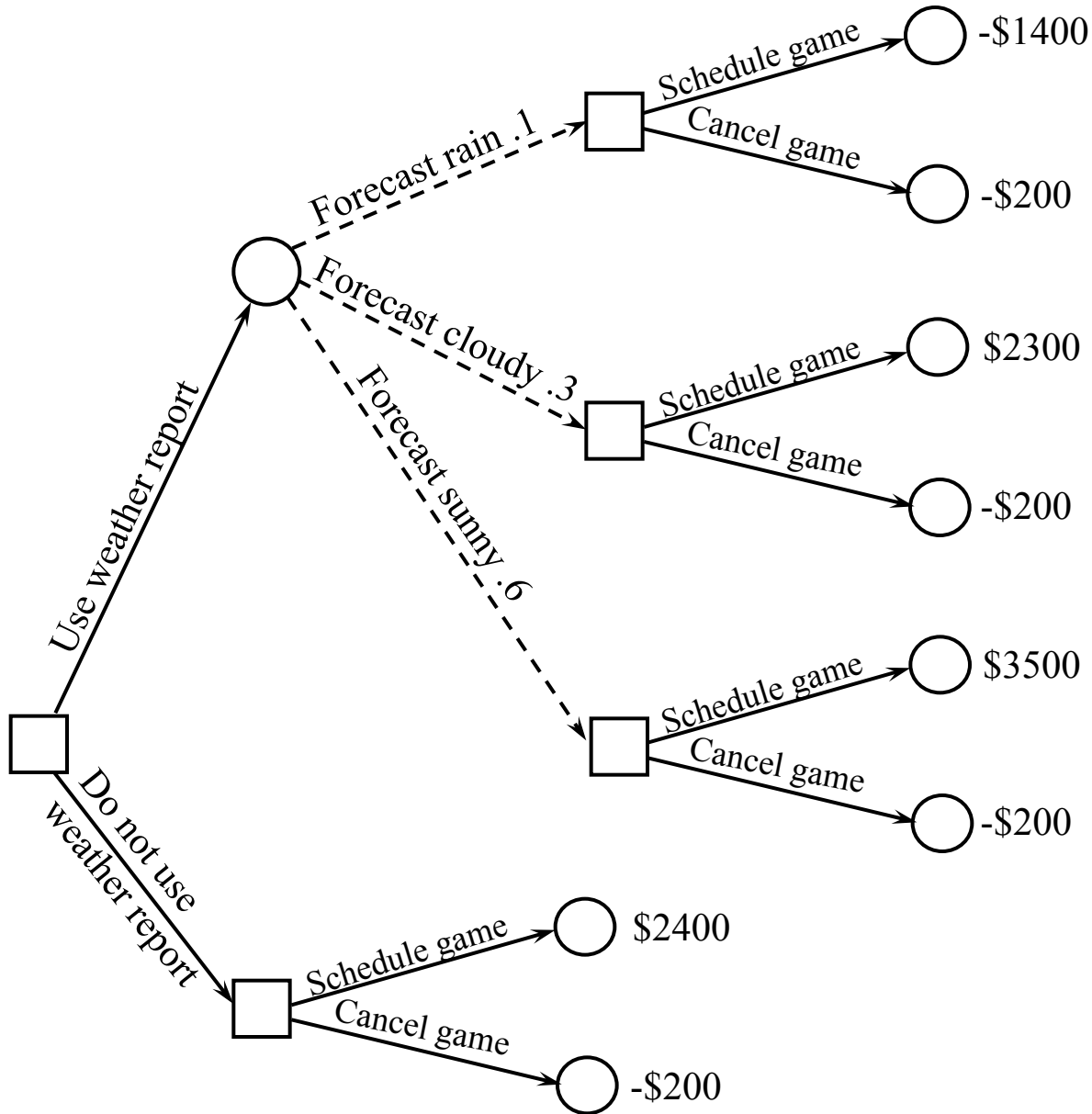
- But we are not out of the woods...
 - Assume we have an approximate value function
 - We still have to solve a problem that looks like

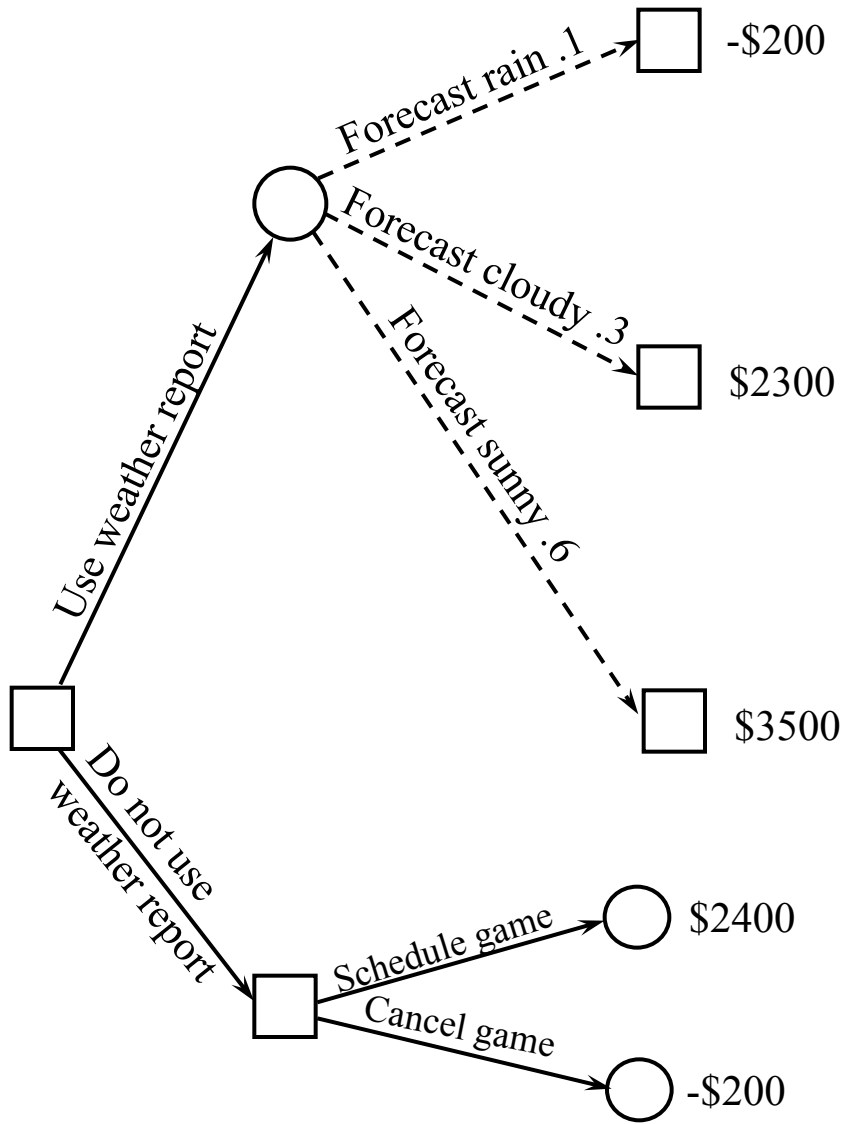
$$V_t(S_t) = \max_{x \in X} \left(C_t(S_t, x_t) + E \sum_{f \in F} \theta_f \phi_f(S_{t+1}) \right)$$

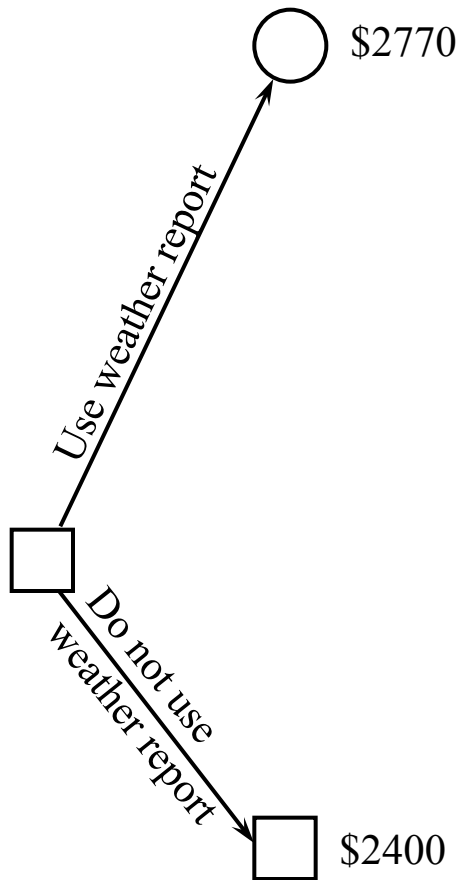
- This means we still have to deal with a maximization problem (might be a linear, nonlinear or integer program) with an expectation

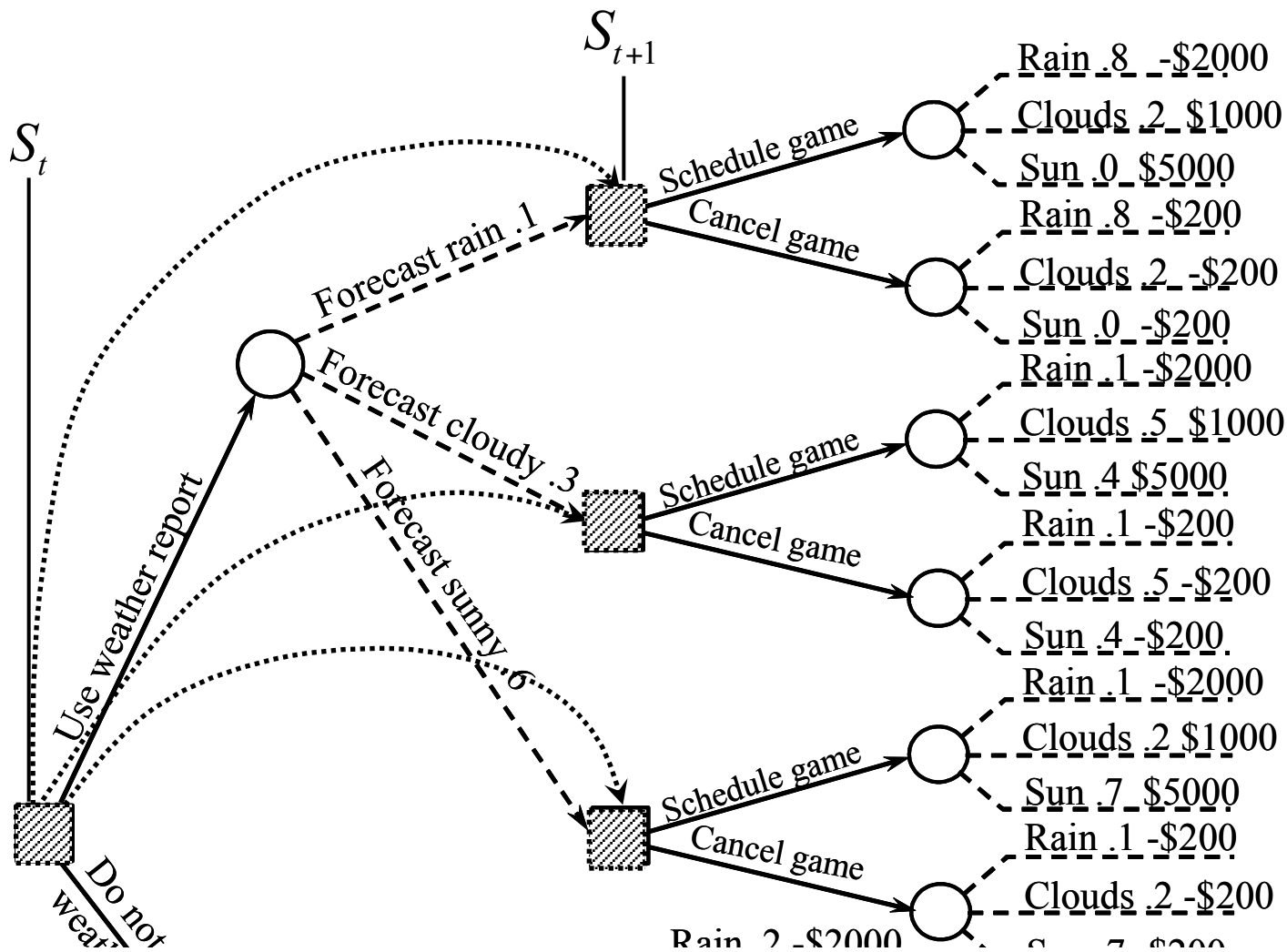




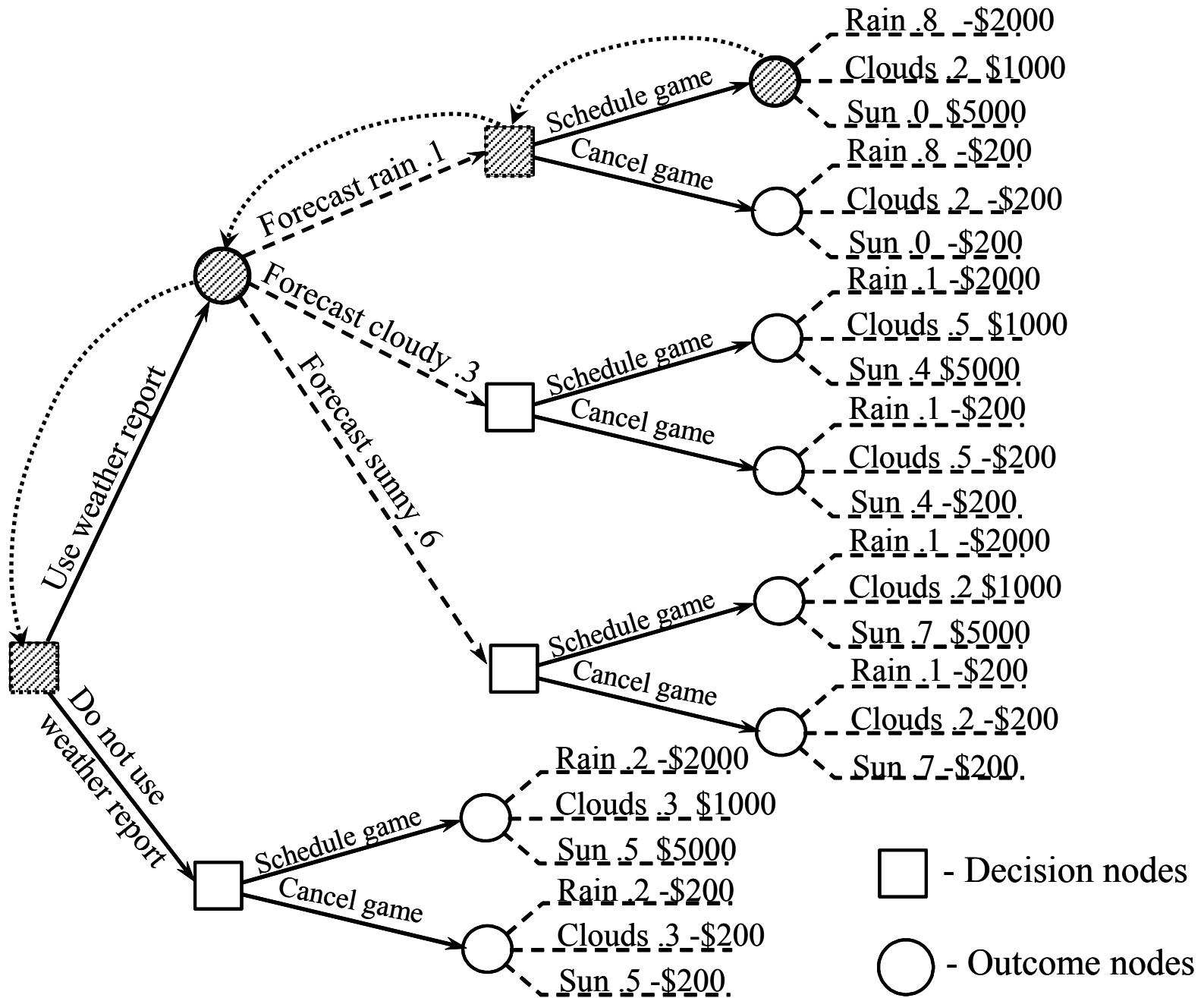






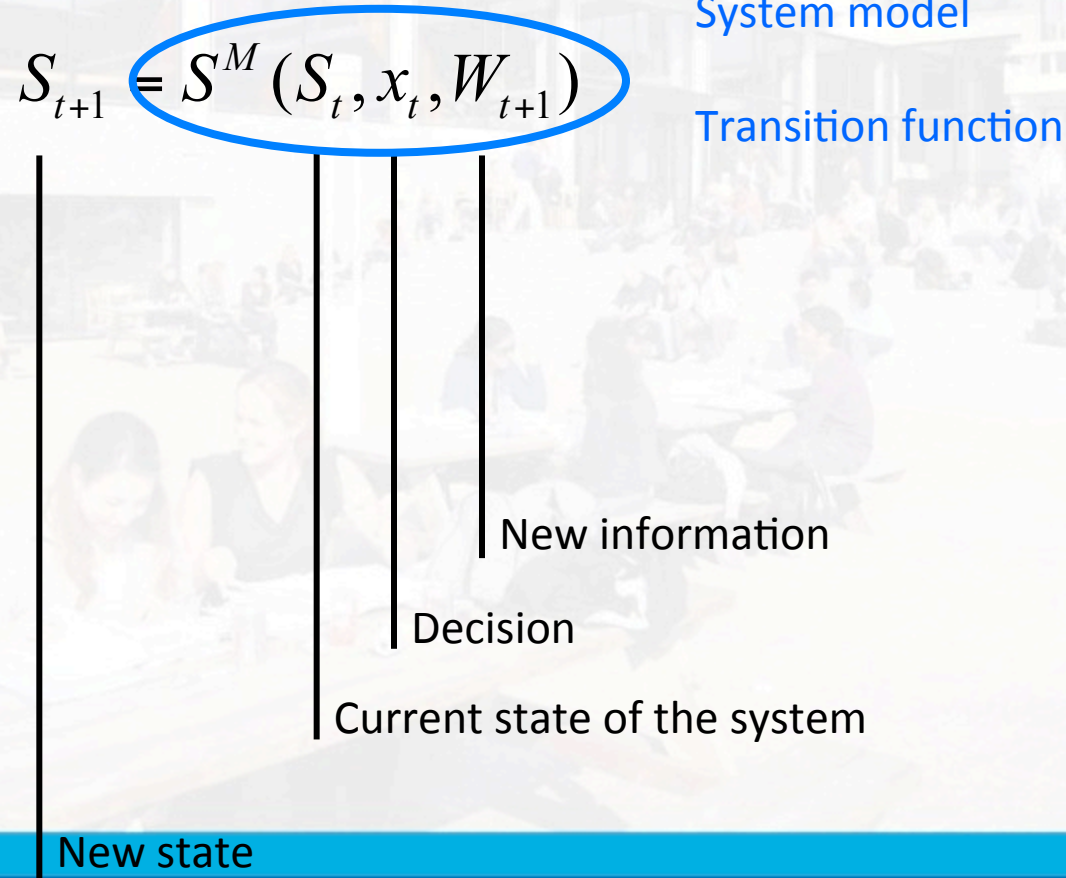


$$V_t(S_t) = \max_{x \in X} \left(C_t(S_t, x_t) + E \{ V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) | S_t \} \right)$$



Transition function

Traditional modeling of dynamics



The post-decision state

- New concept:
 - The “pre-decision” state variable:
 - S_t = The information required to make a decision x_t
 - Same as a “decision node” in a decision tree
 - The “post-decision” state variable:
 - S_t^x = The state of what we know immediately after we make a decision.
 - Same as an “outcome node” in a decision tree

The post-decision state

- Breaking down the system dynamics:

- Instead of modeling from “pre-” to “pre-” ...

$$S_{t+1} = S^M(S_t, x_t, W_{t+1})$$

- ... we use one function to go from “pre-” to “post-” ...

$$S_t^x = S^{M,x}(S_t, x_t)$$

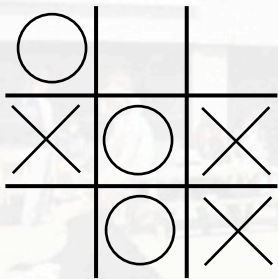
- ... with another function from “post-” to “pre-”

$$S_{t+1} = S^{M,W}(S_t^x, W_{t+1})$$

The post-decision state

Pre-decision, state-action, and post-decision

Pre-decision state



3^9 states

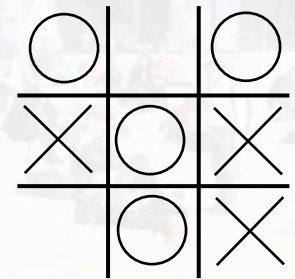
State



$3^9 \times 9$ state-action pairs

Action

Post-decision state

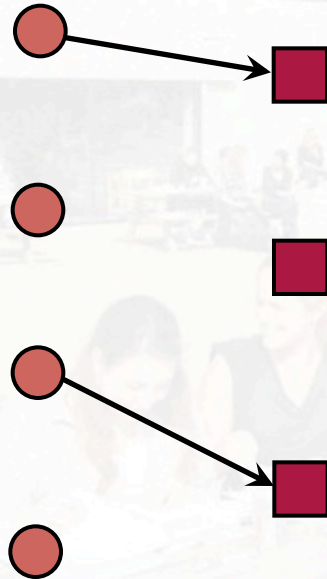


3^9 states

The post-decision state

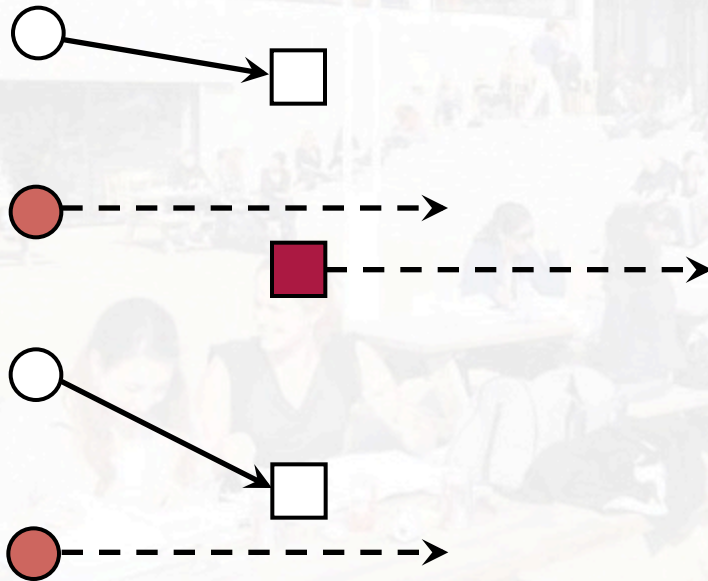
Pre-decision: resources and demands

$$S_t = (R_t, D_t)$$

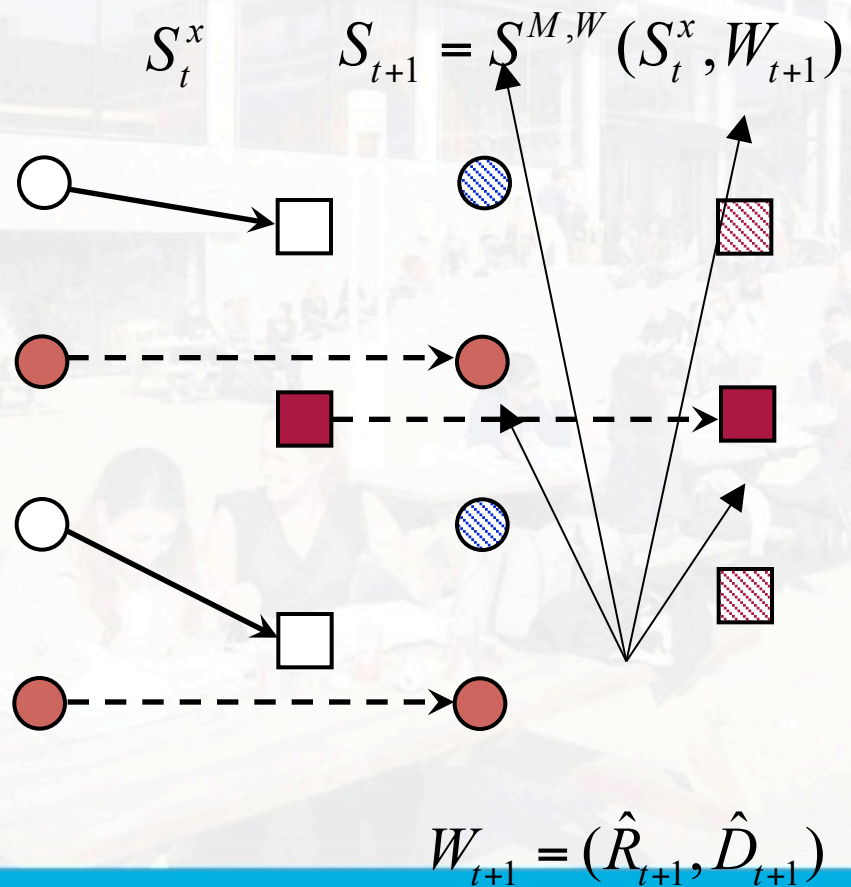


The post-decision state

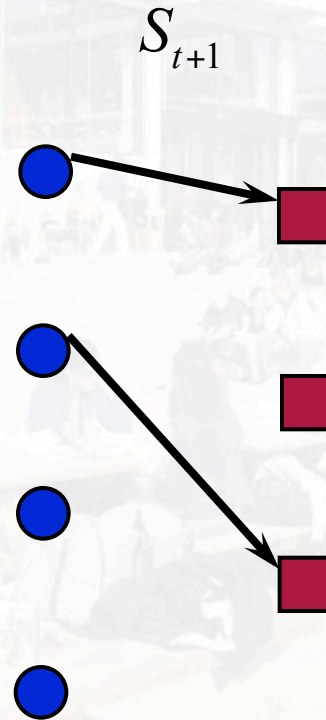
$$S_t^x = S^{M,x}(S_t, x_t)$$



The post-decision state



The post-decision state



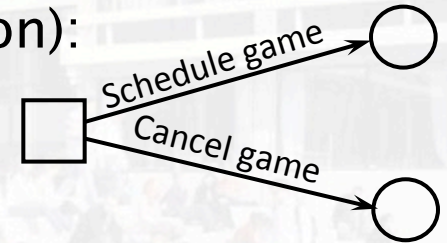
The algorithm

- Bellman's equations broken into stages:

- Optimization problem (making the decision):

$$V_t(S_t) = \max_x \left(C_t(S_t, x_t) + V_t^x \left(S_t^{M,x}(S_t, x_t) \right) \right)$$

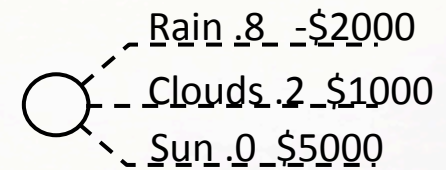
- Note: this problem is deterministic!



- Simulation problem (the effect of exogenous information):

$$V_t^x(S_t^x) = E \left\{ V_{t+1} \left(S^{M,W}(S_t^x, W_{t+1}) \right) \mid S_t^x \right\}$$

- Need to compute expectation.



- Challenge: What is $V_t^x \left(S_t^{M,x}(S_t, x_t) \right)$

The algorithm

- Comparison to other methods:

- Classical MDP (value iteration)

$$V^n(S) = \max_x \left(C(S, x) + \gamma EV^{n-1}(S_{t+1}) \right)$$

- Classical ADP (pre-decision state):

$$\hat{v}_t^n = \max_x \left(C_t(S_t^n, x_t) + \sum_{s'} p(s' | S_t^n, x_t) \bar{V}_{t+1}^{n-1}(s') \right) \quad \text{Expectation}$$

$$\bar{V}_t^n(S_t^n) = (1 - \alpha_{n-1}) \bar{V}_t^{n-1}(S_t^n) + \alpha_{n-1} \hat{v}_t^n \quad \hat{v}_t \text{ updates } \bar{V}_t(S_t)$$

- Our method (update $\bar{V}_t^{x,n-1}$ around post-decision state):

$$\hat{v}_t^n = \max_x \left(C_t(S_t^n, x_t) + \bar{V}_t^{x,n-1}(S^{M,x}(S_t^n, x_t)) \right)$$

$$\bar{V}_{t-1}^n(S_{t-1}^{x,n}) = (1 - \alpha_{n-1}) \bar{V}_{t-1}^{n-1}(S_{t-1}^{x,n}) + \alpha_{n-1} \hat{v}_t^n \quad \hat{v}_t \text{ updates } \bar{V}_{t-1}(S_{t-1}^x)$$

The algorithm

Step 1: Start with a pre-decision state S_t^n

Step 2: Solve the deterministic optimization using an approximate value function:

$$\hat{v}_t^n = \max_x \left(C_t(S_t^n, x_t) + \bar{V}_t^{n-1}(S^{M,x}(S_t^n, x_t)) \right)$$

to obtain x_t^n .

Deterministic optimization

Step 3: Update the value function approximation

$$\bar{V}_{t-1}^n(S_{t-1}^{x,n}) = (1 - \alpha_{n-1})\bar{V}_{t-1}^{n-1}(S_{t-1}^{x,n}) + \alpha_{n-1}\hat{v}_t^n$$

Recursive statistics

Step 4: Obtain Monte Carlo sample of ω^n and compute the next pre-decision state: $W_t(\omega^n)$

$$S_{t+1}^n = S^M(S_t^n, x_t^n, W_{t+1}(\omega^n))$$

Simulation

Step 5: Return to step 1.

The algorithm

- Value function approximations:

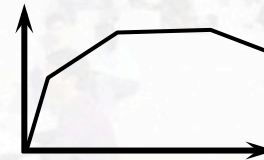
- Linear (in the resource state):

$$\bar{V}_t(R_t^x) = \sum_{a \in A} \bar{v}_{ta} \cdot R_{ta}^x$$



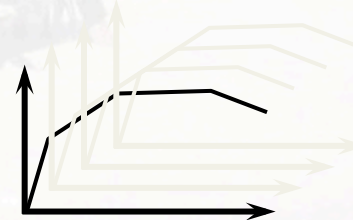
- Piecewise linear, separable:

$$\bar{V}_t(R_t^x) = \sum_{a \in A} \bar{V}_{ta}(R_{ta}^x)$$



- Indexed PWL separable:

$$\bar{V}_t(R_t^x) = \sum_{a \in A} \bar{V}_{ta}(R_{ta}^x | (features_t))$$



Stepsizes

Stepsizes:

- Fundamental to ADP is an updating equation that looks like:

$$V_{t-1}^n(S_{t-1}^x) = (1 - \alpha_{n-1}) V_{t-1}^{n-1}(S_{t-1}^x) + \alpha_{n-1} \hat{v}_t^n$$

Updated estimate

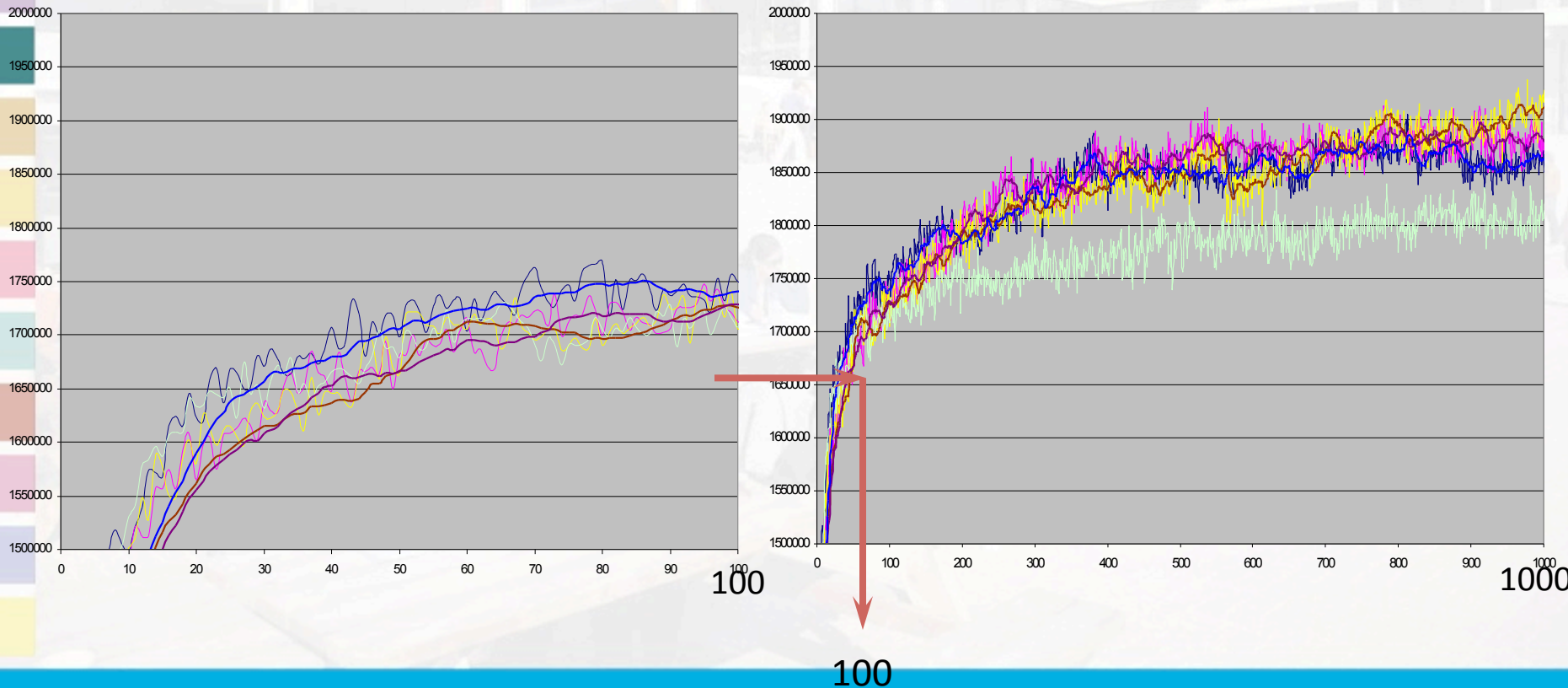
Old estimate

New observation

The stepsize
“Learning rate”
“Smoothing factor”

Stepsizes

- The challenge of stepsizes:
 - When have we converged?

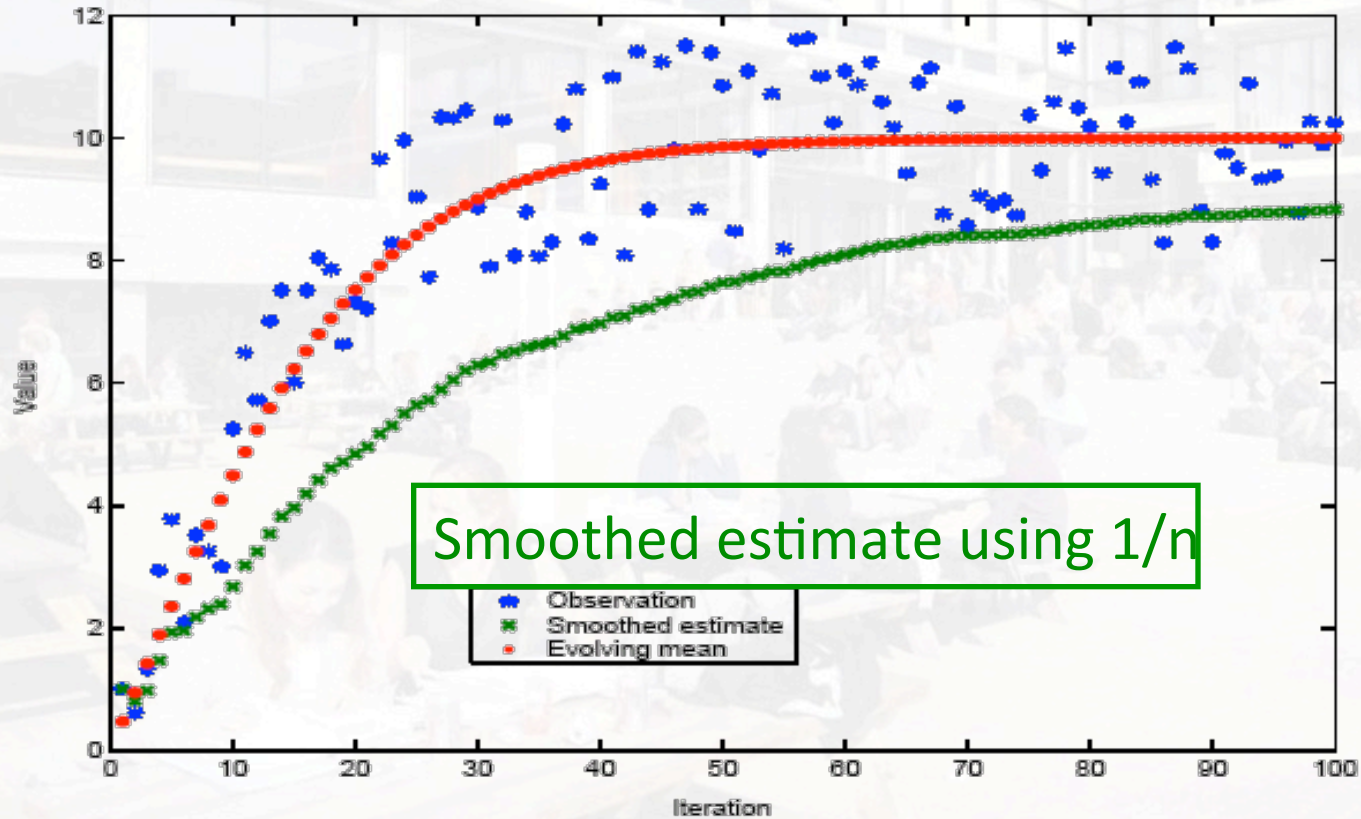


We need to improve our understanding of adaptive stepsizes.

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Meer perspectief

Stepsizes



Stepsizes

- Deterministic stepsize rules:

$$\alpha_n = \frac{1}{n} \text{ or } \frac{1}{n^\beta} \quad \text{Basic averaging}$$

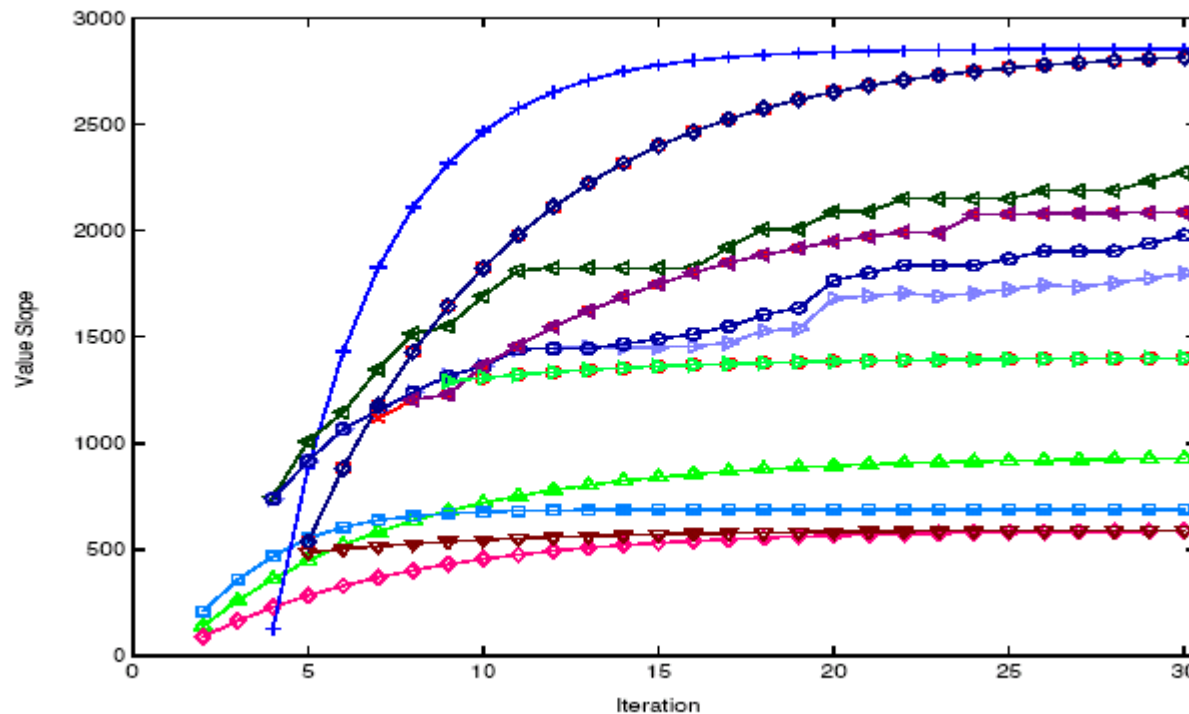
$$\alpha_n = \frac{a}{a + n - 1} \quad \text{Slows the rate of descent}$$

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\frac{b}{-} + a}{n} \quad \text{"Search then converge"}$$

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\alpha_n}{1 + \alpha_n - \bar{\alpha}} \quad \text{McClain's formula}$$

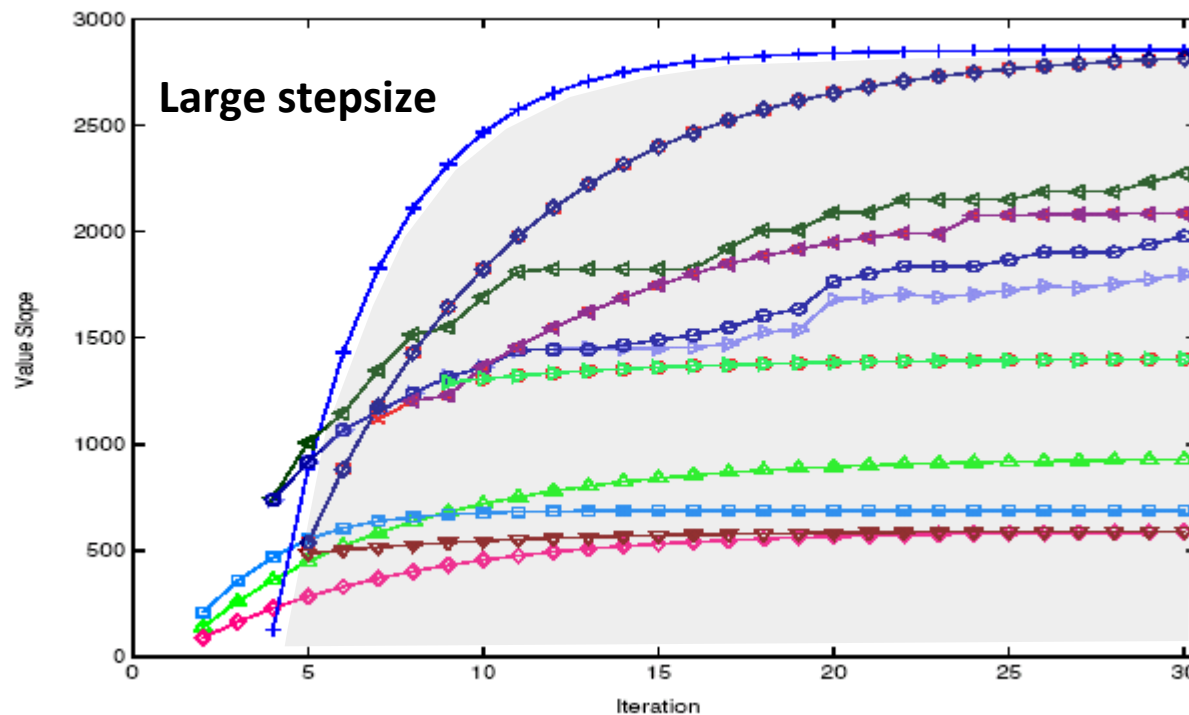
Stepsizes

- The right stepsize rule depends on the rate of change in the value function.
- This varies widely for different parameters in the same problem:



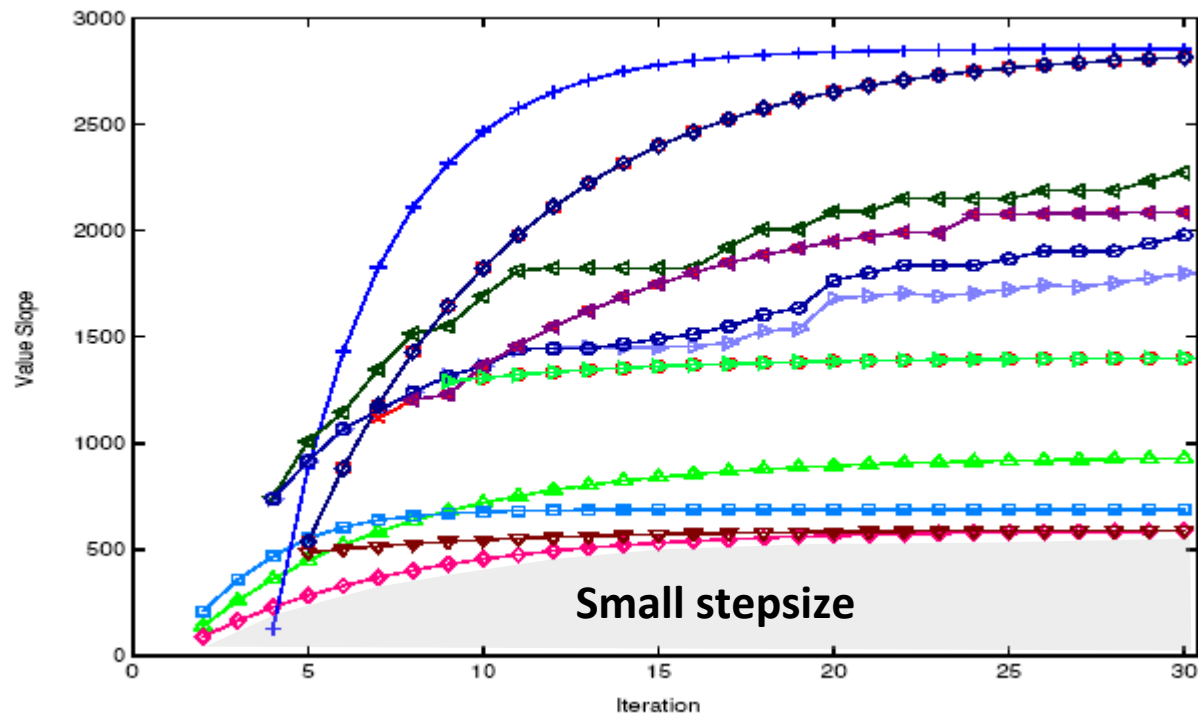
Stepsizes

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Stepsizes

- The right stepsize rule depends on the rate of change in the value function.
- This varies widely for different parameters in the same problem:



Stepsizes

Bias-adjusted Kalman filter

$$\alpha_n = 1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{(1 + \lambda^{n-1})\sigma^2 + (\beta^n)^2}$$

Estimate of the variance

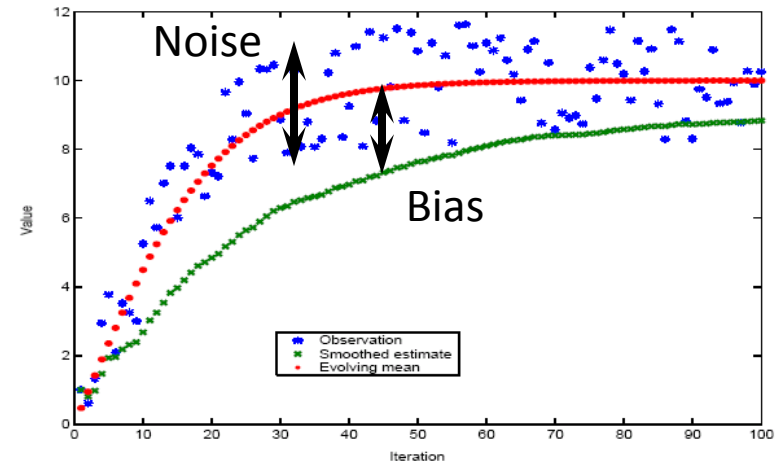
Estimate of the bias

where:

$$\lambda^n = (1 - \alpha_n)^2 \lambda^{n-1} + (\alpha_n)^2$$

As σ^2 increases, stepsize decreases

As β^n increases, stepsize increases.



Stepsizes

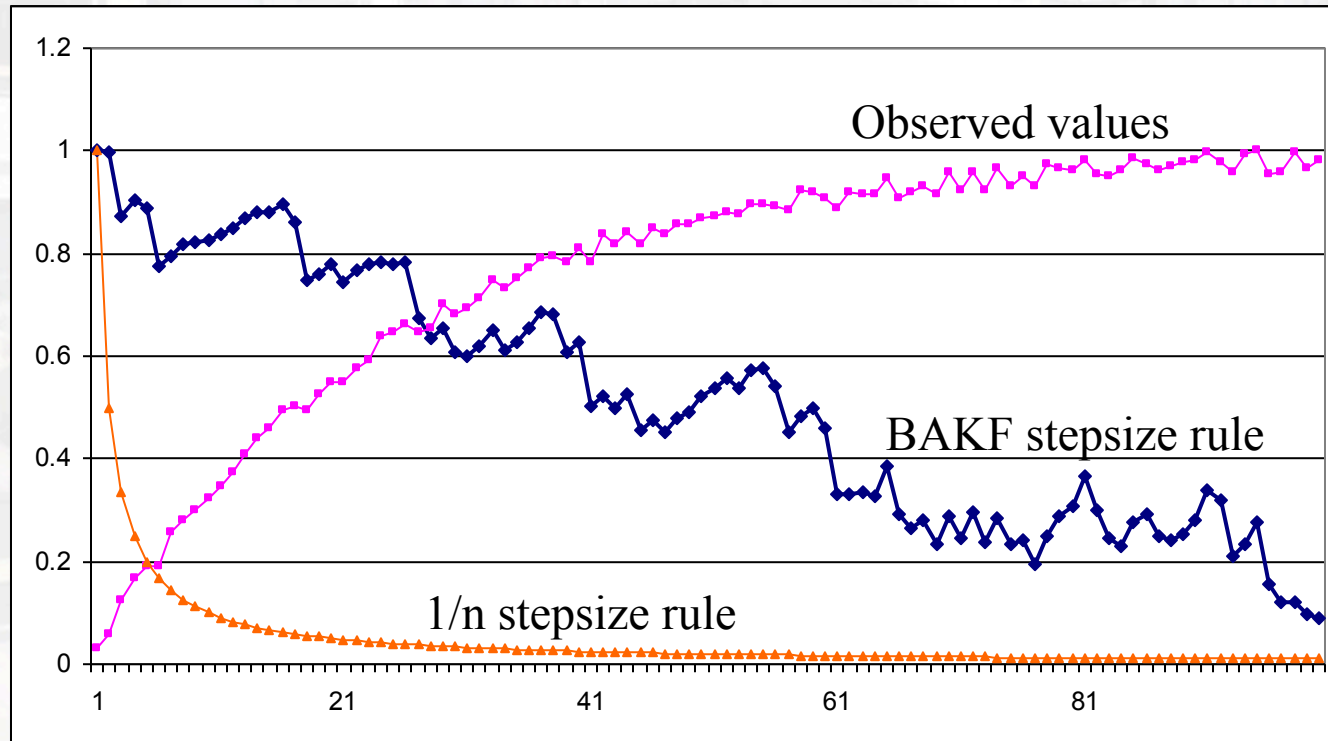
- Bias-adjusted Kalman filter
 - Properties:

$$\alpha_n \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } \sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$\alpha_n \rightarrow 1/n \quad \text{as } \beta \rightarrow 0 \text{ or } \sigma^2 \rightarrow \infty$$

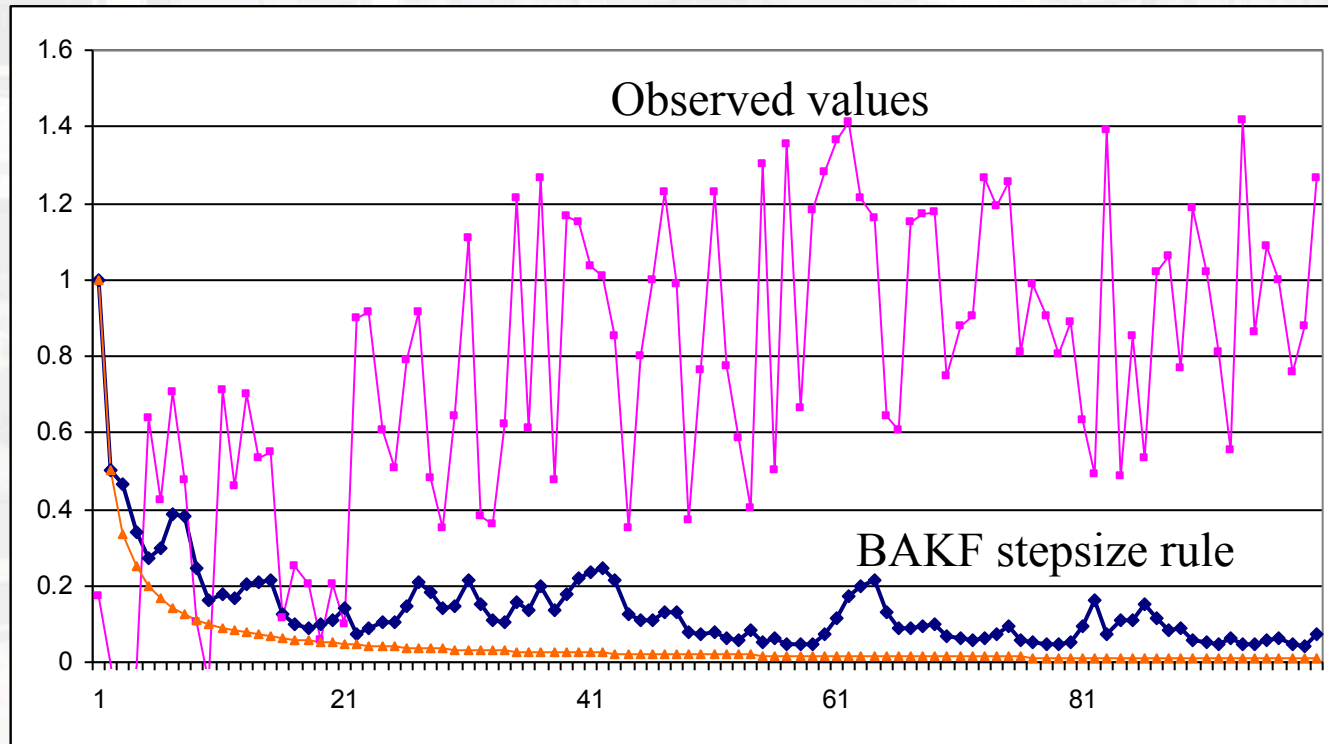
Stepsizes

- Bias-adjusted Kalman filter



Stepsizes

- Bias-adjusted Kalman filter

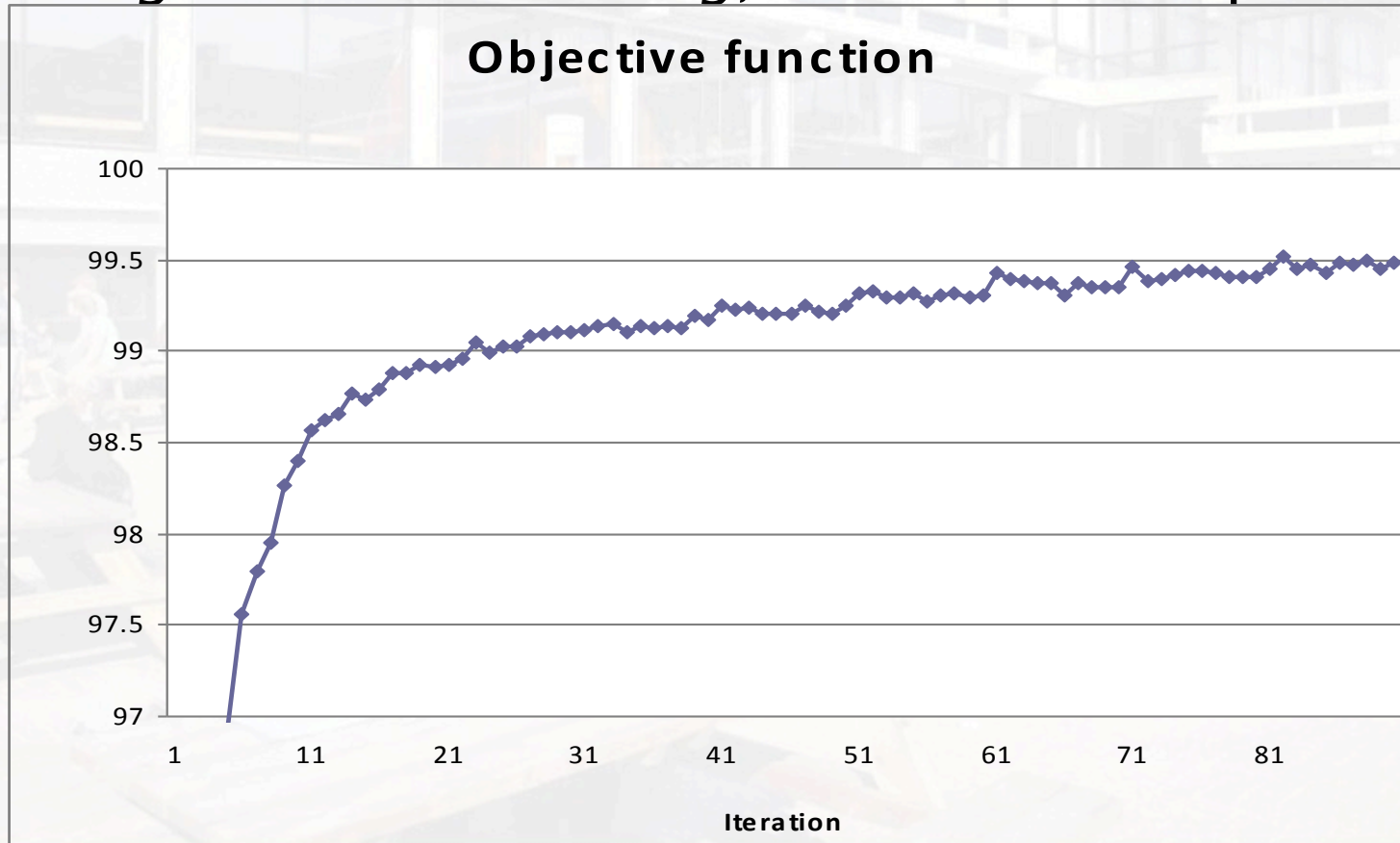


Stepsizes

- Recommendation
 - Start with a constant stepsize
 - Vary it, get a sense of what works best
 - Next try a deterministic stepsize such as $a/(a+n)$
 - Choose a so that it declines to roughly the best deterministic stepsize at an iteration comparable to where your constant stepsize seems to stabilize
 - Might be 50 iterations
 - Might be 5000
 - Try an (optimal) adaptive stepsize rule
 - Can work very well if there is not too much noise
 - Adaptive rules work well when there is a need to keep the stepsize from declining too quickly (but you do not know how quickly)

The result

Through iterative learning, the solution improves



Questions

