Response Surface Estimation

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View the simulation model as a function that sends input parameters to some output (performance) measure

Goal: Estimate this function

Example: How does the expected number-in-system behave as a function of the service rates in a queueing network?



- One is dealing with a system in which one expects significant variability in the inputs to the system (e.g. arrival rates). One needs a system design that performs reasonably well across a wide range of parameter values.
- One needs a functional estimate as an input to a real-time decision tool in which the input value is not known a priori (e.g. computing the price of an option across a range of prices of the underlying asset).

- Stochastic models are often used not as predictive tools but to generate qualitative insight into a system. Understanding how a system behaves as a function of the input variables is one source of such insight.
- Response surface estimation can be a useful first step in studying various features of the system (e.g. optimization)

Screening methods Many optimization methods implicitly estimate the response surface (at least locally in a neighborhood of the optimizer) The object to be computed is an "infinite-dimensional" (or, at least, high-dimensional) quantity.

Outline of this Talk:

- Parametric Modeling
- Nonparametric Methods
 - Common Random Numbers
 - Change-of-measure
 - Orthogonal function approximations
 - Bayesian methods
 - Shape-constrained estimation

Parametric Modeling:

$$\underline{\text{Goal:}} \qquad \text{Compute } \alpha(\theta) = \mathbf{E} X(\theta), \quad \theta \in \Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$$

Method:

- 0. Choose a finite-dimensional approximation to $\alpha(\cdot)$ e.g. $\alpha(\beta, \theta) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^d \beta_i \theta_i + \sum_{i,j=1}^d \beta_{ij} \theta_i \theta_j$
- 1. Choose $\theta_1, \theta_2, \cdots, \theta_m \in \Lambda$
- 2. Estimate $\alpha(\theta_1), \alpha(\theta_2), \cdots, \alpha(\theta_m)$ via $\overline{X}_n(\theta_1), \ldots, \overline{X}_m(\theta_m)$, where $\overline{X}_n(\theta_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\theta_i)$
- 3. Solve the least squares problem

$$\min_{\substack{\beta \\ \beta \\ n,m.}} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\overline{X}_n(\theta_i) - \alpha(\beta,\theta_i) \right)^2;$$
 call the minimizer $\widehat{\beta}_{n,m}$.

4. Approximate
$$\alpha(\cdot)$$
 via $\alpha(\widehat{\beta}_{n,m}, \cdot)$.

Suppose that

$$n^{1/2}\left(\overline{X}_n(\theta_i) - \alpha(\beta^*, \theta_i) : 1 \le i \le m\right) \Rightarrow N(0, C)$$

as $n \to \infty$. The "correct least squares problem" is:

$$\min_{\beta} \left(\overline{X}_n - \alpha(\beta, \cdot) \right)^T C^{-1} \left(\overline{X}_n - \alpha(\beta, \cdot) \right)$$

• Note that the natural "model-free" estimator for $\alpha(\theta)$ is

 $\overline{X}_n(\theta),$

where $(X_j(\theta) : j \ge 1)$ is iid.

- But, in the Monte Carlo setting, we have the freedom to choose the joint distribution (X_j(θ) : θ ∈ Λ) to our advantage.
- A natural joint distribution is to simulate (X_j(θ) : θ ∈ Λ) using common random numbers across θ

Common Random Numbers

Feed the system with common input sequences

e.g. Markov chains / stochastic recursions

$$Y_{l+1}(\theta) = \tilde{r}(Y_l(\theta), Z_{l+1}(\theta))$$
$$= r(\theta, Y_l(\theta), Z_{l+1})$$
$$X(\theta) = f(Y_l(\theta) : 0 \le l \le t)$$

Single-server queue waiting time sequence:

$$W_{l+1}(\theta) = [W_l(\theta) + F_V^{-1}(\theta, \widetilde{U}_l) - \chi_{l+1}]^+$$

= $[W_l(\theta) + \theta V_l - \chi_{l+1}]^+$

As a function of θ :

- $W_l(\cdot)$ is convex and non-decreasing
- $W_l(\cdot)$ is (typically) differentiable and

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \mathbf{E} W_l(\theta) = \mathbf{E} \frac{d}{d\theta} W_l(\theta)$$
 (IPA)

Why is the use of CRN advantageous?

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{var}[X(\theta+h)-X(\theta)] \\ & = \operatorname{var}X(\theta+h) + \operatorname{var}X(\theta) - 2\operatorname{cov}(X(\theta),X(\theta+h)) \\ & \leq \operatorname{var}X(\theta+h) + \operatorname{var}X(\theta) & \underbrace{\operatorname{depends on}}_{\text{joint distribution}} \end{split}$$

This follows if:

- X(θ) is non-decreasing in the inputs (e.g. the Z_i's in the Markov chain setting) for each θ
 Caveat: Rarely holds in the "exact" sense
- $X(\cdot)$ is continuous in probability and *h* is small:

$$X(\theta + h) \xrightarrow{P} X(\theta)$$
 as $h \downarrow 0$

implies that

$$\operatorname{cov}(X(\theta), X(\theta+h)) \to \operatorname{var} X(\theta) \ge 0$$
 as $h \downarrow 0$

This holds in great generality; so we can expect reasonable "local behavior"

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More on smoothness of $X(\theta)$:

Unless we apply CRN really poorly, we can almost always expect that $X(\cdot)$ is continuous in probability.

Can we expect more?

- In some (limited) settings:
 - $X(\cdot)$ is a.s. monotone or convex
- In other settings, $X(\cdot)$ is a.s. defined in θ and

$$\mathbf{E}X'(\theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta}\mathbf{E}X(\theta)$$

When this occurs,

$$X(\theta + h) - X(\theta) \approx hX'(\theta)$$

and (typically)

$$\operatorname{var}[X(\theta+h) - X(\theta)] = O(h^2)$$

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• For a Poisson process,

$$\operatorname{var}[N(\theta + h) - N(\theta)] = \lambda h = O(h)$$

For M/M/1 number-in-system process:

$$\operatorname{var}[X(\theta + h) - X(\theta)] = O(h)$$

This behavior likely holds in great generality for discrete-event simulations

CRN guarantees that the response surface is globally defined.

There are many ways to assess the quality of a response surface:

• Integrated Mean Square (*L*²) Error:

$$\mathbf{E}\int_{\Lambda}(\alpha_n(\theta)-\alpha(\theta))^2d\theta$$

• Worst Case Error:

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Lambda} |\alpha_n(\theta) - \alpha(\theta)|$$

Implications for optimization: e.g. How close is optimizer / optimum of α_n(·) to optimizer/optimum of α(·)?

In the "typical" case,

$$\operatorname{var}[X(\theta+h)-X(\theta)]=O(h)$$
 as $h\downarrow 0$

Then,

$$\alpha_n(\theta) \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(\theta)$$

satisfies

$$n^{1/2}(\alpha_n(\theta) - \alpha(\theta)) \Rightarrow Z(\theta)$$

as $n \to \infty$, where $(Z(\theta) : \theta \in \Lambda)$ is a mean zero Gaussian random field with

$$\operatorname{cov}(Z(\theta_1), Z(\theta_2)) = \operatorname{cov}(X(\theta_1), X(\theta_2)).$$

In the "typical case", $Z(\cdot)$ is a continuous field but not differentiable a.e.

Note that

$$\mathbf{E} \int_{\Lambda} |\alpha_n(\theta) - \alpha(\theta)|^2 d\theta \sim \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{E} \int_{\Lambda} |Z(\theta)|^2 d\theta$$

and

$$n^{1/2} \sup_{\theta \in \Lambda} |\alpha_n(\theta) - \alpha(\theta)| \Rightarrow \sup_{\theta \in \Lambda} |Z(\theta)|$$

Similar behavior occurs in "IPA" setting, because once again

$$n^{1/2}(\alpha_n(\theta) - \alpha(\theta)) \Rightarrow Z(\theta),$$

where $Z(\cdot)$ is a Gaussian random field, except that in this setting $Z(\cdot)$ is an a.s. differentiable random field

Benchmark Analysis in Optimization Setting: What happens without use of CRN's?

- Generate *m* iid points θ₁, θ₂,..., θ_m from a positive continuous density g
- Perform *n* independent simulations at each of the *m* points $(X_1(\theta_i), \ldots, X_n(\theta_i))$
- Estimate $\min_{\theta} \alpha(\theta)$ via $\min_{1 \le i \le m} \overline{X}_n(\theta_i)$

• Must have $\log m/n \to 0$ in order that

$$\min_{\leq i \leq m} \overline{X}_n(\theta_i) \to \min_{\theta} \alpha(\theta)$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (Devroye (1978), Ensor and G (1997))

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• What is an optimal choice of *m* and *n*?

For a given computer budget c:

$$m \sim rc^{d/(d+4)}$$
$$n \sim r^{-1}c^{4/(d+4)}$$

• Then, (Chia and G (2012))

$$c^{\frac{2}{d+4}}(\min_{1\leq i\leq m}\overline{X}_n(\theta_i)-\min_{\theta}\alpha(\theta))\Rightarrow\beta$$

where

$$\mathbf{P}(\beta \le x) = \exp\left(-\frac{2r^{\frac{d+4}{4}}g(\theta^*)\pi^{\frac{d}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{d}{2})\sqrt{|\det H(\theta^*)|}}\int_0^\infty \overline{\Phi}\left(\frac{2x+y}{2\sigma(\theta^*)}\right)y^{\frac{2}{d}-1}dy\right)$$

where $\overline{\Phi}(x) = \mathbf{P}(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) > x)$

• If
$$var X(\theta) = 0$$
, rate = $c^{-2/d}$

Note that

$$\epsilon^{-1/2}(Z(\theta^* + \epsilon\theta) - Z(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow R(\theta)$$

where $R(\cdot)$ is a Gaussian random field

Result: If θ_n is the minimizer of $\alpha_n(\cdot)$, then

$$n^{1/3}(\theta_n - \theta^*) \Rightarrow \underset{\theta \in \Lambda}{\arg\min}[\theta^T(H(\theta^*)/2)\theta + R(\theta)]$$
$$n^{2/3}(\alpha_n(\theta_n) - \alpha_n(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow \underset{\theta \in \Lambda}{\min}[\theta^T(H(\theta^*)/2)\theta + R(\theta)]$$
$$n^{1/2}(\alpha_n(\theta_n) - \alpha(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow Z(\theta^*)$$

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But we only evaluate $\alpha_n(\cdot)$ at points $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_m$: When we optimally trade-off *n* versus *m*,

$$c^{2/(d+4)}(\alpha_n(\theta_m) - \alpha(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow \Gamma$$

Note that:

The "discretized" minimum has the same convergence rate as in the independent case

But

The "continuous" minimum converges (much) faster and at a dimension-independent rate

In the IPA setting where Z(.) is differentiable,

 $\alpha_n(\theta) \approx \alpha(\theta^*) + Z(\theta^*)/n^{1/2} + (\theta - \theta^*)^T H(\theta^*)/2(\theta - \theta^*) + \nabla Z(\theta^*)^T (\theta - \theta^*)/n^{1/2}$

Result:

$$n^{1/2}(\theta_n - \theta^*) \Rightarrow H(\theta^*)^{-1} \nabla Z(\theta^*)^T$$
$$n(\alpha_n(\theta_n) - \alpha_n(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow \nabla Z(\theta^*) H(\theta^*) / 2 \nabla Z(\theta^*)^T$$
$$n^{1/2}(\alpha_n(\theta_n) - \alpha(\theta^*)) \Rightarrow Z(\theta^*)$$

Evaluating at $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_m$ leads to the same $c^{-2/(d+4)}$ rate as before....

But "continuous" minimum converges faster and (even) faster than in "typical" CRN setting

Change-of-Measure

Assume that $\alpha(\theta) = \mathbf{E}_{\theta} X$ where

$$P_{\theta}(d\omega) = L(\theta, \omega)P(d\omega)$$

Then,

$$\alpha(\theta) = \mathbf{E}_{\theta} X = \mathbf{E} X L(\theta)$$

so the response surface can be estimated via

$$\alpha_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i L_i(\theta)$$

Rarely preserves monotonicity, convexity, etc.

For exponential families:

$$L(\theta) = \exp\left(\theta \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} Z_i - t\psi(\theta)\right)$$

so $\alpha_n(\cdot)$ is very cheap to evaluate at many θ 's in this case (as opposed to CRN's).

- variance in $L(\theta)$ tends to blow up "exponentially" in t and θ
- $\alpha_n(\cdot)$ is rarely a good global approximation to $\alpha(\cdot)$

Orthogonal Function Approximations

e.g.
$$\alpha(\theta) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} < \alpha, \phi_i > \phi_i(\theta)$$

where

$$< \alpha, \phi_i > = \int_{\Lambda} \alpha(\theta) \phi_i(\theta) w(\theta) d\theta$$

 $= \mathbf{E} X(\theta) \phi_i(\theta) \frac{w(\theta)}{h(\theta)}$

Estimate $< \alpha, \phi_i >$ via Monte Carlo:

$$\alpha_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=0}^{m_n} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\theta_j) \phi_i(\theta_j) \frac{w(\theta_j)}{h(\theta_j)} \tag{G89}$$

For Fourier basis and $\Lambda = [0, 2\pi]$, rate of convergence is $n^{-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2p}}$, when $\alpha \in C^p$.

Bayesian Methods:

- i.e. impose a probability *P* on $C(\Lambda)$, $C^{1}(\Lambda)$, $C^{2}(\Lambda)$, etc.
 - Then, model $\alpha(\cdot)$ as a realization of such a Gaussian random field.
 - Compute posterior

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\alpha \in \cdot \mid \overline{X}_n(\theta_i) : 1 \le i \le m\right)$$

where

$$\overline{X}_n(\theta_i) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{\approx} \alpha(\theta_i) + \frac{Z(\theta_i)}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Computationally expensive calculation
- Can also compute posterior

$$\mathbf{P}(\alpha \in \cdot \mid \overline{X}_n(\theta_i), \nabla \overline{X}_n(\theta_i) : 1 \le i \le m)$$

when sample gradients are present

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- Observe X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m at locations $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_m$
- Assume

$$X_i = \alpha(\theta_i) + \nu_i$$

for $1 \le i \le m$, where $\alpha(\cdot)$ is convex and the ν_i 's here satisfy $\mathbf{E}\nu_i = 0$.

• <u>Goal</u>: Compute a (global) estimator for $\alpha(\cdot)$

- Let $\mathscr{C} = \{g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } g \text{ is convex}\}$
- Given a "weight function" $w(\cdot)$, estimate α via the minimizer \hat{g}_n of

$$\varphi_n(g) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - g(\theta_i))^2 w(\theta_i)$$
s/t $g \in \mathscr{C}$

The Quadratic Program

$$\min_{\substack{g_i,\xi_i \\ \mathbf{s}/\mathbf{t}}} \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - g_i)^2 w(\theta_i)$$
$$\mathbf{s/t} \quad g_j \ge g_i + \xi_i^T (\theta_j - \theta_i), \quad 1 \le i,j \le n$$

- $(\hat{g}_1, \ldots, \hat{g}_n)$ is unique
- But the subgradients $\hat{\xi}_1, \ldots, \hat{\xi}_n$ are not unique
- There are many convex functions \hat{g}_n that simultaneously minimize $\varphi_n(g)$ for $g \in \mathscr{C}$

To uniquely define \hat{g}_n , set

$$\hat{g}_n(x) = \sup\{g(x) : g \in \mathscr{C}, g(\theta_i) = \hat{g}_i, 1 \le i \le n\}$$



- *ĝ_n(x)* is finite-valued on conv(θ₁,...,θ_n) (∞ outside conv(θ₁,...,θ_n))
- $\hat{g}_n(\cdot)$ is a "non-local" estimator (every point influences $\hat{g}_n(x)$

 $\hat{g}_n(x)$ can be computed as the optimal value \hat{y} to the linear program:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \max & y \\ \mathbf{s/t} & \hat{g}_j \geq \hat{g}_i + \xi_i^T(\theta_j - \theta_i), \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n \\ & y \geq \hat{g}_i + \xi_i^T(y - \theta_i), \quad 1 \leq i \leq n \\ & \hat{g}_j \geq y + \tilde{\xi}_i^T(\theta_j - y), \quad 1 \leq j \leq n \end{array}$

Let $L^2(\Lambda) = \{g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } \mathbf{E}g^2(\theta)w(\theta) < \infty\}$ and set $\langle g_1, g_2 \rangle = \mathbf{E}g_1(\theta)g_2(\theta)w(\theta)$

SO $\|g\| = \sqrt{\langle g, g \rangle}$.

Proposition

$$\mathscr{C}^2 = \mathscr{C} \bigcap L^2(\Lambda)$$
 is a closed convex cone in $L^2(\Lambda)$

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The minimizer g_* of

$$\min_{g\in \mathscr{C}^2} \|\alpha - g\|$$

is unique and is characterized as the function g_* for which

$$< \alpha - g_*, g - g_* > \leq 0$$

for all $g \in \mathscr{C}^2$.

Our main result...

Theorem (Lim and G (2012)) For each $c \ge 0$, $\sup_{\|x\| \le c} |\hat{g}_n(x) - g_*(x)| \to 0 \text{ a.s.}$ as $n \to \infty$

- previous results only for d = 1 (Hanson and Pledger (1976); Groeneboom, Jongbloed, Wellner (2001))
- first result on shape-constrained regression that deals with model mis-specification

- Domain of *g* can be a convex subset of ℝ^d (conclusion is "uniform convergence on compact subsets of interior")
- Generalizes to setting where
 𝔅 = {g : ℝ^d → ℝ is convex and non-decreasing}

Outline of Proof

• By definition,

$$\varphi_n(\hat{g}_n) \leq \varphi_n(g_*)$$

So,

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{g}_n(\theta_i) - g_*(\theta_i))^2 w(\theta_i) \\ &\leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - g_*(\theta_i)) (\hat{g}_n(\theta_i) - g_*(\theta_i)) w(\theta_i) \end{split}$$

 If ĝ_n(·) were a fixed convex function in L²(Λ), SLLN would guarantee convergence of RHS to

 $\mathbf{E}(\alpha(\theta) - g_*(\theta))(\hat{g}_n(\theta) - g_*(\theta))w(\theta) = <\alpha - g_*, \hat{g}_n - g_* > \le 0$

• Two problems:

 \hat{g}_n not fixed $\hat{g}_n \notin L^2(\Lambda)$

So...

- Show that $(\varphi_n(\hat{g}_n) : n \ge 1)$ is a.s. a bounded sequence
- Use this to show that $(\hat{g}_n(x) : n \ge 1, ||x|| \le c)$ is a.s. bounded
- This implies that ĝ_n is uniformly (in n) a.s. Lipschitz over {x : ||x|| ≤ c}
- Can form a *finite ϵ*-net *h*₁, *h*₂, ..., *h*_l that provides a uniform cover for class of Lipschitz convex functions on {*x* : ||*x*|| ≤ *c*}
- Each such h_j can be convexly extended to ℝ^d so that h_j ∈ L²(Λ)
 So,

$$\frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - g_*(\theta_i))(h_j(\theta_i) - g_*(\theta_i))w(\theta_i) \to <\alpha - g_*, h_j - g_* > \le 0$$

• But \hat{g}_n is ϵ -close to one of the h_j 's over $\{x : ||x|| \le c\}$

• So,
$$\overline{\lim_{n \to \infty}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{g}_n(\theta_i) - g_*(\theta_i))^2 w(\theta_i) \le 0$$

• Because \hat{g}_n is uniformly Lipschitz on $\{x : ||x|| \le c\}$, this implies uniform convergence on $\{x : ||x|| \le c\}$

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Shape-based methods can be extended to Lipschitz constraints on the response function.

Open problem: Rates of convergence, particularly when the sampling employs common random numbers

Response surface estimation is a challenging area for which many approaches are possible:

- Use of common random numbers is a central theme, and the connection to Guassian random fields and the degree of smoothness in the sample surface plays a key role
- Shape-constrained estimation is an interesting means of dealing with the infinite-dimensional aspect
- The cost of evaluating the response surface at a "new point" can be substantial, and a good choice of "interpolant" can be important
- Many open problems remain