`Neur2SP`: **Neural Two-Stage Stochastic Programming**

Abstract

Stochastic programming is a powerful modeling framework for decision-making under uncertainty. In this work, we tackle two-stage stochastic programs (2SPs), the most widely applied and studied class of stochastic programming models. Solving 2SPs exactly requires evaluation of an expected value function that is computationally intractable. Additionally, having a mixed-integer linear program (MIP) or a nonlinear program (NLP) in the second stage further aggravates the problem difficulty. In such cases, solving them can be prohibitively expensive even if specialized algorithms that exploit problem structure are employed. Finding high-quality (first-stage) solutions – without leveraging problem structure – can be crucial in such settings. We develop `Neur2SP`, a new method that approximates the expected value function via a neural network to obtain a surrogate model that can be solved more efficiently than the traditional extensive formulation approach. Moreover, `Neur2SP` makes no assumptions about the problem structure, in particular about the second-stage problem, and can be implemented using an off-the-shelf solver and open-source libraries. Our extensive computational experiments on benchmark 2SP datasets from four problem classes with different structures (containing MIP and NLP second-stage problems) show the efficiency (time) and efficacy (solution quality) of `Neur2SP`. Specifically, the proposed method takes less than 1.66 seconds across all problems, achieving high-quality solutions even as the number of scenarios increases, an ideal property that is difficult to have for traditional 2SP solution techniques. Namely, the most generic baseline method typically requires minutes to hours to find solutions of comparable quality.

1 Introduction

Mathematical programming consists of a gamut of tools to solve optimization problems. Under perfect information, i.e., when all the data is deterministic and known, many of these problems can be solved as a linear program (LP) or mixed-integer linear program (MIP). However, in many cases, we need a modeling technique that gives us the flexibility to deal with problems with partial information. Stochastic programming is one such tool that helps us incorporate uncertainty into decision making.

In this work, we focus our attention on two-stage stochastic programs (2SPs). A 2SP involves two sets of decisions, namely the first-stage and second-stage (recourse) decisions, to be made before and after the uncertainty is realized, respectively. Given the (joint) probability distribution of the random parameters of the problem, the most common objective of 2SP is to optimize the expected value of the decisions. For example, in a two-stage stochastic facility location problem, first-stage decisions consist of which facilities should be built whereas second-stage decisions involve assigning customers to open facilities to meet their stochastic demand, and the overall objective is to minimize the sum of cost of the first-stage decisions and the expected cost of the second-stage decisions.

2SPs are usually solved via sample average approximation (SAA), which limits the future uncertainty to a finite set of possible realizations called scenarios. The obtained approximation of a 2SP, referred

Submitted to 36th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2022). Do not distribute.

to as the SAA problem, is a reduction to an equivalent deterministic problem, and can be solved by the so-called *extensive form*, the monolithic formulation where scenario copies of the second-stage decision variables are created and linked to the first-stage decisions. However, even for small 2SPs, solving the extensive form may be intractable as it requires introducing a large number of (possibly integer) variables and (possibly nonlinear) constraints. As such, specialized algorithms are required. If the second-stage problem assumes the form of an LP, then algorithms such as Benders decomposition (also known as the L-shaped method) can be leveraged to efficiently solve the problem to optimality. Unfortunately, in many practical applications of 2SP, the second-stage problem assumes the form of a MIP, for which specialized decomposition algorithms might not be efficient. The existence of continuous first-stage variables linked to the second-stage problem significantly increases the difficulty of solving such problems. This is exacerbated when the second-stage problem is nonlinear, for which no general and structure-agnostic solution strategy exists.

In this work, we propose `Neur2SP`, a framework for constructing an *easier-to-solve* surrogate optimization problem for 2SP with the use of neural networks and supervised learning. A neural network is trained to approximate the second-stage value function for a finite set of scenarios. With such a trained network, the surrogate problem is confined to optimizing *only* first-stage decisions with respect to the first-stage objective function and the neural network approximation of the second-stage objective; for a fixed first-stage solution obtained via this surrogate, an optimal second-stage decision can be obtained relatively quickly for each scenario if desired. Our main contributions can be summarized as follows:

1. `Neur2SP` is the first generic machine learning approach for deriving a heuristic solution for 2SP. We introduce a highly parallelizable data collection procedure and show two separate neural models which can be used to formulate a deterministic mixed-integer surrogate problem for 2SP;

2. `Neur2SP` can be used out-of-the-box for 2SPs with linear and nonlinear objectives and constraints as well as mixed-integer variables in both the first and second stages, all without using any problem structure, i.e., in a purely data-driven way;

3. `Neur2SP` is shown to produce high-quality solutions significantly faster than the solely applicable general baseline method, the extensive form approach, for a variety of benchmark problems, namely, stochastic facility location problem, an investment problem, a server location problem, and a pooling problem from chemical engineering.

2   Preliminaries

In this section, we briefly introduce the necessary mathematical concepts used in the remainder of the paper. For a detailed summary of the notation see Appendix A. We first provide introduce the 2SP setting, then describe the MIP formulation for a ReLU activation function which is central to the surrogate model we propose in this work.

2.1   Two-stage Stochastic Programming

A 2SP can be generally expressed as $\min_x \{c^\intercal x + \mathbb{E}_\xi[Q(x, \xi)] : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$, where $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the first-stage cost vector, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ represents the first-stage decisions, $\mathcal{X}$ is the first-stage feasible set, and ξ is the vector of random parameters following a probability distribution $\mathbb{P}$ with support Ξ. The *value function* $Q : \mathcal{X} \times \Xi \to \mathbb{R}$ returns the cost of optimal second-stage (recourse) decisions under realization ξ given the first-stage decisions of x. In many cases, as the $Q(x, \xi)$ is obtained by solving a mathematical program, evaluating the *expected value function*, $\mathbb{E}_\xi[Q(x, \xi)]$ is intractable.

To provide a more tractable formulation, the extensive form (EF) is used. Using a set of K scenarios sampled from the probability distribution $\mathbb{P}$, $EF(K) \equiv \min_x \{c^\intercal x + \sum_{k=1}^K p_k Q(x, \xi_k) : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$, where p_k is the probability of scenario ξ_k being realized. If $Q(x, \xi) = \min_y \{F(y, \xi) : y \in \mathcal{Y}(x, \xi)\}$, then $EF(K)$ can be expressed as

$$\min_{x,y} \left\{ c^\intercal x + \sum_{k=1}^K p_k F(y_k, \xi_k) : x \in \mathcal{X}, y_k \in \mathcal{Y}(x, \xi_k) \, \forall k = 1, \dots, K \right\},$$

which can be solved through standard deterministic optimization techniques. However, the number of variables and constraints of the EF grows linearly with the number of scenarios. Furthermore, if

84 $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the optimal value of a MIP or an NLP, the EF model becomes significantly more challenging
85 to solve as compared to the LP case, limiting its applicability even at small scale.

2.2 Embedding Neural Networks into MIPs

87 Neural networks are known to be universal function approximators [Hornik et al., 1989]. Math-
88 ematically, an ℓ-layer fully-connected neural network can be expressed as: $h^1 = \sigma(W^0 \alpha + b^0)$;
89 $h^{m+1} = \sigma(W^m h^m + b^m), m = 1, \ldots, \ell - 1; \beta = W^\ell h^\ell + b^\ell$. Here, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the input, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$
90 is the prediction, $h^i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$ is the i-th hidden layer, $W^i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i \times d_{i+1}}$ is the matrix of weights from
91 layer i to $i + 1$, $b^i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$ is the bias at the i-th layer, and σ is a non-linear activation function. The
92 activation function is the rectified linear unit $(ReLU)$ given by $\sigma(a) = \max\{0, a\}$.

93 Central to Neur2SP is the embedding of a trained neural network into a MIP. Here, we present the
94 formulation proposed by [Fischetti and Jo, 2018]. For a given hidden layer m, the j-th hidden unit,
95 h_j^m, can be written as

$$h_j^m = ReLU \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_{m-1}} w_{ij}^{m-1} h_i^{m-1} + b_j^{m-1} \right), \tag{1}$$

96 where w_{ij}^m is the element at the j-th row and i-th column of W^{m-1} and b_j^{m-1} is the j-th index of
97 b^{m-1}. To model $ReLU$ in a MIP for a single hidden unit, say the j-th unit in the m-th layer, we use
98 the variables $\hat{h}_j^m, \check{h}_j^m$ and $\hat{h}_i^{m-1}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, d_{m-1}$. With the above variables, the $ReLU$ activation
99 can be modeled with the following constraints:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d_{m-1}} w_{ij}^{m-1} \hat{h}_i^{m-1} + b_j^{m-1} = \hat{h}_j^m - \check{h}_j^m, \tag{2a}$$

$$z_j^m = 1 \Rightarrow \hat{h}_j^m \leq 0, \tag{2b}$$

$$z_j^m = 0 \Rightarrow \check{h}_j^m \leq 0, \tag{2c}$$

$$\hat{h}_j^m, \check{h}_j^m \geq 0, \tag{2d}$$

$$z_j^m \in \{0, 1\}, \tag{2e}$$

100 where the logical constraints in Equation (2b) and Equation (2c) are translated into big-M constraints
101 by MIP solvers. To verify the correctness of this formulation, observe that constraints (2b) and (2c)
102 in conjunction with the fact the binary z_j^m ensures that at most one of $\hat{h}_j^m$ and $\check{h}_j^m$ are non-zero.
103 Furthermore, since both $\hat{h}_j^m$ and $\check{h}_j^m$ are non-negative, if $\sum_{i=1}^{d_{m-1}} w_{ij}^{m-1} \hat{h}_i^{m-1} + b_j^{m-1} > 0$, then it
104 follows that $\hat{h}_j^m > 0$ and $\check{h}_j^m = 0$. If negative, then $\hat{h}_j^m = 0$ and $\check{h}_j^m > 0$. Thus, we have that if the
105 left-hand side of (2a) is positive, $\hat{h}_j^m$ will be positive; if it is negative, then $\hat{h}_j^m = 0$; this is an exact
106 representation of the $ReLU$ function.

3 Related Work

108 A recent line of work by Cheng et al. [2017], Tjeng et al. [2017], Fischetti and Jo [2018], Serra et al.
109 [2018] studies the problem of embedding a trained neural network with ReLU activation in the hidden
110 layers into a MIP. To the best of our knowledge, Neur2SP is the first approach that employs this
111 technique in the stochastic programming setting. The works of Anderson et al. [2020] and Grimstad
112 and Andersson [2019] showcase how the bound of these MIP encodings of a neural network can be
113 tightened further; as the bounds are based on the big-M constraints, setting the right value of M can
114 have an impact on the solution time.

115 Another exciting direction of research proposes to heuristically solve 2SP based on scenario reduction.
116 Many of these approaches Dupačová et al. [2003], Römisch [2009], Beraldi and Bruni [2014],
117 Prochazka and Wallace [2020], Keutchayan et al. [2021] perform some form of clustering to reduce
118 the number of scenarios and then solve a smaller surrogate problem with these scenarios. Recently,
119 Wu et al. [2022] used a conditional variational autoencoder to learn scenario embedding and perform
120 clustering on it for scenario reduction. To find representative scenarios they use semi-supervised

121 learning with respect to the second-stage cost, however, these predictions are not leveraged explicitly
122 in the downstream task, like the methodology we propose in this work.

123 Nair et al. [2018] directly learn to predict the solution of a 2SP for unconstrained binary first-stage
124 decisions. They predict an initial first-stage solution and iteratively perturb it to improve. However, it
125 cannot handle hard constraints nor general integer or continuous variables in the first stage. Bengio
126 et al. [2020] predicts a representative scenario, for an input scenario set, and use it to form a smaller
127 surrogate problem. They show that using the predicted representative scenario, a near-optimal first-
128 stage decision can be obtained by solving the surrogate. However, their method relies on the problem
129 structure to build the representative scenario for training, which requires domain expertise.

130 Furthermore, Dai et al. [2022] develop a model to map problem instances to piece-wise linear value
131 functions. Their approach is applied to multi-stage problems, however, as their model is based on
132 piece-wise linear components, it is only applicable to problems with linear next-stage sub-problems.
133 Also, none of the above mentioned works have a non-linear second-stage problem.

4 Methodology

135 In this section, we present our methodology. Specifically, the learning models and tasks, the
136 approximations to 2SP, and a data generation strategy. For an overview of our methodology, we
137 provide a illustration and summary in Figure 1. We use the notation $[n] := \{1, \ldots, n\}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$.

Figure 1: Overview of illustration of the methodology. The leftmost block is the input, namely, a 2SP. From the 2SP, we follow the data generation procedure from Section 4.3 to obtain a dataset. We then train one of the learning models presented in Section 4.1. The trained model is then embedded into a MIP using the procedure in Section 4.2 to obtain an approximate MIP (the "MIPify" step). Lastly, the approximate MIP is solved with an off-the-shelf MIP solver to obtain a first-stage 2SP solution.

4.1 Learning Models

139 We propose two separate learning models for predicting the second-stage costs. These models loosely
140 relate to the multi-cut and single-cut Benders decomposition algorithms. Specifically, we propose a
141 single-cut model which attempts to estimate the expected second-stage cost of *a set of scenarios* and
142 a multi-cut model which estimates the cost of *a single second-stage scenario*.

143 **Single-cut.** In this case, the model learns a mapping from $\left(x, \{\xi_k\}_{k=1}^K\right) \to \sum_{k=1}^K p_k Q(x, \xi_k)$. In
144 words, the model takes in a first-stage solution x and a set of K scenarios, and outputs a prediction of
145 the second-stage cost. We embed the scenario set $\{\xi_k\}_{k=1}^K$ into a latent space by passing it through a
146 neural network Ψ^1 and performing mean-aggregation. The aggregated embedding is passed through
147 another network, Ψ^2, to obtain the final scenario embedding. This embedding, representing the
148 scenario set [Zaheer et al., 2017], is appended to the input first-stage decision and passed through
149 a feed-forward network Φ^{SC}, with ReLU activations, to predict the expected second-stage value.
150 Hence, the final output is such that $\Phi^{SC}(x, \Psi^2(\oplus_{k=1}^K \Psi^1(p_k, \xi_k))) \approx \sum_{k=1}^K p_k Q(x, \xi_k)$. Note that
151 the embedding networks, Ψ^1 and Ψ^2, can be arbitrarily complex as only the latent representation
152 is embedded into the approximate MIP. Also, although Ψ^1 is trained using K scenarios, once the
153 networks are trained, they can be used with any finite (potentially much larger) number of scenarios.

154 **Multi-cut.** In this setting, the model learns a mapping Φ^{MC} from $(x, \xi_k) \to Q(x, \xi_k)$, where
155 $k \in [K]$. Once the mapping Φ^{MC} is learned, we can approximate $\sum_{k=1}^K p_k Q(x, \xi_k) \approx$
156 $\sum_{k=1}^K p_k \Phi^{MC}(x, \xi_k)$.

Figure 2: `Neur2SP` single-cut architecture.

$$\min \quad c^\mathsf{T} x + \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\Lambda} p_\lambda \beta_\lambda \tag{3a}$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{d_0} w_{ij}^0 [x, \xi_\lambda]_i + b_j^0 = \hat{h}_j^{1,\lambda} - \check{h}_j^{1,\lambda} \qquad \forall\, j \in [d_1], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3b}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d_{m-1}} w_{ij}^{m-1} \hat{h}_i^{m-1,\lambda} + b_j^{m-1} = \hat{h}_j^{m,\lambda} - \check{h}_j^{m,\lambda} \qquad \forall\, m \in [\ell-1], j \in [d_m], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3c}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d_\ell} w_{ij}^\ell \hat{h}_i^{\ell,\lambda} + b^\ell \leq \beta_\lambda \qquad \forall \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3d}$$

$$z_j^{m,\lambda} = 1 \Rightarrow \hat{h}_j^{m,\lambda} = 0 \qquad \forall\, m \in [\ell-1], j \in [d_m], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3e}$$

$$z_j^{m,\lambda} = 0 \Rightarrow \check{h}_j^{m,\lambda} = 0 \qquad \forall\, m \in [\ell-1], j \in [d_m], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3f}$$

$$z_j^{m,\lambda} \in \{0,1\} \qquad \forall\, m \in [\ell-1], j \in [d_m], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3g}$$

$$\hat{h}_j^{m,\lambda}, \check{h}_j^{m,\lambda} \geq 0 \qquad \forall\, m \in [\ell-1], j \in [d_m], \lambda \in [\Lambda], \tag{3h}$$

$$x \in \mathcal{X} \tag{3i}$$

4.2 Neural Network Embedding for 2SP

We now describe the approximate MIP for both the single-cut and multi-cut learning models from the preceding section. Let Λ represent the number of predictions made by the neural network. For the single-cut case, $\Lambda = 1$ as we only predict the expected second-stage value for a set of scenarios. In the multi-cut case, $\Lambda = K$ as predict the second-stage value for each scenario.

Let $\hat{h}_j^{m,\lambda}$ represent the $ReLU$ output for the j-th hidden unit in the m-th hidden layer for output λ, for all $m \in [\ell-1]$, $j \in [d_m]$, and $\lambda \in [\Lambda]$. Suppose $\check{h}_j^{m,\lambda}$ is a slack variable used to model the $ReLU$ output for the j-th hidden unit in the m-th hidden layer for scenario k, for all $m \in [\ell-1]$, $j \in [d_m]$, and $\lambda \in [\Lambda]$. Let $z_j^{m,\lambda}$ be a binary variable used to ensure that at most one of $\hat{h}_j^{m,k}$ and $\check{h}_j^{m,k}$ are non-zero. This variable is defined for all $m \in [\ell-1]$, $j \in [d_m]$, and $\lambda \in [\Lambda]$. Suppose β_λ is the λ-th prediction by the neural network, for all $\lambda \in [\Lambda]$.

With the above variables we can define an approximation to EF as given in Equation (3). The objective function (3a) minimizes the cost of the first-stage decisions plus the expected cost of the second-stage cost approximation. Constraints (3b)-(3d) propagate a first-stage solution x to the output of the neural network for each scenario. Constraints (3e)-(3h) ensure the prediction of the neural network is respected. Constraint (3i) ensures the feasibility of the first-stage solution.

In this approximation, we introduce a number of additional variables and big-M constraints. Specifically, for a neural network with H hidden units, we introduce $\Lambda \cdot H$ additional binary variables for $z_j^{m,\lambda}$. In addition, we introduce $2 \cdot \Lambda \cdot H$ continuous variables for $\hat{h}_j^{m,\lambda}$ and $\check{h}_j^{m,\lambda}$. Lastly, we require an additional Λ variables for the output of the network. Although the number of variables we introduce in this approximation is quite large, we hypothesize that the resulting MIP will be easier to solve than the extensive form, in particular, when the second-stage problem is nonlinear. In the remainder of the paper, we refer to the neural network embedded MIP given in (3) as MIP-NN.

4.3 Data Generation

The proposed methodology falls in the supervised learning paradigm. Hence, we need a diverse dataset of input-output pairs to train a model. To generate such dataset for a given 2SP problem we follow an iterative procedure. We begin by generating a random feasible first-stage decision. For the single-cut case, we sample a set of scenarios with random cardinality K' from the uncertainty distribution. Here, K' should be chosen to balance the trade-off between the time spent to generate a sample of second-stage values for a given first-stage solution and the time to estimate the expected second-stage value for a set of first-stage decisions in a given time budget. Specifically, if K' is large, then on average more time will be spent in determining the expected value using a large number of scenarios, while for a small K', the first-stage decision space will be explored more since expected value estimates would be obtained faster. For a given input of a first-stage decision and set of scenarios we then generate a label by calculating the expected second-stage value $\sum_{k'=1}^{K'} p_{k'} Q_{k'}(\cdot, \xi_{k'})$.

For the multi-cut case, at each iteration of the data generation procedure, we sample a single scenario from the uncertainty distribution. For a given input of a first-stage decision and scenario we generate a label by calculating its second-stage value $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$. Last, the input-output pair is added to the dataset.

This data generation procedure is fully parallelizable over the second-stage problems to be solved.

4.4 Multi-cut vs. Single-cut Trade-offs

The single-cut and multi-cut models both have significant trade-offs in terms of the learning task and the downstream optimization problem which embeds the trained model.

Learning. In data generation, both models require solving second-stage problems with a fixed first-stage solution. A sample in the multi-cut setting requires solving only a single optimization problem, whereas a sample in the single-cut setting requires solving at most K' second-stage problems. As this process is offline and highly parallelizable, this trade-off is easy to mitigate. As for learning, the single-cut approach operates on a subset of scenarios which makes for an exponentially larger input space. Despite the large input space, our experiments show that the single-cut model in the training converges quite well and in many cases the embedded model outperforms the multi-cut model.

Downstream Optimization Task. As the ultimate goal is embedding the trained model into a MIP, the trade-off in this regard becomes quite important. Specifically, for K scenarios, the multi-cut model will have K times more binary and continuous variables than the single-cut model. For problems with a large number of scenarios, this makes the single-cut model much more appealing, smaller and likely faster to solve. Furthermore, it allows for much larger networks given that only a single copy of the network is embedded.

5 Computational Setup

All experiments were run on a computing cluster with an Intel Xeon CPU E5-2683 and Nvidia Tesla P100 GPU with 64GB of RAM (for training). Gurobi 9.1.2 [Gurobi Optimization, LLC, 2021] was used as the MIP solver. Scikit-learn 1.0.1 [Pedregosa et al., 2011] and Pytorch 1.10.0 [Paszke et al., 2019] were used for supervised learning. The code to reproduce all of the experiments is available at https://anonymous.4open.science/r/neural_stochastic_programming-437E.

2SP Problems: We evaluate our approach on four different 2SP problems that are commonly considered in the literature to test 2SP methodologies, namely, a two-stage stochastic variant of the

Problem	First stage	Second Stage	Objective	Constraints	Objective Sense
CFLP	Binary	Binary	Linear	Linear	Minimization
INVP	Continuous	Binary	Linear	Linear	Minimization
SSLP	Binary	Binary	Linear	Linear	Minimization
PP	Binary	Continuous	Bilinear	Bilinear	Maximization

Table 1: Problem class characteristics.

capacitated facility location problem (CFLP) from [Cornuéjols et al., 1991], investment problem (INVP) [Schultz et al., 1998], stochastic server location problem (SSLP) [Ntaimo and Sen, 2005], and pooling problem (PP) [Audet et al., 2004, Gupte et al., 2017, Gounaris et al., 2009, Haverly, 1978]. The type of the first-stage and second-stage variables for these problems is provided in Table 1. The detailed descriptions of the problems are provided in Appendix B.

Baselines: We consider two baselines. The first is EF, which is perhaps the only generic approach that can be applied within both integer and nonlinear second-stage problems. We limit the solving time of EF to 3 hours. Additionally, we compare against an embedded trained linear regressor rather than a neural network, but defer these results to Appendix D as the solution quality is quite poor in comparison to the neural network models.

Model & Dataset Selection : As with any supervised learning setting, model selection and the size of the training set can have a significant impact on model performance. We report detailed experiments for model selection and dataset sizing in Appendix F. As a brief summary, we use random search over 100 configurations for model selection, and observe that the overall supervised learning performance is not greatly impacted by different configurations. For the size of the dataset we observe diminishing returns when increasing the size beyond 5000 samples.

Data Generation & Supervised training times : As the data generation and training can be done offline and are both parallelizable, we defer specific timings to Appendix C. We note that for data generation, a single sample can be obtained in less than two seconds for all instances, and in many cases much faster. There training times are within the range of 120 to 2100 seconds. For the single-cut data generation, we choose $K^{'} = 100$, a number of scenarios which was quick to label while exposing the model to a reasonably large number of scenarios in some cases. The combined time for data generation and model training is typically always less than 3 hours (i.e., the time given to EF) and depending on the problem, may be much less.

6 Results & Discussion

In this section, we report the results of the embedded model across the four problem settings. As is standard in 2SP, we evaluate a single "base" instance across varying scenarios sets and sizes. For example, in CFLP, and for a "base" instance with 10 facilities and 10 customers, one can generate an instance by specifying the number of scenarios and then sampling as many. An important advantage of our approach is that we can apply a single trained model to an instance with an arbitrary number of scenarios with no additional offline time required for training or data generation. For example, the same trained model is used for CFLP_10_10_{100,500,1000}. We abbreviate the single-cut and multi-cut models to SC and MC, respectively.

Tables 2 through 5 report the gaps between approaches, solving times, and the time which EF takes to achieve the same solution quality as SC and MC. In addition, we include supplementary results with the objective values in Appendix D and non-aggregated results for the SSLP SIPLib instances in Appendix E. For SSLP and CFLP, each row represents mean statistics across 11 and 10 instances generated by sampling different scenario sets of a given size, respectively. However, for INVP and PP, each row represents the statistics across 1 instance. Originally, both these problems have infinite support as the uncertainty distributions are assumed to be continuous. To manage the complexity, these distributions are transformed to have a finite support by uniformly sampling equidistant points over the continuous domain in the literature. We adopt the same procedure, leading to a static set of scenarios for a given scenario set size.

Problem	Obj. Difference (%)		Solving Time			EF time to			
	EF-SC	EF-MC	SC	MC	EF	SC		MC	
CFLP_10_10_100	2.58	1.65	**0.38**	8.28	4,410.60	8.87	(0)	12.69	(0)
CFLP_10_10_500	2.41	0.94	**0.60**	206.30	10,800.17	415.89	(0)	2,034.73	(0)
CFLP_10_10_1000	0.94	-0.67	**0.64**	856.77	10,800.87	580.50	(0)	7,551.00	(8)
CFLP_25_25_100	-0.75	-0.75	**0.44**	4.86	10,800.06	-	(10)	-	(10)
CFLP_25_25_500	-3.62	-3.62	**0.54**	26.41	10,800.14	-	(10)	-	(10)
CFLP_25_25_1000	-1.32	-1.32	**0.58**	54.45	10,800.36	-	(10)	-	(10)
CFLP_50_50_100	-0.43	-1.29	**1.66**	21.10	10,800.05	5,637.98	(6)	2,334.04	(9)
CFLP_50_50_500	-9.58	-10.71	**1.25**	173.63	10,806.15	-	(10)	-	(10)
CFLP_50_50_1000	-16.62	-17.50	**1.44**	572.12	10,805.82	-	(10)	-	(10)

Table 2: CFLP results: each row represents an average over ten 2SP instances with varying scenario sets. "Obj. Difference" for method EF-{SC,MC} is the percent relative objective value of {SC,MC} to EF; a negative (positive) value of $-g\%$ ($g\%$) indicates that {SC,MC} finds a solution that is $g\%$ better (worse) than EF's for the minimization problem. "Solving Time" is the time in which {SC,MC,EF} are solved to optimality. A time of ~10,800 implies that the solving limit was reached. "EF time to" is the time in which EF achieves a solution of the same quality as {SC,MC}. To the right in parentheses is the number of instances for which EF failed to find a solution that is as good as {SC,MC}. If EF did not find any feasible solution, then the entry is left as "-". All times in seconds.

Problem	Obj. Difference (%)		Solving Time			EF time to			
	EF-SC	EF-MC	SC	MC	EF	SC		MC	
SSLP_10_50_50	0.00	0.00	**0.11**	5.83	10,800.48	228.06	(0)	228.06	(0)
SSLP_10_50_100	-0.00	-0.00	**0.11**	13.09	10,800.21	145.35	(0)	145.35	(0)
SSLP_10_50_500	-0.00	-0.00	**0.14**	129.44	10,802.82	7,359.85	(4)	7,359.85	(4)
SSLP_10_50_1000	-55.21	-55.21	**0.13**	466.38	10,800.47	-	(11)	-	(11)
SSLP_10_50_2000	-102.69	-102.69	**0.14**	2,182.31	10,800.17	-	(11)	-	(11)
SSLP_15_45_5	3.10	18.71	**0.32**	0.34	2.54	0.75	(0)	0.12	(0)
SSLP_15_45_10	2.98	18.47	**0.31**	0.58	1,976.62	2.72	(0)	0.20	(0)
SSLP_15_45_15	2.53	18.90	**0.33**	0.86	2,052.76	1.84	(0)	0.34	(0)
SSLP_5_25_50	0.12	1.78	**0.20**	1.14	2.24	1.94	(0)	1.97	(0)
SSLP_5_25_100	0.02	1.60	**0.18**	1.83	8.43	8.04	(0)	7.75	(1)

Table 3: SSLP results: each row represents an average over eleven 2SP instances with varying scenario sets, one of which being the instance from Ahmed et al. [2015]. Columns are as in Table 2.

6.1 Discussion

Tables 2–5 show that SC is significantly faster than other approaches, with a minimum and maximum solving time of 0.11s and 1.66s respectively, across all problems. This highlights the scalability of the SC in terms of problem size and type, which is expected as the size of the resulting MIP is independent of the number of scenarios. Also, the objective difference is less than 5% in most cases, with a minimum of -102% and a maximum of 13.78%. These differences are inversely proportional to the scenario set size, which indicates that the SC is able to generalize on larger scenario sets, even though it was trained with a maximum of 100 scenarios per data point. EF takes significantly higher time to reach a solution quality similar to SC, often on the order of minutes to 3 hours. For many larger CFLP and SSLP instances, EF finds worse solutions than SC even after 3 hours. Not only is SC as good or better in solution quality, but also orders of magnitude faster.

For the MC, we can observe that the solving time is directly proportional to the size of the problem. However, for the largest INVP instances, it times out without even generating a feasible solution (Table 4). This is expected as we need to embed the trained neural network once per scenario, limiting scalability. In terms of objective differences, for CFLP and SSLP, we can observe that the difference improves with the increase in instance size. For INVP, no clear trend is visible, however, they do not exceed objective difference of 5% in most cases. For PP, the objective difference is around 40%, indicating that the MC is not able to generalize, whereas SC performs very well.

Problem	Obj. Difference (%)		Solving Time			EF time to	
	EF-SC	EF-MC	SC	MC	EF	SC	MC
INVP_B_E_4	9.54	3.01	0.36	0.34	**0.02**	0.02	0.02
INVP_B_E_9	7.54	2.00	0.31	0.53	**0.04**	0.03	0.03
INVP_B_E_36	2.72	4.96	0.30	9.53	**0.08**	0.02	0.02
INVP_B_E_121	1.37	2.42	**0.33**	86.42	1.69	0.06	0.02
INVP_B_E_441	2.80	2.43	**0.37**	4,342.19	117.59	0.78	1.15
INVP_B_E_1681	1.36	-	**0.34**	-	10,800.01	17.41	0.00
INVP_B_E_10000	-1.48	-	**0.36**	-	10,803.98	-	0.00
INVP_B_H_4	8.81	9.50	0.46	0.25	**0.01**	0.01	0.01
INVP_B_H_9	5.04	5.04	0.30	0.57	**0.03**	0.02	0.02
INVP_B_H_36	1.61	1.61	**0.26**	6.79	1.29	0.01	0.01
INVP_B_H_121	1.77	1.77	**0.33**	45.89	34.69	0.01	0.01
INVP_B_H_441	2.13	5.50	**0.28**	1,870.42	217.46	2.21	0.21
INVP_B_H_1681	-0.71	-	**0.36**	-	10,800.01	-	0.00
INVP_B_H_10000	-2.72	-	**0.36**	-	10,800.03	-	0.00
INVP_I_E_4	12.83	0.00	0.38	0.23	**0.01**	0.01	0.01
INVP_I_E_9	7.40	2.64	0.27	0.35	**0.06**	0.01	0.02
INVP_I_E_36	5.48	5.17	0.27	1.39	**0.04**	0.01	0.01
INVP_I_E_121	5.30	4.49	**0.29**	49.51	1.65	0.02	0.03
INVP_I_E_441	3.00	0.68	**0.26**	2,049.93	46.92	0.08	0.10
INVP_I_E_1681	1.31	3.08	**0.26**	10,834.53	10,800.00	0.41	0.41
INVP_I_E_10000	-1.35	-	**0.30**	-	10,800.10	-	0.00
INVP_I_H_4	13.78	12.16	0.35	0.21	**0.02**	0.01	0.01
INVP_I_H_9	9.12	0.81	0.37	0.31	**0.03**	0.01	0.02
INVP_I_H_36	4.97	3.44	**0.36**	1.99	1.27	0.03	0.03
INVP_I_H_121	4.01	4.99	**0.32**	23.10	7.43	0.07	0.07
INVP_I_H_441	3.15	3.15	**0.32**	1,231.48	10,800.00	0.33	0.33
INVP_I_H_1681	-0.34	0.11	**0.33**	10,816.89	10,800.03	-	252.70
INVP_I_H_10000	-1.60	-	**0.38**	-	10,802.10	-	0.00

Table 4: INVP results: each row represents a single instances. See Table 2 for description of columns.

Problem	Obj. Difference (%)		Solving Time			EF time to	
	EF-SC	EF-MC	SC	MC	EF	SC	MC
PP_125	3.25	36.64	**1.51**	144.08	10,800.00	10,717.05	2.48
PP_216	9.06	40.14	**1.47**	254.94	364.98	59.79	3.59
PP_343	0.67	40.85	**1.46**	570.64	10,800.00	1,450.54	9.12
PP_512	8.69	39.77	**1.60**	1,200.37	10,800.01	167.77	13.80
PP_729	1.38	37.98	**1.62**	3,440.19	10,800.01	5,867.67	36.34
PP_1000	5.92	41.32	**1.49**	10,853.59	10,800.00	1,596.22	210.48

Table 5: PP results: each row represents a single instances. See Table 2 for description of columns.

7 Conclusion

Two-stage stochastic programming is a powerful modeling framework for decision-making under uncertainty. These problems are hard to solve in practice, especially when the second-stage problem is a MIP or NLP. Finding good feasible solutions quickly thus becomes of extremely important.

To that end, we proposed `Neur2SP`, a learning-based, general, and structure-agnostic approach which approximates the second-stage value function to form an easy-to-solve surrogate problem. The four problem classes we have tackled are (1) widely used in the literature, (2) vary in the types of first and second-stage problems, and (3) span a wide range in terms of number of variables, constraints, and scenarios. Through our experiments, we show that `Neur2SP` achieves high-quality solutions quickly, especially for larger instances. In 1–2 seconds, `Neur2SP` can find solutions of the same or better quality than the most generic method in the literature, EF, with the latter taking minutes to hours.

In terms of future work, this methodology can be extended in many directions. Further innovations in the SC model architecture may improve our already positive results. Another direction is the extension of the general idea of embedding trained models into other complex optimization problems, such as bi-level optimization or multi-stage stochastic programming. Lastly, in this work, we propose MC and SC, however, a natural middle ground between these models is a clustering approach which embeds a trained model for a subset of representative scenarios, rather than a single or the entire scenario set at evaluation time.

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