

Chance Constrained Mixed Integer Program: Bilinear and Linear Formulations, and Benders Decomposition

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Abstract

In this paper, we study chance constrained mixed integer program with consideration of recourse decisions and their incurred cost, developed on a finite discrete scenario set. Through studying a non-traditional bilinear mixed integer formulation, we derive its linear counterparts and show that they could be stronger than existing linear formulations. We also develop a variant of Jensen's inequality that extends the one for stochastic program. To solve this challenging problem, we present a variant of Benders decomposition method in bilinear form, which actually provides an easy-to-use algorithm framework for further improvements, along with a few enhancement strategies based on structural properties or Jensen's inequality. Computational study shows that the presented Benders decomposition method, jointly with appropriate enhancement techniques, outperforms a commercial solver by an order of magnitude on solving chance constrained program or detecting its infeasibility.

Keywords: chance constraint, stochastic program, bilinear formulation, linear formulation, Jensen's inequality, Benders decomposition

1 Introduction

Chance constrained mathematical program (CCMP) first appeared in [7] in 1958 and the (joint) chance constraint was formally introduced in [22, 26]. It is often used to capture randomness and to restrict the associated risk on real system operations [32], and is related to optimization problems with Value-at-Risk constraints [31]. Mathematically, it can be represented as the following. Let ω represents a random scenario in Ω , \mathbf{x} be the first stage variables and $\mathbf{y}(\omega)$ be the second stage recourse variables of scenario ω , we have

$$\text{CCMP : } \min \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{y}(\omega)) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b} \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{G}(\omega)\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}(\omega)\mathbf{y}(\omega) \geq \mathbf{h}(\omega)\right\} \geq 1 - \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_+^{n_2}, \mathbf{y}(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}_+^m \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{G}(\omega)$ and $\mathbf{H}(\omega)$ are random matrices, $\mathbf{h}(\omega)$ is a random column vector of appropriate dimension, and ε is the risk tolerance level. Constraint (3), which is denoted as the chance

constraint, enforces that the inequality $\mathbf{G}(\omega)\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}(\omega)\mathbf{y}(\omega) \geq \mathbf{h}(\omega)$ should be satisfied with a probability greater than or equal to $1 - \varepsilon$. Function \mathbf{F} in the objective function (1) represents cost contribution from the recourse decisions. When the model is static such that cost of recourse decisions is ignored, function \mathbf{F} is set to 0 [17, 29]. Without loss of generality, we assume that the set defined by the first stage constraints is not empty, i.e., $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_+^{n_2} : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b}\} \neq \emptyset$.

Because it can explicitly deal with uncertainties and risk requirements, CCMP has been applied to build decision making tools for many real systems where uncertainty is a critical factor in determining system performance. Such applications include service system design and management [11, 23], water quality management [36], optimal vaccination planning [38], energy generation [24], and production system design [15]. However, it is well recognized that a CCMP formulation is very challenging to solve, especially when random ω is with a general continuous distribution. In such case, multivariate integration will be involved in and it is extremely hard to derive a closed-form expression to represent (3), which makes the application difficult [28]. On the other hand, CCMP with Ω of a discrete and finite support, i.e., $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_K\}$, has received very much attention in recent years. Such CCMP actually is also constructed in sampling based methods to solve those with general continuous distributions [18, 6], which makes it practically applicable. Up to now, several advanced and analytical solution methods have been developed for this type of CCMP problems. For the cases where randomness only appears in right-hand-side and there is no recourse decision, the concept of p -efficient point of the distribution [27] is introduced. It leads to a few methods that (partially) enumerate those points to derive optimal solutions [8, 3, 14]. Because the number of efficient points could be huge, such solution strategy might not be effective in practice. Alternatively, by using a binary indicator variable and “big-M” coefficient, CCMP can be formulated with a set of linear constraints as the following where M is a sufficiently large number.

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{CC} - \text{bigM} : \min \quad & \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{y}) \\
\text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b}, \\
& \mathbf{G}_k\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k\mathbf{y}_k + Mz_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K \\
& \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon \\
& \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_+^{n_2}, \mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}_+^m, z_k \in \{0, 1\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, K.
\end{aligned}$$

Note that the enforcement of constraints of scenario ω_k is controlled by z_k . When $z_k = 0$, those constraints must be satisfied. When $z_k = 1$, they can be ignored due to big-M. Consequently, when $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{y})$ is $\mathbf{0}$ or linear, **CC – bigM** is a linear mixed integer program (MIP). Currently, as it can handle more general situations, e.g., recourse decisions are included and the coefficient matrix is random, **CC – bigM** has become a popular formulation to address CCMP problems [29, 16, 17, 37, 35, 33]. To improve the computational performance on this type of MIP, a few sophisticated cutting plane methods have been developed [29, 37, 13, 17]. For example, inequalities based on precedence constrained knapsack set are derived and included to improve the solution of the MIP formulation [29]. Valid inequalities based on IIS (irreducibly infeasible subsystem) are derived and implemented within a specialized branch-and-cut procedure [37]. Based on existing research on the mixing set [10], strong inequalities generalizing star inequalities [1] are derived to strengthen the instance only with random right-hand-side [16, 13]. Such research is further generalized to compute those with a random coefficient matrix in [17], where strong inequalities that aggregate Benders feasibility cuts are developed using the mixing set structure.

The aforementioned algorithms and methods, especially MIP based approaches, have significantly improve our solution capability to compute CCMPs. Nevertheless, those algorithms are complicated for practitioners to use. Also, they often depend on some non-trivial assumptions and are not applicable for solving general type instances, e.g., where cost from recourse deci-

sions should be considered or constraints on recourse decisions could make the whole formulation infeasible. Indeed, compared to the most relevant stochastic program (SP), which has received numerous research efforts and can be solved by various efficient algorithms for real applications [32, 5], solution methods to CCMP are rather very limited and less capable. Given the essential connection between SP and CCMP, we believe that it would be an ideal strategy to make use of the existing large amount of research results on SP to investigate and develop general and effective algorithms for CCMP, which however receives little attention yet. Hence, in this paper, we seek to make progress toward this end by considering solving CCMP with a set of discrete and finite scenarios.

We begin our exposition in Section 2 by presenting a non-traditional bilinear formulation of CCMP, strong linear reformulations, and Jensen’s inequality for CCMP. Inspired by using Benders decomposition method to solve SP, the arguably most popular approach for SP, we then in Section 3 provide a bilinear Benders reformulation and a bilinear variant of Benders decomposition method. We also design a few enhancement strategies based on structural properties or Jensen’s inequality, all of which can be easily implemented. In Section 4, we perform a numerical study on a set of unstructured random instances and a set of operating room scheduling instances arising from healthcare applications. Our results show that the presented bilinear Benders decomposition method, jointly with appropriate enhancement strategies, typically outperforms the state-of-the-art commercial solver by an order of magnitude on deriving optimal solutions or reporting infeasibility. Finally, we provide concluding remarks in Section 5.

We mention that our paper provides the following contributions and insights, some of which might be counterintuitive. (i) The bilinear formulation of CCMP is informative. Its linearized formulations can be theoretically stronger and computationally more friendly than the popular **CC – bigM** formulation. So, it is worth more research efforts to investigate the mathematical structure and to study fast computing algorithms. (ii) A variant of Jensen’s inequality is derived for CCMP, which generalizes its SP counterpart. We demonstrate that it could also generate a significant computational improvement on solving difficult real problems. (iii) Different from existing understanding that Benders decomposition may not be a good method [37], Benders decomposition, in the presented bilinear form, is very capable to solve CCMP. Indeed, it is interesting to note that Benders decomposition could be more effective (in terms of iterations) in solving CCMP than in solving SP. (iv) A few non-trivial enhancement strategies that specifically consider the structure of CCMP are developed, which could lead to further performance improvement. (v) The presented Benders decomposition method yields an easy-to-use fast algorithm strategy that basically does not depend on special assumptions and can solve general CCMPs, which have not been addressed in existing literature. Note that it rather provides a framework that can incorporate numerous existing results on Benders decomposition for SP to improve our solution capacity of CCMP.

2 CCMP: Bilinear Formulations and Properties

2.1 A Bilinear Formulation of CCMP

To simplify our exposition, we define a scenario contributing to the satisfaction of the chance constraint as a responsive scenario, and a scenario that can be ignored (i.e., the corresponding constraints in that scenario can be violated) as a non-responsive scenario. In this paper, we assume that the (expected) recourse cost is derived as the weighted sum of costs from responsive scenarios, which is $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k(\mathbf{f}_k \mathbf{y}_k)(1 - z_k)$, where π_k is the realization probability and \mathbf{f}_k is cost vector of \mathbf{y}_k , for scenario ω_k , $k = 1, \dots, K$. Next, different from the popular **CC – bigM**

MIP formulation, we present a mixed integer bilinear formulation of CCMP as the following.

$$\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP} : \theta^*(\varepsilon) = \min \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \eta_k \quad (5)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b} \quad (6)$$

$$\eta_k = \mathbf{f}_k \mathbf{y}_k (1 - z_k), \quad k = 1, \dots, K \quad (7)$$

$$(\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{h}_k)(1 - z_k) \geq 0, \quad k = 1, \dots, K \quad (8)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon \quad (9)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_+^{n_2}, \quad \mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}_+^m, \quad z_k \in \{0, 1\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, K. \quad (10)$$

The validity of $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ is obvious. Note that by assigning z_k to one or zero, the impact of scenario k , including the cost contribution of recourse decisions and feasibility requirements from recourse constraints, will be removed from the whole formulation or imposed explicitly. Although $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ is a non-traditional nonlinear formulation, it provides a more direct and natural representation of the underlying combinatorial structure, which captures CCMP without information loss and allows us to gain deep insights.

We define $\theta^*(\varepsilon) = +\infty$ if it is infeasible and $\theta^*(\varepsilon) = -\infty$ if it is unbounded. Noting that an instance with a larger ε is a relaxation of another one with a smaller ε , the next result follows.

Proposition 1. *For $0 \leq \varepsilon_1 \leq \varepsilon_2 \leq 1$, we have $\theta^*(\varepsilon_1) \geq \theta^*(\varepsilon_2)$.*

We mention that when $\varepsilon = 0$, it is clear that $z_k = 0$ for all k and $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ reduces to a linear MIP, which actually is the underlying SP model. According to Proposition 1, the optimal value of SP, i.e., $\theta^*(0)$, provides an upper bound to $\theta^*(\varepsilon)$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

Remarks: We note that it is often assumed in the study of SP that it has a finite optimal value, which could help researchers focus on solving real life problems that are generally feasible and bounded. Indeed, given the fact that SP is a linear program or mixed integer program, which has many advanced preprocessing techniques developed to detect infeasibility or unboundedness, such assumption might not be restrictive. However, the situation of $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ (or CCMP in general) is more involved. Different ε may cause $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ infeasible, finitely optimal, or unbounded. For example, when $\varepsilon = 0$, the resulting SP model must deal with constraints in all scenarios, which could conflict to each other, forcing the whole formulation infeasible. When ε increases to a larger value, we can control binary \mathbf{z} variables to remove conflicting scenarios so that constraints from remaining scenarios are compatible, rendering the formulation feasible.

Assumption: In this paper, to help us focus on typical problems, we make an assumption that is independent of ε . We think such independence is of a critical value for real system users as the sensitivity analysis, including feasibility and the total cost, with respect to ε reveals a fundamental feature of CCMP on managing risks and uncertainty. Specifically, we assume that for any scenario ω_k , there $\exists \mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbf{X}$ such that the recourse problem is finitely optimal, i.e.,

$$-\infty < \eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}^0) = \min\{\mathbf{f}_k \mathbf{y}_k : \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}_+^m\} < +\infty. \quad (11)$$

If such assumption is violated in ω_k , there exist three cases which can be processed by the following operations.

Case (i): $\eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}) = +\infty, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$. In this case, we fix $z_k = 1$ in $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$. Alternatively, we can update $\varepsilon = \varepsilon - \pi_k$ and remove constraints and recourse variables of ω_k from $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$.

Case (ii): $\eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}) = -\infty, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$. In this case, we fix $z_k = 0$ in $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$. Alternatively,

we can simply remove constraints and variables of ω_k from **CC – MIBP**. If **CC – MIBP** with remaining scenarios is feasible, the original formulation is unbounded. Otherwise, both the updated one and original one are infeasible.

Case (iii): $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_1 \cup \mathbf{X}_2$ such that $\eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}) = +\infty, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}_1$ and $\eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}) = -\infty, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}_2$. Basically, such a case is very rare as η_k does not have a transition between \mathbf{X}_1 and \mathbf{X}_2 . Indeed, when \mathbf{X} is a feasible set of LP, this situation will not occur. If it does happen, we make use of Branch-and-Bound technique by creating two branches for \mathbf{X}_1 and \mathbf{X}_2 respectively. Then, operations presented for Case (i) and Case (ii) can be applied to those branches for simplification.

Hence, we can intuitively interpret the aforementioned assumption as that it ensures all scenarios behave in a regular fashion because there is no scenario simply causing unboundness or becoming irrelevant. Cases that do not comply with that assumption are rather extreme and they can be dealt with in the preprocess stage. So, our assumption imposes little restriction on CCMP in practice.

2.2 Deriving Linear Reformulations from Bilinear Formulation

CC – MIBP's original bilinear form might not be computationally friendly. It would be ideal to convert it into a linear formulation. In particular, we are interested in a tight linear formulation stronger than the popular **CC – bigM**.

By expanding (8), we have

$$\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} z_k + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k z_k + \mathbf{h}_k z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K. \quad (12)$$

Consider a situation where no recourse decision is involved, i.e., $m = 0$ in (10) and (7) disappears, and $\mathbf{G}_k = \mathbf{G}$ for all k , i.e., only right-hand-side \mathbf{h}_k is random. According to [13], we can assume without loss of generality that $\mathbf{h}_k \geq \mathbf{0}$ for $k = 1, \dots, K$. Note that, no matter which scenarios are responsive in determining an optimal solution, we have $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} \geq \min_{l=1, \dots, K} \{\mathbf{h}_l\}$, where min is applied in a component-wise fashion. Hence, projecting out $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} z_k$ through replacing it by $\min_{l=1, \dots, K} \{\mathbf{h}_l\} z_k$ in (12), we have

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} - \min_{l=1, \dots, K} \{\mathbf{h}_l\} z_k + \mathbf{h}_k z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K. \quad (13)$$

Because $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} \geq \min_k \{\mathbf{h}_k\} \geq \mathbf{0}$, it simply leads to the next result.

Proposition 2. *The linear model*

$$\theta^*(\varepsilon) = \min \left\{ \mathbf{c} \mathbf{x} : (6), (9), (10), \mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{h}_k - \min_{l=1, \dots, K} \{\mathbf{h}_l\}) z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \forall k \right\} \quad (14)$$

is a valid formulation for CCMP (without recourse opportunities). Moreover, it dominates the following linear formulation

$$\theta^*(\varepsilon) = \min \{ \mathbf{c} \mathbf{x} : (6), (9), (10), \mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_k z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \forall k \}, \quad (15)$$

which is adopted as CCMP formulations in [16, 13]. □

We can further extend results in Proposition 2 to more general cases where CCMP has recourse decisions. Assume that the set defined by (12) can be equivalently represented by the following linear inequality:

$$\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k + \mathbf{h}_k z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k + \mathbf{q}_k z_k \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{q}_k is a coefficient vector with an appropriate dimension. Obviously, to ensure the equivalence between (12) (or (8)) and (16), we should have for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$, there exists \mathbf{y}_k such that

the inequality $\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k \geq \mathbf{q}_k$ is satisfied when $z_k = 1$ (noting that the cost contribution of \mathbf{y}_k is not a concern when $z_k = 1$). Otherwise, additional restriction will be imposed on \mathbf{X} , which suggests that the impact of scenario ω_k is not removed when $z_k = 1$. Hence, $q_{k,i}$, the i^{th} component of \mathbf{q}_k , should have

$$q_{k,i} \leq \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}} \max_{\mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbf{Y}_k} (\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k)_i, \quad (17)$$

for every i , where \mathbf{Y}_k represents the set defined by variable bounds of \mathbf{y}_k . Certainly, setting $q_{k,i}$ to achieve the equality will give us the tightest linear inequality to replace (8). Nevertheless, it involves computing a bilevel robust optimization problem, which is computationally expensive. A simpler strategy is to fix \mathbf{y}_k to $\mathbf{y}_k^0 \in \mathbf{Y}_k$ and let $q_{k,i} = \min\{(\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x})_i : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}\} + \{(\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k^0)_i\}$. Actually, for a situation where $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{Y}_k$ and $\mathbf{f}_k \geq \mathbf{0}$, a strong model only with linear constraints could be derived to represent CCMP.

Proposition 3. *When $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{Y}_k$, let $q_{k,i}^* = \min\{(\mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x})_i : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}\}$ for all i . If $\mathbf{q}_k^* > -\infty$ and $\mathbf{f}_k \geq \mathbf{0}$ for all k , the following linear model is a valid formulation for CCMP:*

$$\theta^*(\varepsilon) = \min\{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathbf{f}_k \mathbf{y}_k : (6), (9), (10), \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k + (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{q}_k^*) z_k \geq \mathbf{h}_k, \forall k\} \quad (18)$$

Proof. For any \mathbf{x} , with $\mathbf{f}_k \geq \mathbf{0}$, i.e., recourse decisions incur non-negative cost, it would be optimal to set $\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{0}$ assuming it is feasible. Under such a situation, it is valid to simplify (7) to $\eta_k = \mathbf{f}_k \mathbf{y}_k$, which ensures there is no cost contribution when $z_k = 1$.

Indeed, according to the definition of \mathbf{q}_k^* , we have $\mathbf{q}_k^* - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{0}$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$. Hence, given that $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{Y}_k$, it is guaranteed that $\mathbf{0}$ is a feasible point of $\{\mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbf{Y}_k : \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{y}_k \geq \mathbf{q}_k^* - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}\}$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$. Therefore, (18) is a valid linear formulation of CCMP. \square

Remarks:

(i) Clearly, applying the aforementioned results will produce a strong linear formulation of CCMP, which alleviates our concern on big-M coefficients. Note that deriving $q_{k,i}^*$ requires computing an MIP for every k and i , which may incur non-trivial computational expense. One strategy is to relax those MIPs as LPs and derive weaker coefficients with less computational expense. To compute large-scale practical instances with many scenarios and constraints, we believe that computationally more friendly methods are necessary to achieve a balance between the coefficient quality and computational time. In addition, it is worth mentioning that those results do not depend on the variable types of \mathbf{y}_k for any k . Hence, it can be used to derive strong linear formulations for those whose recourse problems could be mixed integer programs.

(ii) Our discussions also show that for a case where $\mathbf{q}_{k,i}^*$ is not finite for some k and i or cost of some recourse decision is not non-negative, it will be more complicated. We might not be able to derive a finite coefficient for z_k in (18), which also implies big-M method might not work under those situations. Hence, a deeper study on those cases is needed to build strong formulations. On this line, an analytical study on deriving strong formulations and valid inequalities is presented in [40].

Instead of using computational methods to derive linear formulations, a simpler and more general approach is to directly linearize **CC – MIBP** and obtain an MIP in a higher dimension. Given the fact that z_k is binary, constraints in (7) and (12) (equivalently (8)) can be easily converted into linear constraints by applying *McCormick linearization method* on bilinear terms $\mathbf{x}z_k$ and $\mathbf{y}_k z_k$ [21]. For example, say x_j is one component of \mathbf{x} . Its bilinear term $x_j z_k (= \lambda_{jk})$ can be linearized by including the following constraints

$$\lambda_{jk} \leq x_j, \lambda_{jk} \leq U_{x_j} z_k, \lambda_{jk} \geq x_j + U_{x_j} (z_k - 1), \lambda_{jk} \geq 0, \quad (19)$$

where U_{x_j} is an upper bound of single variable x_j . We recognize that such linearization method depends on an upper bound of each individual variable. Nevertheless, it is typically much easier to estimate a strong upper bound for an individual variable, which indicates the linear formulation obtained using McCormick linearization method will be tighter than **CC – bigM**. Indeed, in many practices, upper bounds of individual variables (e.g., binary or bounded variables) are naturally defined or available [11, 37]. In such a case, there is no need to introduce a very big number as the variable upper bound when we perform linearization. Furthermore, this linearization strategy can deal with situations where recourse decisions are with unrestricted cost coefficients, e.g., recourse decisions are with negative cost. So, because of its generality and simplicity, in the remainder of this paper, unless explicitly mentioned, **CC – MIBP** and its linearized counterpart obtained through McCormick linearization method are interchangeably used.

Given the rich and original structural information implied in **CC – MIBP**, we believe that more mathematical analysis should be done on this bilinear formulation and specialized algorithms need to be developed. Next, following this line, we present a generalization of Jensen's inequality in CCMP and a variant of Benders decomposition customized according to this bilinear form.

2.3 Jensen's inequality for CCMP

The combinatorial structure explicitly presented in (7-8) helps us to extend the classical Jensen's inequality [12, 19], a strong inequality for stochastic programs, to CCMP. Consider the situation where $\mathbf{H}_k = \mathbf{H}$ and $\mathbf{f}_k = \mathbf{f}$ for all k .

Theorem 4. (*Extended Jensen's inequality for CCMP*) Let \mathbf{z}^0 be an optimal \mathbf{z} with respect to $\mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbf{X}$ and define $E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (1 - z_k^0) \eta_k^*(\mathbf{x}^0)$, i.e., the optimal expected recourse cost from responsive scenarios. If $E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) < +\infty$, we have

$$E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) \geq \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k\right) \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \quad \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (1 - z_k) (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0)}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k}, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon, \right. \\ \left. \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{z} \in \{0, 1\}^K \right\}. \quad (20)$$

Proof. We define $\tilde{\pi}_k = \frac{\pi_k (1 - z_k^0)}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0}$. Note that $\tilde{\pi}_k \geq 0$ and

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \tilde{\pi}_k = \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{\pi_k (1 - z_k^0)}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0} = 1.$$

Furthermore, we define $\tilde{\eta}(\omega) = \min\{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{y} : \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{h}(\omega) - \mathbf{G}(\omega)\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}\}$, where $\omega \in \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_K\}$. According to the duality theory, $\tilde{\eta}(\omega) = \max\{(\mathbf{h}(\omega) - \mathbf{G}(\omega)\mathbf{x}^0)^T \mathbf{u} : \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{u} \leq \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u} \geq \mathbf{0}\}$. Because \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{f} are independent of scenarios, we have that $\tilde{\eta}(\omega)$ is a convex function of random ω . Therefore, following the definition of $\tilde{\pi}_k$, we have

$$\sum_k \tilde{\pi}_k \tilde{\eta}_k \geq \min \left\{ \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_k \tilde{\pi}_k (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0), \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\}.$$

Multiplying both sides by $(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0)$, we have

$$E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) = \sum_k \pi_k (1 - z_k^0) \tilde{\eta}_k \geq \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0\right) \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_k \tilde{\pi}_k (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0), \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\}.$$

Also, noting that \mathbf{z}^0 is a particular \mathbf{z} satisfying $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k^0 \right) \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_k \tilde{\pi}_k (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0), \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\} \\ & \geq \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \right) \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (1 - z_k) (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0)}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k}, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon, \right. \\ & \quad \left. \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{z} \in \{0, 1\}^K \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the desired inequality follows. \square

Remarks:

When $\varepsilon = 0$, we have $z_k = 0$ for all k in both **CC – MIBP** and (20). Note that under such situation, CC-MIBP is SP formulation and (20) reduces to

$$E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) \geq \min \left\{ \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0), \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\}, \quad (21)$$

which is Jensen's inequality for SP. Nevertheless, as it involves solving an MIP with fractional inequalities, (20) in general is much more complicated than its SP counterpart. Those fractional inequalities can be converted into equivalent bilinear inequalities as follows

$$\mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \right) \geq \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (1 - z_k) (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0). \quad (22)$$

Hence, with fractional inequalities replaced by (22), the minimization problem in the right-hand-side of (20) becomes an MIP with bilinear inequalities. Actually, for some special case, those fractional or bilinear inequalities reduce to linear ones.

Corollary 5. Assume $\pi_k = \frac{1}{K}$ for all k and $\mathbf{f} \geq \mathbf{0}$. Let L be the integer such that $\frac{L}{K} \leq \varepsilon < \frac{L+1}{K}$. The extended Jensen's inequality in (20) can be simplified as

$$E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) \geq \min \left\{ \frac{K-L}{K} \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1-z_k}{K-L} (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0), \sum_{k=1}^K z_k = L, \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{z} \in \{0, 1\}^K \right\}. \quad (23)$$

Proof. When $\pi_k = \frac{1}{K}$ for all k and $\mathbf{f} \geq \mathbf{0}$, it is easy to see that there is an optimal \mathbf{z}^0 with $\sum_k z_k^0 = L$ for given \mathbf{x}^0 . Hence, based on the proof of Theorem 4, we replace π_k by $\frac{1}{K}$ and replace $\sum_k z_k^0$ by L in (20). Then, the inequality in (23) follows. \square

We mention that Jensen's inequality is not only of a theoretical contribution, but also could bring significantly computational benefits. Through replacing \mathbf{x}^0 by variable \mathbf{x} , the inequality in (20) or (23) can be converted into a valid inequality to bound the optimal expected recourse cost from below. Application of such strategy in SP formulations has been proven to be very successful in computing complicated real problems [9, 2]. Hence, it would be interesting to investigate its performance in solving CCMP problems.

Remarks:

One may think that we can derive a variant of Jensen's inequality by treating **CC – bigM** as an SP problem with both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} being first stage variables. Nevertheless, such strategy generally leads to a trivial inequality that is of little interest. We illustrate our argument by considering a given first stage solution $(\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0)$ under the situation described in Corollary 5.

According to (21) and formulation **CC – bigM**, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
E\eta(\mathbf{x}^0) &\geq \min \left\{ \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0 - Mz_k^0), \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\} \\
&= \min \left\{ \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0) - \frac{M}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K z_k^0, \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\} \\
&= \min \left\{ \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0) - \frac{ML}{K}, \bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0} \right\} \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

The second to the last equality follows the fact that $\sum_k z_k^0 = L$ in one optimal solution. Furthermore, when M is sufficiently large and $L > 0$, constraints inside the minimization problem are always satisfied by any $\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \mathbf{0}$. Given that $\mathbf{f} \geq \mathbf{0}$, an obvious optimal solution is $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{0}$. Hence, the last equality follows, which is trivial. Again, this illustration shows that the linear formulation with big-M is weak in deriving structural properties.

3 Benders Decomposition for **CC – MIBP**

3.1 Bilinear Benders Reformulation and Decomposition Method

Given the definition of z_k and bilinear formulation **CC – MIBP** defined in (5-10), we can naturally present its Benders reformulation in a bilinear form. Consider the dual problem of recourse problem in scenario ω_k as follows.

$$\mathbf{DP}_k : \quad \max \quad (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}^0)^T \mathbf{u}_k \quad (24)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{H}_k^T \mathbf{u}_k \leq \mathbf{f}_k \quad (25)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_k \in \mathbb{R}'_+. \quad (26)$$

According to our assumption made in Section 2.1 and the duality theory, it is clear that the feasible set of this dual problem is non-empty, regardless of \mathbf{x}^0 . Denote all the extreme points of this set by $E^k = \{\mu^1, \dots, \mu^{p_k}\}$, all extreme rays by $F^k = \{v^1, \dots, v^{t_k}\}$, and let E and F be the corresponding collections over all k . Next, we present Benders reformulation of **CC – MIBP**.

Theorem 6. (*Bilinear Benders Reformulation*) *The **CC – MIBP** formulation can be equivalently reformulated as:*

$$\mathbf{BD – MIBP} : \theta^* = \min \quad \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} + \sum_k \pi_k \eta_k \quad (27)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b} \quad (28)$$

$$(\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x})^T \mu^l (1 - z_k) \leq \eta_k; \quad \mu^l \in E^k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K \quad (29)$$

$$(\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x})^T v^l (1 - z_k) \leq 0; \quad v^l \in F^k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K \quad (30)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k \leq \varepsilon \quad (31)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_+^{n_2}; \quad z_k \in \{0, 1\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, K. \quad (32)$$

(i) If all recourse problems are feasible for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$, only those in (29), i.e., those defined by extreme points, are needed in **BD – MIBP**; (ii) if recourse decisions are with zero cost, only constraints in (30), i.e., those defined by extreme rays, are needed in **BD – MIBP**. \square

Again, bilinear terms in constraints in (29) and (30) can be linearized using McCormick linearization method, which converts (29) and (30) into linear inequalities and the whole formulation into an MIP. We mention that, comparing to the original **CC – MIBP** formulation, this bilinear Benders reformulation (and its linearized counterpart) has a couple of advantages.

Remarks:

(i) We observe that only the first stage decision variables \mathbf{x} are involved in this bilinear Benders reformulation and there is no recourse variable. Such an observation actually gives us an essential advantage in eliminating the negative impact of big-M parameters in linearization. As \mathbf{x} is typically introduced to model decisions with concrete definitions in practice, e.g., quantity of available resources or binary decisions, their upper bounds can often be obtained from specific applications. Actually, we note that it is straightforward to obtain physically valid upper bounds for the first stage decision variables in the majority of existing CCMP formulations adopted for practical problems. See [24, 11, 23, 34] for a few examples. Therefore, there is no “big-M” issue and our **BD – MIBP** formulation is strong, which might lead to computational improvements in solving real problems.

(ii) Note also from (29) and (30) (and their linearized counterparts) that z_k acts on all constraints generated from extreme points and rays of subproblem/scenario k . Its binary property indicates the inclusion or omission of a whole group of constraints. If \mathbf{z} variables are fixed, the resulting problem has a structure same as the Benders reformulation of a stochastic program. Hence, it suggests that, if Benders decomposition method works well for the underlying SP formulation, it should work well for CCMP.

The next result follows directly from Theorem 6 and it provides the basis to design our Benders decomposition method.

Proposition 7. *Let \hat{E}^k and \hat{F}^k be subsets of extreme points and extreme rays of \mathbf{DP}_k for all k , and \hat{E} and \hat{F} be the corresponding collections over k . Then, a partial Benders reformulation with respect to \hat{E} and \hat{F} , denoted by **BD – MIBP**(\hat{E}, \hat{F}), is a relaxation of **BD – MIBP** (as well as **CC – MIBP**), and its optimal value yields a lower bound. \square*

It is clear that any feasible solution to **CC – MIBP** provides an upper bound. So, iteratively including constraints from extreme points and rays, i.e., those in (29) and (30) (which are often referred to as Benders optimality and feasibility cuts respectively), as cutting planes could help us generate better lower and upper bounds, yielding a variant of Benders decomposition method based on our bilinear Benders reformulation.

Note that \mathbf{DP}_k is finitely optimal or unbounded for all k . Hence, if CCMP is unbounded, it must be resulted from $\min\{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}\} = -\infty$. To avoid such situation, which may cause Benders decomposition method enumerate all extreme points and rays before the observation of unboundedness, we assume that $\min\{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}\}$ is finite. Let **CC – MIBP**($\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0$) represent the formulation with \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} fixed to \mathbf{x}^0 and \mathbf{z}^0 respectively, LB and UB be the current lower and upper bounds, and ϵ be the optimality tolerance. Our procedure, to which we call (bilinear) Benders decomposition, is as follows.

Basic (Bilinear) Benders Decomposition Method

Step 1. – Initialization: Set $LB = -\infty$ and $UB = +\infty$. Set $\hat{E} = \hat{F} = \emptyset$.

Step 2. – Iterative Steps:

2.a Compute (linearized) master problem **BD – MIBP**(\hat{E}, \hat{F}).

(i) If it is infeasible, terminate. Otherwise, obtain its optimal value, V_i , and an optimal solution ($\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0$).

(ii) Update $LB = V_i$.

2.b For all k such that $z_k^0 = 0$,

(i) compute subproblem \mathbf{DP}_k defined in (24-26) to obtain an optimal solution μ^0 if bounded, or derive an extreme ray v^0 if unbounded.

(ii) update $\hat{E}^k = \hat{E}^k \cup \{\mu^0\}$ or $\hat{F}^k = \hat{F}^k \cup \{v^0\}$, i.e., supply Benders cuts (29) or (30) to master problem $\mathbf{BD} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\hat{E}, \hat{F})$.

2.c Solve $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0)$ and obtain its optimal value V_u . Update $UB = \min\{UB, V_u\}$.

Step 3. – Stopping Condition:

If $\frac{UB-LB}{LB} \leq e$, terminate with a solution associated with UB . Otherwise, go to Step 2. \square

The aforementioned algorithm is very close to the standard Benders decomposition method applied to solve SP, except that Benders cuts are only generated for scenario/subproblem with $z_k^0 = 0$. We denote this basic implementation as BD0. Actually, such a restriction is not necessary. So, as an alternative approach, we generate Benders cuts from all scenarios/subproblems regardless of z_k^0 's value. We denote it as BD1. As BD1 has almost the same simple structure and complexity as BD0, unless otherwise stated, we call both of them basic Benders decomposition method. Indeed, the minor change made in BD1 leads to a significant computational improvement (see results in Section 4). Note that one possible termination scenario of this Benders decomposition method is the detection of infeasibility specified in Step 2.a.

Next, we present a simple numerical study on a few SP and CCMP instances, which helps us appreciate the connection between SP and CCMP, and provides ideas on improving the aforementioned Benders decomposition procedure in solving CCMP.

3.2 Observations and Insights on Computing SP and CCMP

We present a rather small-scale numerical study that involves computing SP formulation, $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{bigM}$ formulation, and the linearized $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ formulation. Our objective is to learn the connection and the difference between SP and CCMP, the impact of the chance constraint, and to develop a basic understanding on the performance of Benders decomposition for these two types of problems. We simply generate one instance using each of six instance generation combinations described in Section 4. In order to highlight the impact of chance constraint and to minimize the computational challenges from other factors, we intentionally select instances whose SP formulations can be solved by professional solver CPLEX in a short time (e.g., less than 60 seconds). Overall, we have 6 instances for binary and general integer \mathbf{x} , respectively. Our computation environment and related parameters are described in Section 4.

Our results are presented in Table 1-2. In those tables, CPX denotes using CPLEX to compute MIP formulation, BD denotes Benders decomposition method, CPX-bigM represents computing $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{bigM}$ by CPLEX, CPX-MIBP represents computing linearized $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$ by CPLEX. If one instance can not be solved by some method due to time limit, which is set to 3,600 seconds, or memory issue, we use “T” or “M” to represent that entry, respectively, and report available gap information. Row “avg.: XMS” presents the average values over instances whose MIP (big-M, if applicable) formulations can be optimally solved by CPX. To have a fair comparison between SP and CCMP under Benders decomposition method, we select BD1 to compute CCMP, noting that both BD1 and Benders decomposition in SP generate Benders cuts from all scenarios. In our computational study, big-M is set to 10^5 , which is also used as variable upper bound (except binary variables) in McCormick linearization operations.

Clearly, Table 1-2 confirm the well-known result that chance constrained models are more challenging than their SP counterparts, which is more prominent when solver CPLEX is adopted as the solution method. Note that a single chance constraint could easily incur hundreds of times more computational expenses. Through a closer study on Table 1-2, we have a few more interesting observations that have not been fully discussed in previous study.

Table 1: Instances with Binary \mathbf{x}

#	SP					CCMP						
	CPX		BD			CPX-bigM		CPX-MIBP		BD		
	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	sec.	g(%)	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)
B1	6		3	9		873		470		4	53	
B2	8		4	15		T 21.27		969		5	112	
B3	18		3	26		1835		396		2	36	
B4	7		4	15		2081		906		4	58	
B5	15		5	25		T 4.65		914		4	88	
B6	33		5	103		T 11.25		T 11.29		5	438	
avg.: XMS	15		4.00	32		1596		591		3.33	49	

Table 2: Instances with General Integer \mathbf{x}

#	SP					CCMP						
	CPX		BD			CPX-bigM		CPX-MIBP		BD		
	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	sec.	g(%)	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)
I1	7		5	23		2050		611		3	64	
I2	17		5	25		257		348		2	17	
I3	26		6	106		1913		1229		2	72	
I4	33		6	110		T 55.9		T NA		6	T 14.65	
I5	59		4	27		T 0.7		698		2	35	
I6	27		8	183		T 55.16		T 13.24		5	T 9.05	
avg.: XMS	28		5.67	79		1407		730		2.33	51	

1. From the point of view of the solver, the popular **CC – bigM** formulation of CCMP is much more difficult to compute than the (linearized) bilinear formulation **CC – MIBP**. Among all 12 instances, only 6 of them can be solved if they are represented by **CC – bigM** formulation. Nevertheless, if we adopt the (linearized) **CC – MIBP**, 9 out of them can be solved to the optimality. Indeed, the bilinear formulation typically can be 2 to 4 times faster than the other one. Hence, we believe that the bilinear formulation could be both theoretically stronger and computationally more friendly. It definitely deserves a further study.
2. Benders decomposition method, implemented in the presented bilinear form, actually displays a very strong capability to compute CCMP, which is different from an understanding made in [37] that it is not a good method. Unlike the solver, which is severely affected by the single chance constraint in every CCMP instance, Benders method often can compute optimal solutions with reasonably more time. According to Table 1, Benders method on average produces an optimal solution with 3-4 times more computational expenses when SP is converted into CCMP. Nevertheless, the professional solver could fail to derive optimal solutions even with hundreds of times more computational expenses. Hence, it can be seen that Bender decomposition method is much more robust to the computational challenge caused by the chance constraint.
3. We further notice two more non-trivial points from Table 1-2 that support the effectiveness of Bender decomposition method. One is that the performance benchmark between Benders decomposition method and the professional solver demonstrates an opposite behavior in SP and CCMP. In SP instances, the solver is typically more efficient. In CCMP instances, however, Benders decomposition method generally performs an order of magnitude faster than the solver. Another one is that, in terms of iterations, CCMP might not be more challenging than SP. For some instances, CCMP formulation may just need one more iterations, e.g., instances B1 and B2, compared to their SP counterparts. Nevertheless, for some other instances, CCMP formulation can be computed with noticeably less iterations, e.g., instances I2 and I3. We think that such observation is counterintuitive and has not been

reported in any previous study. It actually indicates that Benders decomposition method, in the presented bilinear form, has a capability to quickly identify their optimal sets of responsive scenarios from their scenario pools and derive corresponding solutions. Hence, from these two observations, we believe that Benders decomposition method is probably more appropriate to compute CCMP than to compute SP, given that it can effectively deal with the combinatorial structure implied in the chance constraint.

Besides using the presented basic Benders decomposition method, we can design new enhancement strategies or incorporate existing ones developed for solving SP to further improve computational performance. Next, we present a few improvement techniques that make use of the (possible) easiness of the underlying SP formulation or CCMP's structural properties.

3.3 Enhancement Strategies of Benders Decomposition

Results in Section 3.2 motivate us to make use of the rather easier SP model to efficiently compute, exactly or approximately, CCMP. Following this line, we present a couple of strategies that can be incorporated into our basic Benders decomposition method in solving CCMP.

(i) SP based initialization: One straightforward enhancement strategy is to ignore the chance constraint and simply to solve the corresponding SP model by Benders decomposition method to obtain a set of Benders cuts. According to Proposition 7, those Benders cuts, as in (29) and (30), can be employed to initialize \hat{E} and \hat{F} in Step 1 of the basic Benders decomposition method. We refer to this strategy as SP based initialization.

(ii) Small-M based initialization: Actually, we can directly treat **CC – bigM** formulation of CCMP as an SP problem, where both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} are first stage variables, and compute it by Benders method. Nevertheless, the challenge from big-M coefficients of \mathbf{z} remains in computing the resulting master problem. Different from the popular idea of big-M concept, we can adopt smaller coefficients for \mathbf{z} , to which we denote small-M coefficients, to serve the initialization purpose. Noting that big-M coefficients are larger than small-M coefficients, the next result follows naturally.

Proposition 8. *The popular **CC – bigM** formulation of CCMP is a relaxation of the same formulation with small-M coefficients, i.e., the small-M MIP formulation. Therefore, any feasible solution to the small-M MIP formulation is feasible to **CC – bigM**, and therefore feasible to CCMP model.*

It can be seen that the small-M MIP formulation is to approximate CCMP in the primal space, which leads to feasible solutions and strong upper bounds. We can also derive dual information by treating it as a regular SP, whose first stage variables are \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} , and computing it by Benders decomposition method. Then, similar to SP based initialization, the resulting Benders cuts can be employed for initialization. We refer to this strategy as small-M based initialization. As the small-M MIP formulation resembles **CC – bigM** more than SP does, those Benders cuts probably should be more effective than those obtained in SP based initialization.

Remark: We note that small-M MIP formulation might provide a flexible framework to analyze and compute CCMP. When $M = 0$, small-M MIP formulation simply reduces to SP model, which defines a core set inside \mathbf{X} that is feasible to all scenarios. It is worth mentioning that core set is convex. When M increases, small-M MIP formulation approaches CCMP, which also expands that core set. Finally, when small-M is sufficiently large, it becomes the popular **CC – bigM** formulation for CCMP and that set will become the feasible set of CCMP, which is typically non-convex. Actually, this discussion of small-M MIP formulation might reveal the transition between SP and CCMP, noting that SP is easy to solve and **CC – bigM** is highly difficult to compute. Hence, a trade off between the computational expense and the solution quality could be achieved by adjusting the value of small-M coefficients. Furthermore, we can interpret that both SP and small-M MIP formulations are to compute (approximately) an optimal solution of CCMP

and the presented bilinear Benders decomposition is to perform verification of the optimality of that solution.

(iii) Benders decomposition with integer cuts: Consider a given \mathbf{z}^0 . Let $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\cdot, \mathbf{z}^0)$ represent CCMP formulation with $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}^0$, and denote its optimal value by $\tilde{V}_u(\mathbf{z}^0)$. Note that $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\cdot, \mathbf{z}^0)$ is essentially an SP problem that could be easy to compute. Indeed, if \mathbf{z}^0 has been evaluated, we can remove it from master problem to reduce the computational time. It can be achieved by adding the following *integer cut*

$$|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}^0| \geq 1$$

into master problem. Given the binary property of \mathbf{z} , we can easily simplify it. Let set \mathbf{K}_1 be collection of indices of $z_k^0 = 1$ and \mathbf{K}_0 be the complement set. The integer cut can be formulated as

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbf{K}_1} z_k - \sum_{k \in \mathbf{K}_0} z_k \leq |\mathbf{K}_1| - 1. \quad (33)$$

Accordingly, we modify the basic Benders decomposition procedure to generate stronger bounds. Specifically, let $\mathbf{BD} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\hat{E}, \hat{F}|\mathbb{C})$ represent master problem $\mathbf{BD} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\hat{E}, \hat{F})$ subject to additional conditions \mathbb{C} . In Step 1, we include the initialization $\mathbb{C} = \emptyset$. In Step 2.a, we replace $\mathbf{BD} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\hat{E}, \hat{F})$ by $\mathbf{BD} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\hat{E}, \hat{F}|\mathbb{C})$, and modify Step 2.a.(i) as “If it is infeasible, terminate (with a solution associated with UB if it exists). . . .” In Step 2.c, we replace $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0)$ by $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}(\cdot, \mathbf{z}^0)$. It is clear that those changes yield new bounds that are stronger than those produced in the basic Benders decomposition procedure. We refer to this improvement as Benders decomposition with integer cuts.

(iv) Benders decomposition with Jensen’s inequality: For one type of instances where $\mathbf{H}_k = \mathbf{H}$ and $\mathbf{f}_k = \mathbf{f}$ for all k , Jensen’s inequality derived in Section 2.3 can be used to improve the basic Benders decomposition method. The next result directly follows Theorem 4 and Corollary 5.

Proposition 9. *Let $E\eta$ be a variable representing the expected recourse cost from responsive scenarios. The following inequalities are valid for $\mathbf{CC} - \mathbf{MIBP}$:*

$$E\eta \geq \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k\right) \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}}, \quad (34)$$

$$\mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k (1 - z_k)}{\left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k z_k\right)} (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}). \quad (35)$$

where $\bar{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbb{R}_+^m$ are newly introduced variables. When $\pi_k = \frac{1}{K}$ for all k and $\mathbf{f} \geq \mathbf{0}$, they can be simplified as

$$E\eta \geq \frac{K - L}{K} \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{y}}, \quad (36)$$

$$\mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1 - z_k}{K - L} (\mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{x}). \quad (37)$$

In particular, if $\mathbf{G}_k = \mathbf{G}$ for all k , (37) reduces to the following linear inequality

$$\mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1 - z_k}{K - L} \mathbf{h}_k - \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x}. \quad (38)$$

□

Within Benders decomposition scheme, the aforementioned variables and inequalities can be included in master problem **BD – MIBP**(\hat{E}, \hat{F}) from the beginning. Again, given the binary property of z_k , bilinear terms, if exist, can be linearized using McCormick linearization method. The augmented master problem with those variables and constraints will have a stronger lower bound that may lead to faster convergence. As demonstrated in a few SP applications [9, 2], Benders Decomposition method strengthened by such strategy significantly outperforms other Benders Decomposition variants, including an implementation within a Branch-and-Cut framework.

We observe that including new variables and constraints, especially constraints in (35), (37) or (38) have a clear impact on the complexity of master problem. So, instead of applying the aforementioned Jensen’s inequality, we can adopt some relaxation of Jensen’s inequality within master problem. Next, we present one such relaxation for the case where $\mathbf{G}_k = \mathbf{G}$ and $\pi_k = \frac{1}{K}$ for all k , and $\mathbf{f} \geq \mathbf{0}$.

Let $h_{k,i}$ be the i^{th} component of \mathbf{h}_k . For a fixed i , we sort $h_{k,i}$ from small to large and use k_s to return the original (scenario) index of the k^{th} one in this sorted sequence. Accordingly, we compute the conditional mean \bar{h}_i based on the smallest $(K - L)$ ones of this sequence, i.e., $\bar{h}_i = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K-L} h_{k_s,i}}{K-L}$. We then let $\bar{\mathbf{h}}$ be the vector of \bar{h}_i over all i , which leads to the next result.

Corollary 10. *The inequality*

$$\mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{y}} \geq \bar{\mathbf{h}} - \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x} \quad (39)$$

is a relaxation to (38). So, it can be used to replace (38) to obtain a valid relaxed Jensen’s inequality for **CC – MIBP**. \square

Because ε is typically small, which suggests $(K - L)$ is close to K , (39) could provide a strong lower bound to support Benders decomposition. Moreover, noting that this relaxed one is of a simple structure same as that of the classical one in (21) for SP, we believe that it could be computationally more friendly than the exact one in (38).

We mention that all the presented enhancement strategies are designed explicitly based on CCMP’s structure or its Jensen’s inequality. Indeed, the bilinear Benders decomposition method presented in this section is rather a general framework, which can easily be modified to incorporate almost all types of existing Benders enhancement strategies, such as Pareto optimal cut [20, 25], multicut aggregation [4, 39], and maximum feasible subsystem cut generation [30]. Given the enormous amount of research results on Benders decomposition and SP, it is definitely worth investigating the integration or customization of those results within the presented bilinear Benders variant to deal with complicated real problems. In Section 4, a preliminary study on random CCMP instances and instances of chance constrained operating room scheduling problem is presented to appreciate the basic Benders decomposition method and enhancement strategies described in this section.

4 Computational Experiments

4.1 Computing Environment and Solution Methods

Our computation is made through Concert Technology of CPLEX 12.4, a state-of-the-art professional MIP solver on a Dell Optiplex 760 desktop computer (Intel Core 2 Duo CPU, 3.0GHz, 3.25GB of RAM) with Windows XP platform. Benders decomposition algorithms are implemented in C++ and CPLEX in the same environment. Table 3 summarizes our twelve different computing methods, including eleven types of Benders decomposition implementations. Among them, we mention that CPX represents using CPLEX to compute the currently popular **CC – bigM** formulation with big-M set to 10^5 . BD2 denotes a BD1 implementation that generates Pareto

optimal Benders cuts [20, 25], whose effectiveness has been observed in many applications to address SP problems. For BD5-BD8, small-M based initialization is performed with small-M set to 1000. In BD7 and BD8, we adopt a *strongest cuts only* strategy, which just employs the strongest Benders cut with respect to the current \mathbf{x}^0 in each scenario to perform initialization and ignores other Benders cuts derived from computing small-M MIP formulation. In BD8, to generate a pool of strong Benders cut for initialization, we further implement Pareto optimal Benders cuts when computing small-M MIP formulation. We mention that, on top of each of those 9 different Benders decomposition implementations, Jensen’s inequality or the relaxed Jensen’s inequality described in Section 3.3 can be integrated into its master problem. To evaluate the benefit of adding those inequalities, we select BD1 as the basis and study the integration with Jensen’s inequality or the relaxed one, which are denoted by BD1J and BD1RJ respectively.

In our computational study, the time limit is set to 3,600 seconds. Also, when computing **CC – bigM** formulation and master problem of Benders decomposition, the optimality gap e is set to 0.005. For subproblem \mathbf{DP}_k , the optimality gap e is set to 10^{-4} . If initialization operations are involved, we set the optimality gap of master problem in the initialization stage to 0.02 and restrict the total time for the initialization stage less than 500 seconds.

Table 3: Description of CPLEX and Benders Decomposition Methods

Method	Description
CPX	CPLEX with CC – bigM formulation
BD0	Basic method generating cuts from scenarios with $z_k = 0$ only
BD1	Basic method generating cuts from all scenarios
BD2	BD1 with Pareto optimal cuts
BD3	BD1 with SP based initialization
BD4	BD1 with SP based initialization and integer cuts
BD5	BD1 with small-M based initialization
BD6	BD1 with small-M based initialization and integer cuts
BD7	BD1 with small-M based initialization (<i>strongest cuts only</i>) and integer cuts
BD8	BD1 with small-M based initialization (<i>strongest cuts only</i>), Pareto optimal cuts in computing small-M MIP formulation, and integer cuts
BD1J	BD1 with Jensen’s inequality listed in Proposition 9
BD1RJ	BD1 with relaxed Jensen’s inequality listed in Corollary 10

4.2 Test Beds

Our numerical study primarily involves unstructured instances that are generated randomly. Specifically, let K , I_1 , I_2 , n , and m denote the number of scenarios, the number of constraints in (6), the number of constraints in (8), the dimension of \mathbf{x} , and the dimension of \mathbf{y}_k , respectively. In our study, we consider two setups of (I_1, I_2, n, m) , i.e., $T_1 = (10, 30, 20, 40)$ and $T_2 = (20, 50, 30, 70)$, and three different K values, i.e., 250, 500 and 1000. For each of six resulting combinations, we generate five instances where their coefficients are randomly selected from the ranges described in Table 4.

Table 4: Data Ranges

Parameter	Dimension	Range
A	$I_1 \times n$	$[-25,25]$
b	I_1	$[-50,50]$
c	n	$[100,300]$
G_k	$I_2 \times n$	first 40% I_2 rows: $[0,10]$, other rows: 0
H_k	$I_2 \times m$	first 40% I_2 rows: $[-3, 0]$, other rows: $[0,3]$
h_k	I_2	first 40% I_2 elements: $[-35, 0]$, other elements: $[-25,100]$
f_k	m	$[5,10]$

Following those specifications, we generate one set of instances with \mathbf{x} being binary variables and another set with \mathbf{x} being general integer variables, to study algorithm performance with different types of \mathbf{x} . For \mathbf{x} being general integer variables, we set their upper bounds to 500, which is also used in linearization operations in Benders decomposition. Overall, we have 30×2 instances. Note that it is not necessary to require \mathbf{x} to be integer variables in our algorithm implementation. In order to gain insights on benchmarking Benders decomposition method and the professional solver CPLEX, we primarily consider random instances of a moderate difficulty (i.e., the computational time by CPLEX is more than 500 seconds and has less than 15% optimality gap before time limit when under $\varepsilon = 0.1$). To evaluate the solution capability on more challenging instances, we also generate 30 difficult ones whose first stage \mathbf{x} are general integer and have a gap $\geq 15\%$ by CPLEX before time limit.

It has been demonstrated in a couple of stochastic planning or scheduling problems [9, 2] that Jensen’s inequality could be very beneficial to Benders decomposition when its basic version is inefficient. In order to appreciate its advantage in solving chance constrained programs, we extend the stochastic operating room (OR) scheduling model presented in [2] to build its chance constrained formulation. Appendix of this paper presents this formulation, along with the description of associated parameters and decision variables. Note that the structure of this formulation enables us to incorporate Jensen’s inequality presented in Proposition 9 or the relaxed one presented in Corollary 10 into master problem. Then, random instances of this particular application are generated according to the specifications made in [2]: 8 surgeries with index i or j , 2 surgeons with index k , 2 operating rooms with index q or r , and 9 hours per day ($L = 540$). Surgery list of surgeon 1 is $\{1,2,3,4\}$ and that of surgeon 2 is $\{5,6,7,8\}$. The fixed cost c^f , overtime cost c^o , and idle time cost c^s are 4437, 12.37, and 17.748, respectively. Surgeon turnover time s^S and operating room turnover time s^R are 0 and 30, respectively. The big M value is set to 2500. Durations of different stages, i.e., preincision, incision and postincision, of an operation are random. In our numerical study, we consider two situations with different random levels. In the first situation, we employ $K = 100$ scenarios with equal probabilities to capture the uncertainty, where $pre_i(\omega)$ and $post_i(\omega)$ are randomly selected from $[32, 56]$ and $p_i(\omega)$ are randomly selected from $[50, 150]$, $\forall i$ of a particular scenario. In the second one, those parameters of each scenario are randomly selected from $[26, 38]$, $[26, 38]$ and $[76, 123]$, respectively. Clearly, the first situation demonstrates more severe randomness than the second one. Then, we generate 5 instances for each situation to support our computation.

4.3 Computational Results of Benders Decomposition Variants

4.3.1 Results of Unstructured Random Instances

We first present numerical results of unstructured random instances in Table 5 and 6, with ε set to 0.1. In those tables, column “obj.” presents the objective function value of the best feasible solution. Column “sec.” records the computational time in seconds. If the algorithm is terminated because of time limit, we label it by “T”. If it is terminated due to insufficient memory,

we label it by “M”. Column “g(%)” keeps the relative gap in percentage when the algorithm terminates before reaching optimality. Column “itr.” presents the total number of iterations in Benders decomposition. If any of initialization techniques is applied, the total number of iterations will be displayed as the number of iterations in the initialization stage + that number in the regular computation stage. At the bottom of those tables, we have a few rows to show the average performances of different computing methods. Row “# solved (S)” provides the number of instances solved to optimality. Similarly, row “# unsolved (U)” provides the number of instances unsolved. Row “avg. sec.: S” presents the average computational time in seconds over instances solved to optimality. Row “avg. gap: U” presents the average relative gap in percentage over unsolved instances. As there are a few instances that do not have gap information, we do not include them when computing this row. Row “CPX/BD: XBS” displays the average of computational time ratios between CPLEX and BD, over instances solved by both CPLEX and Benders decomposition. Based on those two tables, we make a few observations:

(i) Benders decomposition method, even in its basic forms BD0 and BD1, shows a significantly better performance than that of the professional solver CPLEX. With the most effective enhancement strategies, Benders decomposition optimally solves 95% of all instances while CPLEX fails to derive optimal solutions for 50% of those instances. For those that can be computed by both CPLEX and Benders decomposition, according to “CPX/BD: XBS”, the latter one generally is faster by an order of magnitude. Indeed, given that our testing instances are unstructured, we can anticipate that such improvement can be more prominent in well-structured real applications where Benders decomposition can be highly customized.

(ii) Although BD1 is obtained by making a simple modification on BD0, its performance is clear superior to BD0. Enhancement strategies, especially SP based and small-M based initialization techniques, could further improve algorithm performance at a significant level. For example, when \mathbf{x} are binary, the best performed method is BD5, which is with small-M based initialization. Comparing BD1 and BD5, we note that more than 25% computational time is reduced. And on those solved by CPLEX, it perform 22 times faster. When \mathbf{x} are general integers, it is interesting to note that although BD5 probably works faster on those solved by CPLEX, BD3, which is with SP based initialization, performs more stably by solving more instances than BD5.

Other enhancement strategies generally are not as effective as BD3 and BD5. One explanation is that those instances can be computed with a small number of Benders iterations, which may not provide a suitable platform to demonstrate the effectiveness of other strategies. Nevertheless, there may exist some applications where other enhancement strategies could be very effective.

(iii) Results on all Benders decomposition implementations with SP or small-M based initialization empirically confirm our discussion following Proposition 8. It is often the case that one single bilinear Benders iteration is needed after the initialization stage is completed (with a high quality feasible solution). Clearly, that single iteration just serves the verification purpose to the optimality of that solution. It is more obvious in BD5, where small-M based initialization is adopted, than in BD3, in both Tables. Such observation indicates that this approximation-verification scheme is of a practical interest where the optimality tolerance is an input parameter from system operator. By adjusting the value of M and using this approximation-verification scheme, we will be able to produce a solution satisfying the optimality requirement with a tolerable computational expense for large-scale practical problems.

To study algorithm performance under a different risk tolerance level, we recompute all those instances with $\varepsilon = 0.05$. BD5 and BD3 are selected as computing methods for instances with binary \mathbf{x} and with general integer \mathbf{x} , respectively. Results are presented in Table 7. There are two points worth our attention. First, under $\varepsilon = 0.05$, those instances become significantly easier for CPX. Consequently, the benefit of using Benders decomposition over CPLEX is less attractive. One explanation is that with $\varepsilon = 0.05$, scenario selection is of less freedom, which suggests identifying optimal responsive scenarios is not challenging. So, those instances become more suitable for CPLEX. Another point is the strong capability of detecting infeasibility demonstrated

by Benders decomposition method. In Table 7, there are two instances with $K = 250$ and T_2 that are labeled “inf”, i.e., they are infeasible. On the one hand, it takes non-trivial computational expense for CPLEX to report infeasibility. On the other hand, BD5 identifies their infeasibility by a couple of iterations with much less computational time. As we mention in Section 2.1, such strong capability is of a critical value for practitioners to perform sensitivity analysis with respect to ε .

We further explore the computational capability of Benders decomposition method on 30 difficult instances. Table 8 reports results where BD1, BD3, BD5 are adopted as computing methods. Again, all those Benders decomposition variants demonstrate much more powerful computing capabilities than CPLEX. Among instances that can be computed to optimality, BD5 computes much faster than BD1 and BD3 while BD3 performs more stably by solving more instances. For those whose gap information are available before time limit, those Benders decomposition variants always ensure a solution that has a significantly smaller gap than that produced by CPLEX. Among those Benders decomposition variants, BD5 is most effective on reducing gaps. Overall, from the computation time and gap information of those instances, we generally believe that small-M based initialization probably is a more effective strategy than SP based initialization.

4.3.2 Results of Chance Constrained OR Scheduling Problem

For instances of chance constrained OR scheduling problem, we test one basic Benders decomposition variant, i.e., BD1, and its integration with Jensen’s inequalities, i.e., BD1J and BD1RJ. Table 9 presents their computational performances with ε equal to 0, 0.05 or 0.1. Noting that when $\varepsilon = 0$, chance constrained model reduces to its SP counterpart, BD1 reduces to the classical Benders decomposition method in computing SP, and BD1J and BD1JR are identical to BD1. To gain insights of BD1J and BD1RJ in computing chance constrained instances, the last row of Table 9 only summarize results of those with ε equal to 0.05 or 0.1. Same as our observations made in Section 3.2, although their SP counterparts are rather easy to compute by CPLEX, chance constrained instances are very challenging to solve. Although BD1 is not an effective solution method for either SP or chance constrained instances, the benefit from including Jensen’s inequalities is drastic. Indeed, such benefit is more obvious in computing chance constrained instances where BD1J and BD1RJ demonstrate significantly stronger solution capabilities over CPLEX. Noting that CPLEX typically cannot produce a solution of a small gap for any chance constrained instance, BD1J or BD1RJ typically can derive solutions with practically acceptable gaps. Such gap reduction could be in one order of magnitude.

It actually is interesting to note that BD1J and BD1RJ display different behaviors. In group 1, which has more severe uncertainties, BD1J generally produces solutions with less gaps. In group 2, which has less randomness, BD1RJ performs better. On the one hand, the results in group 1 can be explained by the fact that when uncertainty gets more severe, the relaxed Jensen’s inequality becomes weaker. Although it is more computationally friendly with more iterations done within the time limit, its support to improving the lower bound is not as effective as Jensen’s inequality. On the other hand, in group 2 where less randomness is involved in, strength of the relaxed Jensen’s inequality is close to Jensen’s inequality. Given that master problem with Jensen’s inequality is often terminated due to its computational complexity, the advantage of the simple structure of the relaxed one, along with its strength, renders BD1RJ demonstrate better computational performance over BD1J. Such different behaviors indicate that we need to adopt the appropriate Jensen’s inequality to achieve the best performance.

Table 5: Comparison of Algorithm Performance under $\varepsilon = 0.1$ on Instances with Binary \mathbf{x}

K		CPX		BD0		BD1		BD2		BD3		BD4		BD5		BD6		BD7		BD8				
		obj.	sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)	itr. sec. g(%)			
250	T_1	1	1893.3	873	4	56	4	53	4	92	3+3	63	3+3	87	4+1	35	4+1	45	4+1	43	4+1	35		
		2	2038.41684		3	33	3	30	3	46	3+2	35	3+2	29	3+1	22	3+1	38	3+1	34	3+1	54		
		3	1432.12081		4	66	4	58	4	103	4+2	65	4+2	80	4+1	35	4+1	47	4+1	43	4+1	36		
		4	1744.2	T 4.655	5	115	4	88	4	129	5+2	97	5+2	125	4+1	58	4+1	71	4+1	60	4+1	51		
		5	1244.9	541	3	34	3	32	3	62	5+2	74	5+2	98	3+1	23	3+1	36	3+1	33	3+1	25		
	T_2	1	1408.1	T 0.883	69	2	45	2	66	5+1	98	5+1	100	3+1	40	3+1	89	3+1	93	3+1	93	3+1	31	
		2	3060.8	T 12.35	3252	3	1296	4	2263	5+3	1434	5+2	604	4+2	1229	4+1	381	4+1	408	4+1	408	4+1	1467	
		3	2764.4	T 1.143	189	2	95	2	166	2+1	83	2+1	83	3+1	106	3+1	362	3+1	352	3+1	352	3+1	1399	
		4	3241.7	T 0.724	348	3	259	3	275	2+2	228	2+2	286	4+1	128	4+1	228	4+1	228	4+1	228	4+1	1114	
		5	1768.6	T 7.755	2186	4	247	4	366	4+2	206	4+2	304	4+1	154	4+1	238	4+1	234	4+1	234	4+1	1134	
500	T_1	1	1361.2	T 11.255	363	5	438	5	573	5+3	496	5+3	609	5+1	196	5+1	233	5+1	216	5+1	216	5+1	1208	
		2	984.3	1835	3	62	2	36	2	89	3+1	62	3+1	62	3+1	54	3+1	80	3+1	80	3+1	55		
		3	809.1	T 0.563	67	2	37	2	56	3+1	58	3+1	57	3+1	54	3+1	81	3+1	92	3+1	92	3+1	1168	
		4	1904.6	T 11.135	374	5	366	5	555	2+4	362	2+4	450	5+1	185	5+1	214	5+1	206	5+1	206	5+1	1184	
		5	390.1	T 0.993	63	2	37	2	91	3+1	55	3+1	55	3+1	55	3+1	74	3+1	74	3+1	74	3+1	54	
	T_2	1	1348.4	T 0.883	218	2	168	2	210	5+1	301	5+1	304	3+1	113	3+1	362	3+1	384	3+1	384	3+1	95	
		2	2282	528	3	436	2	135	2	225	2+1	103	2+1	104	3+1	82	3+1	303	3+1	298	3+1	298	3+1	90
		3	1736.83587		3	370	2	107	2	178	3+1	139	3+1	137	3+1	107	3+1	411	3+1	408	3+1	408	3+1	1103
		4	1301	T 1.543	119	2	88	2	177	3+1	124	3+1	123	3+1	70	3+1	213	3+1	214	3+1	214	3+1	63	
		5	2448.51375		3	207	2	286	2	271	2+1	89	2+1	91	3+1	229	3+1	431	3+1	434	3+1	434	3+1	1220
1000	T_1	1	1673	1256	3	389	3	385	3	739	3+2	439	3+2	854	3+1	242	3+1	380	3+1	360	3+1	1243		
		2	1411.11610		3	231	2	133	2	335	3+1	308	3+1	308	3+1	191	3+1	298	3+1	298	3+1	1181		
		3	1208.11249		3	202	2	128	2	352	3+1	203	3+1	188	3+1	185	3+1	266	3+1	270	3+1	1181		
		4	1467.61644		3	205	2	127	2	201	3+1	297	3+1	290	3+1	175	3+1	271	3+1	268	3+1	1607		
		5	1087.8	T 11.973	249	3	354	3	683	4+2	504	4+2	725	3+1	211	3+1	335	3+1	310	3+1	310	3+1	1213	
	T_2	1	1436.32862		3	464	2	347	2	697	2+1	331	2+1	330	3+1	236	3+1	961	3+1	985	3+1	1236		
		2	2136.3	T 7.933	725	2	538	2	907	2+1	413	2+1	425	3+1	307	3+1	1175	3+1	1196	3+1	1196	3+1	1333	
		3	1600.63073		5	T 37.245	5	T 35.594	4	T 33.294	4+1	M 38.014	4+1	M 38.014	4+3	T 37.033	4+1	M 374	4+1	M NA	4+2	M 36.69		
		4	2565.73480		3	994	2	881	2	1005	2+1	831	2+1	1818	3+1	366	3+1	1443	3+1	1548	3+1	1394		
		5	2320.72746		3	373	2	352	2	609	2+1	242	2+1	237	3+1	206	3+1	824	3+1	818	3+1	1216		
# solved (S)		16		29		29		29		29		29		29		29		29		29				
# unsolved (U)		14		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1				
avg. sec.: S		1734		430		246		397		267		275		176		341		344		179				
avg. gap: U		5.26		37.24		35.59		33.29		38.01		38.01		37.03		37		NA		36.69				
CPX/BD: XBS				13.5		18.4		10.2		14.8		14.6		22		12.6		13.3		18.2				

Table 7: Comparison of Algorithm Performance under $\varepsilon = 0.05$

K			binary x						integer x					
			CPX			BD5			CPX			BD3		
			obj.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	obj.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)
250	T_1	1	2184.4	1084		4+1	39		1602.4	193		5+1	38	
		2	2053.8	68		3+1	22		1160	T	11.14	6+4	173	
		3	1582.2	1346		6+1	59		1779.2	2813		4+4	127	
		4	1798.5	2196		6+1	71		1698.2	107		4+2	53	
		5	1258	80		3+1	23		2402.6	68		5+1	42	
	T_2	1	1546.3	T	0.9	5+1	90		2845.1	1487		2+1	157	
		2	3076.4	T	17.55	6+2	1249		3140.4	T	16.74	4+2	322	
		3	inf	1318	inf	2+1	71	inf	2879.3	1236		3+1	80	
		4	inf	2467	inf	3+1	58	inf	1882.5	T	4.51	4+2	156	
		5	1782	T	3.33	3+1	69		2186	2890		3+1	49	
500	T_1	1	1370.8	T	21.61	8+1	327		3428.4	3427		3+1	147	
		2	1222.5	T	18.86	3+1	70		1677.9	T	6.13	6+2	254	
		3	918.6	T	10.9	3+1	55		1394.7	T	17.98	3+2	168	
		4	1918.8	T	7.63	4+1	118		1508.4	T	5.15	5+3	356	
		5	470.9	T	15.55	3+1	57		1150.8	T	20.19	3+3	247	
	T_2	1	1478.2	T	8.75	3+1	89		1063.7	T	1.65	4+1	171	
		2	2288.6	243		3+1	94		1746.0	1355		2+1	120	
		3	1749.6	T	0.51	3+1	101		2124.3	1284		2+1	109	
		4	1313.2	T	0.57	3+1	66		9635.6	820		2+1	752	
		5	2458.5	1408		3+1	79		2044.4	3490		2+1	159	
1000	T_1	1	1686.2	1831		3+1	229		2512.9	T	5.45	4+1	443	
		2	1423.8	1438		3+1	195		1411.9	1078		3+1	289	
		3	1218.7	1692		3+1	180		1702.4	T	29.32	3+2	685	
		4	1479.7	919		3+1	108		3225.1	T	5.01	4+2	676	
		5	1409.4	T	31.29	3+1	215		1157.7	847		4+1	314	
	T_2	1	1447	1852		3+1	212		2559.3	3454		2+1	870	
		2	2147.7	1548		3+1	262		1555.3	496		2+1	414	
		3	2342.7	T	36.88	4+3	T	27.62	2865	T	9.83	2+1	506	
		4	2576.8	3538		3+3	2724		2375.6	T	34.24	2+1	1082	
		5	2334	1053		3+1	203		2693.6	2748		2+1	491	
# solved (S)		17			29			17			30			
# unsolved (U)		13			1			13			0			
avg. sec.:S		1417			246			1635			315			
avg. gap: U		13.41			27.62			12.87			NA			
CPX/BD: XBS					13.2						11.8			

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we study chance constrained mixed integer program with a finite discrete scenario set. We first present a non-traditional bilinear formulation and analyze its structure. Its linear counterparts are derived that could be stronger than popular ones or big-M formulations. We also develop a variant of Jensen's inequality that extends from stochastic program to chance constrained program. To solve this type of challenging problem, we provide a bilinear Benders reformulation and present a bilinear variant of Benders decomposition method. In addition, a few non-trivial enhancement strategies are designed to improve the solution capability of Benders decomposition method. Different from existing understanding that Benders decomposition might not be effective, we observe that the presented implementation method, jointly with appropriate enhancement techniques, performs drastically better than a state-of-the-art commercial solver by an order of magnitude, on deriving optimal solutions or reporting infeasibility. Overall, the presented Benders decomposition method basically does not depend on special assumptions and provides the first easy-to-use fast algorithm to compute general chance constrained program.

Table 8: Computational Performances on Difficult Instances under $\varepsilon = 0.1$

K			CPX		BD1			BD3			BD5		
			obj.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)
250	T_1	1	3441.3	24.87	7	1778		6+4	963		7+1	466	
		2	1387.6	16	4	1192		5+3	213		5+1	227	
		3	3477.8	30.01	6	1928		6+3	1910		7+1	582	
		4	2892.7	43.16	4	M	8.6	5+3	1213		5+1	296	
		5	3798.4	44.58	6	T	3.68	7+4	T	9.46	6+3	T	4.12
	T_2	1	3129	26.67	5	T	8.88	5+4	T	6.47	8+3	T	8.55
		2	4657	51.2	2	M	1.26	3+1	533		3+1	408	
		3	4477.6	36.33	6	T	7.75	6+4	T	11.42	7+4	T	7.46
		4	3237	51.35	7	T	8.55	6+4	T	13.25	8+3	T	10.3
		5	3971.9	45.27	5	T	22.01	10+3	T	20.96	6+3	T	16.42
500	T_1	1	1465.3	51.3	7	T	10.07	7+5	T	26.98	8+3	T	16.57
		2	3717.5	30.44	6	T	6.5	4+4	T	9.91	6+3	T	11.36
		3	1585.7	47.6	7	T	0.92	5+5	T	23.31	9+3	T	11.4
		4	2953.4	41.41	6	T	8.48	6+4	T	25.8	8+3	T	11.27
		5	3584.8	44.92	5	T	20.62	6+4	T	21.75	5+3	T	16.35
	T_2	1	2190.3	33.5	2	M	16.72	5+1	746		4+1	M	0.93
		2	3634.2	29.85	5	T	12.32	6+4	T	19.29	4+3	T	7.41
		3	3468.6	22.52	5	T	0.55	4+1	M	8.6	4+3	M	0.59
		4	4310	28.54	3	M	0.78	2+1	M	0.53	3+1	M	0.54
		5	4314.74	64.22	5	T	24.99	8+3	T	25.63	4+3	T	17.25
1000	T_1	1	2117.7	23.04	6	T	1.1	5+4	T	9.78	5+3	T	5.57
		2	3273.5	53.6	5	T	23.85	5+3	T	30.14	4+3	T	18.85
		3	1806.2	64.91	5	T	21.99	4+4	T	46.79	5+3	T	24.64
		4	3679.1	48.57	5	T	27.43	6+3	T	35.99	4+3	T	22.89
		5	3866.25	52.92	5	T	24.83	6+3	T	35.03	4+3	T	22.27
	T_2	1	1787.2	55.51	4	T	NA	6+2	M	NA	5+3	T	NA
		2	3750.5	17.06	4	T	10.2	3+3	T	13.5	3+3	T	10.51
		3	2848.3	26.21	4	3205		5+3	T	24.08	5+3	T	9.89
		4	3892.77	55.55	4	T	33.97	5+1	M	NA	3+3	T	NA
		5	6202.8	44.88	1	M	NA	3+1	M	18.24	3+3	T	15.61
# solved (S)		0		4			6			5			
# unsolved (U)		30		26			24			25			
avg. sec.: S		NA		2026			930			396			
avg. gap: U		40.2		12.75			19.86			11.77			

Table 9: Benders Decomposition and Jensen’s Inequalities in OR Scheduling Problem

Group			CPX			BD1			BD1J			BD1RJ		
			obj.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)	itr.	sec.	g(%)
I	$\varepsilon = 0$ (SP)	1	20723.7	20		171	T	60.12	7	25				
		2	20474.1	23		166	T	62.04	7	25				
		3	20556.6	22		162	T	66.33	7	26				
		4	20703.4	25		161	T	61.30	6	18				
		5	20619.8	18		161	T	62.17	7	26				
	$\varepsilon = 0.05$	1	19942.9	T	9.8	104	T	68.37	8	T	0.64	9	T	0.57
		2	19730.1	T	11.64	104	T	68.11	8	T	0.66	9	T	0.66
		3	19815.6	T	8.36	103	T	68.16	9	T	0.69	8	T	1.09
		4	19937.4	T	21.06	103	T	68.39	7	T	0.7	9	T	0.67
		5	19873.5	T	29.88	102	T	68.02	7	T	0.8	8	T	1.08
	$\varepsilon = 0.1$	1	19215.9	T	31.22	102	T	68.09	6	T	1.35	6	T	3.77
		2	19049.7	T	15.19	103	T	66.90	5	T	1.48	6	T	4.5
		3	19120.2	T	38.04	99	T	63.24	5	T	1.28	6	T	3.76
		4	19232.3	T	34.17	99	T	67.24	6	T	1.74	9	T	1.59
		5	19191.5	T	38.75	100	T	66.22	5	T	2.56	9	T	2.76
II	$\varepsilon = 0$ (SP)	1	16566.9	15		172	T	49.50	5	15				
		2	16433.5	21		173	T	54.44	5	15				
		3	16551.8	18		171	T	54.39	4	11				
		4	16507.3	20		168	T	48.77	5	15				
		5	16256	19		169	T	57.38	5	20				
	$\varepsilon = 0.05$	1	16091.7	T	5.86	106	T	62.45	4	M	1.9	6	T	1.26
		2	15942.4	T	5.51	108	T	62.21	5	T	2.0	6	T	1.02
		3	16075.4	T	6.13	107	T	65.73	6	T	1.35	6	T	1.14
		4	16018.6	T	7.73	106	T	59.25	5	T	1.08	6	T	1.1
		5	15823.5	M	5.2	109	T	60.19	3	M	6.86	6	T	1.11
	$\varepsilon = 0.1$	1	15640.4	T	23.88	102	T	61.31	5	T	2.56	6	T	2.65
		2	15496.3	T	17.87	97	T	60.99	4	T	6.95	6	T	2.95
		3	15694.2	M	41.28	101	T	63.47	5	T	3.4	5	T	2.47
		4	15593.5	T	24.6	98	T	55.18	4	T	3.39	6	T	2.27
		5	15380.5	T	20.95	98	T	58.86	4	T	3.66	6	T	2.43
avg. gap: U			19.86			64.12			2.25			1.94		

We believe that the presented bilinear formulation for chance constrained program is informative and its structure is worth of further analysis and investigation. One research direction is to develop strong linear formulations and valid inequalities based on this bilinear representation, especially for those whose recourse problem is an MIP. We also point out that due to its simple scheme, the presented Benders decomposition method is able to integrate almost all improvement strategies and ideas developed for classical Benders decomposition and stochastic programs. So, it is rather an algorithmic framework that can be further extended. Actually, we believe that if one improvement strategy benefits Benders decomposition method to solve SP, it would benefit to compute chance constrained program as well. Clearly, more comprehensive study and evaluations are needed to support our understanding.

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Appendix

Chance Constrained Operating Room Scheduling Problem

The following chance constrained operating room scheduling problem is extended from its stochastic programming counterpart presented in [2]. The original parameters, notations and descriptions are largely kept, while some additional variables and constraints are introduced to define the chance constrained model. Note that this formulation is in **CC-bigM** form and its bilinear **CC-MIBP** form can be obtained straightforwardly.

Indices

i, j	Surgery indices
k	Surgeon index
q, r	Operating room indices
ω	Scenario index
i_k	Index of the first surgery of surgeon k

Parameters

L	Session length of each operating room
c^f	Fixed cost of opening an operating room
c^o	Overtime cost of an operating room per minute
c^S	Idle time cost of a surgeon per minute
s^S	Surgeon turnover time between two consecutive surgeries
s^R	Operating room turnover time between two consecutive surgeries
π_ω	Probability of scenario ω
n	Total number of surgeries for scheduling
n_R	Total number of available operating rooms
n_S	Total number of surgeons
b_{ijk}	Binary parameter indicating whether surgery i immediately precedes surgery j in the surgery listing of surgeon k
$pre_i(\omega)$	Preincision duration of surgery i in scenario ω
$p_i(\omega)$	Incision duration of surgery i in scenario ω
$post_i(\omega)$	Postincision duration of surgery i in scenario ω

Decision Variables

x_r	Binary on/off status of operating room r
y_{ir}	Binary variable indicating whether surgery i is assigned to operating room r
z_{ijr}	Binary variable indicating whether surgery i precedes j in operating room r
t_k	Continuous start time of surgeon k
$z^C(\omega)$	Binary variable indicating whether scenario ω is not chosen as a responsive scenario
$C_{ir}(\omega)$	Continuous completion time of surgery i in operating room r under scenario ω
$I_{ij}(\omega)$	Continuous idle time between surgery i and j in scenario ω (defined for (i, j) : $\sum_{k=1}^{n_S} b_{ijk} = 1$)
$I_k(\omega)$	Continuous idle time of surgeon k before his/her first surgery in scenario ω
$O_r(\omega)$	Continuous overtime in operating room r in scenario ω
$I_{ij}^C(\omega)$	Continuous auxiliary variable of $I_{ij}(\omega)$ for the chance constraint
$I_k^C(\omega)$	Continuous auxiliary variable of $I_k(\omega)$ for the chance constraint
$O_r^C(\omega)$	Continuous auxiliary variable of $O_r(\omega)$ for the chance constraint

$$\min \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} c^f x_r + \sum_{\omega=1}^K \pi_\omega \mathcal{Q}^C(x, y, z, t, \xi(\omega)) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$\text{s.t. } y_{ir} \leq x_r \quad \forall i, r \quad (\text{A.2})$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^{n_R} y_{ir} = 1 \quad \forall i \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$z_{ijr} + z_{jir} \leq y_{ir} \quad \forall i, j > i, r \quad (\text{A.4})$$

$$z_{ijr} + z_{jir} \leq y_{jr} \quad \forall i, j > i, r \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$z_{ijr} + z_{jir} \leq y_{ir} + y_{jr} - 1 \quad \forall i, j > i, r \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$t_k \leq L \quad \forall k \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$x_r \geq x_{r+1} \quad r = 1, \dots, n_R - 1 \quad (\text{A.8})$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^i y_{ir} = 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, \min\{n, n_R\} \quad (\text{A.9})$$

$$\sum_{q=r}^{\min\{i, n_R\}} y_{iq} \leq \sum_{j=r-1}^{i-1} y_{j, r-1} \quad \forall i, r \leq i \quad (\text{A.10})$$

$$u_j \geq u_i + 1 - n \left(1 - \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} z_{ijr}\right) \quad \forall i, j \neq i \quad (\text{A.11})$$

$$u_j \geq u_i + 1 \quad \forall (i, j) : \sum_{k=1}^{n_S} b_{ijk} = 1 \quad (\text{A.12})$$

$$\mathcal{Q}^C(x, y, z, t, \xi(\omega)) = \min \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} c^o O_r^C(\omega) + \sum_{(i,j): \sum_{k=1}^{n_S} b_{ijk}=1} c^S I_{ij}^C(\omega) + \sum_{k=1}^{n_S} c^S I_k^C(\omega) \quad (\text{A.13})$$

$$C_{ir}(\omega) \leq M y_{ir} \quad \forall \omega, i, r \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$C_{jr}(\omega) - C_{ir}(\omega) \geq s^R + pre_j(\omega) + p_j(\omega) + post_j(\omega) - M(1 - z_{ijr}) \quad \forall \omega, i, j \neq i, r \quad (\text{A.15})$$

$$I_k(\omega) - \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} C_{i_k r}(\omega) = -t_k - pre_{i_k}(\omega) - p_{i_k}(\omega) - post_{i_k}(\omega) \quad \forall \omega, k \quad (\text{A.16})$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^{n_R} C_{ir}(\omega) \geq t_k + pre_i(\omega) + p_i(\omega) + post_i(\omega) \quad \forall \omega, (i, k) : \sum_{j=1}^n b_{jik} = 1 \quad (\text{A.17})$$

$$I_{ij}(\omega) + \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} C_{ir}(\omega) - \sum_{r=1}^{n_R} C_{jr}(\omega) = post_i(\omega) - s^S - p_j(\omega) - post_j(\omega)$$

$$\forall \omega, (i, j) : \sum_{k=1}^{n_S} b_{ijk} = 1 \quad (\text{A.18})$$

$$O_r(\omega) - C_{ir}(\omega) \geq -L \quad \forall \omega, i, r \quad (\text{A.19})$$

$$\sum_{\omega=1}^K \pi_\omega z^C(\omega) \leq \varepsilon \quad (\text{A.20})$$

$$I_{ij}^C(\omega) \geq I_{ij}(\omega) - M z^C(\omega) \quad \forall \omega, i, j \quad (\text{A.21})$$

$$I_k^C(\omega) \geq I_k(\omega) - M z^C(\omega) \quad \forall \omega, k \quad (\text{A.22})$$

$$O_r^C(\omega) \geq O_r(\omega) - M z^C(\omega) \quad \forall \omega, r \quad (\text{A.23})$$

$$(\text{A.24})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& x_r \in \{0, 1\} \forall r; y_{ir} \in \{0, 1\} \forall i, r; z_{ijr} \in \{0, 1\} \forall i, j \neq i, r; t_k \geq 0 \forall k & (A.25) \\
& C_{ir}(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, i, r; I_{ij}(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, i, j; I_k(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, k; O_r(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, r \\
& I_{ij}^C(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, i, j; I_k^C(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, k; O_r^C(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega, r; z^C(\omega) \in \{0, 1\} \forall \omega
\end{aligned}$$

The objective function (A.1) is to minimize the sum of the (first-stage) fixed cost of opening operating rooms and the (second-stage) expected overtime and idle time cost from responsive scenarios. Constraints (A.2-A.7) impose restrictions on the first-stage variables. Constraints (A.8-A.10) are introduced to eliminate symmetric solutions. Constraints (A.11-A.12) guarantee the feasibility of the first stage decisions. Constraints (A.14-A.19) impose restrictions on the second-stage variables.

The inequality (A.20) is the chance constraint that limits the selection of non-responsive scenarios by ε . Noting that all of the cost coefficients are non-negative, we introduce constraints (A.21)-(A.23) to ensure that when a scenario is a non-responsive one, there is no cost incurred from overtime or idle time of this scenario.

Readers are encouraged to refer to [2] for the detailed description and discussions on background, formulation and management insights of this particular application.