

APPROXIMATION ALGORITHMS FOR STOCHASTIC AND RISK-AVERSE OPTIMIZATION*

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Abstract. We present improved approximation algorithms in stochastic optimization. We prove that the multistage stochastic versions of covering integer programs (such as set cover and vertex cover) admit essentially the same approximation algorithms as their standard (nonstochastic) counterparts; this improves upon work of Swamy and Shmoys which shows an approximability that depends multiplicatively on the number of stages. We also present approximation algorithms for facility location and some of its variants in the 2-stage recourse model, improving on previous approximation guarantees. We give a 2.2975-approximation algorithm in the standard polynomial-scenario model and an algorithm with an expected per-scenario 2.4957-approximation guarantee, which is applicable to the more general black-box distribution model.

Key words. approximation algorithms, stochastic optimization, set cover, facility location

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1. Introduction. Stochastic optimization attempts to model uncertainty in the input data via probabilistic modeling of future information. It originated in the work of Beale [1] and Dantzig [6] five decades ago and has found application in several areas of optimization. There has been a flurry of algorithmic activity over the last decade in this field, especially from the viewpoint of approximation algorithms; see the survey [39] for a thorough discussion of this area.

In this work, we present improved approximation algorithms for various basic problems in stochastic optimization. We start by recalling the widely used *two-stage recourse model* [39]. Information about the input instance is revealed in two stages here. In the first, we are given access to a distribution D over possible realizations of future data, each such realization called a *scenario*; given D , we can commit to an anticipatory part x of the total solution, which costs us $c(x)$. In the second stage, a scenario A is sampled from D and given to us, specifying the complete instance. We may then augment x by taking recourse actions y_A that cost us the additional amount of $f_A(x, y_A)$ in order to construct a feasible solution for the complete instance. The algorithmic goal is to construct x efficiently, as well as y_A efficiently (precomputed for all A if possible, or computed when A is revealed to us), in order to minimize the total expected cost, $c(x) + \mathbf{E}_A[f_A(x, y_A)]$. (In the case of randomized algorithms, we further

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take the expectation over the random choices of the algorithm.) This is the basic cost model. We will also study “risk-averse” relatives of this expectation-minimization version. There is a natural extension of the above to $k \geq 2$ stages; see [38] for a nice motivating example for the case where $k > 2$ and for the precise model. We present just those details of this model that are relevant for our discussion in section 2.

As an example, the 2-stage version of set cover is as follows. As usual, we have a finite ground set X and a given family of subsets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m of X ; the stochasticity comes from the fact that the actual set of elements to be covered could be a *subset* of X , about which we only have probabilistic information. As above, we can sample D to get an idea of this subset in Stage I; we can also buy each S_j for some given cost c_j in Stage I. Of course, the catch is that future costs are typically higher; i.e., for all j and A , the cost $c_{A,j}$ of buying S_j under scenario A in Stage II could be much more than c_j . This reflects the increased cost of rapid response, as opposed to the advance provisioning of any set S_j . As in set cover, a feasible solution is a collection of $\{S_j\}_{j=1}^m$ that covers all of the finally revealed elements A . Thus, we will choose some collection x of sets in Stage I by using the distributional information about A and then augment x by choosing further sets S_j in Stage II when we know A . One basic goal is to minimize the total expected cost of the two stages.

How is D specified? As mentioned in [39], there has been recent work in algorithms where the data (e.g., demands) come from a product of *independent*, explicitly given distributions (see, e.g., the discussions in [22, 14, 7]). One major advantage here is that it can succinctly capture even exponentially many scenarios. However, just as in [26, 30, 12, 38, 39], we are interested in dealing with correlations that arise in the data (e.g., correlations due to geographic proximity of clients) and hence will not deal with such *independent activation* models here. So, our general definition is where we are given access to a black box that can generate samples according to D . Alternatively, we could be explicitly given the list of scenarios and their respective probabilities. In this case, algorithms that run in time polynomial in the other input parameters naturally require that the total number of scenarios be polynomially bounded. A natural question to ask is: can we “reduce” the former model to the latter by taking some polynomial number of scenarios from the black box and constructing an explicit list of scenarios using their empirical probabilities? Indeed, this *sample-average approximation* method is widely used in practice; see, e.g., [20, 40]. The work of [30, 4, 32] has shown that we can essentially reduce the black-box model to the polynomial-scenario model for the case of $k = 2$ stages by a careful usage of sampling for the problems we study here: the error introduced by the sampling will translate to a multiplicative $(1 + \epsilon)$ factor in the approximation guarantee, where ϵ can be made as small as any desired inverse-polynomial of the input size. We will define the k -stage model using the details relevant to us in section 2; in section 3, where we only deal with $k = 2$ stages, we will present our algorithms in the polynomial-scenario model. As it is discussed below, some of the presented algorithms are compatible with the reduction from the black-box model and hence provide more general results.

Our results are as follows. We consider the k -stage model in section 2; all the problems and results here, as well as earlier work on these problems, is for arbitrary constants k . The *boosted sampling* approach of [12] leads to approximation guarantees that are exponential for k for problems such as vertex cover (and better approximations for the k -stage Steiner tree problem). This was improved in [38], leading to approximation guarantees for vertex cover, set cover, and facility location that are k times their standard (nonstochastic) threshold; for example, approximation guarantees

of $2k + \epsilon$ and $k \ln n$ for vertex cover and set cover, respectively, are developed in [38]. Removing this dependence on k is mentioned as an open problem in [39]. We resolve this by developing simple randomized approximation algorithms that yield, for the family of covering integer programs (CIPs), essentially the same approximation algorithms as for their nonstochastic counterparts. In particular, we get guarantees of $2 + \epsilon$ and $(1 + o(1)) \ln n$, respectively, for vertex cover and set cover. Except for a somewhat nonstandard version of vertex cover studied in [26], these are improvements even for the case of $k = 2$. Chaitanya Swamy (personal communication, June 2006) has informed us that Kamesh Munagala has independently obtained the result for k -stage vertex cover.

Our next object of study is the classical facility location problem. Recall that in the standard (nonstochastic) version of the facility location problem, we are given a set of clients \mathcal{D} and a set of facilities \mathcal{F} . The distance from client j to facility i is c_{ij} , and these values form a metric. Given a cost f_i for opening each facility i , we want to open some of the facilities, so that the sum of the opening costs and the distances traveled by each client to its closest open facility is minimized. (As usual, all results and approximations translate without any loss to the case where each client i has a demand $d_i \geq 0$ indicating the number of customers at i , so we just discuss the case $d_i \in \{0, 1\}$ here.) Starting with [31], there has been a steady stream of constant-factor approximation algorithms for the problem, drawing from and contributing to techniques in LP rounding, primal-dual methods, local search, greedy algorithms, etc. The current-best lower and upper bounds on the problem’s approximability are $1.46\dots$ [11] and 1.488 [18]. The stochastic version of the facility location problem has also received a good deal of attention in the case of $k = 2$ stages [26, 36, 30]. Here, each facility i can be opened at cost f_i^I in Stage I and at a cost f_i^A when a scenario A materializes in Stage II; each scenario A is simply a subset of \mathcal{D} , indicating the actual set of clients that need to be served under this scenario. The goal is to open some facilities in Stage I and then some in Stage II; we develop improved approximation algorithms in two settings here, as discussed next.

Our first setting is the basic one of minimizing the total expected cost, just as for covering problems. That is, we aim to minimize the expected “client-connection costs + facility-opening cost,” where the expectation is both over the random emergence of scenarios and the internal random choices of our algorithm. We first propose a 2.369-approximation in section 3.2, improving upon the current best value of 2.976 implied by [18, 30, 39]. Our approach here crucially exploits an asymmetry in the facility-location algorithms of [15, 16]. Next, in section 3.3, we give an LP-rounding algorithm that delivers solutions of expected cost that may be bounded by $1.2707 \cdot C^* + 2.4061 \cdot F^*$, where C^* and F^* are, respectively, the connection and the facility-opening costs of the initial fractional solution. Finally, in section 3.4, we combine our two algorithms for stochastic facility location to obtain an even better approximation guarantee. Namely, we prove that the better of the two solutions is expected to have cost at most 2.2975 times the cost of the optimal fractional solution.

Our second setting involves an additional ingredient of “risk aversion,” various facets of which have been studied in works including [13, 8, 32]. The motivation here is that a user may be risk averse, and may not want to end up paying much if (what was perceived to be) a low-probability or low-cost scenario emerges: overall expectation-minimization alone may not suffice. Therefore, as in [13], we aim for “local” algorithms: those where for each scenario A , its expected final (rounded) cost is at most some guaranteed (constant) factor times its fractional counterpart Val_A . Such a result is very useful since it allows the inclusion of budgets to the

various scenarios and either to prove that these are infeasible or to come within a constant factor of each particular budget in expectation [13]. In section 3.5 we give a new randomized rounding algorithm and prove that it returns a solution with expected cost in scenario A that is at most 2.4957 times its fractional counterpart $Val_A = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I y_i^* + f_i^A y_{A,i}^*) + \sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$, improving on the $3.225 \cdot Val_A$ bound of [36] and the $3.095 \cdot Val_A$ bound from an earlier version of this paper [34]. The algorithm is analyzed with respect to the fractional solution to the LP relaxation, and the analysis only uses a comparison with cost of parts of the primal solution, which makes the algorithm compatible with the reduction from the black-box model to the polynomial scenario model. Note, however, that the above-mentioned budget constraints may only be inserted for explicitly specified scenarios. In fact it was shown in [37] that obtaining budgeted risk-averse solutions in the black-box modes is not possible.

Finally, in section 3.6 we briefly discuss an even more risk-averse setting, namely, one with deterministic per-scenario guarantee. We note that the algorithm from section 3.5 actually also provides deterministic per-scenario upper bounds on the connection cost.

Thus, we present improved approximation algorithms in stochastic optimization, both for two stages and multiple stages, based on LP-rounding.

2. Multistage covering problems. We show that general stochastic k -stage CIPs (those with all coefficients being nonnegative and with the variables x_j allowed to be arbitrary nonnegative integers) admit essentially the same approximation ratios as their usual (nonstochastic) counterparts. The model is that we can “buy” each x_j in k stages: the final value of x_j is the sum of all values bought for it. We also show that k -stage vertex cover can be approximated to within $2 + \epsilon$; similarly, k -stage set cover with each element of the universe contained in at most b of the given sets can be approximated to within $b + \epsilon$.

Model: The general model for k -stage stochastic optimization is that we have stochastic information about the world in the form of a k -level tree with leaves containing complete information about the instance. The revelation of the data to the algorithm corresponds to traversing this tree from the root node toward the leaves. This traversal is a stochastic process that is specified by a probability distribution (for the choice of child to move to) defined for every internal node of the tree. The algorithm makes irrevocable decisions along this path traversal.

Since we consider only a constant number of stages k , the polynomial-scenario estimation of a distribution accessible via a black box is also possible: only that the degree of the polynomial depends linearly on k . Given the results of [38], solving a k -stage CIP reduces to solving polynomial-sized tree-scenario problems (for constant k). In the following we will present algorithms assuming that the scenario tree is given as an input.

Given a scenario tree with transition probabilities for edges, we can solve a natural LP-relaxation of the studied covering problem that has variables for decisions at each node of the tree. We study algorithms that have access to the fractional solution and produce an integral solution for the scenario that materializes. The quality of the produced integral solution is analyzed with respect to the fractional solution in this particular scenario. We obtain that for any specific scenario from the input scenario tree, the obtained integral solution is feasible with high probability; moreover, the expected cost of the integral solution is bounded with respect to the cost of the fractional solution in this particular scenario.

We note that our approach relies on randomization, which is in contrast to the deterministic algorithms proposed, e.g. in [38]. Notably, the fractional solution we round may itself be expensive for some scenarios that occur with low probability, and hence our solution for such scenarios may be expensive in comparison to a best possible solution for this very scenario. What we obtain is strong bounds on the expected cost, when the expectation is with respect to two types of randomness: the randomness of scenario arrival and the randomness of the algorithm.

Unlike with the expected cost, the bound on the probability of the correctness of the solution is independent from the fractional solution. For every scenario the fractional solution must be feasible for the scenario-specific constraints, which allows us to prove that in any single scenario the probability of failure is low. Nevertheless, this again is not a standard bound on the probability over the randomness of the algorithm that all scenarios are satisfied, which would perhaps allow for a derandomization of the algorithm. The algorithms presented in this paper have substantially improved approximation ratios, but this is at the cost of the solutions being inherently randomized.

In order to simplify the presentation, we restrict our attention to algorithms that only use the part of the fractional solution corresponding to the already-visited nodes of the tree (on the path from the root to the current node). Such an algorithm can be seen as an *online* algorithm that reacts to the piece of information revealed to the algorithm at the current node.

We can thus model a k -stage stochastic CIP for our purposes as follows. There is a *hidden* covering problem “minimize $c^T \cdot x$ subject to $Ax \geq b$ and all variables in x being nonnegative integers.” For notational convenience for the set-cover problem, we let n be the number of rows of A ; also, the variables in x are indexed as $x_{j,\ell}$, where $1 \leq j \leq m$ and $1 \leq \ell \leq k$. This program, as well as a feasible *fractional* solution x^* for it, are revealed to us in k stages as follows. In each stage ℓ ($1 \leq \ell \leq k$), we are given the ℓ th-stage fractional values $\{x_{j,\ell}^* : 1 \leq j \leq m\}$ of the variables, along with their columns in the coefficient matrix A , and their coefficient in the objective function c . Given some values like this, we need to round them right away at stage ℓ using randomization if necessary, *irrevocably*. The goal is to develop such a rounded vector $\{y_{j,\ell} : 1 \leq j \leq m, 1 \leq \ell \leq k\}$ that satisfies the constraints $Ay \geq b$ and whose (expected) approximation ratio $c^T \cdot y / c^T \cdot x^*$ is small. Our results here are summarized as follows.

THEOREM 2.1. *We obtain randomized λ -approximation algorithms for k -stage stochastic CIPs for arbitrary fixed k with values of λ as follows. (The running time is polynomial for any fixed k , and λ is independent of k .) (i) For general CIPs, with the linear system scaled so that all entries of the matrix A lie in $[0, 1]$ and $B = \min_{i: b_i \geq 1} b_i$, we have $\lambda = 1 + O(\max\{(\ln n)/B, \sqrt{(\ln n)/B}\})$. (ii) For set cover with element-degree (maximum number of given sets containing any element of the ground set) at most b , we have $\lambda = b + \epsilon$, where ϵ can be N^{-C} with N being the input size and $C > 0$ being any constant (for instance, $b = 2$ for vertex cover, where an edge can be covered only by its two end-points).*

The “ $+\epsilon$ ” term appears in part (ii) since the fractional solution obtained by [38] is an $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation to the actual LP. We do not mention this term in part (i) by absorbing it into the big-Oh notation. The two parts of this theorem are proved next.

2.1. A simple scheme for general CIPs. We use our k -stage model to prove Theorem 2.1(i). We show that a simple randomized rounding approach along the

lines of [25] works here: for a suitable $\lambda \geq 1$ and independently for all (j, ℓ) , set $x'_{j,\ell} = \lambda \cdot x^*_{j,\ell}$, and define the rounded value $y_{j,\ell}$ to be $\lceil x'_{j,\ell} \rceil$ with probability $x'_{j,\ell} - \lfloor x'_{j,\ell} \rfloor$ and to be $\lfloor x'_{j,\ell} \rfloor$ with the complementary probability of $1 - (x'_{j,\ell} - \lfloor x'_{j,\ell} \rfloor)$. Note that $\mathbf{E}[y_{j,\ell}] = x'_{j,\ell}$. We will now show that for a suitable, “not very large” choice of λ , with high probability, all constraints will be satisfied and $c^T \cdot y$ is about $\lambda \cdot (c^T \cdot x^*)$.

The proof is standard, and we will illustrate it for set cover. Note that in this case, a set of at most n elements need to be covered in the end. Set $\lambda = \ln n + \psi(n)$ for any arbitrarily slowly growing function $\psi(n)$ of n such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi(n) = \infty$; run the randomized rounding scheme described in the previous paragraph. Consider any finally revealed element i , and let E_i be the event that our rounding leaves this element uncovered. Let A_i be the family of sets in the given set-cover instance that contain i ; note that the fractional solution satisfies $\sum_{j \in A_i, \ell} x^*_{j,\ell} \geq 1$. Now, if $x'_{j,\ell} \geq 1$ for some pair $(j \in A_i, \ell)$, then $y_{j,\ell} \geq 1$, and so i is guaranteed to be covered. Otherwise,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[E_i] &= \prod_{j \in A_i, \ell} \Pr[y_{j,\ell} = 0] = \prod_{j \in A_i, \ell} (1 - x'_{j,\ell}) \leq \exp\left(-\sum_{j \in A_i, \ell} \lambda \cdot x^*_{j,\ell}\right) \leq \exp(-\lambda) \\ &= \exp(-\psi(n))/n = o(1/n). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, applying a union bound over the (at most n) finally revealed elements i , we see that $\Pr[\bigwedge_i \overline{E_i}] = 1 - o(1)$. So,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[c^T \cdot y \mid \bigwedge_i \overline{E_i}\right] \leq \frac{\mathbf{E}[c^T \cdot y]}{\Pr[\bigwedge_i \overline{E_i}]} = \frac{\lambda \cdot (c^T \cdot x^*)}{\Pr[\bigwedge_i \overline{E_i}]} = \frac{\lambda \cdot (c^T \cdot x^*)}{1 - o(1)} = (1 + o(1)) \cdot \lambda \cdot (c^T \cdot x^*);$$

i.e., we get an $(1 + o(1)) \cdot \ln n$ -approximation. Alternatively, since $c^T \cdot y$ is a sum of independent random variables, we can show that it is not much more than its mean, $\lambda \cdot (c^T \cdot x^*)$, with high probability.

The analysis for general CIPs is similar; we observe that for any row i of the constraint system, $\mathbf{E}[(Ay)_i] = \lambda b_i$, use a Chernoff lower-tail bound to show that the “bad” event E_i that $(Ay)_i < b_i$ happens with probability noticeably smaller than $1/n$, and apply a union bound over all n . Choosing λ as in Theorem 2.1(i) suffices for such an analysis; see, e.g., [23].

2.2. Vertex cover and set cover with small degree. We now use a type of dependent rounding to prove Theorem 2.1(ii). We present the case of vertex cover ($b = 2$) and then note the small modification needed for the case of general b . Note that our model becomes the following for (weighted) vertex cover. There is a hidden undirected graph $G = (V, E)$. The following happens for each vertex $v \in V$. We are revealed k fractional values $x^*_{v,1}, x^*_{v,2}, \dots, x^*_{v,k}$ for v one by one, along with the corresponding weights for v (in the objective function), $c_{v,1}, c_{v,2}, \dots, c_{v,k}$. We aim for a rounding $\{y_{v,\ell}\}$ that covers all edges in E , whose objective-function value $\sum_{\ell,v} c_{v,\ell} y_{v,\ell}$ is at most twice its fractional counterpart, $\sum_{\ell,v} c_{v,\ell} x^*_{v,\ell}$. Note that the fractional solution satisfies

$$(1) \quad \forall (u, v) \in E, \quad \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^k x^*_{u,\ell}\right) + \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^k x^*_{v,\ell}\right) \geq 1.$$

Now, given a sequence $z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ of values that lie in $[0, 1]$ and arrive *online*, suppose we can define an efficient randomized procedure \mathcal{R} , which has the following properties:

(P1) as soon as \mathcal{R} gets a value z_i , it rounds it to some $Z_i \in \{0, 1\}$ (\mathcal{R} may use the knowledge of the values $\{z_j, Z_j : j < i\}$ in this process);

(P2) $\mathbf{E}[Z_i] \leq z_i$; and

(P3) if $\sum_i z_i \geq 1$, then at least one Z_i is one with probability 1.

Then, we can simply apply procedure \mathcal{R} independently for each vertex v , to the vector $z(v)$ of *scaled* values $(\min\{2 \cdot x_{v,1}^*, 1\}, \min\{2 \cdot x_{v,2}^*, 1\}, \dots, \min\{2 \cdot x_{v,k}^*, 1\})$. Property (P2) shows that the expected value of the final solution is at most $2 \cdot \sum_{\ell,v} c_{v,\ell} x_{v,\ell}^*$; also, since (1) shows that for any edge (u, v) at least one of the two sums $2 \cdot \sum_{\ell} x_{u,\ell}^*$ and $2 \cdot \sum_{\ell} x_{v,\ell}^*$ is at least 1, property (P3) guarantees that each edge (u, v) is covered with probability 1. So, the only task is to define function \mathcal{R} .

For a sequence $z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ arriving online, \mathcal{R} proceeds as follows. Given z_1 it rounds z_1 to $Z_1 = 1$ with probability z_1 and to $Z_1 = 0$ with probability $1 - z_1$. Next, given z_i for $i > 1$:

Case I: $Z_j = 1$ for some $j < i$. In this case, just set Z_i to 0.

Case II(a): $Z_j = 0$ for all $j < i$, and $\sum_{\ell=1}^i z_\ell \geq 1$. In this case, just set Z_i to 1.

Case II(b): $Z_j = 0$ for all $j < i$, and $\sum_{\ell=1}^i z_\ell < 1$. In this case, set $Z_i = 1$ with probability $\frac{z_i}{1 - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} z_j}$, and set $Z_i = 0$ with the complementary probability.

It is clear that property (P1) of \mathcal{R} holds. Let us next prove property (P3). Assume that for some t , $\sum_{i=1}^t z_i \geq 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} z_i < 1$. It suffices to prove that $\Pr[\exists i \leq t : Z_i = 1] = 1$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\exists i \leq t : Z_i = 1] &= \Pr[\exists i < t : Z_i = 1] + \Pr[\nexists i < t : Z_i = 1] \\ &= \Pr[(Z_t = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{t-1} = 0)] \\ &\geq \Pr[(Z_t = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{t-1} = 0)] \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

from case II(a). This proves property (P3).

We next consider property (P2), which is immediate for $i = 1$. If there is some t such that $\sum_{i=1}^t z_i \geq 1$, take t to be the smallest such index; if there is no such t , define $t = k$. The required bound of (P2), $\mathbf{E}[Z_i] \leq z_i$, clearly holds for all $i > t$ since by (P3) and Case I, we have $\mathbf{E}[Z_i] = 0$ for all such i . So suppose $i \leq t$. Note from case II(a) that

$$\forall j < t, \Pr[(Z_j = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{j-1} = 0)] = \frac{z_j}{1 - (z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_{j-1})}.$$

Note from Case I that no two Z_j can both be 1. Thus, for $1 < i \leq t$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z_i = 1] &= \Pr[(Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0) \wedge (Z_i = 1)] \\ &= \Pr[Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0] \cdot \Pr[(Z_i = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0)] \\ &= \left(\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \left(1 - \frac{z_j}{1 - (z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_{j-1})} \right) \right) \cdot \\ &\quad \Pr[(Z_i = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0)] \\ (2) \quad &= (1 - (z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_{i-1})) \cdot \Pr[(Z_i = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0)]. \end{aligned}$$

From Cases II(a) and II(b), $\Pr[(Z_i = 1) \mid (Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_{i-1} = 0)]$ is 1 if $i = t$ and $z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_t \geq 1$ and is $\frac{z_i}{1 - (z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_{i-1})}$ otherwise; in either case, we can verify from (2) that $\Pr[Z_i = 1] \leq z_i$, proving (P2).

Similarly, for k -stage set cover with each element of the universe contained in at most b of the given sets, we construct $z'(v) = (\min\{b \cdot x_{v,1}^*, 1\}, \min\{b \cdot x_{v,2}^*, 1\}, \dots, \min\{b \cdot x_{v,k}^*, 1\})$ and apply \mathcal{R} . By the same analysis as above, all elements are covered with probability 1, and the expected objective function value is at most $b \cdot \sum_{\ell,v} c_{v,\ell} x_{v,\ell}^*$.

Tail bounds: It is also easy to show using [24] that in addition to its expectation being at most b times the fractional value, $c^T \cdot y$ has a Chernoff-type upper bound on deviations above its mean.

3. Facility location problems. We consider three variants of facility location in this section (i.e., the *standard*, the *expected per-scenario guarantee* and the *strict per-scenario guarantee* models; see section 1 for definitions). We start with a randomized primal-dual 2.369-approximation algorithm in section 3.2. Then, in section 3.3 we give an LP-rounding algorithm (based on a dual bound on maximal connection cost) with a *bifactor approximation guarantee* (2.4061, 1.2707), i.e., one that delivers solutions with cost at most 1.2707 times the fractional connection cost plus 2.4061 times the fractional facility-opening cost. This algorithm is trivially a 2.4061-approximation algorithm. Next, in section 3.5, we give a purely primal LP-rounding algorithm which has a 2.4975-approximation guarantee in the *expected per-scenario* sense.

In section 3.4 we further exploit the asymmetry of the analysis of the first LP-rounding algorithm and combine it with the algorithm from section 3.2. As a result we obtain an improved approximation guarantee of 2.2975 for the standard setting of 2-stage stochastic uncapacitated facility location, where the goal is to optimize the expected total cost (across scenarios).

The second LP-rounding algorithm not only has the advantage of providing solutions where the expected cost in each scenario is bounded: it also can be applied in the black-box model. Finally, in section 3.6 we note that one can obtain an algorithm that deterministically obeys certain *a priori* per-scenario budget constraints by splitting a single 2-stage instance into two single stage instances.

We will consider just the case of 0–1 demands. As usual, our algorithms directly generalize to the case of arbitrary demands with no loss in approximation guarantee.

3.1. General setting. Let the set of facilities be \mathcal{F} and the set of all possible clients be \mathcal{D} . From the results of [30, 4, 38, 32], we may assume that we are given (i) m scenarios (indexed by A), each being a subset of \mathcal{D} , and (ii) an $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximate solution (x, y) to the following standard LP relaxation of the problem (as in Theorem 2.1, ϵ can be made inverse-polynomially small and will henceforth be ignored):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} f_i^I y_i + \sum_A p_A \left(\sum_i f_i^A y_{A,i} + \sum_{j \in A} \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij} \right) \text{ subject to} \\ (3) \quad & \sum_i x_{A,ij} \geq 1 \quad \forall A \quad \forall j \in A; \\ (4) \quad & x_{A,ij} \leq y_i + y_{A,i} \quad \forall i \quad \forall A \quad \forall j \in A; \\ & x_{A,ij}, y_i, y_{A,i} \geq 0 \quad \forall i \quad \forall A \quad \forall j \in A. \end{aligned}$$

Here, f_i^I and f_i^A are the costs of opening facility i in Stage I and in Stage II scenario A , respectively; c_{ij} is the cost of connecting client j to i . Each given scenario A materializes with probability p_A . Variables y_i and $y_{A,i}$ are the extents to which facility i is opened in Stage I and in Stage II scenario A , respectively; $x_{A,ij}$ is the extent to which j is connected to i in scenario A .

For all i , A , and $j \in A$ such that $x_{A,ij} > 0$, write $x_{A,ij} = x_{A,ij}^{(1)} + x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$, where

$$(5) \quad x_{A,ij}^{(1)} = x_{A,ij} \cdot \frac{y_i}{y_i + y_{A,i}} \text{ and } x_{A,ij}^{(2)} = x_{A,ij} \cdot \frac{y_{A,i}}{y_i + y_{A,i}}.$$

Extending this definition, if $j \in A$ and $x_{A,ij} = 0$, we define $x_{A,ij}^{(1)} = x_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 0$. Note from (4) that $x_{A,ij}^{(1)} \leq y_i$ and $x_{A,ij}^{(2)} \leq y_{A,i}$.

The idea is, as in [30], to satisfy some client-scenario pairs (j, A) in Stage I; the rest will be handled in Stage II. This set of pairs are chosen based on the values of $\sum_i x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$. Our contribution is that we propose alternatives to the direct use of “deterministic thresholding,” which is to choose such Stage I pairs as in [30] and use existing algorithms for the obtained subproblems.

In the first primal-dual algorithm we will employ a carefully chosen *randomized* thresholding. As we will see, this randomized scheme also fits well with a basic *asymmetry* in many known facility-location algorithms (in our case, the ones in [15, 16]). In the LP-rounding algorithms presented later, we use a deterministic threshold: however, instead of individually solving the obtained subproblems, we perform a single rounding process. The selection of Stage I client-scenario pairs is only used to guide the clustering of facilities, but we still allow a single client to connect to a facility opened in either of the stages.

3.2. Minimizing expected cost: A primal-dual algorithm. We now develop a 2.369-approximation algorithm for minimizing the expected total cost.

Let $\alpha \in (0, 1/2)$ be a constant that will be chosen later. Pick a single random real Z using the following distribution that is a mixture of continuous and discrete:

- with probability $\alpha/(1 - \alpha)$, let $Z := 1/2$;
- with the complementary probability of $(1 - 2\alpha)/(1 - \alpha)$, let Z be a random real chosen from the uniform distribution on $[\alpha, 1 - \alpha]$.

The rounding for Stage I is as follows. For any pair (j, A) with $j \in A$, define $r_{A,j}^{(1)}$ (the extent to which (j, A) is satisfied in Stage I) to be $\sum_i x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$; (j, A) is declared *selected* iff

$$(6) \quad Z \leq r_{A,j}^{(1)}.$$

For the Stage I decisions, construct a facility-location instance \mathcal{I} with each selected pair (j, A) having demand p_A and each facility i having cost f_i^A , and solve it using the approximation algorithm of [15, 16], which is described in [21] and called the *JMS Algorithm* in [21]. In Stage II, we round separately for each scenario A as follows. Construct a facility-location instance \mathcal{I}_A with a unit-demand client for each $j \in A$ such that (j, A) was *not* selected in Stage I; each facility i has cost f_i^A . Again use the JMS algorithm as described in [21] to get an approximately optimal solution for \mathcal{I}_A .

Analysis: It is clear that in every scenario A , we satisfy all of its demands. To analyze the expected cost of this solution (with the only randomness being in the choice of Z), we start by constructing feasible fractional solutions for the facility-location instances \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{I}_A (for all A). Condition on a fixed value for Z . Let us first construct a feasible fractional solution (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) for the Stage I instance \mathcal{I} : $\hat{y}_i = y_i/Z$ for all i and $\hat{x}_{A,ij} = x_{A,ij}^{(1)}/r_{A,j}^{(1)}$ for all selected (j, A) and all i . This is feasible since $r_{A,j}^{(1)} \geq Z$. Thus, letting $S_{j,A}$ be the indicator variable for (j, A) being selected

(which is a function of Z) and recalling that each selected (j, A) has demand p_A in \mathcal{I} , the total “facility cost” and “connection cost” of (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) are

$$(7) \quad \sum_i \frac{y_i f_i^I}{Z} \text{ and } \sum_{j,A} p_A \cdot \frac{S_{j,A}}{r_{A,j}^{(1)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(1)},$$

respectively. Next consider any scenario A , and let us construct a feasible fractional solution (x', y') for \mathcal{I}_A . Define $r_{A,j}^{(2)} = \sum_i x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$. We may assume w.l.o.g. that equality holds in (3); so, $r_{A,j}^{(2)} = 1 - r_{A,j}^{(1)}$. Thus, a necessary condition for (j, A) to *not* be selected in Stage I is

$$(8) \quad (1 - Z) \leq r_{A,j}^{(2)}.$$

This is analogous to (6), with Z being replaced by $1 - Z$. Thus, we can argue similarly as we did for (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) that $y'_i = y_{A,i}/(1 - Z)$, $x'_{A,ij} = x_{A,ij}^{(2)}/r_{A,j}^{(2)}$ for all (j, A) not selected in Stage I is a feasible fractional solution for \mathcal{I}_A . Since all demands here are 1, the total facility cost and connection cost of (x', y') are

$$(9) \quad \sum_i \frac{y_{A,i} f_i^A}{1 - Z} \text{ and } \sum_{j,A} \frac{1 - S_{j,A}}{r_{A,j}^{(2)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(2)},$$

respectively.

Now, the key “asymmetry” property of the JMS algorithm is, as proven in [21], that it is a (1.11, 1.78)-*bifactor approximation algorithm*: given an instance for which there is a fractional solution with facility cost F and connection cost C , it produces an integral solution of cost at most $1.11F + 1.78C$. Therefore, from (7) and (9), and weighting the latter by p_A , we see that given Z , the total final cost is at most

$$\begin{aligned} & 1.11 \cdot \left[\sum_i \left(\frac{y_i f_i^I}{Z} + \sum_A p_A \cdot \frac{y_{A,i} f_i^A}{1 - Z} \right) \right] \\ & + 1.78 \cdot \sum_{j,A} p_A \cdot \left[\left(\frac{S_{j,A}}{r_{A,j}^{(1)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(1)} \right) + \left(\frac{1 - S_{j,A}}{r_{A,j}^{(2)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(2)} \right) \right]; \end{aligned}$$

so, the expected final cost is at most

$$(10) \quad \begin{aligned} & 1.11 \cdot \left[\sum_i (y_i \cdot \mathbf{E}[1/Z] + \sum_A p_A y_{A,i} \cdot \mathbf{E}[1/(1 - Z)]) \right] \\ & + 1.78 \cdot \sum_{j,A} p_A \cdot \left[\left(\frac{\mathbf{E}[S_{j,A}]}{r_{A,j}^{(1)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(1)} \right) + \left(\frac{\mathbf{E}[1 - S_{j,A}]}{r_{A,j}^{(2)}} \cdot \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^{(2)} \right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Note that Z and $1 - Z$ have identical distributions. So,

$$(11) \quad \begin{aligned} & \mathbf{E}[1/(1 - Z)] = \mathbf{E}[1/Z] = (\alpha/(1 - \alpha)) \cdot 2 \\ & + ((1 - 2\alpha)/(1 - \alpha)) \cdot \frac{1}{1 - 2\alpha} \cdot \int_{z=\alpha}^{1-\alpha} dz/z = \frac{2\alpha + \ln((1 - \alpha)/\alpha)}{1 - \alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us next bound $\mathbf{E}[S_{j,A}]$. Recall (6), and let r denote $r_{A,j}^{(1)}$. If $r < \alpha$, then $S_{j,A} = 0$; if $r \geq 1 - \alpha$, then $S_{j,A} = 1$. Next suppose $\alpha \leq r < 1/2$. Then $S_{j,A}$ can hold only

if we chose to pick Z at random from $[\alpha, 1 - \alpha]$, and got $Z \leq r$; this happens with probability $((1 - 2\alpha)/(1 - \alpha)) \cdot (r - \alpha)/(1 - 2\alpha) = (r - \alpha)/(1 - \alpha) \leq r/(1 - \alpha)$. Finally, if $1/2 \leq r < (1 - \alpha)$,

$$\mathbf{E}[S_{j,A}] = \alpha/(1 - \alpha) + ((1 - 2\alpha)/(1 - \alpha)) \cdot (r - \alpha)/(1 - 2\alpha) = r/(1 - \alpha).$$

Thus, in all cases we saw here,

$$(12) \quad \mathbf{E}[S_{j,A}] \leq r_{A,j}^{(1)}/(1 - \alpha).$$

Similarly, recalling (8) and the fact that Z and $1 - Z$ have identical distributions, we get

$$(13) \quad \mathbf{E}[1 - S_{j,A}] \leq r_{A,j}^{(2)}/(1 - \alpha).$$

Plugging (11), (12), and (13) into (10) and using the fact that $x_{A,ij} = x_{A,ij}^{(1)} + x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$, we see that our expected approximation ratio is

$$\max \left\{ \frac{1.78}{1 - \alpha}, \frac{1.11(2\alpha + \ln((1 - \alpha)/\alpha))}{1 - \alpha} \right\}.$$

Thus, a good choice of α is 0.2485, leading to an expected approximation ratio less than 2.369.

3.3. Minimizing expected cost: An LP-rounding algorithm. Consider the following dual formulation of the 2-stage stochastic facility location problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize } \sum_A p_A \left(\sum_{j \in A} v_{j,A} \right) && \text{subject to} \\ & v_{j,A} - c_{ij} \leq w_{ij,A} && \forall i \forall A \forall j \in A \\ & \sum_A p_A \left(\sum_{j \in A} w_{ij,A} \right) \leq f_i^I && \forall i \forall A \forall j \in A \\ & \sum_{j \in A} w_{ij,A} \leq f_i^A && \forall i \forall A \forall j \in A \\ & w_{ij,A}, v_{j,A} \geq 0 && \forall i \forall A \forall j \in A. \end{aligned}$$

Let (x^*, y^*) and (v^*, w^*) be optimal solutions to the primal and the dual programs, respectively. Note that by complementary slackness, we have $c_{ij} \leq v_{j,A}$ if $x_{A,ij} > 0$.

Algorithm. We now describe a randomized LP-rounding algorithm that transforms the fractional solution (x^*, y^*) into an integral solution (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) with bounded expected cost. The expectation is over the random choices of the algorithm but not over the random choice of the scenario. Note that we need to decide the first-stage entries of \hat{y} not knowing A . W.l.o.g., we assume that no facility is fractionally opened in (x^*, y^*) in both stages; i.e., for all i we have $y_i^* = 0$ or for all A $y_{A,i}^* = 0$. To obtain this property it suffices to have two identical copies of each facility, one for Stage I and one for Stage II.

Define $x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$, $x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$, and $r_{A,j}^{(1)}$ as before and select all the (j, A) pairs with $r_{A,j}^{(1)} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ (note that it is the standard deterministic thresholding selection method). We will call

such selected (j, A) pairs *first-stage clustered* and the remaining (j, A) pairs *second-stage clustered*. Let S denote the set of first stage clustered (j, A) pairs.

We will now scale the fractional solution by a factor of 2. Define $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} = 2 \cdot x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$, $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 2 \cdot x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$, $\bar{y}_i = 2 \cdot y_i^*$, and $\bar{y}_{A,i} = 2 \cdot y_{A,i}^*$. Note that the scaled fractional solution (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) can have facilities with fractional opening of more than 1. For simplicity of the analysis, we do not round these facility-opening values to 1 but rather split such facilities. More precisely, we split each facility i with fractional opening $\bar{y}_i > \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > 0$ (or $\bar{y}_{A,i} > \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} > 0$) for some (A, j) into i' and i'' such that $\bar{y}_{i'} = \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)}$ and $\bar{y}_{i''} = \bar{y}_i - \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)}$. We also split facilities whose fractional opening exceeds 1. By splitting facilities we create another instance of the problem together with a fractional solution, then we solve this modified instance and interpret the solution as a solution to the original problem in the natural way. The technique of splitting facilities is precisely described in [35].

Since we can split facilities, for each $(j, A) \in S$ we can assume that there exists a subset of facilities $F_{(j,A)} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ such that $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} = 1$, and for each $i \in F_{(j,A)}$ we have $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} = \bar{y}_i$. Also for each $(j, A) \notin S$ we can assume that there exists a subset of facilities $F_{(j,A)} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ such that $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 1$, and for each $i \in F_{(j,A)}$ we have $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = \bar{y}_{A,i}$. Let $R_{(j,A)} = \max_{i \in F_{(j,A)}} c_{ij}$ be the maximal distance from j to an $i \in F_{(j,A)}$. Recall that, by complementary slackness, we have $R_{(j,A)} \leq v_{j,A}^*$.

The algorithm opens facilities randomly in each of the stages with the probability of opening facility i equal to \bar{y}_i in Stage I and $\bar{y}_{A,i}$ in Stage II of scenario A . Some facilities are grouped in disjoint *clusters* in order to correlate the opening of facilities from a single cluster. The clusters are formed in each stage by the following procedures. Let all facilities be initially unclustered.

In Stage I, consider all client-scenario pairs $(j, A) \in S$ in the order of nondecreasing values $R_{(j,A)}$. If the set of facilities $F_{(j,A)}$ contains no facility from the previously formed clusters, then form a new cluster containing facilities from $F_{(j,A)}$; otherwise, do nothing. Recall that the total fractional opening of facilities in each cluster equals 1. Open exactly one facility in each cluster. Choose the facility randomly with the probability of opening facility i equal to the fractional opening \bar{y}_i . For each unclustered facility i , open it independently with probability \bar{y}_i .

In Stage II of scenario A , consider all clients j such that $(j, A) \notin S$ in the order of nondecreasing values $R_{(j,A)}$. If the set of facilities $F_{(j,A)}$ contains no facility from the previously formed clusters, then form a new cluster containing facilities from $F_{(j,A)}$; otherwise, do nothing. Recall that the total fractional opening of facilities in each cluster equals 1. Open exactly one facility in each cluster. Choose the facility randomly with the probability of opening facility i equal to the fractional opening $\bar{y}_{A,i}$. For each unclustered facility i , open it independently with probability $\bar{y}_{A,i}$.

Finally, at the end of Stage II of scenario A , connect each client $i \in A$ to the closest open facility (this can be a facility open in Stage I or in Stage II).

Expected-distance lemma. Before we proceed to bounding the expected cost of the solution obtained by the above algorithm, let us first bound the expected distance to an open facility from the set of facilities that fractionally service client in the solution (x^*, y^*) . Denote by $C_{(j,A)} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$ the fractional connection cost of client j in scenario A in the fractional solution (x^*, y^*) . For the purpose of the next argument we fix a client-scenario pair (j, A) and slightly change the notation

and let vector \bar{y} encode fractional opening of both the first-stage facilities and the second-stage facilities of scenario A , all of them referred to with a single index i . A version of the following argument was used in the analysis of most of the previous LP-rounding approximation algorithms for facility location problems; see, e.g., [3].

LEMMA 3.1. *Let $y \in \{0, 1\}^{|\mathcal{F}|}$ be a random binary vector encoding the facilities opened by the algorithm, and let $F' \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ be the set of facilities fractionally servicing client j in scenario A ; then,*

$$E \left[\min_{i \in F', y_i=1} c_{ij} \mid \sum_{i \in F'} y_i \geq 1 \right] \leq C_{(j,A)}.$$

Proof. Let C_1, \dots, C_k be clusters intersecting F' . They partition F' into $k+1$ disjoint sets of facilities: F_0 not intersecting any cluster and F_i intersecting C_i for $i = 1 \dots k$. Note that opening of facilities in different sets F_i is independent. Let c_i be the average distance between j and facilities in F_i . Observe that we may ignore the differences between facilities within sets F_i , $i \geq 1$, and treat them as single facilities at distance c_i with fractional opening equal the total opening of facilities in the corresponding set because these are the expected distance and the probability that a facility will be opened in F_i . It remains to observe that the lemma obviously holds for the remaining case where F' only contains facilities whose opening variables y are rounded independently (preserving marginals). \square

Analysis. Consider the solution (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) constructed by our LP-rounding algorithm. We fix scenario A and bound the expectation of $COST(A) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I \hat{y}_i + f_i^A \hat{y}_{A,i}) + \sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} \hat{x}_{A,ij}$. Define $C_A = \sum_{j \in A} C_{(j,A)} = \sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$, $F_A = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I y_i^* + f_i^A y_{A,i}^*)$, $V_A = \sum_{j \in A} v_{j,A}^*$.

LEMMA 3.2. $E[COST(A)] \leq e^{-2} \cdot 3 \cdot V_A + (1 - e^{-2}) \cdot C_A + 2 \cdot F_A$ in each scenario A .

Proof. Since the probability of opening a facility is equal to its fractional opening in (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) , the expected facility-opening cost of (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) equals the facility-opening cost of (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) , which is exactly twice the facility-opening cost of (x^*, y^*) .

Fix a client $j \in A$. The total (from both stages) fractional opening in \bar{y} of facilities serving j in (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is exactly 2; hence, the probability that at least one of these facilities is open in (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) is at least $1 - e^{-2}$. Observe that, on the condition that at least one such facility is open, by Lemma 3.1, the expected distance to the closest of the open facilities is at most $C_{(j,A)}$.

With probability at most e^{-2} , none of the facilities fractionally serving j in (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is open. In such a case we need to find a different facility to serve j . We will now prove that for each client $j \in A$ there exists a facility i which is open in (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) such that $c_{ij} \leq 3 \cdot v_{j,A}$.

Assume $(j, A) \in S$ (for $(j, A) \notin S$ the argument is analogous). If $F_{(j,A)}$ is a cluster, then at least one $i \in F_{(j,A)}$ is open and $c_{ij} \leq v_{j,A}$. Suppose $F_{(j,A)}$ is not a cluster; then, by the construction of clusters, it intersects a cluster $F_{(j',A')}$ with $R_{(j',A')} \leq R_{(j,A)} \leq v_{j,A}$. Let i be the facility opened in cluster $F_{(j',A')}$, and let $i' \in F_{(j',A')} \cap F_{(j,A)}$. Since i' is in $F_{(j,A)}$, $c_{i'j} \leq R_{(j,A)}$. Since both i and i' are in $F_{(j',A')}$, both $c_{ij'} \leq R_{(j',A')}$ and $c_{i'j'} \leq R_{(j',A')}$. Hence, by the triangle inequality, $c_{ij} \leq R_{(j,A)} + 2 \cdot R_{(j',A')} \leq 3 \cdot R_{(j,A)} \leq 3 \cdot v_{j,A}$.

Thus, the expected cost of the solution in scenario A is

$$E[\text{COST}(A)] \leq e^{-2} \cdot 3 \cdot \sum_{j \in A} v_{j,A}^* + (1 - e^{-2}) \left(\sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^* \right) + 2 \cdot \left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I y_i^* + f_i^A y_{A,i}^*) \right),$$

that is exactly $e^{-2} \cdot 3 \cdot V_A + (1 - e^{-2}) \cdot C_A + 2 \cdot F_A$. \square

Define $F^* = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} f_i^I y_i + \sum_A p_A (\sum_i f_i^A y_{A,i})$ and $C^* = \sum_A p_A (\sum_{j \in A} \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij})$. Note that we have $F^* = \sum_A p_A F_A$, $C^* = \sum_A p_A C_A$, and $F^* + C^* = \sum_A p_A V_A$. Summing up the expected cost over scenarios, we obtain the following estimate on the general expected cost, where the expectation is both over the choice of the scenario and over the random choices of our algorithm.

COROLLARY 3.3. $E[\text{COST}(\hat{x}, \hat{y})] \leq 2.4061 \cdot F^* + 1.2707 \cdot C^*$.

Proof. $E[\text{COST}(\hat{x}, \hat{y})]$ is $\sum_A p_A E[\text{COST}(A)]$, which is at most

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_A p_A (e^{-2} \cdot 3 \cdot V_A + (1 - e^{-2}) \cdot C_A + 2 \cdot F_A) &= (1 - e^{-2}) \cdot C^* + 2 \cdot F^* + 3e^{-2} \left(\sum_A p_A V_A \right) \\ &= (1 - e^{-2}) \cdot C^* + 2 \cdot F^* + 3e^{-2} (F^* + C^*) \\ &= (2 + e^{-2} \cdot 3) F^* + (1 + e^{-2} \cdot 2) C^* \\ &\leq 2.4061 \cdot F^* + 1.2707 \cdot C^*. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

3.4. Two algorithms combined. We will now combine the algorithms from sections 3.2 and 3.3 to obtain an improved approximation guarantee for the problem of minimizing the expected cost over the choice of the scenario.

To this end we will analyze the cost of the computed solution with respect to the the facility-opening cost F and the connection cost C of an optimal solution to the problem.

In section 3.3 we gave a rounding procedure whose cost is bounded in terms of the cost of the initial fractional solution. It was shown that the algorithm returns a solution of cost at most 2.4061 times the facility-opening cost plus 1.2707 times the connection cost of the fractional solution. Observe that it suffices to apply this procedure to a fractional solution obtained by solving a properly scaled LP to get an algorithm with a corresponding bifactor approximation guarantee. In particular, if we scale the facility-opening costs by 2.4061 and the connection costs c_{ij} by 1.2707 before solving the LP and then round the obtained fractional solution with the described procedure, we obtain a solution of cost at most $2.4061F + 1.2707C$. We will call this algorithm ALG1.

Now consider the algorithm discussed in section 3.2. For the choice of a parameter $\alpha = 0.2485$ it was shown to be a 2.369-approximation algorithm. We will now consider a different choice, namely, $\alpha = 0.37$. It is easy to observe that it results in an algorithm computing solution of cost at most $2.24152F + 2.8254C$. We will call this algorithm ALG2.

Consider the algorithm ALG3, which tosses a coin that comes heads with probability $p = 0.3396$. If the coin comes heads, then ALG1 is executed; if it comes tails, ALG2 is used. The expected cost of the solution may be estimated as $(p \cdot 2.4061 + (1 - p) \cdot 2.24152)F + (p \cdot 1.2707 + (1 - p) \cdot 2.8254)C \leq 2.2975(F + C)$. Therefore,

ALG3 is a 2.2975-approximation algorithm for the 2-stage stochastic facility location problem. Note that the initial coin tossing in ALG3 may be derandomized by running both ALG1 and ALG2 and taking the better of the solutions.

3.5. Facility location with per-scenario bounds. Consider again the 2-stage facility location problem and a corresponding optimal fractional solution. We now describe a randomized rounding scheme so that for each scenario A , its expected final (rounded) cost is at most 2.4957 times its fractional counterpart $Val_A = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I y_i^* + f_i^A y_{A,i}^*) + \sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$, improving on the $3.225 \cdot Val_A$ bound of [36] and the $3.095 \cdot Val_A$ bound from an earlier version of this paper [34].

Let us split the value of the fractional solution Val_A into the fractional connection cost $C_A = \sum_{j \in A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$ and fractional facility-opening cost $F_A = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} (f_i^I y_i^* + f_i^A y_{A,i}^*)$.

Before we proceed with the per-scenario algorithm, let us first note that it is not possible to directly use the analysis from the previous setting in the per-scenario model. This is because the dual costs V_A do not need to be equal $Val_A = F_A + C_A$ in each scenario A . It is possible, for instance, that the fractional opening of a facility in the first stage is entirely paid from the dual budget of a single scenario despite the fact that clients not active in this scenario benefit from the facility being open. This can be observed, for instance, in the following simple example.

Consider two clients c^1 and c^2 and two facilities f^1 and f^2 . All client facility distances are 1, except $c_{1,2} = dist(c^1, f^2) = 3$. Scenarios are $A^1 = \{c^1\}$ and $A^2 = \{c^2\}$, and they occur with probability 1/2 each. The facility-opening costs are $f_1^I = 2$, $f_2^I = \epsilon$, $f_1^A = f_2^A = 4$ for both scenarios A . It is easy to see that the only optimal fractional solution is integral, and it opens facility f^1 in the first stage and no more facilities in the second stage. Therefore, $Val(A^1) = Val(A^2) = 3$. However, in the dual problem, client c^2 has an advantage over c^1 in the access to the cheaper facility f^2 , and therefore in no optimal dual solution client c^2 will pay more than ϵ for the opening of facility f^1 . In consequence, most of the cost of opening f^1 is paid by the dual budget of scenario A^1 . Therefore, the dual budget V_{A^1} is strictly greater than the primal bound Val_{A^1} which we use as an estimate of the cost of the optimal solution in scenario A^1 .

Bearing the above example in mind, we construct an LP-rounding algorithm that does not rely on the dual bound on the length of the created connections. We use a primal bound, which is obtained by scaling the opening variables a little more and using just a subset of fractionally connected facilities for each client in the process of creating clusters. Such a simple filtering technique, whose origins can be found in the work of Lin and Vitter [19], provides slightly weaker but entirely primal, per-scenario bounds.

Algorithm. As before, we describe a randomized LP-rounding algorithm that transforms the fractional solution (x^*, y^*) into an integral solution (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) ; the expectation of the cost that we compute is over the random choices of the algorithm but not over the random choice of the scenario. Again, we assume that no facility is fractionally opened in (x^*, y^*) in both stages.

Again, define $x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$, and $x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$ as before. However, the set of *first-stage clustered* pairs (j, A) will now be determined differently.

We will now scale the fractional solution by a factor of $\gamma > 2$. Define $\bar{x}_{A,ij} = \gamma \cdot x_{A,ij}^*$, $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} = \gamma \cdot x_{A,ij}^{(1)}$, $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = \gamma \cdot x_{A,ij}^{(2)}$, $\bar{y}_i = \gamma \cdot y_i^*$, and $\bar{y}_{A,i} = \gamma \cdot y_{A,i}^*$. Note that the scaled fractional solution (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) can have facilities with fractional opening of more than 1. For simplicity of the analysis, we do not round these facility-opening

values to 1 but rather split such facilities. More precisely, we split each facility i with fractional opening $\bar{y}_i > \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > 0$ (or $\bar{y}_{A,i} > \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} > 0$) for some (A, j) into i' and i'' such that $\bar{y}_{i'} = \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)}$ and $\bar{y}_{i''} = \bar{y}_i - \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)}$. We also split facilities whose fractional opening exceeds 1.

Define

$$F_{(j,A)}^I = \begin{cases} \operatorname{argmin}_{F' \subseteq \mathcal{F}: \sum_{i \in F'} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} \geq 1} \max_{i \in F'} c_{ij} & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} \geq 1 \\ \emptyset & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} < 1 \end{cases}$$

$$F_{(j,A)}^{II} = \begin{cases} \operatorname{argmin}_{F' \subseteq \mathcal{F}: \sum_{i \in F'} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} \geq 1} \max_{i \in F'} c_{ij} & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} \geq 1 \\ \emptyset & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} < 1. \end{cases}$$

Note that these sets can easily be computed by considering facilities in an order of nondecreasing distances c_{ij} to the considered client j . Since we can split facilities, w.l.o.g., for all $j \in \mathcal{C}$ we assume that if $F_{(j,A)}^I$ is nonempty, then $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^I} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} = 1$, and if $F_{(j,A)}^{II}$ is not empty, then $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^{II}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 1$. Define $d_{(j,A)}^I = \max_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^I} c_{ij}$ and $d_{(j,A)}^{II} = \max_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^{II}} c_{ij}$. Let $d_{(j,A)} = \min\{d_{(j,A)}^I, d_{(j,A)}^{II}\}$.

For a client-scenario pair (j, A) , if we have $d_{(j,A)} = d_{(j,A)}^I$, then we call such a pair *first-stage clustered* and put its *cluster candidate* $F_{(j,A)} = F_{(j,A)}^I$. Otherwise, if $d_{(j,A)} = d_{(j,A)}^{II} < d_{(j,A)}^I$, we say that (j, A) is *second-stage clustered* and put its *cluster candidate* $F_{(j,A)} = F_{(j,A)}^{II}$.

Recall that we use $C_{(j,A)} = \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}^*$ to denote the fractional connection cost of client j in scenario A . Let us now argue that distances to facilities in *cluster candidates* are not too large.

LEMMA 3.4. $d_{(j,A)} \leq \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-2} \cdot C_{(j,A)}$ for all pairs (j, A) .

Proof. Fix a client-scenario pair (j, A) . Assume $F_{(j,A)} = F_{(j,A)}^I$ (the other case is symmetric). Recall that in this case we have $d_{(j,A)} = d_{(j,A)}^I \leq d_{(j,A)}^{II}$. Consider the following two subcases.

Case 1. $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^{II}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 1$. Observe that we have $c_{ij} \geq d_{(j,A)}$ for all $i \in F' = \mathcal{F} \setminus (F_{(j,A)}^I \cup F_{(j,A)}^{II})$. Note also that $\sum_{i \in F'} \bar{x}_{A,ij} = \gamma - 2$ and $\sum_{i \in F'} x_{A,ij}^* = \frac{\gamma-2}{\gamma}$. Hence, $C_{(j,A)} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} x_{A,ij}^* c_{ij} \geq \sum_{i \in F'} x_{A,ij}^* c_{ij} \geq \frac{\gamma-2}{\gamma} \cdot d_{(j,A)}$.

Case 2. $\sum_{i \in F_{(j,A)}^{II}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} = 0$, which implies that $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(2)} < 1$. Observe that now we have $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > \gamma - 1$, and therefore $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{F} \setminus F_{(j,A)}^I} \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > \gamma - 2$. Recall that $c_{ij} \geq d_{(j,A)}$ for all $i \in (\mathcal{F} \setminus F_{(j,A)}^I)$ with $\bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > 0$. Hence, $C_{(j,A)} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} x_{A,ij}^* c_{ij} \geq \sum_{i \in (\mathcal{F} \setminus F_{(j,A)}^I) \bar{x}_{A,ij}^{(1)} > 0} x_{A,ij}^* c_{ij} > \frac{\gamma-2}{\gamma} \cdot d_{(j,A)}$. \square

Like in section 3.3, the algorithm opens facilities randomly in each of the stages with the probability of opening facility i equal to \bar{y}_i in Stage I and $\bar{y}_{A,i}$ in Stage II of scenario A . Some facilities are grouped in disjoint *clusters* in order to correlate the opening of facilities from a single cluster. The clusters are formed in each stage by the following procedure. Let all facilities be initially unclustered. In Stage I, consider all first-stage clustered client-scenario pairs, i.e., pairs (j, A) such that $d_{(j,A)} = d_{(j,A)}^I$

(in Stage II of scenario A , consider all second-stage clustered client-scenario pairs) in the order of nondecreasing values $d_{(j,A)}$. If the set of facilities $F_{(j,A)}$ contains no facility from the previously formed clusters, then form a new cluster containing facilities from $F_{(j,A)}$; otherwise, do nothing. In each stage, open exactly one facility in each cluster. Recall that the total fractional opening of facilities in each cluster equals 1. Within each cluster choose the facility randomly with the probability of opening facility i equal to the fractional opening \bar{y}_i in Stage I or $\bar{y}_{A,i}$ in Stage II of scenario A . For each unclustered facility i , open it independently with probability \bar{y}_i in Stage I and with probability $\bar{y}_{A,i}$ in Stage II of scenario A . Finally, at the end of Stage II of scenario A , connect each client $i \in A$ to the closest open facility.

Analysis. The expected facility-opening cost is obviously γ times the fractional opening cost. More precisely, the expected facility-opening cost in scenario A equals $\gamma \cdot F_A^* = \gamma \cdot \sum_{i \in \mathcal{F}} f_i^I y_i + \sum_i f_i^A y_{A,i}$. It remains to bound the expected connection cost in scenario A in terms of $C_A^* = \sum_{j \in A} \sum_i c_{ij} x_{A,ij}$.

LEMMA 3.5. *The expected connection cost of client j in scenario A is at most $(1 + \frac{2\gamma+2}{\gamma-2} e^{-\gamma}) \cdot C_{(j,A)}$.*

Proof. Consider a single client-scenario pair (j, A) . Observe that the facilities fractionally connected to j in scenario A have the total fractional opening of γ in the scaled facility-opening vector \bar{y} . Since there is no positive correlation (only negative correlation in the disjoint clusters formed by the algorithm), with probability at least $1 - e^{-\gamma}$ at least one such facility will be opened; moreover, by Lemma 3.1 the expected distance to the closest of the open facilities from this set will be at most the fractional connection cost $C_{(j,A)}$.

Just like in the proof of Lemma 3.2, from the greedy construction of the clusters in each phase of the algorithm, with probability 1, there exists facility i opened by the algorithm such that $c_{ij} \leq 3 \cdot d_{(j,A)}$. We connect client j to facility i if no facility from facilities fractionally serving (j, A) was opened. We obtain that the expected connection cost of client j is at most $(1 - e^{-\gamma}) \cdot C_{(j,A)} + e^{-\gamma} \cdot 3d_{(j,A)}$. By Lemma 3.4, this can be bounded by $(1 - e^{-\gamma}) \cdot C_{(j,A)} + e^{-\gamma} \cdot 3 \cdot \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-2} \cdot C_{(j,A)} = (1 + \frac{2\gamma+2}{\gamma-2} e^{-\gamma}) \cdot C_{(j,A)}$ \square

To equalize the opening and connection cost approximation ratios we solve $(1 + \frac{2\gamma+2}{\gamma-2} e^{-\gamma}) = \gamma$ and obtain the following.

THEOREM 3.6. *The described algorithm with $\gamma = 2.4957$ delivers solutions such that the expected cost in each scenario A is at most 2.4957 times the fractional cost in scenario A .*

A note on the rounding procedure. An alternative way of interpreting the rounding process that we described above is to think of facilities as having distinct copies for the first-stage opening and for each scenario of the second stage. In this setting each client-scenario pair becomes a client that may only connect itself to either a first-stage facility or a second-stage facility of the specific scenario. This results in a specific instance of the standard uncapacitated facility location problem, where triangle inequality on distances holds only within certain metric subsets of locations. One may interpret our algorithm as an application of a version of the algorithm of Chudak and Shmoys [5] for the UFL problem applied to this specific UFL instance, where we take special care to create clusters only from facilities originating from a single metric subset of facilities. Such a choice of the clusters is sufficient to ensure that we may connect each client via a 3-hop path to a facility opened in each cluster.

3.6. Strict per-scenario bound. Note that our algorithm is a randomized algorithm with bounded expected cost of the solution. The opening of facilities in the second stage of the algorithm can be derandomized by a standard technique of conditional expectations. However, by simply derandomizing the first stage we would obtain a solution for which the final cost could no longer be bounded as in Theorem 3.6 for every single scenario A . Nevertheless, a weaker but deterministic bound on the connection cost of each client is still possible. Recall that by Lemma 3.4 we have that every client-scenario pair (j, A) client j is certainly connected with cost at most $d_{(j,A)} \leq \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-2} \cdot C_{(j,A)}$. Hence, our algorithm with $\gamma = 2.4957$ has a deterministic guarantee that each client is connected in the final solution at most 15.11 times further than in the fractional solution.

Please note that all the bounds are only based on the primal feasible solution, and hence it is possible to use this approach to add any specific limitations as constraints to the initial linear program. In particular one may introduce budgets for scenarios or even to restrict the connection cost of a selected subset of clients.

There is a natural trade-off between the deterministic bounds and bounds on the expectations. By selecting a different value of the initial scaling parameter we obtain different points on the trade-off curve. In particular, for $\gamma = 5$ we expect to pay for facility opening 5 times the fractional opening cost, the expected connection cost in each scenario will be 1.027 times the fractional connection cost in this scenario, and the deterministic upper bound on the connection cost of a single client will be at most 5 times the fractional connection cost of this client.

There remains the issue of nondeterminism of facility-opening costs. Observe that the second-stage openings may easily be derandomized by the standard conditional expectations method. In the derandomization process it is possible to guarantee that a single linear objective is no more than its expectation. It is hence possible to have such guarantee, e.g., for the Stage II facility-opening plus connection cost.

As mentioned before, it is not trivial to derandomize the Stage I facility openings. If we decide for any fixed openings, we no longer have the per-scenario bound on the expected connection cost. Typically, a fixed Stage I decision favors one scenario over another. Nevertheless, taking the most adversarial point of view, we may decide for $\gamma = 5$, and then for the cheapest possible realization of Stage I facility openings, still the connection costs will be at most 5 times the fractional connection costs. This results in a truly deterministic 5-approximation algorithm in the strongest per-scenario model.

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